

**Ministry of education and science of the Republic of Kazakhstan  
Karaganda State University named after academician E. A. Buketov**



## **Практикалық грамматика және фонетика негіздері**

**Karaganda 2017**

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**1. THE PRODUCTION OF  
SPEECH.  
THE ORGANS OF SPEECH.**

# Contents:

- The Production of speech
- Speech organs
- Exercises



**Speech** is the vocal form of human communication.

o  
y L T F  
P a M h  
G m A D



## The Production of speech

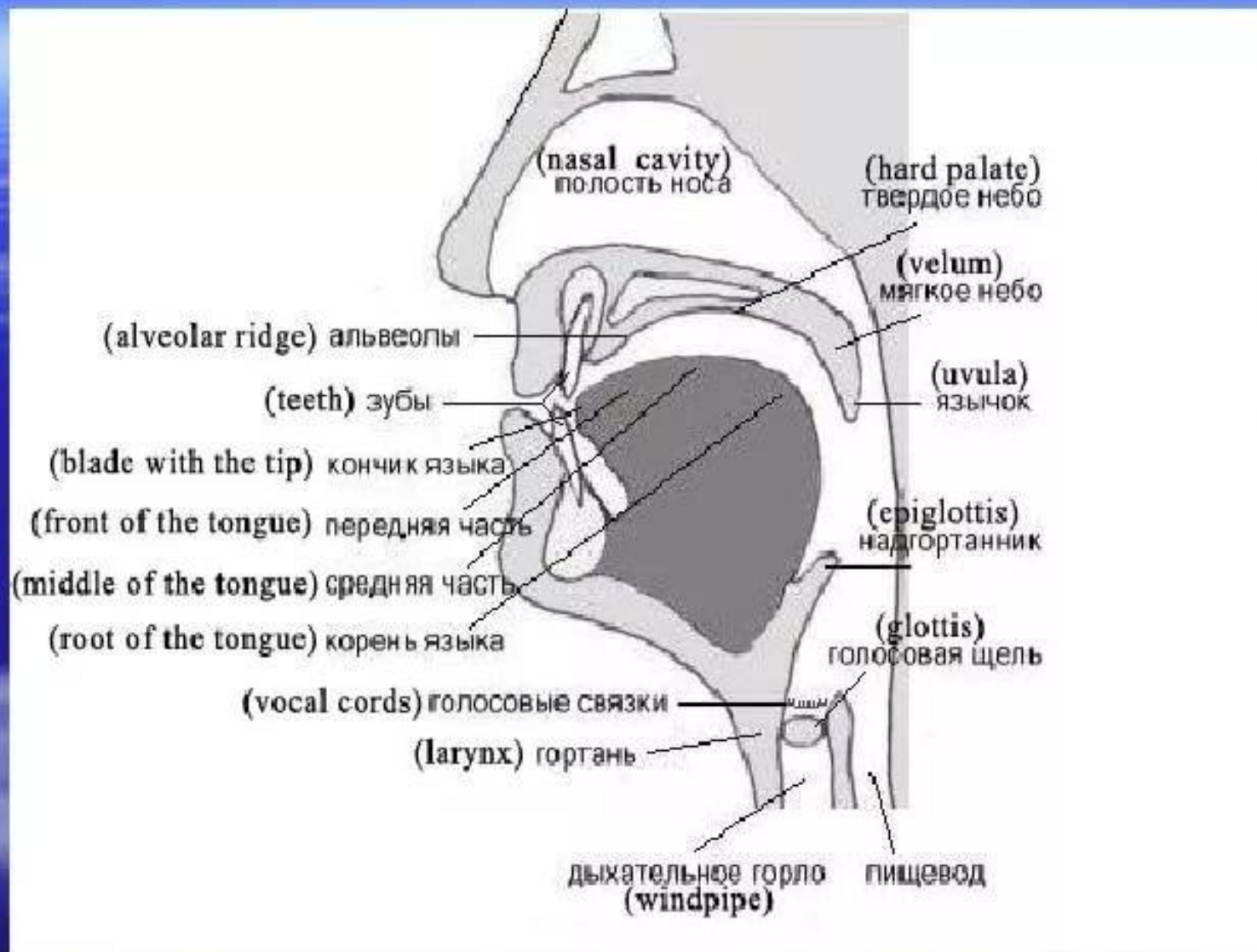
- In linguistics (articulatory phonetics), manner of articulation describes how the tongue, lips, jaw, vocal cords, and other speech organs used to produce sounds, make contact with each other. Often the concept is only used for the production of consonants. For any place of articulation, there may be several manners of articulation, and therefore several homorganic consonants.
- Normal human speech is produced with pressure from the lungs, which creates phonation in the glottis in the larynx, which is then modified by the vocal tract into different vowels and consonants.

# Speech organs

The organs of speech fall into three groupings:

- Respiratory system: Lungsgenerating air stream
- Phonatory system: larynx and vocal folds
- Articulatory system: vocal tract

# THE ORGANS OF SPEECH





# Lungs

- Most human sounds are produced by an egressive pulmonic airstream. i.e. lungs pushing the air outwards
- During speech, the lungs take in air rapidly and let it go slowly.

# Larynx

- Found at the very top of the trachea
- Contains the two vocal folds, one on the left one on the right.

# Vocal folds

- Their outer edges are attached to muscle in the larynx while their inner edges are free.
- If the back end of the vocal folds are held apart, a triangular space opens up between them.
- The space is called glottis.

# Vocal tract

- The air passages above the larynx are known as ‘vocal tract’
- The shape of the vocal tract is very important in the production of speech.
- Made up of:
  - Oral cavity (mouth and pharynx)
  - Nasal cavity
- The parts of the vocal tract that are used to form sounds are called articulators.
- Upper and lower surface

# Vocal tract

- Lips
- Teeth
- Roof of the mouth
  - Alveolar ridge-behind upper teeth
  - Hard palate-bony structure
  - Soft palate or velum-at the back of the mouth
  - Uvula
  - Pharynx –sound production in Arabic



# Vocal tract

- Tongue-five areas:
  - 1) Tip at the very front
  - 2) Blade below the alveolar ridge
  - 3) Front below the hard palate
  - 4) Back below the soft palate
  - 5) Root towards the rear wall of the pharynx

The image features a white rectangular area in the center, framed by a decorative border. The border consists of autumn leaves in shades of orange, red, and yellow at the top and bottom. On the right side, there is a stack of books with a small globe on top. On the left side, there are colorful pencils. The background behind the white area is a light blue sky with some faint clouds.

**In summary:**

**Speech** is the verbal means of communicating.

# I. Exercises for the Opening of the Mouth

1. Keep the mouth closed with the lips pressed together
2. Drop the lower jaw as low as possible. The mouth should be wide open (Fig. 3).
3. Come back to the (a)-position.
4. Continue practising the exercise.



## **II. Keep the mouth closed with the lips pressed together.**

1. Open the mouth as wide as one third of the opening.
2. Open the mouth even one third wider. The separation of the jaws is considerable.
3. Drop the lower jaw as low as you can so that the opening of the mouth could be the widest.
4. Come back to the (a)-position.
5. Continue doing this exercise.

## **2. NOUNS**

# Contents:

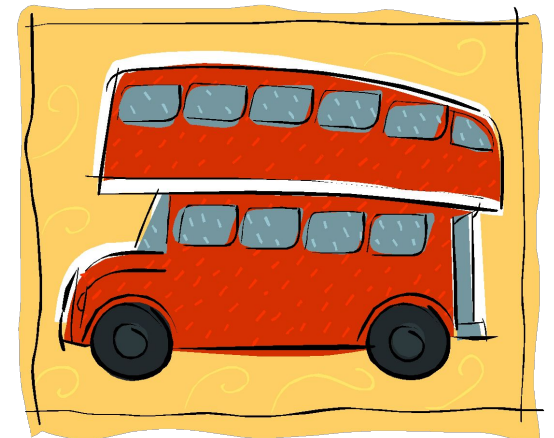
- Noun
- Countable nouns
- Uncountable nouns
- Exercises

# NOUNS

- A noun is a word for a person, place, or thing. (You might like to think of nouns as "naming" words.) Everything we can see or talk about is represented by a word that names it. That "naming" word is called a noun.

# COUNTABLE NOUNS

- Nouns which can be counted and have a singular and plural form
- We put **a/an** before countable nouns in the singular
- **a** + consonant sound  
**an** + vowel sound



# COUNTABLE NOUNS

a pear



two pears



# COUNTABLE NOUNS

an apple



many apples



# UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS



- nouns which cannot be counted and they usually have no plural
- **food:** cheese, butter, sugar, meat, jam etc.
- **liquids:** coffee, water, milk, tea, oil etc.
- **materials:** gold, iron, wood, paper etc.
- **abstract nouns:** beauty, love, sadness etc.





# UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS



Be careful! These nouns are usually uncountable:

information, advice, weather, news, bread, hair, furniture, work



# UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

- They are followed by a verb in the singular
- We do not use a/an or one but we can use **some**



# UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

some meat

There **is** some meat on  
the table



some milk

There **is** some milk  
in the glass



## Exercise 1: Listen and complete the chart

<b>Countable nouns</b>	<b>Uncountable nouns</b>

1. rice
2. potato
3. information
4. man
5. bread

6. poetry
7. mile
8. vegetable
9. weather
10. sheep

## Exercise 1: Listen and complete the chart

<b>Countable nouns</b>	<b>Uncountable nouns</b>
2	1
4	3
7	5
8	6
10	9

1. rice
2. potato
3. information
4. man
5. bread

6. poetry
7. mile
8. vegetable
9. weather
10. sheep

## Exercise 2: Decide whether these nouns are countable (C) or uncountable (U)

1. The **children** are playing in the garden.
2. I don't like **milk**.
3. I prefer **tea**.
4. **Scientists** say that the environment is threatened by pollution.
5. My mother uses **butter** to prepare cakes.
6. There are a lot of **windows** in our classroom.
7. We need some **glue** to fix this vase.
8. The **waiters** in this restaurant are very professional.
9. My father drinks two big **glasses** of water every morning.
10. The **bread** my mother prepares is delicious.
11. **Drivers** must be careful; the road is slippery.
12. Some **policemen** are organizing road traffic to avoid any accidents.
13. I bought three **bottles** of mineral water for our picnic.
14. I'd like some **juice** please!
15. Successful **candidates** will join the camp later this year.

## Exercise 2: Decide whether these nouns are countable (C) or uncountable (U)

1. The **children** are playing in the garden. **C**
2. I don't like **milk**. **U**
3. I prefer **tea**. **U**
4. **Scientists** say that the environment is threatened by pollution. **C**
5. My mother uses **butter** to prepare cakes. **U**
6. There are a lot of **windows** in our classroom. **C**
7. We need some **glue** to fix this vase. **U**
8. The **waiters** in this restaurant are very professional. **C**
9. My father drinks two big **glasses** of water every morning. **C**
10. The **bread** my mother prepares is delicious. **U**
11. **Drivers** must be careful; the road is slippery. **C**
12. Some **policemen** are organizing road traffic to avoid any accidents. **C**
13. I bought three **bottles** of mineral water for our picnic. **C**
14. I'd like some **juice** please! **U**
15. Successful **candidates** will join the camp later this year. **C**

**3. Indefinite pronouns:  
some/any and their derivatives**



# Contents:

- Indefinite pronouns: some/any
- Exceptions for some
- Exceptions for any
- Their derivatives
- Exceptions for their derivatives

# Indefinite pronouns: some/any

**Some**

**+**

(Несколько, какие-нибудь, сколько-нибудь)

**in affirmative sentences**

She has *some* friends in England.  
I have *some* ice-cream for you.  
There are *some* pears on a tree.  
There is *some* jam in a jug.  
Give me more *some* water.

**Any**

**?, -**

(Несколько, какие-нибудь, сколько-нибудь)

**In interrogative and negative sentences**

Does he has *any* friends in England?  
Do you have *any* ice-cream for me?  
She does not have *any* friends.  
I do not need *any* cake.  
Have you bought *any* sugar?



# Exceptions for some

**Some (and not any) can be used in special questions, as well as in general questions in which something is suggested**

*Why didn't you buy some cheese?*

*(Почему вы не купили сыр?)*

*Would you like some chocolate?*

*(Не хотите шоколада?)*

*Can I have some more tea?*

*(Можно мне еще чая?)*

# Exceptions for some

**Some with the meaning of «некоторые»,  
with the meaning «часть» used in both  
affirmative, and in interrogative and negative  
sentence**

*Have you read some stories in this book?*

*(Читали ли вы некоторые рассказы в той  
книге?)*

*I haven't yet a spoken about it to some of the first-year  
students.*

*(Я еще не разговаривал об этом с некоторыми  
студентами первого курса)*



# Exceptions for any

**Any can be used in an affirmative sentence with the meaning “любой, всякий”**

*You can get this book at any bookshop.*

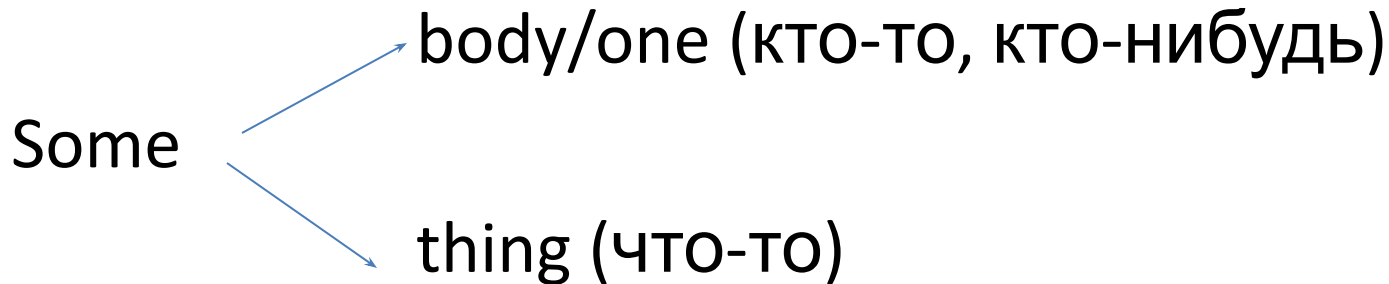
*(Вы можете достать эту книгу в любом книжном магазине)*

*You may come at any time that is convenient to you*

*(Вы можете придти в любое время, которое вам удобно)*



# Their derivatives



**Like some, somebody, someone, something pronouns are used in affirmative sentences**

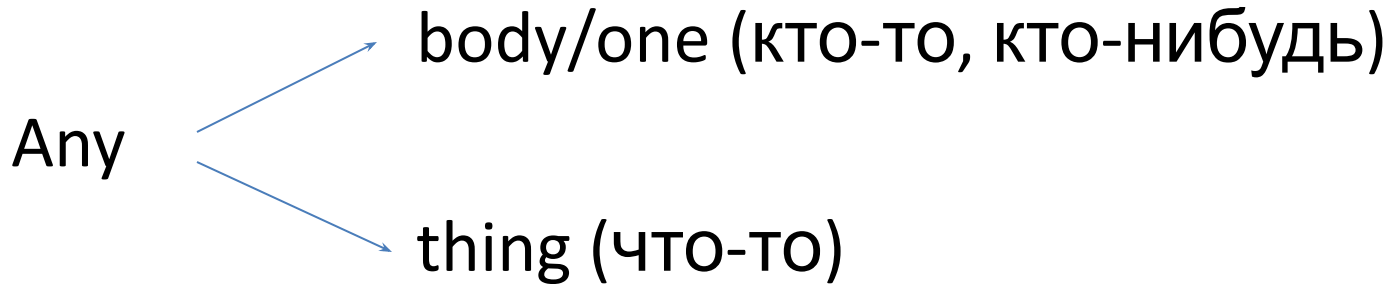
*Somebody (someone) is knocking at the door.*

*Кто-то стучит в дверь.*

*Give me something to read.*

*Дайте мне что-нибудь почитать.*

# Their derivatives



**Like any, the pronouns anyone, anybody, anything are used in negative sentences, and in general questions.**

*There isn't anybody (anyone) there.*

*Там никого нет.*

*Did you see anybody (anyone) there?*

*Видели ли вы там кого-нибудь?*



# Exceptions for their derivatives

**Somebody, someone and something (and not anyone, anybody, anything) are used in special questions, as well as in general questions in which something is suggested**

*Why didn't you ask somebody to help you?*

*(Почему вы не попросили кого-нибудь помочь вам?)*

*Will have something to eat?*

*(Кто-нибудь поможет мне?)*



# Exceptions for their derivatives

Anyone, anybody, anything can be used, either in affirmative or in negative sentences with the meaning “**ВСЯКИЙ, ЛЮБОЙ**”

*Anybody can do that.*

*Любой может это сделать.*

*May I play anything I like?*

*Могу я сыграть все, что я хочу.*



***Exercise 1. Choose the correct answer.***

Liz is shopping. She wants to buy (anything / some / any) new clothes. She wants to buy (some / any / something) nice and (some / any) new shoes, but she can't find (something/ anything / anybody) that she likes. She is also looking for a present. She wants to buy ( anybody / something) special for her friend.

***Exercise 2. Complete the sentences with  
some/any.***

There is \_\_\_\_\_ tea in the crystal glass, but it  
is very hot.

Are there \_\_\_\_\_ tasty apples in the bag?

There isn't \_\_\_\_\_ jam on the round plate.

Did they ship \_\_\_\_\_ of the wheat yesterday?

You can get this book at \_\_\_\_\_ bookshop.

# **4. ARTICULATION OF SOUNDS**

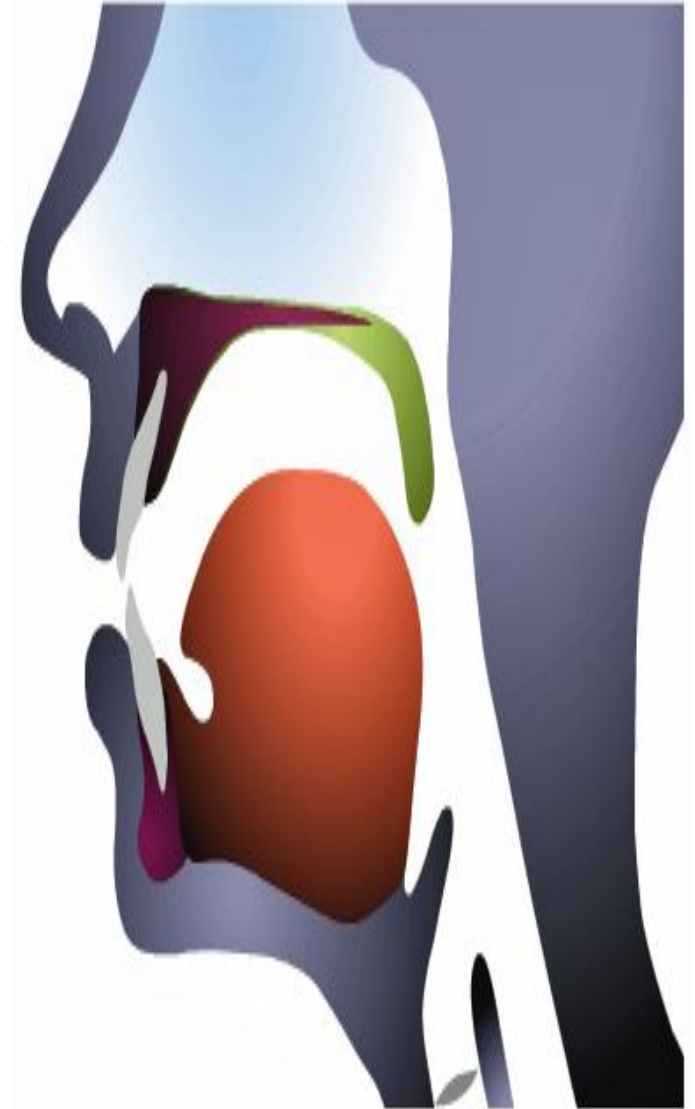
# Contents:

- Introduction
- Organs of speech
- The respiratory or power mechanism
- The vibratory mechanism
- Resonator mechanism
- Obstruction mechanism
- How sounds are classified
- Tongue-twisters

# Introduction

The term articulation refers to the bio-mechanical process of altering the flow of air through the vocal tract to produce sounds.

Sounds are described not by how they sound to the ear, but rather how they are produced in the vocal tract. In the posts below dealing with the different sounds in English, they are so named, and each sound is described based on how the vocal organs interact with each other in producing each specific sound. In fact, the word articulate actually means move. Sounds are produced by moving the articulators (things that can be moved) within the vocal tract (lips, tongue, etc). Terminology relating to the vocal organs, articulators, and points of articulation is defined below.



# Organs of speech

## The respiratory or power mechanism

Organs which are active directly or indirectly in the process of speech production are called *organs of speech*. In accordance with their linguistic function the organs of speech may be grouped as follows:

**The respiratory or power mechanism** furnishes the flow of air which is the first requisite for the production of speech sounds. This mechanism is formed by the lungs, the wind-pipe and the bronchi. The air –stream expelled from the lungs provides the most usual source of energy which is regulated by the power mechanism. Regulating the force of the air-wave the lungs produce variations in the intensity of speech sounds. Syllabic pulses and dynamic stress, both typical of English are directly related to the behaviour of the muscles which activate this mechanism.

# The vibratory mechanism

From the lungs through the wind-pipe the air-stream passes to the upper stages of the vocal tract. First of all it passes to the larynx containing the vocal cords which form **the vibratory mechanism**. If the vocal cords are closed so that they can touch each other lightly, the air passing between them causes them to vibrate, and the sound is voiced. By moving the vocal cords wide open we can stop the vibration, and make the sound voiceless. The space between the vocal cords is called glottis, and the sounds are made are called glottal; in English there are two of them: one is a voiceless fricative like a sigh before a stressed vowel [ h ] in *high*, and the other is a glottal stop[ʔ], plosive made at the glottis by the vocal cords when they are pressed tightly together, as in [ bʌt(ə )n] *button*.



# Resonator mechanism

**Resonator mechanism.** The vocal tract above the larynx starts with a passage way called pharynx. Then the vocal tract divides: one passage way goes up into the nasal cavity, and the other into the mouth cavity. We can close off the access to the nasal cavity by rising the **soft palate** (also called **velum**), and then the air will go through the mouth, and the sound will be **oral** (most English and Russian), or we can lower the soft palate and allow the air to go into the nasal cavity, in which case the sound will be **nasal** [m, n, ]. The extreme end of the velum is a small piece of tissue called the **uvula** which plays a part in the pronunciation of some languages: French for instance, has a **uvular** sound [R].

# Obstruction mechanism

**Obstruction mechanism.** Inside the mouth there are many parts called **articulators** which are used in speaking. The **tongue**, the **lower jaw** and the **lips** can move and make contact with the immobile **palate** (the roof of the mouth), the **alveolar ridge** and the **teeth**. The principle parts of the tongue are the **tip**, **blade**, **front**, **centre**, **back** and **root**.

# How sounds are classified

The fundamental distinction between consonants and vowels is that consonants make some obstruction to the flow of air, while vowels make relatively little obstruction.

**Consonants** are classified in terms of the following factors:

- state of the vocal cords (**voiced** - [b], [d], [g], [v], [z], [ð ], [ʒ ], [dʒ ] or **voiceless** - [p], [t], [k], [f], [s], [ʃ ], [θ ], [tʃ ])
- position of the soft palate (**nasal** [m], [n], [ŋ ] or **oral** [b], [d], [g], [v], [z], [ð ], [ʒ ], [dʒ ], [p], [t], [k], [f], [s], [ʃ ], [θ ], [tʃ ], [w], [l], [r], [j])
- place of articulation (**labial:** *bilabial* [p], [b], [m], [w]; *labio-dental* [f],[v], **coronal:** *dental* [θ],[ ð], [s], [z], *alveolar* [t], [d], [l], [n], *palato-alveolar* [ʃ], [ʒ], [tʃ], [dʒ], *retroflex* [r], **dorsal:** *palatal* [j], *velar* [k], [g], [ŋ], **glottal** [h], [ʔ])
- manner of the production of noise (**stops:** *nasal stops* [m], [n], [ŋ], *oral stops* [b], [d], [g], [p], [t], [k], *fricatives* [f], [v], [s], [z], [h], [θ], [ð], [ʃ], [ʒ], *approximants* [w], [l], [r], [j])

# Tongue-twisters

Unique New York  
New York Unique

To sit in solemn silence in a dull dark dock  
In a pestilential prison with a life long lock  
Awaiting the sensation of a short sharp shock  
From a cheap and chippy chopper on a big black block

Red Leather, Yellow Leather

She says she shall sew a sheet

# **5. THE ADJECTIVE**

## **THE DEGREE OF COMPARISON**

# Contents:

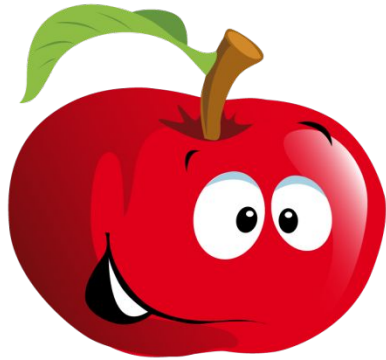
- What is Adjective
- Kinds of adjectives
- **Syntactical characteristics of adjective**
- **Morphological composition of the adjective**
- **The degree of comparison**
- **Exercises**

*Adjectives describe nouns by answering one of these three questions: What kind is it? How many are there? Which one is it?*

*What is Adjective?*

*The adjective denotes some characteristic of an object, interpreted either as a quality (positive or negative, objective or subjective), or as a space, time, quantity etc. coordinate.*

*Adjectives are words that describe or modify other words, making your writing and speaking much more specific, and a whole lot more interesting.*



*What kind of this apple?  
This is red apple.*



*How many puppies? Three!*

*The students who neglected to prepare for Mrs. Mauzy's English class hide in the cafeteria rather than risk their instructor's wrath.*

*Which students? Not the good students but the lazy slackers.*



## *There are several kinds of adjectives*

*Demonstrative* (указательный): *this, these, that, those*

*Indefinite* (неопределенный): *some, any*

*Negative* (отрицательный): *no*

*Distributive* (разделительный): *each, every, either, neither*

*Quantitative* (количественный): *some, any, no, little, few, many, much*

*Interrogative* (вопросительный): *which, what, whose*

*Possessive* (притяжательный): *my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their*

*Of quality* (качества): *good, red, simple, political, medical, remarkable, easy, beautiful etc.*

## *Syntactical characteristics of adjective*

*The adjective has the following syntactical characteristics: in a sentence the adjective may be used as an **attribute** or as a **predicative**.*

*An adjective can be put before the noun. Then it is an attribute.*

person	thing
Mandy is a <b>careful girl</b> .	This is a <b>nice car</b> .

*An adjective can be put after the verb to be (is). This is called **predicative position**.*

person	thing
The girl <b>is careful</b> .	This car <b>is nice</b> .

## *Morphological composition of the adjective.*

*Adjectives are divided into **simple, derivative and compound.***

*1. Simple adjectives are adjectives which have neither prefixes nor suffixes: e. g. **good, red, black.***

*2. Derivative adjectives are adjectives which have derivative elements, suffixes or prefixes or both: **beautiful, foolish, hopeless, unkind, unimportant.***

*Adjective forming suffixes are:*

***-less: friendless, harmless, hopeless***

***-like: childlike***

***-ish: childish, foolish***

***-ed (-d): beaded, blue-eyed***

***-able: manageable***

***-ful: beautiful***

***-ant: important***

***-ent: dependent***

***-en: woollen***

***-ous: dangerous***

***-some: troublesome***

*Adjective-forming prefixes are:*

*un-: unhappy*

*pre-: prewar*

*in-: incorrect*

*il-: illegal*

*im-: immoral*

*ir- irregular*

*dis-: dishonest*

3. *Compound adjectives are adjectives built from two or more stems:  
dark-blue, snow-white*

# ***The degree of comparison***

*The forms assumed by an adjective to show that a quality may exist in various degrees with two objects or with one and the same object at different times are called degrees of comparison. There are three degrees of comparison in English:*

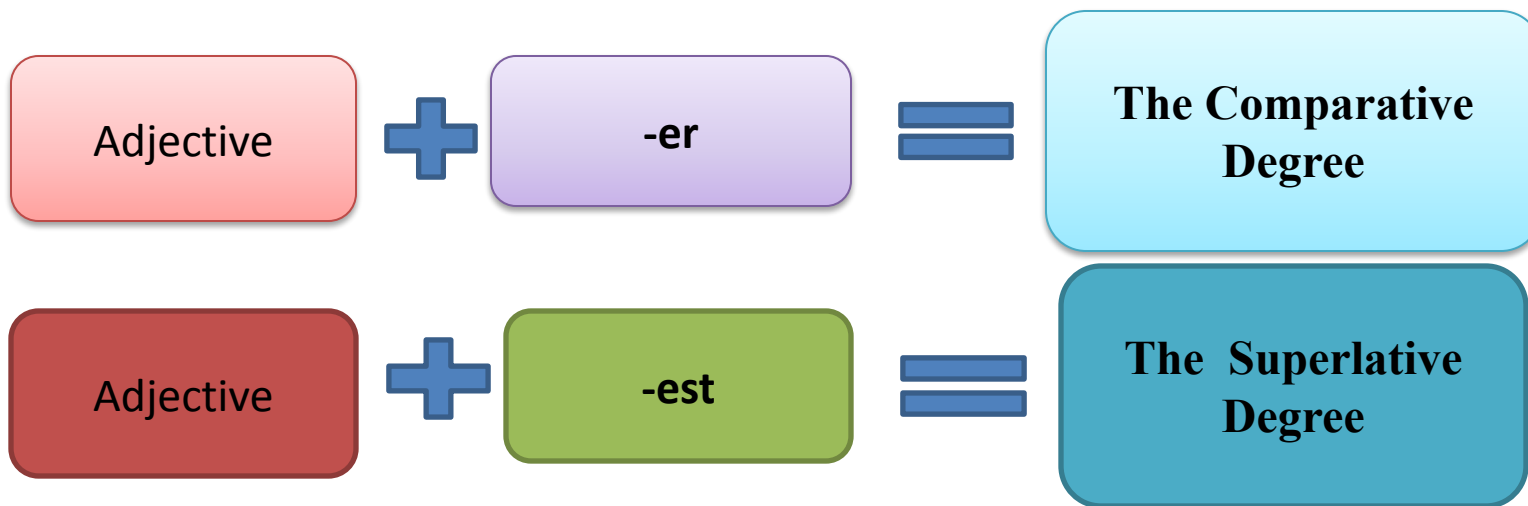
- a) the positive degree;*
- b) the comparative degree;*
- c) the superlative degree.*

The Dnieper is a long river (**long** —*the positive degree is the basic form of the adjective*)

The Volga is longer than the Dnieper (**longer** -*the comparative expresses a comparison between two or more objects*)

The Volga is the longest river in Europe (**longest** – *The superlative shows that the quality of an object is in its highest degree*)

## *The degree of comparison of simple adjectives:*



small	smaller	(the) smallest
clean	cleaner	(the) cleanest
new	newer	(the) newest
dry	drier	(the) driest
long	longer	(the) longest
big	bigger	(the) biggest
fat	fatter	(the) fattest

*In order to transform the word ending with letter 'y', we need to replace 'y' with 'i' and then add “er” such as:*

*lovely-lovelier*

*happy-happier*

*pretty-prettier*

*tasty-tastier*

*lucky-luckier*

*In order to transform the word ending with letter 'y', we need to replace 'y' with 'i' and then add “est” such as:*

*lovely-loveliest*

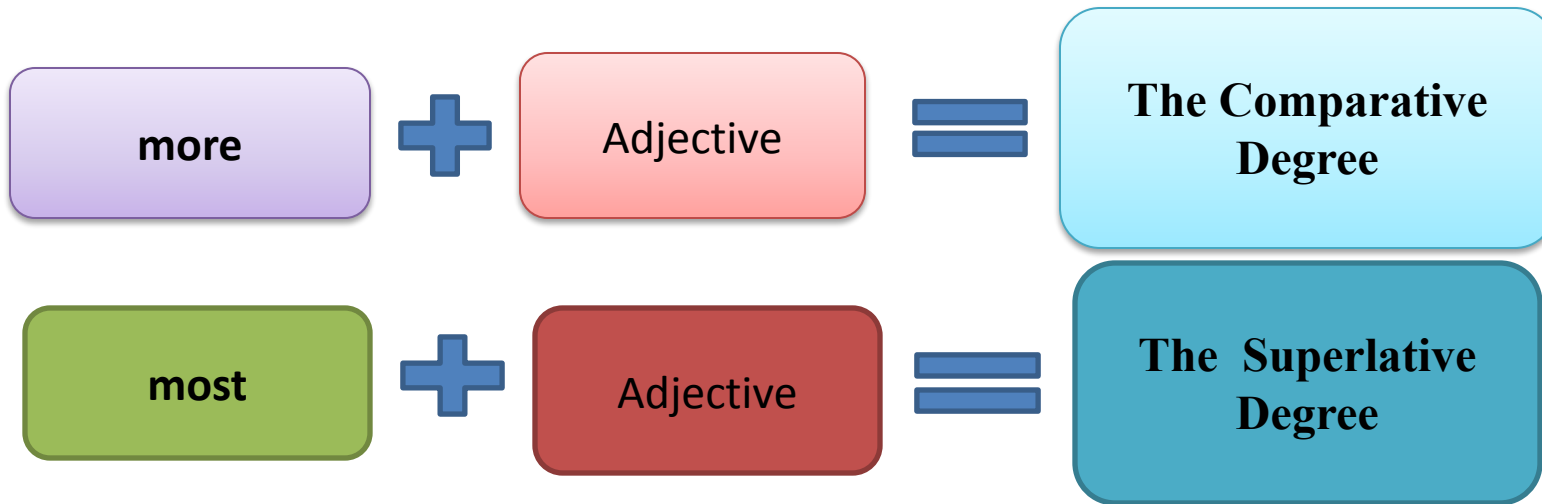
*happy-happiest*

*pretty-prettiest*

*tasty-tastiest*

*lucky-luckiest*

*Formation of the degree of comparison of complex adjectives or consisting of three or more syllables:*



important	more important	the most important
interesting	more interesting	the most interesting
difficult	more difficult	the most difficult
careful	more careful	the most careful



*Some adjectives form degrees of comparison from another root:*

<b>Normal form</b>	<b>Comparative form</b>	<b>Superlative form</b>
good	better	the best
bad	worse	the worst
much, many	more	the most
little	less	the least
far	farther <u>further</u>	the farthest <u>the furthest</u>

**1. Complete the following sentences using the correct degree of the adjective given in the brackets.**

1. My brother's handwriting is ..... (bad) mine.
2. Health is ..... wealth. (important)
3. Blood is ..... water. (thick)
4. Everest is ..... peak in the world. (high)
5. This is ..... play I have ever heard on the radio. (interesting)
6. Susie is ..... of all the four sisters. (beautiful)
7. The planet Mars is ..... from the earth than the satellite Moon.  
(far)
8. The elephant is ..... animal in the world. (large)
9. An ocean is certainly ..... a sea. (big)
10. I am ..... in cricket than in football. (interested)

**Answers**

1. My brother's handwriting is **worse than** mine.
2. Health is **more important than** wealth.
3. Blood is **thicker than** water.
4. Everest is **the highest peak** in the world.
5. This is **the most interesting** play that I have ever heard on the radio.
6. Susie is **the most beautiful** of all the four sisters.
7. The planet Mars is **farther** from the earth than the satellite moon.
8. The elephant is **the largest** animal in the world.
9. An ocean is certainly **bigger than** a sea.
10. I am **more interested** in cricket than in football.

2. Choose the superlative adjective in each group of sentences:

A. I like dark coffee.

B. This is the fastest car I've ever driven.

C. I'd like darker curtains.

A. This is good ice cream.

B. Meet Sue, my younger sister.

C. Of all the options available, this seems to be the best one.

A. This is a better play than the last one.

B. The box was blue, and oddly shaped.

C. This is the most exciting thing I've ever experienced!

*Answers*

2. Choose the superlative adjective in each group of sentences:

A. I like dark coffee.

**B. This is the fastest car I've ever driven.**

C. I'd like darker curtains.

A. This is good ice cream.

B. Meet Sue, my younger sister.

**C. Of all the options available, this seems to be the best one.**

A. This is a better play than the last one.

B. The box was blue, and oddly shaped.

**C. This is the most exciting thing I've ever experienced!**

# **6. THE SOUNDS OF SPEECH. SOUNDS AND PHONEMES**

# Contents:

- Acoustic and articulatory aspects of speech sounds
- The phoneme. Its functions
- The system of English phonemes
- Transcription

# Acoustic and articulatory aspects of speech sounds.

Acoustically, speech sound is a physical phenomenon produced by the vibration of the vocal cords and perceived due to the vibration of the layers of air which occur at the rate of 16 to 20 thousand times per second. This is a limit of human hearing. Sound has a number of physical properties, as:

- 1) frequency - the number of vibrations per second;
- 2) intensity - variation in the loudness of a sound;
- 3) duration the length of the sound.

To analyze a speech sound articulatory some data of articulatory mechanism and its work should be introduced.



# Speech is impossible without the following four mechanisms:

- 1) the power mechanism which consists of the diaphragm, the lungs, the bronchi, the windpipe, the glottis, the larynx, the mouth cavity and the nasal cavity;
- 2) the vibrator mechanism which includes the vocal cords (they are in the larynx);
- 3) the resonator mechanism which consists of the pharynx, the larynx, the mouth cavity and nasal cavity;
- 4) the abstractor mechanism which consists of the tongue (its blade, tip, front and back), the lips, the teeth, the soft palate with uvula, the hard palate, the alveolar ridge.

# The phoneme. Its functions

Speech sounds are grouped into language units called **phonemes**. A phoneme may be thought of as the smallest contrastive language unit which exists in the speech of all people belonging to the same language community in the form of speech sounds and may bring about a change of meaning.

The founder of the phoneme theory was the Russian scientist Baudouin de Courtenay (1845-1929). His views were later developed and perfected by his follower L.V. Scherba, who separated phonetics from phonology and stated that sounds are not only articulatory and acoustic units but that they also possess functional properties. Scherba stated that in actual speech we utter a much greater variety of sounds than we are aware of. To know how sounds are produced by speech organs is not enough to describe and classify them as language units. When we talk about the sounds of a language, the term "sound" can be interpreted in two rather different ways. In this case linguists use two separate terms: "phoneme" to mean "sound" and "allophone" for sounds which are variants of a phoneme, they usually occur in different positions in the word; can't contrast with each other and be used to make meaningful distinctions.

# The phoneme can be considered from the point of view of its three aspects.

**Firstly**, the phoneme is a functional unit, that is, the role of the various components of the phonetic system of the language in distinguishing one morpheme from another, one word from another or also one phrase from another. The opposition of phonemes serves to distinguish the meaning of morphemes and words: E.g. said - says, bath-path, light – like and the whole phrase: E.g. He was heard badly. - He was hurt badly.

**Secondly**, the phoneme is material, real, and objective. That means that it is realized in speech of all English speaking people in the form of speech sounds, its allophones. The set of speech sounds (the allophones belonging to the same phoneme) are not identical in their articulation though there remains some phonetic similarity between them:

In isolation is plosive, forelingual, alveolar, voiced. But it is slightly palatalized before front vowels and sonorant e.g. day, did;

- is pronounced without any plosion before another plosive e.g. bedtime, bad pain;
- is pronounced with nasal plosion before nasal sonorants [n] and [m] e.g. sudden, admit;
- followed by voiced-alveolar [r] it also becomes post-alveolar e.g. dry, dream.

**Thirdly**, allophones of the same phoneme, no matter how different their articulation may be, function as the same linguistic unit. The question arises why phonetically native speakers seldom observe differences between the allophones of the same phoneme. The reason is that the phonemes have an important function in the language, they differentiate words; allophones have no such functions, they occur in different positions in the word.

In speech the phoneme serves to perform three functions:

- a) constitutive, because sounds constitute words, phrases and sentences;
- b) distinctive, because sounds help to distinguish them;
- c) recognitive, that is, its allophones help to recognize words, phrases and sentences.

Phonetics studies sounds as articulatory and acoustic units. Phonology investigates them as units which serve people for communicative purposes. Both phonetics and phonology are closely connected.

The phoneme is a functional unit. That means that being opposed to other phonemes in the same phonetic context it is capable of differentiating the meaning, eg:

pie — tie

Are you fond of this cut?

or

lot — lit

Are you fond of this cart?

The phoneme is realized in speech in the material form of speech sounds of different type. Various speech realizations of the phoneme are called its **allophones**. The difference between the allophones of the same phoneme is due to their position in various phonetic contexts. For example, the consonant [d] in the isolated position as well as in such a sound sequence as [dot] is a lenis voiced stop articulated with the tip of the tongue against the teeth ridge. In the position before an interdental constrictive [θ] as in breadth it is formed with the tip of the tongue against the upper teeth, when [d] is followed by the post-alveolar [r] as in *dry* the tip of the tongue is placed behind the teeth ridge.

# The system of English phonemes

There are two major classes of sound traditionally distinguished by phoneticians in most languages. They are termed consonants and vowels.

Articulatory difference between vowels and consonants depend on the three criteria;

- 1) the presence or absence of an obstruction to the air in the larynx;
- 2) the concentrated or diffused character of muscular tension;
- 3) the force of exhalation.

On the basis of these criteria consonants may be defined as sounds in the production of which there is an obstruction to the air, muscular tension is concentrated in the place of obstruction, the exhaling force is strong.

Phoneticians suggest to classify vowels according to the following principles:

1. Stability of articulation;
2. Tongue position;
3. Lip position;
4. Degree of tenseness and the character of the end of a vowel;
5. Length.



According to the stability of articulation vowels are subdivided into:

a) monophthongs (simple vowels) which are pronounced with more or less stable lip, tongue and the mouth walls position. They are [i,e,u,a:].

b) diphthongoids, vowels which end in a different element. There are two diphthongoids in English [i:,u:].

c) diphthongs, which consist of two elements: the nucleus and the guide. They are [ei, ai, oi, au, ou, is].

2. According to the tongue position scientists divide vowels according to the horizontal and vertical movement of the tongue.

According to the horizontal movement of the tongue vowels are subdivided into:

front: [i:], [e], [se] and the nuclei of the diphthongs [ei], [eə]; front-retracted: [i] and the nucleus of the diphthong [is]; central: [ʏ], [ə], [ɜ:] and the nucleus of the diphthong [əɪ]; back: [o,o:,u:,a:] and the nucleus of the diphthong [oi]; back-advanced: [u] and the nucleus of the diphthong [ʊ].

According to the vertical movement of the tongue vowels are subdivided into:

close (high): [i],[i:], [u], [u:] and the nuclei of diphthongs [ɪə];

mid (half-open): [e, ə, ɜ:] and nuclei of diphthongs [ei], [au];

open (low): [o], [o:], [a:], [as] and the nuclei of diphthongs [au], [ai],[oi], [eə].

3. According to the lip position vowels are classified into: rounded (labialized): [u], [u:], [o], [o:] and unrounded (non-labialized): all the rest.

4. According to the degree of tenseness traditionally long vowels are defined as tense and short as lax, and according to the character of the vowel end they can be defined as checked (when a stressed vowel is followed by a strong voiceless consonant) and free (when a stressed vowel is followed by a weak voiced consonant or no consonant at all).

5. According to the length vowels are classified into historically long [i:, a:, o:, u:] and historically short [i, e, o, u, a].

# Transcription

The system of phonetic notations is generally termed as "transcription".

Transcription is a set symbols representing speech sounds. The symbolization of sounds naturally differ according to whether the aim is to indicate the phoneme or to reflect the modification of its allophones as well.

The International Phonetic Association gives the following types of transcription:

a) broad or phonemic which provides special symbols for all the phonemes of a language;

b) narrow or allophonic which suggests special symbols including some information about articulatory activity of particular allophonic features.

The broad transcription is mainly used for practical purpose, the narrow serves for research work.

# **7. Numerals and Pronouns**

# Contents:

- What is the numerals?
- Types of numerals:
- *Cardinal numerals*
- *Ordinal numerals*
- *Multiplicative numerals*
- *Decimal numbers*
- *Fractions*
- *And percentages.*
- Examples
- What is a pronoun?
- Types of pronouns.
- Examples.



# What is the numerals?

*Numerals* in English is a part of speech that defines the number or the order of items.

1 6 2  
5 8  
4 9  
7 10

# TYPES OF NUMERALS

- ***Cardinal Numerals:*** are used to refer to a size of a group (one, two, ...)
- ***Ordinal Numerals:*** are used to refer to a position in a sequence or order (first, second, ...)
- ***Multiplicative Numerals:*** are used to express how many times something happened or exists (once, twice, ...)

# CARDINAL, ORDINAL, AND MULTIPLICATIVE NUMERALS [1]

CARDINAL	ORDINAL	MULTIPLICATIVE
1 one	<b>1st first</b>	<b>once</b>
2 two	<b>2nd second</b>	<b>twice</b>
3 three	<b>3rd third</b>	three times / <b>thrice</b>
4 four	4th fourth	four times
5 five	5th <b>fifth</b> (× five)	five times
6 six	6th sixth	six times
7 seven	7th seventh	seven times
8 eight	8th eighth	eight times
9 nine	9th <b>ninth</b> (× nine)	nine times
10 ten	10th tenth	ten times

**Numerals written in bold are irregular in form or spelling.**



# CARDINAL, ORDINAL , AND MULTIPLICATIVE NUMERALS [2]

CARDINAL	ORDINAL	MULTIPLICATIVE
11 eleven	11th eleventh	eleven times
12 twelve	12th <b>twelfth</b> (× twelve)	twelve times
13 <b>thirteen</b> (× three)	13th thirteenth	thirteen times
14 fourteen	14th fourteenth	fourteen times
15 <b>fifteen</b> (× five)	15th fifteenth	fifteen times
16 sixteen	16th sixteenth	sixteen times
17 seventeen	17th seventeenth	seventeen times
18 <b>eighteen</b> (× eight)	18th eighteenth	eighteen times
19 nineteen	19th nineteenth	nineteen times
20 twenty	10th <b>twentieth</b> (× twenty)	twenty times

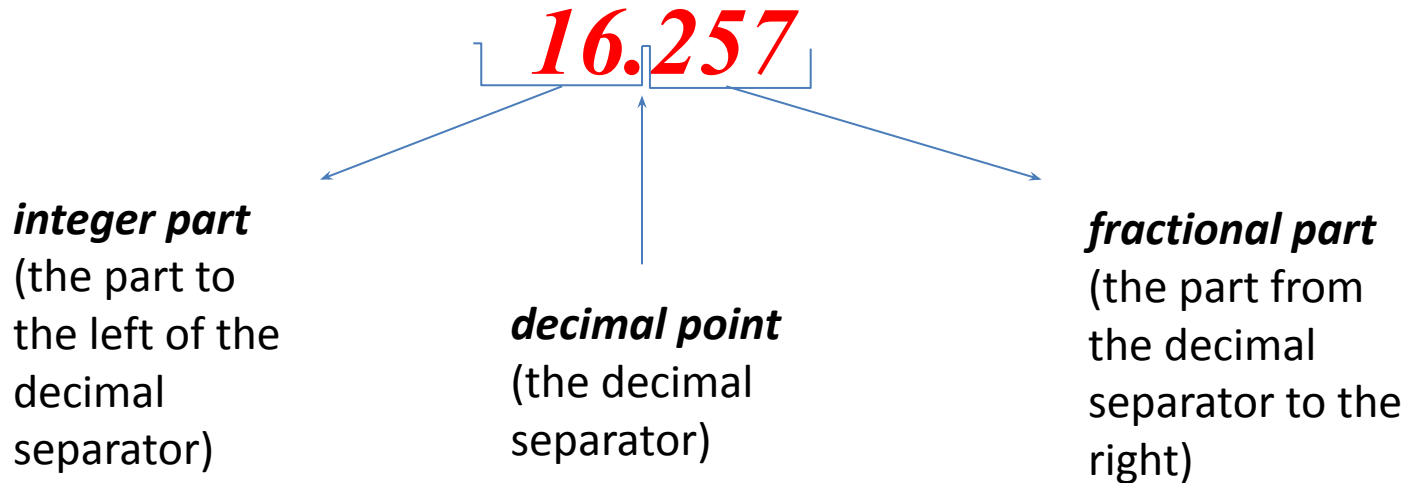
**Numerals written in bold are irregular in form or spelling.**

# CARDINAL, ORDINAL, AND MULTIPLICATIVE NUMERALS [3]

CARDINAL	ORDINAL	MULTIPLICATIVE
21 twenty-one	21st twenty-first	twenty-one times
22 twenty-two	22nd twenty-second	twenty-two times
23 twenty-three	23rd twenty-third	twenty-three times
24 twenty-four	24th twenty-fourth	twenty-four times
...	...	...
30 <b>thirty</b> (× three)	30th <b>thirtieth</b> (× thirty)	thirty times
...	...	...
35 thirty-five	35th thirty-fifth	thirty-five times
40 <b>forty</b> (× four)	40th <b>fortieth</b> (× forty)	forty times
50 <b>fifty</b> (× five)	50th <b>fiftieth</b> (× fifty)	fifty times
60 sixty	60th <b>sixtieth</b> (× sixty)	sixty times
70 seventy	70th <b>seventieth</b> (× seventy)	seventy times
80 <b>eighty</b> (× eight)	80th <b>eightieth</b> (× eighty)	eighty times
90 ninety	90th <b>ninetieth</b> (× ninety)	ninety times
100 a/one hundred	100th a/one hundredth	a/one hundred times

# DECIMAL NUMBERS

*Example:*

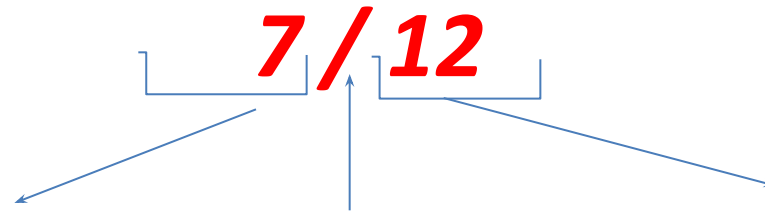


*the integer part is read as a whole number the decimal point is pronounced 'point' in the fractional part the numbers are read one by one*

*This example: sixteen point two five seven.*

# FRACTIONS

*Example:*



*numerator      line or slash      denominator*

*The numerator is read as an cardinal number and the denominator as an ordinal number:*

*1 / 3 one third; 1 / 5 one fifth; 1 / 10 one tenth*

*If the numerator is different from one, the ordinal number is in plural:*

*2 / 3 two thirds; 3 / 5 three fifths; 7 / 10 seven tenths*

*Irregular fractions:*

*1 / 2 one half; 1 / 4 one quarter*

*Large fractions: are read numerator over denominator (where both numerator and denominator are read as cardinal).*

*13 / 75 thirteen over seventy-five*

# PERCENTAGES

*Percentages* are usually denoted by the *percent* sign ( %) or the abbreviation *pct.*

In British English *percent* is sometimes written as two words (*per cent*); in American English it is usually one word.

1 % one percent,

5 % five percent,

10.2 % ten point two percent.

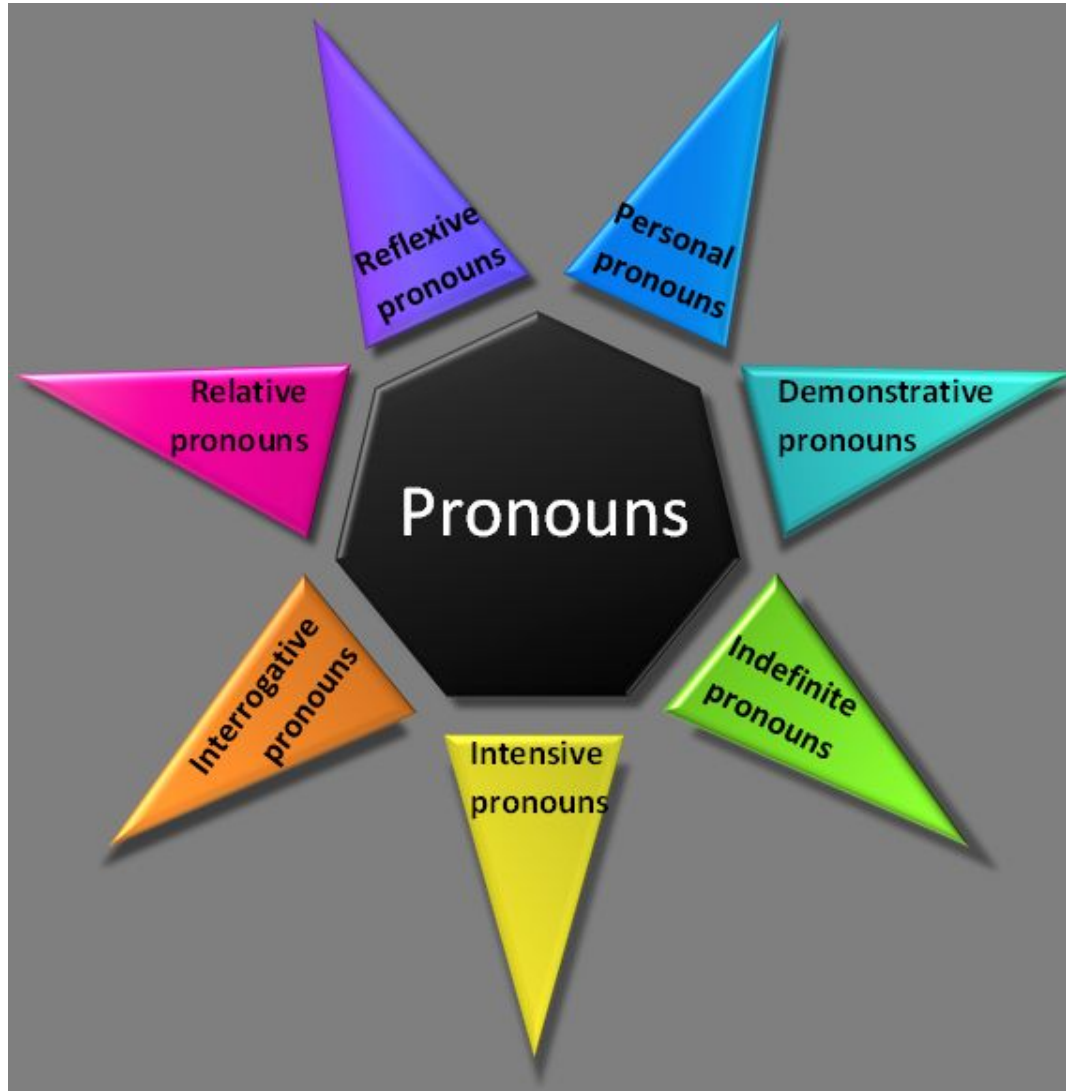
# EXAMPLES

Written	Said
$3.04+2.02=5.06$	Three point zero four plus two point zero two equals five point zero six.
There is a 10% chance of rain.	There is a ten percent chance of rain.
I live at 4604 Smith Street.	I live at forty-six o four Smith Street.
He became king in 1409.	He became king in fourteen o nine.
The temperature is $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$ .	The temperature is twenty degrees below zero.
You can reach me at 0171 390 1062.	You can reach me at zero one seven one, three nine zero, one zero six two.
$\frac{1}{3}+\frac{2}{3}=1$	One third plus two thirds equals one.

# What is a Pronoun?

- *A pronoun* is defined as a word or phrase that may be substituted for a noun or noun phrase, which once replaced, is known as the pronoun's antecedent. How is this possible? In a nutshell, it's because pronouns can do everything that nouns can do. A pronoun can act as a subject, direct object, indirect object, object of the preposition, and more.

# Types of pronouns





# Personal pronouns

A personal pronoun is a pronoun that is associated primarily with a particular person, in the grammatical sense. Personal pronouns can be the subject of a clause or sentence. They are: *I, he, she, it, they, we,* and *you*. Example: “They went to the store.”

Personal pronouns can also be objective, where they are the object of a verb, preposition, or infinitive phrase. They are: *me, her, him, it, you, them,* and *us*. Example: “David gave the gift to her.”

# Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns are used to show possession. As they are used as adjectives, they are also known as possessive adjectives. *My, your, his, her, its, our* and *there* are all possessive pronouns.

- Have you seen her book?

# Reflexive pronouns

There is one more type of pronoun, and that is the reflexive pronoun. These are the ones that end in “*self*” or “*selves*”. They are object pronouns that we use when subject and object are the same noun.

- I told myself not to spend all my money on new shoes.
- My friend really hurt himself when he tripped on the stairs.

# Demonstrative Pronouns

There are five demonstrative pronouns: *these*, *those*, *this*, *that*, and *such*. They focus attention on the nouns that are replacing.

- Such was his understanding.
- Those are totally awesome.

# Interrogative pronouns

These pronouns are used to begin a question:  
*who, whom, which, what, whatever, whoever, whomever, whatever* and *whichever*.

- What are you bringing to the party?

# Indefinite pronouns

These pronouns do not point to any particular nouns, but refer to things or people in general. Some of them are: *few, everyone, all, some, anything*, and *nobody*.

- Everyone is already here.

# Relative pronouns

These pronouns are used to connect a clause or phrase to a noun or pronoun. These are: *who*, *whom*, *which*, *whoever*, *whomever*, *whichever*, and *that*.

- The driver who ran the stop sign was careless.

# Examples

- *I* really like watching old shows. *Those* are some of the best things on TV.
- Please hand me *that*.
- *This* is some of the nicest weather we've had lately.
- After the parade, *everyone* met up in the town square.
- Would *you* like *something* to drink.
- *I* searched all over, but couldn't find my notes *anywhere*.
- *Which* flavor do you prefer?
- *I* heard someone at the door but wasn't sure *whom* it was
- *What* do you want for lunch?
- *I* slipped on the sidewalk and hurt *myself*.
- The kids rode the rollercoaster by *themselves*.
- *She* bought *herself* a new car.
- *I* am learning to speak better English.
- Thanks for the package! Please leave *it* on the table.
- Ben was surprised when *he* discovered that *his* friends were hiding in the living room.



# 8. Consonants

# Contents:

- Consonants
- Classifying consonants
- Examples

# Consonants

- When sounding *consonants*, air flow is interrupted or limited by the position of the tongue, teeth or lips.
- The majority of letters in the alphabet are consonant letters. Most consonant letters have only one sound and rarely sound like their name.

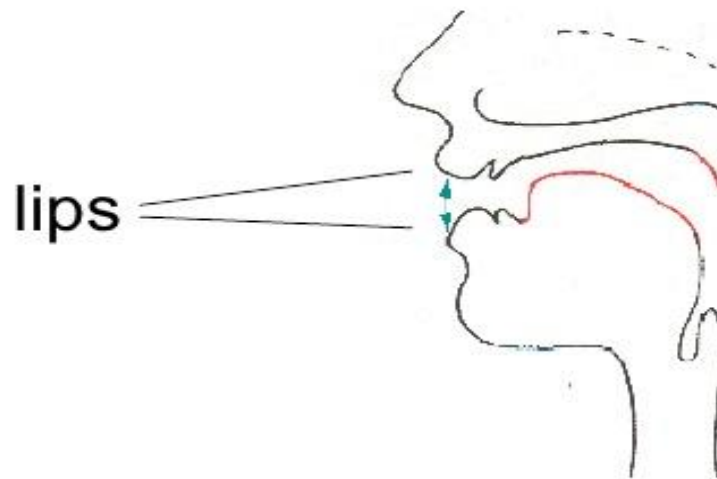
# Classifying consonants

- Voiced or voiceless
- Place of articulation
- Manner of articulation

# Voiced or voiceless

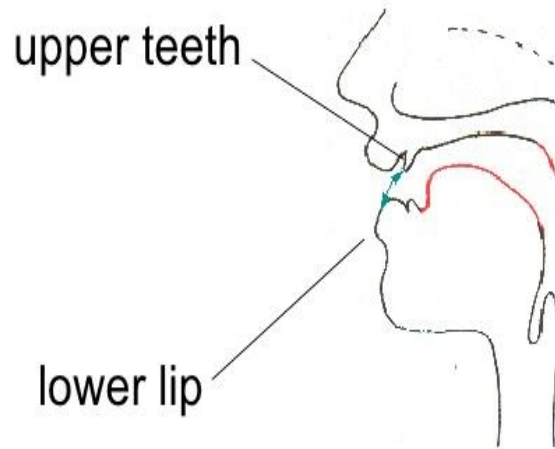
- Voiced consonants: [ **b** , **v** , **g** , **d** , **z** , **l** , **m** , **n** , **r** ]
- Voiceless consonants [ **k** , **p** , **s** , **t** , **f** , **tʃ** , **ʃ** , **θ** , **h** ]

## Some places of articulation: bilabial consonants



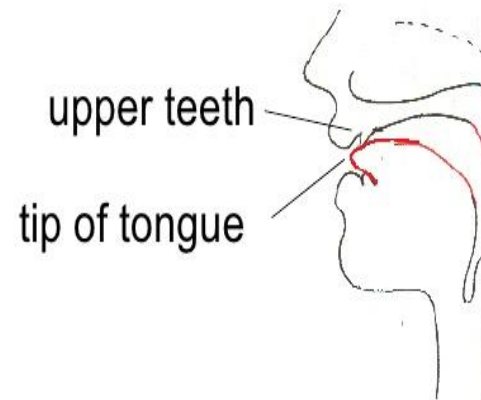
**p** *pie*   **b** *buy*   **m** *mute*   **w** *wood*

## Labiodental consonants



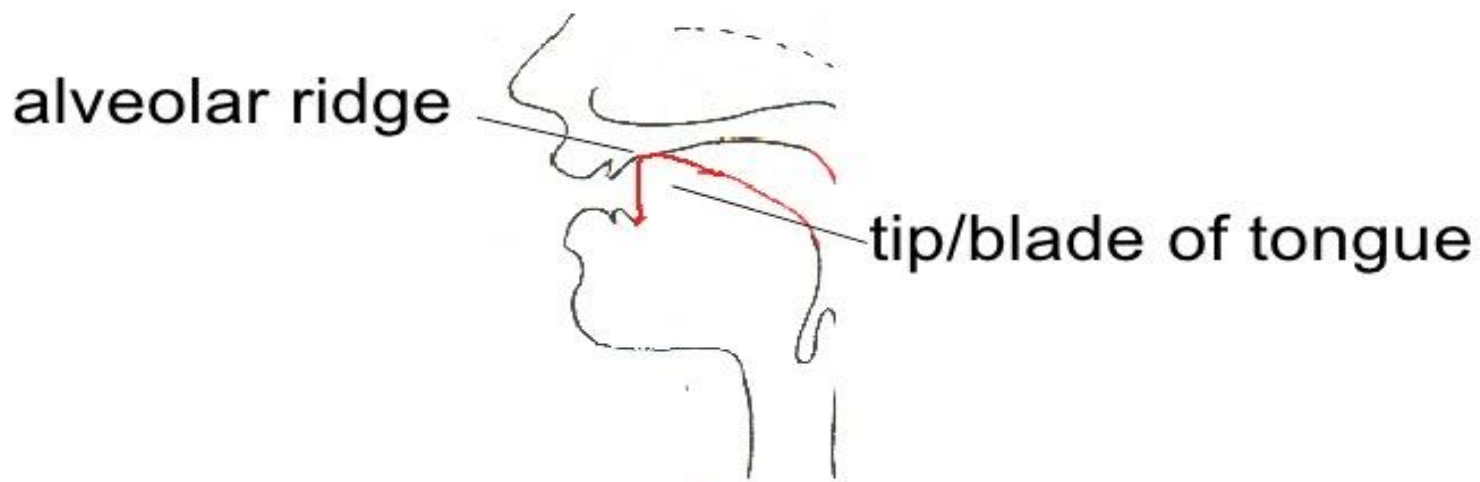
f *fine* v *vine*

## Dental consonants



θ *thin* ð *this*

# Alveolar consonants



**t** *t*ie      **d** *d*ie

**S** *S*ue      **Z** *z*oo

**n** *n*ight      **l** *l*ight



## Post-alveolar / palato-alveolar consonants

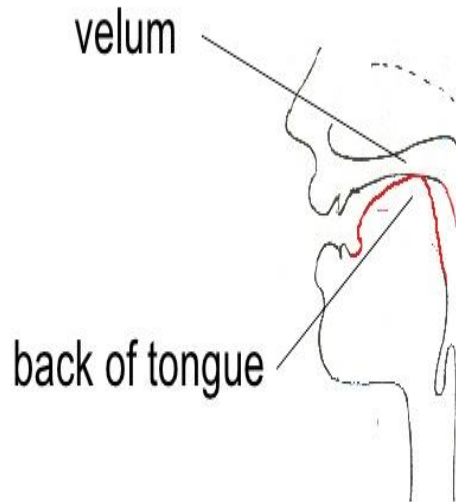


ʃ *shoe, pressure*      ʒ *pleasure*

tʃ *cheap*      dʒ *jeep*      r *rack*

—

## Velar consonants



**k** curl   **g** girl   **ŋ** rang

## Palatal consonants



**j** yes

Some manners of articulation:  
plosive or stop consonants



Bilabial: p **b**



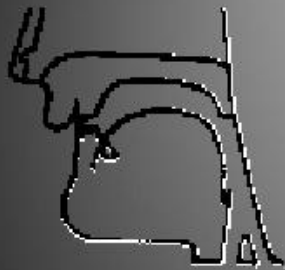
Alveolar: t **d**



Velar: k **g**



## Fricative consonants



Labiodental: f v

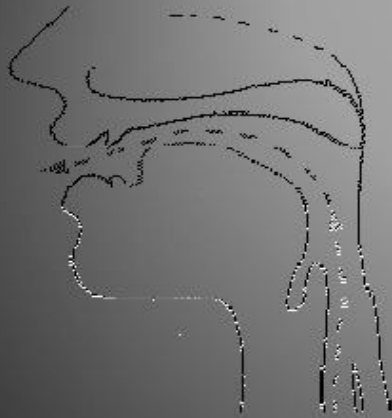


Alveolar: s z



Palato-alveolar or  
post-alveolar: ʃ ʒ

## Oral consonants



(Velum is raised, directing air out through the oral cavity)

## Nasal consonants



(Velum is lowered, allowing air to enter the nasal cavity)

## Nasal consonants



Bilabial: **m**



Alveolar: **n**



Velar: **ŋ**

## Other consonants

- ▶ Affricates (a combination of stop + fricative):  
tʃ = voiceless post-alveolar affricate  
dʒ = voiced post-alveolar affricate
- ▶ Approximants (articulators approach each other but do not touch): w r j
- ▶ Lateral (also called lateral approximant; air flows over sides of tongue): l



# Examples

- S: A voiceless, alveolar, (central), (oral) fricative
- K: A voiceless, velar plosive/stop
- T: A voiceless, alveolar plosive/stop



# 9. Questions: Types of questions



# Contents:

- General question
- Alternative question
- Special question
- Tag question
- Question to the subject

# 5 types of questions

A general question

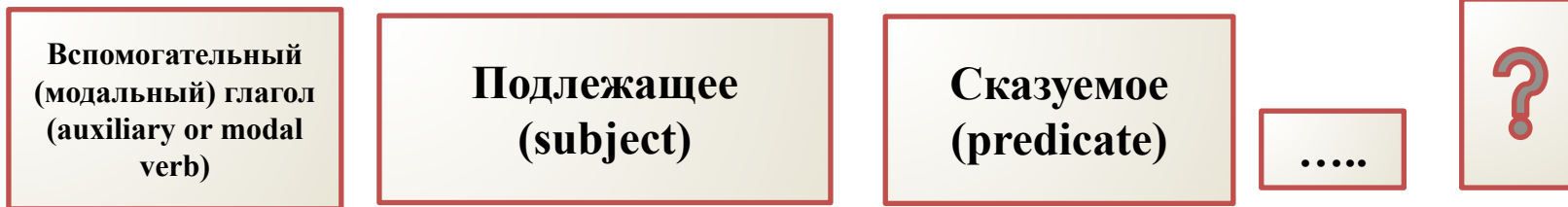
A special question

Question to the subject

An alternative question

A disjunctive (tag) question

# General question



**To be**

**Is** he doing his homework?

**Am** I losing my mind?

**Present  
simple**

**Do** you go to the swimming pool every day?

**Past  
Simple**

**Did** you buy that dress?

**Did** she go to the party yesterday?

**Future  
Simple**

**Will** she go to the cinema ?

**Can, May,  
Must**

**Can** you give me some advice?

**May** I go out?

**Must** I do this exercise?

# An alternative

## question

Вспомогательный  
(модальный)  
глагол  
(auxiliary or modal  
verb)

Подлежащее  
(subject)

Сказуемое  
(predicate)

...

or

...



**To be**

**Is** he doing homework **or** exercise?

**Present  
simple**

**Do** you go to the swimming pool **or** tennis every day?

**Past  
Simple**

**Did** you buy that dress **or** those trousers?

**Did** she go to the party **or** to the park yesterday?

**Future  
Simple**

**Will** she go to the cinema **or** theatre?

**Can, May,  
Must**

**Can** you drive a car **or** motor bike?

**May** I close the door **or** window?

**Must** I do **or** read this exercise?

# A special question

**Вопросительное слово**  
(interrogative word)

**Вспомогательный (модальный) глагол**  
(auxiliary or modal verb)

**Подлежащее**  
(subject)

**Сказуемое**  
(predicate)

...



*what*  
*who*  
*whom*  
*whose*  
*which*  
*why*  
*when*  
*where*  
*how*  
*How*  
*much*  
*how*  
*long*  
*how*  
*often*

What	do	you	do?		— I am a student.
Where	do	you	live?		— (I live) in Moscow.
When	does	he	get up	in the morning?	— At about 7 o'clock.
How long	does	it	take	you to get here?	— Half an hour.
How often	do	you	go	shopping?	— Every other day.
How well	does	she	know	English?	— Rather well.
Why	do	you	study	Physics?	— I like it.
Which (drink)	does	she	prefer?		— Juice.
What kind of (books)	do	they	read?		— Different books.
How much	does	it	cost?		— 20\$.
Who	does	she	teach?		— Foreign students.

# A disjunctive (tag) question

## Tag-question

*Вам понравился фильм, не правда ли?*

*Ты будешь скучать по школе, не так ли?*

*Ты смог это прочитать, да?*

подлежащее

сказуемое – смысловой глагол в нужном времени и форме

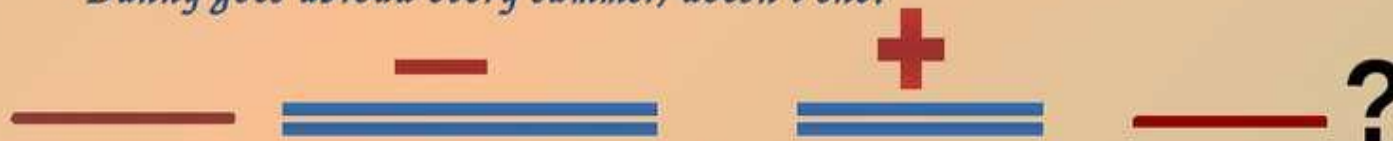
вспомогательный (модальный) глагол, соответствующий времени и форме смыслового глагола

местоимение, заменяющее подлежащее



*You enjoyed the film, didn't you?*

*Danny goes abroad every summer, doesn't she?*



*Mary won't become angry, will she?*

*Children can't swim in the lake, can they?*

# Question to the subject

## SUBJECT QUESTION:

A subject question asks about **the subject** of the sentence

The clown is selling balloons

subject

Who is selling balloons?

subject

The clown is.

subject

We do NOT change the word order of the question.





# EXERCISES

**Make question to these sentences and write them down in the boxes provided.**

- 1) The book is on the table. (Where?) \_\_\_\_\_
- 2) The pupils are on the lesson. (General) \_\_\_\_\_
- 3) She is writing an exercise.(What?) \_\_\_\_\_
- 4) I cooked dinner for my parents yesterday. (Why?) \_\_\_\_\_
- 5) The shop is visited by thousands of people. (Alternative: museum?) \_\_\_\_\_
- 6) Her dogs are eating. (Whose?) \_\_\_\_\_
- 7) There are some cushions on the sofa. (What colour?) \_\_\_\_\_
- 8) My friend has been to Germany twice. (How many times?) \_\_\_\_\_
- 9) The book helps to understand people. (Tag) \_\_\_\_\_
- 10) The neighbors were on holidays last month. (When?) \_\_\_\_\_
- 11) We've just bought the house. (Who?) \_\_\_\_\_
- 12) The statue was made of marble. (What...of?) \_\_\_\_\_
- 13) Mike has a sister. (General) \_\_\_\_\_

*Ask alternative questions with the following words. Give answers.*

- *Example: She (get up) early/late? — Does she get up late or early? — She gets up early.*
1. He (go) to work by bus/by train?
  2. Classes (start) in the morning/in the afternoon?
  3. His mother (work) as a bank manager/as an economist?
  4. Jacky (like) classical music/jazz?
  5. The shop (close) at 5/at 6 p.m.?
  6. His friends (watch) television/go out in the evenings?
  7. You (play) the guitar/the piano?

## **Ask questions to the subject**

---

- Sally bought new shoes for the party.
- They had five lessons last Tuesday.
- The rabbit ran away.
- He cleaned his room in the morning.
- The film finished at 7.
- Sam read an interesting book yesterday.

# **10.Vowels: Principles of classification**

# Contents:

- About vowels
- Monophthongs
- Diphthongs
- Diphthongoids

***Vowels*** are normally made with the air stream that meets no closure or narrowing in the mouth, pharyngeal and nasal cavities. That is why in the production of vowel sounds there is no noise component characteristic of consonantal sounds.

***On the articulatory level the description of vowels notes changes:***

- 1.in the stability of articulation,***
- 2.in the tongue position,***
- 3.in the lip position,***
- 4.in the character of the vowel end.***

# *VOWELS*

*Monophth*  
*ongs*

*Diphtho*  
*ngs*

*Diphthong*  
*oids*

# Monophthongs

- Monophthongs are vowels the articulation of which is almost unchanging. The quality of such vowels is relatively pure. Most Russian vowels are monophthongs. The English monophthongs are:
  - [i] is front-retracted, close (broad variant), unrounded, short.
  - The tongue is in the front part of the mouth but slightly retracted. The part of the tongue nearer to centre than to front is raised to a half-close position. The side rims of the tongue make a light contact with the upper teeth. The tongue is lax. The lips are loosely spread. The mouth is slightly in. This vowel may occur in all positions in the word, eg interesting, boring, city etc.
  - The vowel [i] is longer in the open syllable when it is free. It is shorter in the closed syllable with a weak voiced consonant at the end. It is checked and much shorter in the stressed closed syllable ending in a strong voiceless consonant, f e river- pig-sit.
  - In unstressed syllables it is increasingly common to use [ɪ] instead of [i].



- [e] is front, mid (narrow variant), unrounded, short.
- The tongue is in the front part of the mouth. The front of the tongue is raised to the hard palate but not so high as for [i]. The side rims of the tongue make a light contact with the upper teeth. The tongue may be more tense than in the case of [i]. The lips are loosely spread. The mouth is slightly open but a bit more than for [i].
- This vowel may occur in various positions within the open syllables, eg many, head, left.
- The vowel [e] is longer in the closed syllable with a weak voiced consonant at the end. It is checked and much shorter in the stressed closed syllable ending in a strong voiceless consonant, for example bed-bet.
- [бабочка] is front, open (broad variant), unrounded.
- The mouth is more open than for [e]. The tongue is in the front part of the mouth. The front of the tongue is rather low in the mouth. The side rims of the tongue make a very slight contact with the back upper teeth. The tongue is more tense than in the case of [e].
- This vowel occurs only in closed syllables, eg sad, bad, back, lack.
- The vowel [бабочка] appears to be much longer before weak consonants, especially before [b,d,g,m,n, dg].

# Monophthongs

Monophthongs are *short, non-gliding vowel sounds*.

e.g. fat thin hot

Notice that the vowel sound in each of these words is short, and does not change.

# Diphthongs

- In the pronunciation of diphthongs the organs of speech glide from one vowel position to another within one syllable. The starting point, the nucleus, is strong and distinct. The glide which shows the direction of the quality change is very weak. In fact diphthongs consist of two clearly perceptible vowel elements. There are no diphthongs in Russian. The English diphthongs are:
  - [ei] the nucleus of the diphthong is front, mid (narrow variant), unrounded.
  - The nucleus is the vowel [e]. For the glide the tongue moves upward in the direction of [i] and the mouth gets closer. The lips are spread.
  - The diphthong [ei] occurs in all positions in the word, f ex aim, plate, say.
  - The nucleus of the diphthong [ei] is longer in the open syllable, it is shorter in the closed syllable with a weak consonant at the end and much shorter in the closed syllable ending in a strong voiceless consonant, f ex lay-laid-late.
  - [ai] the nucleus of the diphthong is central, open (broad variant), unrounded.
  - The sound starts from the advanced vowel [a] with the mouth wide open and the lips neutral. For the glide the tongue moves upward in the direction of [i], with the mouth very narrowly open and the lips spread and not rounded.
  - The sound [ai] occurs in all positions of the word, f ex ice, time, fly.
  - In the open syllables the nuclear of the diphthong is the longest, it is shorter in the closed syllable followed by a weak consonant, and it is the shortest in the closed syllable before a strong voiceless consonant, f ex tie-tied-tight.
  - [oi] the nuclear of the diphthong is back, open (narrow variant), slightly rounded.

# Diphthongoids

- In the pronunciation of diphthongoids the articulation is slightly changing but the difference between the starting point and the end is not so distinct as it is in the case of diphthongs. There are 2 diphthongoids in English: [i:,u:]. The initial «o» may serve as an example of a Russian diphthongoid, f ex *очень*.
- [I:] is front, close (narrow variant), unrounded, long.
- The tongue is in the front part of the mouth. The front of the tongue is rather high in the mouth. The vowel is noticeably diphthongized, especially in open syllables. The tongue glides from a position nearer to the vowel [i] to a more advanced and high position. The tongue is tense, the side rims of it make a firm contact with the upper teeth. The lips are spread.
- This vowel may occur in all kinds of syllables, f ex *bee, leave, eat*.
- The vowel [I:] is definitely longer in the open syllable when it is free. It is shorter in the closed syllable with a weak voiced consonant at the end. It is checked, and much shorter in the stressed closed syllable ending in a strong voiceless consonant, f ex *be-bead-beat*.
- [u:] is back, close (narrow variant), rounded, long.
- The tongue is in the back part of the mouth. The back of the tongue is rather high in the mouth. The vowel is noticeably diphthongoized. The tongue glides from a position nearer to [u] to a more retracted and high position. No firm contact is made between the rims of the tongue and the upper teeth. The tongue is tense. The lips are very closely rounded. The mouth is open only very little. The vowel is long.
- This vowel occurs in all kinds of syllables, f ex *do, cool, fruit*.
- The vowel [u:] is definitely longer in the open syllable when it is free. It is shorter in the closed syllable with a weak voiced consonant at the end. It is checked and much shorter in the stressed closed syllable ending in a strong voiceless consonant, f ex *who-move-roof*.

**Try saying these words:** (the diphthongs are in red)

B**ro**wn

f**ai**r

sh**are**

sl**ow**

g**uy**

b**oy**

**ou**ch

aw**ay**

e**ye**

Read the exercise paying attention to the differences in the articulation of the

monophthongs and diphthongs

<i>men – mane</i>	<i>tack – take</i>	<i>hat – height</i>	<i>pin – pine</i>
<i>pen – pain</i>	<i>sat- saint</i>	<i>fat – fight</i>	<i>film – fine</i>
<i>wet – wait</i>	<i>cat – Kate</i>	<i>sad – side</i>	<i>myth – mine</i>
<i>sell – sail</i>	<i>fat – fate</i>	<i>man – mine</i>	<i>fifth – five</i>
<i>pepper –</i>	<i>plan – plain</i>	<i>dad – died</i>	<i>tip – type</i>
<i>paper</i>	<i>not – no</i>	<i>love – low</i>	<i>burn – bone</i>
<i>pot – point</i>	<i>god – go</i>	<i>done – dole</i>	<i>turn – tone</i>
<i>spot – spoilt</i>	<i>hot – home</i>	<i>son – snow</i>	<i>learn – alone</i>
<i>John – join</i>	<i>stock – stone</i>	<i>London –</i>	<i>curly – cozy</i>
<i>toss – toys</i>	<i>rock – robe</i>	<i>lonely</i>	<i>work – woke</i>
<i>olive – oil</i>		<i>front – froze</i>	

# 11. THE ARTICLE



# Contents:

- What is article?
- The indefinite article
- The definite article
- “Zero” article





# What is article?

- An article is a word that is utilized with a thing to show the kind of reference being made by the thing. Articles determine linguistic definiteness of the thing, in a few dialects stretching out to volume or numerical degree.
- The words **a** or **an** and **the** are called **articles**. Articles come before nouns.

# THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE

- The article **a** or **an** is called the **indefinite article** because it doesn't state which person or thing we are talking about.
- For example, *a doctor* means *any doctor*.
- A child means any child.

# THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE



a

If it is followed by a word beginning with a consonant sound

a book

a flag



an

If it is followed by a word beginning with a vowel sound

an arm<sup>y</sup>

an hour's walk

# THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE

**A** carrot



**An** orange



## The indefinite article is used:

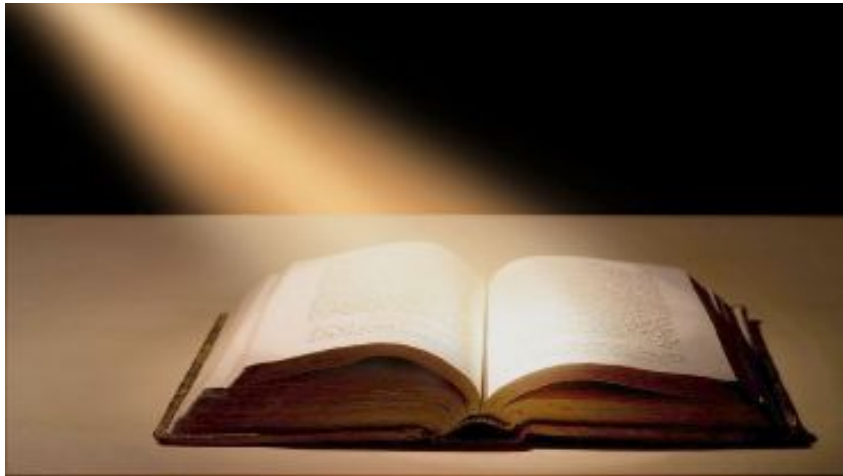
1. The subject is mentioned for the first time

I ate **an** apple for lunch.



2. In the construction there is with countable nouns

There is **a** book on the table.



3. After "what" in exclamation sentences

What **a** day!



4. After the attributes such, rather, quite.

He is such a rich man.

She is quite a clever girl.

It was rather an interesting film.

**Note!** With uncountable nouns and nouns in plural no article is used.

They were rather strange children.

5. When it preserves its old original meaning of “one”:

a) with price, distance, frequency, measure, weight, time:

*Apples are 30 rubles a kilo.*

*I'll be back in a month.*

*Christmas comes but once a year.*

b) in some set expressions: to be a success, to have a look (a try, a rest, a snack) to give a lift (a chance), to make a date (a will, a mistake, a speech, a start), to play a trick etc.



# THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

- The article **the** is called the **definite article** because it points out a particular person or thing.





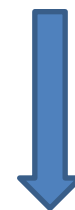
# THE DEFINITE ARTICLE:



[ðə]

If it is followed by a word  
beginning with a  
consonant sound

the theatre



[ði]

If it is followed by a word  
beginning with a vowel  
sound

the apple

# The definite article is used:

Always **the**:

- with ordinal numerals

**the first** of September

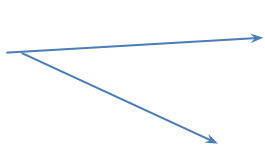
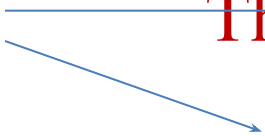
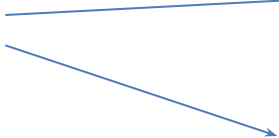



- with superlative adjectives

**the strongest** man in the city

**the most beautiful** girl in the class



1. Names of the Oceans: 
  - The** Pacific Ocean
  - The** Atlantic Ocean
  
2. Names of the Seas: 
  - The** Black Sea
  - The** Baltic Sea
  
3. River names: 
  - The** Nile
  - The** Volga
  
4. The names of the desert: 
  - The** Sahara

The North

*N*



The West

*W*

*E* The East

*S*

The South



**The** Tsar Cannon



**The** Tretyakov Gallery



**The** Kremlin

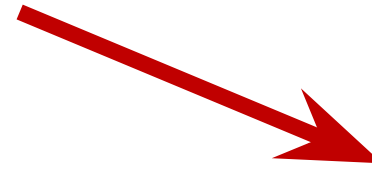
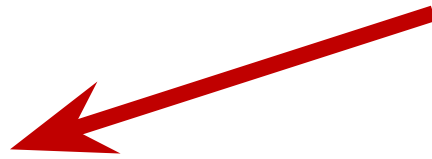


**The** British Museum

## Compare:

- You must consult **the doctor**. (Which doctor? It could be your family doctor.)
- You must consult **a doctor**. (Which doctor? It could be any doctor. Here the speaker does not have a particular doctor in mind.)

# THE ARTICLE

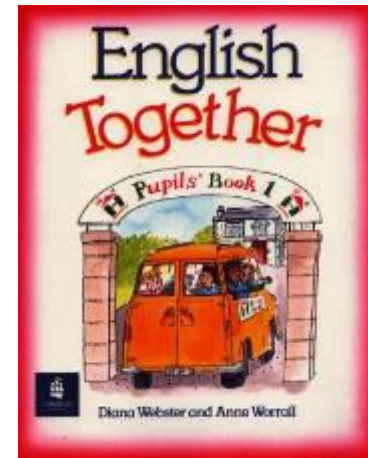


**THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE**

**THE DEFINITE ARTICLE:**



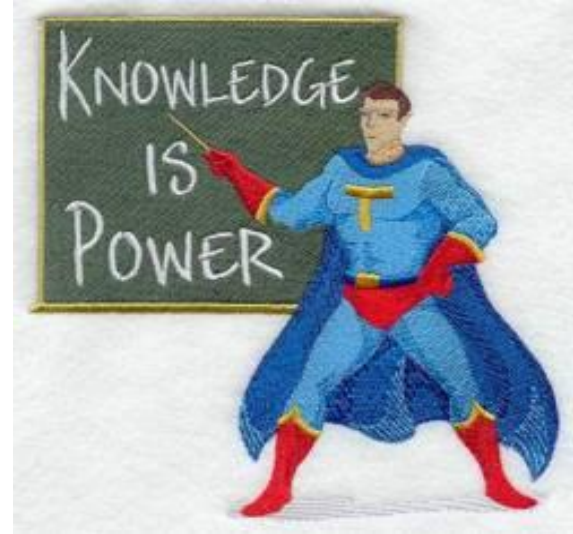
**A** book  
(any)



**The** book  
(particular)

# No article or “Zero” article

1. Before abstract nouns:  
Knowledge is **power**.



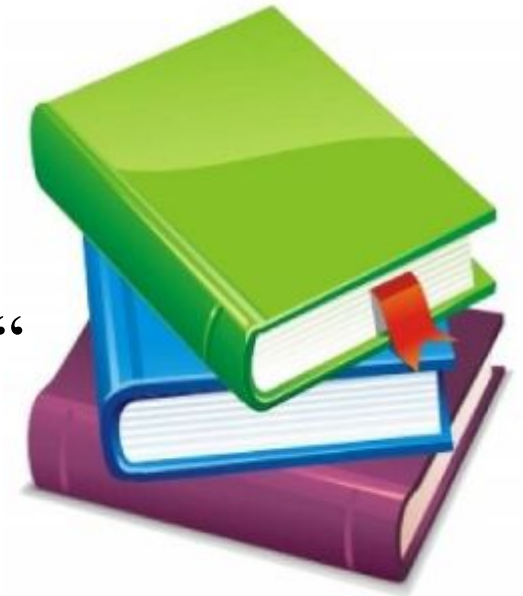
2. Before uncountable nouns:  
**Snow** is white.





3. Before cardinal numerals

I bought **3** books for school library.



4. Before the words "some, any, every, etc"

There is **some** juice in the jug.



5. If before the word stands possessive pronoun

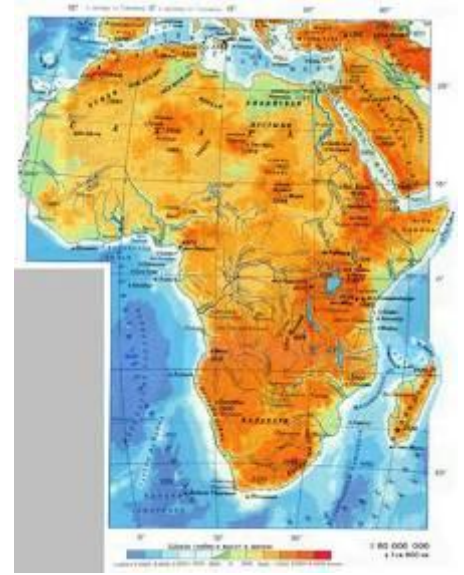
**Her** book is more expensive than mine.



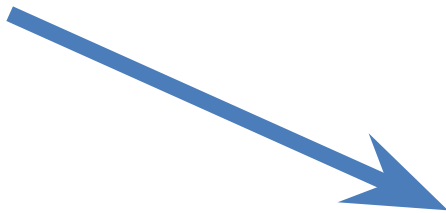
**No article!**

Continents:

→ Africa,



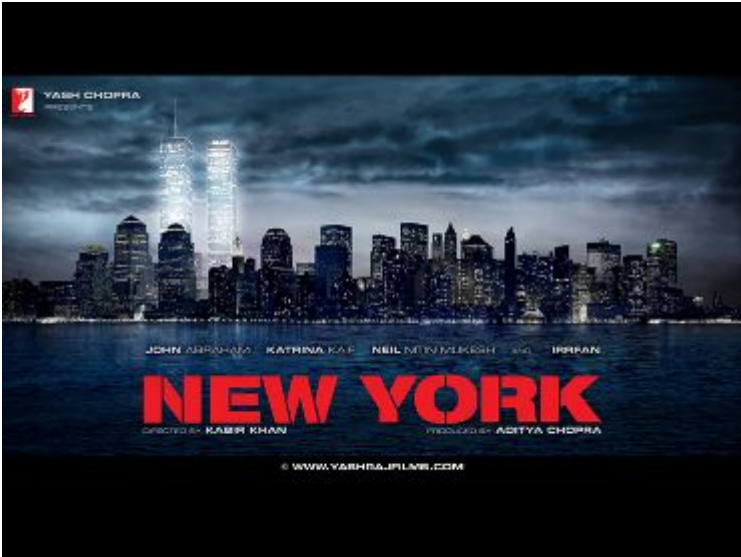
States:



Texas



Cities:  New York



Streets:

  
 Sovetskaya street



## Special cases:

The names of people are always without the article

*Franklin Delano Roosevelt*



## NO!

If it is a question of the whole family, use the definite article

**The** Ivanovs, **The** Smiths



## Exercise 1.

1. This is ... book. It is my ... book.
2. Is this your ... pencil? – No, it isn't my ... pencil, it is my sister's ... pencil.
3. I have ... sister. My ... sister is ... engineer. My sister's ... husband is ... doctor.
4. I have no ... handbag.
5. She has got ... headache.
6. Have they got ... car? – Yes, they have. Their ... car is very expensive but reliable.
7. Have you got ... calculator? – No, I haven't.
8. Is this ... watch? – No, it isn't ... watch, it's ... pen.
9. This ... pen is good, and that ... pen is bad.
10. I can see ... pencil on your ... table, but I can see no ... paper.

## Keys

1. This is **a** book. It is my book.
2. Is this your pencil? – No, it isn't my pencil, it is my sister's pencil.
3. I have **a** sister. My sister is **an** engineer. My sister's husband is **a** doctor.
4. I have no handbag.
5. She has got **a** headache.
6. Have they got **a** car? – Yes, they have. Their car is very expensive but reliable.
7. Have you got **a** calculator? – No, I haven't.
8. Is this **a** watch? – No, it isn't **a** watch, it's **a** pen.
9. This pen is good, and that pen is bad.
10. I can see **a** pencil on his table, but I can see no paper.

## Exercise 2.

... United States is ... big country. It consists of ... 50 states. ... Hawaii is ... 50<sup>th</sup> state. ... Rhode Island is ... smallest. ... capital of ... USA is ... Washington, DC. There are ... mountains in ... west and big lakes in ... north. ... longest North American river, ... Mississippi, begins near these lakes and flows into ... Gulf of Mexico.

## Keys

The United States is a big country. It consists of 50 states. Hawaii is the 50<sup>th</sup> state. Rhode Island is the smallest. The capital of the USA is Washington, DC. There are mountains in the west and big lakes in the north. The longest North American river, the Mississippi, begins near these lakes and flows into the Gulf of Mexico.



### Exercise 3.

1. This is ... pen. ... pen is red.
2. These are pencils. ... pencils are black
3. This is ... soup. ... soup is tasty.
4. In the morning I eat ... sandwich and drink ... tea.
5. She gave me ... coffee and ... cake. ... coffee was hot. ... cake was tasty.
6. Do you like ... ice-cream?
7. I see ... book in your ... hand. Is ... book interesting?
8. Do you need ... camera?
9. He never eats ... meat, he always eats ... vegetables, ... cereals, ... seeds, ... fruit, and ... nuts. He is ... vegetarian.
10. This is ... pineapple. ... pineapple is delicious.

## Keys

1. This is **a** pen. **The** pen is red.
2. These are pencils. **The** pencils are black
3. This is soup. **The** soup is tasty.
4. In the morning I eat **a** sandwich and drink tea.
5. She gave me coffee and cake. **The** coffee was hot. **The** cake was tasty.
6. Do you like ice-cream?
7. I see **a** book in your hand. Is **the** book interesting?
8. Do you need **a** camera?
9. He never eats meat, he always eats vegetables, cereals, seeds, fruit, and nuts. He is **a** vegetarian.
10. This is **a** pineapple. **The** pineapple is delicious.

# **12. Continuous Tenses.**

# Contents:

- Present Continuous
- Past Continuous
- Future Continuous

# Continuous Tenses

- **Continuous Tenses** үш топқа бөлінеді:
- 1. Present Continuous
- 2. Past Continuous
- 3. Future Continuous

# PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE

1. Қазір, берілген уақытта болып жатқан іс-әрекет. Mary is watching TV right now.
2. **Future arrangements** – алдын ала іске асырылуы ойластырылып қойған іс-әрекет I'm going to Sweden next winter.

**Present Progressive Tense** жасалу жолы: Хабарлы сөйлемде **am/is/are** көмекші етістіктері және **V+ing** Сұраулы және болымсыз сөйлемдерде **am/is/are** көмекші етістіктері қолданылады.

Мезгіл пысықтауыштар: **now, right now, at the moment, always, constantly, still**

✓	I	AM		working.
	He, She, It	IS		
	We, You, They	ARE		
✗	I	AM NOT		working.
	He, She, It	IS NOT/ISN'T		
	We, You, They	ARE NOT /AREN'T [ɑ:nt]		
?	What Where When Why How	AM	I	doing? working?
		IS	he, she, it	
		ARE	we, you, they	

► Егер етістік –**e** жалғауына аяқталса, - **ing** суффиксі жалғанғанда да, сөз соңындағы –**e** әрпі түсіп қалады. dance – dancing

► Егер етістік **l** жалғауына аяқталса суффиксі жалғанғанда- **l** жалғауы екі еселенеді. travel – travelling

► Егер етістік –**ie** жалғауына аяқталса –**y + -ing** , жалғанады. **lie-lying**; **die-dying**

Ағылшын тілінде сезімді білдіретін кейбір етістіктер (verbs of mental and emotional state) осы шақа байланысты болса да, (-ing) формасын қабылдамайды Мысалы like, tastes.

1. Қажетті етістіктерді қойыңыздар:

Build, come, have, play, cook, stand, swim

1. Listen! John \_\_\_\_\_ the piano.

2. They \_\_\_\_\_ a new hotel in the city center at the moment.

3. Look! Somebody \_\_\_\_\_ in the river.

4. 'You \_\_\_\_\_ on my foot.' 'Oh, I'm sorry.'

5. Hurry up! The bus \_\_\_\_\_.

# PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE

1. **Өткен шақта екі іс-әрекеттің бір уақытта болуы** While the children were watching TV, their mother was cooking. I was watching the Olympics on TV, when he walked in.
2. **Өткен шақта белгілі уақыт аралығында болған іс-әрекет** At three o'clock yesterday afternoon they were sitting at a café.
3. **Past Progressive Tense жасалу жолы.** Past Progressive Tense **to be** көмекші етістігі **was/were** және негізгі етістікке **-ing** жалғау жалғану арқылы жасалады.
4. **► Жиі қолданылатын мезгіл пысықтауыштар:** **while, all day long, all the time, the whole evening**

## PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE

✓	I	was	working.
	He, She, It		
✗	I	was not	working.
	He, She, It	wasn't ['wəzənt]	
?	We, You, They	were	doing? working?
	What Where When Why How	were	



# **Past Continuous шақтарда етістіктерді қолдана отырып жақшаны ашыңыздар.**

- 1. Around me people (to talk) German, Italian and English.
  - 2. Robert (to talk) to some of the other guests on the terrace when Hardy came.
  - 3. Michael (to look) at his watch.
  - 4. All night long the stars (to glitter).
  - 5. Lizzie (to eat) and didn't raise her head.

# FUTURE CONTINUOUS TENSE

1. Келешекте белгілі уақыт аралығында болатын іс-әрекет.

This time next week I will be training for the race.

2. Future Continuous Tense жасалу жолы The Future Continuous

Tense көмекші етістік **will be** және етістіктің алғашқы нысаны Infinitive (to бөлшегінсіз) арқылы жасалады

## Future Continuous

**will be + V-ing**

Positive	Negative	Questions
I will be going	I <b>will NOT</b> be going	<b>Will</b> I be going ?
YOU	YOU	YOU
WE will be going	WE <b>will NOT</b> be going	<b>Will</b> WE be going ?
THEY	THEY	THEY
HE	HE	HE
<b>SHE</b> will be going	<b>SHE</b> <b>will NOT</b> be going	<b>Will</b> <b>SHE</b> be going ?
IT	IT	IT

Тапсырма. Future Continuous қойыңыздар .

This time next Monday, I \_\_\_\_\_ in a huge office in New York. (work)

This time on Tuesday, Mary \_\_\_\_\_ on a beach in Italy. (sunbathe)

Don't make noise after midnight – I \_\_\_\_\_ soundly, I hope. (sleep)

Jackeline \_\_\_\_\_ to Kenya tomorrow at this time. (fly)

Students \_\_\_\_\_ copies while he \_\_\_\_\_ the report. (make/ finish)

# 13. SEQUENCE OF TENSES

# Contents:

- The explanation about Sequence of Tenses
- Examples
- Exercises

A characteristic feature of the English language is the so-called ***SEQUENCE OF TIME***: the verb of the subordinate clause depends on the time of the main sentence.

If the verb in the main sentence is in one of the past times, then the verb of the subordinate clause must stand in one of the past times.

Example : «I **go to** the cinema every day» (the simple sentence).  
You **said** you **went** to the cinema every day (the complex sentence).



Past Simple is consistent with Past Simple ( Past Simple instead of Present Simple

1. You **said** that I **was** your student (in the subordinate clause Past simple instead of Present Simple).



**Past Simple is consistent with Past Simple**

2. You **said** that he **was sitting** on the table (Past Continuous instead of Present Continuous).



**Past Simple is consistent with Past Continuous**

3. You **said** that I **had done** homework well (Past Perfect instead of Present Perfect)



**Past Simple is consistent with Past Perfect**

4. You **said** that your brother **had bought** a new car (*Past Perfect instead of Past Simple*).



*Past Simple is consistent with Past Perfect*

5. You **said** that I **would help** you (*Future in the Past instead of Future Simple*).



*Past Simple is consistent with Future in the Past*



1. Continue the sentences in the indirect speech, observing the rules of sequence the times.

She said, “I speak French.” – She said that she ...

She said, “I am speaking French.”

She said, “I have spoken French.”

She said, “I spoke French.”

She said, “I am going to speak French.”

She said, “I will speak French.”

2. Choose the correct verb and translate the sentences.

- 1) I knew that my sister ... (have/has/had) a problem.
- 2) I know that my sister ... (have/has/had) a problem.
- 3) I knew that my sister ... (will have/would have/had) a problem soon.
- 4) He said he ... (lived/has lived/had lived) in Moscow since 2005.
- 5) She asks me if the flight ... (has been cancelled/had been cancelled/been cancelled).
- 6) She asked me if the flight ... (has been cancelled/had been cancelled/was cancelled).
- 7) Nobody knew what ... (will happen/would happen/happens) next.
- 8) Mike said that he ... (hasn't met/didn't meet/hadn't met) Helen since they parted.
- 9) Kelly said that she ... (didn't want/doesn't want/hadn't wanted) to wear her hat.
- 10) We didn't expect that he ... (showed/will show/would show) us the film.

# **14. Indirect speech**

# Contents:

- Direct speech and Indirect speech
- The sequence of tenses
- Change of Place and Time
- Modal changes in indirect speech
- Change of Pronouns

# Direct speech

Direct Speech is a sentence that is spoken by the speaker which is written by quotation marks.

# Indirect speech

Indirect Speech is a sentence that is reported to the other indirectly without any comma (Reported speech).

- Direct speech: Jack said to her, “I love you.”
- Indirect speech : Jack said to her that he loved her

# The sequence of tenses:

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
Present Simple	Simple Past
Present CONTINUOUS	Past CONTINUOUS
Past Simple	Past Perfect
Present Perfect	
Past Perfect	
Past CONTINUOUS	Past Perfect CONTINUOUS
Present Perfect CONTINUOUS	
Past Perfect CONTINUOUS	
Future I (going to)	was / were going to
Future I (will)	Conditional I (would)
Conditional I (would)	

# Note that;

- \* The past perfect and past perfect continuous tenses do not change.
- \* In complex sentences the verb in the time clause may not change;
- *Bill: I was reading a book when I heard the crash.*
- *Bill said that he had been reading a book when he heard the crash.*

# Examples:

## Direct Speech

1. He said, 'I **get up** at 7 o'clock.'
2. He said, 'I'm **reading** a book.'
3. He said, ' I **have** just **come**.'
4. He said, 'I **have been waiting** for you since 10 o'clock.'

## Indirect Speech

1. He said that he **got up** at 7 o'clock.
2. He said that he **was reading** a book.
3. He said he **had come**.
4. He said that he **had been waiting** for **me** since 10 o'clock.'





# Change of Place and Time

- **Words expressing nearness in time or place in Direct Speech are generally changed into words expressing distance in Indirect Speech.**
- now – then                      here -- there
- ago -- before                  thus -- so
- today -- that day              tomorrow -- the next day
- this -- that                      yesterday -- the day before
- these -- those                  hither-- thither
- come -- go                      hence -- thence
- next week/month -- following week/month

# Direct Speech

5. He said, 'I **played** football **yesterday**'

6. He said, 'I **was playing** football **yesterday** from 3 up to 4 o'clock'.

7. He said, 'We **had finished our** work by 4 o'clock.

8. He said, 'We **will finish our** work in the evening'

# Indirect speech

5. He said, 'I **played** football **yesterday**'

6. He said, 'I **was playing** football **yesterday** from 3 up to 4 o'clock'.

7. He said, 'We **had finished our** work by 4 o'clock.

8. He said, 'We **will finish our** work in the evening'



# Modal changes in indirect speech

- Similarly to tense changes, if the reported sentence is still true at the time of reporting, no changes are made.
- If, however, the reported sentence is out of date, the following changes occur.

Direct	Indirect
<b>CAN changes into COULD</b>	
He said, "I <b>can swim.</b> "	He said that he <b>could swim.</b>
<b>MAY changes into MIGHT</b>	
He said, "I <b>may buy a house.</b> "	He said that he <b>might buy a house.</b>
<b>MUST changes into HAD TO/WOULD HAVE TO</b>	
"I <b>must work hard.</b> "	He said that he <b>had to work hard.</b>
<b>Modals that DO NOT Change: Would, Could, Might, Should, Ought to.</b>	
He said, "I <b>should face the challenge.</b> "	He said that he <b>should face the challenge.</b>



# Change of Pronouns

- *The first person of the reported speech changes according to the subject of reporting speech.*

**Direct:** She said, "I am in ninth class."

**Indirect:** She says that she was in ninth class.

- *The second person of reported speech changes according to the object of reportingspeech.*

**Direct:** He says to them, "You have completed your job."

**Indirect:** He tells them that they have completed their job.

- *The third person of the reported speech doesn't change.*

**Direct:** He says, "She is in tenth class."

**Indirect:** He says that she is in tenth class.



# Pronouns changing

Лицо	Личные местоимения	
	Именительный падеж Кто? Что?	Объектный падеж Кого? Что? Кому?
	Единственное число	
1	I	me
2	you	you
3	he /she /it	her / him / it
	Множественное число	
1	we	us
2	you	you
3	they	them

# Choose the correct answer:

1. **«Marat, go to bed», said his mother.**

- A) His mother said to go to bed.
- B) His mother told Marat to go to bed.
- C) His mother told Marat go to bed.

2. **Arman's father wanted to know what he had done at school the day before.**

- A) «What do you do at school yesterday, Arman?» said his father.
- B) «What did you do at school yesterday, Arman?» said his father.
- C) «What had you do at school yesterday, Arman?» said his father.

3. **My father said to my friend: «Does your parents live in Pavlodar?»**

- A) My father asked my friend his parents lived in Pavlodar.
- B) My father asked my friend if his parents live in Pavlodar.
- C) My father asked my friend if his parents lived in Pavlodar.

4. **Father said to Arman: «Don,t forget to close the door».**

- A) Father told Arman not to forget to close the door.
- B) Father told Arman to forget not to close the door.
- C) Father said Arman not to forget to close the door.

5. **Grandmother asked Anel if she liked her cake.**

- A) «Don't you like my cake, Anel?» asked her grandmother.
- B) «Does you like my cake, Anel?» asked her grandmother.
- C) «Do you like my cake, Anel?» asked her grandmother.

# 15. Perfect tense

# Contents:

- Present perfect туралы жалпы сипаттамасы
- Present Perfect tense
- Past Perfect tense
- Future Perfect tense



## PRESENT PERFECT туралы жалпы сипатамасы

PRESENT PERFECT тобы үш шақ түріне ие болады:

- **Present Perfect tense** – Қазіргі кезде болып жатқан іс-әрекет
- **Past Perfect tense** - Бұрын басталған іс-әрекет
- **Future Perfect tense** –Болашақта болатын іс-әрекет

Барлық **Perfect** шақтары көмекші етістік **to have** арқылы сәйкес келетін қазіргі, келер, өткен шақтармен және мағыналы етістіктермен жасалады.

# PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

Present Perfect tense көмекші етістік **Have (has)** және етістіктің 3-ші формасы (**Past Participle**) арқылы жасалады.

1. Бұрын басталып, белгілі уақытқа созылып, әлі де жалғасып жатқан іс-әрекет.

2. қазіргі уақытпен байланысы бар аяқталған іс-әрекет .

► Жиі қолданылатын мезгіл пысықтауыштар **already, ever, never, just, yet, lately, so far**

Positive			Negative			Questions		
I You We They	have	walked (gone)	I You We They	haven't (have not)	walked (gone)	Have	I you we they	walked (gone)
He She It	has		He She It	hasn't (has not)		Has	he she it	

1. Осы шақта  
нәтижесі көрініп  
тұратын іс-әрекет  
(орыс тілінде өткен  
шаққа сәйкес келеді)

Ann is on holiday. She  
has gone to Italy.

Анна кезекті  
демалыста. Ол  
Италияға кетті.

2. Continuous  
тобының шақтарында  
қолданылмайтын  
және Present Perfect  
Continuous  
етістіктерінің орнына  
жүреді (орыс тілінде  
осы шаққа сәйкес  
келеді)

I have known him for  
three years.

Мен оны үш жыл  
білемін

3. Мезгіл және  
шартты сабақтас  
бағыныңқы  
сөйлемдердегі іске  
асқан келер шақтағы  
іс-әрекет

After I have read the  
book, I'll give it to you.

Мен бұл кітапты  
оқып болғаннан  
кейін, мен оны сізге  
беремін.

# Past Perfect tense

- 1. Бір іс-әрекеттің басқа өтіп кеткен іс-әрекеттен немесе сәттен бұрын басталғанын білдіреді.
- 2. өтіп кеткен іс-әрекеттің бір сәттен бұрын басталып, әлі де сол сәтте жалғасып жатқанын білдіреді
- **The Past Perfect Tense жасалу жолы** The Past Perfect Tense көмекші етістік Had **has + Past Participle** арқылы жасалады.
- ► Мезгіл пысықтауыштары: For, since, till/until, by, by the time, never.

Positive			Negative			Questions		
I			I				I	
You			You				you	
We			We	hadn't			we	
They	had	played	They	(had not)	played	Had	they	played
He		(written)	He		(written)		he	(written)
She			She				she	
It			It				it	

Өткен шақта  
белгілі бір  
уақытқа дейін  
болған іс-  
әрекетті  
көрсетеді.

I had translated  
the article by five  
o'clock. They  
had shipped the  
goods when your  
fax arrived.

Мен мақаланы  
сағат бестерде  
аударып  
бітірдім. Сіздің  
факсіңіз  
келгенде, олар  
тауарды түсіріп  
болған еді.

# FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

1. Болашақта белгілі мезгілге дейін анық бітетін, орындалатын іс-әрекет.
2. **Future Perfect tense** жасалу жолы  
**Future Perfect tense will have** және етістіктің өткен шақтағы есімше **Past Participle (Participle II)** формасы арқылы жасалады.  
 ► Мезгіл пысықтауыштар: **By that time, by then, by Sunday..., by the end of the year, by now.**

Positive		Questions			Negative	
I We	shall/will have been writing (I'll have been writing)	Shall/Will	I we	have been writing?	I we	shall/will not have been writing (shan't have been writing)
He She It You They	will have been writing (.. 'll have been writing)	Will	He She It You They	have been writing?	He She It You They	will not have been writing (won't have been writing)

1. Келер шақтағы белгілі бір мерзімге дейін атқарылатын болашақтағы іс-әрекет баяндалады.

They will have shipped the goods when your fax arrives.

Сіздің факсіңіз келгенде, олар тауарды түсіріп болады

2. Өткен шақтағы іс-әрекеттің болжамын білдіреді. Ресми іс қағаздары мен баспасөз тілінде қолданылады.

The reader will have observed an upward tendency in oil prices on the London market.

Оқырман Лондон нарығында мұнай бағасының өсу тенденциясын байқаған болуы керек.

**Тапсырма1 жақшаны ашып Present Perfect формасын қойыңыздар .**

He \_\_\_\_\_ (finish) training.

She \_\_\_\_\_ (score) twenty points in the match.

We \_\_\_\_\_ (watch) all the Champions League matches this season.

That's amazing! She \_\_\_\_\_ (run) fifteen kilometers this morning!

She \_\_\_\_\_ (buy) some really nice rollerblades!

**Тапсырма 2 жақшаны ашып Past Perfect формасын қойыңыздар**

I ... (to have) breakfast before I went to school.

He went to meet his friends after he ... (to do) his homework.

By 8 o'clock the rain ... (to stop).

Alice was late because she ... (to miss) the bus.

She went to the post-office after she ... (to write) the letter.

**Тапсырма3 жақшаны ашып Future Perfect. формасын қойыңыздар**

I \_\_\_\_\_ a Londoner for five and a half years by next September. (be)

By Tuesday Jill \_\_\_\_\_ these novels by O'Henry. (finish)

Next year is Fred and Kate's 10th wedding anniversary.

They \_\_\_\_\_ happily married for ten years. (be)

Molly thinks the film \_\_\_\_\_ by the time she gets to Fred's. (to start)

They \_\_\_\_\_ the plans by then. (to finish)



# **16. The syllabic structure.**

## **Syllabic Formation.**

# Contents:

- Syllable
- Theories of syllable formation and division
- The functions of the syllable

# Syllabic

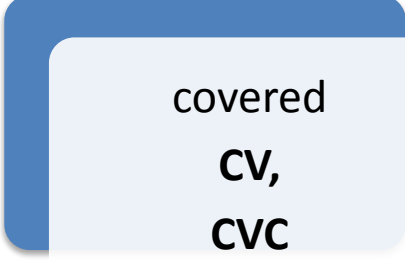
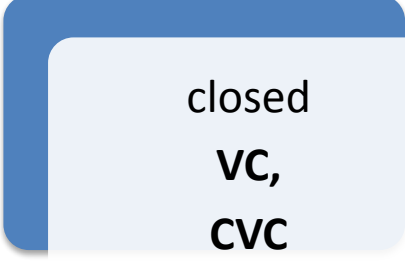
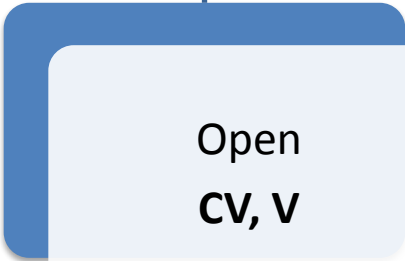
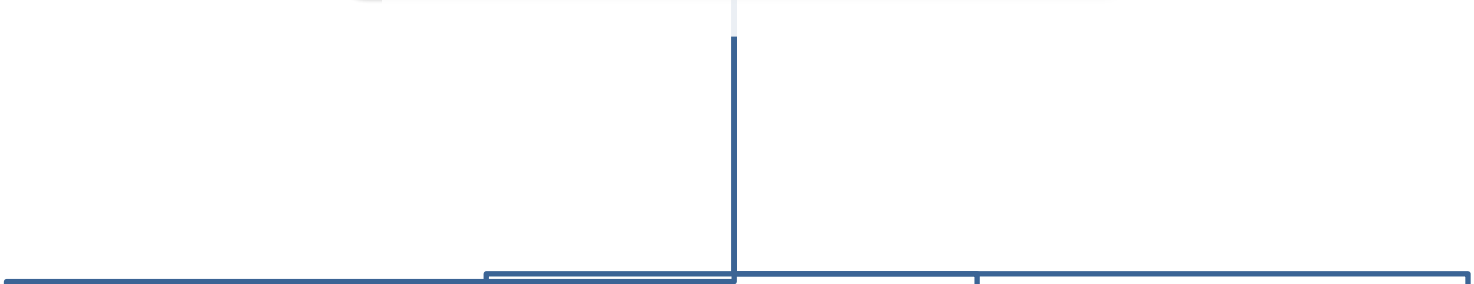
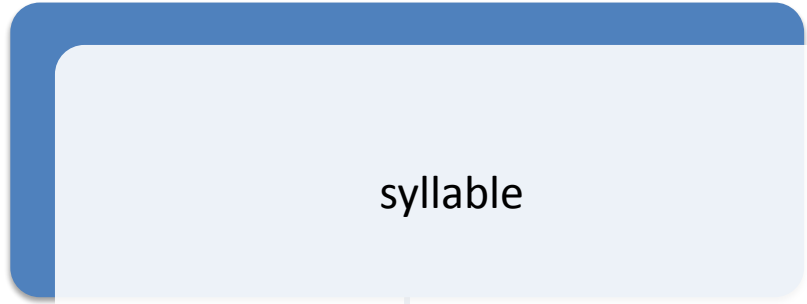
The syllable is a basic unit of speech studied on both the phonetic and phonological levels of analysis. No matter how easy it can be for people and even for children to count the number of syllables in a sequence in their native language, still there are no universally agreed upon phonetic definitions of what a syllable is.

# Syllabic

Phonetically syllables “are usually described as consisting of a centre which has little or no obstruction to airflow and which sounds comparatively loud; before and after that centre (...) there will be greater obstruction to airflow and/or less loud sound”. In the monosyllable (one-syllable word) cat /kæt/, the vowel /æ/ is the “centre” at which little obstruction takes place, whereas we have complete obstruction to the airflow for the surrounding plosives /k/ and /t/.

# Syllabic

In the commonly used graphic representation of the syllabic structure of words and wordforms every vowel sound is represented by the capital letter **V** and every non-syllabic consonant sound by the capital letter **C**.



syllable

Phonetic syllable

[ˈmei-kə]

[ˈei-ljən]

Orthographic syllable

Mak-er

Rang-ing

Do-ing

There are several theories of the syllable formation and syllable division, and none of them is shared by all linguists:

1. Expiratory
2. Chest-pulse
3. Pressure



## Functions of syllable

The first is *constitutive function*. It lies in its ability to be a part of a word itself. The syllables form language units of greater magnitude than words, morphemes, and utterances. In this respect two things should be emphasized. First, the syllable is the unit within which the relations between distinctive features of phonemes and their acoustic correlates are revealed. Second, within a syllable (or syllables) prosodic characteristics of speech are realized, which form the stress pattern of a word and the intonation structure of an utterance. In sum, the syllable is a specific minimal structure of both segmental and suprasegmental features.

## Functions of syllable

The other function is distinctive one. In this respect the syllable is characterized by its ability to differentiate words and word-forms. One minimal pair has been found in English to illustrate the word distinctive function in the syllabic: *nitrate* — *night-rate*.

There analogical distinction between word combinations can be illustrated by many more examples: *an aim - a name; an ice house - a nice house, etc.* Sometimes the difference in syllable division may be the basic ground for differentiation in such pairs as *I saw her rise.- I saw her eyes; I saw the meat — I saw them eat.*

# **17. Word stress**

# Contents:

- Word stress
- Stressed and unstressed syllables
- Place and degrees of Word Stress

**Stress** is the relative emphasis that may be given to certain syllables in a word, or to certain words in a phrase or sentence. The term is also used for similar patterns of phonetic prominence inside syllables. The word **accent** is sometimes also used with this sense.

# SO...

**Word stress (WS)** can be defined as the singling out of one or more syllables in a word, which is accompanied by the change of the force of utterance, pitch of the voice, qualitative and quantitative characteristics of the sound which is usually a vowel.

If we compare stressed and unstressed syllables in the two contract, we may note that in the stressed syllable:

- the force of utterance is greater, which is connected with more energetic articulation;
- the pitch of the voice is higher, which is connected with stronger tenseness of the vocal cords and the walls of the resonance chamber
- the quantity of the vowel is greater, a vowel becomes longer;
- the quality of the vowel in the stressed syllable is different from the quality of this vowel in the unstressed position, in which it is more narrow than.



The phonetic manifestation of stress varies from language to language. In different languages one of the factors constituting word stress is usually more significant than the others. According to the most salient feature the following types of word stress are distinguished in different languages:

- dynamic or force stress if special prominence in a stressed syllable(syllables) is achieved mainly through the intensity of articulation;
- musical or tonic stress if special prominence is achieved mainly through the change of pitch, or musical tone.
- quantitative stress if special prominence is achieved through the changes in the quantity of the vowels, which are longer in the stressed syllables than in the unstressed ones.
- qualitative stress if special prominence is achieved through the changes in the quality of the vowel under stress. Vowel reduction is often used as a manipulation of quality in unstressed syllables.

# Place and degrees of Word Stress

One of the ways of reinitiating the prominence of syllables is **manipulating the degree of stress.**

There is controversy about degrees of WS in English and their terminology. Strictly speaking, polysyllabic word has as many degrees of stress as there are syllables in it.

Designating strongest syllable by 1, the second strongest by 2, etc., we may represent the distribution of stresses in the following example:

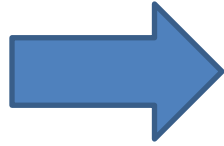
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The majority of British phoneticians (D. Jones, Kingdon, A. C. Gimson among them) and Russian phoneticians (V. A. Vassilyev, Shakhbagova) consider that there are three degrees of word-stress in English:

- primary -- the strongest
- secondary -- the second strongest, partial, and
- weak -- all the other degrees.

The syllables bearing either primary or secondary stress are termed stressed, while syllables with weak stress are called, somewhat inaccurately, unstressed.

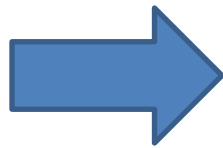
- Loud
- Reduced loud
- Medial
- Weak



---

**The American scholars bloch & trager distinguish 4 types of WS**

- Primary
- Secondary
- Tertiary
- Weak



**Other American linguists also distinguish four degrees of word stress but term them:**

Stress can be characterized as fixed and free. In languages with fixed type of stress the place of stress is always the same.

- In English and Russian word-stress is free, that is it may fall any syllable in a word;
- Stress in English and in Russian is not only free but also **shifting**. In both languages the place of stress may shift, which helps to differentiate different parts of speech, e.g. `insult--to in`sult, `import--to im`port.

# Examples of shifting:

- preSENT (verb) – PRESent (noun)
- reFER (verb) – REFerence (noun)
- exTRACT (verb) – EXtract (noun)
- inCREASE (verb) – INcrease (noun)
- OBject (noun) – obJECT (verb)

# Functions and tendencies of the English stress

1. Word stress constitutes a word, it organizes the syllables of a word into a language unit having a definite accentual structure, that is a pattern of relationship among the syllables;

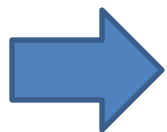
a word does not exist without the word stress. Thus the word stress performs the constitutive function. Sound continuum becomes a phrase when it is divided into units organized by word stress into words.

**2.** Word stress enables a person to identify a succession of syllables as a definite accentual pattern of a word. This function of word stress as known as identificatory(or recognitive).

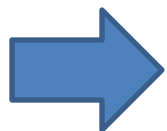
Correct accentuation helps the listener to make the process of communication easier, whereas the distorted accentual pattern of words, misplaced word stresses prevent normal understanding.

**3.** Word stress alone is capable of differentiating the meaning of words or their forms, thus performing its distinctive function. The accentual patterns of words or the degrees of word stress and their positions form oppositions, e.g. *'import — im'port*, *'billow — below*.

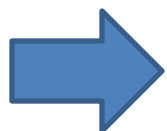




**Recessive.** The accentual structure of English words is liable to instability due to the different origin of several layers in the Modern English word-stock. In Germanic languages the word stress originally fell on the initial syllable or the second syllable, the root syllable in the English words with prefixes. It is seen in the native English words having no prefix, e.g. *mother, daughter, brother, swallow*; in assimilated French borrowings, e.g. *reason, colour, restaurant etc.*



**Rhythmical.** The rhythm of alternating stressed and unstressed syllables gave birth to the rhythmical tendency in the present-day English which caused the appearance of the secondary stress in the multisyllabic French borrowings, e.g. *revolution, organi'sation, assimilation, etc.*



**Retentive.** Was traced in the instability of the accentual structure of English word stress: a derivative often retains the stress of the original or parent word, e.g. *'similar — as'simitate, recom'mend — recommen'dation.*

# Typology of accentual structures

The numerous variations of English word stress are systematized in the typology of accentual structure of English words worked out by G.P. Torsuyev. He classifies them according to the number of stressed syllables, their degree or character (the main and the secondary stress). The distribution of stressed syllables within the word accentual types forms accentual structures of words. Accentual types and accentual structures are closely connected with the morphological type of words, with the number of syllables, the semantic value of the root and the prefix of the word.

The other five types are rare and found in small number of words.

The most widely spread among the enumerated accentual types are supposed to be Type 1, Type 2, Type 5 and Type 6.

The variability of the word accentual structure is multiplied in connected speech. The accentual structure of words may be altered under the influence of rhythm, e.g. *An 'unpolished 'stone* but: *The 'stone was un'polished.*

The tempo of speech may influence the accentual pattern of words. With the quickening of the speed the carefulness of articulation is diminished, the vowels are reduced or elided, the secondary stress may be dropped, e.g. *The 'whole organi'zation of the 'meeting was 'faulty.*

## **18. POSITION OF WORD STRESS**

# Contents:

- Word stress
- The position of word stress
- Words with primary and secondary stress
- Stress in compound words
- Word stress and rhythm
- Questions and tasks

# Word stress

*Word stress* in English as well as in Russian is free, in the sense that the primary stress is not tied to any particular syllable of any given word, eg *'finish, re'sult, edu'cation: мо'ре, луна', быстрохо'дный*.

# The position of word stress

*The position of word stress* in English is the product of its historical development. It has been influenced by the combination of different tendencies. The oldest of them is known as the recessive tendency, according to which the root syllable i.e. the semantic unit of the word is stressed. So the majority of words of Germanic origin have stresses on first on the first root syllable, eg 'clever, 'body, 'water, 'singing.

If words are formed with the prefixes with no referential meaning the stress is shifted onto the root syllable, which is not initial in case, eg *be'fore, be'gin, mis'take*.

The second tendency is the result of the mutual influence of Germanic and French accentual patterns. It is known as the rhythmic tendency which manifests itself in stressing the third syllable from the end, eg *'situate, ar'ticulate*.



Most disyllabic English words have recessive stress, eg *'finish*, *'answer*, *'marriage*, *be'hind*, *re'sult*.

Some disyllabic French borrowings retain the primary stress on the last syllable, eg *ma'chine*, *po'lice*.

According to both tendencies words of three syllables generally have stress on the first syllable (which is the third syllable from the end), eg *'cinema*, *'enemy*, *'afterwards*, *'recognize*, *'situate* (but *un'certain*, *re'lation*).

Words of four syllables may have either recessive or rhythmic stress, eg 'architect, 'criticism, 'characterize, re'markable, ar'ticulate.

Rhythmic stress is especially common for verbs with the suffixes -ate, -fy, -ize, eg 'situate, 'qualify, 'centralize, ar'ticulate, per'sonify.

Some four-syllable words tend to have a three-syllable accentual pattern, eg dictionary, laboratory.

# Words with primary and secondary stress

The secondary stress is manifested in polysyllabic words with the primary stress on the fourth syllable from the beginning, eg *ˌpopuˈlarity*, *reˌsponˈsɪbɪlɪti*.

In words with the primary stress on the third syllable the secondary stress usually falls on the first syllable, eg *ˌdecoˈration*.

If the primary stress falls on the fourth or fifth syllable the secondary stress is very commonly on the second syllable, eg *arˌtɪcuˈlation*, *exˌperɪmenˈtation*.

# Stress in compound words

Word composed of separable root morphemes are called compounds.

The spelling of compound words differs. They may be spelled as one word a hyphen or as two separate words. Among compound words we find compound nouns, adjectives, verbs.

This is the case with the majority of compound nouns. They are usually single-stressed, eg: *'reading-room, 'writing-table, apple-tree, 'suitcase, 'raincoat.*

# Word stress and rhythm

All the above-mentioned words with two equally strong stresses are subjected to the influence of English rhythm in connected speech.

Thus in a double-stressed word the first element is weakened if it is preceded by another stressed syllable or the second stress is likewise lost if it is followed by a stressed syllable, eg;

- How many students are there in your group?
- → *Thir teen*

# Questions and tasks

1. How is pitch component manifested in English word stress?
2. Give a series of examples to illustrate the fact the qualitative modification of unstressed vowels is not obligatory in English.
3. What is the main difference between English and Russian in respect of word stress?

# 19. Passive voice

# Contents:

- Use of Passive
- Form of Passive
- Example of passive
- Exercises



# Use of Passive

- Passive voice is used when the focus is on the action. It is not important or not known, however, who or what is performing the action.
- Example: My bike was stolen.
- In the example above, the focus is on the fact that my bike was stolen. I do not know, however, who did it.



- Sometimes a statement in passive is more polite than active voice, as the following example shows:
- Example: A mistake was made.
- In this case, I focus on the fact that a mistake was made, but I do not blame anyone (e.g. You have made a mistake.).

	<b>(Affirmative Form)</b>	<b>(Interrogative Form)</b>	<b>(Negative Form)</b>
<b>Present</b>	I am asked He is asked She is asked It is asked We are asked You are asked they are asked	Am I asked? Is He asked? Is She asked? Is It asked? Are We asked? Are you asked? Are they asked?	I am not asked He is not asked She is not asked It is not asked We are not asked You are not asked they are not asked
<b>Past</b>	I was asked He was asked She was asked It was asked you were asked We were asked They were asked	Was I asked? Was He asked? Was She asked? Was It asked? Were We asked? Were You asked? Were they asked?	I was not asked He was not asked She was not asked It was not asked We were not asked You were not asked they were not asked
<b>Future</b>	I shall/will be asked He will be asked She will be asked It will be asked We shall/will be asked You shall/will be asked They shall/will be asked	Shall/Will I be asked? Will He be asked? Will she be asked? Will It be asked? Shall/Will we be asked? Will you be asked? Will they be asked?	I shall/will not be asked He will not be asked She will not be asked It will not be asked We shall/will not be asked You shall/will not be asked They shall/will not be asked
<b>Future-in-the Past</b>	I should/would be asked He would be asked She would be asked It would be asked We should/would be asked You should/would be asked They should/would be asked	Should I be asked? Would He be asked? Would she be asked? Would It be asked? Should we be asked? Would you be asked? Would they be asked?	I should/would not be asked He would not be asked She would not be asked It would not be asked We should/would not be asked You should/would not be asked They should/would not be asked

# Form of Passive

- Subject + infinite form of *to be* + Past Participle (3rd column of [irregular verbs](#)) +  
by(animate) +with(inanimate)  
somebody
- Example: A letter was written  
by Al

# Example of passive

- **Present simple** Alma writes a letter -  
• A letter is written by Alma
- **Simple past**, Alma wrote a letter –  
• A letter was written by Alma
- **Future** . Alma will write a letter – a letter will be written by Alma
- **Present perfect** Alma has written a letter –a letter has been written by Alma
- **Past Perfect** Alma had written a letter. – A letter had been written by Alma
- **Present Progressive** Alma is writing a letter. A letter is being written by Alma
- **Past Progressive** Alma was writing a letter.  
• A letter was being written by Alma
- **Future II** Alma will have written a letter.  
A letter will have been written by Alma



# Write passive sentences in Simple Present

- The documents / print .
- The document are printed
- The window / open.
- The window is opened.
- The shoes / buy.
- The shoes are bought.
- The car / wash
- The car is washed.
- The litter / throw away.
- The litter is thrown away.

# Write passive sentences in Simple Past

- the test / write
- The test was written
- the table / set
- The table was set
- the cat / feed
- The cat was fed
- the lights / switch on
- The lights were switched on
- the house / build
- The house was built

# Write passive sentences in Present Perfect

- the postcard / send
- The postcard has been sent
- the pencils / count
- The pencils have been counted
- the door / close
- The door has been closed
- the beds / make
- The beds have been made
- the mail / write
- The mail has been written



# Write passive sentences in Future I.

- the exhibition / visit
- The exhibition will be visited
- the windows / clean
- The windows will be cleaned
- the message / read
- The message will be read
- the thief / arrest
- The thief will be arrested
- the photo / take
- The photo will be taken

# Conditional Sentences

# Contents:

- Conditional Types
- First Type: Possible & Probable conditions
- Second Type: Possible & Improbable conditions
- Third Type: Impossible conditions
- Other expressions used in conditional clauses

# Conditional Types

First Type: Possible & Probable conditions

Second Type: Possible & Improbable conditions

Third Type: Impossible conditions

Other Conditional sentences

Wish / If only

## First Type: Possible & Probable conditions

IF CLAUSE	MAIN CLAUSE
Simple Present	Simple Future Imperative Can
If you come	I will be happy
If you want to pass	Study!
If we buy a ticket	We _____ (go) to the concert
If she _____ (arrive) soon	she will come with us
If they dance too much	They _____ (get) tired
If you need my car	_____ (take) it

## First Type: Possible & Probable conditions

IF CLAUSE	MAIN CLAUSE
If you _____ (drink) a lot	I _____ (leave) you
If the road _____ (be) wet	_____ (watch out) !
If he _____ (lose) his key	You _____ (lend) him yours
If she _____ (not buy) any food	We _____ (have dinner)
If they _____ (not stop) talking	We _____ (not finish) our lesson
If you _____ (take) the dog for a walk	I _____ (give) you some money

## Second Type: Possible & Improbable conditions

To express an imaginary present or improbable future situations

IF CLAUSE	MAIN CLAUSE
Simple Past	Would + root verb Could + root verb
If she studied	she <b>would pass</b> her tests
If he ran	he <b>would catch</b> the bus
If I went to China	I <b>could be</b> with him
If I were _____	_____

## Second Type: Possible & Improbable conditions

IF CLAUSE	MAIN CLAUSE
If you _____ (drink) a lot	I _____ (leave) you
If the road _____ (be) wet	You _____ (have) an accident
If he _____ (lose) his key	You _____ (lend) him yours
If she _____ (not buy) any food	We _____ (have dinner)
If they _____ (not stop) talking	We _____ (not finish) our lesson
If you _____ (take) the dog for a walk	I _____ (give) you some money



## Third Type: Impossible conditions

To express a regret for an impossible situation happened in the Past with NO solution

IF CLAUSE	MAIN CLAUSE
Past Perfect	Present Perfect Conditional (Would have + past participle)
If it hadn't rained	We <b>would have gone</b> to the country
If she had studied	She _____ (pass) her tests
If you _____ (invite) them	They <b>'d have come</b> to the party
If I <b>had known</b> it	I _____(arrive) earlier
If he _____(phone)	I <b>'d have seen</b> him

## Third Type: Impossible conditions

IF CLAUSE	MAIN CLAUSE
If you _____ (drink) a lot	I _____ (leave) you
If the road _____ (be) wet	You _____ (have) an accident
If he _____ (lose) his key	You _____ (lend) him yours
If she _____ (not buy) any food	We _____ (have dinner)
If they _____ (not stop) talking	We _____ (not finish) our lesson
If you _____ (take) the dog for a walk	I _____ (give) you some money

## Other expressions used in conditional clauses:

<p><b>UNLESS</b>          " Si no..."          "A menos que..."</p>	<p>You won't finish the race <b>unless</b> you pace yourself.</p>
<p><b>WHETHER...OR NOT</b>          "Tanto...como si no "</p>	<p><b>Whether</b> you pay <b>or not</b>, you won't get in without an invitation.</p>
<p><b>ON CONDITION THAT</b>  <b>PROVIDED THAT</b>  <b>PROVIDING THAT</b>  <b>SO LONG AS</b>  <b>AS LONG AS</b>          "Siempre que, en tanto que, con la condición de que,...etc  <b>ASSUMING THAT</b>  <b>SUPPOSING THAT</b>  <b>SUPPOSE THAT</b>          "Suponiendo que.."</p>	<p>"I will only tell my age <b>on the condition</b> that you tell yours."          "I will only tell my age <b>provided that</b> you tell yours"          "I will only tell my age <b>providing that</b> you tell yours"          "I will only tell my age <b>so long as</b> you tell yours"          "I will only tell my age <b>as long as</b> you tell yours"            "<b>Assuming that</b> it's fine tomorrow, we'll go for a swim"          "What would you do <b>supposing that</b> you were given the chance to see the future ?"</p>

## A) Write the verb in the correct form (1st Conditional)

1. If you \_\_\_\_\_ (not/explain), I won't understand.
2. If he \_\_\_\_\_ (pass) his exam, he'll go on to the university.
3. If I am fired, I \_\_\_\_\_ (not/protest).
4. The streets will be full if \_\_\_\_\_ (there to be) a demonstration.

## A) SOLUTIONS

1. If you don't explain, I won't understand.
2. If he passes his exam, he'll go on to the university.
3. If I am fired, I won't protest.
4. The streets will be full if there is a demonstration.

## B) Write the verb in the correct form (2nd Conditional)

1. If I they offered me the job, I \_\_\_\_\_ (take) it.
2. I'm sure Tom will lend you some money. I'd be very surprised if he \_\_\_\_\_ (refuse).
3. Many people would be out of work if that factory \_\_\_\_\_ (close) down.
4. If she sold her car, she \_\_\_\_\_ (not/get) much money for it.
5. They're expecting us. They would be disappointed if we \_\_\_\_\_ (not/ come).
6. Would George be angry if I \_\_\_\_\_ (take) his bicycle without asking?

## B) SOLUTIONS

1. If I they offered me the job, I would take it.
2. I'm sure Tom will lend you some money. I'd be very surprised if he refused.
3. Many people would be out of work if that factory closed down.
4. If she sold her car, she wouldn't get much money for it.
5. They're expecting us. They would be disappointed if we didn't come.
6. Would George be angry if I took his bicycle without asking?

**21. INTONATION.**  
**MANIFESTATION OF INTONATION**  
**AND ITS LINGUISTIC FUNCTION.**

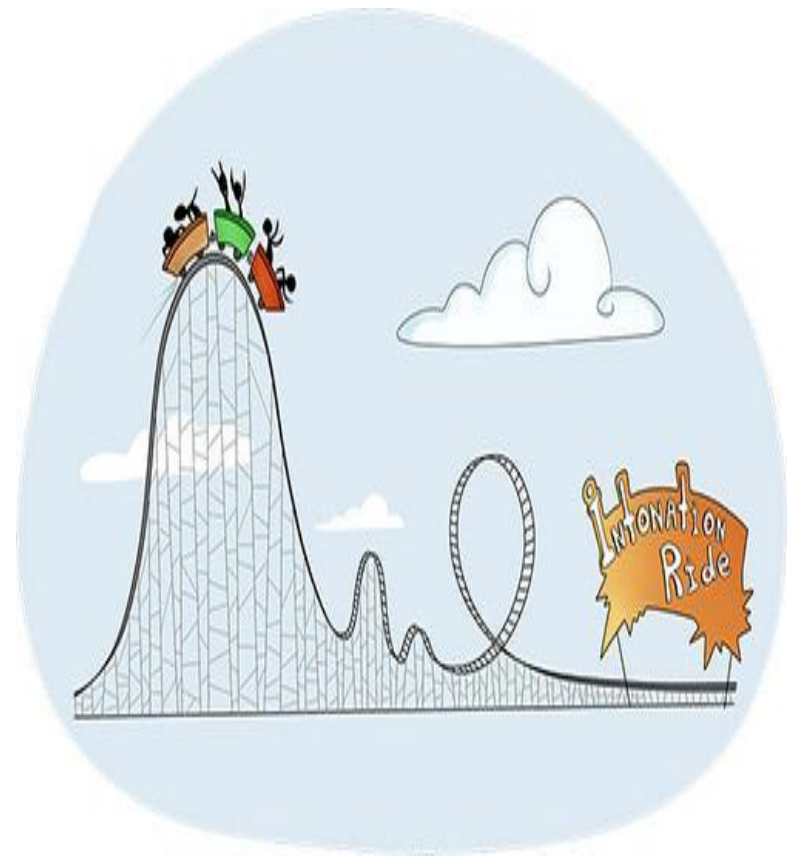


# Contents:

- The definition of intonation
- The functions of intonation
- The functional value of the pitch
- Sentence stress
- The tempo of speech
- Pauses
- Rhythm

# INTONATION

Intonation is a specific organization of speech-sounds grouped in syllables and words and intended to produce meaningful utterances.



# INTONATION

## on the perception level

**Intonation is a complex unity of changes in voice pitch or tone, intensity or accent, and tempo, i.e. the rate of utterance and pausation.**

# TIMBRE

**Pr. Vassiliev** includes it as the fourth component of intonation.

By **voice timbre** we mean the colouring of voice.

# Sentence (Utterance)

**Sentence real =  
Sentence potential + Intonation**

**Intonation group (an actualized syntagm)** – a group of words which is semantically and syntactically complete.

**Intonation patterns** is the basic unit of intonation which is formed by pitch, loudness and tempo.

# A potential and an actualized syntagm

**“I think**

a potential syntagm

**he is coming soon”**

a potential syntagm

**“I think he is coming soon”**

an actualized syntagm

# **FUNCTIONS OF INTONATION**

- syntactical/ grammatical
- accentual
- indicative of communicative types of sentences
- attitudinal/modal
- stylistic

# The functional value of the pitch

- **Syntactically distinctive function:**

She washed and dressed her baby. (1)

She washed and dressed her baby. (2)

--- The meaning is different.



- **Semantically distinctive function:**

*I don't give my books to anybody.*

- \ anybody (= to nobody)
- \ any/body (= to those whom I don't know)

- **Attitudinally distinctive function:**

→ *Will you be <sub>↓</sub> quiet.* (order)

→ *Will you be <sub>↑</sub> quiet.* (request)

The pitch differentiates the connotational meaning.

-----

<sub>↓</sub>*Why?* (no interest, detached)

<sub>↑</sub>*Why?* (interest, sympathy)

<sub>↘</sub>*Why?* (much concern)

<sub>↙</sub>*Why?* (concerned, hurt)

The pitch differentiates the attitudinal meaning.

# Sentence-stress

**Sentence-stress** is a special prominence given to one or more words according to their relative importance in a sentence.

*I can't | tell you | anything about it.*

*I'd like them | to come | to my party.*

(3 rhythmic groups)

# 3 types of sentence stress

1. **normal (syntactic) stress**
  2. **logical stress**
  3. **emphatic stress**
- **Rhythmic stress** is a subtitle of normal stress.

**Rhythm** is alternations of stressed and unstressed syllables.

# TEMPO

The term “tempo” implies the rate of the utterance and pausation.

The rate of speech can be fast (or rapid), normal (or mid), slow.

*“My mother thinks him to be a common labouring boy”, said Betty with a smile.*

*“I’m not ready,” he said slowly.*

# PAUSE

By “pause” we mean  
a complete stop of phonation.

## PAUSES

```
graph TD; PAUSES --> Short; PAUSES --> Syntactic; Short --> Normal; Short --> Long; Syntactic --> Emphatic; Syntactic --> Hesitation;
```

*Short*

*Syntactic*

*Normal*

*Emphatic*

*Long*

*Hesitation*

- A **syntactic** pause delimitates the text syntactically.
- An **emphatic** pause emphasizes the following part of the utterance.

*She is the most \_ charming girl in the group.*

- A **hesitation** pause (in spontaneous speech) serves to gain time to think over what to say next.

# RHYTHM

A.M. Antipova defines rhythm as a complex language system which is formed by the interrelation of lexical, syntactic and prosodic means.

Prosody creates similarity and isochrony of speech elements.



## Exercise 1.

**Read the following rhythmic groups. Observe quick pronunciation of unstress syllables:**

- a) Write to her. Read to me. Wait for me. Talk to her. Mary can. Answer it. Certainly. Open it. Tell them that. Nobody is.
- b) I can answer you. I can wait for you. It was wonderful. He can write to you. They must keep it for you.

## Exercise 2.

**Practice reading the dialogue.**

**Lena:** Hello, Ann.

**Ann:** Hello, | come in. 'Glad to see you. 'Do not' mind the mess. I'm doing my room.

**Lena:** 'Can I help you? 'What am I to do?

**Ann:** If you do not mind, you can 'dust the' books in the bookcase | while 'I' put 'everything in its place | and' clean the floor.

**Lena:** Oh, you 'have' lost of books here. 'Have you' read many of them?

**Ann:** Most of them. You know | I'm 'fond of books.

**Lena:** By the way | 'do you' like this' book by Jack London?

**Ann:** Which one? 'Martin Eden? 'Oh, yes, I love it.

**Lena:** 'Can I borrow it from you?

**Ann:** Sure you can.

**Lena:** Thank you. 'Meanwhile I've finished. Now the 'room' looks quite tidy. 'Is there' anything else to do?

**Ann:** 'Nothing else. Thank you. Now we can go to the cinema. There is an 'interesting film on. It be 'gins at' twelve sharp.

**Lena:** That's a nice idea, in deed. Come on then.

# **22. Modal verbs**

# Contents:

- Modal verbs
- Forms of Modal Verbs
- What do they express?
- Categories
- A last tip
- Practice

# What are modal verbs?

---

They are:

- Can
- Could
- May
- Might
- Must
- Shall
- Should
- Will
- Would

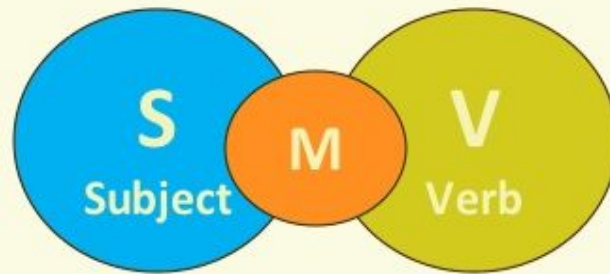
- Ought to

They are **Auxiliary verbs** that provide additional and specific meaning to the main verb of the sentence

**Modal verbs** are sometimes referred to as **Modal Auxiliary verbs** because they **help** other verbs

# How do we use modals?

---



**Example:** **Mary** **could** **play** the piano

They do not accept conjugation  
They do not need other auxiliary verbs

# Form

---

There is no "s" in singular  
There is no "do / does" in the question  
There is no "don't / doesn't" in the negative

He **can** ski      ~~He canski or He can skis~~

**Would** you like to come with me?

~~Do~~ you would like to come with me?

They **can't** be serious

~~They don't~~ can be serious

# Form

Modal verbs do not have **infinitives** or **-ing** forms

~~to can / caning~~

~~to must / musting~~

Modal verbs are followed by an infinitive without to

She **must** study

We **should** have gone the other way

He **could** play football in his youth (general ability)



# Form

---

Modal verbs do **not** have **all the tenses**

Modal verbs use other verbs to complete the tenses

**Can** is completed with **be able to**

**Must** is completed with **have to**

# What do they express?

---

They can have more than one meaning  
depending on the situations

To understand it better we are going to divide them into  
**3 categories**

- 4 **Single Concept Modal:** they have **one** meaning
- 4 **Double Concept Modal:** they have **two** meanings
- 4 **Modals in past:** They are used to express a situation in the past

# Categories

<b>Single concept Modals</b>	<b>Double Concept Modals</b>	<b>Modals in Past</b>
Will Might Should Ought to Had better	May Must Would Shall Could Can	Would have Could have Might have Should have May have Must have

# Single Concept Modal

Modal	Concept	Examples
Will	Future	Joe will travel to NY next week
Might	Small probability	I might move to Canada some day
Should	Recommendation	You should go to the doctor
Ought to	Formal recommendation	We ought to know about first aids
Had better	Warning	I had better study or I will fail the test

# Double Concept Modal

Modal	Concept	Examples
May (1)	Permission	May I come in?
May (2)	Good probability	We may visit Mexico this summer
Must (1)	Responsibility	Everyone must pay taxes
Must (2)	Assumption	She didn't arrive. She must be sick
Would (1)	Past (used to)	When I was young, I would play soccer
Would (2)	Present unreal	I would buy the car but I can't afford it

# Double Concept Modal

Modal	Concept	Examples
Shall (1)	Educated expression Offer	Excuse me, I shall go now Shall I clean it?
Shall (2)	Contractual obligation	The company shall pay on January 1st
Could (1)	Unreal Ability	I could go if I had time
Could (2)	Past Ability	She could play the piano, not anymore
Can (1)	Present Ability	We can speak English
Can (2)	Permission	Can I have a sweet?

# Modals in the Past

---

They are modals referred to actions that happened in the past

MODAL + HAVE + verb in past participle

It **must** have **been** *a difficult decision*

They **should** have **invited** her to their wedding

# Modals in Past : Modal + have + past participle

Modal	Concept	Example
Would have	Past unreal action	I would have bought the car, but I didn't have money
Could have	Past unreal Ability	She could have taken the flight
May have	Past unreal Possibility	We may have passed the test, but it was in French
Might have	Past Unreal Small Probability	You might have sold the house, if you really needed the money
Should have	Past unreal Recommendation	You should have listened to the doctor
Must have	Past unreal Assumption	We must have been crazy!



# A last tip

---

There are few verbs which often serve as  
**modals** too.

These are modal-like verbs

They need to be conjugated

# Modals-like verbs

Modal	Concept	Example
Like to	Enjoy	I like to watch TV
Want to	Desire	John wants to buy a car
Need to	Necessity	We really needed to talk to you
Have to	Obligation	Susan had to pay the rent
Have got to	Have to	I've got to go now
Look forward to	Future plan	I look forward to <b>seeing</b> you again

# Practise

---

Spot the modal verbs:

“Can I have another burger?”

“You really should eat some veg with it.”

“I usually just eat burgers.”

“You must be putting on a lot of weight.”

“No, I can eat whatever I want and it makes no difference.”

“Well, you will get fat if you keep on eating like that.”

# Practise

---

“Can I have another burger?”

“You really should eat some veg with it.”

“I usually just eat burgers.”

“You must be putting on a lot of weight.”

“No, I can eat whatever I want and it makes no difference.”

“Well, you will get fat if you keep on eating like that.”

# Practise

---

Put the right modal verbs into these sentences:

1. He swims really well. He \_\_\_\_\_ practise a lot.
2. It was so dark I \_\_\_\_\_ see the path.
3. He's brilliant. He \_\_\_\_\_ even juggle with his eyes closed!
4. If she keeps practising, she \_\_\_\_\_ just make the team.
5. He is just not sure. He \_\_\_\_\_ make his mind up.

# Practise

---

Put the right modal verbs into these sentences:

1. He swims really well. He **must** practise a lot.
2. It was so dark I **couldn't** see the path.
3. He's brilliant. He **can** even juggle with his eyes closed!
4. If she keeps practising, she **might** just make the team.
5. He is just not sure. He **can't** make his mind up.

# **23. Intonation Patterns**

# Contents:

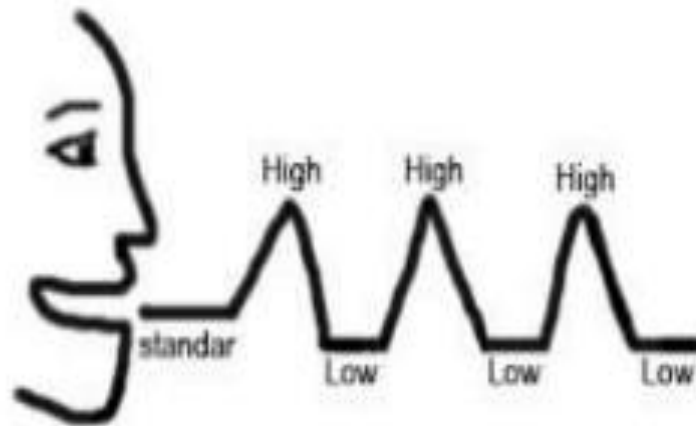
- Introduction
- Falling intonation use



# Introduction




## INTONATION

Intonation is variation of spoken pitch that is not used to distinguish words; instead it is used for a range of functions such as indicating the attitudes and emotions of the speaker, signalling the difference between statements and questions, and between different types of question, focusing attention on important elements of the spoken message and also helping to regulate conversational interaction.



## English Intonation Patterns

There are 3 Intonation Patterns in spoken English:

fall	fall-rise	rise
		

Intonation is an important aspect of spoken English. It shows the speaker's attitude to the words they are using. Some of the most important uses of intonation are:

- Concepts of new and old information.
- Closed and open meaning in questions.
- Correction.
- Implication.
- Contrast.

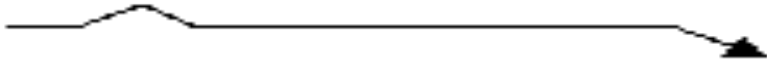
Word	Symbols	Tone names	Meaning
Yes	→	Level	Neutral; uninterested: 'Yes'
Yes	↘	Fall	Positive response 'I agree'
Yes	↗	Low-rise	Question, eliciting a response
Yes	↑	High-rise	Disappointment: 'Are you saying Yes'
Yes	↘↗	Fall-rise	'Carry on, I'm listening'
Yes	↗↘	Rise-fall	Reserved, indicating doubt

In most conversations the voice is normal at the beginning of the sentences, rises at the information focus word (or syllable), then falls back to normal, and drops to low at the end of the sentence. Look at the intonation patterns below.

There are different intonation patterns used for different types of sentences. The intonation pattern for statement, commands, and WH questions is basically the same- the voice starts at a normal pitch, rises at the intonation focus word, falls back to normal after the intonation focus word, and falls to low at the end of the sentence. With yes/no questions and requests, the pitch starts at normal and rises at the end of the sentence.

# Statements

I *like* riding horses.



My English isn't that *good* yet.

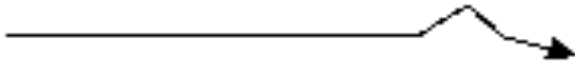


# Commands

Get off the horse *now*.

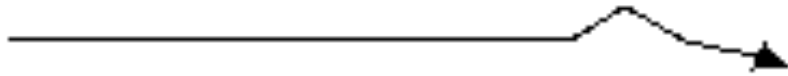


Give me the *key*.



# Wh questions

When do you go *riding*?



Who do you *like* in the fifth?





# Yes/no questions

Do you ever *fall* off?



Have you *eaten* yet?



# Requests

Could I have some *money*?



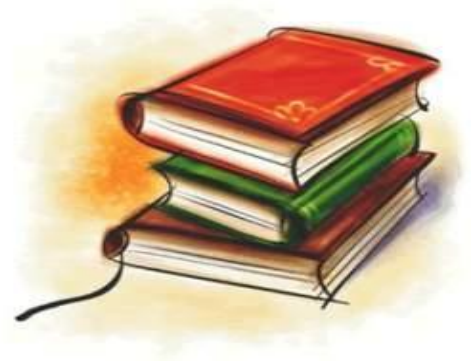
Can I go with you *sometime*?



# 24. Adverbs.

# Contents:

- What is the adverbs?
- Types of adverbs and their positions
- Comparisons of adverbs
- EXAMPLES



# What is the adverbs?

*An **adverb*** is a word that is used to change or qualify the meaning of an adjective, a verb, another adverb, or any other type of word or phrase with the exception of determiners and adjectives that directly modify nouns.

# **Types of adverbs and their positions**

Adverb is a word which is used to modify verb, adjective or adverb. There are six kinds of adverb in English. They are:

- 1) Adverb of Time**
- 2) Adverb of Place**
- 3) Adverb of Manner**
- 4) Adverb of Frequency**
- 5) Adverb of Probability**
- 6) Adverb of Degree**

# Adverb of Time

*Adverb of time* is used to tell the time that an action happens or someone does something. There are many adverbs of time as the following.

*Today, last night, yesterday, now, tomorrow, last month, before...*

## Formula<sub>1</sub>:

Example:

- - I study English ~~today~~ *Adverb of Time*
- - He met his friends last night.

## Formula<sub>2</sub>:

Example:

- - Yesterday she went to Phnom Penh.
- - Now I'm learning English. *Adverb of Time + Sentence*

# ADVERB OF PLACE

*Adverb of place* is used to tell the place where an action occurs or where someone does something. There are many adverbs of place as the following.

*Here, there, inside, outside... or we can use with the preposition of place like at school, at the market...*

**Formula:** Sentence + Adverb of Place

Example:

- - My dog sleeps outside.
- - We have the meeting in the hotel.



# ADVERB OF MANNER

*Adverb of manner* is used to tell how an action happens.

Those Adverbs of Manner are:

*Badly, beautifully, carefully, quickly, softly, lately, hardly, late, hard, truly, fast, easily, fully, automatically...*

**Formula:**

Example:

- - She sings <sup>Subject + Intransitive Verb + Adverb of manner</sup> beautifully.
- - He runs quickly.

**NOTE:** For lately and hardly its formula is:

Example:

- - She hardly believes you.
- - He lately goes to USA. <sup>Subject + Lately/Hardly + Verb + Complement</sup>

**WARNING:** Don't use adverb after "Linking Verb".

# ADVERB OF FREQUENCY

*Adverb of frequency* is used to express how often something happens or someone does something.

*Always, everyday, usually, normally, generally, often, frequently, sometime, occasionally, seldom, rarely, hardly ever, never*

## Formula:

Subject + Adverb of Frequency + Verb + Complement

## Example:

- - They always do their homework at night.
- - We sometime go to the cinema at the weekend.

# ADVERB OF PROBABILITY

*Adverb of probability* is used to show how sure when someone does something.

*Probably, perhaps, definitely, obviously, certainly, truly, exactly....*

## Formula<sub>1</sub>:

Example: Adverb of Probability + Sentence

- - Perhaps she comes today.
- - Probably I have to get up early tomorrow.

## Formula<sub>2</sub>:

Example:

- - He will <sup>Subject + Modal Verb + Adverb of Probability + Main Verb +</sup> probably get married <sub>Complement</sub> next year.
- - Many people can exactly speak English very well.

# ADVERB OF DEGREE

*Adverb of degree* is used to give information about the extent or degree of something.

*Very, quite, fairly, extremely, too, enough, so, almost, a lot...*

## Formula<sub>1</sub>:

Example:

- - My friends <sup>Subject</sup> talk <sup>Intransitive Verb</sup> a lot. <sup>Adverb of Degree</sup>
- - The economy grows extremely.

## Formula<sub>2</sub>:

Example:

- - My boss treats all workers fairly.
- - Children study English, too. <sup>Sub</sup> <sup>Transitive Verb</sup> <sup>Object</sup> <sup>Adverb of Degree</sup>

## Formula<sub>3</sub>:

- Example:
- - She seems too hungry.
- - I feel too much better.

Subject + Linking Verb + Adverb of Degree + Adjective

# Comparisons of adverbs

Adverbs like adjectives are used in comparisons. The positive is the base word (fast, quietly). The comparative is formed by adding –er or the word more (faster, more quietly), and the superlative by adding –est or the word most (fastest, most quietly). A few adverbs have irregular forms (well, better, best).

# First Case

For adverbs that consist of one syllable we add “er” to adverbs to make comparative and “est” to make superlative form.

Example:

- - He drives himself **hard**. (positive)
- - He drives himself **harder** than I think he should. (comparative)
- - He drives himself the **hardest** of anyone I know. (superlative)

## Second Case

For adverbs which contain two or more syllables we add “more” to adverbs to form comparative and “most” to form superlative form.

Example:

- - The tiger moves **quietly** through the jungle.  
(positive)
- - The tiger moves **more quietly** than the deer.  
(comparative)
- - The tiger moves **the most quietly** of the three big cats. (superlative)

# Third Case

For some other adverbs that have irregular forms from positive to superlative like (well, better, best) we don't use the first and second cases above.

Example:

- - I write **well** with others in the room.  
(positive)
- - I write **better** when I'm alone. (comparative)
- - I write **best** late at night. (superlative)



# Examples

- 1) Joseph ran fast. (Fast tells us "to what extent" or "how" Joseph ran.)
- 2) Let's go to the party afterwards. (Afterwards tells us "when" we'll go.)
- More examples of adverbs in a sentence:
  - 1) Kristy was very sleepy. (tells us how sleepy)
  - 2) Go to bed now. (tells us when)
  - 3) This pie is surprisingly good. (tells us how good)
  - 4) Please try harder. (tells us to what extent to try)
  - 5) Marie is always on time. (tells us when Marie is on time)
  - 6) Yesterday, we learned about multiplication. (tells us when we learned)
  - 7) I like to eat ice cream sometimes. (tells us when)
  - 8) Please walk across the street. (tells us where)

## **25. Perfect continuous tenses.**

# Contents:

- Perfect continuous tenses
- Present perfect continuous tenses
- Past perfect continuous tense
- Future perfect continuous tense
- Examples

<b>Present perfect continuous tenses</b>	Has/have been + the present participle (root + -ing)+For (time )
	I have been working for 2 hours
<b>Past perfect continuous tenses</b>	Had been + the present participle (root + -ing). +For (time )
	I had been working for 2 hours
<b>Future perfect continuous tenses</b>	Will has/have been + the present participle (root + -ing). +For (time )
	I will have been working for 2 hours

# The Present Perfect Continuous

Affirmative		Questions		Negative	
... + have/has been + IV		Have/Has ... been + IV ?		... have/has not been + IV	
I have (=I've) been playing.		Have I been playing?		I have not (=I haven't) been playing.	
He She It	has been playing =(... 's been playing)	Has she it	he she been playing?	He She It	has not been playing =(hasn't been playing)
We You They	have been playing =(... 've been playing)	Have you they	we you been playing?	We You They	have not been playing =(haven't been playing)

Subject	had been	verb + ing
I	had been	walking
<b>Affirmative</b>		
She	had been	trying
<b>Negative</b>		
She	hadn't been	sleeping
<b>Interrogative</b>		
Had you	been	eating?
<b>Interrogative negative</b>		
Hadn't they	been	living?

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative	Negative Interrogative
I will have been living	I won't have been living	Will I have been living?	Won't I have been living?
You will have been living	You won't have been living	Will you have been living?	Won't you have been living?
He will have been living	He won't have been living	Will he have been living?	Won't he have been living?
We will have been living	We won't have been living	Will we have been living?	Won't we have been living?
They will have been living	They won't have been living	Will they have been living?	Won't they have been living?

# Exercises

- He /speaking / have been/ for 10 minutes
- He have been speaking for 10 minutes
- Had been / I / working / for
- I had been working for 2 hours.
- She / have been / will playing / for 2 hours
- She will have been playing piano for 2 hours



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