



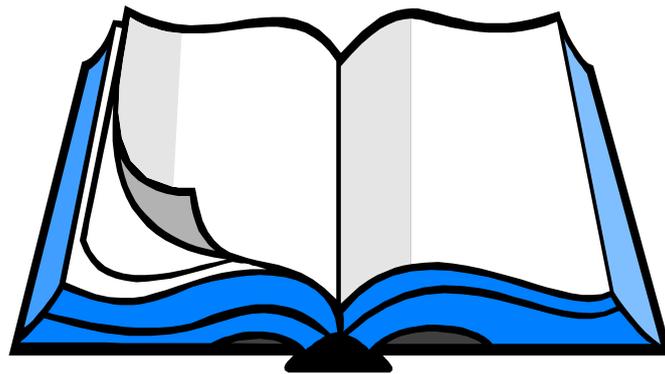
**MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIALIZED EDUCATION
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GRADUATION PAPER

THEME: Homonymy of composite sentences with “so that” and their
translational and linguodidactical problems.

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INTRODUCTION

There are many other lands in the world, but our Uzbekistan is unique. This wonderful and sacred land was created for us. We are citizens of this sacred country – Independent Uzbekistan, which is a real paradise for a human being just to be born in and enjoy living, getting education and working for the further prosperity of the gifted, friendly and laborious multinational Uzbek people who are today equal among equals and continuing to make their worthy contribution to the development of the world civilization.

Since the population of Uzbekistan is diverse and represented by many different nationalities, the idea of internationalism is stressed from the beginning to ensure a peaceful and friendly coexistence in future. This is especially dictated by the current feelings of globalization that involves all the countries around the globe. Along with this, however, the Uzbek heritage, culture, traditions and knowledge of the great leaders, scientists, scholars and heroes of the past is taught thoroughly to give the children a feeling of pride for the country they are born in and nurture patriotic feelings in them.

Our country is only 24 years old, but each year of this period, we think, may be compared to decades just to deeply estimate the ever high growth of our country in every walk of life: spirituality, economy, science, technique and culture, etc.

According to social and economic progress of any nation and its role is prominent in every aspect of our lives. Our government pays huge attention to the education of the younger generation. As our President pointed out the youth is not only the hope and future, but also a decisive force of today and tomorrow. So, today all the doors are open for us. International grants afford us to receive or continue education in the leading educational and scientific centres of high-

developed countries of the world. Various Funds such as “Umid”, “Zulfiya”, “Nihol” “Kamolot”, “Kamalak” give the best opportunities for hundreds of talented young people to show their abilities and introduce themselves to the whole country and receive scholarships necessary for their studying. Thus our state ensures in all stages of educational process the training of high skilled, physically healthy generation.

On December 10, 2012 President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov signed a decree “On measures to further improve foreign language learning system”.

It is noted that in the framework of the Law of the Republic of Uzbekistan "On education" and the National Program for Training in the country, a comprehensive foreign languages' teaching system, aimed at creating harmoniously developed, highly educated, modern-thinking young generation, further integration of the country to the world community, has been created.

English is one of the official languages of the United Nations Organization and other political organization. It is the language of the literature, education, modern music, international tourism. Uzbekistan is integrating into the world community and the problem of learning English for the purpose of communication is especially urgent today. Learning a foreign language is not as easy thing. It is a long and slow process that takes a lot of time and patience. However, to know English is absolutely necessary for every educated person. As our state gained its historical independence great attention started to be paid to foreign languages and their teaching. State sovereignty, along with membership in the United Nations and other international organizations has given Uzbekistan an opportunity to conduct independent foreign policy, search for ways to join the international community, and prioritize the goals of international relations. One of the most important tasks of our country is to train of qualified specialist in the fields of diplomacy, international law, external economic activities, banking and other new realms of endeavors; expended study and training opportunities for students and specialists at leading foreign educational and research centers, foreign firms, banks and

companies. In order to fulfill these tasks, we should think about methods and ways of teaching English to our specialists. In December 2010, our president Islam Karimov proposed about improving foreign language teaching, especially English, to our specialists in different fields.

Our president is always mentioning that without foreign languages no organization, no person can develop fast.

As to the above mentioned, English is a accepted language of communication all over the world and it is being paid great attention to in teaching foreign languages in our Uzbekistan. And the main sources of scientific and intellectual personnel are qualified specialists that graduate from universities and make their contribution to the development of the country by writing scientific research works, graduation qualification papers in various sciences and subjects, including linguistics and literature known together as philology.

My qualification paper is devoted to one of the actual problems of Homonymy of Composite sentence with so that and it's translating, linguadidactic purposes.

Actuality of the topic of the graduation paper. Composite sentences, their types, classification, homonymy, synonymy, antonym are more investigated in English and Uzbek language but knowledge has no the ending. So we try to add some new, solve problems depend on composite sentence with so that homonymy, its translating and linguodidactic purposes in Uzbek schools. The Scientific interest presents a number of questions. Firstly, we have to looking through and analyze information, sources that given in many books by some linguistics depend on composite sentence with so that and its homonymy. A lot of linguistics learnt and discussed Composite sentences, their types, classification, and interpretation. They gave the some definitions. Secondly, comparison of the composite sentence so that and ways of its expression in different languages, interesting with standpoint of that, if language facilities are alike in both compared languages or not. On the base of carried studies, there was undertaken attempt to identify the typological particularities of the composite sentence so that in English and Uzbek languages.

Conjunction so that used to introduce result of situation. We also use so that to say that something is done for a particular purpose.

Above the mentioned, linguistics are involved in investigating urgent and actual problems of world modern Linguistics with Linguodidactics.

Famous linguist Б. А. Ильиш gave characteristics, definitions, examples to all conjunction.

В. Л. Каушанская (Грамматика английского языка) gave brief information about clauses, their definitions, examples.

И. П. Иванова, В. В. Бурлакова, Г. Г. ПОЧЕПЦОВ (Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка) gave in their book classification of conjunctions.

Doctor of philology Professor of Andijon State University G.M. Hoshimov is more investigating on Composite sentences, their types, classification, synonymy, antonyms, homonymy, their translologic problems, linguodidactic methods in Uzbek schools, collages, lyceums, universities.

I tried to look through and analyze some dissertation works about composite sentences in English, Russian language. But information is less and there have not more any translologic, linguodidactic purposes.

Though the homonymy of composite sentences with so that has been more or less investigated in English and Uzbek separately, there hasn't been any scientific research devoted to the homonymy of so that in Modern English and Uzbek and to the effective methods of teaching homonymy of composite sentences with so that in English at Uzbek schools.

Aim of the research establishing characteristic features of the composite sentence so that and its homonymy in Modern Linguistics and its expression in English, structural and positional types of the composite sentence. And working out effective strategies for teaching the composite sentence so that in Modern English and Uzbek at Uzbek schools is also included into the aim of our research paper. System of exercises for drilling is also included to the aim of the research.

Tasks of the research: In order to fulfill the above mentioned goal of our research we should carry out the following tasks:

- to observe the theory of the composite sentence in Modern Linguistics;
- to work on the classification of composite sentence so that in Modern English and Uzbek;
- discovering the main peculiarities of composite sentence;
- to consider types of the composite sentence in Modern English;
- to work homonymic features of composite sentence so that in Modern linguistics ;

- to study forming of composite sentence so that in both studied languages;
- to work on the effective strategies for teaching the attributes in Modern English at Uzbek schools, and on system of exercises for drilling.

Object of the research: The research focuses on structural-semantic features of the composite sentences with so that in Modern English for purpose of creating effective strategies for teaching the homonymy of composite sentences with so that

Subject matter of the research: The subject matter of the research is to create effective strategies for teaching the English composite sentences with so that on the comparative linguistic study of homonymy of so that in Modern English for linguodidactic purposes.

Methods of the research: The methods we have put forward to conduct a detailed research into our chosen topic are as follows : The methods we have put forward to conduct a detailed research into our chosen topic are as follows:

- i. Comparative method;
- ii. Oppositional method;
- iii. Parts of sentence method;
- iv. Distributional method;

- v. Contextual method;
- vi. Statistical method;
- vii. Componential method;
- viii. Transformational method;
- ix. Method of modeling, etc.

Scientific novelty of the research: The paper sheds a new light on a number of problem areas on current theory of the composite sentences with so that in Modern linguistics: In this study we tried to summarize the definitions given in the subject area, to carry out the linguodidactic comparison of the phenomenon in Modern English, to work out a detailed qualitative and quantitative analysis of the homonymy of composite sentences with so that in the compared languages and to offer useful strategies and methodological recommendations for teaching the homonymy of composite sentences with so that in Uzbek schools.

Materials of the research: In order to back-up the theories of the research we have employed a number of works on methodology of teaching based on solid empirical examples of the composite sentences with so that.

Methodology of the research: The data we have collected from the well-known linguists listed below have been indispensable in performing our research: Barkhudarov L.S. Kobrina va Korneyeva, Hoshimov G. M, Kaushanskaya V.L, B. A. Ilish, A. Dragunkin, Belyayeva, Kononov and etc.

Theoretical value of the research: This research has gone some way towards enhancing our understanding of the comparative analysis of the composite sentences with so that, along with that, the certain helpful methodological recommendations for teaching the subject in Uzbek schools we have worked out could, conceivably, represent a further step toward the development of studying this special field of linguistics.

Practical value of the research: The end result of this research work can be conducive to teaching the special area of linguistics, in the theory and practice of translation processes, and in giving lectures on theoretical grammar.

Field of application: We believe that our marginal findings present promising applications in the process of teaching the composite sentences with so that at secondary schools, lyceums, colleges and universities. Besides, our research can be taken advantage of in translation processes as well.

Structure of the graduation paper: The graduation paper consists of the following sections: introduction, 3 chapters, conclusion and the list of the used literature.

Chapter 1. Theory of composite sentences in Modern linguistics

The Composite sentence, as a different from the simple sentence, is formed by two or more predicative lines. Being a polypredicative constructions, it expresses a complicated act of thought, an act of mental activity which falls into two or more intellectual efforts closely combined with one another. In terms of situations and events this means that the composite sentence reflects two or more elementary situational events viewed as making up a unity; the constitutive connections of the events are expressed by the constitutive connections of the predicativelines of the sentence, sentential polypredication. Each predicative unit in composite sentence makes up a clause in it, so that a clause as part of composite sentence corresponds to a separate sentence as part of contextual sequence.

When I sat down to dinner I looked for an opportunity to sleep in casually the information that I had by accident run across the Driffields; but news travelled fast in Blackstable.(S Maugham)

1.3 New approaches to theory of composite sentence in modern linguistics.

There are different approaches to composite sentences, for example, N.A.Kobrina, E.A.Korneyeva distinguish the following composite sentences types:

1. The Compound Sentences.
2. Linked Independent Sentences.
3. The Complex Sentence.
 - 1) The Complex Sentence with Substantive Clauses.
 - 2) The Complex Sentence with a Subject Clause.
 - 3) The Complex Sentence with a Predicative Clause.
 - 4) The Complex Sentence with an Object Clause(.The Complex Sentence with a Complement Clause).
 - 5) The Complex Sentence with an Attribute Clause.
 - 6) The Complex Sentence with an Adverbial Clause.

7)Cases of Structural Arrangements Intermediate between Coordination and Subordination composite sentence is a sentence consisting of two or more clauses.

The composite sentence is a sentence consisting of two or more clauses.

In its structure a clause is similar to a simple sentence, but unlike a simple sentence it forms part of a bigger syntactical unit.

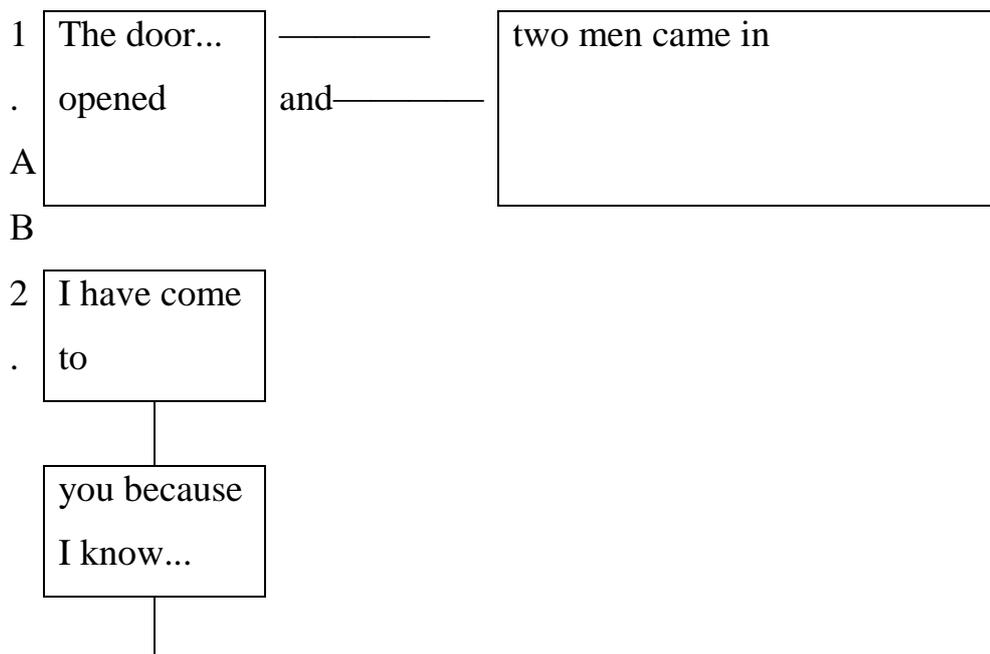
Within a composite sentence clauses may be joined by means of *coordination* or *subordination*, thus forming *a compound* or *a complex sentence* respectively.

Coordination is a way of linking grammatical elements to make them equal in rank.

Subordination is a way of linking grammatical elements that makes one of them dependent upon the other (or they are mutually dependent).

1. The door of Henry's lunch-room opened, and two men came in.
2. I have come to you, because I know from reading your accounts that you are Mr Sherlock Holme's most intimate acquaintance.

These sentences may be graphically presented in the following way:



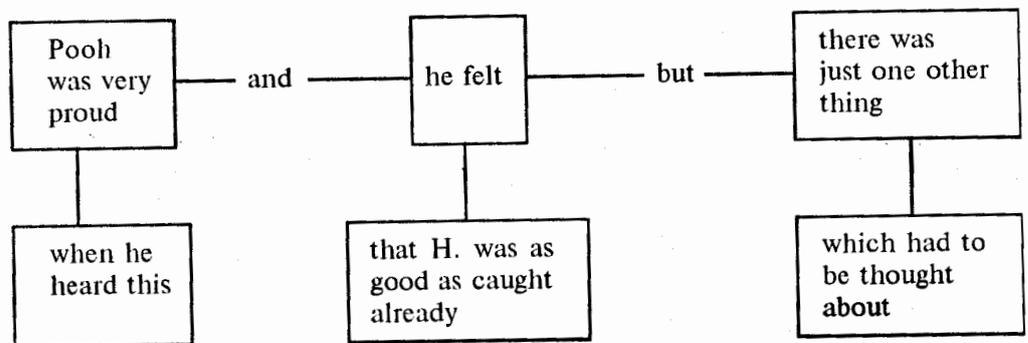
that you
are...

compound sentence may contain coordinate clauses extended by subordinate clauses, and the resulting structure is a compound-complex sentence.

Pooh was very proud when he heard this, and he felt that Heffalump was as good as caught already, but

there was just one other thing which had to be thought about.

The scheme of the above compound-complex sentence

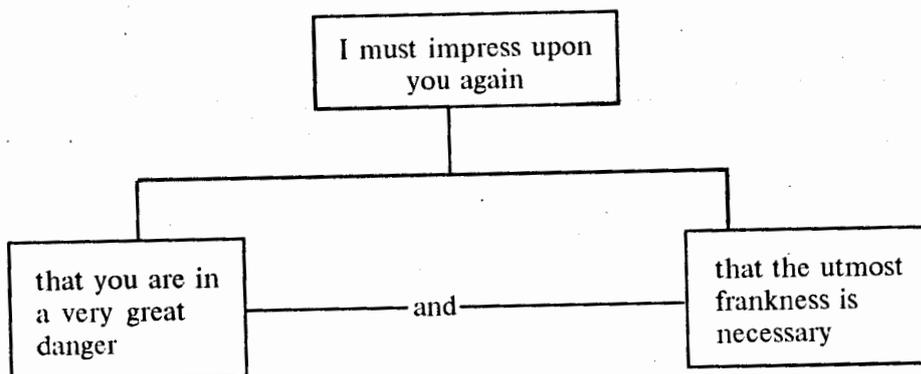


A complex sentence

may contain subordinate clauses joined by means of coordination, the resulting structure being a *complex sentence with homogeneous subordinate clauses*.

I must impress upon you again that you are in a very great danger, and that the utmost frankness is necessary.

The scheme of a complex sentence with homogeneous clauses



THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

A compound sentence consists of two or more clauses of equal rank which form one syntactical whole in meaning and intonation. Clauses that are parts of a compound sentence are called *coordinate*, as they are joined by coordination.

Coordinate clauses may be linked together with or without a connector; in the first case they are joined *syndetically*.

Yesterday I bought a penny fiddle
And put it to my chin to play,
But I found its strings painted,
So I threw my fiddle away.

in the second case - *asyndetically*:

Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall,
Humpty Dumpty had a great fall;
All the king's horses, and all the king's men
Cannot put Humpty Dumpty together again.

4. Inserted Clauses Modelled on the Pattern of Subordinate Clauses.

II. R. Quirk, S. Creendbaum, J. Svartvik distinguish the following *complex sentences* types:

1. Coordinate clauses
2. Subordinate clauses.

As we see the authors treat the abovementioned sentences under the term "*complex sentence*" and not "*composite sentence*".

H. Sweet. speaks of the Composite Sentence, that fall into the Compound and Complex Sentences. And he considers that simple sentences can be of two types¹:

1. independent
2. dependent

For example: When I came back, I found no one at home. Here "When I came back", is dependent, "I found no one at home" – independent

¹See H. Sweet. A New English Grammar, Part I, p. 160-168

H.Sweet thinks that two or more sentences may be joined together to form a single complex sentence, or *c o m p l e x*, as it may be called for the sake of brevity. When simple sentences are joined together in this way they may be called "*c l a u s e s*"

In treating the composite sentences N.E.Kobrina and N.I. Korneeva classify them into the compound sentence and the complex sentence. The complex sentences in their turn fall under the following functional subtypes:

1) **the complex sentence with nominal clauses**(*subjective, predicative, objective and appositive*(content) clauses.

2)the complex sentences with adverbial clauses of *place, time, manner, comparison, condition, concession, purpose, cause, result. (consequence)*

3)pseudo-complex sentences:

a) **emphatic (or cleft) sentences: It is John who did it**

b)appended clauses (уточняющие предложения): She is a clever girl, *is your friend*. He never told me anything, *did your brother*.

c)absolute (or emancipated) subordinate clauses (if only I knew his address! As though you didn't know!)

d) parenthetical clauses (parentheses)often called *comment clauses*

There is, *as it were*, a transparent barrier between myself and strong emotions.

He waited (*which was his normal occupation*) and thought, like other citizens

IV. In modern syntactical theory there's also a taxemic approach to the so called "composite sentences" offered by **Doctor of Philology, Professor G.M.Hoshimov¹**, who has accordingly worked out a string of universal metaterms and metanotions for the above mentioned syntactical phenomenon. So he offers the following:

taxeme - It means "sentence" with one subject-predicate structure, homogeneous parts being excluded here(*We have some time; They read novels, etc/*).

polytaxeme - It is a composite sentence(*Jack is a student , and his friend is a worker; When David came home , nobody was in, etc.*)

collotaxeme - It is an asyndetic composite sentence(*I am a teacher, he is a doctor; I know he is working now, etc.*);

parataxeme - It is a syndetic compound sentence(*The people are friendly here, but it's different there*);

hypotaxeme - It is a syndetic complex sentence (*They are working hard although they are extremely tired, etc.*)

parentaxeme – It is a syndetic/asyndetic composite sentence(As you know, we are foreigners, My friend(he is a student) is an American guy.

hypertaxeme - It is a mixed (compound and complex) (*When David came home , nobody was in, but the dog was barking, etc.*)

supertaxeme composite sentence with 4 components(*It was a high snowy mountain and it dominated the valley, but it was so far away that it did not make a shadow (E. Hemingway. A Farewell to Arms, 254)*

architaxeme - It is a composite sentence with 5 components(*It was a daybreak, the wind was blowing, some people were coming out of their houses which looked so modern and beautiful that you would like to live here no matter how costly they might be(Newspaper).*

ultrataxeme - It is a composite sentence with 6 or more components (*They would not let us go out together when I was off crutches because it was unseemly for a nurse to be seen unchaperoned with a patient who did not look as though he needed attendance, so we were not together much in the afternoon*

(*E.Hemingway. A Farewell to Arms, 117*)

The treatment of the composite sentences will not be complete, if we do not consider the problem of the d i s c o u r s e - the study of continuous stretches of language longer than a single sentence arguments, narratives, jokes, and speeches also called discourse linguistics. For example: *I met Nick in the park. He was so nervous, which was unseen with him.*

So the discourse is a connected speech(text in the traditional sense of the word) consisting of at least two independent sentences logically correlated through

a full stop. The connections between them are seen in the correlates (like “*Nick and He*” in the given discourse) that is what makes up the cohesion of the latter.

As to the semantic types of composite sentences in English we are inclined to think that there are four generally accepted main types:

1. Composite declarative sentence.
2. Composite interrogative sentence.
3. Composite imperative sentence.
4. Composite exclamatory (exclamative) sentence.

We can illustrate them as follows:

1. He came when we were out.
2. Were you in when they came here ?
3. Go where you have come from.
4. Long live the students who are excelling in every respect!

The communicative semantic and pragmatic features of the composite sentences are object of special investigations, which should be studied in a special course on the former.

It is also important to point out the syncretic types of the composite sentences in which at least two types of semantics are blended as in the cases of clauses introduced by the conjunctions “lest, unless, in case, so, that, so that, etc.

For example:

The notion of “cleft sentences” of the type: “It is the other man that I want to see”. “That is what we need”. “It is good that he is here” is interesting. Such sentences are special types of composite sentences both structurally and semantically, for they illustrate such a syntactical phenomenon, which may be called “blending of sentence structures”.

In every complex there is one independent clause, called the *p r i n c i p a l c l a u s e*, together with at least one dependent clause, which stands in the relation of adjunct to the principal clause. The dependent clause may be either coordinate or subordinate. We call a coordinate clause a *c o - c l a u s e*, a subordinate clause a *sub- c l a u s e*. Thus in “You shall walk, and I will ride”, the first clause is the

principal clause, and the second is a c o - c l a u s e. In you are the man I want, the second clause - I want - is a sub - clause. So also in "you shall walk while I ride".

A complex in which the principal clause is modified by a co-clause is called, for the sake of brevity, a c o - c o m p l e x, and one in which it is modified by a subclause is called a sub-complex. Thus the first complex is a co-complex, the other two are sub-complexes. In a complex the clauses must be joined together by conjunctions, or else the adjunct-clauses must be dependent, as in "You are the man I want". When two or more independent sentences are associated together logically in the same way as in complex, the combination is called a s e q u e n c e. thus we have an adversative sequence in "am I right, am I wrong? which is logically equivalent to the complex am I right, or am I wrong?" Such a sequence is therefore equivalent to a co-complex. Such a causal sequence as "I am sure of it": I saw it myself" if, on the other hand, equivalent to the sub-complex I am of it, because I saw it myself. In both of these examples the adjunct sentence is unprepared. We call such sequences u n p r e p a r e d s e q u e n c e s .

№	Main composite sentences types	English	Uzbek	Russian
1.1	Composite sentence	+	+	+
1.	Compound sentence	+	+	+
2.	Complex sentence	+	+	+
3.	Subject clause	+	+	+
4.	Predicative clause	+	+	+
5.	Object clause	+	+	+
6.	Attribute clause	+	+	+
7.	Appositive clause	+	+	+
8.	Adverbial clause of:	+	+	+
9.	Time	+	+	+
10.	Place	+	+	+
11.	Cause	+	+	+

12.	Purpose	+	+	+
13.	Condition	+	+	+
14.	Concession	+	+	+
15.	Manner	+	+	+
16.	Comparison	+	+	+
17.	Result	+	+	+
18.	Introductory clause	+	+	+

On point of view of Каушанская

A compound sentence is a sentence which consists of two or more clauses coordinated reach 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.

(*Cronin*)

(b) asyndetically, 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 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*)

2. 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.

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 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*)

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, ¹whereas* and the conjunctive adverbs *nevertheless, still, yet*. These are conjunctions and adverbs connecting two clauses contrasting in meaning.

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 nurseries was now the modern school-room.

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.²

There was something amiss with Mr. Lightwood, **for** he was strangely grave and looked ill. (*Dickens*)

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*)

Note. – There are cases when the conjunction *for* expressed 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.

¹The conjunction *while* is not always coordinating. It may be a subordinating conjunction introducing adverbial clause of time.

²Cause, consequence and result may also be expressed by subordinate clauses, introduces by subordinating conjunctions.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

3. A complex sentence consists of a principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

Note. – 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.

(For a detailed treatment of this phenomenon see § 4, 5.)

Clauses in a complex sentence may be linked in two ways:

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. (*Cronin*)

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. (*Dickens*)

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*)

What Mr. Pancks knew about the Dorrit family, what more he really wanted to find out, and why he should trouble his busy head about them at all, were questions that often perplexed him. (*Dickens*)

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*)

I don't mind making the admission ... that there are certain forms of so-called humor, or, at least, fun, which I am quite unable to appreciate. (*Leacock*)

I think I have noticed that they have an inconsistent way of speaking about her, as if she had made some great self-interested success in marrying Mr. Gowan ... (*Dreiser*)

According to their grammatical function subordinate clauses are divided into subject, predicative, attributive, object, and adverbial clauses.

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 some one. (*Dreiser*)

Note. – 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 ways:

(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. (*Collins*)

(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*)

(b) *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 more subject clauses coordinated with each other.

Who her mother was, and how she came to die in that forlornness, 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*)

Note. – Formally it is possible to distinguish a subject clause in sentences with an emphatic construction, however, in meaning they are equivalent to simple sentences.

It was his uncle who spoke first. (*Priestley*) It was there that the offensive was to begin. (*Hemingway*)

It was very seldom that I uttered more than monosyllables in Dr. John's presence. (*Ch. Bronte*)

It was not till she was quite close that he could believe her to be Tess. (*Hardy*)

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 settled on now is whether anything can be done to save him. (*Dreiser*)

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, whoever, whatever*

(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 was the matter to be kept quiet. (*Dreiser*)

That was why you were not one bit frightened. (*Eliot*)

(c) asyndetically.

Another thing... was they had nurse Andrews staying on with them that week. (*Mansfield*)

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.

But the chief reason is, that Mirah will desire to watch over you, and that you ought to give her the guardianship of a brother's presence. (*Eliot*)

Note. – In a sentence containing a subject clause and a predicative clause the principal clause is represented only by the link verb.

What we want to now is what the French are going to do now. (*Greene*)

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'Usseau*)

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*)

Mr. Bruff folded up the will, and then looked my way apparently wondering whether I did or did not mean to leave him alone with my aunt. (*Collins*)

Soames averted his eyes and became conscious that Winifred and he were alone.
(*Galsworthy*)

They were not sure what the morrow would bring forth. (*Dreiser*)

The poor girl is anxious that you should be at her wedding. (*Trollope*)

She was aware that someone else was there. (*Eliot*)

Object clauses are connected with the principal clause in the following ways:
by means of the conjunctions *that, if, whether, as if.*

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 to one another. (*Lindsay*)

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

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

I'll do just what I say. (*Dreiser*)

He wondered why he should look

back... (*Wilson*)

I half rose, and advanced my head to see how she was occupied. (*Ch. Bronte*)

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

(b) *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*)

I found it hard to keep my mind on what the colonel was saying. (*Greene*)

An object clause is sometimes preceded by the introductory object *it.*

I insist upon it that you tell me what you mean. (*Trollope*)

As a rule object clauses are not separated by a comma from the principal clause. A comma may or may not be used if the object clause precedes the principal clause.

What I used not to like, I long for now. (*Eliot*)

What happened then I do not

know. (*Conan Doyle*)

If we have two or more homogeneous object clauses they are separated from each other by a comma.

I can't tell you what tricks they performed, or how they did it. (*Collins*)

Note. – A sentence containing direct speech consists of two independent clauses.

“I don't deserve to be mocked at,” she said in a stifled voice. (*Lindsay*)

“Well,” I thought, “at any rate, judging by the smell, the food must be good.” (*Mansfield*)

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. (*Conrad*) (attributive relative clauses)

The fortunate fact that the rector's letter did not require an immediate answer would give him time to consider. (*Hardy*) (attributive appositive clauses)

Attributive relative clauses are joined to the principal clause syndetically – by means of connectives, and asyndetically; attributive appositive clauses only syndetically – by means of conjunctions.

8. Attributive relative clauses can be restrictive and non-restrictive or descriptive.

1. An attributive relative restrictive clause restricts the meaning of the antecedent. It cannot be removed without destroying the meaning of the sentences. It is not separated by a comma from the principal clause because of its close connection with it. Attributive relative restrictive clauses are introduced by:

(a) relative pronouns (*who, whose, which, that, as*);

(b) relative adverbs (*where, when*);

(c) asyndetically.

You could not but feel sympathy for a man who took so much delight in simple things. (*Maugham*)

... but there is no private life which has not been determined by a wider, public life. (*Eliot*)

An that could be done had been done. (*Dreiser*)

He sang a long song ... such a song as the Spanish wagoners sang in Nigeria. (*Hichens*)

And he is now come to that stage of life when a man like him should enter into public affairs. (*Eliot*)

They spoke no more all the way back to the lodging where Banny and her uncle lived. (*Dickens*)

There was simply nothing else he could do. (*Coppard*)

I think my father is the best man I have ever known. (*Shaw*)

2. An attributive relative non-restrictive clause does not restrict the meaning of the antecedent; it gives some additional information about it. It can be left out without destroying the meaning of the sentence. As the connection between the principal clause and the attributive non-restrictive clause is loose, they are often separated by a comma.

Attributive relative non-restrictive clauses are in most cases introduced syndetically by means of:

(a) relative pronouns (*who, which*)

(b) relative adverbs (*where, when*)

Mr. Prusty, who kept no assistant, slowly got off his stool. (*Cronin*)

She uttered a wild scream, which in its heart-rending intensity seemed to echo for miles. (*Hardy*)

He went in alone to the dining-room where the table was laid for one. (*Cronin*)

The relative pronoun *that* is hardly ever used to introduce an attributive relative non-restrictive clause.

He had emotion, fire, longings, that were concealed behind a wall of reserve. (*Dreiser*)

A variant of the attributive non-restrictive clause is the continuative clause, whose antecedent is not one word but a whole clause. Continuative clauses are always separated from the principal clause by a comma.

A continuative clause is introduced by the relative pronoun *which*, rendered in Russian by the pronoun *umo*.

Mr. Manston was not indoors, which was a relief to her. (*Hardy*)

But to-day ... he had slept only in snatches. Which was worse than not sleeping at all. (*Cronin*)

For this purpose they probably lowered the bridge, which can be done quite noiselessly. (*Conan Doyle*)

Note. – The connection between the attributive continuative clause and the principal clause is so loose that it is doubtful whether we have here line case between subordination and coordination.

§ 9. Attributive appositive clauses.

Attributive appositive clauses disclose the meaning of the antecedent, which is expressed by an abstract noun. An attributive appositive clause is not separated from the principal clause by a comma.

Appositive clauses are chiefly introduced by the conjunction *that*, occasionally by the conjunction *whether* or by adverbs *how* and *why*. They are not joined to the principal clause asyndetically.

He stopped in the hope that she would speak. (*Dickens*)

And then she had a nightmare conviction that she'd lost her sense of direction and was going the wrong way. (*Lindsay*)

I have a presentiment that he is bringing trouble and misery with him into the house. (*Collins*)

With his former doubt whether this dry hard personage were quite in earnest, Clennam again turned his eyes

attentively upon his face. (*Dickens*)

There was no reason why she should not read it (the book). (*Hichens*)

Thus to Cythera and Owen Gray the question how their lives would end seemed th deepest of possible enigmas. (*Hardy*)

1.2 The problem of homonymy of composite sentences and their classification in Modern linguistics.

It is universally recognized that homonyms are two or more words identical in sound and spelling but different in meaning, distribution and (in many cases) origin. The term is derived from Greek *homonymous* (*homos* 'the same' and *onoma* 'name') and thus expresses very well the sameness of name combined with the difference in meaning.

E.g. knight [nait]	night [nait]
Sun [s^ʌn]	son [s^ʌn]
Knows [nouz]	nose [nouz]
Sea [si:]	see [si:]
Eye [aI]	I [aI]

Modern English is exceptionally rich in homonymous words and word-forms. It is held that languages where short words abound have more homonyms than those where longer words are prevalent. Therefore it is sometimes suggested that abundance of homonyms in Modern English is to be accounted for by the monosyllabic structure of the commonly used English words.²

Many words, especially characterized by a high frequency rating, are not connected with meaning by a one-to-one relationship.³ Each sign has only one meaning, and each meaning is associated with only one sign. This one-to-one relationship is not realised in natural languages. When several related meanings are associated with the same group of sounds within one part of speech, the word is

² Ginzburg R. S. *A Course in Modern English Lexicology*, M.: Vyssaja skola, 1966, стр. 139

³ Антрушина Г.Б. *Лексикология английского языка*, М.: Дрофа, 2006, стр. 166

called polysemantic, when two or more unrelated meanings are associated with the same form — the words are homonyms, when two or more different forms are associated with the same or nearly the same denotative meanings — the words are synonyms.

All the possible values of each linguistic sign are listed in dictionaries. It is the duty of lexicographers to define the boundaries of each word, i.e. to differentiate homonyms and to unite variants deciding in each case whether the different meanings belong to the same polysemantic word or whether there are grounds to treat them as two or more separate words identical in form. In speech, however, as a rule only one of all the possible values is determined by the context, so that no ambiguity may normally arise. There is no danger, for instance, that the listener would wish to substitute the meaning 'quick' into the sentence: *It is absurd to have hard and fast rules about anything* (Wilde), or think that *fast rules* here are 'rules of diet'. Combinations when two or more meanings are possible are either deliberate puns, or result from carelessness. Both meanings of *liver*, i.e. 'a living person' and 'the organ that secretes bile' are, for instance, intentionally present in the following play upon words: "*Is life worth living?*" "*It depends upon the liver.*" Cf.: "*What do you do with the fruit?*" "*We eat what we can, and what we can't eat we can.*"

Very seldom can ambiguity of this kind interfere with understanding. The following example is unambiguous, although the words *back* and *part* have several homonyms, and *maid* and *heart* are polysemantic:

*Maid of Athens, ere we part,
Give, oh give me back my heart* (Byron).

Homonymy exists in many languages, but in English it is particularly frequent, especially among monosyllabic words. In the list of 2540 homonyms given in the "Oxford English Dictionary"⁴ 89% are monosyllabic words and only 9.1 % are words of two syllables. From the viewpoint of their morphological structure, they are mostly one-morpheme words.

⁴ "Oxford School Dictionary" McDonald F., Delahanty.A.

E. g. *bank*, n. — a shore

bank, n. — an institution for receiving, lending, exchanging, and safeguarding money.

ball, n. — a sphere; any spherical body

ball, n. — a large dancing party.

English vocabulary is rich in such pairs and even groups of words. Their identical forms are mostly accidental: the majority of homonyms coincided due to phonetic changes which they suffered during their development.

If synonyms and antonyms can be regarded as the treasury of the language's expressive resources, homonyms are of no interest in this respect, and one cannot expect them to be of particular value for communication. Metaphorically speaking, groups of synonyms and pairs of antonyms are created by the vocabulary system

with a particular purpose whereas homonyms are accidental creations, and therefore purposeless.

In the process of communication they are more of an encumbrance, leading sometimes to confusion and misunderstanding. Yet it is this very characteristic which makes them one of the most important sources of popular humour. The pun is a joke based upon the play upon words of similar form but different meaning (i. e. on homonyms) as in the following:

"A tailor guarantees to give each of his customers a perfect fit."

(The joke is based on the homonyms: I. fit, n. — perfectly fitting clothes; II. fit, n. — a nervous spasm.)

Here you can see another example:

⁵E.g. "*Bow to the board,* " said Bumble. Oliver brushed away two or three tears that were lingering in his eyes; and seeing *no board but the table*, fortunately *bowed to that*.

⁵ I.R. Galperin- Stylistics 1977, стр. 156

In fact humorous effect is caused by interplay not of two meanings, but of two words (I mean homonymy, not polysemy). “Board” as a group of officials with functions of administration and management and “board” as a piece of furniture (table) have become two distinct words.

Very seldom can ambiguity of this kind interfere with understanding. The following example, quoted from Leisi⁶, sounds somewhat artificial, but may be also a deliberate joke and not carelessness.

E.g. “The girls will be playing cricket in white stockings. We hope they won’t get too many runs”.

Runs in this context may mean either “ladder in stockings” or “the units of scoring, made by running once over a certain course” (a cricket term).⁷

From this part we understood, that in linguistics, a homonym is, in the strict sense, one of a group of words that share the same spelling and the same pronunciation but have different meanings. The state of being a homonym is called homonymy. The best part about homonyms, though, is that they are the raw material for puns, a truly sublime form of humor.

The description of various types of homonyms in Modern English would be incomplete if we did not give a brief outline of the diachronic processes that account for their appearance. Arnold⁸ subdivided different causes of appearing homonymy into two main groups:

Homonymy through convergent sound development, when two or three words of different origin accidentally coincide in sound;

Homonymy developed from polysemy through divergent sense development. Both may be combined with loss of endings and other morphological processes.

Ginzburg R.S.⁹ observed the process of diverging meaning development as when different meanings of the same word move so far away from each other that they come to be regarded as two separate units. This happened, for example, in the

⁶ Ernest Leisi, *Das heutige Englisch. Wesenzuge und probleme*, Heidelberg, 1955, стр. 203

⁷ Антрушина Г.Б. *Лексикология английского языка*, М.: Дрофа, 2006, стр. 167

⁸ Арнольд И.В. *Лексикология современного английского языка*, М.: Высшая школа, 1973, стр. 188

⁹ Ginzburg R. S. *A Course in Modern English Lexicology*, М.: Vyssaja skola, 1966, стр. 42

case of Modern English *flower* and *flour* which originally were one word (*ME. flour*, cf. *OFr. flour, flor*, *L. flos — florem*) meaning ‘the flower’ and ‘the finest part of wheat’. The difference in spelling underlines the fact that from the synchronic point of view they are two distinct words even though historically they have a common origin.

Convergent sound development is the most potent factor in the creation of homonyms. The great majority of homonyms arise as a result of converging sound development which leads to the coincidence of two or more words which were phonetically distinct at an earlier date. For example, *OE. ic* and *OE. eaze* have become identical in pronunciation (*MnE. I* [ai] and *eye* [ai]). A number of lexicogrammatical homonyms appeared as a result of convergent sound development of the verb and the noun (cf. *MnE. love — (to) love* and *OE. lufu — lufian*).

Words borrowed from other languages may through phonetic convergence become homonymous. *ON. ras* and *Fr. race* are homonymous in Modern English (cf. *race*₁ [reis] — ‘running’ and *race*₂ [reis] — ‘a distinct ethnical stock’).¹⁰

One source of homonyms is *phonetic changes* which words undergo in the course of their historical development. As a result of such changes, two or more words which were formerly pronounced differently may develop identical sound forms and thus become homonyms. *Night* and *knight*, for instance, were not homonyms in Old English as the initial *k* in the second word was pronounced, and not dropped as it is in its modern sound form: O.E. *kniht* (cf. O.E. *niht*). A more complicated change of form brought together another pair of homonyms: *to knead* (O.E. *cnēdan*) and *to need* (O.E. *nēodian*).

In Old English the verb *to write* had the form *writan*, and the adjective *right* had the forms *reht*, *riht*. The noun *sea* descends from the Old English form *sæ*, and the verb *to see* from O. E. *sēon*. The noun *work* and the verb *to work* also had different forms in Old English: *wyrkean* and *weork* respectively.

Borrowing is another source of homonyms. A borrowed word may, in the final stage of its phonetic adaptation, duplicate in form either a native word or

¹⁰ Ginzburg R. S. *A Course in Modern English Lexicology*, M.: Vyssaja skola, 1966, crp. 44-45

another borrowing. So, in the group of homonyms *rite*, n. — *to write*, v. — *right*, adj. the second and third words are of native origin whereas *rite* is a Latin borrowing (< Lat. *ritus*). In the *pair piece*, n. — *peace*, n., the first originates from O.F. *pais*, and the second from O.F. (< Gaulish) *pettia*. *Bank*, n. ("shore") is a native word, and *bank*, n. ("a financial institution") is an Italian borrowing. *Fair*, adj. (as in a *fair deal*, *it's not fair*) is native, and *fair*, n. ("a gathering of buyers and sellers") is a French borrowing. *Match*, n. ("a game; a contest of skill, strength") is native, and *match*, n. ("a slender short piece of wood used for producing fire") is a French borrowing.

Word-building also contributes significantly to the growth of homonymy, and the most important type in this respect is undoubtedly *conversion*. Such pairs of words as *comb*, n. — *to comb*, v., *pale*, adj. — *to pale*, v., *to make*, v. — *make*, n. are numerous in the vocabulary. Homonyms of this type, which are the same in sound and spelling but refer to different categories of parts of speech, are called *lexico-grammatical homonyms*.

Shortening is a further type of word-building which increases the number of homonyms. E.g. *fan*, n. in the sense of "an enthusiastic admirer of some kind of sport or of an actor, singer, etc." is a shortening produced from *fanatic*. Its homonym is a Latin borrowing *fan*, n. which denotes an implement for waving lightly to produce a cool current of air. The noun *rep*, n. denoting a kind of fabric (cf. with the R. *penc*) has three homonyms made by shortening: *rep*, n. (< *repertory*), *rep*, n. (< *representative*), *rep*, n. (< *reputation*)', all the three are informal words.

During World War II girls serving in the Women's Royal Naval Service (an auxiliary of the British Royal Navy) were jokingly nicknamed *Wrens* (informal). This neologistic formation made by shortening has the homonym *wren*, n. "a small bird with dark brown plumage barred with black" (R. *кранивник*).

Words made by sound-imitation can also form pairs of homonyms with other words: e. g. *bang*, n. ("a loud, sudden, explosive noise") — *bang*, n. ("a fringe of hair combed over the forehead"). Also: *mew*, n. ("the sound a cat makes")

— *mew*, n. ("a sea gull") — *mew*, n. ("a pen in which poultry is fattened") — *mews* ("small terraced houses in Central London").

The above-described sources of homonyms have one important feature in common. In all the mentioned cases the homonyms developed from two or more different words, and their similarity is purely accidental. (In this respect, conversion certainly presents an exception for in pairs of homonyms formed by conversion one word of the pair is produced from the other: *a find < to find*.)

Now we come to a further source of homonyms which differs essentially from all the above cases. Two or more homonyms can originate from different meanings of the same word when, for some reason, the semantic structure of the word breaks into several parts. This type of formation of homonyms is called *split polysemy*.

Arnold I.V.¹¹ described such homonyms which may be partly derived from one another but their common point of origin lies beyond the limits of the English language. In these words with the appearance of a new meaning, very different from the previous one, the semantic structure of the parent word splits. The new meaning receives a separate existence and starts a new semantic structure of its own. Hence the term disintegration or split of polysemy.

It is quite obvious that if the frequency of words stands in some inverse relationship to their length, the monosyllabic words will be the most frequent. Moreover, as the most frequent words are also highly polysemantic, it is only natural that they develop meanings which in the course of time may deviate very far from the central one. With another words disintegration or split of polysemy is the phenomenon when the intermediate links fall out, some of these new meanings lose all connections with the rest of the structure and start a separate existence.

In Old English the words *zesund* 'healthy' and *sund* 'swimming' were separate words both in form and in meaning. In the course of time they have changed their meaning and phonetic form, and the latter accidentally coincided: OE *sund* > ModE *sound* 'strait'; OE *zesund* > ModE *sound* 'healthy'. The group was

¹¹ Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка, М.: Высшая школа, 1973

joined also accidentally by the noun *sound* 'what is or may be heard' with the corresponding verb that developed from French and ultimately from the Latin word *sonus*, and the verb *sound* 'to measure the depth' of dubious etymology. The coincidence is purely accidental.

Two different Latin verbs: *cadere* 'to fall' and *capere* 'to hold' are the respective sources of the homonyms *case*₁ 'instance of thing's occurring' and *case*₂ 'a box'. Indeed, *case*₁ < OFr *cas* < Lat *casus* 'fall', and *case*₂ < Old Northern French *casse* < Lat *capsa*. Homonymy of this type is universally recognised.

Antrushina G. B.¹² proposed to consider the history of three homonyms:

board, n. — a long and thin piece of timber

board, n. — daily meals, esp. as provided for pay,

e. g. *room and board* *board, n.* — an official group of persons who direct or supervise some activity, e. g. *a board of directors*

It is clear that the meanings of these three words are in no way associated with one another. Yet, the largest dictionaries still enter a meaning of *board* that once held together all these other meanings "table". It developed from the meaning "a piece of timber" by transference based on contiguity (association of an object and the material from which it is made). The meanings "meals" and "an official group of persons" developed from the meaning "table", also by transference based on contiguity: meals are easily associated with a table on which they are served; an official group of people in authority are also likely to discuss their business round a table. A somewhat different case of split polysemy may be illustrated by the three following homonyms:

spring, n. — the act of springing, a leap *spring, n.* — a place where a stream of water comes up out of the earth (R. *родник, источник*) *spring, n.* — a season of the year.

Historically all three nouns originate from the same verb with the meaning of "to jump, to leap" (O. E. *sprin-gan*), so that the meaning of the first homonym is

¹² Антрушина Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка, М.: Дрофа, 2006, стр. 171-172

the oldest. The meanings of the second and third homonyms were originally based on metaphor. At the head of a stream the water sometimes leaps up out of the earth, so that metaphorically such a place could well be described as *a leap*. On the other hand, the season of the year following winter could be poetically defined as *a leap* from the darkness and cold into sunlight and life. Such metaphors are typical enough of Old English and Middle English semantic transferences but not so characteristic of modern mental and linguistic processes. The poetic associations that lay in the basis of the semantic shifts described above have long since been forgotten, and an attempt to re-establish the lost links may well seem far-fetched. It is just the near-impossibility of establishing such links that seems to support the claim for homonymy and not for polysemy with these three words.

It should be stressed, however, that split polysemy as a source of homonyms is not accepted by some scholars. It is really difficult sometimes to decide whether a certain word has or has not been subjected to the split of the semantic structure and whether we are dealing with different meanings of the same word or with homonyms, for the criteria are subjective and imprecise. The imprecision is recorded in the data of different dictionaries which often contradict each other on this very issue, so that *board* is represented as two homonyms in Professor V. K. Muller's dictionary, as three homonyms in Professor V. D. Arakin's and as one and the same word in Hornby's dictionary.

Spring also receives different treatment. V.K. Muller's and Hornby's¹³ dictionaries acknowledge but two homonyms: I. a season of the year, II. a) the act of springing, a leap; b) a place where a stream of water comes up out of the earth; and some other meanings, whereas V. D. Arakin's dictionary presents the three homonyms as given above.¹⁴

The intense development of homonymy in the English language is obviously due not to one single factor but to several interrelated causes, such as the monosyllabic character of English and its analytic structure.

¹³ V. K. Muller's and Hornby's dictionary

¹⁴ Антрушина Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка, М.: Дрофа, 2006. стр. 172

It must be noted that though the number of examples in which a process of this sort could be observed is considerable, it is difficult to establish exact criteria by which disintegration of polysemy could be detected. The whole concept is based on stating whether there is any connection between the meanings or not.¹ Whereas in the examples dealing with phonetic convergence, i.e. when we said that *case*₁ and *case*₂ are different words because they differ in origin, we had definite linguistic criteria to go by; in the case of disintegration of polysemy there are none to guide us, we can only rely on intuition and individual linguistic experience. For a trained linguist the number of unrelated homonyms will be much smaller than for an uneducated person. The knowledge of etymology and cognate languages will always help to supply the missing links. It is easier, for instance, to see the connection between *beam* ‘a ray of light’ and *beam* ‘the metallic structural part of a building’ if one knows the original meaning of the word, i.e. ‘tree’ (OE *beam*//Germ *Baum*), and is used to observe similar metaphoric transfers in other words. The connection is also more obvious if one is able to notice the same element in such compound names of trees as *hornbeam*, *whitebeam*, etc.

In Buranov and Muminov¹⁵ it is pointed out that many homonyms came as a result of converging sound development. e.g. OE *ic* and OE *āze* have become identical in pronunciation. *I* (*pronoun*) and *eye* (*noun*).

- 1) many homonyms arose from conversion, they have related meanings.

Paper- to paper

Support- to support

Some linguists think that converted parts must not be included in homonyms.

- 2) the formation of different grammatical forms may cause homonyms.

Girls- girl's

- 3) borrowed words may become homonyms as a result of phonetic convergence.

e.g. Scandinavian “ras” and French “race” are homonyms in English.

Race-сорязание

Race –рейс

¹⁵ Buranov J., Muminov O. A Practical Course in English Lexicology, T.: Ukituvchi, 1990, стр. 72

Diachronic treatment the only rigorous criterion is that of etymology observed in explanatory dictionaries of the English language where words are separated according to their origin, as in *match*₁ ‘a piece of inflammable material you strike fire with’ (from OFr *mesche*, Fr *mèche*) and *match*₂ (from OE *gemæcca* ‘fellow’).

This underestimation of regular patterned homonymy tends to produce a false impression. Actually the homonymy of nouns and verbs due to the processes of loss of endings on the one hand and conversion on the other is one of the most prominent features of present-day English. The process has been analysed in detail in the chapter on conversion. It may be combined with semantic changes as in the pair *long* a : : *long* v. The explanation is that when it seems long before something comes to you, you long for it (*long* a <OE *lanz*, *lonz* a <OE *lanzian* v), so that *me lonzs* means ‘it seems long to me’.

The opposite process of morphemic addition can also result in homonymy. This process is chiefly due to independent word-formation with the same affix or to the homonymy of derivational and functional affixes. The suffix *-er* forms several words with the same stem: *trail* — *trailer*₁ ‘a creeping plant’ : : *trailer*₂ ‘a caravan’, i.e. ‘a vehicle drawn along by another vehicle’.

In summing up this diachronic analysis of homonymy it should be emphasised that there are two ways by which homonyms come into being, namely convergent development of sound form and divergent development of meaning

The first may consist in:

- A. phonetic change only,
- B. phonetic change combined with loss of affixes,
- C. independent formation from homonymous bases by means of homonymous affixes.

The second, that is divergent development of meaning may be:

-Limited within one lexico-grammatical class of words,

-Combined with difference in lexico-grammatical class and therefore difference in grammatical functions and distribution, based on independent formation from the same base by homonymous morphemes.¹⁶

It is interesting to note that out of 2540 homonyms listed in “The Oxford English Dictionary” only 7% are due to disintegration of polysemy, all the others are etymologically different. One must, however, keep in mind that patterned homonymy is here practically disregarded.

So, in diachronic treatment the only rigorous criterion is that of etymology observed in explanatory dictionaries of the English language where words are separated according to their origin, as in match1 ‘a piece of inflammable material you strike fire with’ (from OFr mesche, Fr mèche) and match2 (from OE gemæcca ‘fellow’). One must, however, keep in mind that patterned homonymy is here practically disregarded. This underestimation of regular patterned homonymy tends to produce a false impression. Actually the homonymy of nouns and verbs due to the processes of loss of endings on the one hand and conversion on the other is one of the most prominent features of present-day English.

While writing this graduation work I reviewed and learned some information about homonymy of composite sentence with “*so that*”, which I came across in method book created by Professor Khoshimov G.M. According to the source given Professor Khoshimov G.M, the following complex sentences can be introduced into homonymic relations in English with complex sentences with adverbial clause of purpose:

1. complex sentences with adverbial clause of consequence/result connected with the conjunction “*so that*”
2. complex sentences with object clause connected with the conjunction “*that*”
3. complex sentences with adverbial clause of cause connected with the conjunction “*lest*”
4. complex sentences with adverbial clause of purpose connected with the conjunction “*for fear that*”

¹⁶ Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка, М.: Высшая школа, 1973, стр. 190-191

5. complex sentences with adverbial clause of condition connected with the conjunction “in case”

However, as our theme is about homonymy of composite sentences with “*so that*”, our focus will be on it. As Professor Khoshimov G.M says that the following complex sentence can serve as an example for syntactical homonym in English: *He held up his stumps of hands that all might see*. This complex sentence has one form, but it has two directional meaning.

In the dissertation work of **Николенко Ольга Викторовна “Семантическое варьирование сложноподчиненных предложений с однородным соподчинением”**

В тех усложненных сложных предложениях, где отсутствие сочинительного или второго подчинительного союза или союзного слова может вызвать неоднозначность синтаксических отношений, так как вторая предикативная зависимая часть может распространять как главное предложение, так и первую придаточную часть, реализуется омонимия однородного соподчинения и последовательного подчинения придаточных:

Мне ведомо, что ты так милостлив, что иной раз и присудишь, и простишь виноватого (Толстой А.К. «Князь Серебряный»). И только введение одного из союзных показателей снимает языковую омонимию и квалифицирует синтаксическое построение как СПП с однородным соподчинением. Ср: Мне ведомо, что ты так милостлив и что одной раз и присудишь, и простишь виноватого.

In the dissertation of Петухова, Светлана Васильевна **“Педагогические условия активизации мыслительной деятельности школьников при изучении сложноподчиненных предложений с омонимичными средствами связи” :**

Разрешение противоречия между объективной потребностью совершенствования педагогических условий, способствующих повышению мыслительной активности учащихся на уроках изучения синтаксиса в школе,

с одной стороны, и недостаточной разработанностью теоретических основ активизации мыслительной деятельности учащихся в процессе изучения сложноподчиненных предложений с омонимичными средствами связи, с другой стороны, явилось основанием для проведения настоящего исследования. С учетом этого обстоятельства был сделан выбор темы исследования «Педагогические условия активизации мыслительной деятельности школьников при изучении сложноподчиненных предложений с омонимичными средствами связи», научная проблема которого сформулирована следующим образом: каковы педагогические условия эффективного обучения сложноподчиненному предложению с омонимичными средствами связи, способствующие активизации мыслительной деятельности школьников?

Цель исследования — выявить, теоретически и экспериментально обосновать педагогические условия активизации мыслительной деятельности школьников на уроках изучения синтаксиса в 9-м классе. Объект исследования — процесс обучения девятиклассников сложноподчиненному предложению с омонимичными средствами связи.

Изучение психолого-педагогической, лингвистической и научно-методической литературы по теме исследования, уточнение понятийно-терминологического аппарата, формулировка цели, задач, гипотезы исследования, подготовка срезовых заданий для констатирующего эксперимента, выявление и обоснование педагогических условий эффективного обучения сложноподчиненному предложению с омонимичными средствами связи в 9-ом классе.

Второй этап (2004 - 2005 гг.) — проведение констатирующего эксперимента как экспериментальной основы педагогической технологии активизации мыслительной деятельности учащихся на уроках изучения сложноподчиненного предложения спридаточными изъяснительными, временными и сравнительными со словом КАК.

Третий этап (2005 — 2006 гг.) - проведение обучающего эксперимента, качественно-количественный анализ и обобщение результатов опытно-экспериментальной работы, формулирование выводов, оформление результатов исследования в виде кандидатской диссертации.

Chapter 2. Homonymy of composite sentences with “so that” and their interpretation English language.

2.1. Types of composite sentences with “so that” in English language.

In this part of our graduation paper we talk about types of composite sentences combined with “so that”. “So” is used as a coordinating conjunction to show a response or a reaction. In the format *Sentence 1, “so” Sentence 2* the first sentence is the action and the second is the response/counter action. Action→continuation action→counter action. For example 1:

Jake bought the marshmallows, so Tina bought the chocolate and graham crackers.

In this example, *Jake purchased the marshmallows. Tina then purchased the chocolate and graham crackers* as a continuation of Jake’s action. “So” in this sentence serves to show the continuation of a complete act, purchasing supplies for making some s’mores. “So that . . . , . . .” or “. . . so that . . .” “So that” is used as a subordinate clause to show purpose or to give an explanation. It is used to show an action producing an intended result or a cause producing an effect. In the format *Sentence 1 “so that” Sentence 2* the first sentence is the action/cause and the second is the intended result/effect. In the format *“So that” Sentence 1, Sentence 2* the first subject-verb clause is the intended result/effect and the second is the action/cause. Action→intended result cause→effect. For example 1:

So that she would not be late for class, Elizabeth set her alarm.

Though this example is grammatically correct, it sounds a bit awkward because “so that” is rarely used as a subordinate clause to introduce a sentence. In this example, the intended result is that *Elizabeth not be late for class*. The action taken to produce this result is that *she set her alarm*. “So that” in this sentence serves to show the relationship between the action and the intended result. For example 2: *Dilshod rang the bell so that the dog would salivate.*

In this example, *Dilshod rang the bell, and the dog salivated. Ringing the bell* is the cause; *the dog salivating* is the effect. “So that” in this sentence serves to show the relationship between *Dilshod ringing the bell* and *the dog salivating*.

According to the definition given by Kaushanskaya V.L, adverbial clauses of purpose state the purpose of the action expressed in the principal clause. They are introduced by the conjunctions *that, in order that, so that, lest* and some others. For example:

*She kept her back to the window **that** he might not see her rising color.*

*Wounds sometimes must be opened **in order that** they may be healed.*

*I crouched against the wall of the gallery **so that** I should not be seen.*

*...he made all these exclamations in a carefully suppressed voice, **lest** the valet should overhear anything.*

In addition to this, there is another type of composite sentence in English; adverbial clauses of result. As Kaushanskaya says, they denote the result of the action expressed in the principal clause. Very often adverbial clauses of this type have an additional meaning of degree.

Adverbial clauses of pure result are introduced by the conjunction *so that*; they are usually separated from the principal clause by a comma.

*Darkness had fallen and a keen blizzard was blowing, **so that** the streets were nearly deserted.*

Adverbial clauses of result with an additional meaning of degree are introduced by the conjunction *that*; in these cases they find the adverb *so* or the demonstrative pronoun *such* in the principal clause. Such clauses are not separated from the principal clause by a comma.

*He is **so** weak physically **that** he can hardly move.*

*Tom was in ecstasies — in **such** ecstasies **that** he even controlled his tongue and was silent.*

As we mentioned above, the composite conjunction *so that* introduces adverbial clauses of result and purpose. Pay your attention to the two types of the sentence

*They were rich and I was poor, **so that** it was no easy matter for me to follow them.* (adverbial clause of result)

*I turned away, **so that** Farrah should not see my face.* (adverbial clause of purpose).

Searching for information about composite sentences with “so that” we took some information from Professor G.M.Khoshimov’s lectures and according to the definition given by G.M.Khoshimov, clauses of purpose generally contain a contemplated or planned action, which is to be achieved by the action expressed by the predicate or any verbal part in the main clause. The predicate in the subordinate clause is in the subjunctive mood. Adverbial clauses of purpose are introduced by conjunctions *that, so that, lest, so as, so, in order that, for fear that, in case, for the purpose that, with the purpose(wish, desire, intention, hope) that, on purpose that*, and like in simple sentences with an adverbial modifier of purpose, it functions as an adverbial modifier of purpose concretizing the predicate or verb(group) in a matrix or principle clause. Clauses expressing purpose may, as is well known, be introduced either by the conjunction *that* or by the phrase *in order that*. There is a basic difference between the two variants. A clause introduced by *in order that* is sufficiently characterized as a clause of purpose, and nothing else is needed to identify it as such. A clause introduced by *that*, on the other hand, need not necessarily be a clause of purpose: it can also belong to one of several other types. To identify it as a clause of purpose other indications are needed, and the most usual of these is the verb *may (might) or should* as part of its predicate.

A clause of purpose can also be introduced by the phrase *so that*, and some special signs are needed to distinguish it from a clause of result. Here are some examples for composite sentences with “so that”:

*I deliberately didn't have lunch **so (that)** I would be hungry tonight.*

*Leave the keys out **so (that)** I remember to take them with me.*

*I've **so** arranged my trip **that** I'll be home on Friday evening.*

*Speak slowly **so that** I could understand.*

We took some information from S. Khaymovich and B.I. Rogovskaya’s book, called “Theoretical Grammar of English”, and learned some examples for composite sentence with “*so that*”: in accordance with their relations to the principal clause, mostly expressed by the conjunction or connective pronoun they are introduced by, adverbial clauses are classified into those of place (introduced

by where, wherever), time (introduced by when, while, till, until, as, since, before, after, once, as soon as, etc.), cause (conjunctions — because, as, since) purpose (conjunctions — that, so that, in order that, lest), condition (conjunctions — if, in case, provided, unless, suppose, supposing), concession (conjunctions — though, although, as, conjunctive pronouns whatever, whoever, whichever), manner or comparison (conjunctives—as if, as though).

Moreover, S. Khaymovich and B.I. Rogovskaya distinguish a different type of clause called extension clause. Extension clauses are postpositive adjuncts of adjectives, adverbs and adlinks. For example:

It is indeed doubtful how he had become aware **that** Roger was being buried that day. The subordinate clause is an extension of the adlink **aware**.

*I am happy **that** everything went off so nicely.* The subordinate clause is an extension of the adjective **happy**.

*She is **so** pretty **that** all our boys are mad about her.* The subordinate clause is an extension of the pro-adverb **so**.

*His head was still in **such** a whirl **that** he felt confused.*

The subordinate clause is an extension of the pro-adjective **such**. The subordinate clauses in the last two sentences have a distinct consecutive meaning, and may be called 'extensions of result' (instead of the traditional 'adverbial clauses of result'). Here below we give information, taken from N.A. Kobrina and E.A. Korneyeva's book, about clauses connected with **so that**. In clauses of purpose, the form used depends on the conjunction introducing the clause. The verb-predicate in the subordinate clause is in the subjunctive mood as it expresses a planned but not a real action. Adverbial clauses of purpose are introduced by conjunctions *that, so that, lest, so as, so, in order that, for fear that*.

*I trod on an edging of turf **that** the crackle of the pebbly gravel might not betray me.*

*I tell you all this **so that** you may understand me perfectly.*

1. After the conjunctions **that, so that, in order that, so** the quasi-subjunctive forms *may (might) + infinitive* or *can (could) + infinitive* are used. Only *might* and

could are used if the action in the subordinate clause, though following the action in the main clause, refers to the past. But when the action refers to the present or future, both forms of each verb are possible (*may* or *might*, *can* or *could*).

*I tell you this **so that** you may understand the situation.*

*She left the lamp on the window-sill, **so that** he might see it from afar.*

*Sit here **so that** I may see your face more clearly.*

*He died **so that** others might live.*

*She gave him the book **that** he might have something to read on the journey.*

*We put the matches away **lest** the baby should find the box*

2. After the negative conjunction *lest* (чтобы не) *should* + *infinitive* is generally used.

*The girl whispered these words **lest** somebody should overhear her.*

*He was afraid to look behind **lest** he should see something there, which ought not to be there.*

*I wrote down the telephone number **so that** I could remember it.* Adverbial clause of concession is linked with principal clause with *so...that*. For example:
The box was *so* heavy *that* I could not lift it.

N.A. Kobrina and E.A. Korneyeva distinguish consecutive connectives, which are conjunctions *so*, *so that*, and conjunctive adverbs *therefore*, *hence*, *then*, *thus*.

*The weather was fine, **so** there were many people on the beach.*

So that is a conjunction intermediate between subordination and coordination. When used after a comma in writing or a pause in speaking its connection with the previous clause is looser and it performs the function of a coordinating conjunction.

*John is unlikely to come soon, **so that** we'd better go home.*

An adverbial clause of result denotes some consequence or result of the action expressed in the main clause. It may be introduced by the conjunction *so that*, or simply *that*.

*Light fell on her there, **so that** Soames could see her face, eyes, hair, strangely as he remembered them, strangely beautiful.*

Clauses with the correlatives *so* and *such* (*so... that, such... that*) may express manner with a shade of resultative meaning and are treated as such. However one should bear in mind that the line of demarcation between cases of *so... that* and *so that* is rather difficult to draw when the two words follow one another.

According to the definition given by Rayevskaya N.M, clauses of result or consequence will also exemplify the synsemantic character of syntactic structures. Their formal arrangement is characterised by two patterns:

1) clauses included by the conjunction *that* correlated with the pronoun *such* or the pronoun *so* in the main clause;

2) clauses included by phrasal connective *so that*.

Her misery was so terrible that she pinned on her hat, put on her jacket and walked out of the flat like a person in a dream.

He did not however neglect to leave certain matters to future considerations, which had necessitated further visits, so that the little back room had become quite accustomed to his spare not unsolid but unobtrusive figure...

Variation in the lexico-grammatical organisation of such clauses is generally associated with variation in their meaning.

Instances are not few, for instance, when a clause of result is suggestive of the degree or the state of things indicated by the main clause. The meaning of such clauses is always made clear by contextual indication.

Examples of such clauses of result are:

The moon had passed behind the oak-tree now, endowing it with uncanny life, so that it seemed watching him — the oak-tree his boy had been so fond of climbing, out of which he had once fallen and hurt himself, and hadn't cried!

When he told her that he would take care of her so that nothing evil should befall, she believed him fully.

Structural synonyms of sub-clauses of result presented by infinitival phrases may be illustrated by such patterns as:

It was too wonderful to be anything but a delirium.

*(Syn. It was **so** wonderful **that** it could be anything but a delirium).*

A woodpecker's constant tap was the only sound, for the rain was not heavy enough for leaf-dripping to have started.

*(Syn. ... the rain was not **so** heavy **that** ...).*

Then, just when they were old enough to go to school, her husband's sister came to stop with them to help things along...

*(Syn. Then, just when they were **so** old **that** they could go to school, her husband's sister came to stop with them to help things along.)*

The grammatical organisation of sub-clauses of purpose does not take long to explain. What merits consideration here is the syntactic organisation of the constituents of the complex sentence and the verb-forms in the structure of predication.

Clauses expressing purpose are known to be introduced by the conjunction *that* or *lest* and by the phrase *in order that*.

That has, perhaps, no rivals among connectives. It is well known to have a particularly wide range of structural meanings, but no ambiguity arises in actual usage. As always in language, the context will remove in each case all the other significations, as potentially implicit in *that* which in subordination may do the duty of a relative pronoun and a conjunction.

Purpose clauses introduced by *that* may be illustrated by the following examples:

*... she had softly moved her chair into its present place: partly as it seemed from an instinctive consciousness **that** he desired to avoid observation: and partly that she might, unseen by him, give some vent to the natural feelings she had hitherto suppressed.*

And lest the sun should break this charm too eagerly, there moved between him and the ground a mist like that which waits upon the moon on summer nights... Infinitival phrases implying purpose relations are commonplace. Familiar examples are:

This action has been brought by the plaintiff to recover from the defendant the sum of three hundred and fifty pounds, alleged by the plaintiff to have been fixed by this correspondence...

She made a movement to cross into the traffic.

Here below we give information about composite sentences with “so that” taken from the book by B. Ilyish called “The structure of English”: clauses of result give rise to some discussion, since the distinction between them and some other types of subordinate clauses is in some cases doubtful and to a certain extent arbitrary.

It should first of all be noted that the term "clauses of result" must not be taken to imply that the result was necessarily planned in advance, or that it was consciously aimed at. The result may have been brought about without anybody's intention. So these clauses might be termed "clauses of consequence", but since that term is also liable to different interpretations, we may as well stick to the usual term "clauses of result".

Clauses of result may be connected with the head clause in either of two ways: (1) the clause is introduced by the conjunction *that*, while in the head clause there is the pronoun *such* or the adverb *so*, which is correlative with the conjunction; (2) the subordinate clause is introduced by the phrase *so that*.

The latter variety does not give rise to any special discussion. Let us, for instance, take the sentence: *In the centre of the chamber candlesticks were set, also brass, but polished, so that they shone like gold.*

The head clause describes a situation, and the subordinate clause says what the result (or consequence) of that action was.

Things are somewhat less clear with clauses of the first variety (those introduced by the conjunction *that*, with a correlative *such* or *so* in the head clause). Here two possible ways of interpreting the facts appear. Let us take a sentence with the adverb *so* in the head clause correlative with the conjunction *that* introducing the subordinate clause: *She was so far under his influence that she was now inclined to believe him.* One way to look at this sentence is this: the

head clause tells of some state of things, and the subordinate clause of another state of things, which came as a result, or consequence of the first. Taken in this way, the clause appears as a clause of result. However, that is not the only possible way of taking it. The other way would be this: the subordinate clause specifies the degree of the state of things expressed in the head clause by illustrating the effect it had. If the sentence is taken in isolation, it is absolutely impossible to tell which of the two views gets closer to the mark. The question might be settled by finding (or adding) a sequel to this sentence, which would make the situation quite clear: one possible sequel would show that the state of things described in the subordinate clause had some interest in itself, so that it was not mentioned merely to illustrate the intensity of the state described in the head clause and in that case the subordinate clause would have to be taken as an adverbial clause of result. With another sequel, it would be obvious that the state of things described in the second clause had no interest as such, but was mentioned exclusively in order to illustrate the degree of the state of things described in the head clause. In that case the clause may be taken as an adverbial clause of degree.

Clauses expressing purpose may, as is well known, be introduced either by the conjunction *that* or by the phrase *in order that*. There is a basic difference between the two variants. A clause introduced by *in order that* is sufficiently characterised as a clause of purpose, and nothing else is needed to identify it as such. A clause introduced by *that*, on the other hand, need not necessarily be a clause of purpose: it can also belong to one of several other types (see p. 308 ff.). To identify it as a clause of purpose other indications are needed, and the most usual of these is the verb *may (might)* or *should* as part of its predicate.

A clause of purpose can also be introduced by the phrase *so that*, and some special signs are needed to distinguish it from a clause of result. Let us take as an example the following sentence with two clauses introduced by the phrase *so that*. *Although slightly near-sighted, Elisabeth,*

so that nothing might damage the charm of her dark brown eyes, tragic and wide apart under straight brows, wore no glasses but carried instead a miniature lorgnette, for which she now searched in her purse, unobtrusively and on her lap so that Steitler, who was speaking to her son, would not notice.

Both clauses here are clauses of purpose, not result, and this is seen from the following facts: as to the first clause, its position between the subject of the main clause (*Elizabeth*), and its predicate (*wore*), shows beyond doubt that it cannot express result: the result could not possibly be mentioned before the action bringing it about was stated. Another point speaking in favour of the clause being one of purpose is its predicate (*might damage*). As to the second clause introduced by *so that*, its position at the end of the sentence does not tell anything about its being a clause of purpose or of result. That it is a clause of purpose is seen from the predicate (*would not notice*), which would have no reasonable sense in a clause of result. If we make a slight change and replace the predicate *would not notice* by *did not notice*, the clause will decidedly be a clause of result. So the meaning of the clause appears to depend entirely on the verb *would*.

Compare also the following sentence: *Mrs Cox did not object to this so long as they talked English, so that she could keep a line on the conversation; if it was French, she did not know what they were up to.* Here the words *talked English* and *could keep a line* point to the meaning of purpose, rather than result.

Here below there are some more examples we took from the internet educational sites: He walked on tiptoe *so that* nobody would hear him.

She bought some meat and eggs *so that* she might make omelets.

The native people have asked the museum to return to them the bones of their ancestors *so that* they may be returned to their original burial place.

A lot of people don't use floppies anymore because they just put their files on the net *so that* they can access them from anywhere.

He worked all night *so that* he could get the job done in time.

Both of them worked hard *so that* they could pass the entrance examination.

We stopped talking *so that* we could hear the music.

Finley Peter Dunne once suggested that alcohol is necessary for a man *so that* he can have a good opinion of himself undisturbed by facts.

I went with them *so that* I could guide them around Nagasaki.

I lifted my son *so that* he could see it.

We are taping your speaking test *so that* you can listen to it later.

You need to plan your trip to South America carefully *so that* you don't spend all your money too quickly.

You'd better take lots of water when you go hiking *so that* you don't get dehydrated.

The patient had to ask the doctor to increase the dosage of her pain-killer *so that* she could get some sleep.

The government has loosened the laws regarding the selling of alcohol *so that* bars can sell drinks on their outdoor patios.

The family of the young man charged with attempted murder are trying to raise enough money to pay his bail *so that* he can at least be home during Christmas.

2.2. Homonymy of composite sentences with “so that”, their homonymic system and problems of interpretation in English language.

In this chapter of our graduation paper we give information about homonymy of composite sentences with “*so that*”, try to set their homonymic system and problems of interpretation in English. Homonyms are words that sound the same or are spelled the same as another word but have a different meaning. For example: **air** (the mixture of gases which surrounds the earth and which we breathe)– **heir** (a person who will legally receive money, property or a title from another person, especially an older member of the same family, when that other person dies), **altar** (a type of table used in ceremonies in a Christian church or in other religious buildings)– **alter** (to change something, usually slightly, or to cause the characteristics of something to change), **bear** (to give birth to young, or (of a tree or plant) to give or produce especially fruit or flowers)– **bear** (ayiq). These are lexical homonyms, they are just words. There are cases when sentences can be homonyms; they are called homonymy of sentences. Two sentences have the same structure and form, but have different meaning, that is, their aim is different. In this of our graduation paper, we are supposed to review homonymy of composite sentence with “*so that*”, try to set their homonymic system and problems of interpretation in English. While writing this graduation work I reviewed and learned some information about homonymy of composite sentence with “*so that*”, which I came across in method book created by Professor Khoshimov G.M. According to the source given Professor Khoshimov G.M, the following complex sentences can be introduced into homonymic relations in English with complex sentences with adverbial clause of purpose:

6. complex sentences with adverbial clause of consequence/result connected with the conjunction “so that”
7. complex sentences with object clause connected with the conjunction “that”
8. complex sentences with adverbial clause of cause connected with the conjunction “lest”
9. complex sentences with adverbial clause of purpose connected with the conjunction “for fear that”

10. complex sentences with adverbial clause of condition connected with the conjunction “in case”

However, as our theme is about homonymy of composite sentences with “*so that*”, our focus will be on it. As Professor Khoshimov G.M says that the following complex sentence can serve as an example for syntactical homonymy in English: *He held up his stumps of hands **that** all might see*. This complex sentence has one form, but it has two directional meaning.

1. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose: *He held up his stumps of hands that all might see*. He held up his stumps of hands in order that all might see (he wanted to show his stumps of hands, so he held them up; but they still might not have seen them)
2. As a complex sentence with attributive clause: *He held up his stumps of hands **that** all might see*. He held up his stumps of hands, which all might see. (he held up his stumps of hands and everybody saw them; they definitely saw them)

Here is another example from Professor G.M. Khoshimov’s method book:

*Emotion speaks a language **that** all may understand*.

1. Emotion speaks a language in order that all may understand. (the purpose of emotion is to let all understand what it speaks)
2. Emotion speaks a language, which all may understand. (emotion speaks a language and all understand this language)

Here are some more examples for syntactical homonymy:

Clara couldn't find the books that I had to buy. This sentence also has two meanings:

1. As a complex sentence with attributive clause: Clara couldn't find the books that I had to buy. (I had to buy some books, but Clara couldn't find them, so I couldn't buy them; the books, which I had to buy)

2. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of result: Clara couldn't find the books that I had to buy. (Clara couldn't find the books, therefore I had to buy (new ones); **so that** I had to buy some other books)

We can provide a slight change to the same sentence turning it into a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose, but not result or consequence.

Clara may get the books that I may buy. This sentence also has two meanings.

1. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose: Clara may get the books that I may buy. (Clara may get the books **so that** I may buy them; She may get the books if I want to buy them; if my purpose is to buy them)
2. As a complex sentence with relative clause: Clara may get the books that I may buy. (Clara may get the books, which I may buy; I may buy the books and Clara may get them for me)

Let's take some other examples and compare their homonymic situation.

I did not have lunch that I would be hungry later. This complex sentence may have two purposes too. It can be understood as a complex sentence with adverbial clause of result/consequence and complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose.

1. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of result/consequence: *I did not have lunch **that** I would be hungry in the evening.* (That means: When I was a teenager, **I did not have lunch**, because I didn't have enough money for lunch, **therefore I became very hungry** in the evening)
2. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose: *I did not have lunch **that** I would be hungry in the evening.* (That means: **I deliberately did not have lunch so that I would be hungry** tonight, because I want to lose weight, so my purpose is to be hungry in the evening)

Let's look through another example and analyze it. *Then she lit up a candle and she showed me the way that I might see.* This sentence can be understood in two ways, one of which can be described with a complex sentence with attributive clause and the other can be interpreted with a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose.

1. As a complex sentence with attributive clause: *Then she lit up a candle and she showed me the way that I might see.* (That means: Then she lit up a candle and she showed me the way **which** I might see. She showed me the way and I might see the way.)
2. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose: *Then she lit up a candle and she showed me the way that I might see.* (That means: The she lit up a candle and she showed me the way **so that (in order that)** I might see; she specially lit up the candle to show me the way because it was too dark)

There is the third version of the syntactic homonymy of the same sentence.

3. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of result consequence: *Then she lit up a candle and she showed me the way that I might see.* (That means: She lit up a candle and showed me the way, consequently I was able to see the way)

Here below there are some more examples for homonymic situation of composite sentences with “so that”. *She bought some meat and eggs that she might make omelets.* This sentence has the same structure but has two meanings. It has the meaning of complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose and the meaning of a complex sentence with relative clause.

1. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose: *She bought some meat and eggs that she might make omelets.* (That interprets: She bought some meat and eggs **so that (in order that)** she might make omelets; She bought some meat and eggs because she wanted to make omelets)
2. As a complex sentence with relative clause: *She bought some meat and eggs that she might make omelets.* (That interprets: She bought some meat and eggs **which (using which; from which)** she might make omelets;

We will review another example for a composite with “so that”, which could be understood in two ways, one of which is a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose; the other is a complex sentence with adverbial clause of result/consequence. *He worked all night that he could get the job done in time.*

1. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose: *He worked all night that he could get the job done in time.* (That means: He worked all night **so that (in order that)** he could get the job done in time; because he wanted to get the job done in time)
2. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of result: *He worked all night that he could get the job done in time.* (That means: He worked all night **so (as a result; consequently)** he could (was able to) get the job done in time;

Chapter 3. Homonymous composite sentences with “so that”, their translation into Uzbek and teaching problems in English language.

3.1. English homonymic composite sentences with “so that”, their problems of translating into Uzbek.

First, we found it desirable to give some information about translation. Translation is one of the branches of linguistics, which has ancient and long history. Translation has gradually been developed together with many branches of different subjects.

However, there still exist disputes about the subject, object and scientific direction of this branch. One of the problems, which causes main disputes – whether the translation is art or scientific research. Some scientists consider it as art, and some consider it as knowledge.

Of course when translating from one language into the other, we may undergo some difficulties.

In our opinion, it is easy to perform the translation between languages, which are typologically alike, but carrying out the translation between languages, which are not typologically alike, may have one encounter some problems. Anyway, the translation can be carried out from one language into the other.

The whole point is whether the translation process is easy or difficult, because the closeness of the source and target languages and construction of the sentences help to perform the translation adequately and easier. For instance, it is easy to translate from Russian into English or vice versa, because these languages have similar structure.

As for Uzbek that will make us undergo significant problems, because Uzbek refers to Turkic languages. Therefore, it is not easy to translate from English into Uzbek or vice versa.

Actually, preventing such problems depends on the skills and abilities of an interpreter. Whether the languages are kin languages or not should not be obstacle in translating, but it is natural to eliminate the problems in the process of translating.

In teaching English, it is desirable to foresee and find out the importance and

usefulness of the translation and then use it. In this section of our graduation paper, we tried to elucidate the problems of translating the English constructions with the interrogative pronouns into Russian and vice versa. We took eligible examples from the works by famous English and American writers, such as Enid Blyton, Charles Dickens, and Theodore Dreiser and from dictionaries like Cambridge Advanced Learners' Dictionary, Abbey Lingvo Dictionary, Longman Contemporary Dictionary, Oxford Dictionary, McMillan Dictionary and internet sites.

In this section of our graduation paper, we have shown some problems of translating English homonymic composite sentences with “so that” into Uzbek. Translating such sentences depends on certain circumstances, an interpreter should always be careful with homonyms while interpreting or translating, because they are spelt and sound the same and the interpreter should understand which word or meaning is implied.

Now, let's look through the translation of some examples given in the above mentioned parts of our graduation paper. Here are some more examples for translation review of syntactical homonymy:

Clara couldn't find the books that I had to buy. As we mentioned above, this sentence also has two meanings, such as a complex sentence with attributive clause and a complex sentence with adverbial clause of result.

1. As a complex sentence with attributive clause: *Clara couldn't find the books that I had to buy.* Клара мен сотиб олишим керак бўлган китобларни топиб бера олмади. *Клара китобларни топиб бера олмади* – principal clause; мен сотиб олишим керак бўлган – attributive clause; (I had to buy some books, but Clara couldn't find them, so I couldn't buy them; the books, which I had to buy)
2. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of result: *Clara couldn't find the books that I had to buy.* Клара китобларни топиб бера олмади, шунинг учун мен (янгиларини) сотиб олишимга тўғри келди. Клара китобларни топиб бера олмади – principal clause; шунинг учун мен

(янгиларини) сотиб олишимга тўғри келди – adverbial clause of result;
(Clara couldn't find the books, therefore I had to buy (new ones); *so that* I
had to buy some other books)

As we mentioned above, the same sentence can be changed slightly by turning into a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose, but not result or consequence.

Clara may get the books that I may buy. This sentence also has two meanings.

1. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose: *Clara may get the books that I may buy.* Мен сотиб олишим учун Клара ўша китобларни топи бериши мумкин. Клара ўша китобларни топи бериши мумкин – principal clause; Мен сотиб олишим учун – adverbial clause of purpose; (Clara may get the books *so that* I may buy them; She may get the books if I want to buy them; if my purpose is to buy them)
2. As a complex sentence with relative clause: *Clara may get the books that I may buy.* Клара мен сотиб олишим мумкин бўлган китобларни топиб бериши мумкин. Клара китобларни топиб бериши мумкин – Principal clause; мен сотиб олишим мумкин бўлган – relative clause; (Clara may get the books, which I may buy; I may buy the books and Clara may get them for me)

Let's take some other examples and compare their homonymic situation.

I did not have lunch that I would be hungry later. This complex sentence may have two purposes too. It can be understood as a complex sentence with adverbial clause of result/consequence and complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose.

1. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of result/consequence: *I did not have lunch that I would be hungry in the evening.* Мен тушлик қилмас эдим, оқибатда кечга бориб қорним жуда очарди. Мен тушлик қилмас эдим – principal clause; оқибатда кечга бориб қорним жуда очарди – adverbial clause of result; (That means: When I was a teenager, *I did not*

have lunch, because I didn't have enough money for lunch, *therefore I became very hungry* in the evening)

2. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose: *I did not have lunch that I would be hungry in the evening*. Кечга бориб қорним очсин деб, мен тушлик қилмадим. мен тушлик қилмадим – principal clause; Кечга бориб қорним очсин деб – adverbial clause of purpose (That means: *I deliberately did not have lunch so that I would be hungry* tonight, because I want to lose weight, so my purpose is to be hungry in the evening)

Let's look through another example and analyze it. *Then she lit up a candle and she showed me the way that I might see*. This sentence can be understood in two ways, one of which can be described with a complex sentence with attributive clause and the other can be interpreted with a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose.

1. As a complex sentence with attributive clause: *Then she lit up a candle and she showed me the way that I might see*. У шамни ёқиб менга мен кўришим мумкин бўлган йўлни кўрсатди. (That means: Then she lit up a candle and she showed me the way **which** I might see. She showed me the way and I might see the way.)
2. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose: *Then she lit up a candle and she showed me the way that I might see*. У мени кўрсин деб шамни ёқиб менга йўлни кўрсатди. (That means: The she lit up a candle and she showed me the way **so that (in order that)** I might see; she specially lit up the candle to show me the way because it was too dark)

There is the third version of the syntactic homonymy of the same sentence.

3. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of result consequence: *Then she lit up a candle and she showed me the way that I might see*. У шамни ёқиб менга йўлни кўрсатди ва мен йўлни кўрап эдим. (That means: She lit up a candle and showed me the way, consequently I was able to see the way)

Here below there are some more examples for homonymic situation of composite sentences with “so that”. *She bought some meat and eggs that she might make omelets*. This sentence has the same structure but has two meanings. It has the meaning of complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose and the meaning of a complex sentence with relative clause.

1. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose: *She bought some meat and eggs that she might make omelets*. Куймоқ пишириш мақсадида у гўшт ва тухум сотиб олди. (That interprets: She bought some meat and eggs **so that (in order that)** she might make omelets; She bought some meat and eggs because she wanted to make omelets)
2. As a complex sentence with relative clause: *She bought some meat and eggs that she might make omelets*. У куймоқ пишириши мумкин бўлган гўшт ва тухум сотиб олди. (That interprets: She bought some meat and eggs **which (using which; from which)** she might make omelets;

We will review another example for a composite with “so that”, which could be understood in two ways, one of which is a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose; the other is a complex sentence with adverbial clause of result/consequence. *He worked all night that he could get the job done in time*.

1. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of purpose: *He worked all night that he could get the job done in time*. У ишни вақтида тугатиш мақсадида туни билан ишлаб чикди. (That means: He worked all night **so that (in order that)** he could get the job done in time; because he wanted to get the job done in time)
2. As a complex sentence with adverbial clause of result: *He worked all night that he could get the job done in time*. У туни билан ишлаб чикди, натижада ишни ўз вақтида тугата олди. (That means: He worked all night **so (as a result; consequently)** he could (was able to) get the job done in time;

He walked on tiptoe so that nobody would hear him.

У уни ҳеч ким эшитмасин деб оёқ учида юрди.

A lot of people don't use floppies anymore because they just put their files on the net so that they can access them from anywhere.

Кўп одамлар дискеталар ишлатмай қўйди, чунки улар файлларидан хоҳлаган жойида туриб фойдалана олишлари мақсадида цларни тармоққа ўрнатиб қўядилар.

He worked all night so that he could get the job done in time.

Ишни ўз вақтида бажараман деб у туни билан ишлаб чиқди.

Both of them worked hard so that they could pass the entrance examination.

Кириш имтиҳонидан ўтамиз деб иккаласи ҳам қаттиқ тайёргарлик кўрди.

We stopped talking so that we could hear the music.

Музикани эшитамиз деб биз гапиришни тўхтатдик.

I went with them so that I could guide them around Nagasaki.

Мен уларга Нагасакини кўрсатиш мақсадида улар билан бирга кетдим.

I lifted my son so that he could see it.

Ўша нарсани кўрсин деб ўғлимни кўтардим.

We are taping your speaking test so that you can listen to it later.

Кейинчалик ўзингизга эшиттириш учун сизнинг гапириш тестингизни ёзиб олмақдамиз.

You need to plan your trip to South America carefully so that you don't spend all your money too quickly.

Пулларингизни тезда ишлатиб юбормаслик учун Жанубий Америкага қиладиган саёҳатингизни режалаштириб олишингиз керак.

You'd better take lots of water when you go hiking so that you don't get dehydrated.

Походга чиққанингизда чанқаб қолмаслик учун яхшиси ўзингиз билан кўп сув олинг.

3.2.Methodical recommendations and system of exercises for teaching English homonymous sentences with “so that” at Uzbek schools.

The given section of our graduation paper is devoted to linguodidactic problems of English homonymous sentences with “so that” in which we give methodical recommendations and system of exercises for teaching English homonymous sentences with “so that” at Uzbek schools.

Methods of teaching is one of the most important components of teaching process. Without using the corresponding methods, it is impossible to achieve the set-up aim, to realize the marked content, to fill the teaching with cognitive activity. Much work has been devoted to approaches and methods of teaching Grammar. Traditionally, methodologists group two main approaches to teaching Grammar – explicit and implicit. Explicit approach differs with explanation of grammatical rules and phenomena. Implicit approach, on the contrary, is characterized with revision and learning grammatically correct structures without learning the rules themselves. Explicit approach to teaching Grammar is realized by two main methods: inductive (learners are offered fragment of speech/language situation, analyzing the fragment they must find grammatical patterns and formulate grammatical rule) and deductive (first the teacher gives grammatical rule, and then the learners develop new structures in communicative-oriented tasks). There is no doubt that inductive method of teaching is much more valuable on the view point of cognitive development of learners and forming strategies of self-education in them. The material, which is not given in a ready form, but “gained” in the process of learning and investigation, is kept in mind better. However, the inductive method requires significantly big learning time and efforts from the teacher.

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

The communicative approach presupposes complete and optimal systematization of interrelations between components of teaching contents. The followings refer to them: the system of general activity; the system of speech

activity; the system of speech communication; the system of English itself; cognitive-comparative analyses of native and English language; the system of speech mechanisms; text as the system of speech products; the system of structural-speech formations (dialogue, monologue, monologue in dialogue, different types of speech utterances and messages and etc); the system of mastering the English language; the system of speech behavior of man. As a result of such an approach in teaching the system of mastering English as means of communication to wide extent of this word is formed, realized and acts.

The cognitive approach to teaching grammar helps the teacher to stimulate cognitive mechanisms of the taught things, organize their independent reflexive activity thanks to which it provides comparative analyses, comprehension, mastering and adequate use of grammatical structures in speech.

The learner, who repeatedly comes across difficulties of building utterances in foreign language, loses his/her interest to the subject. Here it is very important to present him supporting charts. The chart should be visual and present more essential signs of grammatical phenomenon.

While learning any kind of grammatical phenomenon it is necessary to clearly define essential moments which are typical namely for it:

- the purpose of using, its function (for what it exists in the language, what it expresses);
- the way of using (how it is formed).

It is necessary that the learner should understand the purpose of using the given grammatical phenomenon and be able to distinguish the cases of using the given phenomenon from the other.

There are varieties of teaching strategies that instructors can use to improve pupils' learning. The links below that make classes more engaging.

Active Learning - Active Learning is anything that students do in a classroom other than merely passively listening to an instructor's lecture. Research shows that active learning improves students' understanding and retention of

information and can be very effective in developing higher order cognitive skills such as problem solving and critical thinking.

Clicker Use in Class - Clickers enable instructors to rapidly collect and summarize student responses to multiple-choice questions they ask of students in class.

Collaborative/Cooperative Learning - Cooperative and collaborative learning are instructional approaches in which students work together in small groups to accomplish a common learning goal. They need to be carefully planned and executed, but they don't require permanently formed groups.

Critical Thinking - Critical thinking is a collection of mental activities that include the ability to intuit, clarify, reflect, connect, infer, and judge. It brings these activities together and enables the student to question what knowledge exists.

Discussion Strategies - Engaging students in discussion deepens their learning and motivation by propelling them to develop their own views and hear their own voices. A good environment for interaction is the first step in encouraging students to talk.

Experiential Learning - Experiential learning is an approach to education that focuses on "learning by doing," on the participant's subjective experience. The role of the educator is to design "direct experiences" that include preparatory and reflective exercises.

Games/Experiments/Simulations - Games, experiments and simulations can be rich learning environments for students. Students today have grown up playing games and using interactive tools such as the Internet, phones, and other appliances. Games and simulations enable students to solve real-world problems in a safe environment and enjoy themselves while doing so.

Humor in the Classroom - Using humor in the classroom can enhance student learning by improving understanding and retention.

Inquiry-Guided Learning - With the inquiry method of instruction, students arrive at an understanding of concepts by themselves and the responsibility for learning rests with them. This method encourages students to build research skills

that can be used throughout their educational experiences.

Interdisciplinary Teaching - Interdisciplinary teaching involves combining two different topics into one class. Instructors who participate in interdisciplinary teaching find that students approach the material differently, while faculty members also have a better appreciation of their own discipline content.

Learner-Centered Teaching - Learner-Centered teaching means the student is at the center of learning. The student assumes the responsibility for learning while the instructor is responsible for facilitating the learning. Thus, the power in the classroom shifts to the student.

Learning Communities - Communities bring people together for shared learning, discovery, and the generation of knowledge. Within a learning community, all participants take responsibility for achieving the learning goals.

Most important, learning communities are the *process* by which individuals come together to achieve learning goals. **Lecture Strategies** - Lectures are the way most instructors today learned in classes. However, with today's students, lecturing does not hold their attention for very long, even though they are a means of conveying information to students. **Mobile Learning** - Mobile Learning is any type of learning that happens when the learner is not at a fixed location.

Online/Hybrid Courses - Online and hybrid courses require careful planning and organization. However, once the course is implemented, there are important considerations that are different from traditional courses. Communication with students becomes extremely important.

Problem-Based Learning - Problem-based Learning (PBL) is an instructional method that challenges students to "learn to learn," working in groups to seek solutions to real world problems. The process replicates the commonly used systemic approach to resolving problems or meeting challenges that are encountered in life, and will help prefer students for their careers.

Service Learning - Service learning is a type of teaching that combines academic content with civic responsibility in some community project. The learning is structured and supervised and enables the student to reflect on what has

taken place.

Social Networking Tools - Social networking tools enable faculty to engage students in new and different means of communication.

Teaching Diverse Students - Instructors today encounter a diverse population in their courses and many times need assistance in knowing how to deal with them.

Teaching with Cases - Case studies present students with real-life problems and enable them to apply what they have learned in the classroom to real life situations. Cases also encourage students to develop logical problem solving skills and, if used in teams, group interaction skills. Students define problems, analyze possible alternative actions and provide solutions with a rationale for their choices.

Team-Based Learning - Team-based learning (TBL) is a fairly new approach to teaching in which students rely on each other for their own learning and are held accountable for coming to class prepared. Research has found that students are more responsible and more engaged when team-based learning is implemented. The major difference in TBL and normal group activities is that the groups are permanent and most of the class time is devoted to the group meeting.

Team Teaching - At its best, team teaching allows students and faculty to benefit from the healthy exchange of ideas in a setting defined by mutual respect and a shared interest in a topic. In most cases both faculty members are present during each class and can provide different styles of interaction as well as different viewpoints.

Writing Assignments - Writing assignments for class can provide an opportunity for them to apply critical thinking skills as well as help them to learn course content.

Here below we give a lesson plan on theme “Homonymy of composite sentences with *so that*”

Teacher: Mominova Barno

Form: 9B

Theme: Homonymy of composite sentences with *so that*”

Level: intermediate

Objectives: to teach students complex sentences with adverbial clauses of purpose, result and attributive clauses (with conjunctions *that, so that*). To teach them homonymic sentences with “*so that*”, which they will be able to differ.

Equipment of the lesson: computer, speaker, projector, handouts;

Preliminaries of the lesson:

- a) greeting with students
- b) take a roll call/filling in the register
- c) checking up the homework

PRESENTATION OF THE NEW MATERIAL

Warm-up:

Brainstorming.

PRE-ACTIVITIES.

We stayed out all night *so that* we could watch a meteor storm.

so that we would be able to see a meteor storm.

Pay your attention to the sentence. Why did they stay out all night? Because they wanted to watch a meteor storm. To watch a meteor storm was their purpose.

We took some blankets *so (that)* we could keep warm. Why did they take blankets?
so (that) we weren't cold.

A statement of action or intended action is followed by the preposition *so* and *that* + *clause* expressing purpose or goal. The subordinate clause usually includes *can* or *could*. The subordinator *that* may be omitted in speech but not in writing.

So (that) connects a clause stating purpose or intent. The optional *that*-clause often includes — *can, could, may, might, etc.*

So that also joins a clause stating an effect for the action in the first clause. The clauses are separated by a comma.

WHILE-ACTIVITIES:

Other expressions (connective adverbs) join a second clause with an effect of the action in the first clause. The expressions below relate the meaning of effect (result).

When the meaning of *so* is purpose, use no comma. (*So* is a preposition complemented by *that* + a clause.)

Let's do the following exercise.

Combine the following sentences using *so... that...*

1. The box is very heavy. I cannot lift it.
2. My brother worked hard. He passed the test.
3. He is very ill. The doctors don't expect him to survive.
4. My grandfather is very weak. He cannot walk.
5. She is very short. She cannot touch the ceiling.
6. William played cleverly. John couldn't beat him.
7. The necklace was very expensive. I couldn't buy it.
8. The famine was very severe. Several people perished.
9. The milk was very good. We couldn't help drinking it.
10. He is very proud. He will not ask for help.

Answers

1. The box is so heavy that I cannot lift it.
2. My brother worked so hard that he passed the test.
3. He is so ill that the doctors don't expect him to survive.
4. My grandfather is so weak that he cannot survive.
5. She is so short that she cannot touch the ceiling.
6. William played so cleverly that John couldn't beat him.
7. The necklace was so expensive that I couldn't buy it.
8. The famine was so severe that several people perished.
9. The milk was so good that we couldn't help drinking it.
10. He is so proud that he will not ask for help.

When the meaning of *so* is result, separate the clauses with a comma. (*So* is a coordinating conjunction, which links two independent clauses.)

I want Thing B to happen. To allow Thing B to happen, I do Thing A. I do A so (that) B.

I moved to this town so my children could be in a better school system.

Could you move to your left a little so I can see the stage?

POST ACTIVITIES.

Rewrite the following sentences using *so...that*.

1. He is too proud to admit his mistake.
2. The bag is too heavy for me to lift.
3. He is too weak to walk.
4. This news is too good to be true.
5. He is too young to travel alone.
6. He was too late to catch the train.
7. The case is too urgent to be postponed.
8. He is too short to be a good basketball player.
9. It is too late for us to start a new lesson.
10. He is too young to understand the consequences of his action.
11. It is too early to predict the outcome.
12. He is too simple-minded to be a successful businessman.

Answers

1. He is **so** proud **that** he will not admit his mistake.
2. The bag is **so** heavy **that** I cannot lift it.
3. He is **so** weak **that** he cannot walk.
4. This news is **so** good **that** it cannot be true.
5. He is **so** young **that** he cannot travel alone.
6. He was **so** late **that** he could not catch the train.
7. The case is **so** urgent **that** it cannot be postponed.
8. He is **so** short **that** he can't be a good basketball player.
9. It is **so** late **that** we cannot start a new lesson.
10. He is **so** young **that** he cannot understand the consequences of his action.
11. It is **so** early **that** the outcome cannot be predicted.
12. He is **so** simple-minded **that** he cannot be a successful businessman.

ASSESSMENT.

HOMEWORK: making situations/short stories using composite sentences with “so that”.

Here below we give some exercises for teaching English homonymous sentences with “so that” at Uzbek schools. We hope the exercises will be useful for both teachers and learners in teaching and learning English homonymous sentences with “so that”.

Exercise 1. Complete the composite sentences with “so that” with your own ideas using *can, may, could, might*.

1. We proposed arrangements *so that*...
2. The compulsory data is required *so that*...
3. He just canceled his meeting *so that*...
4. Such countries must share their best practices *so that*...
5. Ireland amended its constitution *so that*...
6. Sustainable development demands first that we manage globalization responsibly *so that*...
7. We are being asked to keep our borders open *so that*...
8. Let me summarize what has been agreed *so that*...

Exercise 2. Match the clauses in Box A and Box B to make a new composite sentence.

Box A	so that	Box B
Method code will be generated automatically	so that	will not bring any inconvenience.
We must urgently create mechanisms to provide financial and technical assistance	so that	experiences could be exchanged and gaps and obstacles identified.
The review should focus on implementation at the national level,	so that	a new peacekeeping doctrine can be established.

This monitoring mechanism must be credible, independent and fair,	so that	affected countries will be better able to implement effective controls.
Senegal attaches great importance to the consideration of the Panel's recommendations,	so that	the conditionalities associated with the programme can be accepted by all concerned.
These guidelines are designed to ensure a genuine reduction in conventional weapons,	so that	all can live in harmony and fully develop their capacities.
Please answer the following questions	so that	more resources can be devoted to development.
Peace implies the existence of freedom and justice	so that	we can best serve your needs.
We must democratize and expand the Security Council	so that	we can find the truth for all.

Exercise 3. Write sentences with *so that*.

1. I hurried. I didn't want to be late.

I hurried so that I wouldn't be late.

2. I wore warm clothes. I didn't want to be cold.

I wore _____

3. I left Dave my phone number. I wanted him to be able to contact me.

I _____

4. We whispered. We didn't want anybody else to hear our conversation.

_____ nobody _____

5. Please arrive early. We want to be able to start the meeting on time.

Please _____

6. Jennifer locked the door. She didn't want to be disturbed.

7. I slowed down. I wanted the car behind me to be able to overtake.

Exercise 4. Rewrite these sentences using *in order that* or *so that* making any necessary changes.

1. I took twenty driving lessons to pass my driving test first time.

I took twenty driving lessons so that I might pass my driving test first time.

2. I arrived at the cinema early so as not to miss the beginning of the film.

3. We stood up in order to get a better view of what was happening.
4. Mr. Jones bought a second car for his wife to learn to drive.
5. I spoke slowly and clearly because I wanted the audience to understand me.

Exercise 5. Combine the following sentences using *so... that...*

1. The box is very heavy. I cannot lift it.

The box is so heavy that I cannot lift it.

2. My brother worked hard. He passed the test.
3. He is very ill. The doctors don't expect him to survive.
4. My grandfather is very weak. He cannot walk.
5. She is very short. She cannot touch the ceiling.
6. William played cleverly. John couldn't beat him.
7. The necklace was very expensive. I couldn't buy it.
8. The famine was very severe. Several people perished.
9. The milk was very good. We couldn't help drinking it.
10. He is very proud. He will not ask for help.

Exercise 6. Rewrite the composite sentences with *so that* making them simple ones as in the model.

1. Scientists are studying meteorites so that they can understand their biological origins.

Scientists are studying meteorites to understand their biological origins.

2. They look carefully at the composition of meteorites so that they can learn about comets, exploding stars and other phenomena.
3. Astronomers track where fragments fall so that they can recover them.
4. Astronomers photograph the paths of meteors in the sky so that they can estimate where the meteor pieces will land.
5. In this way, astronomers have recovered several meteorites so that they now have a large collection of meteorites.
6. Peter Jenkins, a NASA astronomer, saw a meteor streak across the sky so that he and his team spent a week looking for the fragments.

7. The team found nothing so that they made an announcement and asked the public (people) to help search for meteorites their backyards.
8. Soon a woman called reporting that she had found a large black, metallic rock that had bounced off her roof so that the team went and checked out "the rock".
9. It was, indeed, a meteorite that had hit her roof. She took a picture of it as a souvenir and then gave the meteorite to the astronomers so that they could study it.
10. Later the team returned it to the woman so that she could show it to her insurance agent and get her roof repaired.

Exercise 7. REWRITE THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES USING SO...THAT.

1. He is too proud to admit his mistake.
*He is so proud **that** he will not admit his mistake.*
2. The bag is too heavy for me to lift.
3. He is too weak to walk.
4. This news is too good to be true.
5. He is too young to travel alone.
6. He was too late to catch the train.
7. The case is too urgent to be postponed.
8. He is too short to be a good basketball player.
9. It is too late for us to start a new lesson.
10. He is too young to understand the consequences of his action.
11. It is too early to predict the outcome.
12. He is too simple-minded to be a successful businessman.

CONCLUSION

Our beloved independent republic of Uzbekistan is boldly facing any challenges of the time as a sovereign successful state, equal member of the world community, having its own model of economic, political and spiritual development and worthy place on the international arena.

Our republic is developing and prospering in various fields of life, and the educational field is no exception here, for the latter is being paid special attention to by our President and the Government of Uzbekistan in order to successfully meet the requirements of the world standards of teaching various school and university subjects. In this connection, foreign languages, especially English is made a special accent on as a key language to modern science, technology, culture, etc. This is still more accentuated on in the recent decree of historical importance by our President Islam Abduganievich Karimov “On the Measures for Further Improving Learning Foreign Languages”

The ever-increasing demand for learning the English language in Uzbekistan is demonstrative of the great need for comparative studies of the two typologically different languages in contact (Uzbek and English) and creating effective methodologies for teaching English at Uzbek schools.

My graduation paper is devoted to homonymy of composite sentences with “so that”, their translotological and linguodidactic problems.

Although composite sentences with “so that” have been investigated separately in the two languages, namely, English and Uzbek, homonymy of composite sentences with “so that”, has not deeply been reviewed, and their translotological and linguodidactic problems have not been elucidated. Thus, the topic of our research proves to be one of the actual ones in Modern English and Uzbek linguistics and especially in methodology of teaching English.

In introduction to our research we have stressed the positive changes taking place in the various fields of the life in our country, particularly, those in the educational system, here we have also verified the actuality of the topic of our

graduation paper and highlighted the theoretical and practical value and several main, key points of our research work that surely underlie the theoretical fundamentals and the strategy for the teaching we have targeted.

In the first chapter of our work, we concentrated our attention on the theory of composite sentences and different approaches of linguists to composite sentences in particular and problems of homonymy of composite sentences and their classification in Modern English. Homonymy of composite sentences is a very controversial but interesting linguistic phenomenon in both English and Uzbek.

In the second chapter, we presented types of composite sentences with “so that” in English, reviewed homonymy of composite sentences “so that”, their homonymic system and problems of interpretation for linguodidactic purposes, that is, we gave effective methodology of teaching homonymy of composite sentences “so that” at Uzbek schools. Our findings indicated that homonymy of composite sentences “so that” occurs between adverbial clauses of purpose, result and attributive clauses in Modern English.

We hope that our research will yield benefits to the comparative study of the Uzbek and English languages, to the translation processes, and to the development of homonymy of composite sentences in the languages. More importantly, the teaching methods, strategies and activities for teaching homonymy of composite sentences “so that”, which we worked, out will hopefully be a good manual and a methodical reference for the teachers of the English language at Uzbek (higher) schools.

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