



"Büyük Zafer'in 100. Yılı Anısına"



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ULUSLARARASI TÜRK DÜNYASI Eğitim Bilimleri ve Sosyal Bilimler Kongresi

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EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ 2



BÜYÜK ZAFERİN 100. YILI ANISINA
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TÜRK EĞİTİM-SEN GENEL MERKEZİ YAYINLARI

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**ИНГЛИЗ ВА ЎЗБЕК ТИЛЛАРИДА ШАРТ ЭРГАШ ГАПЛАРНИНГ
СТРУКТУРАЛ СЕМАНТИК ХУСУСИЯТЛАРИ**
**STRUCTURAL SEMANTIC FEATURES OF CONDITIONAL CLAUSES IN
ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES**

Soatova Shoirah Bahodir kizi⁹

Annotation

Let's start with the fact that the conditional sentence (conditional) is used when referring to what can happen, could happen, and our immediate desires. In the English-language subordinate clause of the condition, as a rule, the union "if" is found.

Keywords: Conditional sentences, refer, tense, verb, grammatical, subordinating, semantics and pragmatics of conditional sentences, structural classification of conditional sentences, subordinate conjunction

Obviously, there are different opinions about the object of syntax verification. While linguists around the world have commented on this, they have either narrowed or widened the object of the research. Debates over the years have shown that A.I. Smirnitsky's simple, clear definition of the rules of conjunctions as a science that studies the rules of conjugation and the rules of speech from these conjunctions is closer to the truth. We know that syntax as a branch of grammar is divided into two parts: 1) the doctrine of the grammatical connection of words or the doctrine of word combinations. In this part, how words can be connected within a sentence and what words can form collocations as well as phrases are studied.

2) the doctrine of the formation of speech. The doctrine of the formation of speech can be divided into two sections: a) the sentence, the simple sentence (its units, etc.) and b) the doctrine

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of the compound sentence. The doctrine of conjunctions has a long and interesting history (the doctrine of conjunctions in Turkology, especially in Uzbek linguistics, is given below). To be more specific, in one part of doctrine of formation of speech, the way how simple sentences can be constructed and, in the next part, ways of forming compound sentences and then the whole speech are studied. So far such theoretical doctrines have not been met in Uzbek; however, syntax of these sentences are researched broadly in this very language.

The most common English grammars in the world began to appear mainly in the late sixteenth century. Medieval ancient and Latin grammars did not create the doctrine of speech. Influenced by the science of logic, a definition has emerged that a sentence is a form that represents a complete idea. The first English grammar did not have a syntax section. The idea of the speech is given in the chapters on the connectors, in their definition.

In the grammars of B. Johnson and Butler (first half of the seventeenth century) the concept of speech is given only in connection with the rules of punctuation. Oppositely, we do not think that this viewpoint is right one as speech is not only connected with punctuation, but there are other issues to be considered when it comes to forming and delivering speech both in English and Uzbek.

In the second half of the seventeenth century, K. Cooper's grammar and textbook explained the concepts of simple and compound sentences in the interpretation of punctuation rules. Cooper works with these new concepts as well as concepts such as prepositions, prepositions, subordinate clauses, or parts of speech. The concepts of simple and compound sentences lived in the doctrine of compound speech until the middle of the nineteenth century, and the concepts of subordinate clauses and sentences and prepositions and verbs began to be used by English grammarians in the middle of the nineteenth century.

The grammar, created by J. Brightland and published in the early 18th century, was based on the doctrine of speech and its division into simple and compound sentences. The grammars of this period were Greenwood and Ferrow, followers of J. Brightland, who made little change to the new classification. According to them, there is a simple and single sentence; singular sentence - a single verb; a compound sentence is made up of simple sentences [made up of composed). Linguist L.L. Iofik once noted that this doctrine was based on manuals on logic published in England in the XVII-XVIII centuries . According to V.J. Admoni, scholars of this period based their understanding of sentence structure on the concepts of rhetoric and logic,

relying on non-grammatical concepts in the doctrine of simple and compound sentences, and showed grammaticians the way to move from content to form in speech division.

Conditional sentences are one of the most difficult parts of English grammar, often causing problems not only for those who have recently started learning the language, but also for those who have been learning it for a long time. Any conditional clause includes an independent clause and a dependent clause. A subordinate clause usually begins with the preposition “if” and expresses a circumstance or condition; the main thing is that it is the result of an action or circumstances described in the subordinate clause. Most often, in such sentences, the subordinate clause is put at the beginning, but the order does not really play a very important role. Therefore, for example, these two sentences have exactly the same meaning:

If she goes to the store, she will buy ice cream.

She will buy ice cream if she goes to the store.

As you may have noticed by now, different teachers, textbooks, and websites explain the conditional problem from a wide variety of perspectives. Perhaps the reason for this difference is the complexity of the material; therefore, it is impossible to say which version of the explanation most fully reflects the essence of the issue.

There are three main types of conditional clauses. The correct use of grammatical rules for conditional sentences lies in the reality or non-reality of the actions that are described in the sentence.

Conditional sentences of this type are complex sentences with a subordinate clause of a real condition. The main sentence in them expresses an action related to the future, present or past tense, and the subordinate clause is a completely feasible condition for this action.

More often than others, there are sentences in which the action refers to the future tense: in them, the verb of the main sentence is in the future tense, and in the subordinate clause - in one of the present tense forms. In the subordinate clauses, the future tense forms of the verb are not used.

This type of conditional sentences in English is responsible for the "real" condition of the action presented in the sentence. The events of this conditional clause are in the future tense. All conditional sentences will necessarily contain such conjunctions as “if”, “when”, “as soon as”, “before”, “till”, “until”, “after” or others. A feature of this type of conditional clauses is the fact

that the simple future tense (Future Indefinite) is used only in the main clause. In the subordinate clause after the indicated conjunctions, we use only the simple present.

If you hear her singing, you will be impressed by her voice.

When this museum is open, we will go for an excursion there.

If you heat ice, it melts.

When it rains, the streets are wet.

The dog is happy when it sees its master.

This condition expresses the real dependence of one action on another in the present or future tense. A present condition is expressed by a verb in one of the present tenses; one of the past tense expresses the condition related to the past tense; the condition related to the future tense is expressed.

If you know the subject, you need not be afraid.

If he is working, he cannot go with us.

If he said that, he was wrong.

If he was working, why did you disturb him?

I'll pay you, provided I get my wages tomorrow.

If he asks us, we'll tell him the truth.

I shan't tell him anything, unless he asks me.

Any conditional sentence consists of two parts - conditional and main. The conditional part, as in Uzbek, is usually expressed using the adverb if.

The first type of conditional clauses is called real, because fulfillment of the conditions in these proposals is quite feasible.

In addition to if, words and phrases are used such as: when, as soon as (as soon as), before, until.

When she reads the letter, she will become nervous.

As soon as you are ready, I'll drive you home.

Also, conditional clauses use the unless union (unless / unless), which can be replaced with if + not (negation). After unless, the predicate verb is affirmative, since unless already implies negation.

She will forget about it unless we remind her.

She will forget about it if we don't remind her.

The clause, which usually begins with the word if, can appear either at the beginning of a conditional clause (before the main clause) or at the end. If it is at the beginning, then a comma is placed after it. If it is at the end, then no comma is put in front of it.

If you leave now, you'll catch the train.

You'll catch the train if you leave now.

In the conditional part, in addition to Present Simple, the following real tenses can be used: Present Continuous and Present Perfect.

If you are looking for troubles, you'll find them.

Will you go to the picnic next weekend if you have a chance? - Yes, I will / No, I won't.

What will she do, if she misses the train? - She will take a bus.

Some authors single out the zero type of conditional sentences as a separate item. This type describes universal situations in which the fulfillment of a condition from a subordinate clause will inevitably lead to the result indicated in the main clause. The simplest example of this type of conditional clause is natural phenomena or the laws of physics. It differs from the first type in that both parts of the sentence use Present Simple.

The Venn diagram is a convenient method for teaching by comparing the specific similarities and differences of the specifics of a compound sentence and a follow-up sentence. Because comparison serves as a bridge in the acquisition of established knowledge on the subject.

There we can see the complex conditional sentences in Uzbek language and this is very important in teaching English language for learners. As Uzbek and English languages are not from the same roots it is very important to compare their grammatical constructions. Each learner is given the task of filling in the two intersecting circles by writing similar and different signs of the compound sentence with the following conjunctions. After the task is completed, the

learners are grouped into 4 subgroups and their diagrams are compared and completed. Small group members are given the task of identifying common features of a compound sentence with a compound sentence and a follow-up sentence. One representative from each group reads the specific aspects of each concept. It is also possible to add additional points to the opinions expressed. As a result, learners will have the skills and abilities to study, assimilate information, respectfully listen to others' opinions, generalize them, work in a team and research, influence it with their own ideas, accept and approve ideas, and apply knowledge in speech. (Figure 1).

Two or more independent words are grammatically and semantically connected to form a phrase. For example: a'lochi o'quvchi - an excellent student. The parts of this compound are connected using a tone without any additions. The fact that the semantic aspect is really characteristic of the reader, the use of the word g'adir-budur instead of the word a'lochi (g'adir-budur o'quvchi), the fact that the semantic inconsistency is a proof of the semantic combination of the word.

The semantic and grammatical combination of two simple sentences forms connected, followed, unconnected forms of a compound sentence. A compound sentence with a follow-up sentence is formed by connecting two simple sentences, both semantically and grammatically, based on dependence. For example: Kim yaxshi o'qisa, u talaba bo'ladi.

Any knowledge is obtained on the basis of a comparison of existing knowledge with new knowledge. Comparative teaching of phrases and adverbs helps the student to understand the topic, to master his knowledge perfectly, to distinguish adverbs from adverbs from other adverbs, to acquire clearly based knowledge about the adverbial adverbs. The "Cluster" method helps to explain the semantic similarity of the formal structure and the function performed by the parts of a compound sentence and phrase that follow. At the same time, learners have the opportunity to acquire both comparative and systematic knowledge at the same time (Figure 2).

While defining semantic meaning of conditional sentences, one must point out the usage of Probability approach. As it has been known that by approach, in M.Wu's viewpoint, the English if-conditional sentences can be loosely classified into four groups: the factual conditionals, the predictive conditionals, the hypothetical conditionals and the counterfactual conditionals .

In this point, it must be pointed out that in English language, the semantic and pragmatic features of conditional sentences can be understood when the attention is paid to the usage of

types of conditionals, tenses and situations; however, in Uzbek language, such a notion does not exist, and meaning becomes clear within a context.

For example,

If I became rich I would buy a car.

If I become rich I will buy a car.

Based on the rules in English language, the first example is correct while in Uzbek language, both versions can be considered correct if one pays attention more to the context of a certain situation.

We will try to determine what the basic types of conditionals are. We said that a conditional of the form “if A, B” can receive different interpretations in different contexts. But often, a conditional connector can contain a sufficient number of syntactic markers. In that case, the interpretation is fixed. Imagine that we start without knowledge about conditional sentences. Then, many distinctions are important. Here is a list which is not complete but contains at least the most important cases:

- (1) If it is sunny, then I will go to the beach.
- (2) Even if it is sunny, I will go to the beach.
- (3) Only if it is sunny, will I go to the beach.
- (4) I will go to the beach if and only if it is sunny.
- (5) Necessarily, if it is sunny, I will go to the beach.
- (6) A priori, if it is sunny, I will go to the beach.

Only (1)-(3) are basic cases. Case (4) is the biconditional and is only a complex expression formed from the “if, then” and the “only if” type. We will give two reasons to eliminate the last forms. First of all, in both cases, there is a comma between the “if” and the other syntactic marker. So, these markers are not associated with the “if” to form a specific sense of the conditional but are used to qualify the entire conditional sentence. The cases (5)-(6) express a type of judgment. The second reason to eliminate the cases (5)-(6) is to consider what happens when we inverse the order of the antecedent and the consequent. It gives ungrammatical sentences:

(9) I will go to the beach, necessarily if it is sunny.

(10) I will go to the beach, a priori if it is sunny.

In conclusion, we obtain three irreducible cases: if A, then B; Even if A, B; B only if

A. They correspond to three types of connection between the antecedent and the consequent.

The idea of connection is introduced historically in the articles of Chisholm and Goodman. Here, I will propose a more elaborated version: a conditional is true if and only if the type of connection indicated by the connective is realised between the antecedent and the consequent.

We obtain here three types of connection:

The “if, then” expresses that the connection is sufficient for the realisation of the consequent. The “even if” expresses that the connection is insufficient to avoid the realisation of the consequent or nonexistent considering the link between the antecedent and the consequent.

The “only if” expresses that the connection is necessary for the realisation of the consequent. Here we find a classification of the possible connections which correspond, to the classification of conditions. In fact, a condition is often qualified as necessary, sufficient or insufficient. This explanation seems very natural. Why do you think that the sentences that we study are named “conditionals”? But the connection must not be confused with the notion of causality. The latter expresses a link between physical events. It needs also regularities, uniformities or constant conjunctions. The notion of connection is a logical one. It doesn’t imply, for instance, that the link is an instance of a causal law; that the antecedent must happen before the consequent, contrary to the priority of the cause with the effect. The link between the antecedent and the consequent can be psychological, logical, etc... For example, we can say, “if Jones is hungry, he will eat the chicken”. But Jones’ hungriness is an intention and it is difficult to consider it a cause of a physical action. Sometimes, the connection can express a relation of causality, but it is not always the case. Behind this problem, we can find issues in the philosophy of mind and especially the following question: can desires, beliefs or intentions be the cause of our behavior?

Contraposition is characteristic for conditionals that express a sufficient condition. Contrary to this, when an insufficient condition is used, contraposition is not direct or not even possible. In fact, there are here two possibilities: the antecedent of the conditional and its negation exhaust the universe. In that case, contraposition is not possible. The connection between the antecedent and the consequent is empty. But if the antecedent and its negation do not exhaust the universe,

contraposition can take place but by negating the antecedent and its negation. For instance, the negation of the sentence “he drinks a little” is “he doesn’t drink a little” which means “he drinks a lot”. In that case, the antecedent and its negation leave another possibility: “he doesn’t drink”.

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