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Review

THEME: THE ADVERBIAL MODIFIER OF CONDITION IN
MODERN ENGLISH.

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INTRODUCTION.

Since our country became independent it has chosen its own way of development - a way of the scaled reforms directed on building of a democratic law-based state, socially focused on market economy and strong civil society. As the head of our state I.A.Karimov underlined, achieving the noble purposes facing to the people of Uzbekistan, the future of the country, its prosperity and blooming, what place it will occupy in the world community in the XXI century, - all it depends, first of all, on the new generation and how our children will grow. These wise words brightly reflect the essence realised in Uzbekistan in the years of independence of the state policy, the care of education of harmoniously developed young generation - physically healthy and spiritually mature, intellectually rich became the main priority, possessing not only versatile knowledge, but also able independently to think, safely to look ahead.

According to these problems which are meeting the requirements of democratic and market transformations conducted in the country, cardinal reforming of an educational system, formation and a professional training have been carried out. The generated legislative base has served as the strong base of this process. In the Constitution of the Republic Uzbekistan it is fixed, that everyone has the right to get education, thus the state guarantees receiving free general education. A number of target decrees and decisions of the President of the country, decisions of the Cabinet of Uzbekistan has been accepted.

The uniqueness of the Uzbek model of professional training is recognised by all world community. The analysis of the international experience shows, that in many developed countries reforms in this sphere were carried out, as a rule, only in an education system, they were not so scaled on width and depth of coverage, scientific validity, participation in them all society as it has taken place in Uzbekistan.

It is necessary to underline, that for all the formation stages in Uzbekistan there are new state educational standards meeting the requirements of time, curricula, including multimedia, and also textbooks and manuals. The advanced pedagogical technologies and interactive methods of training are widely applied. In each

educational institution there is the information-resource centre having the big fund of the educational literature, including on computer storage media. All it creates conditions for receiving qualitative, deep, versatile knowledge.

The president of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov has signed on 10 December the Decision «About measures on the further perfection of system of studying foreign languages» which is aimed at essential strengthening of linguistic preparation throughout Republic. The purpose of the reform - cardinal perfection of system of teaching the growing generation foreign languages, preparing experts who can freely use them, by means of advanced methods of teaching using modern pedagogical and information-communicative technologies and on this basis creating conditions and opportunities for their wide access to achieving a world civilisation and world information resources, developments of the international cooperation and communication.

The president has established, that:

- Studying foreign languages, mainly English language, stage by stage in all parts of Republic begins with the first classes of comprehensive schools in the form of game lessons and informal conversation lessons, and since the second class - with mastering the alphabet, reading and grammar;
- Teaching in high schools of separate special subjects, especially on technical and international specialties, is conducted on foreign languages;

Providing the pupils and teachers of general secondary, secondary special, professional educational institutions with textbooks and methodical complexes on foreign languages is carried out on a free basis at the expense of circulating assets of Republican target book fund at the Ministry of Finance of Republic Uzbekistan with observance of target dates on their reprinting.

From 2015/2016 introduction of a foreign language in the block of entrance exam tests in all higher educational institutions is provided.

In Uzbekistan during the years of Independence really versatile gifted, talented, high educated and intellectually developed young generation has grown. The life has

proved correctness of the country of the huge work aimed in the future carried out under the guidance of the President on creating all necessary conditions that the youth of Uzbekistan possessing in huge potential, could completely realise it for the blessing of the country and the people building a new life.

Chapter 1. The problems of adverbial modifier in Modern English.

The adverbial modifier is a secondary part of the sentence which modifies a verb, an adjective or an adverb. Adverbial modifier denote the time, place, cause and manner of the action or process expressed by the verb. When modifying an adjective, the adverbial modifier characterizes quality or quantity of a state denoted by the adjective. The adverbial modifier may be expressed by a single word (an adverb), a phrase consisting of two or more words (prep.phrase), or a clause (modifies the whole clause it relates to, characterizing the latter denotes – He was ten when I saw him first.)

Adverbial modifier can be placed at the beginning, in the middle or, most typically, at the end of the sentence. Adverbials denoting indefinite time (usually, never, recently) and degree (almost, completely, only) – a medial position. They follow (modal) auxiliaries or the first of two auxiliaries in any complex verb group: No one could quite understand it. Interrogative sentences – after the subject: What have you finally decided? Modal words (Perhaps,etc) – at the beginning or in the middle. Enough – after the word it modifies. When more that one adverbial comes in the sentence, first – an adverbial modifier of place and time. We must begin by stating that the term "adverbial modifier" cannot be said to be a very happy one, as it is apt to convey erroneous ideas about the essence of this secondary part. The word "adverbial" may give rise to two notions, both of them wrong. For one thing, we may suppose that an adverbial modifier is always expressed by an adverb, which of course is not true: an adverbial modifier may be expressed by different morphological means. Secondly, the term "adverbial" may give rise to the notion that an adverbial modifier always modifies a verb, which is also wrong: an adverbial modifier may modify a part of the sentence expressed by an adjective or by an adverb, as well as by a verb. As the term "adverbial modifier" is firmly established, it would be futile to try

and substitute another term in its place. So we will keep the term, bearing in mind what has been said about its meaning.

There are several ways of classifying adverbial modifiers:

- (1) according to their meaning,
- (2) according to their morphological peculiarities,
- (3) according to the type of their head word.

Of these, the classification according to meaning is not in itself a grammatical classification. For instance, the difference between an adverbial modifier of place and one of time is basically semantic and depends on the lexical meaning of the words functioning as adverbial modifiers. However, this classification may acquire some grammatical significance, especially when we analyze word order in a sentence and one semantic type of adverbial modifier proves to differ in this respect from another.

Therefore the classification of adverbial modifiers according to their meaning cannot be ignored by syntactic theory.

Classification according to morphological peculiarities, i. e. according to the parts of speech and to phrase patterns, is essential: it has also something to do with word order, and stands in a certain relation to the classification according to meaning.

Classification according to the element modified is the syntactic classification proper. It is of course connected in some ways with the classification according to meaning; for instance, an adverbial modifier can modify a part of the sentence expressed by a verb only if the type of meaning of the word acting as modifier is compatible with the meaning of a verb, etc.

A complete classification of adverbial modifiers according to their meaning, i. e. a list of all possible meanings they can have, is impossible to achieve, and it would serve no useful purpose. A certain number of meanings can be found quite easily, such as place, time, condition, manner of an action, degree of a property, etc., but

whatever list we may compile along these lines, there are bound to be special cases which will not fit in.

The most usual morphological type seems to be the adverb. This is testified, among other things, by the fact that the very term for this part of the sentence is derived from the term "adverb". In some grammar books the two notions are even mixed up. Occasionally an author speaks of adverbs, where he obviously means adverbial modifiers.

Another very frequent morphological type of adverbial modifier is the phrase pattern "preposition -f- noun". This type of adverbial modifier is one of those which are sometimes indistinguishable from objects, or rather where the distinction between object and adverbial modifier is neutralized.

A very frequent morphological type of adverbial modifier is the infinitive or an infinitive phrase. This is especially true of the adverbial modifier of purpose, which may be expressed by the infinitive preceded by the particle *to* or the phrase *in order to*. However, we cannot say that every infinitive or infinitive phrase acting as a secondary part of the sentence must necessarily be an adverbial modifier of purpose, or indeed an adverbial modifier of any kind. Let us compare the following two sentences: *I wanted to read the advertisement*, and *I stopped to read the advertisement*. From a purely structural point of view there would seem to be no difference between the two sentences. It is the meanings of the verbs *want* and *stop* which lie at the bottom of the difference. Grammatically speaking, a transformation test is possible which will bring out the difference in function between the two infinitives. In the sentence *I stopped to read the advertisement* we can insert *in order* before the particle *to*, or, in other words, replace the particle *to* by the phrase *in order to*: in doing so, we get the sentence *I stopped in order to read the advertisement*, which is good English and does not differ in meaning from the original sentence. With the sentence *I wanted to read the advertisement* such a change would not be possible. If we consider this experiment to be a grammatical proof we can say that the difference in the functions of the infinitive in the two sentences is grammatical. If we

deny this the conclusion will be that the distinction between the two secondary parts is neutralized here too.

There are also cases when the infinitive is an adverbial modifier, but not one of purpose. This is the case, on the one hand, in such sentences as *I was glad to see him*, where the meaning of the adjective *glad* shows the semantic relations, and, on the other hand, in such sentences as the following: *Denis woke up the next morning to find the sun shining, the sky serene*. It is clear from the lexical meanings of the words *woke up* and *find* that the infinitive as adverbial modifier does not indicate the purpose of the action but the circumstances that followed it. The infinitive *to find* is indeed typical of such adverbial modifiers, as has been pointed out by E. Korneyeva.

The same is seen in the following example: *She balanced perilously there for a few more minutes, then lurched and fell back to awake with a start and grab at the horse ...* It is evident from the lexical meanings of the verbs *fell* and *awake* that the infinitive does not express purpose but ensuing circumstances: it would be impossible for a person to fall in order to awake. So the lexical meanings of words are of first-rate importance for the status of the infinitive: the form of the infinitive does not in itself determine anything beyond that the phrase in question is a secondary part of the sentence. The following sentence is also a clear example of this kind of infinitive modifier:

A young man of twenty-two or so pushed open the wide, green doors of the aviary to be greeted by a gust of piercing whistles, trills, chirps and murmurings from the double row of cages that lined two walls of the long, low building.

The infinitive in question is here passive, but the grammatical category of voice does not in itself give sufficient material to judge of the type of modifier we have here: a passive action might after all be the purpose of an action. It is rather the lexical meanings of the words and "common-sense" that make everything clear: it could not be the man's purpose to be greeted by whistles, etc., of birds. Thus the modifier is clearly one of subsequent events.

The adverbial modifier is a secondary part of the sentence which modifies a verb, an adjective or an adverb. According to their meaning we distinguish the following kinds of adverbial modifiers.

1. The adverbial modifier of time:

We shall try it tomorrow. (Heym)

While dancing, „Cowperwood had occasion to look at John often... (Dreiser)

These preparations happily completed, I bought a house in Covent Garden Market.(Dickens)

After receiving the cheque back, there seemed to him to be something wrong somewhere.(Galsworthy)

2. The adverbial modifier of frequency:

Though they had often bothered him he had never bothered them. (London)

3. The adverbial modifier of place and direction:

Gains had spies everywhere. (Douglas)

Among the hills Martin and Ruth sat side by side. (London)

4.The adverbial modifier of manner:

Hendel Hull so obviously adored his wife. (Sanborn)

Their conversations were conducted with icy formality. (Douglas)

Marcellus accepted this information without betraying his amazement. (Douglas)

5.The adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances:

Then the gun rolled into the old town, clattering over the stones. (Heym)

Now I can go to bed at last without dreading tomorrow. (Shaw)

6.The adverbial modifier of degree and measure:

It is rather good.

It weighs a pound.

7.The adverbial modifier of cause:

The men were weary, having run behind the beasts all day. (Buck)

The doctor said operate, it can't do any harm but I have great fear of the knife for my poor boy, his mother having died under it due to negligence. (Greene)

8.The adverbial modifier of result (consequence):

She is too fond of the child to leave it.

9.The adverbial modifier of condition:

Micawber thought that with large means her husband would have distinguished himself long ago. (Dickens)

She never would have been able to make a success of the diningroom, but for the kindness and assistance of the me.(Prichard)

10.The adverbial modifier of comparison:

Like all other Forsytes of a certain age they kept carriages of their own. (Galsworthy)

Judice is as white as mud. She's as perfect as sin. (Sanborn)

And then his wife's face flushed and contracted as though in pain (Gaskell)

He saw as if visible in the air before him in illuminated figures a whole sum. (London)

John plays the piano better than Mary.

11. The adverbial modifier of concession: (It is very rare.)

Notwithstanding the success achieved by Napoleon in the initial stage of the war of 1812 he was finally defeated.

Though frightened he carried it off very well. (Crown)

12. The adverbial modifier of purpose:

Had sometimes walked with us to show us the boats and ships. (Dickens)

They opened the way for her to come to him. (Douglas)

They cleared swamp growth for planting. (Eliot)

Ways of expressing the adverbial modifier.

It can be expressed by:

1. An adverb.

*Rachel turned instinctively to prevent a possible intruder from entering.
(Bennett)*

2. A noun with or without accompanying words.

*Next day the morning hours seemed to pass very slowly at Mr. Pellet's.
(E. Bronte)*

They walked miles without finding any habitation.

3. A prepositional phrase.

The red dust spread up and out and over everything. (Wells)

I walked straight up the lane. (Bennett)

4. A noun, pronoun, adjective, infinitive, participle, or prepositional phrase with a subordinating conjunction.

Mary swims better than her sister. My sister plays tennis better than I. If necessary, she must see Mr. Bridgenorth. (Gaskell)

*He shrank back, his arms lifted as though to ward off physical violence.
(London)*

While waiting for the water to boil, he held his face over the stove. (London)

Sometimes he (Martin), when with her, noted an unusual brightness in her eyes. (London)

5. A participle or a participial phrase.
Having decided to accept his sister's counsel Marcellus was anxious to perform his unpleasant duty. (Douglas)
Turning away, she caught sight of the extra special edition of The Signal. (London)
When questioned, she explained everything very carefully.

6. Absolute construction.

(a) The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction.

He had wrapped her up with great care, the night being dark and frosty. (Dickens)

Dehn burst in, the terror of the streets written on his face. (Heym)

(b) The Nominative Absolute construction.

He stopped and turned about, his eyes brightly proud. (Douglas)

(c) The Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction.

He looked at Mr. Micawber attentively, with his whole face breathing short and quick in every feature. (Dickens)

(d) The Prepositional Absolute construction.

He rushed forward, with fury in his looks, and fire in his eye.

7. A prepositional phrase or construction with a gerund.
His father looked up without speaking. (Lindsay)
Nellman was arrested by the FBI ... for "being a member of the Communist Party". (Daily Worker)

On her going to his house to thank him, he happened to see her through a window. (Dickens) I left the room without anybody noticing it.

8. An infinitive, an infinitive phrase, or an infinitive construction.
They rose to go into the drawing-room. (Galsworthy)
So, on the following evening, we again assembled, to discuss and arrange our plans. (Jerome)

He put the picture on the table for George to get a better view of it. (Maugham)

The position of adverbial modifiers in the sentence is known to be comparatively more free than that of other parts. However, there is some difference here between types of modifiers. Those which are most closely linked with the part of the sentence they modify are the ones that denote the frequency or the property of an action. They come between the subject and the predicate, or even inside the predicate if it consists of two words an auxiliary and a notional verb, or two elements of a compound predicate.

We cannot, however, say either that adverbial modifiers of these types cannot stand elsewhere in the sentence, or that adverbial modifiers of other types cannot occupy this position. Occasionally an adverbial modifier of frequency will appear at the beginning of the sentence. Occasionally, on the other hand, an adverbial modifier of another type appears between subject and predicate: *Catherine, for a few moments, was motionless with horror. (J.AUSTEN)* *Now John, with a last effort, kicked his opponent's legs from under him... (LINKLATER)*

Semantic types of adverbial modifier.

1. The adverbial modifier of place and direction may be expressed by a prep.phrase, an adverb, an adverbial phrase or a clause.

2. The adverbial modifier of time may be expressed by a noun (tomorrow), a prep.phrase (before the war), a partII preceded by when/while (When refused...), a participle or a part.phrase (Take care crossing the street), a gerund with a prep. or a ger.phrase and clauses of place (You won't recognize the house when you come next

time)

3. The adverbial modifier of condition is expressed by a noun or a pronoun preceded by the prepositions and conjunctions but for, except for, in case, by a participle or an adjective with the conjunctions if, unless(if necessary,...), by a gerundial phrase introduced by the prep. without, by an adv.clause of condition.

4. The adverbial modifier of concession is introduced by the preps despite, for all, in spite of, with all and the conjunction though.

5. The adverbial modifier of cause (reason) may be expressed by a prep.phrase: He couldn't speak for tears. Because of, due to, on account of, owing to, thanks to..., by a clause or by a participial phrase: Wishing to say sth he jumped from the chair.

6. The adverbial modifier of purpose is rendered by a single infinitive, an inf.phrase (He stood up to say goodbye), an inf.construction, a nominal or ger.phrase with the prep. for (They came for lunch. He did it for making me angry) or a clause of purpose.

7. The adverbial modifier of result (consequence) is expressed by an infinitive, an inf.phrase or an inf.construction which refers to an adjective or an adverb preceded by such adverbs of degree as too, enough (You are clever enough not to do it), or the conjunction so...as (She is not so foolish as to do anything wrong).

8. The adverbial modifier of manner is expressed by adverbs or prep.phrases introduced by the preps by, by means of, with, without or with the help of. + part.phrases (She ran fast, without looking back), absolute constructions (She entered, her eyes sad) and clauses.

9. The adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances is rendered by a participial (He was sitting smoking cigarettes), gerundial (She entered without looking at him) or infinitive phrase or by an absolute construction (I hurried away, her pale face still in my eyes). Don't confuse №8, since №9 denotes an action or a state which is relatively independent of the action of the main verb. When expressed by an infinitive phrase, the modifier denotes an action which is neither the result nor the purpose of the action denoted by the main verb. (He opened the door to see that all had gone – Оноткрыл дверь и увидел, что все ушли.)

10. The adverbial modifier of degree and measure is expressed by an adverb or a

prep.phrase. intensifier adverbs (nearly, almost, rather, really) denote a point along a scale of intensity to which the action or property has been fulfilled: It's rather chilly outside.

11.The adverbial modifier of comparison is expressed by adjective or participle phrases introduced by the conjunction as, as if, as though. Adverbials of comparison may also be expressed by noun phrases introduced with than or as. These adverbials are preceded by comparatives – Some jobs are more difficult than others.

12.The adverbial modifier of exclusion and substitution is expressed by nouns or nominal phrases introduced with the preps apart from, but, but for, except, instead and transfers the meaning of exception to the idea expressed by the rest of the sentence. Everybody was present but Jane.

Chapter 2. The adverbial modifier of condition in Modern English

The adverbial modifier of condition is expressed by a noun or a pronoun preceded by the prepositions and conjunctions *but for*, *except for*, *in case*, by a participle or an adjective with the conjunctions *if*, *unless* (if necessary, ...), by a gerundial phrase introduced by the preposition *without*, by an adverbial clause of condition. Conditional clauses may be introduced by several conjunctions such as *if-agar* (the most general one), *unless*, *provided*, *supposing* (with more specialised meanings), and the phrase *in case*.

An essential peculiarity of conditional clauses, or, we should rather say, of conditional sentences (including both the main and the subordinate clause), is the use of verbal forms. Here the actual meaning of a verbal form depends entirely on the syntactical context: it may acquire a meaning which it would never have outside this context. Uzbek conditional clauses are connected with the principal clause by means of the following connectives: *agar*, *mabodo*, *bordiyu*, *bo'lmasa*, *taqdirda*, *yo'qsa*. *Ish shu hilda borsa, kayfiyat shu bo'lsa, kapsanchilardan birona ham yakka ho'jalik qolmasligi muqarrar edi. Bizga kimlar qarshi tursa, sharta-sharta otamiz. Agar siz dovonga chiqib pastga qarasangiz, juda ajoyib manzara ko'rinadi. Xalq seni himoya qilmasa, buning uchun sen xalqdan o'pkalama.*

The classification of conditional sentences is familiar enough. The main types are three: (1) *If we can get to the bicycles, we shall beat him.* (R. MACAULAY)

Agar velosipedlarg ayetib olsak, ularni uramiz.(2) *If they could derive advantage from betraying you, betray you they would . . .* (Idem) (3) *If you had been arguing about a football match I should have been ready to take a more lenient view of the case,..*(LINKLATER)

There may, however, also be other types, with the action of the subordinate clause belonging to the past and its consequence to the present, e. g. *Anyhow, if you hadn't been ill, we shouldn't have you here* (A. WILSON), etc. Harholdakasalbo'lmaganingizdaedi, sizbuyorda biz bilanbolmasedingiz.

Subordinate conditional clauses can also, like some types of clauses considered above, get emancipated and become independent sentences expressing wish. From a sentence like *If I had known this in advance I should have done everything to help*, etc., the conditional clause may be separated and become an independent exclamatory sentence: *If I had known this in advance!* The conjunction *if* in such a case apparently ceases to be a conjunction, since there is no other clause here. The conjunction then becomes a particle typical of this kind of exclamatory sentence.¹ The following examples will illustrate this point: *If only she might play the question loud enough to reach the ears of this Paul Steitler*. (BUECHNER) Compare the following sentence: *If you will just send that back to him, — without a word*. (TROLLOPE) In the first example it is quite evident that the word *if* does not connect anything with anything else and can therefore hardly be termed a conjunction at all: it rather approaches the status of a particle used to introduce an exclamatory sentence. As to our second example, things are less clear. It might be possible to assume that this is a subordinate conditional, clause, with a main clause, something like *it will be all right*, or, perhaps, something like *I shall be grateful*, but this of course could never be proved to be the case. If that view is rejected, nothing seems to remain but to assume that we have here an independent sentence, which is to all intents and purposes imperative (as it amounts to a request), and that here, too, the conjunction *if* has practically become a particle used to introduce that sort of sentence. Transition cases of this

kind are most valuable for understanding the mechanism, as it were, of grammatical development.

The same is found in the third clause of the following compound sentence: *It's really rather ghastly and one oughtn't to laugh, but if you could see them, my dear.* (A. WILSON) One might say that this clause is subordinate and that a head clause is "omitted" after it, e. g. *you would understand me.* But it seems simpler to take the *if*-clause as an independent clause expressing something like wish and co-ordinated with the two preceding clauses.

Conditional sentences can express either a real condition ("open condition") or an unreal condition:

If you ask him he will stay here, (real condition).

Agar undan iltimos qilsang, u shu yerda qoladi.

If you asked him, he would stay here, (unreal condition).

Agar undan iltimos qilganingda edi, u shu yerda qolgan bo'lardi.

In real condition, both the main clause and the dependent clause are truth-neutral; in *If you ask him, he will stay here*, we cannot judge whether either the request or his staying here will take place.

Although the most common type of real condition refers to the future, there are no special restrictions on the time reference of conditions or on the tense forms used to express them. The following examples may illustrate the variety of time relations and tense forms expressing them:

If you are happy, you make others happy.

(Simple Present + Simple Present).

If he told you that yesterday, he was lying.

(Simple Past + Simple Past)

If she left so early, she will certainly be here tonight.

(Simple Past + will "future").

The truth-neutrality of an if-clause is reflected in the possibility of using such constructions as:

If you should hear news of them, please let me know.

(Should + Infinitive in place of the Simple Present)

The effect of predication with "should" is to make the condition slightly more tentative and "academic" than it would be with the ordinary Present Tense.

A more formal expression of a tentative real condition is achieved by omitting if and inverting the subject and the auxiliary "should":

Should you remain I'll help you with pleasure.

Unreal conditions are normally formed by the use of the Past Tense (Indicative or Subjunctive) in the conditional clause, and would + V_{inf} in the principal clause,

e. g.: If you left in the morning, you would be at home at night.

Agar siz ertalab jo'nab ketganingizda edi, tunda uyda bo'lar edingiz.

If you had come, he would have changed his mind. Here are some Uzbek examples: *Agar siz kelganingizda edi, u fikrini o'zgartirgan bo'lar edi.*

The precise grammatical and semantic nature of the switch from real to unreal conditions is obviously relevant to overlapping relations in such types of sentence-patterning

Clauses of this type are generally introduced by such connectives as: **if, unless, provided, on condition that, in case, suppose (supposing), but that, once.**

What has immediate relevance here is the grammatical organisation of the conditional sentence, the verb-forms of its predicate, in particular.

If it hadn't been for his blunders, he would have finished the article in three days. (London)

If he doesn't comply we can't bring proceedings for six months. I want to get on with the matter, Bellby. (Galsworthy)

And if Holly had not insisted on following her example, and being trained too, she must inevitably have cried off.

Suppose he talked to Michael? No! Worse than useless. Besides, he couldn't talk about Fleur and that boy to anyone — thereby hung too long a tale. (Galsworthy)

Mr. Pinch stood rooted to the spot on hearing this, and might have stood there until dark, but that the old cathedral bell began to ring for vesper service, on which he tore himself away. (Dickens).

Synonymic alternatives of conditional clauses:

a) Infinitival Nominals:

To have followed their meal in detail would have given him some indication of their states of mind. (Galsworthy)

(Syn.**If she had followed their meal...** it would have given him...).

To record of Mr.Dombey that he was not in his way affected by this intelligence, would be to do him an injustice. (Dickens) (Syn.**If we record of Mr.Dombeythat...**)

No one would believe, **to look at her**, that she was over thirty. (Huxley)

(Syn. **if one looked at her...**)

b) Gerundial Nominals:

But for his having helped us we should not have been successful in this work.

c) Participial Nominals:

Living in London you know what fogs mean.

Weather permitting, we shall start tomorrow.

Consider also reduced sub-clauses of condition. Examples are commonplace.

What would one of her own people do **if called a coward and a cad** — her father, her brother, uncle Adrian? What could they do? (Galsworthy)

It was clear to him that she could not take her Dartie seriously, and would go back on the whole thing if **given half a chance**. (Galsworthy)

And, **if** true, what was the director's responsibility? (Galsworthy)

She was seldom or never at a loss; or **if at a loss**, was always able to convert it into again. (Galsworthy)

Once in, you couldn't get out. (Galsworthy)

A word must be said about stylistic transposition of imperatives co-ordinated with following declaratives to which they have the meaning relationship that clauses of condition or cause would have.

Scarcity of linguistic units with inherent expressivity is often counterbalanced by effective stylistic transpositions of the Imperative Mood.

In terms of stylistic value and purpose, it is most essential to observe how different patterns of grammatical organisation come to correlate as identical in denotative value but different in expressive connotation. Contextual nuances are sometimes very elusive.

Here are a few examples of the Imperative Mood in transposition:

a) Tell him of a quality innate in some women — a seductive power beyond their own control! He would but answer: Humbug!

She was dangerous, and there was an end of it. (Galsworthy) (Syn. If you told him of a quality innate in some women...)

b) He would have fought for this man as determinedly as for himself, and yet only so far as commanded. Strip him of his uniform, and he would have soon picked his side. (Dreiser)

(Syn.If you stripped him of his uniform...)

(c) Make me do such things, make me like those other men, doing the work they do, breathing the air they breathe, developing the point of view they have developed, and you have destroyed the difference, destroyed me, destroyed the thing you love. (London)

(Syn.If you make me do such things...)

(d) Walk among the magnificent residences, the splendid equipages, the gilded shops, restaurants, resorts of all kinds; scent the flowers, the silks, the wines; drink of the laughter springing from the soul of luxurious content, of the glances which gleam like light from defiant spears: feel the quality of the smiles which cut like glistening swords and of strides born of place, and you shall know of what is the atmosphere of the high and mighty. (Dreiser) (Syn. If you walk...; if you drink of the laughter...;if you feel the quality of the smiles... you shall know...)

Deep grammar analysis will always show the difference between the patterns given above.

In (a) and (b) the verb-forms of the Imperative Mood function as stylistic alternatives of the Oblique Mood;

in (c) and (d) the verb-forms of the Imperative Mood are used as stylistic alternatives of the Indicative Mood.

As can be seen from the above examples, the use of the Imperative Mood in such transpositions can imply conditional, causal or resultative meaning.

Chapter 3. The system of exercises for the adverbial modifier of condition in Modern English.

In this chapter of the course work, we talk about effective strategies of teaching adverbial modifier of condition and offer respective system of exercises for consolidating them. Methods of teaching – one of the most important components of the teaching process. Without applying the corresponding methods it is impossible to achieve the aim set up, realize the marked content, and fill the education with cognitive activity. No doubt that the inductive method of teaching grammar is the most valuable from the point of view of cognitive development of learners and forming strategies of self-study in them. The material, which is not given in a ready form, but “obtained” in the process of learning and investigating, is easier and better to keep in mind. However, the inductive method requires significantly much academic time and energies from the teacher.

In modern conditions of teaching foreign languages the leading approaches are communicative approaches and cognitive approaches.

Communicative approach presupposes a full and optimal systematization of interrelations between components of teaching content. They are the following: the system of general activity; the system of speech activity; the system of speech communication; the system of English itself; cognitive-comparative analysis of native and English; the system of speech mechanisms; text as the system of speech products; the system of structurally speech formation (dialogue, monologue, monologue in dialogue, different types of speech expressions and communications etc.); the system of knowing English; the system of speech conduct of humane. As a result of such approach in teaching the system of knowing English as the means of communication in the wide sense of this word is formed, realized and gets into motion. Cognitive approach to teaching grammar helps the teacher to stimulate cognitive mechanisms of learners, organize autonomous reflexive activity thanks to which the followings are provided: comparative analysis, comprehension, memorization, adopting and adequate use of grammar structures in speech.

Principles of teaching are understood as starting statements, which determine the purposes, the contents, methods and the organization of teaching and are shown in interrelation and inter-conditionality. In our case principles are used to define strategy and tactics of teaching English language at all stages practically in each point of educational process.

As far as the result of teaching of pupils foreign language is formation their skills of using language as means of intercourse, the leading principle is the principle of a communicative orientation.

Its main function is in creation of all conditions of communications: motives, purposes and problems of intercourse. The communicative orientation defines selection and the organization of language material, its situational conditionality, communicative value both speech and training exercises, communicative formulation of educational problems, organization and structure of the lesson. This principle assumes creation of conditions for speaking and intellectual activity of pupils during each moment of teaching. In a basis of teaching any subject at school including foreign language, there are general didactic principles. Such principles are: scientific character, availability, presentation in teaching, an individual approach in conditions of collective work and others.

Specific and general didactic principles express typical, main, essential, that should characterize teaching a foreign language at school and, first of all at the beginning stage where bases of mastering are pawned by this subject. The understanding of action of principles of teaching and direct use of rules will allow the teacher to carry out teaching effectively.

The learning is the active process, which is carried out through involving pupils in a various activities, thus making it active participant in reception of education. In this bilateral process it is possible to allocate the basic functions which are carried out by each the parts. The teacher carries out organizational, teaching and supervising functions. Functions of the pupil include acquaintance with a teaching material, the training which is necessary for formation of language skills and speaking skills, and application of investigated language in the solving of

communicative problems. One of the primary goals of using constructivist teaching is that students learn how to learn by giving them the training to take initiative for their own learning experiences. Furthermore, in the constructivist classroom, students work primarily in groups and learning and knowledge are interactive and dynamic. There is a great focus and emphasis on social and communication skills, as well as collaboration and exchange of ideas [1]. This is contrary to the traditional classroom in which students work primarily alone, learning is achieved through repetition, and the subjects are strictly adhered to and are guided by a textbook. Some activities encouraged in constructivist classrooms are:

Experimentation: students individually perform an experiment and then come together as a class to discuss the results.

Research projects: students research a topic and can present their findings to the class.

Field trips. This allows students to put the concepts and ideas discussed in class in a real-world context. Field trips would often be followed by class discussions.

Films. These provide visual context and thus bring another sense into the learning experience.

Class discussions. This technique is used in all of the methods described above. It is one of the most important distinctions of constructivist teaching methods.

Role of teachers. In the constructivist classroom, the teacher's role is to prompt and facilitate discussion. Thus, the teacher's focus should be on guiding students by asking questions that will lead them to develop their own conclusions on the subject.

The “communicative approach to the teaching of foreign languages” — also known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) or the “communicative approach” — emphasizes learning a language through genuine communication. Learning a new language is easier and more enjoyable when it is truly meaningful.

Communicative teaching is based on the work of sociolinguists who theorized that an effective knowledge of a language is more than merely knowing vocabulary and rules of grammar and pronunciation. Learners need to be able to use the language appropriately in any business or social context.

Over the last three decades, theorists have discussed the exact definition of communicative competence. They do agree, however, that meaningful communication supports language learning and that classroom activities must focus on the learner's authentic needs to communicate information and ideas. Grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary are, of course, necessary parts of effective communication. With the communicative method, two primary approaches may be taken. Some teachers prefer to teach a rule, and then follow it with practice. Most, though, feel grammar will be naturally discovered through meaningful communicative interaction. Many experienced textbook and methodology manuals writers have argued that games are not just time-filling activities but have a great educational value. Most language games make learners use the language instead of thinking about learning the correct forms. Games should be treated as central not peripheral to the foreign language-teaching program. A similar opinion is expressed by Richard-Amato, who believes games to be fun but warns against overlooking their pedagogical value, particularly in foreign language teaching. There are many advantages of using games. "Games can lower anxiety, thus making the acquisition of input more likely". They are highly motivating and entertaining, and they can give shy students more opportunity to express their opinions and feelings. They also enable learners to acquire new experiences within a foreign language, which are not always possible during a typical lesson.

There are many factors to consider while discussing games, one of which is appropriacy. Teachers should be very careful about choosing games if they want to make them profitable for the learning process. If games are to bring desired results, they must correspond to either the student's level, or age, or to the material that is to be introduced or practiced. Not all games are appropriate for all students irrespective of their age. Different age groups require various topics, materials, and modes of games. For example, children benefit most from games, which require moving around, imitating a model, competing between groups and the like. Furthermore, structural games that practice or reinforce a certain grammatical aspect of language have to relate to students' abilities and prior knowledge. Games become difficult

when the task or the topic is unsuitable or outside the student's experience.

Games are often used as short warm-up activities or when there is some time left at the end of a lesson. Yet, as Lee observes, a game "should not be regarded as a marginal activity filling in odd moments when the teacher and class have nothing better to do". Games ought to be at the heart of teaching foreign languages. Rixon suggests that games be used at all stages of the lesson, provided that they are suitable and carefully chosen. At different stages of the lesson, the teacher's aims connected with a game may vary:

1. *Presentation*. Provide a good model making its meaning clear;
2. *Controlled practice*. Elicit good imitation of new language and appropriate responses;
3. *Communicative practice*. Give students a chance to use the language.

Games also lend themselves well to revision exercises helping learners recall material in a pleasant, entertaining way. All authors referred to in this article agree that even if games resulted only in noise and entertained students, they are still worth paying attention to and implementing in the classroom since they motivate learners, promote communicative competence, and generate fluency.

Role play as a method of teaching. Scholars suggest different steps and various successions in applying role-play in teaching. Based on the empirical evidence, we suggest our systematic guide to making a successful role-play.

Step 1 - A Situation for a Role Play. To begin with, choose a situation for a role-play, keeping in mind students' needs and interests (Livingstone, 1983). Teachers should select role-plays that will give the students an opportunity to practice what they have learned. At the same time, we need a role-play that interests the students. One way to make sure your role-play is interesting is to let the students choose the situation themselves. They might either suggest themes that intrigue them or select a topic from a list of given situations. To find a situation for a role-play, write down situations you encounter in your own life, or read a book or watch a movie, because

their scenes can provide many different role-play situations. You might make up an effective role-play based on cultural differences.

Step 2 - Role Play Design.After choosing a context for a role-play, the next step is to come up with ideas on how this situation may develop. Students' level of language proficiency should be taken into consideration (Livingstone, 1983). If you feel that your role-play requires more profound linguistic competence than the students possess, it would probably be better to simplify it or to leave it until appropriate. On low intermediate and more advanced levels, role-plays with problems or conflicts in them work very well because they motivate the characters to talk [8]. To build in these problems let the standard script go wrong. This will generate tension and make the role play more interesting. For example, in a role-play situation at the market the participants have conflicting role information. One or two students have their lists of things to buy while another two or three students are salespeople who do not have anything the first group needs, but can offer slightly or absolutely different things.

Step 3 - Linguistic Preparation.Once you have selected a suitable role-play, predict the language needed for it. At the beginning level, the language needed is almost completely predictable. The higher the level of students the more difficult it is to prefigure accurately what language students will need, but some prediction is possible anyway. It is recommended to introduce any new vocabulary before the role-play. At the beginning level, you might want to elicit the development of the role-play scenario from your students and then enrich it. For example, the situation of the role-play is returning an item of clothing back to the store. The teacher asks questions, such as, 'In this situation what will you say to the salesperson?', 'What will the salesperson say?' and writes what the students dictate on the right side of the board. When this is done, on the left side of the board the instructor writes down useful expressions, asking the students, 'Can the customer say it in another way?', 'What else can the salesperson say?' This way of introducing new vocabulary makes the students more confident acting out a role-play.

Step 4 - Factual Preparation.This step implies providing the students with

concrete information and clear role descriptions so that they could play their roles with confidence. For example, in the situation at a railway station, the person giving the information should have relevant information: the times and destination of the trains, prices of tickets, etc. In a more advanced class and in a more elaborate situation include on a cue card a fictitious name, status, age, personality, and fictitious interests and desires. Describe each role in a manner that will let the students identify with the characters. Use the second person 'you' rather than the third person 'he' or 'she.' If your role presents a problem, just state the problem without giving any solutions. At the beginning level cue cards might contain detailed instructions.

Step 5 - Assigning the Roles.Some instructors ask for volunteers to act out a role play in front of the class, though it might be a good idea to plan in advance what roles to assign to which students. At the beginning level, the teacher can take one of the roles and act it out as a model. Sometimes, the students have role-play exercises for the home task. They learn useful words and expressions and think about what they can say and then act out the role-play in the next class.

There can be one or several role-play groups. If the whole class represents one role-play group, it is necessary to keep some minor roles, which can be taken away if there are less people in class than expected. If the teacher runs out of roles, he/she can assign one role to two students, in which one speaks secret thoughts of the other. With several role-play groups, when deciding on their composition, both the abilities and the personalities of the students should be taken into consideration. For example, a group consisting only of the shyest students will not be a success. Very often, optimum interaction can be reached by letting the students work in one group with their friends. Whether taking any part in the role-play or not, the role of the teacher is to be as unobtrusive as possible. He or she is listening for students' errors making notes. Mistakes noted during the role-play will provide the teacher with feedback for further practice and revision. It is recommended that the instructor avoid intervening in a role-play with error corrections not to discourage the students.

Step 6 - Follow-up. Once the role-play is finished, spend some time on debriefing. This does not mean pointing out and correcting mistakes. After the role-play, the students are satisfied with themselves; they feel that they have used their knowledge of the language for something concrete and useful. This feeling of satisfaction will disappear if every mistake is analyzed. It might also make the students less confident and less willing to do the other role-plays.

Follow-up means asking every student's opinion about the role-play and welcoming their comments. The aim is to discuss what has happened in the role-play and what they have learned. In addition to group discussion, an evaluation questionnaire can be used. The methods submitted above are only less part of the whole list of various effective methods of teaching a foreign language. The teacher should remember that each of the submitted methods works more effectively if they are combined and applied together at every lesson. It is impossible to allocate the best and most effective of them, every teacher himself chooses for himself what method approaches for each concrete case better.

Over and over facing difficulties of building expressions in a foreign language, the learner loses interest for the subject. Here it is very important to present him help in the form of scheme. The scheme should be visual and present dominant features of grammar phenomenon.

We will give system of exercises for teaching adverbial modifier of conditionat schools.

A. Unless

Study this example situation:

The club is for members only.

You can't go in unless you are a member.

This means:

'You can't go In except if you are a member.' or 'You can go in only if you are a member.'

Unless ='except if'

Some more examples of unless:

- * I'll see you tomorrow unless I have to work late. (= except if I have to work late)
- * Don't tell Sue what I said unless she asks you. (= except if she asks you)
- * 'Shall I tell Sue what you said?' 'Not unless she asks you.' (= only if she asks you)
- * I don't like fish. I wouldn't eat it unless I was extremely hungry. (= except if I was extremely hungry)

We often use unless in warnings:

- * We'll be late unless we hurry. (= except if we hurry)
- * Unless you work much harder, you won't pass the exam.
- * I was told I wouldn't pass the exam unless I worked harder.

Instead of unless it is often possible to say if ... not:

- * Don't tell Sue what I said if she doesn't ask you.
- * We'll be late if we don't hurry.

B. As long as etc.

as long as or so long as All these expressions mean 'if' or 'on condition that'.

provided (that) or providing (that) All these expressions mean 'if' or 'on condition that'.

For example:

- * You can use my car as long as you drive carefully.
- * You can use my car so long as you drive carefully.
- (= you can use my car but you must drive carefully--this is a condition)
- * Travelling by car is convenient provided (that) you have somewhere to park.
- * Travelling by car is convenient providing (that) you have somewhere to park.
- (= but only if you have somewhere to park)
- * Providing (that) she studies hard, she'll pass her exams.
- * Provided (that) she studies hard, she'll pass her exams.
- (= she must study hard - if she does this, she will pass)

C. When you are talking about the future, do not use will after unless/as long as/provided providing. Use a present tense (see also Unit 25):

- * We'll be late unless we hurry. (not 'unless we will hurry')
- * Providing she studies hard, she will pass the exam. (not 'providing she will study')

EXERCISES

114.1 Write a new sentence with the same meaning. Use unless in your sentence.

1. You must work much harder or you won't pass the exam.

You won't pass, the exam unless you work much harder.

2. Listen carefully or you won't know what to do.

You won't know what to do ---.

3. She must apologize to me or I'll never speak to her again.

I'll ---.

4. You have to speak very slowly or he won't be able to understand you.

5. The company must offer me more money or I'm going to look for another job.

114.2 Write a new sentence with the same meaning. Use unless in your sentence.

1. You are allowed into the club only if you're a member.

You aren't allowed into the club unless you're a member.

2. I'm going to the party only if you go too.

I'm not going ---.

3. The dog will attack you only if you move suddenly.

4. He'll speak to you only if you ask him a question.

5. The doctor will see you today only if it's an emergency.

114.3 Choose the correct word or expression for each sentence.

1. You can use my car _unless/as long as_ you drive carefully. (as long as is correct)

2. I'm playing tennis tomorrow _unless/providing_ it's raining.

3. I'm playing tennis tomorrow _unless/providing_ it's not raining.

4. I don't mind if you come in late _unless/as long as_ you come in quietly.

5. I'm going now _unless/provided_ you want me to stay.

6. I don't watch television _unless/as long as_ I've got nothing else to do.

7. Children are allowed to use the swimming pool _unless/provided_ they are with an adult.

8. _Unless/provided_ they are with an adult, children are not allowed to use the swimming pool.

9. We can sit here in the corner _unless/as long as_ you'd rather sit over there by the window.

10. A: Our holiday cost a lot of money.

B: Did it? Well, that doesn't matter _unless/as long as_ you enjoyed yourselves.

114.4 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences.

1. We'll be late unless _we hurry._

2. I like hot weather unless ---.

3. I like hot weather provided ---.

4. Kate reads a newspaper every day as long as ---.

5. I don't mind walking home as long as ---.

6. I like to walk to work in the morning unless ---.

7. We can meet tomorrow unless ---.

8. You can borrow the money providing ---.

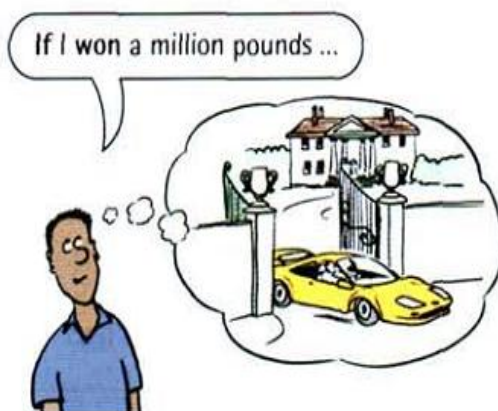
9. You won't achieve anything unless ---.

When you imagine something like this, you use **if + past** (if I found / if there was / if we didn't etc.).

But the meaning is *not* past:

- ☐ What would you do if you **won** a million pounds? (we don't really expect this to happen)
- ☐ I don't really want to go to their party, but I probably will go. They'd be upset if I **didn't** go.
- ☐ If there **was** (or **were**) an election tomorrow, who would you vote for?

For **if ... was/were**, see Unit 39C.



We do not normally use **would** in the **if-part** of the sentence:

- ☐ I'd be very frightened if somebody **pointed** a gun at me. (*not* if somebody would point)
- ☐ If I **didn't** go to their party, they'd be upset. (*not* If I wouldn't go)

But you can use **if ... would** when you ask somebody to do something:

- ☐ (*from a formal letter*) I would be grateful if you **would** let me know your decision as soon as possible.

In the other part of the sentence (not the **if-part**) we use **would ('d) / wouldn't**:

- ☐ If you took more exercise, you'd (= you **would**) feel better.
- ☐ I'm not tired. If I went to bed now, I **wouldn't** sleep.
- ☐ **Would** you **mind** if I used your phone?

Could and **might** are also possible:

- ☐ If you took more exercise, you **might** feel better. (= it is possible that you would feel better)
- ☐ If it stopped raining, we **could** go out. (= we would be able to go out)

Put the verb into the correct form.

- 1 They would be offended if I didn't go to their party. (not / go)
- 2 If you took more exercise, you would feel better. (feel)
- 3 If they offered me the job, I think I it. (take)
- 4 A lot of people would be out of work if the car factory (close down)
- 5 If I sold my car, I much money for it. (not / get)
- 6 (*in a lift*) What would happen if somebody that red button? (press)
- 7 I don't think there's any chance that Gary and Emma will get married. I'd be absolutely astonished if they (do)

- 8 Liz gave me this ring. She very upset if I lost it. (be)
- 9 Dave and Kate are expecting us. They would be very disappointed if we (not / come)
- 10 Would Steve mind if I his bike without asking him? (borrow)
- 11 What would you do if somebody in here with a gun? (walk)
- 12 I'm sure Sue if you explained the situation to her. (understand)

You ask a friend to imagine these situations. You ask What would you do if ... ?

- 1 (imagine – you win a lot of money)
What would you do if you won a lot of money?
- 2 (imagine – you lose your passport)
What
- 3 (imagine – there's a fire in the building)
.....
- 4 (imagine – you're in a lift and it stops between floors)
.....

Answer the questions in the way shown.

- 1 A: Shall we catch the 10.30 train?
B: No. (arrive too early) If we caught the 10.30 train, we'd arrive too early.
- 2 A: Is Kevin going to take his driving test?
B: No. (fail) If he
- 3 A: Why don't we stay at a hotel?
B: No. (cost too much) If
- 4 A: Is Sally going to apply for the job?

Conclusion.

While writing this course paper, we came across several interesting things when comparing the adverbial modifier of condition in English and Uzbek. As we mentioned in the above chapters that in Modern English the adverbial modifier of condition is connected with the principle clause by means of the following connectives, such as: *if, on condition that, providing, provided that, unless, in case that* correspond to the Uzbek connectives *agar, mabodo, bordiyu, bo'lmasa, taqdirda, yo'qsa*. In English, if the conditional clause is connected with the principle clause by *unless*, the meaning of the subordinate clause is negative whereas we do not have this phenomenon in Uzbek: *He won't hear unless you cry. Agar baqirmasangiz, u eshitmaydi. You can't get a job unless you've got experience (= you can only get a job if you have experience). Unless you call me to say you're not coming, I'll see you at the theatre (= I will see you there if you do not call to say you are not coming)*. In the second type of conditional clause in English the condition in the principle clause is unreal and it has got its construction like: *If I knew his phone number, I would call him.*, which means that I do not know his phone number. This sentence sounds like this in Uzbek: *Agar uning raqamini bilganida edi, unga qo'ng'iroq qilgan bo'lardim*. As we mentioned above there is the third type of conditional sentence in which the event really did not happen: *If he had come to the party, we would have enjoyed the party.*, which means that he did not come and we did not enjoy the party. *Agar u ziyofatga kelganida edi, biz ziyofatni zo'r o'tkazgan bo'lardik*. What we want to find interesting is that in Uzbek the same type of sentence sounds like the second type of conditional sentence, that is, both the second and the third type of conditional clause in English are translated into Uzbek by the same sentence.

The course work consists of introduction, three chapters, conclusion and the bibliography. We hope this course work will serve as an eligible manual for teaching the adverbial modifier of condition at schools and help give effective results.

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