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**АҒЫЛШЫН ТІЛІ
ГРАММАТИКАСЫ**

Қазақстан Республикасының Білім және ғылым министрлігі
М.Өтемісов атындағы Батыс Қазақстан мемлекеттік университеті

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Ағылшын тілі грамматикасы

Оқу құралы

Орал, 2008

ӘОЖ 811.111:81'36

КБЖ 81.2 Англ-923

Қ 53

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Қ 53 Ағылшын тілі грамматикасы: оқу құралы. – Орал: М.Өтемісов атындағы БҚМУ БАҚ және баспа орталығы, 2008. – 156 б.

Баспаға Абай атындағы Қазақ ҰПУ-нің жанындағы «Білім» тобындағы мамандықтар бойынша оқу-әдістемелік секциясы және ҚР БҒМ Республикалық оқу-әдістемелік Кеңесі ұсынған. 25.12.07. №6 Хаттама.

ISBN 9965-748-35-7

Аталмыш оқу құрал келесі бөлімдерден тұрады: 1. Негізгі бөлім (морфология, синтаксис). 2. Кестелер. 3. Жаттығулар. 4. Мәтіндер.

Негізгі бөлімге сөйлеу дағдыларын меңгеруде және ағылшын тіліндегі мәтіндерді түпнұсқасында оқып түсінуде көмек ететін ағылшын тілі грамматикасының ең көп қолданылатын ережелері енгізілген. Сонымен қатар тіл үйренушілерге ең қажет деген грамматикалық минимум кесте түрінде берілген.

Енбектегі жаттығулар негізгі бөлімге енген грамматиканы практикалық меңгеруге мүмкіндік береді. Төртінші бөлім экономикалық және ақпараттық мамандықтар бойынша студенттерге арналған мәтіндерден тұрады. Мәтіндер бойынша сұрақтар мен жаттығулар берілген.

Бұл оқу құралы оқытушылар мен студенттерге арналған.

КБЖ 81.2 Англ-923

$$К = \frac{4310020000}{00(05)-06}$$

ISBN 9965-748-35-7

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МОРФОЛОГИЯ

Зат есім (The NOUN)

§1. Зат есім дегеніміз заттың атын білдіретін сөз табы.

Мысалы: who is this? бұл кім? (A *boy* бала, a *woman* әйел) әлде what is this? бұл не? (a *garden* бақша, *water* су, *friendship* достық)

Өз құрлысына қарай зат есімдер жай, туынды және күрделі болады.

Мысалы: жай зат есімдер (*reader* оқушы, *happiness* бақыт)

Күрделі зат есімдер (*class-room* класс бөлмесі, *fountain-pen* автоматты қалам)

Жалқы және жалпы зат есімдер (Proper and common Nouns)

§2. Жалқы зат есімдер дүниедегі жеке құбылыстарды, жеке заттарды және жеке адам атын білдіреді. Жалқы зат есімдер бас әріппен жазылады. Мысалы: the Neva Нева, Moscow Мәскеу, Helen Елена, John Brown Джон Браун.

Жалпы зат есімдер деп, жалпылама бір-біріне ұқсас заттар мен жан-жануарлардың, құбылыстардың, жалпы атауын атаймыз.

1. Зат есімдер нақтылы заттарды көрсетеді: a *table* үстел, *tables* үстелдер,

a *girl* қыз, *girls* қыздар.

2. Зат есімдер әртүрлі заттарды көрсетеді: (**Material Noun - Заттық зат есімдер**) *milk* сүт, *gold* алтын, *sugar* қант.

3. Зат есімдер белгіні, қимылды, күйді, сезімді, ғылым, көркем өнерді көрсетеді. (**Abstract Noun** дерексіз зат есімдер)

Мысалы: *strength* күш, *love* махаббат, *history* тарих, *work* жұмыс, *sleep* ұйқы, *music* музыка.

Саналатын және саналмайтын зат есімдер.

§3. Жалпы зат есім екі топқа бөлінеді:

1. Саналатын зат есімдер - санауға болатын зат есімдерді білдіреді. Олар жекеше және көпше түрде қолданылады.

Мысалы: **I have bought a book.** Мен кітап сатып алдым.

I have bought two books. Мен екі кітап сатып алдым.

There is a library in this street. Бұл көшеде кітапхана бар.

There are very many libraries in Moscow. Мәскеуде көп кітапханалар бар.

2. Саналмайтын зат есімдер санауға болмайтын зат есімдерді

білдіреді. Бұған заттық және дерексіз зат есімдер жатады. Саналмайтын зат есімдер тек қана жекеше түрде қолданылады. Мысалы: **Knowledge is power.** *Күш білімде.*

Сан. (Number)

Зат есімнің көпше түрінің құрылысы.

§4. Зат есімнің көпше түрі жекеше түріне **-s-** жалғау арқылы жасалынады, және ол ұяң дауыссыз және дауысты дыбыстардан кейін (**z**) болып, қатаң дауыссыз дыбыстардан кейін (**s**) болып айтылады.

Мысалы: **a room** бөлме, **rooms** бөлмелер

a shoe - shoes бәтеңке

a chair орындық, **chairs** орындықтар

a book кітап, **books** кітаптар

Егер зат есім жекеше түрінде **-ss, -x, -sh, -ch, -o** әріптеріне, яғни ысылдап шығатын дыбыстарға аяқталса, көпше түрінде **-es** жалғауы жалғанады, ол [**iz**] болып оқылады.

Мысалы: **a class** класс, **classes** кластар

a box қорап, **boxes** қораптар

a dish табақ, **dishes** табақтар

an inch дюйм

Зат есім жекеше түрінде **-y** әріпіне аяқталса және **-y** алдында дауыссыз дыбыс тұрса, онда көпше түрінде **-y -ies** өзгереді.

Мысалы: **a city** қала, **cities** қалалар

a factory фабрика, **factories** фабрикалар

Егер **-y** алдында дауысты дыбыс тұрса, онда көпше түрінде **-y -**ға **-s** жалғанады.

Мысалы: **a day** күн, **days** күндер

a boy бала, **boys** балалар

Егер зат есім жекеше түрінде **-f** немесе **-fe** әріптеріне аяқталса онда көпше түрінде **-f** немесе **-fe -ves** өзгереді.

Мысалы: **a leaf** жапырақ, **leaves** жапырақтар

a wolf қасқыр, **wolves** қасқырлар

a knife пышақ **knives** пышақтар

a wife әйел, **wives** әйелдер

Кейбір зат есімдердің көпше түрінде s жалғанбайды, олар сөздегі дауыстыны өзгерту арқылы көпше түрін жасайды.

Мысалы:	жекеше түрі	көпше түрі
	man ер адам	men ер адамдар
	woman әйел	women әйелдер
	foot аяқ	feet аяқтар
	tooth тіс	teeth тістер
	goose қаз	geese қаздар
	mouse тышқан	mice тышқандар

Зат есім child бала, көпше түрінде children балалар болады.

Септеу (case)

§5. Ағылшын тілінде екі септеу бар: (The Common Case) Жалпы септеу, және (The Possessive Case) Тәуелдік септеу.

Жалпы септеу (The Common Case)

Жалпы септеудегі зат есімдер орнына қарай әртүрлі функцияны атқарады.

Егер зат есімдер, сөйлемде баяндауыштың алдында тұрса, ол бастауыш болады. Егер зат есімдер сөйлемде баяндауыштан кейін тұрса, ол тура толықтауыш болады.

Мысалы: The student recognized the teacher. Студент оқытушыны таныды.

The teacher recognized student. Оқытушы студентті таныды.

Баяндауыш пен тура толықтауышты білдіретін зат есімдер арасында жалпы септеудегі басқа адамды білдіретін зат есім тұруы мүмкін. Ондай зат есім жанама толықтауыш болады.

Мысалы: The teacher showed the students a diagram.

Оқытушы диаграмманы студенттерге көрсетті.

Зат есімдер жалпы септеуде әртүрлі демеуліктермен қолданылады.

Мысалы: I have received a letter from my brother. Мен ағамнан хат алдым.

He bought a coat for his son. Ол баласына пальто сатып алды.

Тәуелдік септеу (The Possessive Case)

§6. Зат есімдер тәуелдік септеуде кімнің? кімдікі? деген

сұрақтарға жауап береді (whose?)

Тәуелдік септеу түрінде жанды зат есімдер қолданылады.

1.Тәуелдік септеуде зат есімдердің жекеше түріне 's жалғау жалғанады. 's (апостроф деп аталады).

Мысалы: the child' s mother баланың мамасы.

Kate' s book -Катяның кітабы

he horse' s leg - аттың аяғы

2 Тәуелдік септеу зат есімнің көпше түрінде апостроф белгісі мен көрсетіледі.

Мысалы: The boys' books балалардың кітаптары.

The workers' tools жұмысшылардың құралдары.

Жак (Gender)

§7. Ағылшын тілінде жанды зат есімдер екі түрге бөлінеді: еркек және әйелдер жақтарына.

Еркек жынысты көрсететін, зат есімнің орнына, **he** деген есімдік қолданылады.

Әйел жынысын көрсететін, зат есімнің орнына, **she** деген есімдік қолданылады.

Мысалы: Where is your brother? He is in the garden.

Сенің ағаң қайда? Ол бақта.

Where is your sister? She is at home.

Сенің апаң қайда? Ол үйде.

Зат есімдер жансыз заттарды көрсетсе ол орта жаққа жатады.

Мысалы: Where is my dictionary? Менің сөздігім қайда?

It is on the shelf. Ол кітап сөресінде.

Зат есімдер жан-жануарды білдірсе онда ол орта жаққа жатады.

Мысалы: Where is the dog? It is in the garden.

Ит қайда? Ол бақта.

Артикль (The Article)

Артикльдің түрлері және олардын айтылу жолы.

§8. Ағылшын тілінде екі артикль бар: белгісіз және белгілі артикль.

Белгісіз артикльдің екі түрі бар: a және an.

Егер де сөз дауыссыз дыбыстан басталса, онда сөздің алдында **a** [ə] деген артикль қойылады.

Мысалы: a table үстел, a book кітап

Егер де сөз дауысты дыбыстан басталса, онда сөздің алдына **an** [ən] деген артикль қойылады.

Мысалы: an apple алма, an old man шал, қарт адам.

Белгілі артикль the

Егер де сөз дауыссыз дыбыстан басталса, онда белгілі артикль **the** [ðə] болып айтылады.

Мысалы: The table [ðə teibl]

The book [ðə buk]

Егер де сөз дауысты дыбыстан басталса, онда белгілі артикль **the** [ði:] болып айтылады.

Мысалы: The apple [ði: æpl], the old man [ði: ould mæn]

Артикльдің орны.

Артикль зат есімнің алдында тұрады. Егер де зат есімнің алдында анықтама сөз тұрса, онда артикль сол сөздің алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: I am writing a letter.

Мен хат жазып отырмын.

I am writing a business letter.

Мен іскер хат жазып отырмын.

Артикль **a (an) what** деген сөздерден кейін лепті сөйлемде қолданылады. Мысалы: What an interesting book!

Қандай қызықты кітап!

Артикль **a (an) rather, such, quite** деген сөздерден кейін қойылады.

Мысалы: It is such an interesting book!

Бұл сондай қызықты кітап!

He is quite an old man.

Ол тіпті қарт адам.

It is rather a difficult question.

Бұл едәуір қиын сұрақ.

Артикль **the, all, both** деген есімдіктерден кейін қойылады.

Мысалы: All the students of our group attended the meeting.

Біздің топтың барлық студенттері жиналыста болды.

Сын есім. (The Adjective)

§9. Сын есім қандай деген сұраққа жауап береді.

Мысалы: *red қызыл, good жақсы, interesting қызықты, Russian орысша.*

Өзінің құрылысы бойынша сын есімдер жай (**big үлкен, small кішкентай, short қысқа**) туынды (**cultural мәдениетті, hopeless үмітсіз, doubtful күдікті**) және күрделі болады (**dark-blue қара-көк, red- hot қыздырылған**).

Ағылшын тілінде сын есімдер жақ түрінде, көпше түрінде, септеу түрінде өзгермейді.

Мысалы: a young man жас жігіт, a young woman жас әйел, young people жас адамдар, with a young man жас жігітпен.

Шырайлар (Degrees of Comparison)

Ағылшын тілінде сын есімдер екі шырайды құрайды: салыстырма шырай (The Comparative Degree) күшейтпелі шырай (The Superlative Degree).

Сын есімдер жай шырайда заттың сапасын ешбір сөзбен салыстырмай көрсетеді : Long -ұзын(жай шырай)

Longer -ұзындау (салыстырмалы шырай)

The longest- ең ұзын (күшейтпелі шырай)

Бір буыннан тұратын сын есімдер. Салыстырма шырайды үстеу, сын есімнің жай шырай формасына **er [ə]**, күшейтпелі шырайда **est [ist]** жалғау арқылы жасайды. Сын есімнің алдында күшейтпелі шырайда **the** деген артикль тұрады.

Мысалы: Cold-colder-the coldest

Large-large-the largest

Hot-hotter-the hottest

Екі және көп буынды сын есімдердің салыстырма шырайы **more**, Күшейтпелі шырайы **most** сөздері арқылы жасалады. Бұл сөздер **more** және, **most** сын есімнің алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: Active-more active-the most active

Difficult-more difficult-the most difficult

Ағылшын тілінде кейбір сын есімнің шырайлары ережеге бағынбай жасалады.

Мысалы: good-better-the best

Жақсы-жақсырақ-ең жақсы

Bad-worse-the worst

Жаман-жаманырақ-ең жаман

Little-less-the least.

Аз-азырақ-ең аз
Much-more-the most
Көп-көбірек-ең көп
Far-farther, further-the farthest, the furthest
Алыс, қашығырақ, тым қашық, ең қашық

Салыстырмалы шырайда Сын есімдерден кейін than деген шылау қолданылады.

Мысалы: Moscow is larger than Leningrad.

Мәскеу Ленинградтан үлкендеу.

Сөйлемде күшейтпелі шырайдағы сын есімдерден кейін зат есім демеулікпен жиі кездеседі.

Мысалы: The Volga is the longest river in Europe.

Волга Европадағы ең ұзын өзен.

Сан есім (The Numeral)

§10. Сан есімдер есептік және реттік сан есімге бөлінеді: есептік сан есім қанша? (**how many?**) деген сұраққа жауап береді (**бір, екі, үш**), *реттік сан есім қай? (which?) қайсысы? нешінші?* деген сұраққа жауап береді (**the first бірінші, the second екінші, the third үшінші**).

Өзінің құрылысы бойынша сан есімдер жай (**one бір, two екі**) туынды (**sixteen он алты, fifty елу**) және құрама болып бөлінеді (**two hundred екі жүз, forty five қырық бес**).

Есептік сан есімдер (Cardinal Numerals)

1-12		13-19 20-90
1-one	13-thirteen	20-twenty
2-two	14-fourteen	21-twenty-one
3-three	15-fifteen	30-thirty
4-four	16-sixteen	40-fourteen
5-five	17-seventeen	50-fifteen
6-six	18-eighteen	60-sixteen
7-seven	19-nineteen	70-seventeen
8-eight		80-eighteen
9-nine		90-nineteen
10-ten		
11-eleven		
12-twelve		

Есептік сан есімде 20-дан 90-ға дейін ту деген жұрнақ қосылады.
21- twenty -one, 22- twenty - two деген есептік сан есімдер дефис арқылы жазылады.

100- a (one) hundred, 200 – two hundred.

Hundred, thousand, million деген сан есімдердің алдында белгісіз (a) артикль немесе one деген сан есім қойлады.

Реттік сан есім (Ordinal numerals)

Реттік сан есімде (1, 2, 3 қоспағанда) th жұрнағы қосылады.

Мысалы: 1 – 12

1st -the first - бірінші

2nd -the second - екінші

3rd -the third - үшінші

4th -the fourth - төртінші

5th -the fifth - бесінші

6th -the sixth - алтыншы

7th -the seventh - жетінші

8th -the eighth - сегізінші

9th -the ninth - тоғызыншы

10th -the tenth - оныншы

11th -the eleventh - он бірінші

12th -the twelfth - он екінші

20 – 90

20 - the twentieth

21 - the twenty-first

22nd - the twenty-second

30th - the thirtieth

40th - the fortieth

50th - the fiftieth

60th - the sixtieth

70th - the seventieth

80th - the eightieth

90th - the ninetieth

13 - 19

13th - the thirteenth

14th - the fourteenth

15th - the fifteenth

16th - the sixteenth

17th - the seventeenth

18th - the eighteenth

19th - the nineteenth

Сан есімдерге th жұрнағы қосылғанда ең соңғы әріп -y - ie әріптеріне өзгереді. 100th -the hundredth

101st -the hundred and first

200th - the two hundredth

Хронологиялық оқиға уақыты.

§11. Ағылшын тілінде жылдар есептік сан есіммен көрсетіледі.

1900-*nineteen hundred*

1904- *nineteen four*

1945- *nineteen forty-five*

1961- *nineteen sixty-one*

Уақыттар ағылшын тілінде реттік сан есіммен көрсетіледі.

15th May, 1960-*the fifteenth of May, nineteen sixty.* May 15, 1960 *May of fifteen, nineteen sixty.*

Есімдік (The Pronoun)

§12. Есімдік деп зат есімнің немесе сын есімнің орнына қолданылатын сөз табын айтады.

Мысалы: *Pushkin is the greatest Russian poet. He was born in 1799.*

Пушкин ең ұлы орыс ақыны. Ол 1799 жылы туған.

(Пушкин деген зат есімнің орнына, *he* деген есімдік қойылады).

The day was warm. Such days are rare in October.

Күн жылы болды. Қазан айында мұндай күндер сирек кездеседі.

(*warm* деген сын есімнің орнына, *such* деген есімдік қойылады).

Есімдіктер зат есімнің алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: *I see them every day.*

Мен оларды күнде көремін.

Where is my fountain-pen?

Менің қаламым қайда?

Есімдіктер өз алдына қолданылады.

Мысалы: *He is a doctor* Ол дәрігер.

Helen saw him yesterday. Лена оны кеше көрді.

The pencil is mine Қарандаш менікі.

Көптеген есімдіктер кей жағдайларда зат есімнің алдында қолданылады, кейде есімдіктер өз алдына қолданылады.

Мысалы: *Peter read all the stories in this book.*

Петр бұл кітаптан барлық әңгімені оқып шықты

All were ready for the trip.

Барлығы жол сапарға дайын болды.

Есімдіктерді мағынасына қарай топтастыру және олардың қолданылуы.

Есімдіктер өз мағынасы бойынша келесі топтарға бөлінеді:

- 1) жіктеу есімдіктері,
- 2) тәуелдеу есімдіктері,
- 3) өзіндік есімдіктері,
- 4) сілтеу есімдіктері,
- 5) ортақ есімдіктері,
- 6) сұрау есімдіктері,
- 7) қатыстық есімдіктері,
- 8) белгісіз есімдіктері.

3. Жіктеу есімдігі (Personal Pronouns)

Жақ	Атаусептік	Объектік септік
Жекеше түрі		
1ж	I мен	Me Мені, маған
2ж		
3ж	He she it ол	Him, her оны, оған
Көпше түрі		
1ж	We біз	Us Бізге, біздерді
2ж	You сіз	You Сізге, сіздерді
3ж	They олар	Them Оларға, оларды

I деген есімдік әрқашан бас әріппен жазылады.

Мысалы: My brother and I took part in this work.

Менің ағам және мен бұл жұмысқа қатыстық.

He деген есімдік еркек жынысын көрсетеді. Зат есімдерді өзгертеді, she есімдігі әйел жынысын көрсетеді.

Мысалы: Peter is a doctor. He works at a hospital.

Петер – дәрігер. Ол ауруханада жұмыс істейді.

Where is Helen? She is at home.

Лена қайда? Ол үйде

It деген есімдік жансыз затты көрсетеді.

Мысалы: The pencil is black. It is black

Қарандаш қара түсті. Ол қара.

The window is open. It is open.

Терезе ашық. Ол ашық.

It деген есімдік жан жануар туралы айтқанда қолданылады.

Мысалы: The cat is under the table. It is under the table.

Мысық үстелдің астында. Ол үстелдің астында.

They (олар) – деген есімдік жанды және жансыз зат есімдердің орына қолданылады.

Мысалы: The children are in the corridor. They are in the corridor.

Балалар коридорда. Олар коридорда.

Жіктеу есімдіктер объекті септікте *кімге? кімді? неге? нені?* деген сұрақтарға жауап береді.

Мысалы: I saw him yesterday. Мен оны кеше көрдім.

He showed them his library. Ол өзінің кітапханасын оларға көрсетті.

Есімдіктер объектік септікте әртүрлі демеуліктермен қолданылады.

Мысалы: This letter is for you. Бұл хат сізге.

They told me about it. Олар маған бұл туралы айтты.

Тәуелдеу есімдік. Possessive pronouns.

Тәуелдеу есімдік *кімнің? кімдікі?* деген сұрақтарға жауап береді. Тәуелді есімдікте екі тұлға бар: бірінші түрі зат есімнің алдында қолданылады, екіншісі өз алдына қолданылады.

Зат есімнің алдынан қолданылатын тәуелдеу есімдіктер.

Жақ	Жекеше түрі	Көпше түрі
1ж	my-менің	Ours-біздің
2ж		Youг -сіздің,сіздердің
3ж	His-оның Her-оның Its-оның	Their-олардың

Тәуелдеу есімдіктері бұл тұлғада зат есімді анықтап,зат есім артикльсіз қолданылады.

Мысалы: His watch is on the table. Оның сағаты столдың үстінде.

Where is my new dictionary? Менің жаңа сөздігім қайда?

Зат есімдерсіз қолданылатын тәуелдеу есімдіктер.

Жақ	Жекеше түрі	Көпше түрі
1ж	mine-менікі	Ours-біздікі
2ж		yours-сіздікі,сіздердікі
3ж	his-оныкі hers-оныкі its-оныкі	theirs-олардікі

Мысалы: This is not my pencil. Mine is blue.

Бұл менің қарандашым емес, менікі көк.

Өздік есімдік. Reflexive pronouns.

Өздік есімдіктер **self** жекеше түрдегі есімдіктерге және **selves** көпше түрдегі есімдіктерге жалғау арқылы жасалады.

Жақ	Жекеше түрі	Көпше түрі
1ж	Myself- өзімді	Ourselves- өзімізді
2ж	Yourself- өзінді	yourselves- өздеріңізді
3ж	himself- өзін herself- өзін itself- өзін	themselves-өздерін

Өзіндік есімдіктер ағылшын тілінде сөйлемде етістіктен кейін тұрады.
Мысалы: He defended himself bravely. Ол өзін батыл қорғады.

Reciprocal pronouns. Ортақ есімдіктер

10.Ортақ есімдіктерге **each, other, one, another** деген есімдіктері жатады.

Мысалы: They have known each other for two years.

Олар бір-бірін екі жыл біледі.

They looked at one another.

Олар бір-біріне қарады

Demonstrative pronouns. Сілтеу есімдіктер.

Сілтеу есімдіктерге **this (these) that (those)** және **it, such, same** деген есімдіктер жатады.

This (these), that (those).

Сілтеу есімдіктерге жекеше түрінде **this, that** есімдіктері жатады көпше түрінде - **these, those**. Егер заттар сөйлеушіге жақын жерде, онда **this, these** деген есімдіктер қолданылады және сөйлемде олар зат есімнің алдында тұрады.

That, those деген есімдіктері, заттар сөйлеушіден алыстау тұрса қолданылады.

Мысалы: This young man is my brother. Бұл жас жігіт менің ағам

Do you know that man? Ана бір адамды білесіз бе?

These cigarettes are very good. Бұл темекі өте жақсы.

I like those flowers. Маған ана гүлдер ұнайды.

It.

Сілтеу есімдік *it* бұл деп аударылады.

Мысалы: *What is this? It is a dictionary.*

Бұл не? Бұл сөздік.

What are these? They are dictionaries.

Бұл нелер? Бұл сөздіктер.

Such, same.

Such есімдігі сөйлемде зат есімнің алдында тұрады, және осындай, мұндай, сондай деп аударылады.

Мысалы: *These are such interesting books!*

Бұл сондай қызықты кітаптар!

Same деген есімдік *сол, ол, сонау, анау, ана бір, дәл сол* деп аударылады және сөйлемде “**same**” деген есімдіктің алдында “**the**” деген анықтама тұрады.

Мысалы: *He read same story.*

Ол сол әңгімені екі рет оқыды

Interrogative pronouns. Сұрау есімдіктер.

Сұрау есімдіктерге **who (whom) whose, what, which** деген есімдіктер жатады. **Who** деген есімдік *кім?* деп аударлады.

Мысалы: *Who is standing there? Ана жерде тұрған кім?*

Who knows her address? Кім оның адресін біледі?

Whom деген есімдік кімд деп аударлады.

Мысалы: *Who (whom) did you see there? Кімді сіз онда көрдіңдер?*

Whom деген есімдік сөйлемде әртүрлі демеуліктермен колданылады.

Мысалы: *From whom did you receive the letter?*

Сіз хатты Кімнен алдыңыз?

To whom деген есімдік *кімге?* деп аударлады және **by whom?** *кіммен, кім* деп аударылады.

Мысалы: *To whom did you give dictionary?*

Кімге сіз өз сөздігіңізді бердіңіз?

By whom is this letter signed?

Кім бұл хатқа қол қойды?

Whose.

Whose деген есімдік *кімнің, кімдікі* деп аударылады. Ағылшын тілінде **whose** деген есімдік сөйлемде артикльсіз бөлады.

Мысалы: **Whose dictionary did you take?**

Сіз кімнің сөздігін алдыңыз?

Whose fountain-pen is this?

Бұл кімнің қаламы?

What.

Ағылшын тілінде **what** деген есімдік *не, немене* деп аударлады.

Мысалы: **What is lying on the table?** Үстелдің үстінде не жатыр?

Ағылшын тілінде **what** есімдігі сөйлемде әртүрлі демеуліктермен қолданылады.

Мысалы: **About what did you speak to him?**

Сіз не туралы онымен сөйлестіңіз.

Кейде **what** есімдігі ағылшын тілінде *қандай? қалай?* және *кім?* деп аударлады.

Мысалы: **What is the population of Odessa?**

Одессада халықының саны қандай ?

What is that man?

Ана адам кім?

Ағылшын тілінде **what** деген есімдігі *қандай?* деп аударлады және сөйлемде зат есімнің алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: **What question did he ask?**

Ол қандай сұрақ қойды?

Which.

Ағылшын тілінде **which** деген есімдік *қай? қайсысы? кім? қандай? не?* деп аударылады.

Мысалы: **Which story in this book is the most interesting?**

Бұл кітапта қай әңгіме ең қызықты?

Which of you speaks German?

Кім сіздердің аранызда немісше сөйлейді?

Which do you prefer-tea or coffee?

Сіз не ұнатасыз-шәй ме әлде кофе ме?

Relative pronouns. Қатыстық есімдік.

Ағылшын тілінде **who**, **whose**, **which**, деген сұрау есімдіктер сөйлемде сұрақ үшін пайдаланылмай, олар сөйлемдерді байланыстыру үшін қолданылса бұл есімдіктерді қатыстық есімдіктер деп атайды.

Мысалы: Who has written this letter is unknown.

Бұл хатты кім жазғаны белгісіз.

I do not know which story is the most interesting in this book.

Бұл кітапта қай әңгіменің ең қызықты екенін мен білмеймін.

Who (whom).

Ағылшын тілінде адам туралы айтылғанда **who** қай, қайсысы **whom** деген есімдіктер қолданылады.

Мысалы: This is the man who wanted to speak to you.

Бұл сізбен сөйлескісі келген адам.

Which.

Ағылшын тілінде жансыз зат туралы немесе жануар туралы айтылғанда **which** деген есімдік қолданылады.

Мысалы: He showed me the letter which he had received from his brother

Ағасынан алған хатты, ол маған көрсетті

He showed me the skin of the wolf which he had killed.

Ол маған өзі өлтірген қасқырдың терісін көрсетті.

Whose.

Ағылшын тілінде **whose** деген есімдік жанды зат есімдерге қатысты қолданылады және сөйлемде зат есімнің алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: That is the girl whose brother came to see us the other day.

Мынау жуықта бізге келген қыздың ағасы.

That.

Ағылшын тілінде **that** деген есімдік сөйлемде жанды және жансыз заттармен қолданылады және сөйлемде **that** деген есімдіктің орнына **whose**, **whom** деген есімдіктерді қолдануға болады.

Мысалы: Take the book that is lying on the table. (Which)

Үстелдің үстінде жатырған кітапты ал.

Whom, **which** деген есімдіктер сөйлемде демеуліктермен қолданылады.

Мысалы: He is the student to whom I gave my dictionary.

Ол мен сөздігімді берген студент.

Indefinite pronouns. Белгісіз есімдіктер.

Ағылшын тілінде белгісіз есімдіктерге **some, any, no, much, little, few, all, both, each, other, one** деген есімдіктер жатады.
Some, any.

Ағылшын тілінде **some** есімдігі болымды сөйлемдерде қолданылады, **any** есімдігі сұраулы және болымсыз сөйлемдерде қолданылады.

1. Сөйлемдерде **some, any** деген есімдіктер көпше түрдегі зат есімнің алдында тұрады және *ол бірнеше, ешқандай, қандай болмасын, қандай болсада*, деп аударылады.

Мысалы: He asked me some questions.

Ол маған бірнеше сұрақ қойды.

He did not make any mistakes in his dictation.

Ол диктанта ешқандай қате жіберген жоқ.

2. **Some, any** деген есімдіктер сөйлемде саналмайтын зат есімнің алдында қолданылады және *олар біразы, аздап, азғана, қанша болса да* деп аударылады.

Мысалы: Bring me some milk, please.

Маған аздап сүт алып келіңізші.

Is there any butter on the table?

Үстелдің үстінде май бар ма?

Some деген есімдік кейбір деген мағынада көпше түрдегі зат есімнің алдында қолданылады.

Мысалы: Some trees remain green all the year round.

Кейбір ағаштар жыл бойы жасыл болып сақталады.

Some деген есімдік сөйлемде сан есімнің алдында тұрады және, *шамамен деп* аударлады.

Мысалы: There were some fifty people there.

Онда шамамен 50 адам болды.

Ағылшын тілінде **any** есімдігі жекеше түрдегі саналатын және саналмайтын зат есімнің алдында тұрады. **any** *кез-келген* деп аударылады.

Мысалы: You may come here at any time.

Сенің осында кез-келген уақытта келуіңе болады.

Some және any дан туындаған есімдіктер.

Some, any есімдіктері - **one - thing** және - **body** сөздерімен байланысып белгісіз есімдіктерді құрайды: **someone, somebody** біреу әлдекім, **anybody, anyone** кім де болса, **something, бірдеме, бір нәрсе, anything** не де болса.

1. **some, any** есімдіктер сияқты **someone, somebody** және **something** деген есімдіктер болымды сөйлемдерде қолданылады, **anyone, anybody** және **anything** деген есімдіктер сұраулы және болымсыз сөйлемдерде қолданылады.

Мысалы: Give me something to read.

Маған бірдеме оқуға берші.

Did you see anybody (anyone) there?

Сіз біреуді көрдіңізбе?

2. **Any** есімдігі сияқты **anyone, anybody, anything** деген есімдіктер сөйлемдерде әркім, әр нәрсе деген мағынада болымды, болымсыз және сұраулы сөйлемдерде қолданылады.

Мысалы: Anyone can do that.

Мұны әркім істей алады.

You may play anything you like.

Сіздің өзіңіз қалаған нәрсені ойнауыңызға болады.

No.

No есімдігі сөйлемде жекеше және көпше түрдегі зат есімнің алдында тұрады. **No** есімдігі **not ... а** және **not ... any** сияқты аударылады.

Мысалы: I have no ticket. (I haven' t a ticket)

Менде билет жоқ.

I found no mistakes in your dictation.

(I did not find any mistakes in your dictation)

Мен сіздің диктантыңыздан ешқандай қате таба алмадым.

Ағылшын тілінде **not** жекеше түрдегі саналатын зат есімнің алдында қолданылады. **Not any** көпше түрдегі саналатын зат есімнің және саналмайтын зат есімнің алдында қолданылады.

No дан туындаған есімдіктер.

No есімдікті **body, one** және **thing** деген есімдіктермен байланысып болымсыз есімдіктерді құрайды. **Nobody, one (ешкім)**

nothing (*ешбір зат, ештеңе*).

Мысалы: We saw nobody there. We didn't see anybody there.

Біз сонда ешкімді көрген жоқпыз.

Many, much.

Many мен **much** деген есімдіктері көп деген мағынада қолданылады. **Many** деген есімдік ағылшын тілінде саналатын зат есімнің алдында тұрады, **much** деген есімдік саналмайтын зат есімдердің алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: Has he many friends in Moscow?

Оның Мәскеуде көп досы бар ма?

Do you spend much time on your homework?

Сіз үй тапсырмаңызға көп уақытыңызды жібересіз бе?

Ағылшын тілінде **much, many** деген есімдіктер негізінен сұраулы және болымсыз сөйлемдерде пайдаланылады. **Much, many** деген есімдіктер болымды сөйлемдерде қолданылады, егерде, есімдіктердің алдында *very, too, so, as, how* деген сөздер тұрған жағдайда.

Мысалы: He has very many friends in Moscow.

Оның Мәскеуде өте көп достары бар.

Few, little.

Ағылшын тілінде **few, little** деген есімдіктер аз деп аударылады. **Few** деген есімдік саналатын зат есімдермен қолданылады. **Little** деген есімдік саналмайтын зат есімдермен қолданылады.

Ағылшын тілінде **few, little** деген есімдіктер болымды сөйлемдерде қолданылады, егер де олардың алдында *very, too, so, as, how* деген сөздер тұрса.

Мысалы: There were very few people there.

Онда өте аз адам болды.

I have so little time.

Менің уақытым сондай аз.

Few және **little** деген есімдіктермен “**a**” деген артикль қолдануға болады:

a few, a little *аздап, бірнеше*

Мысалы: Please give me a little water.

Маған аздап су беріңізші.

All.

Ағылшын тілінде **all** деген есімдік *бүкіл, жалпы, барлық, бәрі* деген мағынада көпше түрдегі саналатын зат есімдермен қолданылады.

All деген есімдік *бәрі, барлығы, бар, бүкіл* деп аударылады және саналмайтын зат есімдермен қолданылады.

Мысалы: He spends all his free time in the reading-room.

Бүкіл бос уақытын ол оқу залында өткізеді.

Both.

Ағылшын тілінде **both** деген есімдік *екеу, екі* деп аударылады. Зат есімдер сөйлемде **the** деген артикль және артикльсіз тұрады. **The** деген артикль сөйлемде **“both”** деген есімдіктен кейін тұрады.

Мысалы: Both (the) brothers live in Moscow.

Екі ағасы Мәскеуде тұрады.

Both my daughters are married.

Менің екі қызым тұрмыста.

Each and every.

Ағылшын тілінде **each** деген есімдік *әрбір, әркім, әрқайсысы* деп аударылады. **“Each”** деген есімдік жекеше түрдегі саналатын зат есімнің алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: Each student in our group has an English-Russian dictionary.

Біздің топтың әрбір студентінде ағылшын- орыс сөздігі бар.

Ағылшын тілінде **every** деген есімдік *әрбір, әркім* деп аударлады. **“Every”** сөйлемде жекеше түрдегі саналатын зат есімдердің алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: I see him every day.

Мен оны күнде көремін.

“Every” - дан туындаған есімдіктер.

Every деген есімдікке **body, thing, one** деген сөздер қосылса **everybody, everything, everyone** деген есімдіктер құрылады.

Everybody, everyone *әрбір, әрқайсысы, әркім, бүкіл, бәрі* деп аударлады. **everything** *бәрі, барлығы, бүкіл* деп аударлады.

Мысалы: Everybody (everyone) is here.

Бәрі де осында.
Everything is ready.
Барлығы дайын.

Other.

Ағылшын тілінде **“other”** деген есімдік басқа, басқалар деп аударылады. Сөйлемде **“other”** деген есімдік жекеше және көпше түріндегі зат есімнің алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: Where are the other books that I gave you?

Мен сізге берген басқа кітаптар қайда?

One.

Сөйлемде **“one”** деген есімдік бастауыштың қызметін атқарады.

Мысалы: One should be careful when crossing the street.

Көшеден өткенде сақ болу керек.

Сөйлемде **“one”** деген есімдік жиі **must should, ought, can, may** деген етістіктермен қолданылады.

Мысалы: One must observe... Сақтау керек...

One can find... Табуға болады...

Active voice. Негізгі етіс.

The verb. Етістік.

§13. Етістік іс-әрекетті, жай күйді көрсететін сөз табы.

Мысалы: My brother works at a factory.

Менің ағам фабрикада жұмыс істейді.

He slept for six hours.

Ол 6 сағат ұйықтады.

Етістіктің негізгі формалары.

Ағылшын тілінде етістіктің үш негізгі нысаны бар: бірінші етістіктің алғашқы өзгермеген нысаны (The Infinitive), екінші нысан өткен шақ формасы (Past Indefinite), үшінші нысан өткен шақ есімшесі (Past Participle)

Дұрыс етістіктер және бұрыс етістіктер.

Ағылшын тілінде етістіктер екі топқа бөлінеді: дұрыс етістіктер және бұрыс етістіктер.

Дұрыс етістіктердің Past Indefinite және Past Participle формалары -ed жалғауы арқылы жасалады.

Infinitive	Past Indefinite	Past Participle
To open	Opened	Opened
To work	Worked	Worked

Finite forms of the verb Группа Indefinite. Indefinite тобы.

Бұл топқа: Present Indefinite tense (Жай осы шақ), Past Indefinite tense (жай өткен шақ), . Future Indefinite tense (жай келер шақтар) жатады.

Жай шақтардың жасалуы. Болымды түрі.

1. Жай (ауыспалы) осы шақ жекеше түрдің 3-ші жағынан басқа жақтарда етістіктің бастапқы формасымен. (to бөлшегінсіз) сәйкес келеді, ал жекеше түрдің 3-ші жағында -s жалғауы жалғанады.

Мысалы: to write-I write, he, she, it-writes, we-write, you-write, they-write.

Егер етістіктер -ss- -ch- -sh- -x- әріптеріне аяқталса үшінші жақта жекеше түрінде -es- жалғауы жалғанады, және ол [iz] деп айтылады.

Мысалы: I pass-he passes, he dresses-I dress, I wash-she washes.

Етістіктер “y” деген әріппен аяқталса, ол үшінші жақта жекеше түрінде “y” әрпі “i” әрпіне өзгереді және -es- жалғанады.

Мысалы: I study-he studies. I copy-she copies.

2. Past Indefinite

Жай өткен шақты дұрыс етістіктер, барлық жақта етістіктің бастапқы формасына -ed жалғау арқылы жасайды. Ал бұрыс етістіктерді жаттап алу керек.

Мысалы: To work-I worked

To write-I wrote

3. Future Indefinite

Жай келер шақ көмекші етістік арқылы құрылады **shall** (I жақ жекеше және көпше түрде), **will** (2,3 жақтарда)

Мысалы: I shall write, we shall write

She, he will write They, you will write.

Сұраулы түрі.

1. Сұраулы түрі жай осы шақта **do** деген көмекші етістік арқылы құрылады (**do** деген етістік барлық жақтарды қолданылады, бірақ үшінші жақта жекеше түрінде **does** деген көмекші етістік тұрады) және көмекші етістік **do, does** сұраулы сөйлемде бастауыштың алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: Do I write? Does he write? Do we write?

2. Сұраулы түрі жай өткен шақта **did** деген көмекші етістік арқылы құралады және **did** көмекші етістігі сұраулы сөйлемде бастауыштың алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: Did I work? Did he work? Did they work?

3. Жай келер шақтың сұраулы түрі **shall, will** көмекші етістіктерді бастауыштың алдында қою арқылы жасалады.

Мысалы: Shall I write? Will he work? Shall we write?

Болымсыз түрі.

1. Жай осы шақтың болымсыз түрі осы шақтағы **do, does** көмекші етістіктер және **not** болымсыз бөлшегі арқылы жасалады.

Мысалы: I do not write. He does not write.

We do not write.

2. Жай өткен шақтың болымсыз түрі **to do** көмекші етістігінің өткен шақтағы формасы (**did**) және **not** болымсыз бөлшегі арқылы жасалады.

Мысалы: I did not write. He did not write.

We did not write

3. Жай келер шақтың болымсыз түрі **not** арқылы құралады және ол **shall, will** деген көмекші етістіктерден кейін тұрады.

Мысалы: I shall not write. He will not write.

We shall not write.

Present Indefinite

I write letter to my father every week.

Мен әкеме әр аптада хат жазамын.

Past Indefinite

I wrote a letter to my father yesterday

Мен кеше әкемге хат жаздым.

Future Indefinite

I shall write a letter to my father tomorrow.

Мен ертең әкемге хат жазамын.

Continuous тобы
Нақ шақтар тобы.

Бұл топ : Present Continuous Tense (нақ осы шақ) Past Continuous Tense (нақ өткен шақ), Future Continuous Tense (нақ келер шақ) тұрады.

Нақ шақтардың жасалуы.
Болымды түрі.

1. Нақ осы шақ осы шақтағы **to be** көмекші етістігі – **am, is, are** және негізгі етістікке – **ing** жалғау арқылы жасалады.

Мысалы: I am writing. He, she, it-is writing.

They, you, we-are writing.

2. Нақ өткен шақ өткен шақтағы **to be** көмекші етістігі – **was, were** және негізгі етістікке – **ing** жалғау арқылы жасалады.

Мысалы: I was writing. She, he, was writing

They, you, we were writing.

3. Нақ келер шақ келер шақтағы **to be** көмекші етістігі **shall be, will be** –және негізгі етістікке – **ing** жалғау арқылы жасалады.

Мысалы: I shall be writing. He, she, will be writing.

We shall be writing. They, you, will be writing.

Сұраулы түрі.

Сұраулы түрінде көмекші етістіктер **am (is, are) was (were) shall (will)** сөйлемде бастауыштың алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: Present Continuous Tense: Am I writing?

Past Continuous Tense: Was I writing?

Future Continuous Tense: Shall I be writing?

Болымсыз түрі.

Болымсыз түрінде көмекші етістіктерден кейін **not** болымсыз бөлшегі қойылады.

Мысалы: Present Continuous Tense: I am not writing?

Past Continuous Tense: I was not writing?

Future Continuous Tense: I shall not be writing?

Present Continuous	Past Continuous	Future Continuous
I am reading a newspaper	I was reading a newspaper when he came	I shall be reading a newspaper when he comes.
Мен газет оқып отырмын	Ол келгенде мен газет оқып отырдым	Ол келгенде мен газет оқып отырамын

Perfect тобы
Аяқталған шақтар тобы.

Бұл топ: Present Perfect Tense (аяқталған осы шақ) Past Perfect Tense (аяқталған өткен шақ), Future Perfect Tense (аяқталған келер шақ) тұрады.

Аяқталған шақтардың құрылуы.
Болымды түрі.

1. Аяқталған осы шақ осы шақтағы **to have** көмекші етістігі (**have, has**) және негізгі етістіктің өткен шақтағы есімше формасы арқылы жасалады.

Мысалы: I have written. She, he, it has written.

We, you, they have written.

2. Аяқталған өткен шақ өткен шақтағы **to have** көмекші етістігі **had** және негізгі етістіктің өткен шақтағы есімше формасы арқылы жасалады.

Мысалы: I had written. He, she, it had written.

We, they, you had written.

3. Аяқталған келер шақ келер шақтағы **to have** етістігі **—shall have, will have** және негізгі етістіктің өткен шақтағы есімше формасы арқылы жасалады.

Мысалы: I shall have written. He, she, it will have written.

They, you will have written.

Сұраулы түрі.

Сұраулы түрінде көмекші етістіктер бастауыштың алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: Present Perfect Tense: have I written?

Past Perfect Tense: Had I written?

Future Perfect Tense: shall I have written?

Болымсыз түрі.

Болымсыз түрінде not болымсыз бөлшегі сөйлемде көмекші етістіктерден кейін қойылады.

Мысалы: Present Perfect Tense: I have not written?

Past Perfect Tense: He had not written?

Future Perfect Tense: I shall not have written?

Present Perfect	Past Perfect	Future Perfect
I have written the letter, you may post it.	I had written the letter by five o'clock.	I shall have written the letter by five o'clock.
Мен хат жазып болдым, жеберуіңізге болады.	Мен хатты сағат беске таман жазып болдым.	Мен хатты сағат беске таман жазып боламын.

Perfect Continuous тобы Аяқталған нақ шақтар тобы.

Бұл топ: Present Perfect Continuous Tense (Аяқталған нақ осы шақ) Past Perfect Continuous Tense (Аяқталған нақ өткен шақ), Future Perfect Continuous Tense (Аяқталған нақ келер шақ) тардан тұрады.

Болымды түрі.

1. Present Perfect Continuous Tense Аяқталған нақ осы шақ.

Аяқталған нақ осы шақ аяқталған осы шақтағы Present Perfect to be көмекші етістігі - have been, has been және негізгі етістікке -ing жалғау арқылы жасалады.

Мысалы: I have been writing. He, he, it has been writing.

They, we, you, have writing.

2. Past Perfect Continuous Tense Аяқталған нақ өткен шақ

Аяқталған нақ өткен шақ аяқталған өткен шақтағы Past Perfect to be етістігі (had been) және негізгі етістікке -ing жалғау арқылы жасалады.

Мысалы: I had been writing. He, she, t had been writing.

They, you, we, had been writing.

3. Future Perfect Continuous Tense Аяқталған нақ келер шақ

Аяқталған нақ келер шақ аяқталған келер шақтағы Future Perfect to be етістігі **will have been, shall have been**, және негізгі етістікке **-ing** жалғау арқылы жасалады.

Мысалы: I shall have been writing. He, she, it will have been writing.

They, you will have been writing.

We shall have been writing.

Сұраулы түрі.

Сұраулы түрінде бірінші көмекші етістіктер бастауыштың алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: Present Perfect Continuous: Have I been working?

Has he been working?

Past Perfect Continuous Tense: Had we been working?

Future Perfect Continuous Tense: Shall I have been working?

Will he have been working?

Болымсыз түрі

Болымсыз түрі демеулік шылау **not** болымсыз бөлшегі арқылы құрылады және **not** сөйлемде бірінші көмекші етістіктен кейін тұрады.

Мысалы: Present Perfect Continuous: I have not been working?

He has not been working?

Past Perfect Continuous Tense: I had not been working?

Future Perfect Continuous Tense: I shall not have been working?

He will not have been working?

Present Continuous	Perfect	Past Continuous	Perfect	Future Continuous	Perfect
I have been working for two hours	working	I had been working for two hours, when they came back.	working for two hours, when they came back.	I shall have been working for two hours, when they come back.	working for two hours, when they come back.
Мен екі сағат жұмыс отырмын.	бойы істеп	Олар қайтып келгенде мен екі сағат жұмыс отырдым.	бойы істеп	Олар қайтып келгенде мен екі сағат жұмыс отырамын.	бойы істеп

The Passive Voice. Ырықсыз етіс.

Ырықсыз етістің шақтары.

Ырықсыз етістің құрылуы.

§14. Ырықсыз етістің шақтары үш топқа бөлінеді:

1. Indefinite Tense. (Жай шақ)

Бұл топ Present Indefinite Tense, Past Indefinite Tense, Future Indefinite Tense тұрады. Олар көмекші етістіктер арқылы құрылады: **am (is, are) was (were) shall (will) be** және негізгі етістіктің үшінші формасы (Past Participle) арқылы құрылады.

Present Indefinite	Past Indefinite	Future Indefinite
I am invited He (she) is invited We are invited You are invited They are invited	I was invited He (she) was invited We were invited You were invited They were invited	I shall be invited He (she) will be invited We shall be invited You will be invited They will be invited

2. Continuous Tense (нақ шақ)

Бұл топ Present Continuous Tense, Past Continuous Tense тұрады. (Ырықсыз етісте Future Continuous Tense деген шақ жоқ) Present және Past

Continuous Tense көмекші етістіктер **am (is, are) being, was (were) being** және негізгі етістіктің үшінші формасы (Past Participle) арқылы құрылады.

Present Continuous Tense	Past Continuous Tense
I am being invited He (she) is being invited We are being invited You are being invited They are being invited	I was being invited He (she) was being invited We were being invited You were being invited They were being invited

3. Perfect Tense (аяқталған шақ)

Бұл топ Present Perfect Tense, Past Perfect Tense және Future Perfect Tense тұрады. Олар көмекші етістіктер **have (has) been, had been, shall (will) have been** және негізгі етістіктің үшінші формасы (Past Participle) арқылы құрылады.

Present Perfect Tense	Past Perfect Tense	Future Perfect Tense
I have been invited	I had been invited	I shall have been invited
He (she) has been invited	He (she) had been invited	He (she) will have been invited
We have been invited	We had been invited	We shall have been invited
You have been invited	You had been invited	You will have been invited
They have been invited	They had been invited	They will have been invited

1. Сұраулы түрінде көмекші етістіктер бастауыштың алдында тұрады.

Мысалы: Present Indefinite: Am I invited?
 Past Indefinite: Was I invited?
 Future Indefinite: Shall I be invited?
 Present Continuous: Am I being invited?
 Past Continuous: Was I being invited?
 Present Perfect: Have I been invited?
 Past Perfect: Had I been invited?
 Future Perfect: Shall I have been invited?

3. Болымсыз түрінде not болымсыз бөлшегі бірінші көмекші етістіктен кейін тұрады.

Мысалы: Present Indefinite: I am not invited.
 Past Indefinite: I was not invited?
 Future Indefinite: I shall not be invited.
 Present Continuous: I am not being invited.
 Past Continuous: I was not being invited.
 Present Perfect: I have not been invited.
 Past Perfect: I had not been invited.
 Future Perfect: I shall not have been invited.

Modal verbs. Модальдық етістіктер.

§15. Етістіктер **can (could) may (might) must, ought, need** модальдық етістіктер тобына жатады. Сөйлемде модальдық етістіктер тәуелсіз қолданылмайды. Олар істің істелуіндегі мүмкіндікті, істей алушылықты, ықтималдықты және қажеттілікті көрсетеді.

Can (could).

Can деген етістік етістіктің негізгі формасымен (Infinitive) байланысын мүмкіндікті және істей алушылықты көрсетеді және қолдан келу, істей алу деп аударылады. Ағылшын тілінде “**can**” етістігі осы және өткен шақтарға қатысты болады.

Мысалы: I can do it now.

Мен мұны істей аламын.

I can speak English.

Мен ағылшынша сөйлей білемін.

“**Could**” етістігі етістіктің негізгі формасымен (Infinitive) байланысын, істің өткен шақта істелу мүмкіндігін, көрсетеді. Ағылшын тілінде “**Could**” деген етістік сөйлемде өткен шақты көрсетеді және істей алдым, білдім деп аударылады.

Мысалы: He could swim very well when he was young.

Жас кезінде ол жақсы жүзе алды.

May (might).

May деген етістік етістіктің негізгі формасымен (Infinitive) байланысып рұқсат алуды көрсетеді.

Мысалы: May I come in? Кіруге бола ма?

Might.

Ағылшын тілінде “**might**” деген етістік “мүмкін” деп аударлады және шартты сөйлемнің екінші және үшінші турлерінде басыңқы сөйлемде қолданылады.

Мысалы: If he were here, he might help.

Егер де ол осында болғанда, ол сізге көмектесе алар еді ?

Must.

“**Must**” етістігі етістіктің негізгі формасымен (Infinitive) байланысып, істің істелу қажеттілігін сонымен қатар бұйрық және ақыл беруді көрсеткенде қолданылады. “**Must**” осы және келер шақта қолданылады.

Мысалы: I must do it now.

Мен қазір істеуім керек.

You must consult a doctor.

Сізге дәрігерден кеңес алу қажет.

Ought.

“Ought” етістігі етістіктің негізгі формасымен (Infinitive) байланысып кеңес және моральдық міндетті көрсетеді, осы және келер шақта қолданылады.

Мысалы: He ought to help his friend.

Ол өзінің досына көмектесуі қажет.

Ол өзінің досына көмектесуге міндетті.

“Ought” етістігі Perfect Infinitive формасымен байланысып, бетіне басуды, кінәні көрсетеді және өткен шақта тұрады.

Мысалы: You ought to have done it yesterday.

Сіз бұны кеше істеуіңіз керек еді.

Need.

“Need” етістігі етістіктің негізгі формасымен (Infinitive) байланысып істі істеу қажеттілігін көрсетеді. “Need” етістігі сұраулы және болымсыз сөйлемдерде тек Present Indefinite формасында қолданылады.

Мысалы: Need he come here?

Оның мұнда келуі қажет пе?

“Need” етістігі негізгі етістіктің ретінде де қолданылады, және “need” етістігі осы, өткен, келер шақта пайдаланылады.

Мысалы: You need a long rest.

Сізге ұзақ демалыс керек.

The Infinitive.

§16. Ағылшын тілінде инфинитив жақты, шақты, райды көрсетпей істің іске асуын тек қана атайтын етістіктің жіктелмеген формасы. Инфинитив не істеу? не жасау? деген сұрақтарға жауап береді.

Инфинитив “to” болшегімен және “to” бөлшегіңсіз.

“To” бөлшегінің жеке мәні болмайды және екпін қабылдамайды.

Мысалы: To buy – сатып алу, to sell – сату.

Инфинитив “to” бөлшегіңсіз қолданылады:

1. Модальдық етістіктен кейін:

Мысалы: He can speak German.

Ол немісше сөйлей біледі.

2. to make мәжбүр ету және to let рұқсат ету етістіктерінен кейін:

Мысалы: I made him read this story.

Мен оны бұл әңгімені оқуға мәжбүр еттім.

She let her son go there.

Ол өзінің баласына онда баруға рұқсат етті.

3. Объектік септеу инфинитивпен құрылымында, to see, to hear, to watch деген етістіктерден кейін:

Мысалы: We saw him cross the street.

Оның көшеден өтіп шыққанын біз көрдік.

I heard him sing.

Мен оның өлең айтқанын естідім.

4. Егерде сөйлемде екі инфинитив болса олар “and” немесе “or” шылауымен байланысады.

Мысалы: He promised to telephone or wire.

Ол телефон соғуға немесе телеграмма беруге уәде берді.

Негізгі етістік (инфинитив) нысандары.

Өзінен кейін тура толықтауыш қабылдайтын инфинитивтің негізгі етісте төрт формасы, ырықсыз етісте екі формасы бар. Өзінен кейін тура толықтауышты қабылдайтын инфинитивтің негізгі етісте тек екі формасы бар.

	Етіс	Ырықсыз етіс
Indefinite жай	To ask	To be asked
Continuous нақ	To be asking	_____
Perfect аяқталған	To have asked	To have been asked
Perfect Continuous Аяқталған нақ	To have been asking	_____

Ағылшын тілінде ең көп қолданылатын формалары - Indefinite Infinitive Active және Passive. Қалған инфинитив нысандары өте сирек

қолданылады. Олардың ішінде басқаларына қарағанда жиірек қолданылатын Perfect Infinitive.

Негізгі етістік формаларының құрылуы және қолданылуы.

Indefinite Infinitive Active (to ask) көмекші етістіксіз құрылған формасы. Indefinite Infinitive Passive (To be asked) “to be” көмекші етістігі және негізгі етістіктің Past Participle нысаны арқылы құрылған формасы. Indefinite Infinitive (Active, Passive) келесі қызметтерді атқарады:

1. Бастауыш функциясында:

Мысалы: To bath in the Black Sea is very pleasant.

Қара теңізде шомылу өте жанға жайлы.

2. Атаулы күрделі баяндауыш құрамында.

Бұл функцияда негізгі етістік “to be” жалғаушы-етістікпен қолданылады. Мысалы: The duties of a postman are to deliver letters and newspapers.

Почтальонның міндеті газеттер мен хаттарды апарып беру.

3. Етістікті күрделі баяндауыштың құрамында:

1) Модальдық етістікпен байланысып.

Мысалы: She must get up early.

Ол ерте тұру керек.

2) Сын есім және жалғаушы етістікпен байланысып:

Мысалы: He is ready to help you.

Ол сізге көмектесуге дайын.

4. Тура толықтауыш функциясында:

Мысалы: He began to learn English last year.

Ол ағылшын тілін үйренуді өткен жылы бастады.

5. Анықтауыш функциясында:

Мысалы: We have intention to go there.

Бізде онда баруға ниет бар.

6. Пысықтауыш функциясында:

Бұл функцияда инфинитив көрсетеді:

1. Мақсат. Сөйлемде инфинитив алдында **so as** немесе **in order** деген жалғаулықтар тұруы мүмкін:

Мысалы: We stopped there so as to rest a little.

Біз онда сәл демалуға тоқтадық.

2. Нәтиже (**too, enough**)

Мысалы: It is too cold to bathe today.

Шомылуға бүгін өте салқын.

Объектік септік инфинитивпен құрылымы. (The Objective Infinitive construction) Complex object – күрделі толықтауыш.

«Объектік септік инфинитивпен» немесе «күрделі толықтауыш» құрылымы ағылшын тілінде кейбір етістіктерден кейін бағыныңқылы сөйлемдердің орнына қолданылады. Ол объектік септіктегі есімдіктің немесе жалпы септіктегі зат есіммен инфинитивтің байланысы арқылы беріледі.

Күрделі толықтауыш негізгі етісте келесі етістіктерден кейін қолданылады:

1. **to want, to wish, to desire, I should like** құрылымы және т.б.

Мысалы: He wants me to help him.

Ол менің көмектескенімді қалайды.

2. **To see, to hear, to feel, to observe, to notice** және т.б. (сезім және қабылдау етістіктері). Инфинитив «to» бөлшегісіз қолданылады.

Мысалы: We did not see the teacher enter the room.

Біз оқытушының бөлмеге кіргенін көрген жоқпыз.

3. **to order, to allow, to let, to cause, to force, to make** мәжбүр ету және т.б. етістіктер (бұйрықты, рұқсатты және өтінішті білдіретін).

to make - мәжбүр ету және **to let** - рұқсат ету етістіктерінен кейін инфинитив «to» бөлшегісіз қолданылады.

Мысалы: The teacher made him rewrite the exercise.

Мұғалім оны жаттығуды қайта жазуға мәжбүр етті.

4. **To expect – күту, to believe to suppose, to know, to find, to consider** санау және т.б. етістіктері.

Мысалы: We knew him to be right. Біз оның дұрыс екенін білдік.

We believe him to finish this work tomorrow. Ол мына жұмысты ертең бітіреді деп біз сенеміз.

The Subjective Infinitive construction.

(Complex subject).

Атау септігі инфинитивпен немесе күрделі бастауын құрылымы жалпы септіктегі зат есім немесе атау септігіндегі есімдік және инфинитив арқылы беріледі.

Complex subject қолданылады:

To see, to hear ..., to order, to cause, to allow ..., to expect, to know, to suppose ... to say, to report, to announce хабарлау және басқа етістіктер ырықсыз етісте баяндауыш ретінде тұрса:

Мысалы: They were seen to go home together.

Олардың бірге үйге бара жатырғанын көрді.

He was said to be writing a new play.
 Оның жаңа пьеса жазып жатырғанын айтты.

To seem, to appear,

To prove,

To happen, to chance -

Етістіктері негізгі етісте баяндауышретінде тұрса:

Мысалы: The doctor happened to be at home.

likely

IS liable мүмкін

apt

Is unlikely мүмкін емес

sure күмәнсіз, әрине

IS certain міндетті түрде

bound мүмкін

секилді күрделі атаулы баяндауыш болса.

Мысалы: They are likely to return on Sunday.

Олар жексенбі күні келуі мүмкін.

The Gerund. Герундий.

§18. Герундий жіктеусіз есімдік грамматикалық ерекшеліктерін етістік, зат есімнің және олар іс арқылы процесті көрсетеді. Герундий етістік пен зат есімнің ерекшеліктерін байланыстыратын етістіктің жіктелмеген формасы. Герундий кез – келген ағылшын етістігінің инфинитив формасына – ing жалғауын жалғау арқылы жасалады. Мысалы: increasing-көбею, obtaining-ұлғаю, heating-қыздыру.

Герундий нысанының кестесі.

	Active	Passive
Indefinite	Writing	Being written
Perfect	Having written	Having been written

Герундианың синтаксистік функциялары сөйлемдерде

Функция	Мысалы	Аударма
1. бастауыш	1. Smoking is not allowed here.	Темекі тартуға мында рұқсат жоқ.
2. Атаулы	2. His hobby is driving a car.	Оның сүйген кәсібі

курделі бастауыш құрамында		машина жүргізу.
3. толықтауыш А) тура Б) жанама	A) The car needs repairing B) They spoke about their traveling to the north.	Машинаны жөндеуді қажет етеді. Олар солтүстікке жол сапар туралы айтты.
4. анықтауыш	There are different ways of obtaining this substance.	Бұл затты алудың әртүрлі жолы бар.
5. пысықтауыш	After receiving good results they stopped experiments.	Жақсы қортынды алып олар экспериментті тоқтаты.

Қорытынды:

- 1) Бастауыш, атаулы курделі баяндауыш құрамы тура толықтауыш ретінде герундия зат есім немесе тұйық етістік арқылы аударылады.
- 2) Жанама толықтауыш функциясында герундий зат есіммен немесе бағыныңқы сөйлеммен аударылады.
- 3) Пысықтауыш функциясында герундий зат есіммен, көсемше немесе бағыныңқы сөйлеммен аударылады.
- 4) Құрмалас герундий нысандары жиі бағыныңқы сөйлеммен аударылады.

Мысалы: I know of his having been appointed a new job.

Оның жаңа жұмысқа тағайындалғаны мен білемін.

Есімше (The Participle).

Ағылшын тілінде есімше етістіктің жіктелмеген формасы. Ағылшын есімшесі сөйлемде анықтауыштың немесе пысықтауыштың қызметін атқарады.

Есімше формалары.

Өзінен кейін тура толықтауышты қабылдайтын етістіктердің негізгі етісте екі есімше формасы және ырықсыз етісте үш есімше формасы бар.

Present	asking	being asked
Past	-	asked
Perfect	having asked	having been asked

Өзінен кейін тура толықтауышты қабылдамайтын етістіктердің тек негізгі етісте үш есімше формасы бар.

**Есімшенің жай формалары.
Есімшенің жай формаларының жасалуы.
Present Participle Active.**

Present Participle Active етістіктің инфинитив формасына (to бөлшегінсіз) –**ing** жалғауын жалғау арқылы жасалады.
to read оқу reading оқып жатырған.
to buy сатып алу, buying сатып алып жатырған.

Past Participle Active және Passive.

Past Participle Active және Passive дұрыс етістіктердің инфинитив формасына –ed жалғау арқылы жасалады.
to ask сұрау asked сұраған, сұралған.
Past Participle бұрыс етістіктерден әртүрлі жолмен жасалады.
to give беру given
to send жіберу sent
to buy сатып алу bought
Not болымсыз бөлшегі есімшенің алдына қойылады:
not asking – сұрамай, not sold - сатылмаған, т.б.

Есімшенің жай формаларының қолданылуы.

Present Participle Active:

I. Анықтауыш функциясын атқарады.

1) Зат есім алдында.

The rising sun was hidden by the clouds.

Көтерілген күнді бұлттар жапты.

2) Зат есімнен кейін. Present Participle баяндауыш етістікпен қатар жүрген істі білдіреді.

The boy playing in the garden is my sister's son.

Бақта ойнап жүрген бала менің апамның баласы.

II. Пысықтауыш функциясын атқарады.

1) Мезгіл пысықтауыш.

Waiting for a tram, I saw Peter.

Трамвайды күтіп тұрып, мен Петрді көрдім.

2) Себеп-салдар пысықтауыш.

Knowing English well, he translated the article without a dictionary.

Ағылшын тілін жақсы біліп, ол мақаланы сөздіксіз аударды.

3) Қимыл-сын пысықтауыш.

He walked down the road limping.

Ол ақсақтап жолмен жүрді.

Past Participle Passive анықтауыш функциясын атқарады.

А) Зат есім алдында.

A broken cup lay on the table.

Сынған кесе үстелде жатты.

Б) Зат есімнен кейін.

All books taken from the library must be returned next week.

Кітапханадан алынған барлық кітаптар келесі жұмада қайтарылуы керек.

Есімшенің күрделі формасы.

Perfect Participle Active жасалуы және қолданылуы.

Perfect Participle Active Present Participle формасындағы көмекші етістік to have және Present Participle формасындағы негізгі етістік фркылы жасалады (having asked). Perfect Participle Active баяндауыш-етістік көрсететін іске дейін аяқталған істі көрсетеді және себеп-салдар және мезгіл пысықтауыш функциясын атқарады.

Having lost the key, he couldn't enter the room.

Кілтін жоғалтып алып ол бөлмеге кіре алмады.

Объекті септік осы шақтың есімшесімен құрылымы.

Сезім мүшелері арқылы қабылдауды білдіретін етістіктерден to see-көру, to watch-қарау, to notice -байқау, to hear-есту, to feel-сезу, -кейін объекті септік осы шақтың есімшесімен құрылымы қолданылады. Ол объекті септігі есімдік немесе жалпы септіктегі зат есім мен осы шақтың есімшесі (Present Participle) байланысын көрсетеді.

I saw him running. Мен оның жүгіргенін көрдім.

«Объектік септік инфинитивпен» құрылымы аяқталған істі көрсетсе, «объектік септік есімшемен» құрылымы істеліп жатырған істі көрсетеді.

I saw him crossing the street. - Мен оның көшені кесіп өтіп бара жатырғанын көрдім. I saw him cross the street. - Мен оның көшені кесіп өткенін көрдім.

Үстеу (The Adverb).

Іс-қимылдық күй жайын білдіретін сөз табы үстеу деп аталады. Үстеу етістікке қатысты және де сөйлемде пысықтауыш қызметін атқарады.

He walks quickly. Ол жылдам жүреді.

I didn't see him yesterday. Мен оны кеше көрген жоқпын.

Үстеуді мағынасына қарай топтау және оның сөйлемдегі орны.

Мекен үстеулер.

Мекен үстеулерге келесі сөздер жатады: here-осында, there-онда, where-қайда, somewhere, anywhere-бір жерде, nowhere-еш жерде, elsewhere-бір жерде, басқа жақта, far-алыс, near-жақын, inside-ішінде, outside-сыртында, above-жоғарыда, below-төменде.

We saw beautiful flowers there. Біз ана жақтан әдемі гүлдерді көрдік.
He went somewhere on Sunday. Ол жексенбі күні бір жерге барып келді.

Мезгіл үстеулер.

1) Мезгіл үстеулерге келесі сөздер жатады: always-әрқашан, қашанда, often-жиі, seldom-сирек, ever-бір уақытта, күндердің күнінде, never-еш уақытта, ешқашанда, just-қазір ғана, already-енді, әлдеқашан, still-тағы, әлі, soon-жақын арада, шапшаң, usually-әдетте.

He always comes early. Ол әрқашанда ерте келеді.

2) Келесі үстеулер сөйлемнің басында немесе сөйлемнің соңында тұрады: today- бүгін, tomorrow-ертең, yesterday-кеше, afterwards-аяғында, sometimes- кейде, then-сол уақытта, сол кезде, сонда, онда, now- қазір, енді.

I shall go there tomorrow, Tomorrow I shall go there. Мен сонда ертең барамын.

I go there sometimes. Sometimes I go there. Мен сонда кейде барамын.

3) Келесі сөздер ереже бойынша сөйлемнің соңында тұрады: lately-соңғы уақытта, recently- жақында, жақын арада, before- бұрын, бұрынғы, ілгері уақытта, since- содан бері.

I have seen this film before. Мен бұл фильмді бұрын көрдім.

I have not been there lately. Мен соңғы уақытта сонда болған жоқпын.

Мөлшер үстеулер.

Мөлшер үстеулерге келесі сөздер жатады: very-өте, тым, аса, too-аса, өте, so- сондай, rather-әжептәуір, едәуір, almost, nearly-дерлік, hardly, scarcely-әрең, much, far, by far-анағұрлым, едәуір, quite-мүлде, not at all-мүлде басқа, much-көп, little- аз.

He is very old. Ол өте қарт кісі.

This story is rather interesting. Әңгіме едәуір қызықты.

I could hardly understand him. Мен оны әрең түсіндім.

Қимыл – сын үстеулер.

Қимыл – сын үстеулерге келесі сөздер жатады: well-жақсы, fast, quickly-тез, slowly-ақырын, бәсең, quietly-тыныш, қозғалмай, асықпай, жай, easily-оңай, жеңіл.

He walked slowly. Ол ақырындап жүрді.

The sun shines brightly. Күн сәулесін төгіп тұр.

Үстеулердің шырайлары.

1) Бір буынды үстеулер салыстырмалы шырайларды құрастырғанда-ег жұрнағы қосылады, ал күшейтпелі шырайларға-est жұрнағы қосылады.

Fast- тез	faster-тезірек	fastest-өте тез
Late-кеш	later-кештеу	latest-өте кеш
Soon-шапшаң	sooner-шапшаңырақ	soonest-бәрінен шапшаң
Early-ерте	earlier-ертрек	earliest-өте ерте

2) Сын есімнен -ly жұрнағын жалғап жасалған үстеулердің, салыстырмалы шырайында more деген сөз тұрады, ал күшейтпелі шырайларда сын most деген сөз тұрады.

Clearly –түсінікті more clearly- түсініктірек most clearly- бәрінен түсінікті.

Correctly-дұрыс more correctly-өте дұрыс most correctly-бәрінен дұрыс

3) Бұл үстеулерді жаттап алу керек:

well-жақсы	better-өте жақсы	best-бәрінен жақсы
badly- жаман	worse-өте жаман	worst-бәрінен жаман
much-көп	more-көптеу	most-бәрінен көп
little-аз	less-аздау	least-бәрінен аз
far –алыс	farther-алысырақ	farthest-бәрінен алыс

Көмекші сөздер (The Preposition). Көмекші

Сөйлемдегі зат есімнің басқа сөздерге қатысын көрсететін көмекші сөздер предлогтар деп аталады.

About.

1) Көмекші сөз about - жуық, жуықтан, шамалап, шамасында, жуық, шамамен, туралы деп аударылады.

He told us about his trip to the south. Ол оңтүстікке сапары туралы әңгімелеп берді.

It is about five o'clock. Қазір сағат шамамен бес.

Above.

2) Көмекші сөз **Above** – жоғары, астам, артық деп аударылады.
The temperature was above zero. Температура нөлден жоғары болды.
There were above 200 people. Онда 200 астам адам болды.

Across.

3) Көмекші сөз **Across** – көлденен арқылы деп аударылады.
The boy ran across the street. Бала көшені кесіп жүгіріп өтті.
Put this log across. Мына бөренені көлдененен қой.

After.

4) Көмекші сөз **After** – кейін деп аударылады.
He continued his work after dinner. Ол өзінің жұмысын түстен кейін жалғастырды.
Shut the door after you, please. Өзіңнен кейін есікті жапшы, өтінемін.

Against.

5) Көмекші сөз **Against** – қарсы деп аударылады.
We were against it – Біз бұған қарсы болдық.

Along.

6) Көмекші сөз **Along** – бойлай, жағалай деп аударылады.
Let us walk along the shore. Жаға бойымен жүрейік.

Among (Amongst).

7) Көмекші сөз **Among** – арасында деп аударылады.
The work was divided among four children. Жұмыс төрт балаға бөлінді.

At.

8) Көмекші сөз **At** – маңында, жанында, қасында деп аударылады.
He lives at the club – Ол клубтың жаңында тұрады.
She is sitting at the window. Ол терезенің қасында отыр.

Before

9) Көмекші сөз **Before** – дейін, шейін, алдында, алды деп аударылады.
We shall have a walk before dinner. Біз түскі тамақтың алдында серуендейміз.
He sat before me. Ол менің алдыма отырды.

Behind.

10) Көмекші сөз **Behind** – артында, артынан деп аударылады.
He sat behind me. Ол менің артымда отырды.

Below.

11) Көмекші сөз **Below** – астына, астында, төмен деп аударылады.
The temperature was below zero. Температура нөлден төмен болды.

Beside.

12) Көмекші сөз **Beside** – қасында деп аударылады.
He was sitting beside me. Ол менің қасымда отырды.

Between.

13) Көмекші сөз **Between** – арасында деп аударылады.
The Mediterranean Sea is between Europe and Africa. Жерорта теңізі Еуропа мен Африканың арасында орналасқан.

By.

14) Көмекші сөз **By** ырықсыз етістегі етістіктен кейін істі атқарушыны айтқанда, іс-уақытын көрсеткенде қолданылады және - мен, -пен жалғауларымен, таман деп аударылады.

“Anna Karenina” was written by Tolstoi . «Анна Каренинаны» Толстой жазды.

Can you finish the work by 6 o'clock? Сіз бұл жұмысты сағат алтыға таман бітіресіз бе?

Down.

15) Көмекші сөз **Down** – астында, төменде, деп аударылады.
He went down the stairs. Ол баспалдақпен төмен түсті.

During.

16) Көмекші сөз **During** кезінде, бойы деп аударылады.

During the year he has made great progress.

Жыл бойы ол үлкен табыстарға жетті.

Except.

17) Көмекші сөз **Except** басқа, қоспағанда деп аударылады.

Everybody is ready except you.

Сізден басқасы бәрі дайын.

For.

18) Көмекші сөз **For** үшін, арналған, артынан деп аударылады.

He will do it for you.

Ол осыны сіз үшін істейді.

I sent him for the doctor.

Мен оны дәрігерге жібердім.

From.

19) Көмекші сөз **From** -нан , -нен, -дан, -ден, -тан, -тен, -деп аударылады.

I shall stay in the library from five till seven.

Мен кітапханада бестен жетіге дейін боламын.

In.

20) Көмекші сөз – **In** мерзімді, мезгілді көрсеткенде айтылады. (да, де, та, те)

In January. Қаңтарда.

They will arrive in May. Олар мамырда келеді.

He will return in a week. Ол бір жұмадан кейін келеді.

Off.

21) Көмекші сөз **Off** – заттың бетінен, бөлініп алынған кезде қолданылады.

He took all the things off the table. Ол бүкіл заттарды үстел үстінен жинады

The cat fell off the roof. Мысық төбеден құлап түсті.

On.

22) Егер де зат есімдер үстінде немесе үстіне деген жағдайда көмекші сөз **On** қолданылады, сонымен қатар күн аттары, күн жатысы алдында қолданылады:

The telegram is lying on the table. Жедел хат үстелдің үстінде жатыр.

I was there on Tuesday. Мен онда сейсенбі күні болдым.

We returned to Moscow on the 1st of September. Біз Мәскеуге бірінші қыркүйекте қайтып оралдық.

Out of.

23) Көмекші сөз **Out** бір нәрсенің ішінен бағытты көрсету мақсатында қолданылады.

He walked out of the house. Ол үйден шықты.

He ran out of the room. Ол бөлмеден жүгіріп шықты

Over.

24) Көмекші сөз **Over** – жоғары, үстінде, жоғарыдан деп аударылады.

An air plane flew over the town. Қаланың үстінен ұшақ ұшып шықты.

There were over a hundred people at the meeting. Жиналыста жүзден астам адам болды.

Past.

25) Көмекші сөз **Past**, қасынан, жанынан деп аударылады және уақыт туралы айтылғанда кейін деген мағынада пайдаланылады.

He walked past the house. Ол үйдің қасынан өтіп кетті.

It is half past three. Қазір сағат үш жарым.

Round (Around).

26) Көмекші сөз **Round (Around)** –айнала, айналасында деп аударылады.

There are many flowers around the house. Үйдің айналасында көп гүлдер бар.

The door is locked, you will have to go round. Есік жабық, сізге үйді айналып өтуге тура келеді.

Since.

27) Көмекші сөз **Since** мезгіл үстеумен қолданылады: since when-қашаннан бері, since then-содан бері.

He left Moscow last year and I have not seen him since. Ол өткен жылы Мәскеуден кетіп қалды және мен оны содан бері көргенім жоқ.

Through.

28) Көмекші сөз **Through** –арқылы, ішімен деп аударылады

He was walking through the forest. Ол орман арқылы келді.

Till (Until).

29) Көмекші сөз **Till (Until)**-дейін, шейін деп аударылады.

I'll stay here till (until) Monday. Мен дүйсенбіге дейін осында қаламын.

I shall work from nine to (till) three. Мен сағат тоғыздан үшке дейін жұмыс істеймін.

To.

30) Егер де сөйлемде бағыт көрсетілсе, онда көмекші сөз **To** қолданылады.

They went to the Crimea. Олар Қырымға кетті.

He came to the meeting at 5 o'clock. Ол жиналысқа сағат бесте келді.

Towards.

31) Көмекші сөз **Towards** –қарай, бағытында деп аударылады.

He was walking towards the sea. Ол теңізге қарай бара жатырды.
The ship sailed towards the south. Кеме оңтүстікке қарай жүзіп бара жатырды.

Under.

32) Көмекші сөз **Under** – астында деп аударылады.

He was lying under a tree. Ол ағаштың астында жатырды.

He put the basket under the table. Ол кәрзеңкені үстелдің астына қойды.

Up.

33) Көмекші сөз **Up** – жоғары, өрге деп аударылады.

He went up the stairs. Ол баспалдақпен жоғары көтеріліп кетті.

The steamer sailed up the river. Параход өзенмен жоғары қарай жүзді.

Одағай. (The Interjection).

Одағайлар адамның көңіл күйін, ішкі сезімін білдіру үшін қолданылатын сөздер. His father, alas, is no better. Әттең, оның әкесі әлі жақсы сезінбейді.

Oh! How you frightened me. Ah, мені сондай қорқытып жібердің.

Синтаксис.

1) Аяқталған ойды білдіретін сөз тіркестері сөйлем деп аталады.

The sun rises in the east. Күн шығыстан шығады.

2) Сөйлем мүшелері тұрлаулы және тұрлаусыз болып екіге бөлінеді.

Тұрлаулы сөйлем мүшелеріне: бастауыш (subject) және баяндауыш (The Predicate) жатады.

Сөйлемнің тұрлаусыз мүшелері: толықтауыш (The Object), анықтауыш (The Attribute), пысықтауыш (the Adverbial Modifiers).

3) Сөйлем құрамына қарай жай және құрмалас болып екіге бөлінеді.

Құрмалас сөйлемдердің өзі сабақтас және салалас болып екіге бөлінеді.

The agreement was signed, and the delegation left Moscow.

Келісімге қол қойылды және, делегация Мәскеуден кетті. (салалас құрмалас сөйлем)

4) Айтылу мақсатына байланысты сөйлемдер 4 түрге бөлінеді:
А) Хабарлы сөйлем (Declarative Sentences).

The library is on the second floor. Кітапхана екінші қабатта.

Б) Сұраулы сөйлем (Interrogative sentences)

When did you come? Сіз қашан келдіңіз?

В) Бұйрықты сөйлем (Imperative Sentences)

Open the door, please. Есікті ашыңызшы.

Г) Лепті сөйлем (Exclamatory Sentences)

What a nice girl! Қандай сүйкімді қыз!

СӨЙЛЕМ МҮШЕЛЕРІ (Parts of the Sentence)

Бастауыш.

Бастауыш сөйлемде Кім? Не? Деген сұраққа жауап береді.

The lesson has begun. Сабак басталды.

She has come. Ол келді.

Бастауыш it.

Ағылшын тіліндегі жақсыз сөйлемдерде бастауыш it- есімдігі арқылы көрсетіледі.

А) Табиғат құбылыстарын хабарлағанда.

It is winter. Қыс.

It is hot. Ыстық.

Б) Етістіктер арқылы ауа райын көрсеткеде: to rain, to snow, to freeze.

It often snows in February. Ақпанда жиі қар жауады.

It is raining (now). (Қазір) жаңбыр жауып тұр.

В) Сөйлемдерде уақыт және қашықтық туралы айтылғанда

It is morning. Таң (таңертең)

It is five o'clock. Сағат бес.

It is not far to the river. Өзенге дейін алыс емес.

Баяндауыш. (The Predicate).

Баяндауыш не істеп жатыр? не істеліп жатыр? бұл не? бұл қандай? кім бұл? деген сұрақтарға жауап береді.

Баяндауыш жай (The Simple Predicate) және күрделі (The Compound Predicate) болады. Күрделі баяндауыштың өзі атаулы күрделі және етістік күрделі баяндауыш болып екіге бөлінеді.

Жай баяндауыш. (The Simple Predicate).

Жай баяндауыш етістік арқылы жеке формада әртүрлі шақта, етісте және райда қолданылған етістіктің жіктелген формасымен көрсетіледі.

They live in the south. Олар оңтүстікте тұрады.

Күрделі атаулы баяндауыш.

Күрделі атаулы баяндауыш етістік "to be" арқылы жасалынады.

The day was cold. Күн салқын болды.

The glass is broken. Стакан сынып қалды.

He is a doctor. Ол дәрігер.

Күрделі етістікті баяндауыш.

Күрделі етістікті баяндауыш сөйлемде модалдық етістік және инфинитив арқылы көрсетіледі.

You must go there. Сіз сонда баруыңыз қажет.

I have to get up early. Мен ерте тұруым керек.

He can do it. Ол бұны істей алады.

Сөйлемнің тұрлаусыз мүшелері.

Толықтауыш (The Object).

Толықтауыш тура және жанама болып екіге бөлінеді.

Тура толықтауыш.

(The Direct Object).

Тура толықтауыш кімді? Не? деген сұрақтарға жауап береді.
Тура толықтауыш сөйлемде зат есім және есімдік арқылы көрсетіледі.

He bought a radio-set yesterday. Кеше ол радио қабылдағыш сатып алды.

Жанама толықтауыш (The Indirect object).

Жанама толықтауыш көмекші сөздер және көмекші сөздерсіз болып бөлінеді. Көмекші сөздерсіз жанама толықтауыш кімге деген сұраққа, көмекші сөздер жанама толықтауыш кім туралы? about whom? about what? не туралы? with whom? кіммен? for whom? кім үшін? Деген сұрақтарға жауап береді.

Мысалы: He gave the boy a book. Ол балаға кітап берді.

We spoke about our work. Біз өз жұмысымыз туралы сөйлестік.

Анықтауыш (The attribute).

Анықтауыш қандай? кімдікі? неше? қанша? деген сұрақтарға жауап береді. Анықтауыш сөйлемдерде сын есім, есімше, сан есім, есімдік және зат есіманықтауыш болады.

I received on important letter yesterday. Мен кеше маңызды хат алдым.

The second lesson begins at eleven o'clock. Екінші сабақ сағат 11-де басталады.

Пысықтауыш (Adverbial Modifiers).

Пысықтауыш қалай? қашан? неге? не үшін? деген сұрақтарға жауап береді.

Пысықтауыш сөйлемдерде көрсетеді:

1) Мезгіл.

She will come soon. Ол жақын арада келді.

2) Мекен.

I found him in the garden. Мен оны бақтан таптым.

3) Қимыл-сын.

He spoke slowly. Ол жай сөйледі.

4) Себеп-салдар.

I came back because of the rain. Жаңбыр жауғандықтан мен қайтып келдім.

5) Мақсат.

I have come to discuss the matter. Мен бұл сұрақты талқылауға келдім.

6) Жалғас жағдайын

He sat at the table reading a newspaper. Ол үстелдің қасында газет оқып отырды.

7) Дәрежесін

I quite agree with her. Мен онымен толық келісемін.

Жай сөйлемдер.

Жай жалаң сөйлемдер.

Жалаң сөйлемдер негізгі тұрлаулы мүшелерден тұрады
The girl stopped. Қыз тоқтап қалды.

Жай жайылма сөйлемдер.

Сөйлемде тұрлаулы мүшелерден басқа бір немесе бірнеше тұрлаусыз мүшелер болған жағдайда сөйлем жай жайылма сөйлем деп аталады.

The girl stopped at the gate. Қыз қақпаның қасына тоқталды.
The little girl took the book. Кішкентай қыз кітапты алды.

Хабарлы сөйлем.

(Declarative sentences).

Хабарлы сөйлем әңгімелесушіге немесе оқырманға бір нәрсені хабарлау үшін қолданылады.

Ағылшын тіліндегі хабарлы сөйлемдегі сөйлем мүшелерінің орын тәртібі:

- | | | | |
|--------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|
| 1) Бастауыш, | 2) Баяндауыш, | 3) Толықтауыш, | 4) Пысықтауыш |
| I | received | a letter | yesterday |

Мен	кеше	хат	алдым.
-----	------	-----	--------

Толықтауыштың сөйлемдегі орны.

Сөйлемде толықтауыш келесі сөз тәртібімен тұрады: а) тура толықтауыш сөйлемдерде етістіктен кейін тұрады.

Мыс: I bought a radio-set. Мен радио қабылдағыш сатып алдым.

б) Көмекші сөздерсіз жанама толықтауыш сөйлемдерде етістіктің және тура толықтауыштың арасында тұрады.

I send my father a telegram. Мен әкеме жеделхат жібердім.

в) Көмекші сөздер жанама толықтауыш тура толықтауыштан кейін тұрады.

I received a telegram from my father. Мен кеше әкемнен жедел хат алдым.

Сөйлемдегі пысықтауыштың орны.

Сөйлемдерде пысықтауыш келесі сөз тәртібімен тұрады.

а) Қимыл-сын пысықтауыш сөйлемдерде толықтауыштан кейін тұрады.

I have read the letter with great pleasure. Мен хатты рақаттанып оқыдым.

б) Мекен пысықтауыш қимыл-сын пысықтауыштан кейін тұрады..

I met him by chance at the theatre. Мен оны кездейсоқ театрдан көрдім.

в) Мезгіл пысықтауыш сөйлемдерде мекен пысықтауыштан кейін тұрады, яғни сөйлемнің соңында тұрады.

I met him in the park on Sunday. Мен оны жексенбіде паркте көрдім.

Хабарлы болымсыз сөйлем.

Ағылшын тілінде болымсыз сөйлемдер “not” шылауы арқылы жасалады. “not” баяндауыштың құрамына кіретін көмекші немесе модальдық етістіктен кейін қойылады.

She is not working in the garden. Ол бақта жұмыс жасап жатқан жоқ.

He will not do it. Ол бұны жасамайды.

He does not live there. Ол онда тұрмайды.

They did not write a letter to him. Олар оған хат жазған жоқ.

Сұраулы сөйлем. Interrogative sentences.

Сұрақтар арнайы және жалпы болып екіге бөлінеді. Жалпы сұрақтар көмекші немесе модальдық етістіктен басталады.

Did you see him yesterday? Сіз оны кеше көрдіңіз бе?

Арнайы сұрақта сөйлемдер сұраулы сөз арқылы құрастырылады.
When did you go there? Сіз сонда қашан бардыңыз.

Жалпы сұрақтар (General questions).

Жалпы сұрақта көмекші немесе модальдық етістіктер бастауыштың алдында тұрады.

Жалпы сұрақтың жауабы қысқа болады. /Yes, no/

Do you speak French?	Yes, I do.	No, I don't.
Сіз французша сөйлейсіз бе?	Иә	Жоқ
Can you swim?	Yes, I can.	No, I can't
Сіз жүзу білісіз бе?	Иә	Жоқ

Арнайы сұрақтар (Special questions).

Арнайы сұрақтар сұраулы сөздерден басталады: who? kim? what? which? қандай? Не?

When? Қашан? Where? Қайда? Why? Here? How? Қалай? How much? Неше? how long? Қандай ұзақ?

Арнайы сұрақта көмекші немесе модальдық етістіктер алдында көмекші (what, when, where, why) сөздер тұрады.

What did she tell you? Ол сізге не айтты?

Бұйрықты сөйлем. (Imperative sentences).

Бұйрық сөйлемдер бұйрықты, өтінішті, кенесті білдіреді. Бұйрықты сөйлемдер болымды және болымсыз болады. Бұйрық сөйлемдер баядауыштан басталады.

Open the book. Кітапты ашыңызшы.

Өтінішті сұраулы сөйлемдер (will, would арқылы көрсетіледі.)

Will you help me? Көмектесіп жібересіз бе?

Won't you open the window? Терезені ашып жібересіз бе?

Лепті сөйлем.

(Exclamatory sentences)

Егер айтылатын ой тандануды, шаттануды, наразылықты білдіретін болса, онда хабарлы, сұраулы, бұйрықты сөйлемдер лепті сөйлем бола алады.

Have you ever seen such weather! Сіз мұндай ауа райын қашан да болса көрдіңіз бе!

Құрмалас сөйлемдер.

Құрмалас сөйлемдер екі немесе бірнеше жай сөйлемдерден тұрады. Құрмалас сөйлемдер екі түрлі болады: салалас (Compound Sentences) және сабақтас (Complex Sentences)

Салалас құрмалас сөйлем. (The Compound Sentences)

Салалас сөйлемдер екі тең дәрежедегі жай сөйлемдерден құрастырылады.

I came home early, but he remained to the end of the concert.

Мен үйге ерте келдім, ал ол концерт біткенше қалды.

Сабақтас сөйлем. (Complex Sentences).

Құрамындағы жай сөйлемдердің бірінің баяндауышы тиянақсыз болып екінші сөйлемге бағына байланысқан құрмалас сөйлем сабақтас құрмалас сөйлем деп аталады. Тиянақты тұрған сөйлемді басыңқы, ойды толық аяқтап тұрған сөйлемді бағынқы деп атайды.

Бағыныңқы сөйлемнің түрлері.

Бағыныңқы сөйлем құрмалас сөйлемде белгілі бір сөйлем мүшесінің функциясын атқарады.

Сөйлем мүшелері

Бағыныңқы сөйлемдер.

Бастауыш

Бастауыш бағыныңқы сөйлемдер.

What is interesting?

Қызықты не?

This book is interesting

What you say is interesting

Бұл кітап қызықты.

Сіздің айтқаныңыз қызықты?

Бастауыш бағыныңқы сөйлем. (Subject Clauses).

Бастауыш бағыныңқы сөйлемдер келесі сұрақтарға жауап береді: Who? Кім? What? Не?. Басынқы сөйлем бағынқы сөйлеммен келесі жалғаулықтар: **that-** сондай, **whether, if-** ба, бе, **na, ne, ma, me.**

Және шылаулы үстеулер арқылы байлынысады: who- кім?

Whose-кімнің

What-не

Which-қандай

When-қашан

Where-қайда

How- қалай

Why- неге

That he has refused to help you is very strange. Оның сізге көмектесуден бас тартқаны өте өкінішті.

Баяндауыш бағыныңқы сөйлем . (Predicative Clauses).

Баяндауыш бағыныңқы сөйлемдер келесі сұрақтарға жауап береді: **what is the subject?** *Бастауыш не?*

Мысалы: What is the subject like? Бастауыш мағынасы қалай?

Толықтауыш бағыныңқы сөйлем. (Object Clauses).

Толықтауыш бағыныңқы сөйлемдер келесі сұрақтарға жауап береді: **what?ne?about what? не туралы? For what? Неге? Не үшін?**

Мысалы: He told us that he felt ill.

Ол өзінің ауырып отырғанын бізге айтты

Төл және төлеу сөз. (Direct and indirect speech).

Егерде біреудің сөзін сөзбе-сөз басқа біреу айтып берсе, оны төл сөз деп атаймыз. Ал біреудің сөзін сөзбе-сөз айтпай, оның тек мазмұнын айтса бұл төлеу сөз деп аталады.

Direct speech

He has just said, "Peter will come on Sunday"

Indirect speech

He has just said that Peter will come on Sunday

Ол жаңа айтты "Петр жексенбіде келеді"

Ол Петрдің жексенбіде келетінін жаңа айтты.

Анықтауыш бағыныңқы сөйлемдер.
“Attributive clauses”

Бұл сөйлемдер келесі сұрақтарға жауап береді: **What? Which? Қандай?**

олар басыңқылы сөйлемдермен келесі жалғаулық сөздер арқылы байланысады:

Есімдіктер - **who? кім? whom? кімді? whose? кімнің? which? that?**

Және үстеу сөздер: **when? Қашан? where? қайда?**

Мысалы: The man who was here yesterday is a painter.

Кеше мұнда болған адам суретші.

I have found the book which I was looking for.

Мен іздеген жүрген кітапты тауып алдым.

Пысықтауыш бағыныңқы сөйлем.
Adverbial Clauses

Пысықтауыш бағыныңқылы сөйлемдер мағынасына қарай келесі пысықтауыш сөйлемдерге бөлінеді.

1. Мезгіл
2. Мекен
3. Себеп-салдар
4. Нәтиже
5. Қимыл-сын
6. Қарсылықты
7. Мақсат
8. Шартты

Мезгіл бағыныңқы сөйлемдер.
(Adverbial clauses of time)

Мезгіл бағыныңқы сөйлемдер келесі сұрақтарға жауап береді.
When? Қашан? Since when? Қашаннан бері? How long? Қандай ұзақ?

Бұл сөйлемдер басыңқы сөйлемдермен келесі жалғаулықтар арқылы байланысады.

When? қашан? While сол екі арада, *as қалайда, мүмкіндігінше, after –кейін, before – дейін, till, untill – дейін, since, as soon as..*

Мекен бағыныңқы сөйлемдер.

(**Adverbial clauses of place**).

Мекен бағыныңқы сөйлемдер келесі сұрақтарға жауап береді:

Where? Қайда? From where? Қай жақтан? Олар басыңқы сөйлемдермен келесі жалғаулық сөздер арқылы байланысады

Where? Қайда? Wherever, қайда болса да.

Мысалы: He went where the doctor sent him.

Ол дәрігер жіберген жерге барды.

Себеп-салдар бағыныңқы сөйлемдер.

(**Adverbial clauses of cause**).

Себеп-салдар бағыныңқы сөйлемдер **Why?** деген сұраққа жауап береді. Олар негізгі сөйлемдермен келесі жалғаулық сөздер арқылы жалғасады: **because, as, since, for**.

As there were no porters, we had to carry the luggage ourselves.

Жүк тасушылар болмағандықтан, жүгімізді өзімізге алып жүруге тура келді.

Қимыл-сын бағыныңқы сөйлемдер.

(**Adverbial clauses of manner**).

Қимыл-сын бағыныңқы сөйлемдердің қимыл-амалы **how?** (қалай) деген сұраққа жауап береді.

Олар басыңқы сөйлемдер мен келесі жалғаулық сөздер арқылы байланысады. **as, as if, that**.

Мыс: You answer as if you did not know this rule.

Сіз мына ережені білмейтіндей жауап бересіз.

Нәтиже бағыныңқы сөйлемдер.

(**Adverbial clauses of result**).

Нәтиже бағыныңқы сөйлемдер басыңқы сөйлемдермен келесі жалғаулық сөздер арқылы байланысады: **so that, so**.

Мыс: He went to the lecture early so that he got a good seat.

Ол лекцияға ерте барғандықтан жақсы орынға отырды.

Қарсылықты бағыныңқы сөйлемдер.
(**Adverbial clauses of concession**).

Қарсылықты бағыныңқы сөйлемдер басыңқы сөйлемдер мен келесі жалғаулық сөздер арқылы байланысады:

Though (although), in spite of the fact that, not with – standing that, whoever, no matter what, no matter how.

Мысалы: Though (although) it was only nine o'clock, there were few people in the streets-Сағат тоғыз болғанына қарамастан көшеде адам аз болды.

Мақсат бағыныңқы сөйлемдер.

(**Adverbial clauses of purpose**).

Мақсат бағыныңқы сөйлемдер **what for? (неге?) for what? (қандай мақсатпен?)** деген сұрақтарға жауап береді.

Мыс: Close the window so that it will be warm in the room.

Бөлмеде жылы болуы үшін терезені жабыңыз.

Шартты бағыныңқы сөйлемдер.

(**Adverbial clauses of condition**).

Шартты бағыныңқы сөйлемдер басыңқы сөйлемдермен келесі жалғаулық сөздер арқылы байланысады: **if, unless, provided (that), providing (that) on condition (that)**.

Мыс: If I see him tomorrow, I shall ask him about it.

Мен оны ертең көрсем бұл туралы одан сұраймын.

Conditional sentences.

Шартты сөйлемдер.

§17. Шартты сөйлемдер басыңқы сөйлемдегі істің орындалу шартын, уақытын көрсетеді. Шартты сөйлемдердің үш түрі (реальді, күмәнді, және реальсіз) бар.

Шартты сөйлемдердің бірінші түрі.

Шартты сөйлемдердің бірінші түрі келер шақты істің орындалу шартын көрсетеді. Бағыныңқы сөйлемде етістік Present Indefinite-ге, ал басыңқы сөйлемде Future Indefinite-ге тұрады.

Басыңқы сөйлемнің етістікгі бұйрық райда да тұруы мүмкін.

Мысалы: If the weather is good, we shall go skiing.

Егер күн жақсы болса, біз шаңғы тебеміз.

Шартты сөйлемдердің екінші түрі.

Осы немесе келер шақта істің іске асуына күмән білдіру үшін қолданылады.

Бағынқы сөйлемнің етістігі Past Subjunctive формасында, ал басынқы сөйлемде should/would+Indefinite Infinitive қолданылады.

Мысалы: If the plant landed, they would let us know about it.

Егер ұшақ жерге қонса, олар бізге хабарлар еді.

Шартты сөйлемдердің үшінші түрі.

Шартты сөйлемдердің үшінші түрі өткен шақтағы істің орындалу шартын көрсетеді. Реальсіз шартты өткен шақта көрсету үшін басынқы сөйлемнің етістігі – should, would+ Perfect Infinitive формасында, ал бағынқы сөйлем етістігі .

Past Perfect Subjunctive формасында қолданылады.

Мысалы: If the weather conditions had been favorable, the construction of the bridge would have been completed in time.

Егерде ауа райы қолайлы болғанда, көпір құрылысы уақытында аяқталған болар еді.

Тыныс белгілері. (Punctuation marks).

Үтір. (The comma).

Жай сөйлемдегі үтір.

Жай сөйлемде үтір қойылады:

1) Сөйлемдердің бірыңғай мүшелерінің арасында:

Мысалы: There are many theatres, museums and libraries in Moscow.

Мәскеуде көптеген театрлар, мұражайлар және кітапханалар бар.

2) Айқындауыш сөздерді айыру үшін.

Мысалы: Pushkin, the great Russian poet, was born in 1799.

Пушкин, ұлы орыс поэты, 1799 жылы дүниеге келді.

3) Қыстырма сөздерді айыру үшін.

Мысалы: Fortunately, the fire was discovered before it did much damage.

Бақытқа қарай, өртті үлкен кесел келтірмес бұрын көрді.

4) Қаратпа сөзді айыру үшін.

Мысалы: Helen, where is my red pencil?

Елена, менің қызыл қарандашым қайда?

5) Күн жатысын жылдан айыру үшін.

Мысалы: The contract was concluded on the 15-th September, 1961.

Келісімге 1961 жылы 15 қыркүйекте отырды.

Құрмалас сөйлемдегі үтір.

1) Салалас құрмалас сөйлемдерде үтір екі жай сөйлемнің арасына, шылаудың алдынан қойылады.

Мысалы: At last the rain stopped, and the sun come out.

Ақырында жаңбыр жауып болды және күн шықты.

2) Сабақтас құрмалас сөйлемдер.

A) Бастауыш, баяндауыш және толықтауыш бағыңқы сөйлемдер үтірмен айырылмайды.

Мысалы: How this happened is not clear to anyone.

Бұның қалай болғаны ешкімге түсініксіз.

B) Анықтауыш бағыңқы сөйлемдер суреттейтін жағдайда үтірмен айырылады.

Мысалы: I spoke to my teacher, who promised to help me.

Маған көмектесуге сөз берген мұғаліммен мен сөйлестім.

C) Пысықтауыш бағыңқы сөйлемдер басыңқы сөйлемнің алдында тұрса, үтірмен айырылады.

Мысалы: If I see him, I shall tell him about it.

Егер мен оны көрсем, оған бұл жөнінде айтамын.

Нүктелі үтір.(The Semicolon)

Нүктелі үтір салалас көрмалас сөйлемнің құрамындағы жай сөйлемдерді байланыстыратын жалғаулықтар болмаған жағдайда қойылады.

He will return from Moscow in June; His sister will stay there another month.

Ол Мәскеуден шілдеде оралады; Оның апасы тағы бір айға сонда қалады.

Қос нукте.(The Colon)

Қос нукте қойылады:

1) Цитата алдында.

2) Төл сөздегі ұзақ мәтін алдында.

Мысалы: He said: "We agree to asept your offer if you reduce the price by 10 p.s."

« Егер сіз бағаны 10 пайзға төмендетсеңіз біз сіздің ұсынысыңызды кабылдауға келісеміз» - деді ол.

3) Бірыңғай сөйлем мүшелері алдында.

Мысалы: The agreement provides for the delivery of the following raw materials: cotton, wool, jute and others.

Келесі шикізатарды әкелуді қарастырады: мақта, жүн және т.б.

Нүкте.

(The full stop or the period)

Нүкте қойылады:

1) Хабарлы және бұйрықты сөйлемдердің соңында:

Мысалы: The goods were shipped yesterday.

Заттар кеше тиелді.

Open the window.

Терезені ашыңыз.

2) Қысқарған сөздерді.

Мысалы: Mr. - Mister. Mrs. – Misstress.

Co. – Company. Ltd. - Limited.

Сұрақ белгісі. (The Note of Interrogation).

Сұраулы сөйлемдердің соңында сұрау белгісі қойылады.

Мысалы: Where is my red pencil?

Менің қызыл қарындашым қайда?

Леп белгісі. (The Note of Exclamation).

Күшті сезімді білдіретін сөйлемдер соңында леп белгісі қойылады

Мысалы: How glad I am to see you !

Сізді көргеніме қандай Қуаныштымын!

What a building ! -Қандай тамаша Ғимарат!

Тырнақша (The Inverted Commas).

Тырнақшалар төл сөздің немесе цитаттаның басында және аяғында қойлады. Нүкте сөйлем соңында тырнақша алдында қойлады.

He said, “She will come in the evening”.

«Ол кешке келеді», - деді ол.

Айшықша (Апостраф – The apostrophe).

Айшықша (апостраф) белгісі сөздегі әріптердің жазылмағанын көрсетеді: it’s – it is, don’t – do not, we’re – we are, ’phone – telephone.

Айшықша (апостраф) белгісі зат есімдердің тәуелдік септігінің

жалғауында кездеседі: 's, ' - Peter's, boy's, workers', boys'.

Дефис немесе сызықша. (The Hyphen)

Қосарланған күрделі сөздердің арасында дефис қойылады:
reading-room - оқырмандар залы, dark-blue - қара-көк.

Жіктеу есімдігінің түрі to ask. Ашық рай (The Indicative Mood). (The Active Voice).

	Indefinite	Continuous	Perfect	Perfect Continuous
Present	I ask He asks We ask You ask They ask	I am asking He is asking We are asking You are asking They are asking	I have asked He has asked We have asked You have asked They have asked	I have been asking He has been asking We have been asking You have been asking They have been asking
	Do I ask?	Am I asking?	Have I asked?	Have I been asking?
	I do not ask	I am not asking	I have not asked	I have not been asking
Past	I asked He asked We asked You asked They asked	I was asking He was asking We were asking You were asking They were asking	I had asked He had asked We had asked You had asked They had asked	I had been asking He had been asking We had been asking You had been asking They had been asking
	Did I ask?	Was I asking?	Had I asked?	Had I been asking?
	I did not ask	I was not asking	I had not asked	I had not been asking

Future	I shall ask He will ask We shall ask You will ask They will ask	I shall be asking He will be asking We shall be asking You will be asking They will be asking	I shall have asked He will have asked We shall have asked You will have asked They will have asked	I shall have been asking He will have been asking We shall have been asking You will have been asking They will have been asking
	Shall I ask?	Shall I be asking?	Shall I have asked?	Shall I have been asking?
	I shall not ask	I shall not be asking	I shall not have asked	I shall not have been asking
Future in the Past	I should ask He would ask We should ask You would ask They would ask	I should be asking He would be asking We should be asking You would be asking They would be asking	I should have asked He would have asked We should have asked You would have asked They would have asked	I should have been asking He would have been asking We should have been asking You would have been asking They would have been asking
	I should not ask	I should not be asking	I should not have asked	I should not have been asking

Ырыксыз етістік (The Passive Voice).

	Indefinite	Continuous	Perfect	Perfect Contin uous
Present	I am asked He is asked We are asked You are asked They are asked	I am being asked He is being asked We are being asked You are being asked They are being asked	I have been asked He has been asked We have been asked You have been asked They have been asked	- - - - -
	Am I asked?	Am I being asked?	Have I been asked?	-
	I am not asked	I am not being asked	I have not been asked	-
Past	I was asked He was asked We were asked You were asked They were asked	I was being asked He was being asked We were being asked You were being asked They were being asked	I had been asked He had been asked We had been asked You had been asked They had been asked	- - - - -
	Was I asked?	Was I being asked?	Had I been asked?	-
	I was not asked	I was not being asked	I had not been asked	-
Future	I shall be asked He will be asked We shall be asked You will be asked They will be asked	-	I shall have been asked He will have been asked We shall have been asked You will have been asked They will have been asked	- - - - -

	Shall I be asked?	-	Shall I have been asked?	-
	I shall not be asked	-	I shall not have been asked	-
Future in the Past	I should be asked	-	I should have been asked	-
	He would be asked	-	He would have been asked	-
	We should be asked	-	We should have been asked	-
	You would be asked	-	You would have been asked	-
	They would be asked	-	They would have been asked	-
	I should not be asked	-	I should not have been asked	-

**Бұйрық рай (The Imperative Mood)
(The Subjunctive Mood).**

(The Active Voice).

Бірінші топ		
Present Subjunctive	Past Subjunctive	Past Perfect Subjunctive
I ask	I asked	I had asked
He ask	He asked	He had asked
We ask	We asked	We had asked
You ask	You asked	You had asked
They ask	They asked	They had asked
Екінші топ		
Should+Indefinite Infinitive	Should+Perfect Infinitive	
I should ask	I should have asked	
He should ask	He should have asked	
We should ask	We should have asked	
You should ask	You should have asked	
They should ask	They should have asked	

Үшінші топ	
Should (would) +Indefinite Infinitive	Should (would) +Perfect Infinitive
I should ask He would ask We should ask You would ask They would ask	I should have asked He would have asked We should have asked You would have asked They would have asked

ЫРЫҚСЫЗ ЕТІСТІК (The Passive Voice)

Бірінші топ		
Present Subjunctive	Past Subjunctive	Past Perfect Subjunctive
I be asked He be asked We be asked You be asked They be asked	I were asked He were asked We were asked You were asked They were asked	I had been asked He had been asked We had been asked You had been asked They had been asked
Екінші топ		
Should+Indefinite Infinitive	Should+Perfect Infinitive	
I should be asked He should be asked We should be asked You should be asked They should be asked	I should have been asked He should have been asked We should have been asked You should have been asked They should have been asked	
Үшінші топ		
Should (would) +Indefinite Infinitive	Should (would) +Perfect Infinitive	
I should be asked He would be asked We should be asked You would be asked They would be asked	I should have been asked He would have been asked We should have been asked You would have been asked They would have been asked	

**Жиктеу есімдігінің түрі to be.
(The Indicative Mood).**

	Indefinite	Continuous	Perfect
Present	I am He is We are You are They are	I am being He is being We are being You are being They are being	I have been He has been We have been You have been They have been
	Am I?	Am I being?	Have I been?
	I am not	I am not being	I have not been
Past	I was He was We were You were They were	I was being He was being We were being You were being They were being	I had been He had been We had been You had been They had been
	Was I ?	Was I being ?	Had I been ?
	I was not	I was not being	I had not been
Future	I shall be He will be We shall be You will be They will be	- - - - -	I shall have been He will have been We shall have been You will have been They will have been
	Shall I be?	-	Shall I have been?
	I shall not be	-	I shall not have been
Future in the Past	I should be He would be We should be You would be They would be	- - - - -	I should have been He would have been We should have been You would have been They would have been
	I should not be	-	I should not have been

Бұйрық рай.
(Imperative Mood).

(The Subjunctive Mood)

Бірінші топ

Present Subjunctive	Past Subjunctive	Past Perfect Subjunctive
I be He be We be You be They be	I were He were We were You were They were	I had been He had been We had been You had been They had been

Екінші топ

Should+Indefinite Infinitive	Should+Perfect Infinitive
I should be He should be We should be You should be They should be	I should have been He should have been We should have been You should have been They should have been

Үшінші топ

Should (would) +Indefinite Infinitive	Should (would) +Perfect Infinitive
I should be He would be We should be You would be They would be	I should have been He would have been We should have been You would have been They would have been

**Жіктеу есімдігінің түрі to have.
Ашық рай (The Indicative Mood).**

	Indefinite	Continuous	Perfect
Present	I have He has We have You have They have	I am having He is having We are having You are having They are having	I have had He has had We have had You have had They have had
	Have I ?	Am I having?	Have I had?
	I have not	I am not having	I have not had
Past	I had He had We had You had They had	I was having He was having We were having You were having They were having	I had had He had had We had had You had had They had had
	Had I ?	Was I having?	Had I had?
	I had not	I was not having	I had not had
Future	I shall have He will have We shall have You will have They will have	I shall be having He will be having We shall be having You will be having They will be having	I shall have had He will have had We shall have had You will have had They will have had
	Shall I have?	Shall I be having?	Shall I have had?
	I shall not have	I shall not be having	I shall not have had
Future in the Past	I should have He would have We should have You would have They would have	I should be having He would be having We should be having You would be having They would be having	I should have had He would have had We should have had You would have had They would have had
	I should not have	I should not be having	I should not have had

Бұйрық рай.
(The Imperative Mood).
(The Subjunctive Mood)

Бірінші топ		
Present Subjunctive	Past Subjunctive	Past Perfect Subjunctive
I have He have We have You have They have	I had He had We had You had They had	I had He had had We had had You had had They had had
Екінші топ		
Should+Indefinite Infinitive	Should+Perfect Infinitive	
I should have He should have We should have You should have They should have	I should have had He should have had We should have had You should have had They should have had	
Үшінші топ		
Should (would) +Indefinite Infinitive	Should (would) +Perfect Infinitive	
I should have He would have We should have You would have They would have	I should have had He would have had We should have had You would have had They would have had	

Жіксіз есімдігінің түрі to ask.
(The Infinitive).

	Active	Passive
Indefinite		
Continuous	to ask	to be asked
Perfect	to be asking	-
Perfect Continuous	to have asked	to have been asked
	to have been asking	-

(The Gerund)

	Active	Passive
Indefinite Perfect	asking having asked	being asked having been asked

(The Participle)

	Active	Passive
Present	asking	being asked
Past	-	asked
Perfect	having asked	having been asked

Жіксіз есімдігінің түрі to be.
Тұйық етістік (The Infinitive).

Indefinite Perfect	to be to have been
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(The Gerund)

Indefinite Perfect	being having been
---------------------------	----------------------

Есімше (The Participle)

Present	being
Past	been
Perfect	having been

**Жіксіз есімдігінің түрі to have.
(The Infinitive).**

Indefinite Continuous Perfect	to have to be having to have had
--	--

(The Gerund)

Indefinite Perfect	having having had
-------------------------------	----------------------

(The Participle)

Present Past Perfect	having had having had
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Бұрыс етістіктерінің таблицасы

№	Infinitive Тұйық етістік	Past Infinitive Өткен тұйық етістік	Past Participle Тұйық етістіктің өткен шағы	Аудармасы
1	arise	arose	arisen	көру
2	aware	awoke awaked	awoke awaked	ояту
3	be	was were	been	болу
4	bear	bore	bom	босану
5	bear	bore	borne	алып жуу
6	beat	beat	beaten	соғу
7	become	became	became	тұру
8	begin	begun	begun	бастау
9	banal	bent	bent	майыстыру
10	bind	bound	bound	байлау
11	bite	bitten	bitten	тістеу
12	bleed	bled	bled	қан ағу
13	blow	blown	blown	үрлеу
14	break	broken	broken	сындыру
15	breed	bred	bred	шығару
16	blind	brought	bought	әкелу
17	broadcast	broadcast broadcasted	broadcast broadcasted	радиомен беру
18	build	build	built	салу
19	burn	burn	burnt	жану
20	bruits	burst	burst	жарылу
21	burst	burst	burst	сатып алу
22	buy	bought	bought	лақтыру
23	cast	cast	cast	аулау
24	catch	caught	caught	таңдау
25	cling	clung	clung	жабысып қалу
26	come	came	come	келу
27	cost	cost	cost	тұрады
28	creep	crept	crept	жорғалау

29	cut	cut	cut	кесу
30	deal	dealt	dealt	сату
31	dig	dug	dug	қазу
32	do	did	done	жасау
33	draw	drew	drawn	сурет салу
34	dream	dreamt dreamed	dreamt dreamed	түс көру арман ету
35	drink	drank	drank	ішу
36	drive	drove	driven	күралау
37	dwell	dwell	dwell	өмір сүру
38	eat	ate	eaten	жеу
39	fall	fell	fallen	күлау
40	feed	feed	feed	тамақтандыру
41	feel	felt	felt	сезілу
42	fight	fought	fought	күресу
43	find	found	found	тауып алу
44	flee	fled	fled	жүгүру
45	fling	flung	flung	лақтыру
46	fly	flew	flown	үшу
47	forbid	forbade	forbade	тыю
48	forget	forgot	forgotten	ұмыту
49	forgive	forgave	forgiven	кешіру
50	freeze	froze	frozen	қату
51	get	got	got	алып түру
52	give	gave	given	беру
53	go	went	done	жүру
54	grind	ground	ground	қайрау
55	grow	drew	drown	өсу
56	hang	hang	hang	алып түру
57	have	had	had	бар болу
58	hear	heard	heard	есту
59	hid	hid	hid hidden	тығу
60	hit	hit	hit	ұру, соғу
61	hold	held	held	ұстау
62	hurt	hurt	hurt	зақым келтіру
63	keep	kept	kept	көтеру
64	kneel	knelt	knelt	тізеге түру
65	know	know	known	білу

66	lay	laid	laid	қою
67	lead	led	ltd	жетектеу
68	lean	leant leaned	leant leaned	сүйену
	leap	leant leaned	leant leaned	секіру
69	learn	learnt learned	learnt learned	оқу
70	leave	left	left	тастап кету
71	lend	lent	lent	қарыз беру
72	let	let	let	рұқсат ету
73	lie	lay	lain	жату
74	light	lit lighted	lit lighted	жағу
	lose	lost	lost	жоғалту
75	mean	meant	meant	жасау
76	make	made	made	бір мәнісі болу
77	meet	met	met	кездесу
78	play	plaid	plaid	төлеу
79	put	put	put	қою
80	read	read	read	оқу
81	ride	rode	ridden	атпен салт жүру
82	ring	rang	rang	шылдырлау
83	rise	rose	risen	көтерілу
84	run	ran	run	жүгіру
85	saw	sawed	sawn	аралау
86	say	said	said	айту
87	see	saw	seen	Көру
88	seek	sought	sought	іздеу
89	sell	sold	sold	сату
90	send	sent	sent	жіберу
91	set	set	set	кіргізу
92	shake	shook	shaken	секілдету
93	shave	shaved	shaven	қырқыну
94	shed	shed	shed	тоғу
95	shine	shone	shone	жарқылдау
96	shoot	shot	shot	ату
97	show	showed	shown	көрсету
98	shrink	shank	shrunk	тыржыю

101	shut	shut	shut	жабу
	sing		Sung	ән салу
102		sang		
103	sink	sank	sunk	бату
104	sit	sat	sat	отыру
105	sleep	slept	slept	ұйықтау
106	slide	slid	slid	тайғану
	smell	smelt	smelt	ііс шығу
107		smelled	smelled	
108	sow	sowed	sown	егу
109	speak	spoke	spoken	айту
110	speed	sped	sped	асығу
	spell	spelt	spelt	сөйлөу
111		spelled	spelled	
112	spend	spent	spent	жою
	spill	spilt	spilt	төгіп алу
113		spilled	spilled	
114	spin	span	spun	ііру
115	spit	spat	spat	түкіру
116	split	split	split	жару
	spoil	spoilt	spoilt	бүлдіру
117		spoiled	spoiled	
118	spread	spread	spread	көп сөйлеп кету
119	spring	sprang	sprung	секіру
120	stand	stood	stood	тұру
121	steal	stole	stolen	ұрлау
122	stick	stuck	stuck	жапсыру
123	sting	strung	strung	шағу
	Strike	struck	struck	жұмысты тастау
124				
125	strive	strove	striven	тырысу
126	swear	swore	sworn	аттасу, ұрысу
127	sweep	swept	swept	сыпыру
128	swell	swept	swept	ісіну
129	swim	swam	swum	жүзу
130	swing	swung	swung	шайқау
131	take	took	taken	алу
132	teach	taught	taught	үйрету, оқыту
133	tear	tore	tom	жүлу

134	tell	told	told	әңгіме айту
135	think	thought	thought	ойлау
136	throw	threw	thrown	лақтыру
137	tread	trod	trodden	жүру, аяқ басу
138	understand	understood	understood	түсіну
139	wake	woke waked	woke waked	ояту ұйқыдан тұру
140	wear	wore	worn	кию
141	weep	wept	wept	жылау
142	win	won	won	үту
143	wind	wound	wound	бұрау, өрлеу
144	write	wrote	written	жазу

Жаттығулар.

Exercise 1.

Write down 5 proper and 5 common nouns.

Exercise 2.

Put it these words in the plural forms:

Pencil, map, wall, window, door, shop, week, friend, girl, clock, pen, street, river, plate, fork, spoon, lamp, Rat, coat, town;

Dress, watch, glass, bus, match, mass, bench, fox, bush, branch, speech, dick, language, place, bridge, rose, case;

Party, army, country, colony, play, key, toy, day, way, family, dictionary, story, copy, laboratory, journey, library, university, faculty, ministry;

Leaf, life, thief, shelf, wife, half, loaf;

Man, woman, child, tooth, foot, goose, mouse.

Exercise 3.

Put it these words in the singular for:

Wolves, libraries, copies, shelves, ladies, ways, lives, washes, days, babies, universities, matches, files, ministries, halves, colonies, keys, knives, brushes, men, bodies, lorries, women, children.

Put into the Singular:

1. These are phonemes. 2. We have English and French books. 3. Roses are beautiful flowers. 4. Houses have roofs. 5. Those are little children. 6. Foxes are animals. 7. Watches are small clocks. 8. Classroom have blackboards. 9. These are old oaks. 10. Dogs have tails. 11. Those boys are good friends. 12. Balls are round.

Exercise 4.

Translate into English:

- 1) Бақшада көп балалар.
- 2) Бұл кімнің баласы.
- 3) Екі ер адам үш әйел адам бақшада отырды .
- 4) Бұл екі шына заводы үш жыл бұрын салынды.
- 5) Бұл шына заводы біздің фабрикадан алыс емес.
- 6) Кітапханада қазір кісі өте көп.
- 7) Бұл кітап 8 пенс тұрады.
- 8) Пенсты қаладан жасайды.
- 9) Ол бір пенсты үстелдің үстіне қойды?

Exercise 5.

Translate into English:

- 1) Сіздің ақшаңыз қайда?- үстелдің үстінде.
- 2) Бұл кімнің ақшасы ?- Ол Оляның ақшасы.
- 3) Күздігүні біз өте көп жеміс жейміс.
- 4) Жазда және күзде оңтүстікте өте көп жемістер бар.
- 5) Оның шашы өте ақшыл.
- 6) Оның шашы қара ма?
- 7) Сіздердің жазғы демалыстарың қашан басталады – Бірінші шілдеден басталады.
- 8) Біздердің қысқы демалыстарымыз ақпанда бітеді.

Exercise 6.

Put the nouns in the Possessive Case:

- 1) The voice of my brother.
- 2) The plays of Bernard show.
- 3) The watch of my father.
- 4) The looks of the boys.
- 5) The end of the book.
- 6) The parents of Peter.
- 7) The birthday of my daughter.
- 8) The signature of Mr. A.
- 9) The new club of the workers.
- 10) The boats of the fishermen.
- 11) The letter of my brother.
- 12) The wall of the garden.
- 13) The centre of the town.
- 14) The novels of Tolstoy.
- 15) The secretary of Mr. D.
- 16) The hats of the women.
- 17) The beginning of the meeting.
- 18) The teacher of my children.
- 19) The legs of the table.
- 20) The car of Peter.
- 21) The opinion of the director.

Article

Exercise 7.

Insert articles where nursery:

This is ...classroom. There are ten students in classroom. One student is standing. The others are sitting. There is on door and four windows in ...

classroom. There is ... table in ... classroom. There are ... flowers on ... table. There are two pictures on ... walls. One picture is near ... door; the other is near one of ... windows ... blackboard is in ... middle of one of ... walls.

There is ... large map to ... right of ... blackboard. It is ... map of ... world. There are different countries on it, they are all of ... different colors: green and brown, light brown and dark grey, yellow and red. I can find ... place on... map, where ... father is now: it is ... Far East. It is far from Leningrad. When it is still dark in Leningrad and only ... moon and stars are shining it is light there because ... sun is already rising in ... East.

Exercise 8.

Fill in the definite or indefinite article if necessary:

- 1) There are three rooms and ... kitchen in her new flat.
- 2) My new dress is made of ... silk.
- 3) If you want to write something on ... blackboard, you must have ... piece of ... chalk.
- 4) Are there any students in ... Room No. 12?
- 5) I have ... new English book ... book is very interesting.
- 6) There is ... garden and ... lawn in front of her Institute. ... garden is not large, but it is very beautiful.
- 7) The students of your group must be in ... Room No. 30.
- 8) Open ... book at page 29 and start reading.
- 9) May is ... fifth month of the year.
- 10) Saturday is ... day off.

Exercise 9.

Use the proper article:

1. Come to ... blackboard and write ... Exercise 12.
2. You have ... spelling mistake in ... word "nursery".
3. He is ... old friend of mine.
4. There came ... tap at ... door and in another moment we saw ... small girl enter ... room.
5. He is young artist and, I should say, rather talented.
6. He gave her ... cigarette and lighted it.
7. I don't feel ... sympathy towards this man.
8. They are going to build ... new house.
9. Are ... rooms in your flat large or small?
10. ... hour is a long time. In ... hour you can read ... newspaper, or write ... letter.
11. What ... beautiful music he is playing!
12. In every remark he found ... meaning but not always the true meaning.
13. There is ... curiosity in her look.
14. ... Sand fords have ... nice house ... house isn't large but comfortable.

Exercise 10.

Fill in preposition wherever necessary:

1. Mary has taken Cold shower and is going to dress. 2. Let me have

.....
Look at your translation. 3. I always do Room withvacuum-cleaner.

4. Let's turn on Cassette-recorder and dance to music. 5. What are your

Fellow-students doing? – Mary is playing Piano. Peter and David are playing Chess. 6. I don't go to Institute by Bus. I prefer to go there by Metro. 7. How long does it take you to do ...? Home work?

8. Something has gone wrong with Vacuum-cleaner. I am sure it's plug. It is not pleasant to go by Metro on such Fine day. Let's go on

.....
foot. 10. Will you turn on Radio? I should like to listen to Seven o'clock news. 11. It's Pity you have never been to England. 12. My parents are still in Town.

The Adjective

Exercise 11.

Form the following adjectives in the Comparative and the Superlative Degree:

Small, long, clean, large, dark, light, rich, poor, big, quick, show, sharp, deep, high, strong, near, cheap, thin, thick, interesting, famous, easy, important, beautiful, weak, difficult, comfortable, early, happy, pale, late, lazy, expensive, sad, practical, pretty, full, bright, dirty, fresh, dangerous, nice, useful, talkative, progressive, bad, good, fat, much, wet, powerful, funny, little, far, many.

Exercise 12.

Translate into Kazakh language:

A higher price, a lower price, a longer pencil, a shorter pencil, a more expensive overcoat, a cheaper overcoat, a colder day, a warmer day, a kinder man, a lighter room, a darker room, a prettier girl, a smaller garden, a larger garden, fresher air, fatter meat, a worse dress, a better dress.

Exercise 13.

Translate into English:

1) Біздің бақ сіздікінен кіші.

- 2) Бұл парк үлкен анаған карағанда.
- 3) Онда аз жұмыс, өткен жылға карағанда.
- 4) Оның пәтері сіздердің пәтерлеріңізден үлкен.

Exercise 14.

Write down in written form:

2, 12, 20, 28, 3, 13, 30, 35, 4, 14, 40, 49, 5, 15, 50, 56, 6, 16, 60, 67, 7, 17, 70, 8, 18, 80, 89, 9, 19, 90, 100, 107, 126, 200, 349, 607, 839, 1, 000, 5,007, 6,456, 8,967, 67, 237, 100,000,000.

Exercise 15.

Translate into English:

- 1) 200 кітап
- 2) 5,000 студент
- 3) 21 жәшік
- 4) 141 кітап
- 5) 2,000,000 кітап
- 6) 3,000 ақша
- 7) 41 күн
- 8) 500 бала
- 9) 31 ер бала
- 10) 600 үй.

Exercise 16.

Write down on English the following dates:

- 1) 15 ақпан 1959 жылы
- 2) 21 сәуір 1959 жылы
- 3) 3 мамыр 1960 жылы
- 4) 12 маусым 1960 жылы
- 5) 15 шілде 1961 жылы
- 6) 14 тамыз 1962 жылы
- 7) 17 қыркүйек 1962 жылы
- 8) 25 қараша 1962 жылы.

The Pronoun

Exercise 17.

Put the possessive case:

- 1) I see that she has lost ... pencil; perhaps you can give her ...?
- 2) Tell him not to forget ... ticket; she mustn't forget ... either.
- 3) Show me ... dictation; I shall show you ... two.
- 4) We have left ... dictionaries at home; I hope they will lend us

- 5) I have left ... fountain-pen at home. Can lend them ...
- 6) We see they have no dictionaries; we can lend them
- 7) Show me ... new watch.
- 8) They have a garden, but ... garden is very small.

Exercise 18.

Replace the *of*-phrases by the noun in the Possessive Case:

- 1.The wife of Doctor Sanford. 2.The elder sister of Helen. 3.The friend of my brother-in-law. 4.The best suit of my husband. 5.The novels of Dickens. 6.The hat of my sister-in-law. 7.The answers of the students. 8.The tools of the workers. 9.The dress of the girl. 10.The dresses of the girls.

Exercise 19.

Replace the *of*- phrases by the noun in the Possessive Case:

- 1.The face of the woman is attractive. 2.The faces of these women are attractive. 3.The coat of my father-in-law is grey. 4.The coats of the passers-by are wet. 5.The voice of the man is too loud. 6.The voices of the men sound harsh. 7.The toys of the child are on the floor. 8.The toys of the children are on the floor.

Exercise 20.

Translate into English:

- 1) Ол кеше өзінің сағатын жоғалтып алды.
- 2) Өзіңіздің қаламыңызды маған көрсетіңізші.
- 3) Мен кеше оған өзімнің кітабымды бердім.
- 4) Олар маған өздерінің аудиториясын көрсетті.
- 5) Ол кеше өзінің әкесіне телеграмма жіберді.
- 6) Олар өздерінің сөздіктерін алып келді, біз өзіміздікін алып келдік.

Exercise 21.

Insert demonstrative pronoun:

- 1) ... article is easy and ... one is difficult.
- 2) Pass me ... magazines. Thank you.
- 3) ... boy is fond of music and his dream is to become pianist.
- 4) Who is ... little girl at the window.
- 5) ... book are mine and ... yours.
- 6) Are ... men over there your friends?
- 7) ... flowers are beautiful, aren't they?

- 8) Leave ... two dictionaries on my table and take ... books on the table over there to the library.
- 9) ... picture is framed and ... one is not .
- 10) ... roof is red and ... one is green.

Exercise 22.

Insert some, any or no.

1. Are there ... letters for me? No, there aren't ... letters for you. There are ... letters in the letter box.
2. You have ... very nice water – colors here.
3. I have got ... interesting books to read.
4. There aren't ... magazines here.
5. There are ... coat – hangers in the wardrobe.
6. I have got ... interesting news to tell you.
7. There isn't ... butter on the table ... take ... fresh butter from the bridge.
8. Will you have a cup of tea? There is ... hot water in the kettle.
9. I have got ... time to speak to you now. I am very busy.
10. Have you got ... English records at home?
11. You may read ... book you like.
12. Where can I buy ... flowers?
13. I am interested in ... information you can give me on this question.
14. May I have ... water, please?
15. Give me money if you have
16. If you have ... idea about it, please tell it to me.
17. If you see ... nice prints, buy them, please.

Exercise 23.

Insert somebody, someone, anybody, something, anything, everything, nothing,

anyone, everybody, nobody, no one, none.

Give two variants if possible:

1. I see at the window.
2. Is there new?
3. There is in the next room who wants to speak to you.
4. knows about it.
5. Will you give me to eat, I am hungry.
6. If calls while I am out, ask him to wait.
7. If there is else you want, please let me know.
8. I haven't any more money about me, so I cannot buy else.
9. Where can I get to eat?

10. When can I find here who can give me some information on this question?
11. Let me know if happens.
12. I know about your town. Tell me how if it.
13. I can see it is so dark here.
14. I understand now thank you for your explanation.
15. of them speak English well.

Exercise 24.

Fill in somebody (someone), anybody (anyone), nobody (no one), everybody (everyone), something, nothing, everything:

1. The door is open. There must be ... at home.
2. There is ... wrong with my fountain-pen. It won't write.
3. A blind man cannot see
4. Is there ... in the room? - Yes, there is ... in it.
5. It is too dark here, I cannot see
6. If there is ... in the room you may turn off the light.
7. Can ... recite the poem?
8. We must do ... to help her.
9. Can I do ... for you?
10. There must be ... interesting in the book you read.
11. It is too dark, I can't see ... on the blackboard. May I turn on the light?
12. We can work in Room No. 20. There is ... there.
13. Let's go there at once. I want to see ... with my own eyes.
14. May I come to see you tonight? I've got ... to tell you.
15. Bob is one of our best students, ... knows him.
16. Must we learn ... by heart? - No, must only prepare the poem for test reading.
17. There is ... interesting in this magazine.
18. Is ... away from the lesson?

Exercise 25.

Fill in some, no, (not), any, (not), much, little, a little, (not), many, few, a few, a lot of:

1. I have ... work today.
2. I should like to have ... milk for breakfast
3. Mary has friends at the Institute.
4. There are ... boys in Group Two.
5. Can you give me ... English books?

6. Are there ... fruit trees in your orchard?
7. I have ... spare time today.
8. Who can give the boy ... pencils?
9. I must ask you ... questions about your studies.
10. Have I ... mistakes in spelling?
11. Are ... students away from the lesson?
12. I hope, I have ... mistakes in my translation.

Exercise 26.

Fill in the blanks with *some, any, not any, much, many, not much, not many, very little, a little, very few, a few*:

1. Are there ... college-graduates among your friends? – Yes, there are ...
2. Are there ... students in the next classroom? – No, there aren't ...
3. I haven't got time, I must hurry.
4. I have ... time and can help you.
5. There are ... cups on the table, but there aren't glasses.
6. I have very ... time and can't stay any longer.
7. We know very ... about it.
8. I have ... questions to ask.
9. Very ... people know Doctor Sanford.
10. There are ... girls in the family, are there?
11. There's very ... chalk at the blackboard, go and fetch ...
12. There are ... students in the hall, are there?
13. There isn't ... tea in the tea-pot.
14. There isn't ... paper in the box, I need more.
15. There aren't ... pencils in the box, don't take ...
16. It's a secret. Very ... people know about it.
17. Please add ... more tea in my cup.

Exercise 27.

Insert *a few, a little*.

1. I have got pictures in the room, but not many.
2. There is bread in the cupboard. Bake it.
3. There are only cigarettes in the box.
4. books are lying on the table, but there are no magazines there.
5. I have money in my pocket.
6. Give me water, please, I am very thirsty.
7. I have just prints, but they all are very good.

Exercise 28.

Insert *one, ones or that*, those in their appropriate forms:

1. You have got a lot of English books, have you got any French?
2. This sheet of paper is dirty; please give me a clean
3. Will you take my watch and Of my brother to the watchmaker?
4. Are there any new magazines? I don't want to read the old....

5. Don't take the knife out of the drawer, take From the kitchen table.
6. I want to buy a new bookcase. What do you think of that?
7. I like Simonov's books and by Nagibin.
8. Does your brother want to live in this room or in that?
9. There are two tables in the dining-room. A big In the centre and small In the left-hand corner.

Modal verbs

Exercise 29.

Fill in the missing modal verbs:

1. You ... do out today. It's too cold.
2. ... I take your fountain-pen? – Do, please.
3. We ... not carry the bookcase upstairs. It is too heavy.
4. When ... you come to see us? – I ... come only tomorrow.
5. Shall I write a letter to him? – No, you ..., it is not necessary.
6. Mary ... finish the work at once.
7. ... you cut something without a knife?
8. Peter ... return the book to the library. We all want to read it.
9. Why ... not you understand it? It is so easy.
10. ... we do the exercise at once?
11. ... you pronounce this sound?

Exercise 30.

Fill in the missing modal verbs:

1. My sister can read English but she ... not read German.
2. Who ... recite this poem?
3. ... I smoke here? – I am afraid not.
4. ... I pay for these books at once? – No, you needn't. You ... pay for them in a day or two.
5. The lesson is over. We ... go home now.
6. ... I take your dictionary? – Do, please.
7. Must we translate this article in class? – No, you ..., you'll do it at home.
8. You ... find our dean upstairs.
9. ... I see your father's study?
10. Want king of furniture ... you see in the sitting-room?
11. You ... take a cold shower every morning.
12. ... I come to see you tomorrow at ten o'clock?
13. ... you do this translation in the morning?
14. I ... be at the Institute at eight.
15. It is dark. You ... draw the curtains.

Exercise 31.

Choose the proper word from brackets:

1. (Can, may) you play the piano?
2. (Can, may) Benny watch TV before going to bed?
3. I think I (can, may) do the work myself.
4. (Can, may) your friend speak English?
5. (Can, may) I have another cup of tea?
6. You (Can, may) stay a little longer if you like.
7. I (cannot, may not) hear you. Speak louder, please.
8. You (Can, may) take the book home.
9. (Can, may) I leave my bag with you?
10. I (cannot, may not) believe that.

Exercise 32.

Fill in the blanks with *can* or *may* in the correct form:

1. ... I visit you one of these days?
2. ... you lift this box?
3. When the fog lifted we ... see where we were.
4. She asked me if she ... use my dictionary.
5. The telephone is out of order. I ... not hear anything.
6. ... you help me a little?
7. ... I read the letter?
8. You ... think whatever you like.
9. I ... not walk so quickly. I have a weak heart.
10. You ... take the textbook. I don't need it any longer.

Exercise 33.

Fill in the blanks with *must not* or *need not*:

1. You ... ring the bell, I have a key.
2. "You ... play with matches," said Mother.
3. I ... go to the shops today. There is plenty of food in the house.
4. You ... strike a match; the room is full of gas.
5. We ... drive fast; we have plenty of time.
6. You ... drive fast; there is a speed limit here.
7. You ... turn on the light; I can see quite well.
8. You ... ask a woman her age. It's not polite.

The verb

Exercise 34.

Put the verbs in brackets into Present indefinite or Present Continuous:

- 1) Look up! The sun so brightly. (to shine).
- 2) My uncle usually newspapers in the evening. (to read).
- 3) As a rule, my sister all housework in the evening. (to do).
- 4) Go and see! our children soundly. (to sleep).
- 5) Our family usually out of town on Sundays. (to go)
- 6) What the students at the moment?
(to do) – some of the students themselves

While the others the dialogue by heart.
(to record, to learn)

- 7) your nephew English books in the original? (to read)
 8) Hallo! Where you ? (go) – I to the university (to go)
 you there, too? (to go) – no, I not usually to the
 University in the morning. (to go)
 I evening classes (to attend)
 9) you the words of this English song?
 (to understand) – Yes, I that now I them (to think,
 to understand).
 10) Whom you there? (to see)

Exercise 35.

Use the Present Continuous instead of the infinitive in brackets:

1. He (not to work), he (to watch) the TV programmer. 2. Kitty (to finish) her porridge. 3. Look, the sun (to rise). 4. John (to polish) his boots and his sister (to press) her dress. 5. It (to rain)? Yes, it (to rain) very hard. 6. The delegation (to leave) Moscow tomorrow. 7. Somebody (to talk) in the next room. 8. Who (to make) such a noise? 9. What you (to read) now? I (to read) stories by Maugham. 10. The weather is fine. The sun (to shine) and the birds (to sing). 11. Somebody (to knock) at the door. 12. You (to go) anywhere tonight? 13. Why you (to speak) so fast? You (to make) a lot of mistakes. 14. Go and see what the children (to do). 15. Who you (to wait) for my sister. 16. I can't hear what they (to talk) about.

Exercise 36.

Use the Present Indefinite or the Present Continuous instead of the infinitives in brackets:

1. My elder sister (to have) a music lesson. She always (to have) a music lesson on Friday. 2. Who (to sing) in the next room? 3. Father (to read) a newspaper. He usually (to read) something before going to bed. 4. Mother (to cook) breakfast in the kitchen. She always (to cook) in the mornings. 5. Who you (to wait) for? – I (to wait) for Ann, we must leave in ten minutes. 6. It often (to rain) in autumn. 7. Do not go out, it (to rain) heavily. 8. You (to understand) the use of the Present Indefinite and the Present Continuous quite well? 9. What you (to smile), Kitty? 11. I often (to meet) you at the corner of this street. You (to wait) for anybody? 12. You usually (to go) through the park? – Not usually, it's only today that I (to go) here. 13. You (to hear) anything? – Yes, somebody (to knock) at the door. 14. They still (to discuss) where to go now.

Exercise 37.

Use the verbs given in brackets in the Present Indefinite or the Present Continuous tenses:

1. Why you (to walk) so fast today? You usually (to walk) quite slowly. – I (to hurry). I am afraid to miss the train. 2. Cuckoos (not to build) nests. They (to use) the nests of other birds. 3. I always (to buy) lottery tickets but I seldom (to win). 4. You can't have the book now because my brother (to read) it. 5. Some people (to do) everything with their left hand. 6. Who (to make) that terrible noise? – It's my son. 7. How you (to feel)? 8. Switch on the light. It (to get) dark. 9. You (to understand) the rule? 10. The sun (to set) late in summer. 11. What you (to look for)? – We (to look for) our grandmother's spectacles. 12. I (not to know) what he (to want). 13. What time she (to come) here as a rule? 14. Look, snow still (to fall). 15. It often (to train) in October.

Exercise 38.

Put the verbs into the Past Indefinite Tense:

When a very small but comfortable room (to come). There much furniture in it: a bed, a small round table, a wardrobe and two chairs (not to be)

The wash – stand and the shower in the garden. (to be) I usually at six o'clock in the morning, the bed and in some twenty minutes I on my way

to the sea. (to get up, to wash, in make, to be) It me about ten minutes to go to sea-shore (to take). I my morning exercises and (to do, to bathe). Then I down on the sand and to the sun till 11 o'clock (to lie, to bask) At 11 sharp I My basket and to the nearest canteen to have breakfast (to take, to go) My breakfast not very substantial, for I can't eat much after I've lain in the sun for several hours (to be). On the beach I often some of my friends, who sometimes a transistor radio set with them (to meet, to bring). It is very pleasant to listen in while you are lying in the sun. After dinner, which I rather late, I for a stroll along the sea – coast

or to the tennis court to have a few sets of tennis (to have, to go). When it quite dark, I I to bathe for a second time together with my friends. (to be, to go). I to bed at 11 o'clock. (to go)

Exercise 39.

Translate into Kazakh language:

1) He gets newspapers in the morning.

- 2) He bought a television – set yesterday.
- 3) I always bought newspaper on my way to the factory.
- 4) He came home late yesterday.
- 5) Last year he came home later than now.
- 6) He will do it at once.
- 7) He will do it several times.
- 8) Yesterday he called on us on his way home.
- 9) He often called on us on his way home.
- 10) He will get up late to-morrow.
- 11) He will get up early in the summer.

Exercise 40.

Use the verbs in brackets in Present Continuous:

- 1) The clock in the next room (to strike)
- 2) Father and Mother (to get up)
- 3) My sister tea (to make)
- 4) They breakfast (to have)
- 5) My brother continually about his wife's health (to worry)
- 6) I my homework (to do)
- 7) Mother dinner (to cook) Grandmother in her (to help)
- 8) It dark (to get) the wind (to blow)
The sun not(to shine) It (to rain)
We home (to run)
- 9) Hallo! Where you ? – I to the library. youthere,
too?- no,
I to a friend of mine (to go)
- 10) You Always at the lessons (to talk)

Exercise 41.

Translate into Kazakh language:

- 1) He is writing a new play.
- 2) When I came in he didn't see me, as he was doing something.
- 3) It was raining hard yesterday when I left home.
- 4) At seven o'clock to-morrow I shall be approaching Kiev.
- 5) The train couldn't stop, as it was traveling too fast at that time
- 6) What will you be doing at ten o'clock to-morrow? – I shall be
working
in the garden.
- 7) He will be waiting for you in the park at ten o'clock.

Exercise 42.

Use the Present Indefinite, the Present Continuous or the Present Perfect instead of the infinitives in brackets:

1. Will you, please, lend me your pen for a moment? I (to leave) mine at home and now (to have) nothing to write with. – I (to be) sorry, but I (to be going) to write myself. Ann (not to write), she can give you her pen. 2. You (to read) "The Gadfly" by Voynich? – I (to read) it now, I (not to finish) it yet. It (to be) a very good book, I (to like) it very much. 3. We (to go) to the café "Cosmos" tonight. You ever (to be) there? 4. Where (to be) Ann? – She (to be) in the kitchen. – What she (to do) there? – She (to wash up). – I already (to help) my mother with the housework and (to come) to ask Ann to go to the cinema with me. 5. Don't forget we (to have) a party tomorrow, be sure to bring Bob with you if he (to come) back from St. Petersburg. 6. (to be) there anything the matter with you? You (to be) so pale. – Nothing the matter. I just (to finish) my work and I (to be) a little tired. 7. Who (to play) the piano? Mary still (to have) her music lesson? – No. The lesson (to be) over and the teacher already (to go). Mother (to play) for little Kitty. 8. Ring me up when you (to be) free. I (to have) something to discuss with you. 9. I (not to hear) the news yet. 10. Hurry up if you (to want) to go out with me. 11. She (to send) me a letter that she (to come) in a few days. 12. You (to understand) what they (to talk) about? 13. When she (to call) on us she always (to bring) some toys for my little daughter. 14. What you (to look) for? – I (to look) for my dictionary. I just (to see) it somewhere. I (to think) it (to lie) on the bookshelf.

Exercise 43.

Re-fashion the following sentences using Present Perfect with the adverbial modifiers in brackets:

- 1) He gets up at 7 a. m (just)
- 2) I usually fly to Kiev (never)
- 3) I watch TV programmers every day (recently)
- 4) I need lot of English books in the original (of late)
- 5) Kate reads historical novels with great interest (always)
- 6) He boys are finishing breakfast (not yet)
- 7) Does he read books on travel? (ever)
- 8) I look through the morning newspapers at breakfast (already)
- 9) Nick shows his films to his friends (three times)
- 10) I meet him on my way to the office (of-ten)

Exercise 44.

Translate into Kazakh language:

- 1) They have informed us of the time of the arrival of the vessel.
- 2) I have spoken to him about it several times.
- 3) Have you opened the window in my room?
- 4) I have opened the window in my room twice to-day.
- 5) After they had counted the cases, they sent them to the factory.
- 6) We had come to an agreement before they arrived.
- 7) He said that in the summer she had received letters from her every week.
- 8) They will have taken examinations by the first of July.
- 9) He had graduated from the University when the war began.
- 10) Come at four o'clock. The director will have signed all the documents by that time

Exercise 45.

Translate into Kazakh language:

- 1) He will ring you up when he comes back.
- 2) As soon as we receive your telegram, we shall send you the goods.
- 3) If he is sleeping when you come, wake him up.
- 4) While you are having dinner, I shall be reading the newspaper.
- 5) I shall go home after they have examined the goods.
- 6) I'll give you the book as soon as I have read it.
- 7) We shall start at five o'clock if it has stopped raining by then.
- 8) We shall send them the documents after we have shipped the goods.
- 9) I'll go home after I have finished my work.
- 10) The train will have left by the time you get to the station.

Exercise 46.

Translate into Kazakh language:

- 1) This look can't be found anywhere.
- 2) This material would be easily obtained.
- 3) These cases can't be put on deck.
- 4) His orders couldn't be fulfilled at once.
- 5) His story can be published in this magazine
- 6) These goods can be transported by sea.
- 7) What could be done with these things?
- 8) These cases can't be left in the open air.
- 9) This agreement can be signed now.
- 10) These vegetables can be grown in the north now.

Exercise 47.

Use **may** or **must** to fill spaces in the following sentences:

- 1) It rain, take your raincoat.
- 2) He be on the next train. Let's wait a little.
- 3) I see John tomorrow morning.
- 4) She be at the University. She is having her exam.
- 5) Our parents Be at the theatre now as it is 8 o'clock already.
- 6) Go to this lecture, you Learn something interesting.
- 7) I have got five lathery tickets. I rain something.
- 8) He be at home now. Let's ring him up.
- 9) Don't say it to him. He be offended.
- 10) You Be right, but I can't do it.

Exercise 48.

Put the "to" before infinitive:

- 1) He can speak German very well.
- 2) I am very glad see you.
- 3) She asked me ring him up and tell him about it.
- 4) This work must be done at once.
- 5) I am not sure that this work can be done in such a short time.
- 6) My son asked me let him go to the theatre.
- 7) Let me help you with your work.
- 8) I don't know what tell him.
- 9) We have come ask you about it.
- 10) I made him read this story.
- 11) I saw her leave the room.
- 12) I intend ring him up and Ask him about it.
- 13) You must make them Learn this rule.
- 14) Did you her ask the teacher about it?
- 15) We heard her come downstairs.

Exercise 49.

Sentences using the Gerund:

- 1) He bought a good knife for
- 2) I thanked him for
- 3) He went home instead of
- 4) I'll speak to her before
- 5) He left the room without
- 6) He went to the factory after

- 7) He had much difficulty in
- 8) I insist on
- 9) He bought some books instead of
- 10) After Her went to bed.

Exercise 50.

Make up sentences using the Gerund:

Example. He wrote some letters and then went out.

After writing some letters he went out.

1. She laid the table and then brought in the tea.
2. The boys lay on the beach and then had a swim.
3. We visited the museum and then went to a tea-shop.
3. He packed and then went to the airport.

Exercise 51.

Translate into English using the gerund:

1. Мен жақсы кітаптарды оқығанды өте жақсы көремін.
2. Ол сағатына қарай берді.
3. Қателікті болдырмауға тырысындар, жаттығуды ұқыпты орындаңдар.
4. Маған күлуді қойыңдар да, мені тыңдаңдар.
5. Қыздар ол жігітті байқамай, кино жөнінде сөйлесе берді.
6. Ол қызықты болып көрінді, мен оған күле де алмадым.
7. Бен Том жұмысына келді де, жолдастарына көңіл аудармастан жұмысын істей берді.
8. Полли апай Томның жұмысты тастап, көлге қарай кеткенін көрді.
9. Бұл пьесаны көруге болмайды, ол өте жалықтырады.
10. Бұл дәлелді ұмытпау керек, ол өте қажет.
11. Маған жақсылық жасап, ертең маған қоңырау шалып жібермейсіз бе?
12. Оның айтқанына менің күлкім келмеді.
13. Оған жай келген ұнамайды.
14. Ол айта берді, мен оны тыңдамадым.
15. Ол бізбен бірге жүр деп жалынды.

Exercise 52.

Change the following sentences using

a) Participle 1:

1. When he was walking up the street, he met a strange elderly man.
2. The officers who stood before him asked him to show them his things.

3. As he felt bad he decided to see a doctor.
4. The hostess came up to each guest and offered coffee.
5. The street, which runs east, is called Columbus Avenue.
6. As he had no sense of humor he couldn't enjoy the joke.

b) Participle 2:

1. The things, which are left behind by passengers, are taken to the Lost Property Office.
2. The audience, who were greatly impressed by the acting, repeatedly called the actors.
3. The new job, which has been offered to me, seems more interesting.
4. I could hardly recognize the street which was reconstructed while I was away.
5. The exploration work, which is carried on in this region, is of great importance for science.
6. Food which is served at this restaurant is usually very good.

Exercise 53.

Practice in using 1 or Participle 2.

Example 1. People who buy in shops are called customers.

People buying in shops are called customers.

Example 2. A person who is treated by a doctor is called a patient.

A person treated by a doctor is called a patient

1. A Person who forgets things is called an absentminded person.
2. A Person who checks tickets at the railway station is called a ticket collector.
3. A Person who sells things in a shop is called a shop assistant (a salesman).
4. A person who is consulted by people on legal matters is called a lawyer.
5. A Person who stages performances in the theatre is called a producer.
6. A person who consults a lawyer is called a client.
7. A Person who is invited to a party is called a guest.
8. A Person who is served in shop is called a customer.
9. A Person who is painted is called a model.

Exercise 54.

Translate into English using the Passive Infinitive.

1. Бұл хатты тезірек жіберу керек.
2. Бұл мақаланы тезірек аудармауға болады.
3. Бұл жауап тезірек табылу керек.
4. Қарандаш сынық екенін білем.
5. Оны да шақыруға болады.
6. Бұл ережені еске сақтау керек.

7. Гүлдерді терезенің қасындағы столға қою керек.
8. Мені сіздермен бірге жібергенді жақсы көремін.
9. Оған шындықты айту керек.
10. Бұл пьесаны балалар театрына қоюға болмайды.
11. Мен дұрыс түсінгендеріңізді сұраймын.
12. Олар бұл кітапты пайдалануға рұқсат беруді сұрайды.
13. Маған мағынасыз сұрақтарды бергенді ұнатпаймын.
14. Мұны тез түсінуге болады.
15. Мұны барлығына түсіндіруге болады.
16. Мен мұндай оқиғаларды біржола ұмытқым келеді.
17. Мұндай жазба жұмыстарын жарты сағатта аударуға болады.
18. Бұл кітапты сізге ертең жіберуге болады, егер керек болса.
19. Оның заттарын жоғарға апару керек.
20. Сізге аударманы бүгін жасауға болмайды. Оны ертең жасауға болады.

Exercise 55.

Practice in using the Passive Voice. Change the following statements into their passive equivalents.

Example 1. They know Tokyo is a huge city.

It is known that Tokyo is a huge city.

1. They believe doctors are always ready to help people who are ill.
2. Everyone expects the new discovery will bring positive results.
3. People say that New York was discovered by an Italian navigators.
4. They say that according to Russian tradition honored guests are welcomed with bread and salt.

Example 2. They offered me a cup of tea.

I was offered a cup of tea.

A cup of tea was offered to me.

1. They gave me a form to fill in.
2. They granted me a visa.
3. We'll offer him by all means.
4. He has just told us a very amusing story.

Exercise 56.

Put the following sentences into the Passive Voice:

- a) 1. They often invite me to their parties.
2. People speak English in different parts of the world.
3. One uses milk for making butter.
4. We form the Passive Voice with the help of the auxiliary verb "to be".
5. They build a lot of new houses in this district every year.

b) 1.They built this house in 1950. 2.Somebody locked the front door. 3.Someone broke my pen last night. 4.They punished the boy for that. 5. They finished their work in time.

c) 1. People will forget it very soon. 2. They will translate this book next year. 3. They will tell you when to come. 4. Where will they build a new library? 5. Someone will ask about it.

Exercise 57.

Put the following sentences into the Passive Voice.

Model: They laughed at him.

He was laughed at.

1. People speak much of him. 2. They will look after the children well. 3. People will laugh at you if say it. 4.They sent for the doctor immediately. 5. Everybody listened to her attentively. 6. They always wait for me after the lessons. 7. Nobody took notice of this little boy. 8. Everybody lost sight of the boat in the fog. 9.Why are they laughing at her? 10. I wonder whether they will listen to him. 11. Students often refer to these books. 12. Nobody has ever spoken to me in such a way. 13. If they send for you don't refuse to come. 14. They have not referred to that incident since then.

Exercise 58.

Translate into English paying attention to the Passive Voice.

1.Өткен жылы бізде жаңа пьеса қойылды.

2.Пьеса әуелі оқылып және талданды.

3.Оның барлығымызға ұнағаны соншама, бірнеше күндер бойы сол туралы айтылып жүрілді.

Рөлдерді ойнауды бөліп бергеннен кейін, жаттығу басталды. Бір күндері театрдың режиссеры, бізге келді. Ол бізге бірнеше құнды кеңестерін берді. Ақыр аяғында спектакль дайын болды. Пьесаны институттық кешенде қоюға шешім қабылдады. Мұндай жағдайда шақыру қағазын жібереді. Біздерде қаланың барлық оқу орындарына шақыру қағазын жібердік. Көптен күткен кешіміз болды. Зал түгелдей толық, барлық орындар бос болмады. Соңғы қоңырау соғылды. Спектакль басталды. Біздің пьессамызды көрушілеріміз қошеметпен қарсы алды. Барлық жақтан дауыс естілді: «Декорацияны кім ойып жасады, костюмдерді кім жасады?». Спектакль үлкен табысқа ие болды және осыдан кейін бірнеше рет қайтадан қойылды.

Conditional sentences

Exercise 59.

Translate into Kazakh language:

- 1) They would have reached the top of the mountain before dark if they had started earlier.
- 2) I should come and see you off if I didn't live so far away.
- 3) If we had no luggage, we should have walked home.
- 4) I should have met you if I had known of your arrival.
- 5) The man would have been killed if the train hadn't stopped quickly.
- 6) If you had asked me for money yesterday, I should have lent you some.
- 7) Everything will be all right if she is here to-morrow.
- 8) If the weather hadn't been so bad, the plane would have taken off at Ten o'clock
- 9) Of you had seen him, you wouldn't have recognized him.
- 10) If three machines or more were ordered the price would be reduced by 5 per cent.

Exercise 60.

Make up conditional sentences:

1. You did not ring me up, so I did not know you were in trouble. If
2. You left the child alone in the room, so he hurt himself. If
3. They spent a year in the tropics, so they got very sun-tanned. If
4. It rained heavily, so we got drenched to the skin. If
5. Why didn't you watch the cat? It ate all the fish. If
6. A huge black cloud appeared from behind the forest, so we had to turn back and hurry home. If
7. The travellers had no camera with them, so they could not take photos of the beautiful scenery. If
8. There was no sugar left, so we had to go to the shop late in the evening. If
9. This house is very nice and comfortable, but it is not very good for living because it is situated close to a chemical plant and the air around is very bad. If
10. He is an excellent specialist, but I cannot ask his advice because I am not acquainted with him. If
11. You cannot enjoy this merry evening party because you have a toothache. If

12. You know the material well enough, but you are very absent-minded and that's why you always make many mistakes. If
13. We shall not go to see them because it is very late. If
14. Naturally she was angry because you were in her way. If
15. He always gets top marks in mathematics because it is his favourite subject and he works a lot at it. If
16. I did not translate the article yesterday because I had no dictionary. If
17. We lost our way because the night was pitch-dark. If
18. The box was so heavy that I could not carry it. That's why I took a taxi. If
19. I had a bad headache yesterday, that's why I did not come to see you. If
20. The ship was sailing near the coast, that's why it struck a rock. If
21. He was not in town, therefore he was not present at our meeting. If
22. The pavement was so slippery that I fell and hurt my leg. If
23. They made a fire, and the frightened wolves ran away. If
24. It is late, and I have to go home. If
25. I was expecting my friend to come, that's why I could not go to the cinema with you. If
26. The sea is rough, and we cannot sail to the island. If

Exercise 61.

Make up conditional sentences:

1. I should be delighted if I (to have) such a beautiful furcoat.
2. If I (to rain), we shall have to stay at home.
3. If he (to work) hard, he would have achieved great progress.
4. If it is not too cold, I (not to put) on my coat.
5. I (to write) the composition long ago if you had not disturbed me.
6. If he (not to read) so much, he would not be so clever.
7. If my friend (to be) at home, he will tell us what to do.
8. If he were not such an outstanding actor, he (not to have) so many admirers.
9. If you (to give) me your address, I shall write you a letter.
10. If she (not to be) so absent-minded, she would be a much better student.
11. If my sister does not go to the south, we (to spend) the summer in St. Petersburg together.
12. If they (not to go) to Moscow last year, they would not have heard that famous

musician.

13. If you (not to get) tickets for the Philharmonic, we shall stay at home.

14. If you were not so careless about your health, you (to consult) the doctor.

Exercise 62.

Make up conditional sentences:

1. If she (to ask) me yesterday, I should certainly have told her all about it.
2. If you (to do) your morning exercises every day, your health would be much better.
3. If he is not very busy, he (to agree) to go to the museum with us.
4. If I (not to be) present at the lesson, I should not have understood this difficult rule.
5. If he reads fifty pages every day, his vocabulary (to increase) greatly.
6. If they (to know) it before, they would have taken measures.
7. If I (to get) this book, I shall be happy.
8. If you really loved music, you (to go) to the Philharmonic much more often.
9. If you had not wasted so much time, you (not to miss) the train.
10. If you (not to miss) the train you would have arrived in time.
11. You (not to miss) the teacher's explanation if you had arrived in time.
12. You would have understood the rule if you (not to miss) the teacher's explanation.
13. If you (to understand) the rule, you would have written the test-paper successfully.
14. If you had written the test-paper successfully you (not to get) a "two".
15. Your mother (not to scold) you if you had not got a "two".
16. If your mother (not to scold) you, you would have felt happier.

Exercise 63.

Make up conditional sentences:

1. If it (to snow), the children will play snowballs.
2. If I (not to know) English, I should not be able to enjoy Byron's poetry.
3. I (not to do) it if you did not ask me.
4. If men (to have) no weapons, would wars be possible?
5. You will never finish your work if you (to waste) your time like that.
6. If I (to have) his telephone number, I should easily settle this matter with him.
7. If I (to have) this rare book, I should gladly lend it to you.
8. The dish would have been much more tasty if she (to be) a better cook.

9. He never (to phone) you if I hadn't reminded him to do it.
10. Your brother (to become) much stronger if he took cold batho regularly.
11. If he (to be)more courageous , he would not be afraid.
12. If the fisherman had been less patient, he (not to catch) so much fish.
13. If you (to put) the ice- cream into the refrigerator, it would not have melted.
14. If I (to know) the result now, I would phone her immediately.
15. If you had let me know yesterday, I (to bring) you my book.

Exercise64.

Make up conditional sentences:

1. If you (to ring) me up, I shall tell you a secret.
2. If you (to be) a poet, you would wriye beautiful poetry.
3. If he did not read so much, he (not to know) English literature so well.
4. If he (to come to our hose yesterday, he would have met his friend.
5. If he (not to pass) his examination, he will not get a scholarship.
6. If she (not to help) me, I should have been in a very difficult situation.
7. My father would have more free time if he (not to read) so many newspapers.
8. If only you had let me know, I (to go there immediately).
9. If I were a famous singer, I (to get) a lot of floers every day.
10. If you (not to buy) coffee, we shall drink tea.
11. If he is free tomorrow, he certainly (to come) to our party.
12. My brother would not have missed so many lesson if he (not to hurt) his leg.
13. If my friend (to work) in my office, we should meet every day.
14. If you spoke English every day, you (to improve) your language skills.
15. If you get a "five", your mother (to be) happy.
16. If she (to return) earlier, she would have been able to see him before he left.
17. If these shoes were not too big for me, I (to buy) them.

Exercise65.

Make up conditional sentences:

1. I should be very glad if he (to come) to my place.
2. If he (to live) in St.Petersburg, he would go to the Hermitage every week.
3. If you (to go) to the theatre with us last week, you would have enjoyed

the evening.

4. You won't understand the rule if you (not to listen) to the teacher.
5. If he weren't such a book-worm, he (not to spend) so much time sitting in the library.
6. I should not have bought the car if my friend (not to lend) me money.
7. If he did not live in St. Petersburg, we (not to meet) so often.
8. If he had warned me, I (to do) the work in time.
9. If my brother (to be) in trouble, I shall help him of course.
10. If I don't manage to finish my report today, I (to stay) at home tomorrow.
11. If she were more careful about her diet, she (not to be) so stout.
12. You would not feel so bad if you (not to smoke) too much.
13. If he (to learn) the poem, he would not have got a bad mark.
14. If you gave me your dictionary for a couple of days, I (to translate) this text.
15. If I (to be) a musician, I should be very happy.
16. If Barbara (to get) up at half past eight, she would have been late for school.
17. If you had not put the cup on the edge of the table, it (not to get) broken.

Exercise 66.

Make up conditional sentences:

1. You did not ring me up, so I did not know you were in trouble. If
2. You left the child alone in the room, so he hurt himself. If
3. They spent a year in the tropics, so they got very sun-tanned. If
4. It rained heavily, so we got drenched to the skin. If
5. Why didn't you watch the cat? It ate all the fish. If
6. A huge black cloud appeared from behind the forest, so we had to turn back and hurry home. If
7. The travellers had no camera with them, so they could not take photos of the beautiful scenery. If
8. There was no sugar left, so we had to go to the shop late in the evening. If
9. This house is very nice and comfortable, but it is not very good for living because it is situated close to a chemical plant and the air around is very bad. If
10. He is an excellent specialist, but I cannot ask his advice because I am not acquainted with him. If

11. You cannot enjoy this merry evening party because you have a toothache. If ...
12. You know the material well enough, but you are very absent-minded and that's why you always make many mistakes. If
13. We shall not go to see them because it is very late. If
14. Naturally she was angry because you were in her way. If
15. He always gets top marks in mathematics because it is his favourite subject and he works a lot at it. If
16. I did not translate the article yesterday because I had no dictionary. If
17. We lost our way because the night was pitch-dark. If
18. The box was so heavy that I could not carry it. That's why I took a taxi. If
19. I had a bad headache yesterday, that's why I did not come to see you. If
20. The ship was sailing near the coast, that's why it struck a rock. If
21. He was not in town, therefore he was not present at our meeting. If
22. The pavement was so slippery that I fell and hurt my leg. If
23. They made a fire, and the frightened wolves ran away. If
24. It is late, and I have to go home. If
25. I was expecting my friend to come, that's why I could not go to the cinema with you. If
26. The sea rough, and we cannot sail to the island. If

UNIT 1

Read the text

COMPUTER SCIENCE

1. Computer science is a part of an applied mathematics. Specialists in computer science say that this field of knowledge is very interesting because it deals with computer-aided-design (CAD) and computer-aided-manufacturing (CAM).
2. Computers are intended to improve the productivity of labor of scientists, designers, engineers, managers, and other specialists, because computers offer quick and optimal solutions. One of the main goals of using CAD/CAM is to shorten the time between designing and manufacturing.
3. Moreover, computers came in our life and to our houses and now we can solve our everyday problems with their help.
4. Computers can be divided into simple and complex devices. Simple computers such as calculators can perform addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. As far as complex computers are concerned they can do different logical operations and some of them even have artificial intelligence.
5. Thus in order to elaborate up-to-date and inexpensive programs as well as to defend them from viruses, it is important to know some programming languages.
6. There are low- level programming languages such as a machine language and an assembly language and an high-level programming languages, for instance, FORTRAN, PASCAL, ADA, C, BASIC, etc

1. Translate these paragraph number 2, 4 and 5 into English

2. Answer the questions from the text:

1. What do specialists in computer science deal with?
2. What are the computers used for?
3. What operations can simple devices perform?
4. What operations do complex computers perform?
5. What are CAD/CAM systems intended to do?
6. What high-level programming languages do you know?

3. Finish these sentences:

1. Experts in computer science deal with....
- a) manufacturing cars;
 - b) computer-aided-design;
 - c) increasing the productivities of car.
2. One of the aims of using computers is
- a) to work out up-to-date demands;
 - b) to shorten the time between designing and manufacturing;
 - c) To construct hardware.
3. Simple devices can do....
4. Complex computers perform....
- a) logical operations;
 - b) such operations as addition, subtraction, Multiplication and division.
5. High-level programming languages are
- a) BASIC, FORTRAN;
 - d) Assembly and machine languages.

UNIT 2

Read the text

1. Computer can perform many functions: they can do mathematical and logical operations, mathematical operations including arithmetic and algebraic operations, such as addition, multiplication and division, rising to a power, differentiating and integrating. Logical operations include comparing, selecting, sorting and matching.
2. Computers are divided into four main classes: microcomputers, minicomputers, mainframes and supercomputers.
3. A minicomputer is a computer manufactured on a single printed board which contains one or more chips. Most microcomputers are personal computers. At present personal computers have become so powerful that they are used as CAD/CAM systems.
4. A microprocessor is very small device used in microcomputers, which deals with memories by reading and writing process. Microprocessor can obtain from memory and execute a limited set of instructions in order to

perform addition or subtraction on a binary word and to input or output binary data.

5. Memory is a device for storing digital information. Memory should be small in size and large in capacity. It should take little power and work at the same speed as computer logic. There are many types of memories. All microcomputers use Random Access Memory (RAM) and Read Only Memory (ROM).

6. RAM is called so because information can be put into or out of any single byte of memory. ROM is permanent memory for program storage.

7. People know many types of units, hard disks and floppy disks being widely used. Floppy disks (flexible plastic disks) are used in personal computers.

1. Translate these paragraph number 1, 3, 4 and 6 into English

2. Finish these sentences:

1. A microcomputer is

a) a computer which can perform addition or subtraction on a binary word;

b) a computer manufactured on a single printed board which contains one or more chips;

c) a very small device that can obtain from memory and execute a limited set of instructions.

2. A microprocessors is

a) a device which can perform logical operations;

b) a computer manufactured on a single printed board which contains one or more chips;

c) a device which can obtain from memory a limited set of instructions in order to perform addition or subtraction.

3. RAM is

a) memory for a limited set of instructions;

b) permanent memory for program storage;

4. ROM is

c) Memory when information can be put into or out of any single byte of memory.

a) memory for a limited set of instructions;

b) permanent memory for program storage;

c) Random access memory.

UNIT 3

Read the text

PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES

1. Computers can deal with different kinds of problems but they must be given the right instructions. Instructions are written in one of the high-level languages, for example, FORTRAN, COBOL, ALGOL, PASCAL, BASIC, or C. But a program written in one of these languages should be interpreted into machine code. Usually when one instruction written in a high-level language is transformed into machine code, it results in several instructions. Brief descriptions of some high-level languages are given below.

2. FORTRAN is acronym for Formula Translation. This language is used for solving scientific and mathematical problems. It consists of algebraic formula and English phrases.

3. COBOL is acronym for COMmon Business-Oriented Languages. This language is used for commercial purposes. COBOL deals with the problems that do not involve a lot of mathematical calculations.

4. ALGOL is acronym for Algorithmic Language. It is used for mathematical and scientific purposes.

5. Basic is acronym for Beginner's All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code. It is used by students who require a simple language to begin programming.

6. C is developed to support the UNIX operating system. C is a general-purpose language.

7. When a program is designed to do a specific type of work it is called an application program.

1. Translate these paragraph number 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 into English

2. Finish these sentences:

1. FORTRAN is a high-level language which is used for....
 - a) supporting UNIX operating system;
 - b) commercial purposes;
 - c) Solving scientific and mathematical problems.
2. ALGOL is a high-level language which is intended to....
 - a) be used for commercial purposes;
 - b) solve mathematical and scientific problems;
 - c) Be used by students who require a simple language to begin programming.
3. COBOL is a high-level language which is designed....
 - a) to solve scientific and mathematical problems;
 - b) to be used for commercial purposes;
 - c) To support the UNIX operating system.
4. BASIC is a high-level language which is used....
 - a) for solving scientific problems;
 - b) for commercial purposes;
 - c) By students who require a simple language to begin programming.
5. C is a high-level language which is developed....
 - a) to support the UNIX operating system;
 - b) to deal with mathematical problems;
 - c) For commercial purposes.

UNIT 4

How the First Computer Was Developed.

The first suggestion that a machine for mathematical computation could be built was made more than a hundred years ago by the mathematician Charles Babbage. We now realize that he understood clearly all the fundamental principles of modern computers.

Babbage was born in Devonshire, England, 1792. He did not receive a good education, but he taught himself mathematics so well that when he went to Cambridge, he found that he knew more algebra than his tutor.

At that time mathematics in Cambridge was still under the influence of Newton and was quite unaffected by the contemporary developments on the continent.

Charles Babbage was outstanding among his contemporaries because he insisted on the practical application of science and mathematics. For example, he wrote widely on the economic advantages of mass production and on the development of machine tools.

In 1812 he was sitting in his room looking at a table of logarithms which he knew to be full of mistakes, when an idea occurred to computing all tabular functions by machinery. Babbage constructed a small working model which he demonstrated in 1822.

The Royal Society supported the project and Babbage was promised a subsidy.

In 1833 he began to think of building a machine which was in fact the first universal digital computer, as the expression is understood today.

Babbage devoted the rest of his life to an attempt to develop it. He had to finance all of the work himself and he was only able to finish part of the machine though he prepared thousands of detailed drawings from which it could be made.

Babbage wrote more than 80 books and papers, but he was misunderstood by his contemporaries and died a disappointed man in 1871.

He tried to solve by himself and with his own resources a series of problems which in the end required the united efforts of two generations of engineers.

After his death his son continued his work and built part of an arithmetic unit, which printed out its results directly on paper.

UNIT 5

Economics and Economy

Every group of people must solve three basic problems of daily living: *What* goods and services to produce, *how* to produce these goods and services, and *for whom* to produce these goods and services.

Economics is the study of how society decides what, how, and for whom to produce.

By goods we mean physical commodities such as steel, cars, and strawberries.

By services we mean activities such as massages or live theatre

performances

which can be consumed or enjoyed only at the instant they are produced. In exceptional circumstances, society may find that some of the questions about

what, how, and for whom to produce have already been answered; until the arrival of Man Friday, Robinson Crusoe need not worry about the "for whom" question. In general, however, society must answer all three questions.

By emphasizing the role of society, the definition places economics within the social sciences, the sciences that study and explain human behavior. The subject matter of economics is that part of human behavior which relates to the production, exchange, and use of goods and services. The central economic problem for society is how to reconcile the conflict between people's virtually limitless desires for goods and services, and the scarcity of resources (labor, machinery, and raw materials) with which these goods and services can be produced. In answering the questions what, how, and for whom to produce, economics explains how scarce resources are allocated between competing claims on their use.

Economics is about human behavior. Economists analyze problems, not the subject matter of economics. Economists aim to develop theories of human behavior and to test them against the facts.

Exercises:

Inset the missing words.

1. By emphasizing the role of society, the definition places within the social sciences that study and explain human behavior.
2. The central problems for society is how to reconcile the conflict between people's virtually limitless desires for goods and services.
3. analyze problems, not the subject matter of
4. The main feature of the nation's is the consolidation of capital at an unprecedented level, with profits going up, wages going down and inflation accelerating.
5. The administration of our academy should be With the money we earn.
6. You should on cash balances.
7. We have to live

8. aim to develop theories of human behavior and to test them against the facts.

I. Put the prepositions: within, of, to, in, for.

1. Every group people must solve three basic problems of daily living.
2. By emphasizing the role of society, the definition places economics the social sciences.
3. The subject matter of economics is that part of human behavior which relates the production, exchange and use of goods and services.
4. exceptional circumstances society may find that some of the questions about what, how and for whom to produce have already been answered.
5. The central economic problems Society is how to reconcile the conflict between people's virtually limitless desires for goods and services.

II. Make up seven English sentences.

Economy, economic, economical, economically, economist, to economize,
economics.

III. Retell the text.

IV. Translate the sentence into Russians.

1. Considerable part of business circles insists on discrimination rules in trade being abolished.
2. They promised not to undertake any actions without consulting their partners.
3. We have been trading with the firm for a very long time.
4. After learning that the company has sold his invention without speaking to him, the scientist was shocked.
5. Having arrived two days before the opening of the conference I had enough time to go sight-seeing.
6. Having got the necessary information the delegation left the bank.
7. They spent last Friday listening to the Minister telling the trade union leaders that it is right for workers to hold back on wage claims.

8. The main feature of the nation's economy is the consolidation of capital at an unprecedented level, with profits going up, wages going down and inflation accelerating.
9. The article published in the yesterday's issue of "Financial Times" pays particular attention to the measures aimed at further increasing the interest rates.

UNIT 6

Read the text

The Open Market

In addition to being a means of exchange, money is also means of measuring the value of men's Labor, in economic theory, is any work undertaken in return for a fixed payment. A mother may work very hard in caring for her children, but she receive no fixed wages for this work. It is not therefore labor in the strict economic sense. Economists are interested in measuring the services which people render to each other. Although aware of the services which people provide for nothing, they are not concerned with such services. In economics, money is the standard by which the value of things is judged. This is an objective, scientific standard and not in any way related to standards of a religious, ethical or subjective nature.

Human labor producers both goods and services. The activities of a farm worker and a nurse are very different, but each is measurable in terms of payment received. If however a farmer is self-employed and does not receive a fixed wage from anyone else, he is in a different category from the nurse and from his own farm workers. His activities are not wholly labor. His workers receive their wages, but he receives whatever surplus (large or small) emerges from his farming. This surplus, like any surplus in industry or commerce, is what we usually call profit.

Employers obtain their net profits only after they have paid all expenses arising out of their business activities: interest, rentals, payments for machinery, wages and overheads generally. The surplus is not usually available for employs and their families. Normally part of it goes to those who have provided the initial capital needed to start a business. There is always an element of risk in providing capital for new businesses. Such businesses may fail. Both those who provide the capital and those who run the businesses agree to bear the risk, but employs of such businesses are not expected to bear any risk. If the business is

Successful, the risk-taking has been justified, and invested capital earns part of the profits as a return on the investment and period during which the capital was at risk.

Capital in this instance is simply the accumulation of previous surpluses on previous business activities. In this way the past is used to finance the future. The accumulation of capital is almost always deliberate, either on the part of Individual citizens or on the part of the state. Even in non-capitalistic societies a certain part of the surplus achieved in any enterprise is ploughed back into the system in order to promote further growth.

When capital, labor and enterprise combine to make a new business successful, the business must still continue to compete on the market with other companies producing the same type of commodity. The term market, used by economists, is a logical extension from the idea of place set aside for buying and selling. Formerly, part of a town was kept as a marketplace, and country people would come in on market-days to buy and sell. Market today need not however be located in any fixed place: the sugar market and the cotton market are not geographical locations, but simply sets of conditions which permit buyers and sellers to work together.

In a free market, competition takes place among sellers in order to sell their commodities at the best possible price and among buyers in order to obtain what they want at a price which suits them. Such competition influence prices. Changers in supply and demand have their effects, and it is not surprising that considerable fluctuations in price can take place over periods of weeks and months.

Since these modern markets are not normally located in any special place, buyers and sellers do not always have to meet face-to-face. They may communicate by letter, by cable, by telephone or through their agents. In a perfect market, such communications are easy, buyers and sellers are numerous, and competition is completely free. In a perfect market there can be only one price for any given commodity: the lowest price which sellers will accept. There are, however, no really perfect markets, because each market is subjected to its own peculiar conditions. It can be said, however, that the price ruling in a market indicates the point where supply and demand meet.

Monopoly is one of the peculiar which can affect the sale and purchase of certain commodities. In some markets, there may be only one seller or a cartel of seller working very closely together to control prices. The result of such monopolistic activity is to fix prices at a level suitable to the seller, a level which may bring him artificially high profits. Many governments dislike this procedure and have taken legal action to restrict or halt any

business activities directed towards cornering the market. In the U.S anti-trust laws operate to limit cartels and mergers, while in Britain the Monopolies Commission examines all special arrangements and mergers referred to them by the Board of Trade which appear to operate against the public interest.

This type of monopoly is not the only possibility, however. There are three other forms: state, legal and natural. State monopolies are quite common nowadays, where the authorities in a particular country control industries like steel and transport or important and prestigious services like national airlines. Legal monopolies are different, because the law permits certain individuals to benefit from their special inventions, discoveries or processes. No person may infringe their rights in respect to such monopolies. Finally, natural monopoly arises where a nation or individual possesses most of a particular mineral for reasons of geography and geology. Canadian nickel and South African gold are two well-known examples of this kind of monopoly.

Exercises

1. Answer the questions:

1. What word in paragraph 1 suggests that labor should be understood in a exact sense, related to economics?
2. Which word can be taken as the opposite of objective?
3. What word in paragraph 2 indicates that a man is working only for himself?
4. What word in paragraph 3 means regular payments for accommodation and equipment?
5. What word in the same part of paragraph 3 means regular expenses?
6. What verb is used in paragraph 3 to show that a business risk has been worthwhile?
7. What phrase in the fourth paragraph is taken to suggest that a surplus return to the system from which it came, order to make business grow faster?
8. What word in paragraph 5 represents a set of conditions and not a geographical location?
9. What noun is used between lines 56-66 to refer to middlemen or special representatives doing work for a businessman?
10. What word in the same section indicates that market competition should be completely free?
11. What verb in the same paragraph can be replaced by prevailing or operating?

12. What word in the next to last paragraph refers to a very limited group of sellers working together to restrict trading opportunities?
13. What adverb in the same paragraph suggests that monopolistic profits may be kept high by unnatural means?
14. What adjective in the last paragraph shows that such services as national airlines have great social value?

2. Which of the following is true:

1. The money standard used by economics is essentially an ethical standard.
2. Employees enjoy the surplus in industry that we usually call profits.
3. The future is often financed by the past.
4. Although the accumulation of capital is generally considered a strictly capitalistic activity, it also takes place in communist economies.
5. Although the term "market" originally referred to a fixed locality, today it need not do so.
6. The four types of monopoly are not possible in a perfect market.

3. Retell the text.

UNIT 7

MONEY AND BANKING

All values in the economic system are measured in terms of money. Our goods and services are sold for money, and that money is in turn exchanged for other goods and services. Coins are adequate for small transactions, while paper notes are used for general business. There is additionally a wider sense of the word "money" covering anything which is used as a means of exchange, whatever form it may take. Originally, a valuable metal (gold, silver or copper) served as a constant store of value, and even today the American dollar is technically "backed" by the store of gold which the US government maintains because gold has been universally regarded as a very valuable metal, national currencies were for many years judged in terms of the so-called "gold standard". Nowadays however national currencies are considered to be as strong as the national economies which support them.

Valuable metal has generally been replaced by paper notes. These notes are issued by governments and authorized banks, and are known as "legal tender". Other arrangements such as cheques and money orders are not legal tender. They perform the function of money substitute and are known as "instruments of credit". Credit is offered only when creditors believe that they have a good chance of obtaining legal tender when they present such instruments at a bank or other authorized institution. If a man's assets are known to be considerable, then his credit will be good. If his assets are in doubt, then it may be difficult for him to obtain larger sums of credit or even to pay for goods with a cheque.

The value of money is basically its value as a medium of exchange, or, as economists put it, its "purchasing power". This purchasing power is dependant on supply and demand. The demand for money is reckonable as the quantity needed to effect business transactions. An increase in business requires an increase in the amount of money coming into general circulation. But the demand for money is related not only to the quantity of business but also to the rapidity which the business is done. The supply of money, on the other hand, is the actual amount in notes and coins available for business purposes. If too much money is available, its value decreases, and it does not buy as much as it did, say, five years earlier. This condition is known as "inflation".

Banks are closely concerned with the flow of money into and out of the economy. They often co-operate with governments in efforts to stabilize economies and to prevent inflation. They are specialists in the business of providing capital, and in allocating funds on credit. Banks originated as places to which people took their valuables for safe-keeping, but today the great banks of the world have many functions in addition to acting as guardians of valuable private possessions.

Banks normally receive money from their customers in two distinct forms: on current account, and on deposit account. With a current account, a customer can issue personal cheques. No interest is paid by the bank on this type of account. With a deposit account however, the customer undertakes to leave his money in the bank for a minimum specified period of time. Interest is paid on this money.

The bank in turn lends the deposited money to customers who need capital. This activity earns interest for the bank, and this interest is almost always at a higher rate than any interest which the bank pays to its depositors. In this way the bank makes its main profits.

We can say that the primary function of a bank today is to act as an intermediary between depositors who wish to make interest on their

savings, and borrowers who wish to obtain capital. The bank is a reservoir of loan able money, with streams of money flowing in and out. For this reason, economists and financiers often talk of money being “liquid”, or of the “liquidity” of money. Many small sums which might not otherwise be used as capital are rendered useful simply because the bank acts as a reservoir.

The system of banking rests upon a basis of trust. Innumerable acts of trust build up the system of which bankers, depositors and borrowers are part. They all agree to behave in certain predictable ways in relation to each other, and in relation to the rapid fluctuations of credit and debit. Consequently, business can be done and cheques can be written without only legal tender visibly changing hands

Exercises

1. Answer the questions:

1. How are all values in the economic system measured?
2. What kind of money is used for general business?
3. What is the wider sense of the word “money”?
4. What originally served as a store of value?
5. What backs the US dollar?
6. How are national currencies judged nowadays?
7. Who can issue paper notes?
8. What name is given to arrangements like cheques?
9. When is credit offered?
10. When is a man’s credit good?
11. What phrase do economists use for the value of money?
12. How do we reckon the demand for money?
13. What word is used to describe the flow of money round the economic system?
14. What is inflation?
15. In what way do banks co-operate with governments?

2. Which of the following is true?

1. The US dollar is constant store of value.
2. Instruments of credit are accepted because they can be converted easily into substitute money.
3. The purchasing power of money depends upon supply and demand.
4. The demand for money who need capital.

5. You can earn interest on a current account.
6. Banks lend money to depositors who need capital.
7. The main profits of a bank come from lending money at a fixed rate of interest.
8. Money is described as "liquid" because it is compared to flowing water.
9. Legal tender must change hands when we do business and we must see it change hands.

UNIT 8

World Bank

The World Bank is the world's foremost intergovernmental organization concerned with the external financing of the economic growth of developing countries. The official title of the institution is the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD). Before recommending a Bank loan, the staff of the Bank must be reasonably satisfied that the productivity of the borrowing country will be increased and that the prospects for repayment are good. A country must be judged creditworthy. Engineering investigations are frequently carried out to determine the probable relation of a proposed project to benefits and costs. Increasingly, however, the Bank has shifted somewhat away from project lending (e.g., for a dam or a highway or a port); it has become concerned with education and other human services, the environment, and, through structural adjustment loans, the modification of governmental policies that are thought to have impeded long-run growth. The Bank has also paid increasing attention to the evaluation of previous lending. Recently, moreover, it has acceded to the requests of the American secretary of the treasury to help to ease the huge, outstanding, largely commercial-bank debt.

Voting power in the Bank (as well as in the Fund), is determined by the size of each member nation's subscription. Subscriptions, in turn are based on a formula that takes into account such variables as the value of each nation's foreign trade and its total output. Ultimate power, through weighted voting, rests with the Board of Governors of the Bank (and the Fund). The governors meet annually in September. The day-to-day affairs of the Bank are determined, however, by executive directors who live permanently in Washington, D.C. They hire a president, who, in turn, hires a staff. By

tradition, rather than law, the president of the Bank is an American, usually a banker, proposed by the President of the United States.

Because of the size of their subscriptions, five nations—the United States, Japan, Germany, the United Kingdom, and France—are entitled to appoint executive directors; the remaining seventeen directors are elected by some combination of the votes of the other nations. There are 156 member nations, but, with the independence of the Baltic states and the devolution of the Soviet Union into separate republics, the membership could increase to over 170, thereby including all the independent nations in the world.

The Soviet Union was one of the forty-four governments whose representatives signed the original Bretton Woods agreements, but along with the other members of the Warsaw Pact, it chose not to join the Bank or the Fund when these organizations were formally incorporated in 1946. (Poland and Czechoslovakia joined the Bank and the Fund initially but withdrew when the cold war began in earnest and a loan to Poland was blocked by the United States.)

World Bank Group

In 1954, an International Finance Corporation was established to supplement the World Bank by participating in joint financing in member countries, and in 1960, a third organization, the International Development Association (IDA), was created. These three organizations constitute the World Bank Group. The IDA has the same officers and staff as the World Bank, but its separate charter enables it to offer loans to low-income member countries repayable at 0.75 percent interest over 50 years (including 10 years' grace).

Soft or concessionary assistance is made possible by contributions to (replenishments of) the IDA by the governments of high-income (industrial) countries. The management of the World Bank Group is thus enabled to offer rates of interest and loan maturities which take into account the nature of the projects financed and the presumed ability of borrowing governments to service their debt. The initial capitalization of IDA for the 5 years 1960 to 1964 was less than \$1 billion in hard currencies. By 1992, the ninth replenishment for 3 years will be over \$11 billion. Today, the World Bank Group is a far cry from what it was when the World Bank began in 1946 under President Eugene Meyer—with three floors of rented office space at 1818 H Street NW and a few dozen employees. Even in the final days of the presidency of George Woods, in 1968, the group had fewer than 1500 employees and four buildings. As of

August 31, 1991, however, on the eve of the accession to the presidency of Lewis Preston, former chairman of the board of J- P. Morgan & Co., the World Bank Group had 3 senior vice presidents, 14 vice presidents, and 6500 employees scattered

through 18 separate buildings in" Washington, D.C.; 2 large offices in Paris and Tokyo; and 50 regional offices. The World Bank Group has had a significant positive effect on the flow of capital to the poorer countries of the world, both directly and indirectly, and knowledge of Third World problems has increased enormously. Still, the record of growth is spotty. In much of East Asia, per capita income is rising rapidly, but in Africa south of the Sahara, in South Asia, and in much of Latin America, the growth of per capita income has been discouragingly slow.

1) Ответьте на вопросы.

1.What is the World Bank?

2.What is the procedure of getting a loan from the World Bank?

3.What are the latest trends in the policy of the World bank?

4.How is the voting power determined?

5.What are the largest subscribers of the World Bank?

UNIT 9

The Role of the Market

Markets bring together buyers and sellers of goods and services. In some cases, such as a local fruit stall, buyers and sellers meet physically. In other cases, such as the stock market, business can be transacted over the telephone, almost by remote control. We need not go into these details. Instead, we use a general definition of markets.

A market is a shorthand expression for the process by which households' decisions about consumption of alternative goods, firms' decisions about what and how to produce, and workers' decisions about how much and for whom to work are all reconciled by adjustment of prices.

Prices of goods, and of resources, such as labor, machinery and land, adjust to ensure that scarce resources are used to produce these goods and services that society demands.

Much of economics is devoted to the study how markets and prices enable society to solve the problems of what, how, and for whom to

produce. Suppose you buy a hamburger for your lunch. What does this have to do with markets and prices? You chose the café because it was fast, convenient and cheap. Given your desire to eat, and your limited resources, the low hamburger price told you that this was a good way to satisfy your appetite. You probably prefer steak but that is more expensive. The price of steak is high enough to ensure that society answers the “for whom” question about lunchtime steaks in favor of someone else.

Now think about the seller’s viewpoint. The café owner is in the business because, given the price of hamburger meat, the rent and the wages that must be paid, it is still possible to sell hamburgers at a profit. If rents were higher, it might be more profitable to sell hamburgers in a cheaper area or to switch to luxury lunches for rich executives on expense accounts. The student behind the counter is working there because it is a suitable part-time job which pays a bit of money. If the wage were much lower it would hardly be worth working at all. Conversely, the job is unskilled and there are plenty of students looking for such work, so owner of cafes do not have to offer very high wages.

Prices are guiding your decision to buy a hamburger, the owner’s decision to sell hamburgers, and the student’s decision to take the job. Society is allocating resources- meat, building, and labor- into hamburger production through the price system. If nobody liked hamburgers, the owner could not sell enough at a price that covered the cost of running the café and society would devote no resources to hamburger production. People’s desire to eat hamburgers guides resources into hamburger production. However, if cattle contracted a disease, thereby reducing the economy’s ability to produce meat products, competition to purchase more scarce supplies of beef would bid up the price of beef, hamburger producers would be forced to raise prices, and consumers would buy more cheese sandwiches for lunch. Adjustments in prices would encourage society to reallocate resources to reflect the increased scarcity of cattle.

Unit 10

Macroeconomics and microeconomics

Text A What is Macroeconomics.

The world macroeconomics means economics in the large. The macroeconomist’s concerns are with such global questions as total production, total employment, the rate of change of overall prices, the rate

of economic growth, and so on. The question asked by the macroeconomist are in terms of broad aggregates – what the spending of all consumers as opposed to the microeconomic question of how the spending decisions of individual households are made; determines the capital spending of all firms combined as opposed to the decision to build anew factory by a single firm; what determines total unemployment in the economy as opposed to why there have been layoffs in a specific industry.

Macroeconomists measure overall economic activity; analyze the determinants of such activity by the use of macroeconomic theory; forecast future economic activity; and attempt to formulate policy responses designed to reconcile forecasts with target values of production, employment, and prices.

An important task of macroeconomics is to develop ways of aggregating the values of the economic activities of individuals and firms into meaningful totals. To this end such concepts as gross domestic product (GDP), national income, personal income, and personal disposable income have been developed.

Macroeconomic analysis attempts to explain how the magnitudes of the principal macroeconomic variables are determined and how they interact. And through the development of theories of the business cycle and economic growth, macroeconomics helps to explain the dynamics of how these aggregates move over time.

Macroeconomics is concerned with such major policy issues as the attainment and maintenance of full employment and price stability. Considerable effort must first be expended to determine what goals could be achieved. Experience teaches that it would not be possible to have inflation entirely without inducing recession combined with high unemployment. Similarly, an overambitious employment target would produce labor shortages and wage inflation. During the 1960s it was believed that unemployment could be reduced to 4 percent of the labor force without causing inflation. More recent experience suggests that reduction of unemployment to 5.5 percent of the labor force is about as well as we can do.

Exercises 1

General understanding

1. What does the world macroeconomics mean?
2. What are the concerns of the macroeconomist?
3. What is the difference between the questions asked by macroeconomists and microeconomic?

4. What is, according to the text, the important task of macroeconomist?
5. What does macroeconomic analysis attempt to explain?
6. What are the concepts of macroeconomist?
7. What are the most important theories of macroeconomics?
8. What is said about the correlation between the inflation and unemployment?

Exercises 2

Translate into Russian:

- a) The question asked by the macroeconomist are in terms of broad aggregates
- b) What determines the capital spending of all firms combined as opposed to the decision to build a new factory by single firm?
- c) Macroeconomists measure overall economic activity by the use of macroeconomic theory
- d) Macroeconomic analysis attempts to explain how the magnitudes of the principal macroeconomic variables re determined.
- e) Considerable effort must first be expended to determine are determined.
- f) More resent experience suggest the reduction of unemployment to 5.5 percent of the labor force.
- g) Experience teaches that it would not be possible to eliminate inflation entirely.

Text B.

Microeconomics

The word "micro" means small, and microeconomics means economics in the small. The optimizing behavior of individual units such as households and firms provides the foundation for microeconomics.

Micro economists may investigate individual markets or even the economy as a whole, but their analyses are derived from the aggregation of the behavior of individual units. Microeconomic theory is used extensively in many areas of applied economics. For example, it is used in industrial organization, labor economic subfields. The tools and analyses of microeconomics provide a common ground, and even a language, for economists interested in a wide range of problems.

At one time there was a sharp distinction in both methodology and subject matter between microeconomics and macroeconomics.

The methodological distinction became somewhat blurred during the 1970s as more macroeconomic analyses were built upon microeconomic

foundations. Nonetheless, major distinctions remain between the two major branches of economics. For example, the micro economist is interested in the determination of individual prices and relative prices (i.e., exchange ratios between goods), whereas the macroeconomist is interested more in the general price level and its change over time.

Optimization plays a key role in microeconomics. The consumer is assumed to maximize utility or satisfaction subject to the constraints imposed by income or income earning power. The producer is assumed to maximize profit or minimize cost subject to the technological constraints under which the firm operates. Optimization of social welfare sometimes is the criterion for the determination of public policy.

Opportunity cost is an important concept in microeconomics. Many courses of action are valued in terms of what is sacrificed so that they might be undertaken. For example, the opportunity cost of a public project is the value of the additional goods that the private sector would have produced with the resources used for the public project.

General understanding

1. What is, according to the text, microeconomics?
2. What is meant by "economics in the small"?
3. What economic phenomena are of microeconomics attentions?
4. Where is microeconomic theory used?
5. What is "optimization"?
6. What is the concept of the theory of consumer?
7. What is the major difference between the theory of consumer and the theory of producer?

UNIT 11

Demand and supply

Text A.

The law of Demand.

Demand is a key concept in both macroeconomics and microeconomics. In the former, consumption is mainly a function of income; whereas in the latter, consumption or demand is primarily, but not exclusively, a function of price. This analysis of demand relates to microeconomic theory.

The theory of demand was mostly implicit in the writings of classical economists before the late nineteenth century. Current theory rests on the foundations laid by Marshall (1890), Edgeworth (1881), and Pareto (1896). Marshall viewed demand in a cardinal context, in which utility

could be quantified. Most contemporary economists hold the approach taken by Edge worth and Pareto, in which demand has only ordinal characteristics and in which indifference or preferences become central to the analysis.

Much economic analysis focuses on the relation between prices and quantities demanded, the other variables being provisionally held constant. At the various prices that could prevail in a market during some period of time, different quantities of a good or service would be bought. Demand, then, is considered as a list of prices and quantities, with one quantity for each possible price. With price on the vertical axis and quantity on the horizontal axis, the demand curve slopes downward from left to right, signifying that smaller quantities are bought at higher prices and larger quantities are bought lower prices. The inverse relation between price and quantity is usually called the law of demand. The law rests on two foundations. One is the theory of the consumer, the logic of which show that the consumer responds to lower prices by buying more. The other foundation is empirical, with innumerable studies of demand in actual markets having demonstrated the existence of downward-sloping demand curves.

Exceptions to the law of demand are the curiosa of theorists. The best-known exception Geffen effect – a consumer buys more, not less. Of a commodity at higher prices when a negative income effect dominates over the substitution effect.

Another is the Vein effect – some commodities are theoretically wanted solely for their higher prices. The higher these prices are, the more the use of such commodities fulfills the requirements of conspicuous consumption, and thus the stronger the demand for them.

General understanding

1. What is “demand”?
2. What is the current theory of demand based on?
3. What prominent economists contributed to the development of the theory of demand?
4. How is it possible to show the interrelation of price and quantities consumed?
5. What is “Geffen effect”?
6. What is Vein eff

UNIT 12

Marketing research and channels of marketing

Text A.

Philip Kilter defines marketing as “a social and managerial process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging products and values with other”. Marketing research is used to assess the market’s response to the firm’s marketing inputs which include promotional activities such as price discounting, placement of in-store displays, multimedia advertising, and cooping; expanding distribution; and product development and enhancement. The goal of marketing research is to assist the firm in determining the most effective, i.e. most profitable, mix of marketing inputs given knowledge of the marketplace.

As a formal scientific discipline marketing research began in the early twentieth century with most analyses being based on survey data. In the 1930s, the A.C. Nielsen Company began collecting in-store data using manual audits. Today, with the advent of scanning technology, the amount of timely data available from stores and household has grown exponentially. Coincident with this data explosion, used data delivery systems and the techniques used to analyze the data have become increasingly sophisticated. Marketing research is an integral part of organizations in both the consumer durable and nondurable goods sectors, and in recent years the use of marketing principles has become increasing prevalent among nonprofit and government sectors.

Marketing research is interdisciplinary requiring the knowledge of economists, operations researchers, psychologists, and statisticians. For the economist, the economic theory of consumer behavior and the theory of the firm provide basic building blocks. Marketing research can be viewed as an operational or tactical activity and as a strategic activity. Although both activities require knowledge of the workings of the marketplace at both the macroeconomic and microeconomic levels, tactical analysis focus on monitoring a product’s performance and testing the working effectiveness of marketing programs relative to competitors. Strategic research involves selecting and optimizing marketing opportunities.

In order to understand the marketplace, the researcher must define the market in terms of both the geographic unit and the product class and collect data. Data on consumer purchases permit an analyst to determine what was sold and how particular brands performed relative to each other. In addition to sales and price information, causal data assist the analyst in

understanding the reason that sales took place. Examples of causal data are newspaper advertising which indicates the extent of retailer advertising support source of information for understanding the source of sales is television advertising. Measuring the effects of television advertising is relatively difficult owing to the dynamic effects such advertising has on consumer behavior, however.

Once the data are collected, the analyst may choose to evaluate the information by simply looking at the raw series together over time or compute straightforward measures such as market share in order to arrive at a qualitative assessment of market activity. Statistical models might be estimated in order to address issues such as temporary price reduction, effectiveness, the extent of cannibalization due to promotion activity, i. e...the extent to which sales of one specific product decline as a result of promoting another similar product produced by the same manufacturer, the competitive effects of promotions, differences between markets, competitive pricing points, long-term price elastic ties.

Forecasting is an activity likely to be undertaken by a business economist working in a marketing research department. Conventionally, business economists have been responsible for producing forecasts for the macroeconomic environment or for activity within industry groups. More recently, forecasting movements in mature product categories, in segments within categories, and in brands has increased in importance.

Forecasting the success or failure of new product introductions is also important. New product introductions require a considerable amount of a firm's resources, and failure to read the market place correctly and early in the development process can lead to costly errors. The development of a new brand begins with the identification of new market opportunities. Consumer survey research directed at identifying the market response to the brand concept and elements of the marketing mix, e.g. , pricing, is typically conducted. On the basis of the survey a firm may decide to continue with the development plans for the brand, revise current plans in response to the survey results, or cancel development plans completely. Comparisons may also be made between attitudes toward the new concepts and existing products.

General understanding:

- 1) How does Philip Kittler define marketing?
- 2) What is marketing research used for?
- 3) What is the goal of marketing research?

- 4) When did marketing research begin as a “formal scientific discipline”
- 5) What knowledge does marketing research require?
- 6) What are basic steps of marketing research?
- 7) According to the text, how can market research are viewed?
- 8) What are the sources of information of marketing researcher?

UNIT 13

Management: Six basic steps in Decision Making

Text A

William F. Samuelson Stephen G. Marks

Step 1: Define the Problem

Decisions do not occur in a vacuum. Many come about as part of the firm's planning process. Others are **prompted** by new opportunities or new problems. It is natural to ask: What brought about the need for the decision? What is the decision all about? In all kinds of textbooks examples, the decision problems is stated and is reasonably well defined. In practice, however, managerial decisions do not come so neatly packaged; rather, they are messy and poorly defined. Thus, problem definition is prerequisite for problem management. A key part of problems definition is identifying the setting or context..

Identifying the decisions context and the decisions maker represents a large step toward understanding the choices process. The particular setting has a direct bearing on both the decisions maker's objectives and the available courses of action. The next two steps considers each of these aspects in turn.

Step 2: Determine the Objective When it comes to economics decisions, it is a truism that “you can't always get what you want”. But to make any progress at all in your choice, you have to know what you want. In most private sector decisions, the principal objective of the firm – and barometer of its performance – is profit: the difference between the firm's total revenues and its total costs. Thus, among alternative courses of action, the manager will select the one that will maximize the profit of the firm. Attainment of maximum profit worldwide is the natural objective of the multinational steel company, the drug company, and the management and shareholders of Disney, Canon, Time Inc., Texaco, and Pennzoil.

Sometimes the manager focuses on the narrower goal of minimization cost. For instance, the firm may seek to produce given level of output at the least cost or to obtain a targeted increase in sales with minimal expenditure on advertising. In a host of settings, measures that reduce costs directly serve to increase profits. The objective in a public sector decision, whether it be building an airport or regulating a utility, is broader than the private profit standard. In making its choice, the government decision maker should **weigh** all benefits and costs, not solely those that accrue as revenue or are incurred as expenses. According to this **benefit-cost criterion**, the airport may be worth building even if it fails to generate a profit for the government authority. The optimal **means** of regulating the production decisions of the utility depend on a careful comparison of benefits (mainly in the form of energy conservation) and costs (in material and environmental terms).

In practice, profit maximization and benefit – cost analysis are not always **unambiguous** guides to decision making. One difficulty is posed by the timing of benefits and costs. Should a firm (the drug company, for example) make an investment (sacrifice profits today) for greater profits five or ten years from now? Are the future benefits to air travelers worth the present capital expense of building the airport? Both private and public investments involve trade-offs between present and future benefits and costs. Thus, in pursuing its profit goal, the firm must establish a comparable measure of value between present and future monetary returns.

Uncertainty poses a second difficulty. In many economics decisions, it is **customary** to treat the outcomes of various actions as certain. For instance, a fast-food chain may know that it can construct a new outlet in 21 days at a cost of \$90 per square foot. The cost and timing of construction are not entirely certain, but the **margin of error** is small enough to have no bearing on the company's decisions and thus can be safely ignored. In contrast, the cost and date of completion of a nuclear power plant are highly uncertain (due to unanticipated design changes, cost overruns, schedule delays, and the like).

At the best, the utilities that share ownership of the plant may be able to **estimate** a range of cost outcomes and probabilities dates and assess probabilities for these possible outcomes. (With the benefit of **hindsight**, one now wishes that the utilities had recognized the risk and safety problems of nuclear plants 10 and 20 years ago, when construction on many plants was initiated).

The presence of risk and uncertainty has a direct bearing on the way the decision maker thinks about his or her objective. The drug company

seeks to maximize its profit, but there is no simple way to apply the profit criterion to determine its best R&D choice. The company cannot use the simple rule “choose the method that will **yield** the greater profit,” because the ultimate profit from either method cannot be **pinned down** ahead of time. In each case, there are no profit guarantees; rather, the drug company faces a choice between two risky options. Similarly, public programs and regulatory policies will generate future benefits and costs that cannot be **predicted** with certainty.

What is the decision maker’s goal? What end is he or she pursuing? How should the decision maker value outcomes with respect to this goal? What if he or she is pursuing multiple, conflicting objectives?

General understanding:

1. What is the difference between the book examples and practice?
2. What role does the problem of definition play for the problem management?
3. What role does context play for problem definition?
4. What is “truism”?
5. What is the difference between the objective in a public and the private sector decision?
6. What are the difficulties of the decision making?

UNIT 14

MARIE CURIE AND THE DISCOVERY OF RADIUM

1. Marie Curie was born in Warsaw on 7 November 1867. Her father a teacher of science and mathematics in a school in the town, and from him little Maria Skłodowska—which was her Polish name—learned her first lessons in science. Maria’s wish was to study at the Sorbonne in Paris, and after many years of waiting she finally left her native land in 1891.
2. In Paris Maria began a course of hard study and simple living. She determined to work for two Master’s degrees— one in Physics, the other in Mathematics. Thus she had to work twice as hard as the ordinary student. Yet she had scarcely enough money to live on. She lived in the poorest quarter of Paris. Night after night, after her hard day’s work at the University, she got to her poorly furnished room and worked at her books steadily for hours. Sometimes she had no more than a bag of cherries.

Though she was often weak and ill, she worked in this way for four years. She had chosen her course and nothing could turn her from it.

3. Among the many scientists Maria met and worked with in Paris was Pierre Curie. Pierre Curie, born in 1859 in Paris, was the son of a doctor, and from early childhood he had been fascinated by science. At sixteen he was a Bachelor of Science, and he took his Master's degree in Physics when he was eighteen. When he met Maria Sklodowska he was thirty-five years old and was famous throughout Europe for his discoveries in magnetism. But in spite of the honour he had brought to France by his discoveries, French Government could only give him a very little salary as a reward, and the University of Paris refused him a laboratory of his own for his researches.

4. Pierre Curie and Maria Sklodowska both of whom loved science more than anything else, very soon became the closest friends. They worked together constantly and discussed many problems of their researches. After little more than a year they fell in love with each other, and in 1895 Maria Sklodowska became Mme. Curie. Theirs was not only to be a very happy marriage but also one of the greatest scientific partnerships.

Marie had been the greatest woman – scientist of her day but she was a mother too, a very one. There were their two little girls, Irene and Eve.

5. By this time Mme. Curie had obtained her Master's degree in Physics and Mathematics, and was busy with researches on steel. She now wished to obtain a Doctor's degree. For this it was necessary to offer to the examiners a special study, called a thesis.

6. For some time Pierre Curie had been interested in the work of a French scientist named Becquerel. There is a rare metal called uranium which, as Becquerel discovered, emits rays very much like X-rays. These rays made marks on a photographic plate when it was wrapped in black paper. The Curies got interested in these rays of uranium. What caused them? How strong were they? There were many such questions that puzzled Marie Curie and her husband. Here, they decided, was the very subject for Marie's Doctor's thesis.

7. The research was carried out under great difficulty. Mme. Curie had to use an old store-room at the University as her laboratory – she was refused a better room. It was cold, there was no proper apparatus and very little space for research work. Soon she discovered that the rays of uranium were like no other known rays.

8. Marie Curie wanted to find out if other chemical substances might emit similar rays. So she began to examine every known chemical substance. Once after repeating her experiments time after time she found

that a mineral called pitchblende emitted much more powerful rays than any she had already found.

9. Now, an element is a chemical substance which so far as is known cannot be split up into other substances. As Mme. Curie had examined every known chemical element and none of them had emitted such powerful rays as pitchblende she could only decide that this mineral must contain some new element.

Scientists had declared that every element was already known to them.

All Mme. Curie's experiments pointed that it was not so.

Pitchblende must contain some new and unknown element. There was no other explanation for the powerful rays which it emitted. At that moment Pierre Curie stopped his own investigations on the physics of crystals and joined his wife in her effort to find those more active unknown chemical elements.

Scientists call the property of giving out such rays "radioactivity", and Mme. Curie decided to call the new element "radium", because it was more strongly radioactive than any known metal.

It is known now that Mme. Curie has given the real basis for the industrial methods of separating radium and other elements from the pitchblende and from other minerals. In 1903 Marie and Pierre together with Henry Becquerel were awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics. In 1911 Marie received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry. But the second prize went to her alone for in 1906 Pierre had (1 died tragically in a traffic accident). Mme. Skłodowska-Curie, the leading woman-scientist, the greatest woman of her generation, has become the first person to receive a Nobel Prize twice.

UNIT 15

EDUCATION

1. As long as we live we continue to learn, and the education we receive when we are young helps us to continue learning. We are taught to read and write, and are taught many of the essential facts about the world and shown how to sort them out so that later in life, we shall be able to find out things ourselves and not to ask other people.

The first teachers were fathers and mothers, but very early in the history of man children began to be taught by people other than their fathers and mothers. It is thought that schools first started in Egypt 5,000- to 6,000 years ago, and that it was the invention of writing which made them necessary. Reading and writing were quite different from the skills

used in everyday life, and writing made it possible to store up knowledge which grew with each generation. Specially trained people were therefore needed to teach it.

2. Only the sons of nobles attended the first Egyptian schools, which taught reading, physical education and good behaviour. In ancient India the priestly caste decided what should be taught to each of the four castes, or groups, into which people were divided.

Only the priestly caste was allowed to learn the Hindu scriptures. In China, until the 19th century, education was organized according to social classes, and consisted largely of learning the scriptures by heart.

3. A clear example of the way in which even neighbouring peoples produce different types of education comes from ancient Greece. Sparta and Athens were two Greek states. The Spartans, a hard and warlike people, gave a purely military education. At the age of seven all boys of noble families were taken from their homes and were sent to live in groups. They were kept under a very strict discipline and were taught hunting, military scouting, swimming and the use of weapons. The Spartans despised literature, and some people think they could not even read.

At the very same time, also for the nobles only, the Athenians were building what we call a liberal education - one that helps man to develop all sides of his nature, helps him to make and appreciate beautiful things and helps him to find the best way of life. They thought it important to educate the body as well as the mind, and had a programme of physical training which consisted of running, jumping, wrestling and throwing the discus. As time went on Athenian education paid special attention to reading, writing and literature and these were taught by a special teacher, known as the "grammatist". Common people were not educated, they were trained in craftsmanship, workmanship, trades.

Greek philosophers, or thinkers, always discussed what education should try to do and what it should include. Plato wrote a book called *The Republic*, which is one of the best books ever written on education, and since those days Greek ideas have influenced European education, especially secondary and university education.

4. The Romans were very good at organizing, and they were the first people to have schools run by the government free of charge. Throughout their great empire there was a network of these schools which provided for three stages of education.

At six or seven all boys (and some girls) went to the primary school, where they learned "three R's"; reading, writing, and arithmetic. Most

children were not taught more than this, but at 12 or 13 boys of the rich families went on to the "grammar" school to study the Greek and Latin languages and their literatures, that is, what had been written in those languages. At 16, young nobles who wanted to enter politics or the service of their country went to the schools of rhetoric to be trained in rhetoric, or public speaking.

5. In Great Britain the first teachers we read about were craftsmen. They taught children to read, write and count, to cook and mend their own shoes. In the early 19th century the main system of teaching was the "Monitor" system. The teacher could manage a class of 100 or more by using older pupils or "monitors" to help him. The schools had long desks which were sometimes arranged in tiers so that the teacher could see every child in a large class.

UNIT 16

THE HISTORY OF LAND TRANSPORT INTRODUCTION

1. The word "transport" means to carry people or goods from place to place. It is also used for the vehicles that carry people or goods - for example, motor transport includes buses, lorries, motor coaches and motor cars. The American word for the same thing is transportation, and the remark "transportation is civilization" was made by an American, the motor-car manufacturer Henry Ford.

The history of transport is divided into two stages. The first stage is that in which all forms of transport depended directly on the power of men or animals or on natural forces such as winds and current. The second stage began with the development of the steam engine, which was a source of power for transport.

UNIT 17

LAND TRANSPORT PORTERS AND PACK ANIMALS

1. The most ancient peoples were probably wanderers. They did not live in settled homes because they did not know how to till the soil. As they moved from place to place they had to carry their goods themselves.

The porters were usually the women, probably because the men had to be ready to beat off attacks by wild beasts or enemies. Even now; to carry the household goods is the job of women in back. ward wandering tribes.

The next step was the use of pack animals for carrying goods. The kind of animal used varied in different places, but the general idea was the same - the bundles or baskets were carried by the animals on their backs. The dog, although too small to carry much, was probably one of the first transport animals used because it is so easily trained. Dogs are still to be trained for dragging sledges in the Arctic because of their light weight.

2. The next advance in land transport came with the invention of the wheel. The wheel at once led to the development of two-wheeled carts and four-wheeled waggons and carriages, but before these could be used for carrying goods over long distances, a system of roads was necessary. These roads had to be wide enough to take a cart and paved, for unless their surface was paved the wheels sank in and the cart stuck. In Britain, and also over much Europe, the first long-distance paved roads were made by the Romans, chiefly so that troops could be marched without delay from place to place. The roads made it possible to use wheeled traffic. However, when the Roman Empire collapsed, the roads gradually got in to a very bad state.

3. There were two problems to be solved - first, how to make good roads, and, second, to decide who was to pay for them. In Great Britain these problems were solved in the 18th century. Stretches of roads were handed over to groups called trusts. The trusts borrowed money for repairing and improving the roads, paying it back from the sums they collected from road users. This method of paying for new roads and bridges is still used, especially in the United States. Then it became possible to travel rather comfortably by coaches. In cities like London, rich people had their own carriages, while poor people went on horseback or walked. Then appeared carriages that could be hired for short distances. They correspond to the modern taxis. The word is short for "taxi cab" which in turn comes from the words taximeter and cabriolet. A cabriolet is a light twowheeled carriage introduced from France .in the 19th century. The taximeter is a mechanical device connected with the wheels which, by measuring the distance travelled, shows the fare due at any moment. It is also controlled by a clock so that waiting time too is charged for.

UNIT 18

THE EARLY DAYS OF THE AUTOMOBILE

1. One of the earliest attempts to propel a vehicle by mechanical power was suggested by Isaac Newton. But the first self-propelled vehicle was constructed by the French military engineer Cugnot in 1763. He built a steam-driven engine which had three wheels, carried two passengers and ran at maximum speed of four miles. The carriage was a great achievement but it was far from perfect and extremely inefficient. The supply of steam lasted only 15 minutes and the carriage had to stop every 100 yards to make more steam.

2. In 1825 a steam engine was built in Great Britain. The vehicle carried 18 passengers and covered 8 miles in 45 minutes. However, the progress of motor cars met with great opposition in Great Britain. Further development of the motor car lagged because of the restrictions resulting from legislative acts. The most famous of these acts was the Red Flag Act of 1865, according to which the speed of the steam-driven vehicles was limited to 4 miles per hour and a man with a red flag had to walk in front of it.

3. In Russia there were cities where motor cars were outlawed altogether. When the editor of the local newspaper in the city of Uralsk bought a car, the governor issued these instructions to the police: "When the vehicle appears in the streets, it is to be stopped and escorted to the police station, where its driver is to be prosecuted."

4. From 1860 to 1900 was a period of the application of gasoline engines to motor cars in many countries. The first perfect gasoline engine was N. Otto who introduced the four-stroke cycle of operation. By that time motor cars got a standard shape and appearance.

In 1896 a procession of motor cars took place from London to Brighton to show how reliable the new vehicles were. In fact, many of the cars broke for the transmissions were still unreliable and constantly gave trouble.

The cars of that time were very small, two-seated cars with no roof, driven by an engine placed under the seat. Motorists had to carry large cans of fuel and separate spare tyres, for there were no repair or filling stations to serve them.

After World War I it became possible to achieve greater reliability of motor cars, brakes became more efficient. Constant efforts were made to standardize common components. Multi-cylinder engines came into use, most commonly used are four-cylinder engines.

5. Like most other great human achievements, the motor car is not the product of any single inventor. Gradually the development of vehicles driven by internal combustion engine - cars, as they had come to be known, led to the abolition of earlier restrictions. Huge capital began to flow into the automobile industry.

From 1908 to 1924 the number of cars in the world rose from 200 thousand to 20 million; by 1960 it had reached 60 million! No other industry had ever developed at such a rate.

6. There are about 3,000 Americans who like to collect antique cars. They have several clubs which possess great influence such as Antique Automobile Club and Veteran Motor Car Club, which specialize in rare models. The clubs practise meetings where members can exhibit their cars. Collectors can also advertise in the magazines published by their clubs. Some magazines specialise in a single type of car such as glorious Model "T". A number of museums have exhibitions of antique automobile models whose glory rings

in automobile history. But practically the best collection

100 old cars of great rarity - is in possession of William Harrah. He is very influential in his field. The value of his collection is not only historical but also practical: photographs of his cars are used for films and advertisements.

7. In England there is the famous "Beaulieu Motor Museum" - the home for veteran cars.

The founder of the Museum is Lord Montague, the son of one of England's motoring pioneers, who opened it in 1952 in memory of his father. Lord Montague's father was the first person in England to be fined by the police for speed'ing. He was fined 5 pounds for going faster than 12 miles per hour!

In the Museum's collection there is a car called the Silver Ghost which people from near and far go to see. It was built by Rolls-Royce in 1907, and called the Silver Ghost because it ran so silently and was painted silver.

There is a car called The Knight. It is the first British petrol-driven car. Its top speed was only 8 m.p.h.!

In the Museum there is also a two-seater car, built in 1903.

UNIT 19

WATER TRANSPORT

1. One of the most important things about water transport is the small effort needed to move floating craft. A heavy boat or a barge weighing several tons can be moved through the water, slowly but steadily, by one man. An aeroplane of the same weight as the barge needs engines of 1,000 horse power or more in order to fly.

2. The raft made of logs of wood is supposed to be the earliest type of boat.

Rafts seem to be clumsy vessels, although the Norwegian scientist Thor Heyerdahl and his five companions in 1947 made a voyage on the raft Kon-Tiki from Peru to Tuamotu Islands - a distance of 4,500 miles.

3. We know the water transport in ancient times to have been developing most rapidly on great rivers. The ancient Romans used vessels to carry their armies and supplies to colonies. These ships, usually called galleys, continued to be used in the Mediterranean till 1750.

4. The introduction of the magnetic compass allowed long voyages to be made with much greater safety. At the end of the 15th century, sailing vessels are known to have carried men from Europe to America and round Africa to India.

The middle of the 19th century proved to be the highest point in the development of sailing ships.

5. Steam and Motor Ships.- One of the earliest steam boats is known to have been tested at the end of the 18th century. The first steamship to cross the Atlantic was the Savannah, 98-foot ship built at New York, which made the crossing in 1819. Like all the early steamships, it had sails as well as paddles. By the middle of the 19th century it became possible to build much larger ships for iron and steel began to replace timber.

6. The rapid increase in the size and power of ships was promoted by the industrial revolution. The industrial countries produced great quantities of goods which were carried to all parts of the world by ships. On their return voyages, the ships brought either raw materials such as cotton, metals or timber for the factories, or grain and foodstuffs for the growing population.

During the same period, a great deal was done to improve ports, and that

permitted larger ships to use them and to make loading and unloading more quickly.

7. Improvements introduced in the 20th century included the smoother and more efficient type of engines called steam turbines and the use of oil fuel instead of coal. Between 1910 and 1920 the diesel engine began to be introduced in ships. These diesel-engined ships are called motor ships. The largest ships, however, are still generally driven by steam turbines. In the late 1950s a few ships were being built which were equipped with nuclear reactors for producing steam.

8. In 1957 the world's first atomic ice-breaker was launched in Leningrad.

This atomic ice-breaker is equipped with an atomic engine owing to which her operating on negligible quantities of nuclear fuel is possible. In spite of the capacity of her engine being 44,000 h.p. it will need only a few grams of atomic fuel a week.

The atomic ice-breaker has three nuclear reactors. The operation of the nuclear reactor is accompanied by powerful radiation. Therefore, the ice-breaker is equipped with reliable means of protection. The ice-breaker is designed for operation in Arctic waters.

9. Canal Transport.- Sea-going ships can use some rivers, such as the Thames in England, the Rhine, and the Volga in Europe and the Mississippi in the United States. Generally, however, a river has to be "canalized" before ships can use it. This means widening and deepening the channel and protecting its banks so that they do not wash away and block the river with mud.

10. We find the British canals to be quite narrow and shallow.

The canals in Europe are much larger than those in Great Britain. France has a big network of canals, centred on Paris, and linking ports of the Atlantic, Mediterranean and English Channel coasts with each other and with other countries.

In the USSR canals large enough to be used by ships link Moscow with Leningrad on the Baltic Sea. Other Soviet canals run between the White Sea and the Baltic, and between the Don and the Volga rivers.

UNIT 20

AIR TRANSPORT

1. Modern air transport using craft which is heavier than air requires a good deal of power merely to stay in the air. It is for this reason that air transport uses more fuel to carry a ton over a distance of a mile than land

or water transport. Another drawback of air transport is that whereas a ship, truck or train whose engines break down can stop until they are mended, an aircraft with the same trouble must land. This means that an aircraft must have several engines and this increases its cost. Safety precautions for air transport also tend to make it expensive. It cannot be relied upon for regular services in places or seasons with low clouds and mist. The great advantages of air transport being its high speed, all civilized countries try to develop it. If you want to save time, you will naturally fly by air.

2. **Balloons.** The earliest form of air transport was balloons, which are sometimes called "free balloons" because having no engines they are forced to drift by the wind flow. This fact alone makes balloons not reliable enough for carrying people. If they were safer, they would be used more for transportation, but at present the scientists use balloons mostly for obtaining information about the upper atmosphere, its density, and other scientific subjects. Weather balloons are particularly used by meteorologists. They carry instruments whose readings are automatically sent back to the ground by the radio, the position of the balloon being obtained by radar. Small balloons released from air-fields are observed to obtain the direction and strength of the wind.

3. **Aeroplanes.** The heavier-than-air machines called aeroplanes were rather slow in being adopted for transport. The first aeroplane flight was made in 1884.

World War 1 quickened the development of aeroplanes enormously. By 1918 they were no longer unreliable things capable of only short flights, but powerful machines able to carry heavy loads at high speeds for long distances. What was more, the ending of the war meant that thousands of aeroplanes and skilled pilots were available.

The first aeroplanes were machines that had been used as bombers. They were quickly converted for use by passengers by fitting extra seats and windows. The first regular public air service from London to Paris was started in August 1919.

4. During World War II the value of aeroplanes for carrying heavy loads was recognized. This led after the war to an increase in the practice of sending goods by air. Air freight is expensive but it is often thought worth while for such goods as early vegetables, fruits and flowers, as well as for things urgently needed such as spare parts for machinery, medical supplies, films and photographs. Some parts of the world being hundreds of miles from a road, railway or waterway, air transport is the only possible kind.

Such places are kept supplied wholly by air. .

5. After World War II, bigger and faster airliners were introduced. Jet-propelled aircraft were first used in 1950. Air transport is very valuable for emergency medical work. The most important use of air transport besides carrying passengers is carrying mail. If the letters are sent by air mail, they are not long in coming. Although it is unlikely that aircraft will ever replace ships for carrying heavy and bulky cargoes such as oil, coal, minerals, grain and machinery. air transport is already proving a serious rival to passenger ships on some routes.

6. Helicopters are Hovercraft. 1 Helicopters are very useful in places where there is no room for long, flat runways. Modern turbo-jet airliners need a run of nearly two miles long to take off, but helicopters can use small fields, platforms mounted on ships and the flat tops of buildings. Helicopters were first introduced for regular airline service 1947. Later, helicopters were used for carrying passengers and mail on short routes, and for taking airline passengers between the centres of cities and the main airports.

7. While helicopters gain in needing very little space for taking-off and landing, they lose because the speed at which they move forward is quite low. So the problem was to develop an aircraft combining the advantages of the helicopter with the high speed of an ordinary aircraft. If the designers could develop such a machine the problem would be solved. So far this purpose the hovercraft was designed. Hovercrafts are likely to be useful for ferry services - for example, in ferrying motor cars across the English Channel. They may also be useful for travel in roadless countries.

UNIT 21

THE HISTORY OF BRIDGE AND TUNNEL BUILDING BRIDGES

1. One of the outstanding statesmen once said in his speech, "There can be little doubt that in many ways the story of bridge-building is the story of civilization. By it we can readily measure an important part of a people's progress." Great rivers are important means of communication for in many parts of the world they have been, and still are, the chief roads. But they are also barriers to communication, and people have always been concerned with finding ways to cross them.

2. For hundreds of years men have built bridges over fastflowing rivers or

deep and rocky canyons. Early man probably got the idea of a bridge from a tree fallen across a stream. From this, at a later stage, a bridge on a very simple bracket or cantilever principle 1 was evolved. Timber beams were embedded into the banks on each side of the river with their ends extending over the water. These made simple supports for a central beam reaching across from one bracket to the other. Bridges of this type are still used in Japan, and in India. A simple bridge on the suspension principle 2 was made by early man by means of ropes, and is still used in countries such as Tibet. Two parallel ropes suspended from rocks or trees on each bank of the river, with a platform of woven mats laid across them, made a secure crossing. Further ropes as handrails were added. When the Spaniards reached South America, they found that the Incas of Peru used suspension bridges made of six strong cables, four of which supported a platform and two served as rails.

3. All these bridges made possible crossings only over narrow rivers. The type of temporary floating bridge, the pontoon bridge, has been used for military purposes; military engineers can construct a temporary bridge on this principle, able to carry all the heavy equipment of a modern army, in an extremely short time.

The idea of driving wooden piles into the bed of the river in order to support a platform was put into practice 3,500 years ago. This is the basis of the 'trestle' or pile bridge which makes it possible to build a wider crossing easier for the transport of animals and goods.

4. With the coming of the railway in the 19th century there was a great demand for bridges, and the railways had capital for building them. The first railway bridges were built of stone or brick. In many places long lines of viaducts were built to carry railways; for instance, there are miles of brick viaducts supporting railways to London.

The next important development in bridge-building was the use of iron and, later, steel. The first iron bridge crossed the river Severn in Great Britain.

The idea of a drawbridge, a bridge hinged so that it can be lifted by chains from inside to prevent passage, is an old one. Some Leningrad bridges were built on this principle.

A modern bridge probably demands greater skill from designer and builder than any other civil engineering project. Many things should be taken into consideration, and these may vary widely according to local conditions. In deciding what type of bridge is most suitable the designer has to consider the type and weight of the traffic, and width and depth of the gap to be bridged, the nature of the foundations and the method of

erecting the bridge. The designer has to calculate carefully how the various loads would be distributed and to decide which building materials are more suitable for carrying these loads.

TUNNELS

5. Tunnelling is difficult, expensive and dangerous engineering work. Tunnels are built to provide direct automobile or railway routes through mountain ranges, under or over rivers.

They can also provide underground channels for water, sewage or oil. Before the 19th century men had not acquired enough skill in engineering to carry out extensive tunnelling. Tunnels, however, were known in ancient times. They were, for instance, driven into the rock under the Pyramids of Egypt, and the Romans built one in Rome for their chief drain, parts of which still remain. One of the earliest tunnels known was made in Babylon. It passed under the Euphrates river, and was built of arched brickwork being 12 feet high and 15 feet wide.

Other ancient tunnels were built for water supply and for drainage.

7. Modern tunnels are often very long and deep. The Simplon Tunnel on the France-to-Italy railway, for example, is 12 miles long and in one place the peaks of the Alps rise over 6,000 feet above it. Some tunnels are over 50 feet in diameter. Many are circular in cross-section. Others are horseshoe-shaped, with a level floor on which it is easy to lay permanent roads and railways.

UNIT 22

TUNNEL UNDER CHANNEL

1. "Will There Be a Tunnel under the English Channel?", "Tunnel - to Be or Not to Be", "A tunnel or a Bridge?"

articles with such headlines appeared in the press abroad. English and French experts are considering projects created by the specialists of both countries. The authors of the projects offer different solutions. One of them is a bridge/tunnel combination.

A tunnel under the English Channel was first suggested in 1856. It was agreed in 1875 to build it and work was actually begun. However, the British War Office objected that an enemy on the European mainland could easily invade England through such a tunnel, and the British Government objected to the scheme.

In 1957 interest revived in the idea of a Channel Tunnel and the question was studied afresh by a group of French and British engineers. Such a

Tunnel between Dove1' and Sagatte would have a length of about 36 miles of which 24 miles

i would be under the sea, and would run through a layer of

I dense chalk which is known to be free from cracks and allows I water to penetrate it slowly. It would probably have to be a I twin railway tunnel. There are several difficulties in having I a road tunnel of this length, the chief of which is the enormous cost of ventilating it. Total cost is estimated at between 450 and 560 million dollars, to be shared by Britain and France with possibly some other European country.

No dates have so far been mentioned definitely but it might be completed at the end of our century.

UNIT 23

IL'YA REPIN (1844-1930)

Il'ya Ephimovich Repin, a painter of historical subjects known for the power and drama of his works, is considered an outstanding realist of his generation. Born to a poor family near Kharkov Repin learned his trade from an icon painter named Bunakov. In 1864 Repin became a student at the Academy of Fine Arts at St. Petersburg. In 1871 he won an academy scholarship that enabled him to visit France and Italy, and when he returned to Russia hi devoted himself to depicting episodes from Russian history. In 1894 he became professor of historical painti the academy in St. Petersburg.

Although Repin was a good draughtsman and a skilled colourist, the was known for his subject matter. His deeply moving scenes of common people were an indictment of the Tsarist regime. His powerful *Volga Boatmen*, of 1873, depicting bargemen harnessed together like beasts of burden, epitomises the stark realism and social criticism. This painting became a model for Soviet Union Socialist Realist painting.

Repin's treatments of Russian subjects tend to be grim in tone, sharply drawn, and boldly composed. In his *Religious Procession in the Kursk Guberniya*, of 1880-83, a ceremonious procession is moving along a dusty road. Repin depicted almost all the estates of provincial Russia. Each figure is endowed with a characteristic pose, movement and gesture. In the centre of the procession the painter placed landowners, merchants, clergymen and officers, representatives of the middle and upper classes. The fat landowner's wife, who carries the miracle-performing icon is very

expressive. She is full of her personal importance. Her arrogant look mirrors the self-confidence of the representatives of the privileged classes. Their wellbeing is protected by village police officers. The procession is headed by stalwart peasants; behind them two women of the lower merchant class cautiously carry an empty icon case. A choir is also represented here. No face shows deep devotion to God. Among the crowd the figure of an archdeacon stands out for the bright, festive clothing, but he too is plunged in his own thoughts. True faith is seen only in the images of the poor and pilgrims. The most expressive image is that of hunchback.

With the development of realism, historical painting underwent great changes. In his large historical painting underwent great changes. In his large historical paintings *Ivan the Terrible and His Son Ivan, November 16, 1581*, of 1885, and *Zaporozhian Cossacks*, of 1891 Repin resurrected the spirit of historical events and recreated historical characters, their fates and passions. The latter is the painter's best-known work.

Repin also created portraits of his great contemporaries, such as Leo Tolstoy, Mikhail Glinka, and Modest Mussorgsky.

I. Give kazakh equivalents of the following phrases:

A painter of historical subjects; an outstanding realist of the generation; an icon painter; to win an academy scholarship; to depict episodes from Russian history; common people; a good draughtsman; a skilled colourist; a subject matter; deeply moving scenes; an indictment of the Tsarist regime; to be harnessed together; bargemen; to epitomize the stark realism; to serve as a model; Socialist Realist painting; vigorous portraits of one's contemporaries; the treatment of subjects; to be boldly composed.

UNIT 24

VASSILY SURIKOV (1848-1916)

Vassily Surikov exercised a great stylistic authority in Russia. He was one of the first of the Wanderers to reconcile national ideals and the pictorial style of the Byzantine artistic tradition. Decorative pulsating surface, strong horizontals were first recovered in Surikov's works of art.

Vassily Surikov was born in Siberia. In 1868 he set out for St. Peterburg on horseback to join the Academy of Arts. The journey took him a year. On his way to St. Peterburg Vassily Surikov made frequent stops in ancient towns of Russia. He was greatly impressed by Kazan and Nizhni-Novgorod. But Moscow fascinated and enchanted him and it determined the artist's mode of life and way of work for years to come.

Vassily Surikov was the first Russian painter who turned to the past of Russia for the subjects of his art. Actually he was the first historical painter in Russia. Although a realistic painter, Surikov never became a narrative one. The painter tried to express the past against the background of common people.

The Morning of the Streltsy's Execution, of 1881, is the earliest artist's explicit vision of the historical past. It reproduces the event from Peter I's time that continues to shock people even today. In the year of 1682 the Streltsy, the Russian citizen-soldiers, incited a revolt in Moscow. At that time Peter, a boy of ten, had to flee the capital to survive. When Peter ascended the throne he took revenge on the old unreliable army and beheaded all the Streltsy in the presence of their wives and children. In the painting Surikov depicts the moment preceding the execution. The composition divides into two groups: one centered around Peter, another one shows the Streltsy, their wives and children. This painting was the first one to express the artist's understanding of history.

Surikov's masterpiece *Boyarinya Morosova* was created in 1887. Enormous in size and scale the canvas depicts the persecution of the 'old believers' by patriarch Nikon. The subject of the painting is based on the historical event that took place in the seventeenth century during the reign of Tzar Aleksei Mikhailovich, the father of Peter I. The scene is set in a street of medieval Moscow. The figures are arranged in an urban landscape in winter low afternoon light. The street is filled with throngs of people. They are here to accompany and pay homage to the first boyarina of Moscow who is being taken for interrogation and torture for her adherence to the old believers. The composition centers around boyarina Morosova. She is aflame with prophecy. Her hand is raised in an eloquent gesture with two fingers making the sign of the cross, the symbol of the old believers, which was forbidden by the church. She is superb in her indomitable inflexibility and readiness to die for what she considers a virtuous cause. This painting is made in the fresco-like style. The construction of this work of art reminds the monumental paintings of the great Italians - Michelangelo, Tintoretto, Titian and Veronese. The composition is full of movement. In a single scene one motion leads the eye from the agitated

crowd to the boyarina's dramatically uplifted hand and pointing fingers. Pure colour rules in the picture. The brushstrokes are free and sweeping. The storm of colour and the dynamic rhythm make the painting alive.

Vassily Surikov exerted a great influence on the Russia artists of his time. Vassily was a real pupil of nature. His landscape background inspired such artists as A.Kuindzhi, I.Ayvazovski and I.Levitan who created a school of landscape painting in Russia.

I. Give Kazakh equivalents of the following phrases:

To exercise a great stylistic authority; pictorial style; to determine one's mode of life; a realistic painter; an explicit vision of the historical past; to ascend the throne; to take revenge; the persecution of the 'old believers'; during the reign of; to pay homage to smb; indomitable inflexibility; the fresco-like style; monumental paintings; colour rules in the picture; to exert a great influence on.

UNIT 25

VASSILY VERESHCHAGIN (1842-1904)

Vassily Vereshchagin was the most accomplished Russian 19th century battle painter. The son of a landlord, he was educated in the cadet corps in St. Peterburg. In 1858-59 Vereshchagin was a naval officer, and on the frigate Kamchatka and other vessels he sailed to Denmark, France and Egypt.

In 1860 having abandoned his naval officer career, Vereshchagin entered the St. Peterburg Academy of Arts. But dissatisfied with the conservatism and idealistic conventions of the academic system, he left the Academic teaching and later formed the Wanderers always elicited Vereshchagin's sympathy. He participated in some of their exhibitions.

In 1864 when in Paris, Vereshchagin was influenced by Jean - Leon Geromes's historical paintings and his effective handling of details.

Vereshchagin made frequent trips across Russia and to Western Europe. He also visited Syria and Palestine (1884), the USA (1888-9 and 1902), the Philippines (1901), Cuba (1902), and Japan (1903). He took part in the military actions of the Russian army and was wounded in 1878-9 in the Russo-Turkish war.

The artist made numerous studies from life. Romantic thoughtfulness

and pleasure in the beauty of the world are characteristic of his landscapes and genre scenes. But in his battle paintings he adhered to the tradition of Critical Realism. Vereshchagin depicted war not as a romantic adventure, but as a tragic error. His battle paintings are famous for their monumental pathos and passionate pacifism.

The best-known work of Vereshchagin's Turkish series (1869-73) is the *Apotheosis of War* (1870-71). It shows a pile of skulls against the devastated city. On the frame there is an inscription: "Dedicated to all great conquerors: past, present, future". The subject of the painting, distinguished for anti-war symbolism, was repeated numerous times in the 20th century anti-war poster.

After his trips to India (1874-6, 1882) Vereshchagin made Indian series which depicted the colonial expansion of the English. In 1878-80 the painter created the Balkan series, devoted to the Russo-Turkish war. The painting *Conquered: Funeral* (1878) greatly impressed his contemporaries.

Vereshchagin's anti-Napoleonic series were very popular. The huge paintings of his series are not entirely free from the theatrical effects and the pomposity, but certain images are memorable because of their dramatism.

During the 1880s Vereshchagin frequently returned to an evangelical theme, depicted with realism, which is characteristic of all his work.

From 1870 to 1890 exhibitions of Vereshchagin's work travelled through Europe and the USA. By the turn of the century he became the most popular Russian artist abroad.

Vereshchagin was killed in the Russo-Japanese war zone in an explosion on the battleship *Patropavlovsk*.

I. Give Kazakh equivalents of following phrases:

The cadet corps; a naval officer; to abandon the career; conventions of the academic system; historical painting; effective handling of details; to take part in the military actions; landscape; battle painting; to be adhere to; an anti-war poster; to prevail in; a movement of solidarity with; images are memorable; in an ambush; an evangelical theme; to appeal for pacifism;

UNIT 26.

MIKHAIL VRUBEL' (1856-1910)

Mikhail Vrubel' was a pioneer of Modernism in Russian art. His extremely innovative technique broke with the tradition of the Academy of Arts, St. Peterburg, where he was a brilliant student. At the same time he felt dissociated from the social ideals of the Wanderers. He remained a lonely figure in Russian art. He did not try to achieve monumentality which was the aim of most of the painters.

Vrubel' was an infant prodigy. He was fond of music and drawing. The year of his graduation from St. Peterburg University in 1880, Vrubel entered the Academy of Arts. His talent was esteemed by Valentine Serov and his creative method was developed under the influence of Pavel Chistyakov.

In Kiev in the 12-th century church of St. Cyril Vrubel' not only created his masterpieces of the religious painting, but worked out his style. In the Byzantine mosaics of St. Sofia in Kiev he found the same divided colours and surfaces that fascinated him in St. Peterburg.

In 1889 Vrubel' moved to Moscow, where the range of his activity widened due to the backing of Savva Mamontov, the patron of Russian art. Vrubel's stage designs for Mamontov's private operas were central in his work.

Vrubel's monumental style was ideally suited to wall decoration for a new Art Nouveau parlours in Moscow. He produced *Venice, Spain*, the triptych *Judgement of Paris* for the house of E.D. Dunker in 1903-4.

I. Give Kazakh equivalents of the following phrases:

A pioneer of modernism; an extremely innovative technique; to break with the tradition of Academy of Arts; the social ideals of the Wanderers; a lonely figure in Russian art; to achieve monumentality; to esteem the talent; a creative method; religious paintings; the Byzantine mosaics; divided colours; the patron of Russian art; to create masterpieces; monumental style.

UNIT 27.

ALEKSEY SAVRASOV (1830-1897)

Aleksey Kondrat'yevich Savratov, an outstanding Russian painter, was born and died in Moscow. Savrasov entered the School of Painting, Sculpture and Architecture in Moscow in 1844 where he studied up to 1854 and taught there from 1857 to 1882. He showed his two works at the first exhibition of the Wanderers. He showed with Ivan Shishkin, Mikhail Klodt and Fyodor Vassil'yev established a particular Russian school of landscape painting. By 1870 the Savratov's style had developed from a Romantic and somewhat artificial manner, as seen in the *Losiny Island in Sokol'niki*, of 1869, into a simple, more serene treatment of typical scenery. Full of light sadness, this painting became one of the most popular landscapes in the Russian tradition. It is perceived as a kind of icon of nature. Savrasov's later philosophical scenes of lakes, rivers and country roads seen under the immense sky against the landscape expanse as in the *Country Road*, of 1873, had a great impact on a number of Russian landscape painters notably Konstantin Korovin and Isaac Levitan.

I. Give kazakh equivalents of the following phrases:

An outstanding Russian painter; the School of Painting, Sculpture and Architecture; the founder-members of the Wanderers; a Russian school of landscape painting; an artificial manner; a serene treatment of typical scenery; at the first Wanderers exhibition; win instant acclaim; the unpretentious beauty of the countryside; the first signs of spring; a sort of icon of nature; philosophically charged scenes; to have a great influence on.

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Ғ.Ғ.Қисметова

Ағылшын тілі грамматикасы

Оқу құралы

Материалдарды компьютерде

беттеген:

Техникалық редакторы:

Д.А.Журжанова

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