

STATE PEDAGOGICAL UNIVERSITY “ION CREANGĂ”

USATÎ LARISA

DIDACTICAL SUPPORT

***GRAMMATICAL APPROACHES FROM
FUNCTIONAL PERSPECTIVE***



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PREFACE

Teachers are arguably the most important members of our society. They give their educators purpose, set them up for success as citizens of our world, and inspire in them a drive to do well and succeed in life. The children of today are the leaders of tomorrow, and teachers are that critical point that makes the learner ready for their future.

Teachers have the ability to shape leaders of the future in the best way for society to build positive and inspired future generations and therefore design society, both on a local and global scale. In reality, teachers have the most important job in the world. Those who have an impact on the children, students of society have the power to change lives. A teacher must be a professional one and be able to present, instruct, teach and share his knowledge in the best way possible

The subject matter of this course is for the master degree students (teachers) and the main aim is to elucidate the encountered grammar difficulties in written and oral translation, consecutive and simultaneous translation. English grammatical phenomena in many cases do not have correspondence with the native language and in such cases, they create much headache for the translators. In order to overcome these difficulties, the teacher should have profound knowledge both in English grammar and in the native one. This didactical support including the enumerated themes is harmoniously combined theoretically and practically.

The material of this course includes, from our point of view, the most important themes one has to deal with in teaching, as it is not done for the sake of doing it, but for people to enjoy a good communicative competence.

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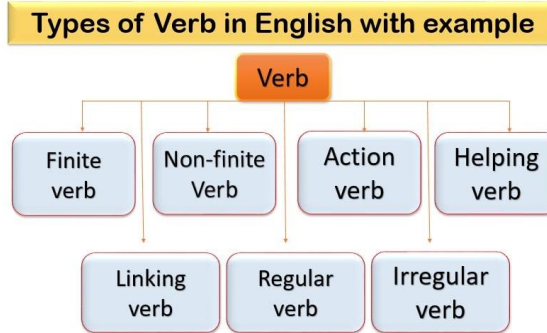
1. INTRODUCTION: THE VERB

Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech. This is due to the central role it performs in the expression of the predicative functions of the sentence. The complexity of the verb is inherent not only in the intricate structure of its grammatical categories, but also in its various class divisions, as well as falling into two sets of forms profoundly different from each other: *the finite set* and *the non-finite set*. The finite forms are forms that could (in Old English) and can fulfill the function of a predicate, agree with the subject through the categories of number and person, show the relation of the action to reality through the contrast of *Indicative*, *Imperative* and *Conjunctive (Subjunctive)* forms, making in such a way the category of *mood*. Reference of the action to time within the *Indicative* and *Subjunctive* moods by *present*, *past* (OE) and *future* makes are shown as (the *perfective* or terminative *aspect*). The opposition of an active or passive doer of the action brings to the category of *voice*. The transitivity or intransitivity of the verb plays its main role.



2. THE GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF THE VERB

THE VERB IS A PART OF SPEECH WHICH DENOTES AN ACTION.



Verbs may be **transitive** and **intransitive**. **Transitive** verbs can take a direct object, they express an action which passes on to a person or thing directly. Here belong such verbs as *to take, to give, to send, to make, etc.* **Intransitive Verbs**: *to go, to skate, to come, to ski, etc.*

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

According to their morphological structure verbs are divided into:

simple - (*read, live, hide, speak*);

derived - having affixes (*magnify, fertilize, captivate, undo, decompose*);

compound - consisting of two stems (*daydream, browbeat*);

composite - consisting of a verb and a postposition of adverbial origin (*sit down, give up*).

The postposition often changes the meaning of the verb with which it is associated. Thus, there are composite verbs whose meaning is different from the meaning of their components: *to give up* – *a renunța, бросать, прекращать*; *to bring up* – *a educa, воспитывать*; *to do away* – *a lichida, ликвидировать*.

According to their function we recognize **notional** and **auxiliary** verbs. **Auxiliary (helping)** verbs are those which have lost their meaning and are used only as form words, thus having only a grammatical function. Here belong such verbs as *to do, to have, to be, shall, will, should, would*.

The basic forms of the verb in Modern English are: the Infinitive, the Past Indefinite and Participle II: to do –did- done; to eat –ate – eaten.

According to the way in which the Past Indefinite and Participle II are formed, verbs are divided into: regular and irregular verbs. Regular verbs form the Past Indefinite and Participle II by adding -ed to the stem of the verb. Irregular verbs form the Past Indefinite and Participle II in different ways, they can change their root vowel or the whole stem or remain unchangeable.

THE VERB has the following grammatical categories: **person, number, tense, aspect, voice and mood**. The term "grammatical category" refers to specific properties of a word that can

cause that word and/or a related word to change in form for grammatical reasons (ensuring agreement between words).

THE CATEGORY OF TENSE denotes the relation of the action either to the moment of speaking or to some definite moment in the past or future. *Tense is a property of verbs, and most closely corresponds with location in time:*

Verb Tenses in English

ENGLISH VERB TENSE	Simple	Progressive	Perfect	Perfect Progressive
PRESENT	I eat.	I am eating.	I have eaten.	I have been eating.
PAST	I ate.	I was eating.	I had eaten.	I had been eating.
FUTURE	I will eat.	I will be eating.	I will have eaten.	I will have been eating.

THE CATEGORY OF ASPECT shows the way in which the action develops, if it is in progress or completed, etc. There are four groups of tenses: *Indefinite, Continuous, Perfect and Perfect Continuous*. The Indefinite form has no aspect characteristics while, the Continuous, Perfect and Perfect Continuous forms denote both time and aspect relations. Each of these forms includes four tenses: Present, Past, Future and Future in the Past (future from the point of view of the past). Thus, there are 16 tenses in English.

The aspective meaning of the verb different from its temporal meaning, reflects the inherent (proper) mode of the realization of the process irrespective of its timing.

There are two sets of forms in the Modern English verb which are contrasted with each other on the principle of use or non-use of the pattern (model) "*be + Participle I*"

- E.g. writes – is writing
 wrote – was writing
 will write – will be writing
 has written – has been writing.

The basic difference between the two sets of forms appears to be this: an action going on continuously during a given period of time and an action not limited and not described by the very form of the verb as proceeding in such manner.

Each of the two aspects has been given a name: *continuous aspect* and *common aspect*. O.Jespersen and N.Irtenyeva consider that the form *is writing* is the meaning of *simultaneity* of an action with another action. Prof. I. Ivanova recognizes that *is writing* is an aspect form, of the

Continuous aspect, but *writes* are not an aspect form at all, because its meaning cannot be clearly defined. She denies the existence of the *common aspect*.

Besides the various theories with reference to the opposition *writes – is writing*, various terms have been proposed. H.Sweet used the term "definite tenses" for what we call the continuous aspect. Another term which has been used is "expanded form" or "progressive form". The term "form" in the opinion of B.Ilyish gives only a characteristic of the analytical structure of the form, without indicating its meaning. That is why the term "continuous aspect" is used. Comparing with other languages, for example, Russian we may conclude that the Russian language has two aspects: *the perfective* and *the imperfective*.

`Russian	написал	писал
`English	continuous	common

THE CATEGORY OF VOICE indicates the relation of the predicate to the subject and the object. There are 2 voices in English: The Active Voice, The Passive Voice.

A passive voice construction is a grammatical voice construction that is found in many languages. In a clause with passive voice, the grammatical subject expresses the theme or patient of the main verb – that is, the person or thing that undergoes the action or has its state changed. This contrasts with active voice, in which the subject has the agent role. For example, in the passive sentence "The tree was pulled down", the subject (the tree) denotes the patient rather than the agent of the action. In contrast, the sentences "Someone pulled down the tree" and "The tree is down" are active sentences.

English, like some other languages, uses a periphrastic passive. Rather than conjugating directly for voice, English uses the past participle form of the verb plus an auxiliary verb, either *be* or *get* (called linking verbs in traditional grammar), to indicate passive voice.

- The money **was donated** to the school.
- The vase **got broken** during the fight.
- All men **are created** equal.

If the agent is mentioned, it usually appears in a prepositional phrase introduced by the preposition *by*.

- *Without agent*: The paper was marked.
- *With agent*: The paper was marked **by Mr. Tan**.

The subject of the passive voice usually corresponds to the direct object of the corresponding active-voice formulation (as in the above examples), but English also allows passive constructions in which the subject corresponds to an indirect object or preposition complement:

- We **were given** tickets. (subject *we* corresponds to the indirect object of *give*)

- Tim **was operated on** yesterday. (subject *Tim* corresponds to the complement of the preposition *on*).

Voice is a property of **transitive verbs**, and expresses the relationship of the subject to the action. Voice has two values: **Active**: the subject does the action, **Passive**: the subject receives the action.

Active	Passive
1. Lata <i>sings</i> lovely songs.	Lovely songs <i>are sung</i> by Lata.
2. We <i>did not grow</i> rice.	Rice <i>was not grown</i> by us.
3. What <i>do you want</i> ?	What <i>is wanted</i> by you?
4. They <i>will run</i> a race.	A race <i>will be run</i> by them.
5. Tom <i>is building</i> a house.	A house <i>is being built</i> by Tom.
6. I <i>was writing</i> a letter.	A letter <i>was being written</i> by me.
7. Someone <i>has stolen</i> my purse.	My purse <i>has been stolen</i> (by someone).
8. She <i>had finished</i> her work.	Her work <i>had been finished</i> by her.
9. People <i>will admire</i> him.	He <i>will be admired</i> (by people).
10. <i>Did</i> no one <i>help</i> you?	<i>Were</i> you <i>not helped</i> (by the anyone)?
11. <i>Will</i> she <i>deliver</i> the message?	<i>Will</i> the message <i>be delivered</i> by her?
12. <i>Respect</i> your elders.	Elders <i>should be respected</i> .

A **transitive verb** can take a **direct object**. (An intransitive verb does not take a direct object.)

The Active Voice shows that the subject is the doer of the action expressed by the predicate. The Passive Voice shows that the subject is acted upon.

THE CATEGORY OF MOOD indicates the attitude of the speaker towards the action from the point of view of its reality. We distinguish the indicative mood, the imperative mood, and the subjunctive mood.

Mood is a property of **verbs**, and relates to the speaker's feelings about the reality of what he is saying. Mood has three values:

There are three major moods in English:

The Indicative Mood. This states facts or asks questions. For example:
They are playing the guitar.
Are they playing the guitar?

The Imperative Mood. This expresses a command or a request. For example:
Play the guitar!
Please play the guitar.

The Subjunctive Mood. This shows a wish or doubt. For example:
I suggest that Lee play the guitar.
I propose that Lee be asked to play the guitar.
If I were Lee, I would play the guitar.

EXERCISES:

I Determine:

1. The grocery clerk **will** carry your bags out for you.

- helping verb
- main verb

2. The mail **arrived** after I left.

- transitive verb
- intransitive verb

3. I have already **done** my homework.

- regular verb
- irregular verb

4. That book you recommended **sounds** interesting.

- linking verb
- non-linking verb

5. I **prefer** cream rather than milk.

- dynamic verb
- stative verb

6. Jerry **studies** for three hours every day.

- helping verb
- main verb

7. We **looked** at all of the art in the museum.

- regular verb
- irregular verb

8. Would you **take** a picture for us?

- transitive verb
- intransitive verb

9. I don't want to **fight** about who gets the car.

- dynamic verb
- stative verb

10. I **have** had this phone for two years.

helping verb

main verb

11 "Ask her if she has finished her homework." Which is the auxiliary verb?

ask

has

finished

12. Which is the base form of the verb?

am

be

was

13. A gerund is a noun form created by adding _____ to the base form of a verb.

-er

-ed

-ing

14. In the sentence "Come here!", the verb is

imperative

transitive

subjunctive

15. Which doesn't take a direct object?

a main verb

a transitive verb

an intransitive verb

16. Which can be linking verbs?

will, can, may

be, seem, look

see, tell, give

77. "You should try to eat more fruit." Which is the modal verb?

should

try

to eat

18. In the sentence "I was working all day", *working* is a

past participle

present participle

gerund

19. Which is a phrasal verb?

turn on

turn here

have a turn

20. Which is an example of a verb in the subjunctive form?

tell her I came

ask her to come

suggest that she come.

In the way of *non-finite forms (verbids, verbals)* one can say that the main difference between them and finite forms is that they can't be predicates by themselves. The non-finite forms perform different functions according to their intermediary nature (syntactic subject, object, attribute, adverbial modifier)

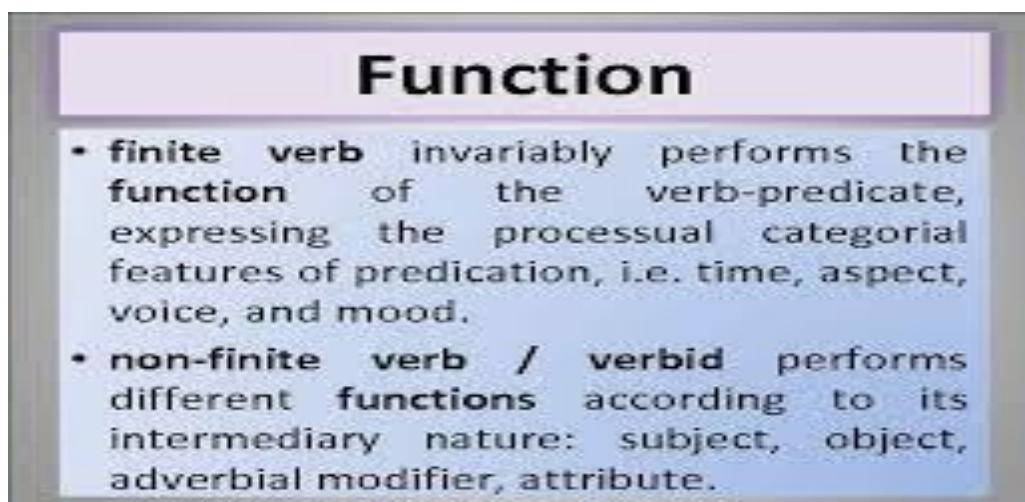
The non-finite forms (verbids, verbals) are:

The *Infinitive* which as a non-finite form combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun.

The *Gerund* is the non-finite form of the verb which like the Infinitive combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun.

The *Participle* is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective and adverb.

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



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

Like the finite forms of the verb, the verbals have *tense* and *voice distinctions*, but they differ greatly from those of the finite ones.

There are three verbals in English: the *Participle*, the *Gerund* and the *Infinitive*.

The characteristic traits of the verbals are as follows:

1. The *Participle* combines the characteristics of a verb with those of an adjective and adverb; the *Gerund* and the *Infinitive* combine the characteristics of a verb with those of a noun.

It follows that they (the verbals) have a double nature, *nominal* and *verbal*.

2. The *tense* distinctions of the verbals are not *absolute*, like those of the finite verb, but *relative*; the form of a verbal does not show if the action it denotes refers to the *present*, *past* or *future*; it shows only whether the action expressed by the verbal is *simultaneous* with the action expressed by the finite verb or *prior (anterior)* to it.

3. All the verbals can form *predicative constructions*, that is constructions consisting of two elements, a *nominal* (noun or pronoun) and a *verbal* (participle, gerund or infinitive); the verbal element stands in predicate relation to the nominal element, that is in a relation similar to that between the subject and the predicate of the sentence. In most cases predicative constructions form syntactic units, serving as one part of the sentence subject, object, attribute, adverbial modifier). In the sentence a verbal may occur: *singly*, *in phrases* and in *predicative constructions*.

4. THE PARTICIPLE. PARTICIPLE CONSTRUCTIONS

The participle is a non-finite form of the verb which has a verbal and an adjectival or an adverbial character. There are two participles in English - *Participle I* and *Participle II* - traditionally called the *Present Participle* and the *Past Participle*.

1. Participle I of a transitive verb can take a direct object.

E.g. *Opening the book*, he found a letter in it.

2. Participle I and Participle II can be modified by an adverb.

E.g. *Locking the door hurriedly*, he ran out.

Deeply impressed by the letter, he decided to read it again.

3. Participle I has *tense* distinctions; Participle I of transitive verbs has *voice* distinctions too.

Tense Voise	Active	Passive
Indefinite	reading	being read
Perfect	having read	having been read

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

E.g. When *reading* "Three Men in a Boat", one can't help laughing.

When *reading* "Three Men in a Boat" a second time, I couldn't help laughing again.

When *reading* "Three Men in a Boat", you will roar with laughter, I am sure.

Participle I Perfect Active and *Passive* denotes an action prior to the action expressed by the finite form, that's why can't be an attribute.

E.g. *Having read* the book I knew its content.

Having been read by the students, the teachers organised the discussion of the book.

Participle II has no *tense* distinctions, it has only one *voice* form-passive, of the transitive verbs.

E.g. *a translated book, a broken glass, a fixed hour, a visited place.*

The functions of Participle I in the sentence

1. Participle I as an attribute.

Only Participle I Indefinite Active can be used as an attribute, Participle I Passive is very seldom used as an attribute.

E.g. We admired the moon *shining at night*.

The house *being illuminated brightly* attracted everybody's attention.

Participle I Perfect Active and Passive is not used attributively, because it expresses an anterior action, not simultaneous like *Participle I Indefinite*.

2. Participle I as an adverbial modifier.

(a) of time

E.g. *Approaching* the door he discovered the door open.

Having finished his work he went home.

(b) of cause

E.g. *Being busy* he could not go anywhere.

Having lost the bus, he was late for work.

(c) of manner and attendant circumstances

E.g. He began to walk carefully, counting his steps.

(d) of comparison.

E.g. She stopped talking *as if waiting for an answer*.

3. Participle I as a predicative.

E.g. The effect of her words was terrifying.

4. Participle I as part of a complex object.

E.g. We heard the footsteps *approaching*.

5. Participle I as part of a compound verbal predicate.

E.g. Other footsteps *were heard crossing* the room.

6. Participial phrase as parenthesis (introductory word).

E.g. *Frankly speaking*, I don't like this idea.

Participle II can be:

as an attribute

E.g. He answered through the locked door.

adverbial modifier

(a) of time

E.g. *When asked* he could say nothing.

b) of condition

E.g. A crime, *if discovered*, would bring him into the police.

(c) of comparison

E.g. He cried, *as if he saw a ghost*.

(c) of concession

E.g. Her disposition, *though spoilt*, was not broken completely.

Participle II as a predicative

The front door was *locked*, but the back door was *open*.

Participle II as part of a **complex object**.

I have found her *changed*.

Predicative constructions with the participle

In Modern English we find the following constructions with the participle:

1. the Objective Participial Construction;
2. the Subjective Participial Construction;
3. the Nominative Absolute Participial Construction;
4. the Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction.

1. The Objective Participial Construction

In this construction the participle is in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case.

E.g. After a long and difficult road we could hear her *mother breathing heavily*.

The Objective Participial Construction may be found:

(a) after verbs of sense perception, such as *to see, to hear, to feel, to find*, etc.

E.g. I heard *the bell ringing*.

She found *him waiting at the door*.

(b) after some verbs of mental activity, such as *to consider, to understand, to think, to admit* etc.

E.g. She considered *herself engaged to Mr. Smith*.

(c) after verbs denoting wish, such as *to want, to wish, to desire*. In this case only Participle II is used.

E.g. I want *this work finished by the end of the week*.

2. The Subjective Participial Construction

In this construction the participle (mostly Participle I) is in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case, which is the subject of the sentence.

The peculiarity of this construction is that it does not serve as one part of the sentence: one of its component parts has the function of the *subject*, the other forms *part of a compound verbal predicate*.

- E.g. They were heard *talking loudly*
The car was seen descending the hill.

3. The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction

In this construction the participle stands in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case; the noun or pronoun is not the subject of the sentence.

- E.g. *The window of the room being open*, we looked in.

It can be used in the function of adverbial modifier:

(a) of time

- E.g. *The light having been switched on*, we entered the house.

(b) of cause

- E.g. *It being rather late*, we decided to return back.

(c) of attendant circumstances. It is, as a rule, placed at the end of the sentence.

- E.g. *He got up and walked carefully across the room*, his boots creaking at every step.

(d) of condition. It occurs very seldom, almost exclusively with participles *permitting* and *failing*.

- E.g. Time permitting, we shall finish work.

4. The Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction

It may be introduced by the preposition *with*. It is in most cases used in the function of *adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances*.

- E.g. They were walking on and on, *with the dog running after them*.

Note: The Absolute Participial Constructions are usually separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

5. Absolute constructions without a participle

There are two types of absolute constructions in which we find no participle. The second element of the construction is an *adjective*, *a prepositional phrase*, or *an adverb*.

- E.g. *Breakfast over*, he went to his office. (adverbial modifier of *time*)
She went home alone, her heart full of joy. (attendant circumstances)
When a student, he had a lot of friends. (of *time*)

Translate paying attention to Participle and Participial Constructions.

1. Simultaneous translation *provided* at the conference was excellent.
2. For further details the reader is referred to the paper *presented* by Mr. Brown.
3. The temperature of the liquid *obtained* remained constant.
4. The results *obtained* contained some errors.
5. *Translating* this text I did not consult the dictionary.
6. *Addressing* the young man he said he would like to speak with him.
7. *Weather permitting*, the astronomer will proceed with his observations.
8. *There being* many people in the conference hall, we could not enter it.
9. My friend *being ill*, we decided to go and see him.
10. *Time permitting*, we shall discuss one more question.
11. The specialist could continue his work, the defect *having been found*.
12. The boy could continue doing his home-work, *with his mother helping him*.

5. THE GERUND, ITS CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES AND FUNCTIONS

The Gerund developed from the verbal noun, which in the course of time became verbalized preserving at the same time its nominal character. The Gerund coincides in form with Participle I, but not in functions.

The double nature of the gerund

As a natural result of its origin and development the gerund has nominal and verbal properties. The **nominal** characteristics of the gerund are as follows:

1. The gerund can perform the function of *subject*, *object* and *predicative*.

E.g. *Smoking* leads to diseases. (subject)

I like *helping* people in difficulty. (object)

The duty of all progressive mankind is *fighting for peace*. (predicative)

2. The gerund can be preceded by a preposition.

E.g. I am very fond *of reading*.

3. Like a noun the gerund can be modified by a noun in the possessive case or by a possessive pronoun.

E.g. I am surprised at *Nick's working* so hard.

Do you have any objection to *my coming* too?

The *verbal* characteristics of the gerund are the same as those of the participle.

1. The gerund of transitive verbs can take a direct object.

E.g. He made good progress in *understanding* and *speaking* English.

2. The gerund can be modified by an adverb.

E.g. She burst out *laughing loudly*.

3. The gerund has *tense* distinctions; the gerund of transitive verbs has also *voice* distinctions. The forms of the gerund in Modern English are as follows:

TENSE VOICE	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
INDEFINITE	<i>WRITING</i>	<i>BEING WRITTEN</i>
PERFECT	<i>HAVING WRITTEN</i>	<i>HAVING BEEN WRITTEN</i>

The gerund can be translated by:

- a) an *infinitive*, *verbal noun*.

E.g. *Reading* is useful.

- b) by a *subordinate clause*

E.g. He began *by going round the house*.
She denied *having told* that.
On *leaving* the house we went to the nearest shade.
He did not remember *having been* there.
He liked *asking* questions and *being asked* as well.

Predicative constructions with the gerund

The gerund can form predicative constructions, in which the verbal element expressed by the gerund is in predicate relation to the nominal element expressed by a noun or pronoun.

E.g. I don't like *your going off without permission*.

The nominal element can be expressed in different ways.

1) a) by a noun in the *genitive case* or by a *possessive pronoun, if it denotes a living being*.

E.g. Do you mind *my smoking*?

b) by a noun in *the common case* or a *pronoun in the objective case* (rarely).

E.g. I have a good opinion of *Mrs. Smith* always *getting* prizes at song contests.

I am sure you will forgive *me disturbing* you at a late hour.

c) when it consists of *two or more nouns*.

E.g. I object to *Peter and Ann going out* on such a windy day.

d) when it is a *noun modified by an attribute in postposition*.

E.g. Did you ever hear of a *man of sense rejecting* such an offer?

2. If the nominal element of the construction denotes a *lifeless* thing, it is expressed by a *noun in the common case* (such nouns, as a rule, are not used in the genitive case) or by a *possessive pronoun*.

E.g. He said something of *his clock being* slow.

3. The nominal element of the construction can also be expressed by a *pronoun which has no case distinctions* such as - *all, this, that, both, each, something*.

E.g. I insist on *both of you coming* in time.

The use of the gerund

In Modern English the gerund is widely used and often competes with the Infinitive.

In the following cases only the gerund is used:

1. With the verbs and verbal phrases: *to avoid, to burst out, to deny, to enjoy, to excuse, to finish, to forgive, to give up, to go on, to keep on, to mind cannot help*.

Excuse my leaving you in the dark a moment.

Do you *mind my asking* you about this?

Marry *could not help smiling*.

2. With the following verbs and verbal phrases used with a preposition: *to complain of, to depend on, to insist on, to look like, to object to, to prevent from, to rely on, to succeed in, to thank for, to look forward to, not to like the idea of, to miss the opportunity of* etc.

I *insist on being treated* properly.

Do you *think of going* abroad?

I really *thank you for helping me* so much.

Don't miss the opportunity of *seeing her*.

3. With the following predicative word-groups (with or without a preposition): *to be aware of, to be capable of, to be fond of, to be proud of, to be worth (while), to be guilty of, to be busy in*.

She *is proud of being* so pretty.

He *was surprised at her playing* the piano so well.

That evening party *was worth seeing and participating at*.

The functions of the gerund in the sentence

A single gerund occurs but seldom; in most cases we find a gerundial phrase or a gerundial construction.

1. The gerund as a **subject**.

Talking mends no holes.

The gerund used as a subject may follow the predicate; in these cases the sentence opens with the introductory *it*, which serves as an introductory subject, or with the construction *there is*.

It's no use *talking like that to me*.

There was *no mistaking the expression on her face*.

2. The gerund as a **predicative**.

The only decision in this case *is having a break*.

3. The gerund as **part of a compound verbal predicate**.

a) with verbs and verbal phrases denoting *modality*

We intend *starting* this work immediately.

b) with verbs denoting *the beginning, the duration, or the end of an action*

She began *drinking* the morning tea when he came in.

Mary went on *working* in spite of being too late.

He ceased (stopped) *asking* so many questions.

4. The gerund as an **object**. It may be used as a *direct object* and as a *prepositional indirect object*.

Nick loves riding a bicycle and a horse. (direct object)

The time was perfect *for sunbathing*. (Prepositional indirect object)

Predicative constructions with the gerund form a complex object, consisting of two distinct elements, *nominal* and *verbal*.

Mother did not mind *Peter's coming in*? (complex object)

Aunt Poly won't quite approve of *his being here*. (prepositional complex object)

5. The gerund as an **attribute**.

The boy made an effort *of speaking* louder.

There's no chance of *overcoming the difficulty easily*.

6. The gerund as an **adverbial modifier**.

a) As an adverbial modifier of **time** the gerund is preceded by the prepositions *after*, *before*, *on (upon)*, *in* or *at*.

On coming home he found her out.

After leaving his coat and shoes, she entered the living room.

b) As an adverbial modifier of **manner** the gerund is used with the prepositions *by* or *in*.

The day was spent *in cooking* and *washing*.

c) As an adverbial modifier of **attendant circumstances** it is preceded by the preposition *without*.

She was engaged in responsible work, but she went to that meeting *without knowing* its significance.

d) As an adverbial modifier of **purpose**, the gerund is chiefly used with the preposition *for*.

The big hall of the ground floor was used *for dancing*.

e) As an adverbial modifier of **condition** the gerund is preceded by the preposition *without*.

People in Great Britain have no right to come as guests *without being invited* beforehand.

e) As an adverbial modifier of **cause** the gerund is used with the prepositions *for*, *for fear of*, *owing to*.

I feel much better myself *for having taken a course of treatment*

g) As an adverbial modifier of **concession** the gerund is preceded by the preposition *in spite of*.

In spite of being busy, he did all he could to help her.

NOTE: The translation of the phrases: *neștiind*, *не зная* and *fără să spună*, *не сказав* can be translated:

a) with a participle - *not knowing* if it is used in the function of an adverbial modifier of *cause*.

Not knowing the material well, he got a poor mark in his exam.

b) with a gerund - *without telling* if it is used in the function an adverbial modifier of *attendant circumstances* and of *condition*.

He left the house *without telling* good-bye. (attendant circumstances)

He could not leave the house *without asking for permission*. (condition)

THE GERUND AND THE PARTICIPLE

In most cases the differentiation between *the gerund* and *the participle* does not present any difficulty.

NOTE: Unlike the participle, the gerund may be preceded by a *preposition*, it may be modified by a *noun in the possessive case* or by a *possessive pronoun*; it can be used in the function of a *subject*, *object*, and *predicative*. In the function of an *attribute* and of an *adverbial modifier* both the gerund and the participle may be used, but the gerund in these functions is always preceded by a *preposition*.

There are cases, however, when the differentiation between the gerund and the participle presents some difficulty; for instance, it is not always easy to distinguish between a gerund *as part of a compound noun* and a participle used as *an attribute to a noun*.

It should be known, that if we have a gerund as part of a compound noun, the person or thing denoted by the noun does not perform the action expressed by the *ing*-form. For example: *a dancing-hall* (a hall for dancing), *a cooking-stove* (a stove for cooking), *a writing-table* (a table for writing), etc.

If we have a participle used as an attribute the person denoted by the noun performs the action expressed by the *ing*-form. For example: *a dancing girl* (a girl who dances), *a singing child* (a child who sings), etc.

NOTE: Pay attention to the orthography: the gerund with the noun, as a compound as an attribute to the noun is spelt *separately*.

NOTE: Yet, there are cases which admit two interpretations. For example: *a hunting-dog* may be (a dog for hunting) and (a dog that hunts), *a cooking-stove* (a stove for cooking) and (a stove that cooks).

State the functions of the Gerund, translate the sentences:

1. *Falling* is a case of motion at constant acceleration.
2. He could not help *joining* the discussion.

3. In recent years man has succeeded *in controlling* chemical changes.
4. I think of *trying* another method.
5. *In solving* problems, it is necessary to distinguish between fact and hypothesis.
6. The expansive force of water *in freezing* is enormous.
7. The device has the merit *of being suitable* for many purposes.
8. He had early opportunity *of becoming* well acquainted with experimental work.
9. Dr. Brown's *being absent* was very strange.
10. *In spite of not having* any university education, Faraday made his great discoveries.
11. To prevent the metal parts of ships from *being covered* with rust under water, various kinds of paint are being used.

6. THE INFINITIVE

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

The nominal character of the Infinitive is manifested in its syntactic functions. It can be used:

a) as the *subject* of a sentence.

E.g. *To carry such a heavy bag* by a child is not permitted.

Nina's intention now was *to combine* work and rest.

b) as an *object*.

E.g. She has never learnt *to ride* a horse.

The verbal characteristics of the Infinitive are as follows:

a) the infinitive of transitive verbs can take a *direct object*.

E.g. In a moment, she began *to feel a bad smell* from the kitchen.

b) the infinitive can be modified by an *adverb*.

E.g. I tried *to speak correctly* and *intelligibly*.

c) the infinitive has *tense* and *aspect* distinctions; the infinitive of transitive verbs has also *voice* distinctions.

In Modern English the infinitive has the following forms:

Tense Voice	Active	Passive
Indefinite	to write	to be written
Continuous	to be writing	-----
Perfect	to have written	to have been written
Perfect Continuous	to have been writing	-----

The tense and aspect distinctions of the infinitive

The Infinitive are not absolute but relative.

1. The **Indefinite Infinitive** expresses an action simultaneous with that of the finite verb, and it may refer to the *present, past or future*.

E.g. I am happy *to see* you again. (present)

I was very glad *to meet* my classmates. (past)

I shall be pleased *to see* my old friends. (future)

2. The **Continuous Infinitive** denotes an action simultaneous as well with that of the finite verb, but this action is one in progress. It is not only a *tense* form, but also an *aspect* form, expressing both time relations and the manner in which the action is presented.

E.g. They seemed, at the fixed hour, *to be waiting* at the bus stop.

3. The **Perfect Infinitive** denotes an action prior to the action expressed by the finite verb.

E.g. I'm glad *to have seen* you among the young teachers.

NOTE: The Perfect Infinitive is used with the modal verbs *may, might, must, can, could* if the action refers to the past, thus expressing: *probability, supposition, reproach, uncertainty, incredulity*.

E.g. He must *have finished* work it is already late.

She may *have done* that she knows English well.

You might *have brought* the book in time, but you didn't do that.

Mary can't (couldn't) *have done* such things, she is very honest.

4. The **Perfect Continuous Infinitive** expresses an action which lasted a certain time before the action of the finite verb, and it is not only a *tense* form, but an *aspect* form as well.

E.g. She seemed *to have been working* many hours, her eyes are red.

NOTE: The English verb has two aspect forms: *common* and *continuous*.

The voice distinctions of the infinitive

The infinitive of transitive verbs has special forms for the Active and the Passive Voice.

NOTE: There are only two forms of the Infinitive in the Passive Voice: the Indefinite and Perfect Infinitives. The *Continuous* and *Perfect Continuous* Infinitives do not have forms in the Passive Voice.

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

In Modern English the Infinitive is generally used with the particle *to*. In Old English *to* was a preposition used with the infinitive in the dative case to indicate *purpose* (*to writenne* had the meaning 'in order to write'). Later on *to* became the formal sign of the infinitive and came to be used not only to denote purpose but in other cases as well.

However, there are cases when the so-called *bare infinitive* (the infinitive without the particle *to*) is used.

They are as follows:

1. After auxiliary verbs.

E.g. I shall *do* this next week

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

E.g. I can't *do* this, but I ought *to do* it as quickly as possible.

3. After verbs denoting sense perception: *to hear, to see, to feel, to notice* etc.

E.g. I heard him *knock* at the door.

4. After the verb *to let*.

E.g. Let me *tell* you an interesting story.

5. After the verb *to make* and the verb *to have* in the meaning "a impune"; "a face sa...".

E.g. What makes you *behave* in such a way?

6. After the verb *to bid* in the meaning of "to ask - a ruga"..

E.g. She bid me *stay* a little longer with her.

7. After the expressions: *had better, would rather, cannot but, would sooner*.

E.g. I would sooner *refuse* this than *make* you angry.

You had better *re-read* the material and then *present* it for publication.

8. In sentences of a special type (infinitive sentences) beginning with *why*.

E.g. Why not *admit* her to our University?

NOTE: The particle *to* may be separated from the infinitive by an *adverb*; this is called *Split Infinitive*. The adverb of degree is placed between the particle *to* and the *infinitive*. such adverbs are used: *really, actually, completely, entirely, duly (unduly)* - "la timpul potrivit/nepotrivit).

NOTE: Sometimes, in order to avoid repetition only the particle *to* is used without an infinitive.

- E.g. Do you smoke? No, but I used *to*.
 Why did you take a taxi? I had *to*. I was in a hurry.
 Have you fed the child? No, but I am going *to*.
 Would you like to go to the cinema? Yes, I'd (should) love *to*.
 We couldn't do that if we wanted very much *to*.

The functions of the infinitive in the sentence

The infinitive can be used in different syntactic functions, single rather seldom, but in infinitive phrases, oftener.

1. The infinitive as a **subject**.

- E.g. *To tell the truth* was necessary. (subject)
To learn a foreign language is necessary. (subject)

2. The infinitive as a **predicative**.

- E.g. *To understand* this problem *is to understand* the cause of its appearance. (predicative)
 Use *is to be made* of the data obtained. (part of modal predicate)

3. The infinitive as **part of a compound verbal predicate**.

- E.g. He hasn't arrived yet. He must *have missed* his bus. (part of a modal predicate)

4. The infinitive as an **object**.

- E.g. He learned *to draw* at an art school.

After the verbs *to allow, to order, to ask, to beg, to request, to implore, to teach, to instruct* we often find two objects, one of which is expressed by an infinitive.

- E.g. The girl asked her teacher *to help* her in English.
 Mary implored her father *to buy* a bicycle for her.

5. The infinitive as **part of a complex object**.

- E.g. The parents want their daughter *to become* a good pianist.

6. The infinitive as an **attribute**.

- E.g. The subject *to deal with* at the next lecture will be devoted to an important problem. (attribute)
 There is a particular question *to be discussed* in detail.

7. The infinitive as an **adverbial modifier**.

a) *of purpose*

E.g. *To tell the truth* you must have courage.

To calm the child mother had to talk to him.

The infinitive as an adverbial modifier of *purpose* can be introduced by *in order* and *so as*.

E.g. Take off your jacket *so as not to be hot*.

b) an adverbial modifier of *result*, used after adjectives modified by the adverbs *enough* and *too*.

E.g. She was too tired *to be able to work*.

The students were too busy with their tasks *to see anyone* around.

c) an adverbial modifier of *comparison (manner)*; in most cases with an additional meaning of purpose. In this function it is introduced by the conjunction *as if* or *as though*.

E.g. The director looked up *as if to see* who came in.

d) an adverbial modifier of *attendant circumstances*

E.g. He left the place, *never to come to it again*.

8. The infinitive as **parenthesis (introductory word)**.

E.g. *To tell the truth*, I don't want to talk to you.

(La drept vorbind ... nu vreau să vorbesc cu tine).

7. INFINITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

In Modern English we find the following predicative constructions with the Infinitive:

- 1) the Objective-with-the-Infinitive Construction;
- 2) the Subjective Infinitive Construction;
- 3) the *for-to*-Infinitive Construction.

The Objective-with-the-Infinitive Construction

This is a construction in which the infinitive is in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case. Its function is that of a **complex object**.

1. This construction is used after verbs of **sense perception**, such as *to hear, to see, to watch, to feel, to observe, to notice*, etc.

After these verbs only the Indefinite Infinitive Active is used, if the meaning is passive Participle II is used, and if a process is expressed Participle I Indefinite Active is used.

E.g. She has heard *somebody call her*.

A saw the *storm quickly increased*.

We saw *the woman and a child crossing the street* in a hurry.

2. The construction is used after verbs denoting **mental activity**, such as *to know, to think, to consider, to believe, to suppose, to expect, to find, to feel, to trust*, etc.

E.g. We know *him (the boy) to be a hard-working person*.

She found *the book (to be) rather interesting*.

I believe *her to be very conscious*.

The Perfect Infinitive can but seldom be used after the verbs of mental activity.

E.g. Mother found *the vase to have been broken* to pieces.

3. The Objective-with-the-Infinitive Construction is also used after verbs of **declaring**: *to pronounce, to declare, to report*.

E.g. The doctor pronounced (reported) *the patient to be in a satisfactory state*.

The police reported *the thief to have been captured*.

4. The Construction Complex Objective is used after verbs denoting **wish** and **intention**: *to want, to wish, to desire, to mean, to intend, should like*.

E.g. I want *you to be my friend*.

She wished *her parents to buy her a car*.

5. This Construction is used after verbs and expressions denoting **feeling** and **emotion**: *to like, to dislike, to love, to hate, cannot bear*, etc.

E.g. I cannot bear *you to treat* me like that.

6. The Construction is used after verbs denoting **order** and **permission**: *to order, to allow, to suffer (a permite cu greu), to have (a obliga)*, etc.

In this the Objective with the Infinitive if the object is expressed by a noun or pronoun denoting a lifeless thing or when the infinitive is passive. This restriction does not refer to the verbs *to suffer* and *to have*.

E.g. The manager ordered *the car to be put* at the door.

Mother suffered *her daughter to play* with that girl.

(Mama cu greu îi permitea fiicei să se joace cu acea fetiță).

7. This Construction is also used after verbs denoting **compulsion** (obligație, forțare, constrângere): *to make, to cause, to get, to have (a impune)*.

E.g. The teacher got *the pupils to finish* their home task.

You should make *Helen work harder*.

The noise caused *her to be nervous*.

The Subjective Infinitive Construction

Which is traditionally called the **Nominative-with-the-Infinitive Construction** in which the Infinitive is in predicate relation to *a noun in the common case* or *a pronoun in the nominative case*.

The characteristic feature of this construction is the fact that it does not refer to one part of the sentence: one part of it has *the function of the subject*, the second part forms part of a *compound verbal predicate*.

E.g. *Mr. Brown* is said *to be* a famous scientist.

The use of the subjective infinitive construction

1. It is used with a group of verbs in the passive voice; verbs denoting **sense perception**: *to see, to hear*, etc.

E.g. *The bus* was seen *to disappear* at a high speed.

The artist was heard *singing* a nice song.

2. Verbs denoting **mental activity**: *to think, to consider, to know, to expect, to believe, to suppose.*

E.g. *The discovery is believed to have been made last century.*
The new method is considered to have given good results.
She is known to be honest, kindhearted.

3. With the verb *to make*. Being used in the passive voice the Infinitive is used with the particle *to*.

E.g. *The child was made to put on warm clothes it was cold.*

4. With verbs *to say* and *to report*.

E.g. *The storm is reported to have done great destructions and overflowing.*

5. It is also used with the word-groups: *to be likely, to be sure, to be certain.*

E.g. *The guests are likely to arrive soon.*
The weather is likely to change for better.
(Timpul probabil se v-a schimba spre bine).
They are sure to know us.
(Ei desigur ne cunosc)
He is certain to come.
(El cu certitudine (neaparat) va veni)

6. The Subjective Infinitive Construction is used with the following pairs of synonyms, which are used in the active voice: *to seem* and *to appear* (probabil); *to happen* and *to chance* (a se întâmpla); *to prove* and *to turn out* (a confirma).

E.g. *They seemed to have forgotten about the evening party.*
He happened (întâmplător) to be out when she called.
They chanced to observe an unusual effect.
The test proved to be too difficult for a first-year student.

The For-to-Infinitive Construction

This is a construction in which the infinitive is in predicate relation to a noun or pronoun preceded by the preposition *for*. The construction can have different functions in the sentence.

It can be:

1. **Subject** (often with the introductory *it*)

I think it would be better *for you to start work again*.

2. Predicative.

That was *for him to decide*.

3. Complex object.

He waited *for her to come*.

They asked *for the documents to be prepared*.

4. Attribute.

The parents had a comfortable house *for them to live in*.

There was nothing *for her to do*, but agree.

5. Adverbial modifier:

a) of purpose

Here is the book *for you to read*.

He opened the door *for me to come in*.

b) of result

She spoke slowly enough *for us to take notes*.

It was too late *for him to catch the train*.

Revision of the predicative constructions with the Infinitive; the functions of the Infinitive

1. *The substance* is found *to be useful*. (CS)
2. This substance *is to be found* in nature. (part of modal predicate)
3. The metal *to be found* in this area (alloy) is of great value. (attribute)
4. He found *this substance to be* very valuable. (CO)
5. They find *this book to be* very difficult. (CO)
6. *This book* is believed *to be* difficult. (CS)
7. These phenomena *are to be taken into consideration*. (part of modal predicate)
8. The phenomena *to be considered* are very complicated. (attribute)
9. How can you prove *the suggested method to be* adequate? (CO)
10. *Atoms* were assumed *to be indivisible particles* of the elementary substance. (CS)
11. We may assume *this to be* the case. (CO)
12. *He* was found *to have* abilities rarely met. (CS)
13. Now that we have found *the person to know* this case in detail, we can start the discussion. (CO)
14. Dr. Brown expected *the organizing committee to invite* him to the conference. (CO)
15. *There seems to be* some confusion of terms in the paper. (CS)

16. A number of *slats* have been prepared in the laboratory *which* have not been found to *occur* naturally. (CS)
17. The tendency *is for the ice to melt*. (predicative)
18. The tendency *for the ice to melt* under applied forces is well-known. (attribute)
19. *For an observation to be service*, two facts must be known. (adverbial modifier or purpose)
20. Here is one more important point *for the speaker to explain*. (attribute)
21. He spoke loud enough *for everybody to hear*. (adverbial modifier of result)
22. The girl put on rather an elegant dress *for the guests to admire her*. (adverbial modifier of result (consequence))
23. *For your memory to be strong*, you should practice memorizing things. (adverbial modifier of purpose).
24. It is necessary *for the students to know this*. (subject)
25. The decision *is easy for him to make*. (part of the predicative)
26. That wasn't the unique mistake for him to make. (attribute)
27. The purpose is *for the higher education to be free*. (predicative)
28. The only conclusion *for him to make* was the following. (attribute)

8. DEALING WITH MODALITY (MODAL FORMS)

In linguistics and philosophy, **modality** is the phenomenon whereby language is used to discuss possible situations. For instance, a modal expression may convey that something is likely, desirable, or permissible. Quintessential modal expressions include **modal auxiliaries** such as English "should", modal adverbs such as "probably", and modal adjectives such as "conceivable". However, modal components have been identified in the meanings of countless natural language expressions.

Modality has been intensely studied from a variety of perspectives. Within linguistics, **typological** studies have traced crosslinguistic variation in the strategies used to mark modality, with a particular focus on its interaction with **Tense–aspect–mood marking**. Theoretical linguists have sought to analyze both the propositional content and discourse effects of modal expressions using formal tools derived from *modal logic*. Within philosophy, linguistic modality is often seen as a window into broader metaphysical notions of necessity and possibility.

In grammar and semantics, **modality** refers to linguistic devices that indicate the degree to which an observation is possible, probable, likely, certain, permitted, or prohibited. In English, these notions are commonly (though not exclusively) **expressed** by modal auxiliaries, such as can, might, should, and will.

Modality is a semantic category indicating the degree of factuality that the speaker ascribes (gives) to his message. A message can be presented by its author as a statement of facts, a request or an order, or something that is obligatory, possible or probable but not an established fact. There is great difference between proving (stating) that something is and suggesting that it should be or might be.

The translation is considered to be correct if it has the same modality as the ST. The task of the translator is to understand various modal relationships given in the ST and to choose the corresponding means in the TT.

There are 3 main types of language units to express modality in English: modal verbs, modal words and word groups and mood forms.

Modal verbs in English are widely used. In the TL the modal verb may not have any particular modal meaning.



She can sing and dance very well.

Ea cântă și

Она поет

I can see him running towards us.

Вижу как он бежит к нам.

Îl văd fugînd spre noi.

Why should she say such things?

Почему она говорит такое?

De ce vorbește așa lucruri ? .

There is no direct correspondence, f.e., between the English and Romanian/Russian modal verb "should" and the translator must choose the appropriate word which fits the concrete context. Let's take this verb as an example:

"*You should go and see him*", *should* – may be rendered in the TL by one of the modal verbs expressing obligation.

a) *Вы должны навестить его. Trebuie să-l vizitați.*

b) *Вам необходимо навестить его. E necesar ca să-l vizitați.*

c) *Вам следует навестить его. Se cuvine să-l vizitați.*

d) *Вам следовало бы навестить его. S-ar cuveni să-l vizitați.*

Most English modal verbs are polysemantic.

Must – expresses obligation or a high degree of probability; **may** – probability or moral possibility (permission); **can** – denotes physical or moral ability, possibility.

E.g. *You must do this at once.* (obligation)

He must be in the corridor. (probability)

He may know him. (probability)

He may say what he wants. (permission)

He cannot do such work. (not admitted)

I cannot leave this work for next week. (moral duty)

A modal verb used with the Perfect Infinitive loses the polysemantic character.

Must have been – means *certainty*, a high degree of probability; **may have been** – probability; **can't have been** – improbability, incredulity. After *must*, *may*, *cannot* the Perfect Infinitive may indicate a prior action, after (*should*, *ought to*, *could*, *to be to*) an action that has not taken place.

*He **must have come**, it is already late.*

El crede că a venit

Должно быть он пришел.

*You **should have told** me about the conference.*

Trebuia să-mi spui ...

Вы должны были (вам следовало) ...

Might have been can have different meanings: a prior action, an action that has not taken place or an imaginable action.

*I **might have been wrong**.*

Probabil am greșit.

Возможно, я была неправа.

*You **might have done** it in time. (reproach)*

Ați fi putut să faceți la timp.

Вы могли бы сделать это вовремя.

Among other means of expressing modality there are **modal words**: *certainly, apparently, presumably, surely, of course, in fact, indeed* as well as **predicative structures**: *it is reported, it is presumed*. They express different shades of modality.

The English **mood forms** are purely structural and express no modal meanings, that are to be reproduced in translation.

*It is necessary that everybody **should do** his duty.*

Important e ca fiecare să-și îndeplinească angajamentele.

Важно чтобы каждый выполнил свой долг.

*He suggested that we all **should go** home, it was late.*

El a propus să mergem acasă, era târziu.

Он предложил всем пойти домой, поздно.

Modal Verbs: shall, will

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

It expresses *order, compulsion, threat or warning, promise*. As a rule, *shall* is not translated.

1. *Strict order or compulsion* (forțare, obligație). It is used with the second and third persons and has a strong stress.

E.g. She *shall do* this tomorrow. (compulsion)

Oh, my God, you shall do nothing of the kind.

(Jur, nu veți face așa ceva.)

(Клянусь, вы этого не сделаете.)

2. *Threat or warning* (2nd and 3rd persons) with a weak stress.

E.g. You *shall regret* your behaviour. (warning)

3. *Promise* (2nd and 3rd persons - weak stress)

E.g. Come here. You *shall not be punished*. (promise)

I shall help you, remember. You *shall be* given everything.

Will is also both a modal and an auxiliary for expressing futurity.

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

Volition, intention. it is used with all persons but mostly with the first person.

E.g. What's the matter? Why do you interfere with me?

Shall/Should

Shall is used as modal with the II and III persons (singular and plural) to express:

a. *necessity, obligation* made by the speaker.

E.g. You shall stay just where you are. (va trebui)

b. *promise or decision* to fulfill an action.

E.g. You shall have the bicycle. (vei avea, promit)

c. *order, obligation* in official documents.

E.g. Each competitor shall wear a number. (concurenții vor purta, vor trebui)

d. *request* of a piece of advice or suggestion. (cerere a unui sfat)

E.g. Shall we go to the concert?

What do you say girls, shall Jane come with us?

e. *offer to do some service*

E.g. Shall I help you with your luggage? (să te ajut)

Should can express:

a. *obligation, weaker than must*

E.g. You should study harder.

b. *obligation or modal duty*

E.g. We should congratulate them.

c. *recommandation* in form of advice

E.g. You should stay in bed for three days.

d. *necessity logical deduction, anticipation* of a probable action

E.g. It should be about ten (Probabil că este)

e. *a possible but not sure action* in conditional sentences after *if*.

E.g. If he should come I'll let you know.

(Dacă va veni cumva, le voi anunța)

Should + Substantive (noun) + V in interrogative sentences expresses *affective state, surprise, indignation, disapproval*.

E.g. How should I know? (De unde să știu)

Whom should I meet yesterday in the street?

(Pe cine întâlnesc ieri pe stradă?)

E.g. Why should I do this? (De ce aș face?)

Should + be + V_{ing} shows *advice or recommendation* to do the action in the moment of speaking.

E.g. You should be studying for your test now. (Ar trebui ... /Participle II)

Should + have + V₃ refers to the past to express *an action considered desirable but was not done*.

E.g. You should have asked him. (Ar fi trebuit)

It should have been done years ago. (Asta trebuia făcut cu ani în urmă).

Should + not + have + V₃ shows that the *action done in the past is considered unnecessary*.

E.g. You shouldn't have sold the car. (N-ar fi trebuit să-ți vinzi mașina)

Ought to (ar trebui să) is *synonymous* to *should* but it is *stronger*.

E.g. I ought to start learning for my exam. (ar trebui)

E.g. The money ought to be in my wallet.

(Probabil că banii sînt în portmoneul meu) (deducție)

We ought to be going. (ar trebui să plecăm)

You ought to have watered the flowers. (ar fi trebuit să uzi florile)

Will/Would

Will expresses:

a. *an order, an impersonal command*

E.g. You will do as you are told. (Ai să faci cum îți se spune)

b. *usual actions, repetitive*

E.g. He will watch TV for hours. (Obișnuiește să se uite la televizor ore întregi)

c. *intention, promise*

E.g. I will be back soon. (Am să întorc curând)

d. *decision, insistence to do smth.*

E.g. I will see her whatever you may say. (Am s-o văd, orice ai zice)

e. *actions or inevitable states*

E.g. Such things will often happen. (Astfel de lucruri se întâmplă adesea)

f. *supposition*

E.g. This will be their house. (Aceasta trebuie să fie casa lor)

Interrogative form:

Will + N + V is used with the II person singular and plural to express:

a. *a polite request*

E.g. Will you come later? (Vreți să veniți mai târziu)

b. *an invitation*

E.g. Will you come for dinner? (Vreți să veniți la cină)

E.g. Will you have a cup of coffee with me?

Negative form will + not + V expresses the subject's *refusal to do the action*.

E.g. He won't listen to me. (Nu vrea să mă asculte)

E.g. The door won't open. (Ușa nu vrea să se deschidă).

E.g. I *will speak*, I *will tell* the truth (intention).

(Voi spune adevărul, voi vorbi)

E.g. Do you know anything about the case?

I will not answer the question (lack of volition).

(Nu voi răspunde la întrebare)

Very often **will** is used after the conjunction *if*, having the meaning of volition.

E.g. You may cry if you *will* but I knew. I should inform her.

(Poți să plângi, dacă vrei, dar eu știam, că o voi informa pe ea,
îi voi spune aceasta).

Will is used in *polite requests* (rugămintе, просьба).

E.g. Will you tell me the way to the University?

Note: The modal *will* should not be confused with the *auxiliary will* in American English, where there is a marked tendency to use it with all the persons.

Persistence referring to the present or future:

E.g. Don't say anything else. But *I will tell* everything I have to...

(Dar eu totuna voi spune totul ce am de spus)

(Но я все равно скажу).

It is also used when we speak about lifeless things as if the thing or phenomenon possesses a will of its own (an element of personification).

E.g. I tried hard to unlock the door, it *will* not *open*.

Would + Verb shows:

a. *decision, insistence* to do the action in the past

E.g. He would do long walks. (făcea plimbări lungi)

b. *repeated actions* in the past

E.g. He would spend the evening with us. (De obicei își petrecea serile cu noi)

c. *supposition (weaker than will)*

E.g. She would be about fifty. (Probabil are în jur de 50 de ani)

In **interrogative sentences would + subject + Verb** is used in *polite requests* and invitations (more polite than will).

E.g. Would you repeat, please? (Vă rog să repetați, să spuneți încă odată)

Would + not + Verb expresses the *refused to do the action*.

E.g. I lighted a cigarette, but the girl wouldn't have one.

(Am aprins o țigară, iar fata a refuzat să ia una).

E.g. The logs wouldn't burn. (personification)

(Buștenii nu voiau să ardă)

Modality

I.

a) indicate the modal meanings:

1. This problem *must be settled* if we *are to see* its results.
2. There is a painting by Surikov. We *can see* Surikov crossing the Alps in it.
3. The exact and immediate cause of this letter *cannot, of course, be told*, though it is not improbable that she *may have been moved* by some sudden revolt against his position.
4. One *has only to read* the business journals of Wall Street – to see the real origin of arms race.
5. She wanted to go away, but the rain *would not stop*.

b) interpret the meaning of modal forms:

1. You *could have tried* so very hard, said she.
2. In this opinion the two superpowers *should have made* more progress at the Geneva talks.
3. He lit the gas stove and began to boil the water for tea. It *might have been* six month ago.
4. Entering the church he looked like a childlike man. He *might have been trying* to steal in, unobserved in the middle of a sermon.
5. She was always late for classes but she *would not say* why.

c) render the meanings of modal words:

1. Don't take the umbrella. It is *unlikely* to rain.
2. I am *nearly sure* he did not say that.
3. The workers demand a radical change in foreign policy, and this demand they address not only to their MP's, but *above all* to the British government.
4. That democracy will *eventually* grow far beyond its present limitations – *indeed*, that men will one day look back on this era and wonder how we could even think we had democracy – , I think *certain*.
5. *Perhaps*, they already finished the meeting.

d) mood forms, explain

1. Glancing at her husband, she found no help from him, and as abruptly as if it *were* a matter of no importance, she threw up the sponge.
2. She's your child. I'm not the person to stand in your way. I think, if it *were* my child *I'd rather see* her.
3. I really don't see why you *should make* such a fuss about one picture.
4. It is unthinkable that our sons and daughters, our grandchildren *should live* to see the horrors of the concentration camps.
5. He suggested that we all *should go home*, it was late.

e) to be about + the Infinitive:

1. Water *is about to boil*.
2. The book *is about to appear* on sale.
3. He *was about to leave* when the delegation arrived.
4. I *was about to say* that when somebody interrupted me,
5. She *is* always *the first to come*.

f) pay attention to modality:

1. You *couldn't have tried* so very hard, said the man.
2. He *must have found out* about the conference from the newspaper.
3. No living beings *could have survived* in such a climate.
4. Life *may have existed* on that planet.

5. It is believed that these rocks *could not have been* more than 5000 years old.

g) Examples with personified subject:

1. *One* wants one's patience when you have heard some story fifty times already.
2. It will freeze hard in most parts of the country, *they* say.
3. We could go to Mexico – *they* want officers in the Mexican Army.
4. *You* could not move for the crowds.
5. *It* appeared that Mrs. Bradely was a widow with three children.

II.

a) Change the construction using *must* or *may*:

1. Why don't you see to it yourself? I *am sure you have got* plenty of time just now.
2. Don't be so impatient. I *am sure she's waiting for* you somewhere here, though perhaps. She's *gone away* for a moment.
3. The film *evidently* seemed quite ordinary to her, because she didn't speak very highly of it.
4. Ann hasn't been around long. Perhaps she's *gone* to the park or perhaps she's *playing volley-ball* in the garden.
5. It's no us hurrying. It's past eight and I'm *sure* the shops are shut.

b) Use *may*, *must*, to be likely:

1. Directorul, probabil (cred că) este ocupat cu delegația din Marea Britanie.
2. Ea, probabil, nici nu are închipuire despre aceasta.
3. Corabia, probabil este încă în drum (to be under way).
4. Corabia, cred că a plutit aproape 2 săptămîni (to sail).
5. El, probabil nu va descrie acest eveniment.

III.

a) Change the sentences in such a way as to use the modal verb *should*:

1. I *don't advise* you to insist on his doing the work, he is not skilled enough.
2. *It's a pity* you *did not apologize* to him, he is terribly hurt.
3. I *am sorry*, I didn't encourage the boy to practice sport every other day.
4. *You'd better* put up with these small discomforts.
5. I *don't advise* you to make (take) decisions in a hurry.

b) Translate using *should*:

1. Nu trebuie să te uîți țintă (to eye) la oameni, este nepoliticos.
2. Cred, că ar trebui să îmbraci această rochie pentru această ocazie.
3. Nu trebuia să cedezi (to give up), aveai dreptate. Și de ce ai fi responsabil pentru ceea ce

s-a întâmplat acolo?

4. Nu trebuia să se împace cu acea situație.
5. Ar trebui să analizezi această propunere încă odată.

c) Translate using *should* or *have*:

1. Trebuia să încetați să vă certați (to argue) imediat cum ați aflat că nu aveți dreptate.
2. El a fost nevoit să prezinte argumente ca să-i convingă pe toți că are dreptate.
3. Ea a fost nevoită să abandoneze acest sport deoarece el influența asupra sănătății (to tell on).
4. Trebuia să pregătești totul din timp (in advance). Acum vom fi nevoiți să amânăm întâlnirea (to postpone).
5. Nu era nevoie să ne impună să așteptăm așa lung (to keep smb. waiting).

IV.

a) Change using *can*, *could*.

1. I am quite sure that your friend *was not kept* at the office. Something unexpected must have happened to him.
2. It's hardly possible that they are still making preparations for the experiment.
3. I don't believe he took over the job. He is quite unskilled in this field.
4. I don't think Peter has declined our invitation because he doesn't want to meet you.
5. Was he able to make such mistakes? He knows the language very well.

b) Translate using *can* or *could*?

1. Nu se poate ca el să fi făcut acest lucru, l-a început numai ieri.
2. Oare el este atât de indiferent față de această invenție?
3. Nu putea să aleagă această profesie împotriva voinței sale.
4. Oare această carte este atât de plictisitoare? Nuvelele acestui scriitor atrag atenția tuturor.
5. Nu cred ca a putut întârzia la serviciu fără motiv, el este foarte punctual.

9. THE SEQUENCE OF TENSES

Sequence of tenses (known in Latin as *consecutio temporum*, and also known as **agreement of tenses**, **succession of tenses** and **tense harmony**) is a set of grammatical rules of a particular language, governing the agreement between the tenses of verbs in related clauses or sentences.

A typical context in which rules of sequence of tenses apply is that of **indirect speech**. If, at some past time, someone spoke a sentence in a particular tense (say the present tense), and that act of speaking is now being reported, the tense used in the clause that corresponds to the words spoken may or may not be the same as the tense that was used by the original speaker. In some languages the tense tends to be "shifted back", so that what was originally spoken in the present tense is reported using the past tense (since what was in the present at the time of the original sentence is in the past relative to the time of reporting). English is one of the languages in which this often occurs. For example, if someone said "I **need** a drink", this may be reported in the form "She said she **needed** a drink", with the tense of the verb *need* changed from present to past. The verb in the subordinate clause changes its tense in accordance with the tense of the verb in the main clause. This principle chiefly applies to adverb clauses of purpose and noun clauses.

Basic rules:

1. A past tense in the principal clause is usually followed by a past tense in the subordinate clause.

- She **said** that she **would come**.
- I **realized** that I **had made** a mistake.
- I **worked** hard that I **might succeed**.
- I **found** out that he **was** guilty.

There are a few exceptions to this rule.

A past tense in the principal clause may be followed by a present tense in the subordinate clause when the subordinate clause expresses a universal truth.

- The teacher **said** that honesty **is** the best policy. (NOT The teacher said that honesty was the best policy.)
- Galileo **maintained** that the earth **moves** around the sun.

When the subordinate clause is introduced by **than**, it may be in any tense even if the verb in the main clause is in the past tense.

- He **loved** me more than he **loves** his own children.
- He **loved** me more than he **loved** his own children.

- He **loved** me more than he **will love** his own children.

A present or future tense in the principal clause may be followed by any tense in the subordinate clause.

- He **says** that she **was** at the club.
- He **says** that she **is** at the club.
- He **says** that she **will be** at the club.
- He **will say** that she **was** at the club.
- He **will say** that she **is** at the club.
- He **will say** that she **will be** at the club.

Notes

When the verb in the main clause is in the future tense, we often use a present tense in the subordinate clause to refer to future time.

- I **will call** you when he **comes**. (NOT I will call you when he will come.)



The sequence of tenses is a certain dependence of the tense of the verb in a subordinate clause on that of the verb in the principal clause: if the verb in the principal clause is in one of the past tenses, a past tense (or future in the past) must be used in the subordinate clause. The rule is generally observed in **object clauses**.

- E.g. I *thought* you *had* better books.
 I always *thought* you *would* like the book.
 He *knew* that Peter *lived* in Chişinău.
 He *knew* that Peter *had lived* in Moldova.
 He *knew* that Peter *would* work in Moldova.

Note: The sequence of tenses is not used in *attributive relative* clauses and *adverbial clauses* of *cause*, *result*, *comparison* and *concession* if the verb stands in the Indicative Mood.

- E.g. He *didn't* go to the cinema because he *will have* an exam soon. (cause)
 She *worked* so much for a few days that she *is feeling* weak today. (concession)
 Last year he *worked* more than he *does* this year. (comparison)

He *wanted* to go to the library yesterday, though he *will not need* the book today.
(result)

The sequence of tenses is generically used in *subject* and *predicative* clauses.

E.g. What he *would do was* of no importance.

The question *was* what he *would do* next.

I. Translate into the target language

1. Please tell him **that** I'll be back at 5 o'clock.
2. Please tell me **which** cities you've been to.
3. I'm going to tell you tomorrow **who** else is going to India.
4. Do you know **who** he usually prepares for his exam with?
5. I don't know **who** they're speaking about.
6. Do you know **whose** work they're discussing?
7. Can you tell me **where** you're going for your summer holiday?
8. I don't know **when** we'll be able to go to the cinema or the theatre.
9. Do you know **why** he's done it?
10. Do you know **how** well these students can speak English?
11. Will you tell me **how** I can get there?
12. I don't want to know **what** they're talking about.
13. Can you tell us **what** you're going to read next month?
14. Please tell my teacher **that** I'm going to read a book by Jack London.
15. Can you tell us **what** you have decided to do?
16. Please tell him **that** I'm leaving tomorrow afternoon.

II. Choose the necessary word

1. Do you know (that, what) they are discussing?
2. I can't say (that, what) I liked the film very much.
3. I've heard (that, what) Peter is coming back to Moscow soon.
4. Have you heard (that, what) they decided to do?
5. My friend has told me (that, what) his mother's ill.
6. I'm telling you (that, what) you should do.
7. I feel (that, what) he's right.
8. I feel (that, what) he's right.
9. Do you remember (that, what) he spoke about?

10. Sorry! I didn't hear (that, what) you said.

III. Finish the sentences:

1. He says that 2. I'll tell you who 3. He said that 4. We didn't know either where 5. He asked us when 6. Do you know why ... ? 7. He didn't know why 8. You didn't tell us whose 9. They asked me how many 10. We don't know who else 11. We were sure that 12. A man asked me how 13. I forgot which exercises

IV. Translate into the target language:

1. He says that he lived in Kiev. 2. He said that he lived in Kiev. 3. He said that he had lived in Kiev. 4. He said that he was going to live in Kiev. 5. He knew that Peter was in Kiev. 6. He knows that Peter was in Kiev in 1996. 7. He knew why Peter had been in Kiev several times.

V. Use the verb "to say" or "to tell"

Indirect (Reported) Speech

1. "You ought to be grateful" he ... her in his light cockruse manner. 2. "Look at me, Gretta," he ... her, patting her cheek with his hand. 3. Harris ... them they could follow him, if they liked... They ... it was very kind of him, and fell behind, and followed. 4. He ... I must talk with your friend. 5. Fox ... me that you were here. 6. She ... she would ... us all about it the next time we met. 7. They met some people soon after they had got inside, who ... they had been there for three quarters of an hour, and had had about enough of it. 8. The man ... he would go and consult his master.

DIRECT SPEECH	REPORTED SPEECH
Present simple	Past simple
Present continuous	Past continuous
Past simple	Past perfect
Present perfect	Past perfect
Past continuous	Past perfect continuous
'Will' future	'would' conditional
Can	Could
May	Might
Must	Had to
REPORTING VERB IN PRESENT / PRESENT PERFECT /SIMPLR FUTURE	IT DOESN 'T CHANGE

VI. Transform into indirect speech.

1. "Jell" he said, "have you been in many caves?"
2. "When will Mr. Black be back, Sir? He inquired.

3. And have you anything else you want to explain to me, Danny?"
4. "Who is there?" he whispered.
5. The first question on Mary's side was: "How long has this been known to you?"

VII. Greetings in indirect speech.

1. Nick said to them, "How do you do?" Nick greeted them.
2. He said to them, "Good-bye." He bade (bid) them good-bye.
3. She said to her: "She wished her good-night." Good-night!

Exclamations in indirect speech

1. He said: "I am so sorry! Jane is leaving us."
He said sadly (sorrowfully with sadness) that Jane was leaving them.
2. She said to them: "Thank you for your advice!"
She thanked them for their advice. (expressed gratitude to them)
3. She said: "How pleasant! You are going to spend a week with us."
She cried joyfully (with joy, delightfully) that I was going to spend a week with them.

VIII. Pay attention to the type of subordinate clauses.

1. What she **would say** was of great importance. (subject)
2. The problem was what **she would say**. (predicate)
3. She had firm hope that life **would be better**. (attribute)

IX. Translate into English

1. N-am știut că sunteți ocupat.
Я не знал, что вы заняты.
2. El mi-a spus că știe 3 limbi străine.
Он мне сказал, что знает 3 иностранных языка.
3. Prietena mea m-a telefonat și m-a informat că este bolnavă, și nu va putea veni la lecție.
Моя подруга позвонила мне и сказала, что она больна и не сможет прийти на урок.
4. El m-a întrebat cât timp îmi ia să ajung la oficiu.
Он спросил меня сколько времени у меня уходит на то, чтобы доехать до работы.

5. El a spus, că nu poate face acest lucru deoarece nu are timp.
Он сказал, что не может сделать эту работу, потому что у него нет времени.
6. El a spus, că se va eliber (va fi liber).
Он сказал, что освободиться, как только закончит переводить статью.

X. Finish the sentences.

- he had a car
- He said that he had had a car
- he would have a car.
1. He says that ...
 2. I'll tell you who ...
 3. He said that ...
 4. We didn't know either where ...
 5. He asked us when ...
 6. Do you know why ... ?
 7. He didn't know why ...
 8. You didn't tell us whose ...
 9. They asked me Lowmany ...
 10. We don't know who else ...
 11. We were sure that ...
 12. A man asked me how ...
 13. I forgot which exercises ...

XI. Translate paying attention to the tense form of the predicate:

1. He says that he lived in Chişinău.
2. He said that he did not live in Chişinău.
3. He said that he had worked a lot in Paris.
4. He said that he would take part in the conference.
5. She knew that Peter was not present at the lesson, because he was ill.
6. She knows that Peter was in Chişinău last year.
7. She knew why Peter had done that.
8. He said that he liked the city.
9. He showed me which places he had seen recently.
10. He knew what material he had had to prepare for the exam.

11. Didn't you know whose books they were.
12. The boy knows what he must do every day.
13. Nick knew what he must prepare.
14. Nick knew what he had to bring for the lesson.
15. Nick knew what he had had to prepare to pass exams well.

XII Choose the most appropriate answer.

1. I knew that she Madrid before, so I asked her to recommend a good hotel.
 has visited has been visiting visited had visited
2. She promised to help me if I the answer myself.
 haven't found didn't find won't find wouldn't find
3. He said that they each other for many years.
 know have known knew had known
4. I saw that she to hold back her tears.
 tries is trying has been trying was trying
5. He knew that she as her eyes were red.
 is crying has been crying was crying had been crying
6. I asked her whether she there with me, but she said no.
 goes is going will go would go
7. She said that the robber her when she was opening the door to her apartment.
 attacked has attacked was attacking had attacked
8. I wanted to see her but I didn't know if she in town.
 is was were had been
9. He told me that he would visit them when he from Spain.
 has returned returned will return would return

The treated problems in the didactical support Grammar – difficulties in translation are useful and obligatory for a translator to render the contents of the original – source text into the target text – translation correctly, intelligibly, coherently respecting all the rules and difficulties encountered in the text.

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