

**MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIALIZED  
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THE CHAIR OF TRANSLATION THEORY AND PRACTICE**

**ON THE THEME: Syntax and the Compound sentences.**

Written by student of the 3<sup>rd</sup> course

Group "A": Ochilova O.

Supervisor: Kasimova A.

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## **Introduction**

**Actuality of the research work:** There are many controversial and not thoroughly investigated points in the English grammar. Nevertheless, in my opinion one of the most difficult and not clear both from the point of view of its definition and description and from the point of view of its practical implementation in speech is use of the syntax in the Compound sentence. Even the name of this grammatical category seems ambiguous in term of its being approached and characterized by different outstanding linguists in our country and abroad and this shows us the actuality of the our research work. No wonder this problem couldn't but arise my curiosity and language interest. I have made up my mind to consider the material compiled on this problem in different sources to clear up the point for myself and to have a better idea about the usage of syntax in the compound sentences in speech. I will learn more information about points of views of English and Russian grammarians. It is very interesting for me to know how English linguists understand problem of Syntax and the Compound sentences and what way Russian ones do it. I will also introduce the most important point of my diploma paper – the usage of the Compound sentence. I want to learn in what cases we should use the Syntax in the Compound sentence.

**The aim and purpose of the work:** The aim of my qualification paper is to compare different approaches to the problem of the Syntax in the Compound sentence with the purpose of investigating the material available for me about the Compound sentence from English and Russian sources.

**The objectives of the work:** The task of the qualification paper is to study English syntax, to reveal the works of scientists and compare with Uzbek language.

**The scientific novelty of the work:** Main goal of the qualification paper is comparative study of Uzbek and English languages.

**The object of the work:** The main object of my qualification

paper is the Syntax in the Compound sentence itself.

**The subject of the work:** The main subject of my qualification paper is the Syntax in the Compound sentence in the works of foreign and Russian grammar schools as well as the main cases of the Compound sentence usage.

**The structure of the work:** My qualification paper consists of introduction and two chapters: in the 1<sup>st</sup> chapter I consider different approaches to the Syntax in the Compound sentence understanding both in our country and abroad. In the 2<sup>nd</sup> chapter I present the main types of the Compound sentence use and perform the results obtained. In this chapter I analyze the use of the Syntax in the Compound sentence by some English and American writers and draw the conclusion based on the material collected.

There is a conclusion too. To write my qualification paper I used the works of the outstanding English grammarians, such as: H. Sweet, G.O. Curme, O. Jespersen and Russian scholars: V. Kaushanskaya, V. Vinogradov. You can see the names of their works in the list of literature, on page 30, and the information from Internet.

## CHAPTER I

### General information about the English sentence structure.

#### 1.1. Structural classification of the English sentence.

The meaning of an English sentence depends on the word order. We put the subject before the verb and the object after the predicate. The cook burnt the dinner. From the point of view of their structure sentences can be divided into: two-member; one-member; complete; incomplete; simple; composite (compound, complex).

A simple sentence contains a subject and a verb followed if necessary. Tom opens the door. Two-membered sentence contains two principle parts – the subject and the predicate. (Fleur had established immediate contact with an architect).

A two-membered sentence can be complete and incomplete. It is complete when it has a subject and a predicate (Young John could not help smiling). It is incomplete when one of the principal parts or both of them are missing.[15,p.87]. One-membered sentence have only one principal part (Dusk – of a summer night) Composite sentence is formed by two or more predicative groups.

According to the traditional view, all composite sentences are to be classed into: compound sentences (coordinating their clauses), complex (subordinating their clauses).

The compound sentence. The form of a compound sentence -when we join two or more simple sentences we get a compound sentence. Tom phoned. He left the message. – Tom phoned and left the message. The name which we give to “joining words” is conjunction. These are the conjunctions which we use to make compound sentences: and, and then, but, for, nor. The complex sentence.

We can join two or more simple sentences to get complex sentences: The alarm was raised. The fire was discovered. The alarm was raised as soon as fire was discovered. The alarm was raised after the fire was discovered. The alarm was

raised when the fire was discovered. We use many different kinds of joining words (or conjunctions) to make complex sentences: after, as soon as, when, that, if, so that etc.

**1. A sentence** is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it.

**2. The classification** of simple sentences is based on two principles:

(A) according to the purpose of the utterance;

(B) according to the structure.

According to the purpose of the utterance we distinguish four kinds of sentences.

**1. The declarative sentence.**

A declarative sentence states a fact in the affirmative or negative form. In a declarative sentence the subject precedes the predicate. It is generally pronounced with a falling intonation.

Charles Dickens was born at Landport, Portsmouth. (*Laing*)

They don't want anything from us — not even our respect. (*Douglas*)

There is a great difference between English and Russian negative sentences. Whereas in English the predicate of a sentence can have only one negation, in Russian it can have more than one.

He does **not** go anywhere.

He **never** goes anywhere. Он никуда не ходит.

**2. The interrogative sentence**

An interrogative sentence asks a question. It is formed by means of inversion, i. e. by placing the predicate (or part of it) before the subject (unless the subject of the interrogative sentence is an interrogative word, in which case there is no inversion).

There are four kinds of questions:

(a) **General** questions requiring the answer *yes* or *no* and spoken with a rising

intonation. They are formed by placing part of the predicate, i. e. the auxiliary or modal verb before the subject of the sentence.

*Do you* like art?

*Can you* speak English?

If the predicate is expressed by the verbs *to be* or *to have* (the latter expressing possession) used in a simple tense form, the question is formed by placing the predicate before the subject.

*Is he* at home?

*Have you* many English books?

Sometimes such questions have a negative form and express astonishment or doubt.

*Haven't you seen* him yet?

In Russian the particles *разве*, *неужели* are used in such questions. General questions are sometimes rhetoric questions, they do not require any answer, but are veiled statements expressing some kind of emotion.

Can you commit a whole country to their own prisons? Will you erect a gibbet in every field and hang men like scarecrows? (*Byron*)

(b) **Special** questions beginning with an interrogative word and spoken with a falling intonation. The order of words is the same as in general questions, but the interrogative word precedes the auxiliary verb.

**Where** do you live?

When the interrogative word is the subject of the interrogative sentence or an attribute to the subject, the order of words is that of a statement, i. e. no inversion is used.

**Who** lives in this room?

**Whose** pen is on the table?

(c) **Alternative** questions, indicating choice and spoken with a rising intonation in the first part and a falling intonation in the second part.

Do you live in town or in the country?

(d) **Disjunctive** questions requiring the answer *yes* or *no* and consisting, of an

affirmative statement followed by a negative question, or a negative statement followed by an affirmative question. The first part is spoken with a falling intonation and the second part with a rising intonation.

You speak English, don't you?

You are not tired, are you?

3. The **imperative** sentence.

See the formation of the Imperative Mood (Chapter VII, *Mood*).

An imperative sentence serves to induce a person to do something, so it expresses a command, a request, an invitation, etc.

Commands are characterized by a falling tone.

Come to the blackboard!

Stop talking!

Requests and invitations are characterized by a rising intonation.

Open the door, please!

Do come to see me to-morrow!

4. The **exclamatory** sentence.

An exclamatory sentence expresses some kind of emotion or feeling. It often begins with the words *what* and *how*, it is always in the declarative form, i. e. no inversion takes place. It is generally spoken with a falling intonation.

What a lovely day it is!

What fine weather!

How wonderful!

Beautiful!

According to their **structure** simple sentences are divided into two-member and one-member sentences. [12, p. 405].

A **two-member** sentence has two members — a subject and a predicate. If one of them is missing it can be easily understood from the context.

**Fleur had established** immediate contact with an architect. (*Galsworthy*)

A two member sentence may be **complete** or **incomplete**. It is complete when it

has a subject and a predicate.

Young Jolyon could not help smiling. (*Galsworthy*)

It is incomplete when one of the principal parts or both of them are missing, but can be easily understood from the context. Such sentences are called **elliptical** and are mostly used in colloquial speech and especially in dialogue.

Best not to see her again. Best to forget all about her. (*Abrahams*)

What were you doing? Drinking. (*Shaw*)

Who does it for Mr. George? James, of course. (*Galsworthy*)

A **one-member** sentence is a sentence having only one member which is neither the subject nor the predicate. This does not mean, however, that the other member is missing, for the one member makes the sense complete.

One-member sentences are generally used in descriptions and in emotional speech. If the main part of a one-member sentence is expressed by a noun, the sentence is called **nominal**. The noun may be modified by attributes,

The main part of a one-member sentence is often expressed by an infinitive.

No! To have his friendship, his admiration, but not at that price. (*Galsworthy*)

To die out there — lonely, wanting them, wanting home! (*Galsworthy*)

Simple sentences, both two-member and one-member, can be **unextended** and **extended**. A sentence consisting only of the primary or principal parts is called an unextended sentence.

She is a student.

Birds fly.

Winter!

An extended sentence is a sentence consisting of the subject, the predicate and one or more secondary parts (objects, attributes, or adverbial modifiers).

The two native women stole furtive glances at Sarie. (*Abrahams*) [18,p.221].

## 1.2. Syntax - English sentence structure

**Definition:** Linguists have problems in agreeing how to define the word sentence. For this web page, sentence will be taken to mean: 'a sequence of

words whose first word starts with a capital letter and whose last word is followed by an end punctuation mark (period, full stop or question mark or exclamation mark)'. On the basis of this definition, some of the sentences written by ESL students (indeed by all writers) will be correct, and other sentences will be problematic. Good readers (English teachers, for example!) can quickly see the difference between a correct and a problematic sentence.[6,p.238].

**Subject, predicate:** All sentences are about something or someone. The something or someone that the sentence is about is called the subject of the sentence. In the following sentences the subjects are shown in red. Note how the subject is often, but not always, the first thing in the sentence.

John often comes late to class. My friend and I both have a dog named Spot. Many parts of the Asian coastline were destroyed by a tsunami in 2004. The old hotel at the end of the street is going to be knocked down to make way for a new supermarket. Sitting in a tree at the bottom of the garden was a huge black bird with long blue tail feathers. The grade 7 Korean boy who has just started at FIS speaks excellent English. On Saturdays I never get up before 9 o'clock. Before giving a test the teacher should make sure that the students are well-prepared. Lying on the sofa watching old films is my favorite hobby. The predicate contains information about the someone or something that is the subject. The example sentences above are shown again, this time with the predicate marked in green.

John **often comes late to class.**

My friend and I **both have a dog named Spot.**

Many parts of the Asian coastline **were destroyed by a tsunami in 2004.**

The old hotel at the end of the street **is going to be knocked down to make way for a new supermarket.**

**Sitting in a tree at the bottom of the garden was** a huge black bird with long blue tail feathers.

The grade 7 Korean boy who has just started at FIS **speaks excellent English.**

**On Saturdays I never get up before 9 o'clock.**

**Before giving a test the teacher should make sure that the students are well-prepared.**

Lying on the sofa watching old films **is my favorite hobby**

**Simple subject, predicate:** As you can see from the example sentences above both the subject and the predicate can consist of many words. The simple subject is the main word in the subject, and the simple predicate is the main word in the predicate. The simple subject is always a noun/pronoun and the simple predicate is always a verb.

In the following sentences the simple subject is shown in red and the simple predicate is shown in green.

My ESL teacher **speaks** a little Russian. The young girl with the long black hair **fell** from her bike yesterday in heavy rain. At the back of the line in the cafeteria yesterday **was** a large brown dog with a yellow collar around its neck!

My friend and I **are going** on holiday together this year.

From the last three examples sentences above you will notice that the simple subjects and simple predicates can be more than one word.

**Sentence types:** One way to categorize sentences is by the clauses they contain. (A clause is a part of a sentence containing a subject and a predicate.) Here are the 4 sentence types:

**Simple:** Contains a single, independent clause

I don't like dogs.

Our school basketball team lost their last game of the season 75-68.

The old hotel opposite the bus station in the center of the town is probably going to be knocked down at the end of next year.

**Compound:** Contains two independent clauses that are joined by a coordinating conjunction. (The most common coordinating conjunctions are: but, or, and, so. Remember: boas.)

I don't like dogs, and my sister doesn't like cats.

You can write on paper, or you can use a computer.

**Complex:** Contains an independent clause plus one or more dependent clauses. (A dependent clause starts with a subordinating conjunction.

Examples: that, because, while, although, where, if.

I don't like dogs that bark at me when I go past.

She did my homework, while her father cooked dinner.

A dependent clause standing alone without an independent clause is called a fragment sentence.

**Compound-complex:** Contains 3 or more clauses (of which at least two are independent and one is dependent).

I don't like dogs, and my sister doesn't like cats because they make her sneeze.

You can write on paper, but using a computer is better as you can easily correct your mistakes.

Although it was raining, we decided to go fishing.

Sentences can also be categorized according to their function.

Independent clauses are also called main clauses. Dependent clauses are also called subordinate clauses.

**Problematic 'sentences':** To write a correct sentence, you need to have a good understanding of what a sentence is. Students who don't have this understanding, or don't take care, often include problem sentences in their writing. Native English speakers are just as likely to write problem sentences as ESL students.

There are three main types of problem sentence

**Run-on sentences:** These are two sentences that the writer has not separated with an end punctuation mark, or has not joined with a conjunction. (Click the following run-ons to see where they should be separated into two sentences.)  
I went to Paris in the vacation it is the most beautiful place I have ever visited.  
It's never too late to learn to swim you never know when you may fall from a boat.  
If you're going to the shops can you buy me some eggs and flour I want to make a cake.  
I like our new math teacher, she always explains the work

very clearly. He was late to school again, his bus got caught in heavy traffic.[16,p.126].

**Sentence fragments:** Fragment sentences are unfinished sentences, i.e. they don't contain a complete idea. A common fragment sentence in student writing is a dependent clause standing alone without an independent clause. In the each of the following examples the fragment is the second 'sentence', shown in red:

I don't think I'm going to get a good grade. Because I didn't study.

She got angry and shouted at the teacher. Which wasn't a very good idea.

He watched TV for an hour and then went to bed. After falling asleep on the sofa. She got up and ran out of the library. Slamming the door behind her.

I have to write a report on Albert Einstein. The famous scientist who left Europe to live in the USA.

**Rambling sentences:** A rambling sentence is a sentence made up of many clauses, often connected by a coordinating conjunction such as and, or, so. John usually gets up before 7 o'clock, but yesterday his alarm clock did not ring, so he was still asleep when his boss called him at 10.30 to ask where he was and tell him that he would lose his job if he was late again. Although the blue whale has been protected for over 30 years and its numbers are increasing, especially in the North Pacific, where whale hunting has been banned, it is still at risk of extinction as its habitat is being polluted by waste from oil tankers and its main food, the plankton, is being killed off by harmful rays from the sun, which can penetrate the earth's atmosphere because there is a huge hole in the ozone layer over Antarctica.

### **Conclusion on the 1<sup>st</sup> chapter.**

Words get combined into more complicated constructions, are called phrases. Then, phrases get combined to make sentences. The proper ordering of words in sentences is called syntax. All human languages have a structure. We call this structure grammar. "I went shopping today and bought a new coat" is a clear sentence. Its grammar is correct. But "I shopping today go coat new

have bought" sounds wrong and is hard to understand. That's because its grammar is incorrect.

Semantics on the other hand, is the study of how meaning in language is created by the use and the interrelationships of words, phrases and sentences. Therefore, syntax and semantics have crucial role in acquiring and learning language. There are two basic principles of sentence organization: linear order and hierarchical structure. Linear order is the most obvious principle wherein the words in a sentence must occur in a particular sequence if the sentence is to convey desired meaning. Although linear order is an important principle of sentence organization, sentences are just more than of ordered sequence or words; they have internal hierarchical structure as well. That is, the individual words in a sentence organized into natural, semantically coherent groupings which are themselves organized into larger groupings, the largest grouping of all being the sentence itself.

## CHAPTER II.

### General information about the compound sentence.

#### 2.1. Definition of the compound sentences.

A **compound sentence** is one that has at least two independent clauses joined by a comma, a semicolon or conjunction. An **independent clause** has a subject and verb, and forms a complete thought. An example of a compound sentence is: This house is too expensive, and that house is too small. This is a compound sentence because it has two independent clauses, separated by a comma and the coordinating conjunction, *and*.

When independent clauses are joined with **coordinators** (also called 'coordinating conjunctions') commas and semicolons, they do more than just join the clauses. They add meaning and flow to your writing. First let's look at the coordinators you can use to join independent clauses. They are: for, and, not, but, or, yet, so Note that they form the handy mnemonic FANBOYS. Here's an example of how coordinators add meaning:

I think you'd enjoy the party, but I don't mind if you stay home.

In this sentence the coordinator *but* shows a clear relationship between the two independent clauses. Also, without the coordinator *but*, the writing is choppy and the meaning less clear:

I think you'd enjoy the party. I don't mind if you stay home. If you join clauses with a **semicolon** you add a pause, creating a different kind of effect as shown in the sentence below:

He said he didn't mind if I stayed home; it soon became clear he wasn't being honest.

The **semicolon** should be used when the two independent clauses are related, but they should also contrast in a way that you want to stand out. Within a compound sentence are:

1. General notion of coordination and types of coordination;
2. The semantic volume of the coordinating conjunctions *and, but, or, for*;

3. The stylistic importance of parataxis. A compound sentence has always been considered as a weak link; it was thought not to be a sentence proper. Kruizinga speaks about loose syntactic groups, not independent sentences. There were attempts to exclude the notion of a compound sentence or to employ new terms to express more exactly the grammatical peculiarities of this type: a double or a multiple sentence, a duplication of the pattern, a multiplication of the pattern: *She would not eat anything and she would not sleep at all.*

A compound sentence is based on coordination (parataxis) and it consists in syntactical equality of two or more parts (clauses), but this syntactical equality does not presuppose their logical semantical and communicative equality. Clauses of a compound sentence constitute a semantical, syntactical and communicative whole. A compound sentence is structured multivariably. It can comprise 2,3,4 or more coordinate clauses which can be joined to each other syndetically, asyndetically (without connectives) or in a mixed way.

Asyndetic connection can be exemplified by the sentences *The larks sprang up in front of his feet, the air was full of butterflies, the sweet fragrance rose from the wild grasses (3 clauses). I span, I wove, I kept the house, I nursed the sick, I made the garden.*

Here is the sentence with a mixed coordination: *Your children are murdered, your husband gone, a corpse in your bathtub, and your house is wrecked.*

Types of coordination are copulative (and), disjunctive (or), adversative (but), causative-consecutive (for).

Each type of coordination is expressed by certain connectives, which are conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs and pronouns, particles, conjunctive phrases: and, but, or, for, moreover, however, whereas, either...or, on the other hand, to say nothing of, etc.

Copulative coordination expresses simultaneous, parallel actions:

*I am the poet of the body and I am the poet of the soul: the pleasures of heaven are with me and the pains of hell are with me (Whitman)*

Adversative coordination denotes contrast. The second part contradicts to what is expressed in the first part: *Sorrow knocked at my door, but I was afraid; ambition called me, but I dreaded the chances* (Edgar Lee Masters).

Disjunctive coordination expresses choice: *Did he not give her everything or was she not everything to him.*

In a sentence with a causative-consecutive coordination one clause expresses the cause of the consequence which is to be found in another clause: *Do not weep, maiden, for war is kind* (St. Crane). *Blessed are the poor in spirit, for theirs is the kingdom of heaven* (The Holy Scriptures)(The Bible).

Coordination is expressed primarily by coordinating conjunctions and, but, or, for, which are polysemantic, polyfunctional; each conjunction comprises the properties of the rest of coordinating conjunctions.

And is the most polyfunctional conjunction. It can substitute for other coordinating conjunctions in most cases. Since Old English till the present time and expresses all kind of relations: copulative, disjunctive, adversative, causative-consecutive, which can be proved transformationally. And joins clauses presenting details of one whole, it can render relative connection, this connection is encountered within a complex sentence: *His book was published and this pleased his vanity. His book was published which pleased his vanity* ( a continuative attributive clause) The distinction between a compound and a complex sentence is neutralized here and we analyze it as composite sentence. And joins clauses with simultaneous or subsequent actions. It can express adversative relations (*Love was offered me and I shrank from its disillusion*); adversative-concessive relations (уступительно-противительные) (*I shrank away from them and I had an acute nostalgia for them. ( though I shrank )*); condition (*Follow and you will see (if you follow)*); consequence (*The hour was midnight and no Forsytes remained in sight (as the hour was midnight, no Forsytes remained in sight), (You wanted her silenced and I 've silenced her. W.S.Maugham)*). Prof. I.R. Galperin distinguished a peculiar coordinative connection, calling it the gap-sentence link. It bridges a semantic gap (a semantic leap) (*She and that fellow ought to be suffering, and they*

were in Italy. J. Galsworthy). This sort of coordination is to be found in represented speech, which represents the unuttered thoughts of characters in the writings of J. Galsworthy, K. Mansfield, D. Parker. It expresses the underlying message, suggestions, implications and associations. The adversative conjunction but can also be polyfunctional in syntagmatics. It can express concession (though) (*New skies the exile finds, but the heart is still the same. M. Helprin*). It can indicate a change or break in narration or simply a turn to a new theme (*He was quite a gentleman, but she had known it from the first*).

As parataxis (coordination) is less demanding than subordination, it is of greater stylistic value. It denotes a semantic leap, the suggested, the unsaid, the implied. K. Mansfield, E. Hemingway, W. Saroyan masterfully employ it. In Hemingway's writings parataxis is the basis for reiteration. It appeals to the subconscious. It implies something timeless, immortal, infinite. The Biblical text (both in The Old Testament and The New Testament) is primarily based on parataxis which expresses profound, solemn, eternal problems. E. Hemingway borrowed parataxis from the Bible to create his famous iceberg technique.

### **Compound Sentence Examples**

A [compound sentence](#) has two [independent clauses](#) or sentences. The independent clauses can be joined by a [coordinating conjunction](#) (such as "and," "for" and "but") or a semicolon.

### **Compound Sentences with Coordinating Conjunctions**

She did not cheat on the test, for it was not the right thing to do.

I think I will buy the red car, or I will lease the blue one.

I really want to go to work, but I am too sick to drive.

I am counting my calories, yet I really want dessert.

He ran out of money, so he had to stop playing poker.

They got there early, and they got really good seats.

There was no ice cream in the freezer, nor did they have money to go to the store.

Everyone was busy, so I went to the movie alone.

I would have gotten the promotion, but my attendance wasn't good enough.

Should we start class now, or should we wait for everyone to get here?

### **Compound Sentences with a Semicolon**

Joe made the sugar cookies; Susan decorated them.

The sky is clear; the stars are twinkling.

The waves were crashing on the shore; it was a lovely sight.

There were white out conditions in the town; subsequently, the roads were impassable.

Check back tomorrow; I will see if the book has arrived.

He said he was not there yesterday; however, many people saw him there.

I am happy to take your donation; any amount will be greatly appreciated.

She only paints with bold colors; she does not like pastels.

She works two jobs to make ends meet; at least, that was her reason for not having time to join us.

Malls are great places to shop; I can find everything I need under one roof.

Italy is my favorite country; in fact, I plan to spend two weeks there next year.

He turned in the research paper on Friday; otherwise, he would have not passed the class.

### **Compound Sentences in Quotes**

Here are examples of compound sentences used by well-known people:

"Always go to other people's funerals; otherwise, they won't go to yours." - Yogi Berra

"Any jackass can kick down a barn, but it takes a good carpenter to build one." - Lyndon B. Johnson

"The drought had lasted now for ten million years, and the reign of the terrible lizards had long since ended." - Arthur C. Clarke, 2001: A Space Odyssey

"Government does not solve problems; it subsidizes them." - Ronald Reagan

"I have often wanted to drown my troubles, but I can't get my wife to go swimming." - Jimmy Carter.

## 2.2. Types of the compound sentences.

A **compound** sentence is a sentence which consists of two or more clauses coordinated with each other. A **clause** is part of a sentence which has a subject and a predicate of its own. In a compound sentence the clauses may be connected:

(a) syndetically, i. e. by means of coordinating conjunctions (*and, or, else, but,* etc.) or conjunctive adverbs (*otherwise, however, nevertheless, yet, still, therefore,* etc.).

The darkness was thinning, **but** the street was still dimly lighted. (*Lindsay*) He knew there were excuses for his father, **yet** he felt sick at heart. (*Cronln*)

(b) asyndetically, i. e. without a conjunction or conjunctive adverb.

The rain fell softly, the house was quiet. (*Collins*) The month was July, the morning fine, the glass-door stood ajar, through it played a fresh breeze. (*Ch. Bronte*) He uttered no other words of greeting; there was too strong a rush of mutual consciousness. (*Eliot*)

We can distinguish the following types of coordination:

1. **Copulative coordination** (соединительная связь), expressed by the conjunctions *and, nor, neither ... nor, not only ... but (also)*. With the help of these conjunctions the statement expressed in one clause is simply added to that expressed in another.

It was a nice little place **and** Mr. and Mrs. Witla were rather proud of it. (*Dreiser*) Mr. Home did not lift his eyes from his breakfast-plate for about two minutes, **nor** did he speak. (*Ch. Bronte*) **Not only** did he speak more correctly, **but** he spoke more easily, and there were many new words in his vocabulary. (*London*)[13,540p]

2. **Disjunctive coordination** (разделительная связь) expressed by the conjunctions *or, else, or else, either... or*, and the conjunctive adverb *otherwise*. By these a choice is offered between the statements expressed in two clauses.

He knew it to be nonsense **or** it would have frightened him. (*Galsworthy*) Don't come near me with that look **else** I'll knock you down. (*Eliot*) Don't fret, and don't expect too much of him, or else he will feel you to be troublesome. (*Ch. Bronte*) **.Either** our union must be consecrated and, sealed by marriage **or** it cannot

exist. (*Ch. Bronte*) A painter has to be forbidding, Dad, **otherwise** people would think he was cadging. (*Galsworthy*)

3. **Adversative coordination** (противительная связь) expressed by the conjunctions *but, while, whereas* and the conjunctive adverbs *nevertheless, still, yet*. These are conjunctions and adverbs connecting two clauses contrasting in meaning. The conjunction *while* is not always coordinating. It may be a subordinating conjunction introducing adverbial clauses of time.

The room was dark, **but** the street was lighter because of its lamps. (*Dickens*) He had a glass eye which remained stationary, **while** the other eye looked at Reinhardt. (*Heym*) The old school-room was now a sitting room... **whereas** one of the old nurseries was now the modern school-room. (*Trollope*) I was not unhappy, not much afraid, **yet** I wept. (*Ch. Bronte*)

4. **Causative-consecutive coordination** (причинно-следственная связь) expressed by the conjunctions *for, so* and the conjunctive adverbs *therefore, accordingly, consequently, hence*.

*For* introduces coordinate clauses explaining the preceding statement. *Therefore, so, consequently, hence, accordingly* introduce coordinate clauses denoting cause, consequence and result. Cause, consequence and result may also be expressed by subordinate clauses, introduced by subordinating conjunctions. There was something amiss with Mr. Lightwood, **for** he was strangely grave and looked ill.

After all, the two of them belonged to the same trade, **so** talk was easy and happy between them. (*Priestley*) Hers (Lillian's) was not a soul that ever loved passionately, **hence** she could not suffer passionately. (*Dreiser*)

There are cases when the conjunction *for* expresses relations approaching those of subordination, i. e. when it introduces a clause showing the reason of the action expressed in the preceding clause. In these cases the conjunction *for* is very close in meaning to the conjunction *because*.

She (Lillian) was not helpless, **for** she had money of her own. (*Dreiser*) But even here *for* is not a subordinating conjunction, as the connection between the clause it

introduces and the preceding clause is loose: a certain fact is stated and then, as it were on second thought, another, statement with a causal meaning is added.

### **The complex sentences.**

A **complex** sentence consists of a principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses. This definition is true, however, only in a general sense. In an exact sense there is often no principal clause; this is the case with complex sentences containing a subject clause or a predicative clause. Clauses in a complex sentence may be linked in two ways:[19,p.167].

1. **Syndetically**, i. e. by means of subordinating conjunctions or connectives.

There is a difference between a conjunction and a connective. A conjunction only serves as a formal element connecting separate clauses, whereas a connective serves as a connecting link and has at the same time a syntactic function in the subordinate clause it introduces.

More and more, she became convinced **that** some misfortune had overtaken Paul. (*Cronin*) (CONJUNCTION) All **that** he had sought for and achieved seemed suddenly to have no meaning. (*Cronin*) (CONNECTIVE)

2. **Asyndetically**, i. e. without a conjunction or connective.

I wish you had come earlier. (*Heym*) Circumstances try the metal a man is really made of. (*Collins*) A subordinate clause may follow, precede, or interrupt the principal clause. His steps quickened as he set out for the hotel. (*Cronin*)

As the family had no visitors that day, its four members dined alone together. It was dull and dreary enough, when the long summer evening closed in, on that Saturday night. (*Collins*)

A complex sentence may contain two or more homogeneous clauses coordinated with each other.

They were all obstinately of opinion that the poor girl had stolen the moonstone, and that she had destroyed herself in terror of being found out. (*Collins*)

A subordinate clause may be subordinated to the principal clause or to another subordinate clause. Accordingly we distinguish subordinate clauses of the first, second, third, etc. degree of subordination.

He never asked why Erik was giving up academic work. (*Wilson*)

According to their grammatical function subordinate clauses are divided into subject, predicative, attributive, object, and adverbial clauses. [11,p.95].

**4. Subject clauses** perform the function of subject to the predicate of the principal clause. Attention should be paid to the peculiar structure of the principal clause, which in this case has no subject, the subordinate clause serving as such.

What I want to do is to save us both. (*Dreiser*)

If a subject clause follows the principal clause the so-called introductory *it* is used in the principal clause.

**It** was always possible that they might encounter someone. (*Dreiser*)

There is another view of the analysis of sentences of this type, according to which *it* is the subject of the principal clause, and the subordinate clause is a predicative clause. Subject clauses are connected with the principal clause in the following way's;

(a) by means of the conjunctions *that, if, whether*.

It was unfortunate **that** the patient was brought in during the evening. (*Heym*)

**Whether** she was determined to bring matters to a crisis, or **whether** she was prompted by some private sign from Mr. Buff, is more than I can tell.

(b) by means of the connectives *who, which, what, whoever, whatever* (conjunctive pronouns); *where, when, how, why* (conjunctive adverbs).

**What** was done could not be undone. (*Hardy*) **Whatever** I can do for you will be nothing but paying a debt. (*Eliot*) It's a grand thing **when** you see the working class in action. (*Lindsay*)

(c) asyndetically.

It is a pity her brother should be quite a stranger to her. (*Eliot*)

Subject clauses are not separated from the principal clause by a comma except when we have two or more subject clauses coordinated with each other.

Who her mother was, and how she came to die in that forlorn-ness, were questions that often pressed on Eppie's mind. (*Eliot*)

It was plain, pitiably plain, that he was aware of his own defect of memory, and that he was bent on hiding it from the observation of his friends. (*Collins*)

**5. Predicative clauses** perform the function of a predicative. The peculiarity of complex sentences with a predicative clause is that in the principal clause we find only part of the predicate, i. e. a link verb, which together with the predicative clause forms a compound nominal predicate. Predicative clauses are connected with the principal clause in the following ways:

(a) by means of the conjunctions *that, if, whether, as if*. Our attitude simply is **that** facts are facts. (*Leacock*) The thing to be settle on now is **whether** anything can be done to save him. It was **as if** these men and women had matured. (*Heym*) It seems **as if** all these years I've been living under false pretences. (*Cronin*) I felt **as if** death had laid a hand on me. (*Eliot*)

(b) by means of the connectives *who, which, what* (conjunctive pronouns), *where, when, how, why* (conjunctive adverbs).

But this time, just about sunset, was always **what** I loved best. (*Eliot*) The question was **how** he matter to be kept quiet. (*Dreiser*)

(c) *asyndetically*.

Another thing was they had nurse Andrews staying on with them that week. As a rule predicative clauses are not separated by a comma; a comma is used if we have two or more predicative clauses coordinated with each other.

**6. Object clauses** perform the function of an object to the predicate-verb of the principal clause.

I don't know what you are talking about. (*Gow and D'Ussean*)

An object clause may also refer to a non-finite form of the verb, to an adjective, or to a word belonging to the part of speech expressing state. I formed the habit of calling in on him in the evening **to discuss** what I had heard. (*Leacock*) I ventured on **asking** why he was in such a hurry to get back to town. (*Collins*) Object clauses are connected with the principal clause in the following ways:

(a) by means of the conjunctions *that, if, whether*.

You know quite well, Ariadne, **that** I have not an ounce of pettishness in my disposition. (*Shaw*) Jane wondered **if** Brian and Margaret were really suited for one another. (*Lindsay*)

Time will show **whether** I am right or wrong. (*Collins*)

(b) by means of the connectives *who, which, what, whatever, whoever, whichever* (conjunctive pronouns); *where, when, how, why* (conjunctive adverbs).

I'll do just **what** I say. (*Dreiser*) I half rose, and advanced my head to see **how** she was occupied. (*Ch. Bronte*) He wondered **why** he should look back. (*Wilson*)

I don't know **where** he developed his prose style, probably in the best of schools, the open air. (*Nichols*)

(c) *asyndetically*.

He said there was nothing much the matter with me. (*Maxwell*) An object clause may be introduced by a preposition. I am always ready to listen **to** whatever you may wish to disclose. (*Eliot*)

**7. Attributive clauses** serve as an attribute to a noun (pronoun) in the principal clause. This noun or pronoun is called the antecedent of the clause. According to their meaning and the way they are connected with the principal clause attributive clauses are divided into **relative** and **appositive** ones.

Attributive relative clauses qualify the antecedent, whereas attributive appositive clauses disclose its meaning. The facts those men were so eager to know had been visible, tangible, open to the senses. [18, p.279].

### **Conclusion on the 2<sup>nd</sup> chapter.**

All of the clauses in a compound sentence are equally important, and the coordinating conjunction does nothing to change the rank of the clauses. The clauses express related thoughts, and neither clause is more important structurally. The only function of the coordinating conjunction is to connect the clauses and indicate a very simple relationship between them. A compound sentence has always been considered as a weak link; it was thought not to be a sentence proper. Kruizinga speaks about loose syntactic groups, not independent sentences. There were attempts to exclude the notion of a compound sentence or to

employ new terms to express more exactly the grammatical peculiarities of this type: a double or a multiple sentence, a duplication of the pattern, a multiplication of the pattern: *She would not eat anything and she would not sleep at all.* A compound sentence is based on coordination (parataxis) and it consists in syntactical equality of two or more parts (clauses), but this syntactical equality does not presuppose their logical semantical and communicative equality. Clauses of a compound sentence constitute a semantical, syntactical and communicative whole.

## **Conclusion**

Syntax studies the organization of words into phrases and phrases into sentences. There are patterns and regularities that can be discovered in larger units of constructions and its constituents. If syntax considers language from structural perspective with relatively little concern from meaning, semantics shows great concern on meaning. According to Roman Jakobson, "Language without meaning is meaningless". Since meaning is a part of language, semantics is a part of linguistics.

Syntax and semantics are interrelated with each other. It is hard to decipher the meaning if the utterances or the language spoken are not well organized; unless you'll work more on sign language for you to be understood. Or you'll have with you dictionary and understand in verbatim which is more difficult and you might not get the exact meaning. In reading, where comprehension is very significant, as educator, we should teach our students reading comprehension strategies. Moreover, we should also guide them so that they would know the proper use of those strategies on reading comprehension.

It is very clear that semantics deals with the study of meaning, changes in meaning, and principles that govern the relationships between sentences or words and their meanings. Thus, to understand language we need to get the meaning of words and morphemes that compose them. We also must know how meanings of words combine into phrases and sentence meanings. Finally, we must consider context when determining meaning.

All of the clauses in a compound sentence are equally important, and the coordinating conjunction does nothing to change the rank of the clauses. The clauses express related thoughts, and neither clause is more important structurally. The only function of the coordinating conjunction is to connect the clauses and indicate a very simple relationship between them. A compound sentence has always been considered as a weak link; it was thought not to be a sentence proper. Kruizinga speaks about loose syntactic groups, not independent sentences. There were attempts to exclude the notion of a compound sentence or to

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