# SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE ENGLISH VERB BE AND THE RUTHENIAN VERB *БУЦ*

The verb *be* has been thoroughly researched in English language, and its equivalent in Ruthenian language, the verb  $\delta yu$ , has been researched as well, although not as completely. However, the attention has not been given to contrasting these two verbs. For this reason, in the first part of this paper, the author will collect and present relevant research of several linguists of both languages, and in the second part, she will contrast these verbs through the analysis of the survey, which contains sentences relevant to this topic, originally in English and translated into Ruthenian. Based on the previously mentioned research and analysis, the author will provide a conclusion in which the explanations about how the verb *be* is transferred or translated into Ruthenian language will be given. Additionally, in the conclusion, the author will emphasize the similarities and differences between the two verbs, concerning their use, form and function.

Key words: English, Ruthenian, the verb be, the verb by, contrastive linguistics.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

In this paper, the research and publications of both English and Ruthenian linguists will be used, in order to contrast verb be in English and verb  $\delta yu$  in Ruthenian. As these two languages are Indo-European, there are some similarities between these two verbs. However, since they belong to different branches, some differences are expected in these languages concerning this topic.

The use, form and types of both auxiliary and lexical be in English language have been thoroughly analyzed by linguists such as Thomson, Martinet, Quirk, Huddleston and Pullum. Their grammars provide detailed description of grammatical, syntactical and semantical aspects of this linguistic phenomenon. In Ruthenian language, the authors that focused their attention on the topic of the auxiliary and lexical verb  $\delta yu$  are Julijan Ramač and Mihajlo Fejsa, thus defining and explaining its use and form.

Since in Ruthenian language the contrastive linguistics was not given much attention, there are few sources that can be used when contrasting Ruthenian and English languages. For this reason, the main purpose of this paper is to provide a source for further contrasting works, as well as to give a new perspective about the

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two verbs in question and contrastive linguistics in general. The similarities and differences are emphasized so as to provide more information about the Ruthenian verb  $\delta y u$  that arise from contrasting it with the English verb *be*.

In the first part of the paper, the task was to present relevant viewpoints of the mentioned above English linguists about the verb *be*, as well as to find the necessary information about the verb  $\delta y u$  by using the *Grammar of the Ruthenian Language* of Ramač and papers about sentence constructions and time and aspect written by Fejsa. In the second part of the paper, in order to observe the similarities and differences, a survey was used that functioned as the corpus of this work. The survey contained the list of examples in English language that were taken from the English grammars used previously for the chapter two. These examples were translated into Ruthenian by the students of this language, and through the comparison of the original and translated sentences the results were obtained, based on which the conclusion of this paper was written.

### 2. THE VERB BE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 113) state that the auxiliary *be* has two functions, first of which is as aspect auxiliary.

Ann is learning Spanish. The weather has been improving.

The second function is as passive auxiliary where it takes on the inflectional properties of the verb of the corresponding active, except that any person and number features are determined by agreement with the passive subject *Ann was awarded a prize*.

Uses of the auxiliary be, according to Huddleston and Pullum are:

- 1. for deontic necessity, as in *You are to come at once*; where it is comparable to subjective *must* or, more closely, objective *have*;
- 2. with a passive, where the interpretation can be strong deontic "must" (*He is to be left alone*), or weak dynamic "can" (*These ideas are to be found throughout his later works*). The authors emphasize that there is no active counterpart to the second one. Negation here can be found in its strong and weak case: internal in the strong case (*He is not to be left alone*, "must not"), external in the weak case (*They are not to be found in his later work*, "cannot");
- 3. for future situations, in four ways:
  - a) Present schedule: *There's to be one more meeting*.

- b) Past schedule: *The lecture was to be followed by a buffet lunch*. It is not indicated whether the situation was actualized, but an implicature of non-actualization can be expressed by using perfect tense: *The lecture was to have been followed by a buffet lunch*.
- c) Future in the past: *Only two weeks later he was to have a severe heart attack*. This belongs to fairly formal style, and does entail that the event took place;
- d) Past events following other pasts: She was to make amends later.
- 4. auxiliary *be* is also used when there is a possibility, or something is/was unavoidable:

Mistakes were to be expected.

- 5. There are special uses of *be* in conditionals:
  - a) Open conditional clause: *If we are to get there on time, we must leave immediately*. This example suggests purpose: "in order to get there on time";
  - b) Remote conditionals: *If she was/were to come home now, we'd be in real trouble*. In remote conditionals, be generally serves merely to reinforce the remote modality. This example is interpreted as "If she came home now, we'd be in real trouble".

Another type of the verb *be* or quasi-modal *be* is explained by Huddleston and Pullum (ibid.: 114). It can't appear in a secondary form: *\*I resent being not to tell anyone*. It has agreement form, it takes an infinitival with *to*, it can't occur in a remote apodosis, and its past tense form do not occur with the modal remoteness meaning. The fact that it is labeled as *quasi-modal* indicates that in spite of its one modal property and its modal meaning, this *be* doesn't in fact qualify grammatically as a modal. Examples are some fixed expressions like: *Mary is to blame. The house is to let.* But not: *\*The house is to sell.* 

According to Quirk (1990: 36), the verb *be* is a main verb (with a copular function) in the following examples:

Ann is a happy girl.

*Is that building a hotel?* 

Additionally, Quirk states that be also has two auxiliary functions:

- as an aspect auxiliary for the progressive: *Ann is learning Spanish. The weather has been improving.*
- and as a passive auxiliary: Our team has never been beaten.

In these two auxiliary functions, Quirk (1974: 36) noticed the uniqueness of the verb *be*, since it has a full set of both finite and non-finite forms, as well as eight different forms which he listed in the table below.

		NON - NEGATIVE	UNCONTRACTED NEGATIVE	CONTRACTED NEGATIVE
Base		be		
	1 <sup>st</sup> person singular	am, 'm	am not, 'm not	(aren't, ain't)
Present	3 <sup>rd</sup> person singular	is, 's	is not, 's not	isn't
	$2^{nd}$ person, $1^{st}$ and $3^{rd}$ person plural	are, 're	are not, 're not	aren't
Dest	1 <sup>st</sup> and 3 <sup>rd</sup> person singular	was	was not	wasn't
Past	$2^{nd}$ person, $1^{st}$ and $3^{rd}$ person plural	were	were not	weren't
- <i>ing</i> forms		being	not being	
-ed participle		been		

According to Thomson and Martinet (1992: 116), the auxiliary verb *be* has two forms when used in sentence construction. The first one is that of the principal part (*be, was, been*), and the second form is gerund or present participle (*being*).

Thomson and Martinet listed all the forms of this verb in the two following tables.

## Present tense:

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
I am/I'm	I am not/I'm not	Am I?
You are/You 're	You are not/You're not	Are you?
He is/He's	He is not/He's not	Is he?
She is/She's	She is not/She's not	Is she?
It is/It's	It is not/It's not	Is it?
We are/We 're	We are not/We're not	Are we?
You are/You 're	You are not/You're not	Are you?
They are/They 're	They are not/They're not	Are they?

Past tense:

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
I was	I was not/wasn't	Was I?
You were	You were not/weren't	Were you?
He/she/it was	He/she/it was not/wasn't	Was he/she/it?
We were	We were not/weren't	Were we?
You were	You were not/weren't	Were you?
They were	They were not/weren't	Were they?

The auxiliary verb *be*, as Thomson and Martinet state (ibid.: 117), is used to form tenses. *Be* is used in continuous active forms, as in *He is working/will be working*, as well as in all passive forms: *He was followed/is being followed*. Additionally, *be* can be used in continuous forms in the passive:

*They are carrying him.* (active) *He is being carried.* (passive)

One of the construction with the auxiliary verb *be* that Thomson and Martinet (ibid.: 118) found very important is the *be*+*infinitive* construction, as in *I am to go*. They found several usages of this construction.

The first would be to convey orders or instructions, as in the following examples:

No one is to leave the building without the permission of the police. (no one must leave)

*He is to stay here till we return.* (he must stay)

Thomson and Martinet explain that this is rather impersonal way of giving instructions and is chiefly used with the third person. If used with the second person singular, it often implies that the speaker is passing on instructions issued by someone else. The difference between (a) *Stay here, Tom* and (b) *You are to stay here, Tom* is that in (a) the speaker himself is ordering Tom to stay, while in (b) he may be merely conveying to Tom the wishes of another person.

The be+infinitive construction is a useful way of expressing indirect commands, particularly when the introductory verb is in the present tense, since the distinction disappears in indirect speech. This is seen in the examples given by Thomson and Martinet.

*He says, 'Wait till I come.' He says that we are to wait till he comes.*  The construction is useful as well if there is a clause in front of the imperative:

He said, 'If I fall asleep at the wheel wake me up.' He said that if he fell asleep at the wheel she was to wake him up. It is also used in reporting requests for instructions: 'Where shall I put it, sir?' he asked He asked where he was to put it.

The second use of the be+infinitive construction found by Thomson and Martinet is to convey a plan:

She is to be married next month. The expedition is to start in a week's time. This construction is very much used in newspaper's: The Prime Minister is to make a statement tomorrow. In headlines the verb be is often omitted to save space: Prime Minister to make a statement tomorrow.

Other than the present form, this construction can be seen in past forms as well, as in:

He was to go. (present infinitive)

He was to have gone. (perfect infinitive)

As Thomson and Martinet explain, the first of these doesn't tell us whether the plan was carried out or not. The second is used for an unfulfilled plan. i.e. one which was nor carried out:

The Lord Mayor was to have laid the foundation stone but he was taken ill last night so the Lady Mayoress is doing it instead.

Another construction mentioned by Thomson and Martinet that has the auxiliary *be* is was/were + infinitive, which can express an idea of destiny:

*He received a blow on the head. It didn't worry him at the time but it was to be very troublesome later.* (it turned out to be/proved troublesome)

*They said goodbye, little knowing that they were never to meet again.* (were destined never to meet)

The third construction, *be about* + *infinitive*, expresses the immediate future:

*They are about to start.* (They are just going to start/They are on the point of starting.)

*Just* can be added to make the future even more immediate: *They are just about to leave.* 

Similarity in the past:

He was just about to dive when he saw the shark.

According to Thomson and Martinet (ibid.: 119), the ordinary verb *be* when used with an adjective denotes existence, or gives information about a person or a thing.

Tom is a carpenter. The dog is in the garden. The roads were rough and narrow. Peter was tall and fair.

Also, these linguists claim that *be* is used to express physical or mental condition:

I am hot/cold. They will be happy/unhappy.

With certain adjectives, e.g. quiet/noisy, good/bad, wise/foolish, it is possible to use the continuous form of *be*, e.g. *Tom is being foolish*, to imply that the subject is showing this quality at this time. However, Thomson and Martinet compare the sentence *Tom is being foolish*, which means Tom is talking or acting foolishly now, with *Tom is foolish*, which means that Tom always acts or talks foolishly. Similarly, *The children are being quiet* means they are playing quietly now, whereas *The children are quiet* might mean that they usually play quietly.

Thomson and Martinet list other adjectives that can be used in the same and those are: Annoying, cautious/rash, clever/stupid, difficult. way, formal, funny, helpful/unhelpful, economical/extravagant, generous/mean, irritating, mysterious, optimistic/pessimistic, polite, selfish/unselfish. With some of this, e.g. stupid, difficult, funny, polite, however, Thomson and Martinet noticed that the continuous form may imply that the subject is deliberately acting in this way:

You are being stupid may mean You are not trying to understand. He is being difficult usually means He is raising unnecessary objections.

Thomson and Martinet explain that the ordinary *be* is used for age, size and weight, as well as prices. They illustrated these uses with the following examples:

How old are you? -I'm ten/I am ten years old. (not I'm ten years) How tall are you? or What is your height? -I am 1.65 metres.

Thomson and Martinet (ibid.: 119) noticed that when a noun representing an indefinite person or thing is the subject of the verb *be* we normally use a *there+be+noun* construction. We can say *A policeman is at the door* but *There is a policeman at the door* would be more usual.

Although there appears to be the subject, the real subject is the noun that follows the verb, and if this noun is plural verb must be plural too:

There are two policemen at the door.

In the above sentences both constructions (noun+be and there+be+noun) are possible. However, Thomson and Martinet explain that when *be* is used to mean exist/happen/take place the *there* construction is necessary:

There is a mistake/There are mistakes in this translation.

These sentences could not be rewritten *A mistake is/Mistakes are* etc. In the following examples, the authors marked with (R) the example in which the *there* construction is replaceable by *noun/pronoun+verb*:

There have been several break-ins this year.

There will be plenty of room for everyone.

There were hundreds of people on the beach. (R)

There can be used similarly with someone/anyone/no one/something etc.:

There's someone on the phone for you. (R)

*There+be+something/nothing/anything+adjective* is also possible:

*Is there anything wrong (with your car)?* (**R**)

No, there's nothing wrong with it. (R)

There's something odd/strange about this letter.

A noun or someone/something etc. could be followed by a relative clause: *There's a film I want to see.* 

There's something I must say.

Or by an infinitive:

*There's nothing to do.* (nothing that we can do/must do)

The *there* construction can be used with another auxiliary+be:

There must be no doubt about this.

There may be a letter for me.

Or with *seem+be*, *appear+be*:

There seems to be something wrong here.

Thomson and Martinet emphasize the difference between the unstressed *there* used in the examples above, with *there*, stressed, and used as an adverb: *There's a man I want to see*. (he is standing by the door.)

In order to prevent confusion between the forms *it is* and *there is*, Thomson and Martinet (ibid.: 120) compared the two and concluded that:

- it is is followed by an adjective, and there is by a noun It is foggy or There is a fog.
   It was very wet or There was a lot of rain.
   It won't be very sunny or There won't be much sun.
- when referring to distance and time, there is a change in meaning: *It is time to go home*. (We always start home at six and it is six now) *There is time for us to go home and come back here again before the film starts*. (That amount of time exists)
- 3. *it is*, used for identity, and *there is* followed by noun/pronoun: *There is someone at the door. I think it's the man to read the meters. There's a key here. Is it the key of the safe?*
- 4. *it is*, used in cleft sentences, and *there is*: *It is the grandmother who makes the decisions*. (the grandmother, not any other member of the family)

. . . *and there's the grandmother, who lives in the granny-flat.* (the grandmother exists)

There are various terms used by the English linguists when referring to the verb *be*. When the verb *be* functions as auxiliary verb or copula, there are no other terms. However, when functioning as a lexical verb, linguists refer to this verb as *lexical*, *full*, or *main verb*. In this paper, the term chosen to be used is the *lexical verb*.

## 3. THE VERB БУЦ IN RUTHENIAN LANGUAGE

Julijan Ramač (PaMau 2002: 112) defines full verbs as all the verbs that appear independently or in combination with an object, and denote an action ( $uumau \ \kappa \mu \ddot{u} \varkappa \kappa \kappa \gamma$  'čitac knjižku'). In the other group, there are those verbs which appear with full verbs in the form of infinitive, and convey nuances of it. He refers to these verbs as auxiliary verbs.

Based on the lexical meaning, Ramač (Рамач 2002: 112) divides all the auxiliary verbs into modals, phase verbs and copulas.

Modal verbs denote will, readiness and ability of the doer to do the action denoted by the infinitive of the full verb: *сцец, мочи, мушиц, шмец, знац, мац, раховац, думац.* Ramač gives the following examples: <u>Сцем ци дацо повесц, Неможем вецей церпиц, Мушиш ше уозбилїц, Зна</u> крашнє шпивац, <u>Не шмем повесц, Нешка мам лем учиц</u>. Ютре рахуєм шицко <u>окончиц</u>. <u>Думам пойсц</u> до варошу.

According to Ramač, phase verbs are those which denote some phases of the action expressed by the infinitive of the full verb. In this case, the full verb is always imperfective. The verbs *почац* and *починац* are used to denote the beginning phase: Вон <u>почал</u> приповедац, Дзецко <u>почина</u> ходзиц. To denote the continuous duration of an action, the verbs *оставц*, *оставац* are used: Унук <u>остал</u> *спац* у баби, Вон всоботу вше <u>остава</u> помагац родичом. Verbs *престал престава* учиц, <u>престал</u> учиц, <u>Престава</u> дуц витор.

Ramač (ibid.: 113) emphasizes that modal and phase verbs are considered to be auxiliary verbs only when they appear in the sentence with an infinitive of a full verb. If they are used independently or with an object in the accusative case, these verbs are considered to be full verbs. For example (1)  $\mathcal{A}$  cyem 3Hay. (modal) –  $\mathcal{A}$  cyem 60du. (full verb) (2) Cyeme noŭcy Ha BUJEM. (modal) –  $\mathcal{A}$  HE CYEM MAKU UMAMU. (full verb) (3) Почина бавиц филм. (modal) – Почина филм. (full verb)

Another Ruthenian linguist who discussed the verb  $\delta y u$  is Mihajlo Fejsa. Fejsa ( $\Phi$ ejca 2015: 14) explains that the verb  $\delta y u$  is used as the main verb in the imperfective aspect in the forms: *com, uuu, e, 3me, cue, cy*, and in the perfective aspect:  $\delta y \partial 3em$ ,  $\delta y \partial$  and  $\delta y_{\pi}+B-Hu$  ( $\pi \delta y_{\pi}$  нащивени, but нащивени сом  $\delta y_{\pi}$ ). The second form is used when forming the constructions  $\delta y \partial 3e - \emptyset + V - u$  and  $\delta y \partial 3e - \emptyset + V - \mu u$ .

According to Fejsa (ibid.: 15-17), there are twelve verb phrases in Ruthenian language.

1.	V-ø	
2.	a) V-л	
	b) V-л[+БУЩ-м]	V-л[+сом]
3.	а) БУЦ-л+V-л	бул+V-л
	b) БУЦ-л[+БУЦ-м]+V-л	бул[+сом]+V-л
4.	БУДЗЕ-ø+V-ц	будзе+V-ц
5.	а) V-ни	
	b) V-ни+БУЦ-ø	V-ни+є
6.	а) БУЦ-л+V-ни	бул+V-ни
	b) БУЛ-л[+БУЦ-м]+V-ни	бул[+сом]+V-ни
7.	БУДЗЕ-ø+V-ни	будзе+V-ни

The auxiliary verb буц appears in most active (2b, 3a, 3b и 4) and most passive sentence constructions (5b, 6a, 6b и 7), where in the example 3b, the verb occurs in two forms. Fejsa also found that the sentence constructions with the modal  $\delta u$  have even more variations.

1.	а) БИ-ø+V-ц	би+V-ц
	б) V-ц+би-ø	V-ц+бим
	в) V-ц +БИ-ø[+БУЦ-м]	V-ц+би[+сом]
2.	а) БИ-ø+V-л	би+V-л
	б) V-л+би-ø	V-л+бим
	в) V-л+БИ-ø[+БУЦ-м]	V-л+би[+сом]
3.	а) БИ-ø+БУЦ-л+V-л	би+бул+V-л
	б) БУЦ-л+би-ø+V-л	бул+бим+V-л
	в) V-л+БИ-ø[+БУЦ-м]+БУЦ-л	V-л+би[+сом]+бул
4.	а) БИ-ø+БУЦ-ø+V-ни	би+буц+V-ни
	б) БУЩ-ø+би-ø+V-ни	буц+бим+V-ни
	в) V-ни+БИ-ø[+БУЦ-м]+БУЦ-ø	Vни+би[+сом]+буц
5.	а) БИ-ø+БУЦ-л+V-ни	би+бул+V-ни
	б) БУЦ-л+би-ø+V-ни	бул+бим+V-ни
	в) V-ни+БИ-ø[+БУЦ-м]+БУЦ-л	V-ни+би[+сом]+бул

The lexical verb  $\delta y u$  is used in the sentence construction that is equivalent to the English sentence construction S+BE+complement, as noticed by Fejsa ( $\Phi$ ejca 2015: 30). In both languages, the verb BE/БУЦ is the main verb. However, there is one difference, and that is that the present forms of the verb  $\delta y u$  (*com, uuu,*  $\epsilon$ , *3me, cue, cy*) do not appear on the surface structure when the subject is uttered. However, they do appear when the subject is not uttered.

1a. That's mine.

1ь. То мойо. Мойо є.

When the subject is not specified, the lexical verb  $\delta y u$  in the third person singular and plural in the present tense has the forms  $\epsilon$  and cy. ( $\Phi$ ejca 2005: 39)

Я ту	Ту сом
Ти ту	Ту ши
Вон ту	Ty є
Вона ту	$Ty  \varepsilon$
Воно ту	Ty є
Ми ту	Ту зме
Ви ту	Ту сце
Вони ту	Ту су

The same relationship of the subject and the verb  $\delta y u$  was noticed by Fejsa (ibid.: 38) where the verb is used as an auxiliary in the past tense.

Я ишол	Ишол сом
Ти ишол	Ишол ши
Вон ишол	Ишол
Вона ишла	Ишла
Воно ишло	Ишло
Ми ишли	Ишли зме
Ви ишли	Ишли сце
Вони ишли	Ишли

The lexical verb indicates the gender (example, the second person singular uuon uu) and number (uuon, uuna, uuno for singular, and uunu for plural). The function of the auxiliary verb  $\delta yu$  is to specify the person, which is not specified with the subject.

Another function of the auxiliary verb  $\delta y u$  noticed by Fejsa ( $\Phi$ ejca 2005: 40-41) is to form one of three paradigms of the conditional mood. The first two paradigms differ due to the appearance of the subject in the sentence.

a)	Я би пришол	b)	Пришол бим
	Ти би пришол		Пришол биш
	Вон би пришол		Пришол би
	Вона би пришла		Пришла би
	Воно би пришло		Пришло би
	Ми би пришли		Пришли бизме
	Ви би пришли		Пришли бисце
	Вони би пришли		Пришли би

In the paradigm b), the  $\delta u m$ ,  $\delta u u$ ,  $\delta u$ ,  $\delta u m m$ ,  $\delta u c u e$ ,  $\delta u$  are the changing elements of the verb phrase, whereas in the paradigm a) that element is constant  $\delta u$ .

In the third type of paradigm, Fejsa states that the auxiliary  $\delta yu$  in its forms *com, uu, 3me, cue* is used to denote the person and number.

Пришол би сом Пришол би ши Пришол би Пришла би Пришло би Пришли бизме Пришли бисце Пришли би

The inversion of the lexical verb and the subject in questions is possible in Ruthenian language with most of the verbs. The lexical verb of Ruthenian language functions in the same way as the primary auxiliary verbs and modal verbs in English.

Therefore, as noticed by Mihajlo Fejsa ( $\Phi$ ejca 2005: 43) the auxiliary verb  $\delta y u$  with its future forms ( $\delta y \partial 3em$ ,  $\delta y \partial 3eu$ ,  $\delta y \partial 3em$ ,  $\delta y \partial 3em$ ,  $\delta y \partial 3eue$ ,  $\delta y \partial 3e$ 

## 4. CONTRASTING ENGLISH VERB BE AND RUTHENIAN VERB БУЦ

In order to analyze the similarities and differences between *be* and  $\delta y u$ , the examples from the English grammars were taken and translated into Ruthenian language. The examples were translated by eleven students in total, four of which study Ruthenian language on the Faculty of Philosophy in Novi Sad, and the remaining seven students learn Ruthenian as their second language on the same faculty.

The examples given and their translation of them are the following:

1)	Ann is learning Spanish.	Ана учи шпански.
2)	Ann was awarded a prize.	Ана достала награду.
3)	They are carrying him.	Вони го ноша.
4)	He is being carried.	Ношени є. / Ноша го.
5)	He is to stay here till we return.	Вон муши ту остац док ше нє врациме.
6)	She is to be married next month.	Вона ше одава шлїдуюцого мешаца.
7)	There's to be one more meeting.	Будзе ище /ещи єдна схадзка.
8)	The lecture was to be followed by a	Преподаванє було провадзене зоз
	buffet lunch.	полудзенком.
9)	The lecture was to have been	Преподаванє требало буц провадзене зоз
	followed by a buffet lunch.	полудзенком.
10)	Mistakes were to be expected.	Гришки були обчековани.
11)	If she was/were to come home now,	Кед би тераз пришла дому, були бизме у
	we'd be in real trouble.	велькей нєволї.
12)	Tom is a carpenter.	Том столар.
13)	The dog is in the garden.	Пес у загради.
14)	The roads were rough and narrow.	Драги були чежки и узки.
15)	Peter was tall and fair.	Петро бул високи и бляди.
16)	I am hot/cold.	Цепло/жимно ми.
17)	They will be happy.	Вони буду щешлїви.
18)	There are two policemen at the door.	На дзверох двоме полицайци / полица $\epsilon$ .
19)	There is a mistake.	Єст гришка.
20)	There have been several break-ins this	Того року були даскельо обиваня.
	year.	-

21)	There will be plenty of room for	Будзе вельо места за шицких.
	everyone.	
22)	There were hundreds of people on the	На плажи було даскельо стотки людзох.
	beach.	
23)	It is foggy.	Похмарене.
24)	There is a fog.	Єст молги.

### 5. CONCLUSION

Based on the original sentences in English language and their translation equivalents into Ruthenian, as well as the research done by previously mentioned linguists of both languages, conclusions about similarities and differences between the verbs *be* and  $\delta y y$  can be made.

When denoting existence or giving information about a person or a thing, as well as expressing physical or mental conditions, lexical verb *be* is used in English language where it functions as a copula. From this, a similarity with Ruthenian verb  $\delta y u$  can be seen, since this verb, as well as the previous one, has a function of a copula. In both languages, for past tense, the past forms of these verbs are used, which means *was* and *were* for the verb *be*, and  $\delta y n$ ,  $\delta y n a$ ,  $\delta y n a$  and  $\delta y n u$  for the verb  $\delta y u$ . The same principle is applied for the future. However, since the verb *be* has no future forms, the construction *will+be* or *shall+be* is used. In Ruthenian language, the verb  $\delta y u$  has future forms and those are  $\delta y \partial 3 e u$ ,  $\delta y \partial y$ , which are adequately used where needed. The present tense is where the two verbs differ in their use, since in English the present forms *am*, *is* and *are* are used, and in Ruthenian the copula is not used at all, because the subject and a nominal predicate form the sentence.

The construction there+be+noun is used when there is a noun which represents an indefinite person or thing, where the form of the verb be is in agreement with the tense of the sentence. In Ruthenian, however, *there* in this sense does not have an equivalent, which means that the verb  $\delta yu$  in its past or future forms is used to denote the same meaning. A difference in the present tense is noticed, where instead of the verb  $\delta yu$ ,  $\epsilon cm$  is used.

The auxiliary *be* functions as an aspect auxiliary in English language. However, in Ruthenian, the aspect is not denoted by the auxiliary  $\delta y u$  in either of the tenses, which means that in this meaning and function the auxiliary verb *be* has no translation equivalent, rather the whole sentence is translated in passive voice. The *be+infinitive* construction is versatile and useful in English language, but it cannot be directly translated in Ruthenian since there is no such construction in this language. For this reason, the sentences are translated with passive voice, in which structure for present tense the verb  $\delta y u$  is not included, for past tense the past tense forms are used, and for future tense the future form  $\delta y \partial s e$  is used. If there is an implication that the action was not actualized, which is denoted by perfect tense in English, the verb *mpeõa* in the needed form and the verb  $\delta y u$  in that same form are used together to denote that meaning. Another use of this construction is found in forming conditionals, which in Ruthenian as well contain the verb  $\delta y u$  in their structure, where this verb denotes person and number.

#### Марина Шлемендер

## ПОДОБНОСЦИ И РОЗЛИКИ МЕДЗИ АНГЛИЙСКИМ ДЇЄСЛОВОМ *ВЕ* И РУСКИМ ДЇЄСЛОВОМ *БУЦ*

У потерашнїх роботох руских линґвистох мало ше виглєдовали подобносци и розлики того язика зоз английским, и праве же би ше виглєдовацка робота баржей унапрямела ґу тому, як и же би ше повекшало число таких контрастивних роботох, написана тота робота. Контрастируюци английске дїєслово *be* и руске дїєслово *буц*, намагало ше указац обидва тоти дїєслова на иншаки способ.

У першей часци роботи представени найзначнєйши виглєдовацки роботи релевантни за тоту тему, перше анґлийских, а потим и руских линґвистох. После краткей теорийней часци, представени корпус роботи, хтори представя ґрупа виреченьох на анґлийским язику и їх преклад на руски язик. През поровнованє ориґиналних виреченьох и їх предкладох, достати заключеня хтори представени у дискусийней часци роботи, дзе будзе бешеди о подобносцох и розликох тих двох дїєсловох цо ше дотика их хаснованя, форми и функций.

Ключни слова: руски язик, английски язик, контрастиранє, дїєслово be, дїєслово буц

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