

The background features a stylized world map in white and light gray, centered at the top. Below the map is a grid pattern that transitions into a blue and white circular graphic at the bottom right. The overall design is modern and academic.

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*А.В. Бурков, д-р. экон. наук, доцент (Россия), главный редактор.
Е.А. Мурзина, канд. экон. наук, доцент (Россия), технический редактор
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Н.В. Щербакова, канд. экон. наук, доцент (Россия),*

*Учредитель:
ООО «Коллоквиум»*

*Издатель:
ООО «Коллоквиум»*

*Адрес редакции:
424002, Россия, Республика Марий Эл,
г. Йошкар-Ола,
ул. Первомайская, 136 «А».
тел. +7 (987) 70-988-34*

Редактор: Е. А. Мурзина

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uch21vek@gmail.com

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УДК 378

**СРАВНЕНИЕ ЦЕЛЕЙ ТРАДИЦИОННОГО
И ИНТЕРАКТИВНОГО ПОДХОДА К ОБУЧЕНИЮ**М.Э. Абдусаломова¹*Аннотация*

Статья рассматривает сравнение целей традиционного интерактивного подхода к обучению

Ключевые слова: интерактивный, традиционный, цель, педагог, методы, обучение, анализ

Традиционное обучение ставит перед собой цель: передача учащимся и усвоение ими как можно большего объема знаний. Педагог транслирует уже осмысленную и дифференцированную им самим информацию, определяет навыки, которые необходимо, с его точки зрения, выработать у учащихся. Задача обучающихся - как можно более полно и точно воспроизвести знания, созданные другими.

Полученные в процессе такого обучения знания носят энциклопедичный характер, представляют собой определенный объем информации по различным учебным предметам, который в сознании учащегося существует в виде тематических блоков, не всегда имеющих смысловые связи. [1,14]

Многие педагоги сталкиваются с проблемой невозможности связать содержание своего предмета со знаниями учащихся в других учебных дисциплинах. И тогда возникает сомнение в том, насколько глубоко произошло осознание учащимися учебного материала, присвоение его и использование в ситуациях, выходящих за рамки школы. Достаточно сложно развеять данное сомнение прежде всего потому, что в качестве обратной связи от учащегося к педагогу также выступает процесс воспроизведения учебного материала. Подтверждение вышесказанному - слова Ш. А. Амонашвили: «Раньше, в том далеком прошлом, когда я был императивным учителем, я не жил со своими учениками одним творческим горением, да и сложности, с которыми они сталкивались, оставались мне неведомыми. Для них я был только контролер, а они для меня - правильно или неправильно решенными задачами» [4, 25]

В контексте интерактивного обучения знания приобретают иные формы. С одной стороны, они представляют собой определенную информацию об окружающем мире. Особенностью этой информации является то, что учащийся получает ее не в виде уже готовой системы от педагога, а в процессе собственной активности. Педагог, по мнению О. Бассис, должен создавать ситуации, в которых обучающийся активен, в которых он спрашивает, действует. В подобных ситуациях «он совместно с другими приобретает способности, позволяющие преобразовывать в знание то, что изначально составляло проблему или препятствие». [2, 120]

С другой стороны, учащийся в процессе взаимодействия на занятии с другими учащимися, педагогом овладевает системой испытанных (апробированных) способов деятельности по отношению к себе, социуму, миру вообще, усваивает различные механизмы поиска знаний. Поэтому знания, полученные учащимся, являются одновременно и инструментом для самостоятельного их добытия.

¹Абдусаломова Мохчебра Эргашевна – преподаватель, Самаркандский сельскохозяйственный институт, Узбекистан.

Таким образом, цель эффективного метода, то есть активного обучения - это создание педагогом условий, в которых учащийся сам будет открывать, приобретать и конструировать знания. Это является принципиальным отличием целей активного обучения от целей традиционной системы образования.

Суть интерактивного обучения состоит в том, что учебный процесс организован таким образом, что практически все учащиеся оказываются вовлечёнными в процесс познания, они имеют возможность понимать и рефлексировать по поводу того, что они знают и думают. Совместная деятельность учащихся в процессе познания, освоения учебного материала означает, что каждый вносит свой особый индивидуальный вклад, идёт обмен знаниями, идеями, способами деятельности. Причём, происходит это в атмосфере доброжелательности и взаимной поддержки, что позволяет не только получать новое знание, но и развивает саму познавательную деятельность и навыки взаимодействия, переводит её на более высокие формы кооперации и сотрудничества.

Интерактивная деятельность на уроках предполагает организацию и развитие диалогового общения, которое ведёт к взаимопониманию, взаимодействию, к совместному решению общих, но значимых для каждого участника задач.

Костяком интерактивных подходов являются интерактивные упражнения и задания, которые выполняются учащимися. Основное отличие интерактивных упражнений и заданий в том, что они направлены не только и не столько на закрепление уже изученного материала, сколько на изучение нового. Современная педагогика богата целым арсеналом интерактивных подходов, среди которых можно выделить следующие:

- Творческие задания;
- Работа в малых группах;
- Обучающие игры (ролевые игры, имитации, деловые игры и образовательные игры);
- Использование общественных ресурсов (приглашение специалиста, экскурсии);
- Проектная методика (социальные проекты, соревнования, радио и газеты, фильмы, спектакли, выставки, представления, песни и сказки);
- Разминки;
- Изучение и закрепление нового материала (интерактивная лекция, работа с наглядными пособиями, видео- и аудиоматериалами, «ученик в роли учителя», «каждый учит каждого», мозаика (ажурная пила), использование вопросов, Сократический диалог);
- Обсуждение сложных и дискуссионных вопросов и проблем («Шкала мнений»), ПОПС-формула, проективные техники, «Один – вдвоём – все вместе», «Смени позицию», «Карусель», «Дискуссия в стиле телевизионного ток-шоу», дебаты, симпозиум);
- Разрешение проблем («Дерево решений», «Мозговой штурм», «Анализ казусов», «Переговоры и медиация», «Лестницы и змейки»).

Рамки одной статьи не позволяют рассмотреть все интерактивные методы, применяемые на современном этапе в обучении иностранным языкам, поэтому обратимся лишь к двум.

Творческие задания. Под творческими заданиями на уроках английского языка мы понимаем такие учебные задания, которые требуют от учащихся не простого воспроизводства информации, а творчества, поскольку задания содержат больший или меньший элемент неизвестности и имеют, как правило, несколько подходов. Творческое задание составляет содержание, основу любого интерактивного метода. Творческое задание (особенно практическое и близкое к жизни обучающегося) придаёт смысл обучению английскому языку, мотивирует учащихся. Неизвестность ответа и возможность найти своё собственное «правильное» решение, основанное на своём персональном опыте и опыте своего коллеги, друга, позволяют создать фундамент для сотрудничества, сообучения, общения всех участников образовательного процесса, включая педагога. [2,17]

Выбор творческого задания сам по себе является творческим заданием для педагога, поскольку требуется найти такое задание, которое отвечало бы следующим критериям:

- не имеет однозначного и односложного ответа или решения;
- является практическим и полезным для учащихся;
- связано с жизнью учащихся;
- вызывает интерес у учащихся;
- максимально служит целям обучения;

Если учащиеся не привыкли работать творчески, то следует постепенно вводить сначала простые упражнения, а затем всё более сложные задания.

Работа в малых группах. Работа в малых группах – это одна из самых популярных стратегий, так как она даёт всем учащимся (в том числе и стеснительным) возможность участвовать в работе, практиковать навыки сотрудничества, межличностного общения (в частности умение активно слушать, вырабатывать общее мнение, разрешать возникающие разногласия). Всё это часто бывает невозможно в большом коллективе. Работа в малой группе – неотъемлемая часть многих интерактивных методов, например таких, как мозаика, дебаты, общественные слушания, почти все виды имитаций и др.

Делая заключение нужно ещё раз отметить, что современная система образования требует усовершенствования методов обучения, так как меняются тенденции в образовании, которое становится открытым, инновационным, интерактивным, происходит огромный рывок в развитии технических средств

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Abstract

The article researches communicative activities for learning vocabulary and focuses on the innovative communicative method. The method is investigated from theoretical and practical aspects.

Keywords: vocabulary, status, basic structures, motivation, differential approach, word stock.

Vocabulary, which is the basic material of the language, is, of course, of crucial importance in expressing ideas and thoughts when communicating. The following statement about the relationship between grammar and vocabulary demonstrated by the British linguist Wilkins argues that "Without grammar, there are few things we can express; while without vocabulary, there is nothing we can express" [4,55]. Wilkins verifies the importance of vocabulary in communication. Insufficient vocabulary or vocabulary difficulties will result in communicational barriers or failures. Without the mediation of vocabulary, no amount of grammatical or other types of linguistic knowledge can be employed in second language communication or discourse.

Vocabulary teaching and acquisition has assumed an important role since 1980s in second language teaching. Communicative Language Teaching, as teaching approach, lays emphasis on learning target language through communicative activities [2,18].

There are several ways to show the meanings of an English word, through such aids as: (1) objects that can easily be brought to class (*umbrellas, scissors, tools, buttons of many colors and sizes, etc*); (2) drawings by the teacher and drawings by the students; (3) demonstrations to show actions [1,41].

1. Comprehension checks—efforts by the native speakers to ensure that the learner has understood (for example, *The bus leaves at 6:30. Do you understand?*)

2. Clarification requests—efforts by the learner to get the native speaker to clarify something that has not been understood (for example, *Could you repeat please?*) These requests from the learner lead to further modifications by the native speaker.

3. Self-repetition or paraphrase—the native speaker repeats his or her sentence either partially or in its entirety (for example, *'She got lost on her way from school. She was walking home from school. She got lost.'*) [3,162].

Research has shown that conversational adjustments can aid comprehension. Modification that takes place during interaction leads to better understanding than linguistic simplification or modification that is planned in advance. Some recent research has shown that specific kinds of interaction behaviors aid learning in terms of immediate production.

Vocabulary is of great significance in expressing thoughts and ideas in interaction activities. Vocabulary acquisition is the main task of second language acquisition. This section will present vocabulary teaching and learning theory in connection with the study. There are various theoretical studies on exploring the types of vocabulary knowledge related to the familiarity with a word. Richards made the first attempt to list the different types of knowledge that are necessary to fully know a word. He was more concerned with applicability to pedagogical practice than attempting to provide a systematic framework for describing or accounting the word knowledge [3,133]. In the word knowledge list, there is no attempt to distinguish productive vocabulary from receptive vocabulary. Elaborating on Richards' list, Nation developed a list of various types of vocabulary knowledge that one must possess both receptively and productively in order to have complete command of a word.

¹Вафаева Зарина Хашимовна - преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Методики и практики преподавания английского языка», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

Vocabulary plays an essential role in expressing ideas and thoughts. The well-known British linguist, Wilkins [4,59] says people could describe few things without grammar, but they could express nothing without vocabulary. Widdowson [1,116] thinks that native English speakers can understand language material with correct vocabulary but not so proper in grammar rules rather than those with correct grammar rules but not so proper in vocabulary use. Lord mentions that 'vocabulary is by far the most sizable and unmanageable component in the learning of any language, whether for a foreign or one's mother tongue because of thousands of different meanings'. Lewis [3, 92] holds the idea that vocabulary acquisition is the main task of second language acquisition and the language skills as listening; speaking, reading, writing and translating all cannot go without vocabulary.

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Abstract

The article deals with the effective use of the entries tests.

Key words: test, scholars, teachers, manual, forms, parts, levels, publication, author.

Different scholars (Heaton, 1990; Underhill, 1991) in their researches ask the similar question – why test, do the teachers really need them and for what purpose. Further, they all agree that test is not the teacher's desire to catch the students unprepared with what they are not acquainted; it is also not the motivating factor for the students to study. In fact, the test is a request for information and possibility to learn what the teachers did not know about their students before. We can add here that the test is important for students, too, though they are unaware of that. The test is supposed to display not only the students' weak points, but also their strong sides. It could act as an indicator of progress the student is gradually making learning the language. Moreover, we can cite the idea of Hughes who emphasizes that we can check the progress, general or specific knowledge of the students, etc. this claim will directly lead us to the statement that for each of these purposes there is a special type of testing. According to some scholars (Thompson, 2001; Hughes, 1989; Alderson, 1996; Heaton, 1990; Underhill, 1991), there are four traditional categories or types of tests: proficiency tests, achievement tests, diagnostic tests and placement tests. The author of the paper once being a teacher, can claim that she is acquainted with three of them and has frequently used them in her teaching practice.

In the following sub-chapters we are determined to discuss different types of tests and possible to apply our own experience in using them.

The test entries include extensive information. For each test, descriptive information is presented in the following order:

- a) Titles. Test titles are printed in boldface type. Secondary or series titles are set off from main titles by a colon.
- b) Purpose. For each test we have included a brief, clear statement describing the purpose of the test. Often these statements are quotations from the test manual.
- c) Population. This is a description of the groups for which the test is intended. The grade, chronological age, semester range, or employment category is usually given. "Grades 1.5--2.5, 2--3, 4--12, 13--17" means that there are four test booklets: a booklet for the middle of the first grade through the middle of the second grade, a booklet for the beginning of the second grade through the end of the third grade, a booklet for grades 4 through 12 inclusive, and a booklet for undergraduate and graduate students in colleges and universities.
- d) Publication date. The inclusive range of publication dates for the various forms, accessories, and editions of a test is reported.
- e) Acronym. When a test is often referred to by an acronym, the acronym is given in the test entry immediately following the publication date.
- f) Scores. The number of part scores is presented along with their titles or descriptions of what they are intended to represent or measure.
- g) Administration. Individual or group administration is indicated. A test is considered a group test unless it may be administered only individually.
- h) Forms, parts, and levels. All available forms, parts, and levels are listed.
- i) Manual. Notation is made if no manual is available. All other manual information is included under Price Data.
- j) Restricted distribution. This is noted only for tests that are put on a special market by the publisher. Educational and psychological restrictions are not noted (unless a special training course is required for use).

¹Ибадова Нафиса Ахматиллоевна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Английского языка и литературы», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

k) Price data. Price information is reported for test packages (usually 20 to 35 tests), answer sheets all other accessories, and specimen sets. The statement "\$17.50 per 35 tests" means that all accessories are included unless otherwise indicated by the reporting of separate prices for accessories. The statement also means 35 tests of one level, one edition, or one part unless stated otherwise. Because test prices can change very quickly, the year that the listed test prices were obtained is also given. Foreign currency is assigned the appropriate symbol. When prices are given in foreign dollars, a qualifying symbol is added (e.g. A\$16.50 refers to 16 dollars and 50 cents in Australian currency). Along with cost, the publication date and number of pages on which print occurs is reported for manuals and technical reports (e.g. '85,102 pages) all types of machine-scorable answer sheets available for use with a specific test are also reported in the descriptive entry. Scoring and reporting services provided by publishers are reported along with information on costs. In a few cases, special computerized scoring and interpretation services are given in separate entries immediately following the test.

l) Foreign languages and other special editions. This section concerns foreign language editions published by the same publisher who sells the English edition. It also indicates special editions (e.g. Braille large type) available from the same or a different publisher.

m) Time. The number of minutes of actual working time allowed examinees and the approximate length of time needed for administering a test are reported whenever obtainable. The latter figure is always enclosed in parentheses. Thus, "50(60) minutes" indicates that the examinees are allowed 50 minutes of working time and that a total of 60 minutes is needed to administer the test. A time of "40—50 minutes" indicates in untimed test that takes approximately 45 minutes to administer, or – in a few instances—a test so timed that working time and administration time are very difficult to disentangle. When the time necessary to administer a test is not reported or suggested in the test materials but has been obtained through correspondence with the test publisher or author, the time is enclosed in brackets.

n) Comments. Some entries contain special notations, such as: "for research use only"; "revision of the ABC test"; "tests administered monthly at centers throughout the United States"; "subtests available as separates"; and "verbal creativity." A statement such as "verbal creativity" is intended to further describe what the test claims to measure. Some of the test entries include factual statements that imply criticism of the test, such as "1980 test identical with test copyrighted 1970."

o) Author. For most tests, all authors are reported. In the case of tests that appear in a new form each year, only authors of the most recent forms are listed. Names are reported exactly as printed on test booklets. Names of editors generally are not reported.

p) Publisher. The name of the publisher or distributor is reported for each test. Foreign publishers are identified by listing the country in brackets immediately following the name of the publisher. The Publishers Directory and Index must be consulted for a publisher's address.

q) Foreign adaptations. Revisions and adaptations of tests for foreign use are listed in a separate paragraph following the original edition.

r) Sub-listings. Levels, editions, subtests, or parts of a test available in separate booklets are sometimes presented as sub listings with titles set in small capitals.

Role of test is very useful and important, especially in language learning. It is a means to show both the students and the teacher how much the learners have learnt during a course.

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DESIGNED LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODOLOGY IN CONTEXT OF MODERN COMPUTER LEARNING AID

M.I. Nabieva¹

Abstract

Computer has brought a revolution in education. Unlike most machines that are capable of only a few tasks, computer can be programmed to perform a great number of tasks and thus becomes a useful tool in the hand of teachers and learners helping them at any stage of learning process: presentation, learning and practice including language use, even nowadays the influence of computerization affects indirectly aims and content of high education devoted to foreign languages.

Key words: absence of real conditions, creative methods, cognitive interest, add new dimensions, automatically, multisupporting.

Analysis of material which is discussed on international scientific conferences shows us that the purpose of education isn't just knowledge and skills, but also definite qualities of personality. Post-industrial society is interested in ability to take decisions, adapt to varying conditions of life, act on one's own etc., according to the opinion of E.S. Plat, who is the author of researches on teaching foreign languages, including the method of projects, "solution of these tasks was rather difficult because of absence of real conditions for carrying out, in consideration of traditional approach to education which focuses on class-lessons system". She supposes that the main task of school doesn't consist in the content of education, but in usage of new technologies of teaching take the concept of "projecting" (latin "projectus" - thrown ahead). Speaking about it, we should pay heed to the fact, that this isn't a new word in pedagogical theory. This definition appeared at the end of 70-s in the context of new program which was offered by Royal college of Art in the Great Britain. On notions of projecting and technologies of teaching, Plat considers methodology of projects as a complex of reconnaissance, problem, creative methods which develop imagination and at the same time they form personality of pupils. We have a computer era here. And the function of projects is carried out by many programs and one of them is Microsoft Power Point. This innovation devise includes the best experience of the past and something completely new and effective of our present. Sure, the advent of new technologies in learning process is always exciting. They add new dimensions to the class and spark students to higher level of motivation and achievement of experimental investigations in this sphere is evidence of conclusion that we need such teaching material, that could take into account all peculiarities and problems which we face during the process of teaching. Many authors (Carol A. Pope, Jeffry N. Glob) find Power Point as a tool which is able to stimulate study of the foreign languages and consider it as a key to the growth of achievements of pupils. Bush criticizes this point of view. He says: 'Regardless of the cool transitions, laser-letter effects, and snappy backgrounds, a PowerPoint presentation that passes on information is not much different than a chalkboard and overhead lecture'. However we can't agree with him. The matter is that comprehension of grammatical and lexical units of foreign language often causes some difficulties for pupils who study it. Methodologists supposed, that at first children don't learn relation between a sign and a meaning, but they learn connection between a word and a subject. It happens automatically because of our conditional reflex and also because of just simple contact between two irritants. Presentation is a workbook of teaching material on definite themes. The biggest advantage of this program consists in, that a teacher can use prepared presentation as a whole in part. It depends on a teacher and purposes of a lesson. Technology allows combine suc-

¹Набиева Мубарро Исматовна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Методики и практики преподавания английского языка», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

cessfully different forms of organization of educational process. It promotes better interaction among pupils and also the role of a teacher takes another position. Instead of supervisor he becomes an equal partner and adviser who is always ready to help in the mastering foreign language. Wide usage of illustrations and Flash-animations in the presentations of this program allows present all vocabulary of the lesson quite easy and understandably. The great advantage of this mean is that we don't need to translate all words in Russian. Foreign words are associated with pictures and they stay in the memory for a long time. Imposition of new words begins on the separate slide. Each unit of vocabulary is processed phonetically with the help of wave files. It allows repeating difficult lexical units as many times as you need to this program the graphic of the word forms immediately with its sound image. Such mean of entering new vocabulary takes into consideration personality of every pupil - those who have aural memory and also whose memory is visual that the meaning of each lexical unit is opened and examples of its usage are given in the form of word combinations and sentences. It will be the stage of explanation and use of learned material on practice. In presentations of such kind we use the most popular way of semantization of vocabulary - demonstration of a picture in the case when we deal with the words that mean concrete subjects of complicated grammatical rules turns into exiting adventure which guaranties high level of understanding. Also, perfect results can be reached because of cognitive interest of pupils and their desire for all new. For example, real facts about different animals from the Guinness World Records not only open one's mind but also stimulate usage of knowledge on this theme. Playback of educational situation and interactive use of visual methods allow realizing the principal of better digestion of knowledge. Usage of multimedia technologies favors' rise of motivation, reduction of bad marks and better knowledge of foreign languages can't keep from mentioning technical advantage of auding with the help of Power Point, which allows teacher to repeat the material as much as he need without loss of time because audio file is always ready for replaying and you don't need rewind the tape again and again. Besides, a teacher isn't obliged to put all notes on the black-board. All preparation for auding and necessary material can fit one slide in the form of controlling buttons, variety of effects of animation and accompanying sound which is presented as Power Point presentation increases opportunities of ordinary text-books because of sound, video and animation. During the work with a computer pupils use hearing and sight and they allow to increase not only the volume of perceivable information but also quality of memory should be mentioned, that in the case if a teacher uses designed language teaching methodology, he acquires another role and function in the teaching process. Designed education, especially thanks to new computer technologies, substitutes traditional paradigm of teaching foreign languages. Thereby, projecting helps pupils to realize the role of knowledge on the life and in the process of studying. Knowledge stops to be an aim, it becomes mean of true education. Pedagogical technologies such as teaching in cooperation, project method, using new informational technologies, Internet resources help to realize personal orientation approach in teaching, support individualization and differentiation of teaching in calculation with students' abilities, their pre-higher educational preparation level, inclination and etc. According to E. Plat, informational technologies contribute to increase academic motivation of teaching foreign languages and advance pupils knowledge. Usage of computer during English lessons increases significantly academic process intensively. Computer teaching assimilates a large amount of material, than it was acquired using traditional teaching conditions. Besides material in using computer is acquired more substantially. A computer supply multisupporting that is current, intermediate, total academic process control. Computer supplies multisupporting control of academic process that is current intermediate, total. Using the computer control of quality student's knowledge to achieve the large objectiveness of valuation. Besides, computer control considerably economizes academic time, as it checks students' knowledge simultaneously. Cooperation suggests control six methodically important summons of pupil as personality context activity, personal experience, wish, interest, inclination sphere, emotional perceptual sphere, worldview, pupil's status in the group. All these instigate pupils to learning.

We can say that usage of computer technologies is very effective, it increases level of knowledge of material and also it raises motivation of pupils, we consider that

we have reached the purpose of our research. Project which was worked out by us and its didactic application in the form of presentation can be used by teachers for increasing the quality of teaching English.

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UDC 378

EFFECTIVE TECHNOLOGIES OF TEACHING A FOREIGN LANGUAGEM.I. Nabieva¹*Abstract*

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

Key words: constructivist teaching, prompt and facilitate discussion, assessment technique, communicative approach, facilitators to support.

One of the primary goals of using constructivist teaching is that students learn how to learn by giving them the training to take initiative for their own learning experiences.

According to Audrey Gray, the characteristics of a constructivist classroom are as follows:

The learners are actively involved

The environment is democratic

The activities are interactive and student-centered

The teacher facilitates a process of learning in which students are encouraged to be responsible and autonomous

Examples of constructivist activities

Furthermore, in the constructivist classroom, students work primarily in groups and learning and knowledge are interactive and dynamic. There is a great focus and emphasis on social and communication skills, as well as collaboration and exchange of ideas. This is contrary to the traditional classroom in which students work primarily alone, learning is achieved through repetition, and the subjects are strictly adhered to and are guided by a textbook. Some activities encouraged in constructivist classrooms are:

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

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

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

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

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

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

David Jonassen identified three major roles for facilitators to support students in constructivist learning environments:

Modeling

Coaching

Scaffolding

Jonassen recommends making the learning goals engaging and relevant but not overly structured.

¹*Набиева Мубарро Исматовна* – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Методики и практики преподавания английского языка», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

Learning is driven in CLEs by the problem to be solved; students learn content and theory in order to solve the problem. This is different from traditional objectivist teaching where the theory would be presented first and problems would be used afterwards to practice theory.

Depending on students' prior experiences, related cases and scaffolding may be necessary for support. Instructors also need to provide an authentic context for tasks, plus information resources, cognitive tools, and collaborative tools.

Traditionally, assessment in the classrooms is based on testing. In this style, it is important for the student to produce the correct answers. However, in constructivist teaching, the process of gaining knowledge is viewed as being just as important as the product. Thus, assessment is based not only on tests, but also on observation of the student, the student's work, and the student's points of view. Some assessment strategies include:

Oral discussions. The teacher presents students with a "focus" question and allows an open discussion on the topic.

KWL (H) Chart (What we know, What we want to know, What we have learned, How we know it). This technique can be used throughout the course of study for a particular topic, but is also a good assessment technique as it shows the teacher the progress of the student throughout the course of study.

Mind Mapping. In this activity, students list and categorize the concepts and ideas relating to a topic.

Hands-on activities. These encourage students to manipulate their environments or a particular learning tool. Teachers can use a checklist and observation to assess student success with the particular material.

Pre-testing. This allows a teacher to determine what knowledge students bring to a new topic and thus will be helpful in directing the course of study.

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

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

Over the last three decades, theorists have discussed (and continue to discuss) the exact definition of communicative competence. They do agree, however, that meaningful communication supports language learning and that classroom activities must focus on the learner's authentic needs to communicate information and ideas.

Grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary are, of course, necessary parts of effective communication. With the communicative method two primary approaches may be taken. Some teachers prefer to teach a rule, and then follow it with practice. Most, though, feel grammar will be naturally discovered through meaningful communicative interaction.

The communicative approach is a flexible method rather than a rigorously defined set of teaching practices. It can best be defined with a list of general principles. In Communicative Language Teaching (1991), expert David Nunan lists these five basic characteristics:

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
2. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.
3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language but also on the learning process itself.
4. An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activities outside the classroom.

As these features show, the communicative approach is concerned with the unique individual needs of each learner. By making the language relevant to the world rather than the classroom, learners can acquire the desired skills rapidly and agreeably.

Information of interest to a subject the huge role is played by the person of the teacher. Therefore a pledge of successful mastering a foreign language by the pupils is professionalism of the teacher which should in the work not only take into account the methodical principles underlying teaching, but also to be in constant search of new receptions and means of teaching which will recover a lesson, will make it fascinating, cognitive and remembered.

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Abstract

"Vocabulary acquisition is the largest and most important task facing the language learner." The aim of this thesis is to present two main streams in language teaching approaches and their influence on students' acquisition. By confrontation grammar translation method vs. communicative approach. Their principles are summarized, both advantages and disadvantages, and tried to show how to make profit out of both to get the best possible result.

Key words: Communicative Language Teaching, uncertainty or flexibility, highlights general dimensions, teaching strategies, essential status, multi-lingual societies, teaching methodologies, the unplanned strategies, approaches to assessing vocabulary.

When students learn a foreign language, many think that learning vocabulary is fundamental, important, but difficult. In an investigation in a specific Chinese context, Cortazzi and Jin found that a typical comment from students was that vocabulary was "the most important thing" when learning a foreign language. With the size and complexity of the English native speakers' mental lexicon and its relation to an L2 syllabus target, knowing how to teach vocabulary effectively in classrooms must be desirable, if this crucial aspect of language learning is not to be left to chance.

This paper first briefly reviews the historical development of vocabulary in recent English language teaching (ELT). It then outlines some common vocabulary teaching strategies, and discusses the effectiveness of the vocabulary teaching and learning strategies that different research experiments have identified. It finally recognises that the best teaching strategies will ultimately have to match students' learning strategies. In this way, the paper highlights general dimensions and dynamics of vocabulary teaching and learning strategies, and illustrates a 2C-5R model for teaching EFL learners.

In the early 1980s, there was severe criticism of the neglect of vocabulary research. In spite of little attention to research, the importance of vocabulary was not completely ignored in language pedagogy, even during the heydays of the development of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). For example, Wilkins, as an early representative advocate of the Communicative Approach, clearly indicated that learning vocabulary is as important as learning grammar. He believes that near native speaking levels can be distinguished by whether learners can use, say, collocations well. Without such ability, even if there are no grammatical mistakes, users cannot be categorized as native speakers. Allen also emphasized that "lexical problems frequently interfere with communication; communication breaks down when people do not use the right words". This underlines the importance of vocabulary in classroom teaching, as without vocabulary, it is difficult to communicate. Nevertheless, at that time priority to teaching was given to the notional and functional aspects of language, which were believed to help learners achieve communicative competence directly, so the teaching of vocabulary was much less directly emphasized in many ELT classrooms. But certain attention was given to the importance of integrating it in a general framework of foreign language teaching.

There were at that time only a handful of well-known teaching handbooks devoted to vocabulary teaching in language classrooms, like Wallace and Allen. However, few of their teaching recommendations were based on theories or research findings. As Carter argued: books devoted to practical approaches to vocabulary teaching proceed without due recognition of issues in vocabulary learning: for example, Wallace contains little about issues in learning with the result that teaching strategies are proposed from

¹Набиева Мубарро Исмаиловна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Методики и практики преподавания английского языка», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

a basis of, at best, untested assumption. From the late 1980s, vocabulary was an area that had drawn researchers' interest within the mainstream of L2 acquisition. Researchers realized that many of learners' difficulties, both receptively and productively, result from an inadequate vocabulary, and even when they are at higher levels of language competence and performance, they still feel in need of learning vocabulary. One of the research implications about the importance of vocabulary is that "lexical competence is at the heart of communicative competence» and can be a "prediction of school success".

Meanwhile, there was an increasing output of teaching and learning handbooks or guidelines which directly focused on vocabulary.

Vocabulary has got its central and essential status in discussions about learning a language. Particular approaches were developed, like *discourse-based language teaching*, the *lexical phrase approach*, the *lexical approach* and the *lexical syllabus*. Selection of core vocabulary or corpus by modern technology was also systematically developed. Moreover, approaches to assessing vocabulary have become particularly specialized. Therefore, the weak or discriminated status of vocabulary as criticized in both L2 acquisition research and teaching methodologies has changed and is no longer the case.

Palmberg proposed two main types of teaching methods to improve vocabulary learning. The first focuses on the sense of L2 based exercises and activities, which stand as a main target of CLT, and has received much attention in recent vocabulary teaching practices and materials. The second, however, focuses on the development of learners' own L2 associations. This is difficult to build into the design of any published materials, as associations are partly dependent on learners' background of languages, and their learning experiences can be very different, especially in multi-lingual societies. Therefore, teachers need to include an element of uncertainty or flexibility into classroom activities to support the development of learners' own built-in lexical syllabus.

In general, the goals of vocabulary teaching cover Palmberg's two teaching methods. Seal, for example, classified vocabulary teaching strategies as planned and unplanned activities in classrooms. As the terms show, the unplanned strategies refer to occasions when words may be learned incidentally and accidentally in class when students request particular meanings of the word, or when the teacher becomes aware of any relevant words to which attention needs to be drawn. To deal with the improvised nature of such teaching situations, Seal proposed a three C's method, which may start from *conveying* meanings by giving synonyms, anecdotes, or using mime. Then the teacher *checks* the meanings to confirm that students understand what has been conveyed. Finally, the meanings can be *consolidated* by practicing them in contexts.

Unplanned vocabulary teaching strategies may differ from teacher to teacher, from lesson to lesson, or even from class to class. Nevertheless, no matter how much time may be spent in teaching words incidentally, it is likely that unplanned vocabulary activities occupy less time than planned vocabulary teaching strategies. These is because teachers normally would have prepared teaching materials in advance or use a published textbook, including a listing of the target words, and these words would have been allocated more class teaching time.

Overall, vocabulary teaching strategies are not 'good' or 'bad'. They may in themselves have neither positive nor negative sides; no single method can really achieve the purpose of vocabulary acquisition. As Pincas criticized: "Too often we talk as if there could be one method of learning and teaching language. But there are different kinds of learning involved for different aspects, there would seem to be different strategies appropriate for different competencies.

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Abstract

The article examines specific language skills for a language teacher.

Key words: Language, skills, teachers, students, listening, speaking, reading, vocabulary

Teachers are important persons who educate pupils and students. They play main role in supporting language development. Beyond teaching children to read and write at schools, instructors need to help them learn how to scribble notes down, and easy informal letters and how to pronounce some letters, letter combinations and some non-standard and less common words. Furthermore, instructors need to teach effective ways of reading, speaking and listening abilities of pupils. For this reason, it is fact that teachers themselves should be skillful and knowledgeable. It is known that languages are generally taught and assessed in terms of the "four skills": listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Listening and reading are known as "receptive" skills while speaking and writing are known as "productive" skills [1]. Every teacher who teaches pupils or students in the field of a particular language should have these skills himself or herself firstly. Without them they cannot be good at language. Listening and speaking as well as reading and writing together form the art of communication. So, teachers should become highly skilled in all these areas to excel in their profession. They help teachers to be excellent instructors. Let's give an explanation for each of them separately. As before mentioned the importance of each skill is evaluated with their value in a particular language. Among them, writing skill is distinguished in its features which are more complex and obligatory to teachers' language. Teachers' writing directly affects student's performance in their written work. As the role of the teacher in shaping the students' writing skill is appreciable, this point is given great attention should be given to this point. Actually, it is more complicated than it seems at first, and often seems to be the hardest of the skills, even for native speakers of a language, since it involves not just a graphic representation of speech but the development and presentation of thoughts in a structured way. Also it helps to consolidate their grasp of vocabulary and structure, and complements the other language skills. It is known that speech is structured by sentences and sentences are formed in a written way. So, in order to teach not only writing but also other language skills teacher needs to know these skills perfectly.

Listening is also a significant skill among others, because it is a fact that without comprehension, nobody can realize the speech and make oral communication with others. Certainly, if teachers do not have good listening skills, they cannot lead the lesson effectively. In addition, teachers becoming skilled in listening themselves are not sufficient. They also need to have an ability to teach their student in this language skill because teachers are responsible for developing their learners' language skills. For this reason teachers need to use diverse listening activities. So, teaching the learners a lot of listening activities is a good way of enlargening their vocabulary. In our first language, we have all the skills and background knowledge we need to understand what we hear, so we probably aren't even aware of how complex of a process it is. Take into consideration that listening is one of the means of language communication used most widely in people's life and needs improving in teachers' as well as all students and other people's language.

Speaking is the productive skill in the oral mode. It, like the oral skills, is more complicated than it seems at first and involves more than just pronouncing words. It is clear that while teaching to explain a theme, the instructor needs to speak and lead the

¹Ракмонова Амира Ульфатовна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Лексикологии и Стилистики английского языка». Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

lesson. So, teacher's language should be provided with speaking skills also. Some speaking situations are partially interactive, such as when giving a speech to a live audience does not interrupt the speech. The speaker nevertheless can see the audience and judge from the expressions on their faces and body language whether or not he or she is being understood [2]. In other words, the instructor who teaches language should be ready for any kind of situation and speak without errors.

The last but not the least important skill which a teacher should have is reading skill. It can develop independently of listening and speaking skills, but often develops along with them, especially in societies with a highly-developed literary tradition. Reading can help build vocabulary that helps listening comprehension at the later stages, particularly [3]. Having good reading skill as a teacher illustrates that he or she has good comprehension and a great base of vocabulary. By the way instructors can teach their pupils and students and correct their faults with reading. For instance, some learners read word by word, some of them read with their finger pointing to the words or with their head shaking. Also, there are some sub skills which instructors should know well, such as grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary. Although they are not specific skills, they have major importance in teaching and learning. As proof of this I can cite an opinion which was said by a famous linguist, David Wilkins, "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed" [4]. One more well-known American linguist Leonard Bloomfield, said, "In order to speak good English one should know hundred percent of speech sounds, fifty-ninety percent of grammar and one percent of vocabulary" [5]. These assumptions illustrate that for good teachers these sub skills are also strictly required.

All in all, a teacher who has all language skills, sub skills and abilities which mentioned above can be a good teacher. If a teacher is skillful, he or she can promote his or her career in a certain sphere in future. Certainly, in order to use these skills teacher should have enough experience too. The reason why it is important is that having only language skills is not sufficient for teachers to demonstrate their abilities.

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Abstract

This article is devoted to the role of teacher and learner in the communicative language teaching.

Keywords: learners, teachers, methods, role, class, language, memory, Oral discussions, Pre-testing

CLT stresses the need to allow students opportunities for authentic and creative use of the language. It focuses on meaning rather than form; it suggests that learning should be relevant to the needs of the students; it advocates task-based language teaching. Students should be given tasks to perform or problems to solve in the classroom. What's more, CLT emphasizes a functional approach to language learning (i.e. what people do with language, such as inviting, apologizing, greeting and introducing, etc.). Also, to be competent in the target language, learners should acquire not only linguistic knowledge, but also the cultural background of that language.

In CLT, the teacher has two main roles: the first is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. The latter role is closely related to the objectives of the first role and arises from it. These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher: first, as an organizer of resources and as a resource himself, second, as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities. A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner, with much to contribute in terms of the nature of learning and organizational capacities (Breen and Candlin, 1980: 99). The role of the teacher is not only that of a resource and lecturer but also a facilitator, an organizer, a guider and more important a creator of environment in which learners learn how to learn.

It is quite obvious that teachers' roles in more than just the role of instructors. There are many other roles teachers should play. In CLT classrooms, teachers have multiple roles such as director, organizer, host, coordinator and so on. A number of writers in methodology and teacher training have proposed various ways of labeling the second language teacher's potential roles in class. The following is adapted from Harmer:

A. The teacher as controller of everything that goes on in the classroom. He controls not only what the students do, but when they speak and what language they use.

B. The teacher as manager, organizing the activities.

C. The teacher as assessor, giving feedback and advice, as well as correction and grading.

D. The teacher as participant (co-communicator) in an organized activity such as debate or role play.

E. The teacher as prompter to encourage students to participate or make suggestions about how to proceed in an activity.

F. The teacher as a source of language and knowledge.

G. The teacher as instructor, actually teaching the new language points and training students in language skills

(Harmer, 1987:109).

Learners Roles in CLT

In the traditional Grammar-Translation Method teachers are dictators in class. Teachers deliver the contents of a textbook to students and students just copy the information into their notebooks. They passively receive the knowledge in the class. On the contrary, in CLT, learners play a central role in communication and interaction.

¹Салиева Зироат Зокировна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Английского языка и литературы», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

They are advocated to participate in classroom activities actively. Learners have greater autonomy in communicative activities; autonomy is where students take responsibility for their learning and undertakes all of the management tasks concerned with it. Learners come up with a mutual solution by exchanging ideas and opinions with each other. They help each other and learn from each other. In 1980 Breen and Candlin describe the learner's role within CLT in the following terms:

The role of learner as negotiator – between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning – emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way (Breen and Candlin, 1980:110).

Constructivist assessment

Traditionally, assessment in the classrooms is based on testing. In this style, it is important for the student to produce the correct answers. However, in constructivist teaching, the process of gaining knowledge is viewed as being just as important as the product. Thus, assessment is based not only on tests, but also on observation of the pupils, the pupil's work, and the pupil's points of view. Some assessment strategies include:

- * Oral discussions. The teacher presents students with a "focus" question and allows an open discussion on the topic.

- * KWL (H) Chart (What we know, what we want to know, what we have learned, How we know it). This technique can be used throughout the course of study for a particular topic, but is also a good assessment technique as it shows the teacher the progress of the learner throughout the course of study.

- * Mind Mapping. In this activity, pupils list and categorize the concepts and ideas relating to a topic.

- * Pre-testing. This allows a teacher to determine what knowledge learners bring to a new topic and thus will be helpful in directing the course of study.

Oral discussion can bring out your learners' interests and motivate them; it's a chance for them to talk about the things they really care about. Giving and justifying opinions in English can also bring pupils a sense of accomplishment, as they are using the language to express ideas.

Discussion activities encourage critical thinking, which partly examine the ability to express and justify opinions in English. Perhaps most importantly, discussion activities can be great fun for learners.

Preparing for discussion classes

The first thing you need to be aware of is the language ability of your pupils and how much they know about the topic under discussion. This is important if you want to encourage real, free-flowing conversation. Get it wrong and learners can get bored or, worse, feel intimidated and lose confidence. When setting discussion questions, make sure the language and topic aren't too demanding. Don't try to begin a discussion about global economic theory with elementary pupils. You need to grade the language of the questions to suit the level of your learners, and check they understand in advance.

Activities that help students organize their ideas

Some activities are based on helping students organize their ideas. Producing *mind maps* in class can act as prompts to keep the discussion going, and help students expand on the topic and order their ideas.

Activities that help students with their language

Matching pictures or real objects with words is a great activity for elementary learners and it can generate a lot of discussion and emergent language (i.e., the language that the students produce as they are talking). The activity is simple. Take a picture or object and put them in jumbled order. Ask pupil to find the word with its object or picture. The reason pictures work so well for this activity is that they provide a visual cue for the questions

To conclude, whether your learners are 6, 16 or 60, everyone needs to start somewhere. Allow your learners to get to grips with the fundamentals of a language. Once you have done this, you can issue it every year to your new group of learners.

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Abstract

The aim of this article is giving all advantages of using Multimedia tools in teaching process, to give useful and important information about advantages of Web pages. Learning with the help of multimedia packages is no longer a one-way process, but rather a dialog among the participants..

Keywords: computer technology, innovative technologies, CD-ROM WebPages.

Today, more than ever advancements in technology influence our jobs, education, scientific development, market and communications, etc. Information and communication technologies have entered every aspect of our life. Computers are no longer intended for the selected few since they exist in all forms of contemporary life, and thus including educational institutions as well.

Every day, we face the infinity of information that needs to be selected among many and then appropriately used.

Multimedia should be an inseparable part of FLT in order to facilitate FLT and help with the acquisition of second language (L2) learning. At present multimedia is a common teaching resource, aid or tool in foreign language (FL) classes since it is:

- modern/fashionable,
- up-to-date as it can be usually easily modified,
- user-friendly,
- relatively inexpensive,
- eye-catching/appealing to students,
- stimulating, and simply, a natural means of student's everyday use.

Just by using search engines on the web, one can access far away libraries, find messages, discuss problems, or ask for help. This shows that the new technology is not only a technical helping tool, but an educationally rich source for the teachers and their students.

Examples of Multimedia on WWW

Learning with the help of multimedia packages is no longer a one-way process, but rather a dialog among the participants. Most often, students use multimedia individually or in pairs, in the classroom and also at home. Working with such packages, students systematize lessons, revise through games, and logically connect learning materials with real life situations.

Next to the multimedia packages on CD-ROMs or floppy discs, variety of exercises, drills and examples can be found on the Internet, usually under the Education category.

There are multimedia packages intended for early learning (up to ten year old ones) that offer storytelling, song listening, and game playing which are more appropriate forms of learning for that age group. CD-ROMs and Webpages (<http://www.englishlearning.com/Dictionarv.html>, <http://www.pdictionarv.com>) with picture dictionaries can also be found and used for these learners. Multimedia packages for older learners differ in their content and presentation, but nevertheless, offer dynamical, interesting, multimedia environment, with different topics to cover, many types of exercises and drills, tests, grammatical rules explained and used on several levels, and last but not the least, feedback to the user about his progress.

Youtube.com is a website which is widely used by English teachers because it affects most of student's senses and develops all four language skills at a time: listening, reading, writing and speaking.

¹Солieва Зарина Ботировна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Английского языка и литературы», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

TeachingEnglish.org.uk is a website which was developed by the British Council and BBC. Besides teacher training, teacher development, exams in English, and various events, this site also serves as a valuable resource for L2 English teachers. It offers plans and activities, completed with worksheets to download, for primary, secondary and adult teachers.

It is important not to use technology for its sake, but rather to embed technology appropriately. Here, teachers draw upon their expertise and experience in what to teach and how to teach it. A teacher has many considerations and influences in designing learning experiences for students, and the appropriate use of technology is but one of those considerations. Just as teachers keep up to date with curriculum developments, new educational policies and advances in the art and science of teaching practice, they keep up to date with the technological tools that are available to them. This means that sometimes experimentation and trial-and-error are just as important as experience in what influences teachers' lesson plans.

The role and expertise of teachers are critical because teachers are at the front line of designing and delivering the learning experience. It has been well argued that just making technology available in schools does not mean that teachers will make use of the technology, nor will it necessarily be used effectively.

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UDC 378

THE MYSTERIOUS CASE OF TEACHER'S EFFECTIVENESS

T.B. Tagaeva¹*Abstract*

In this article, the author asserts emphasis on English at the present time and the importance of the role of the teacher in the education process.

Key words: method, effective, visual techniques, verbal explanation.

“The man who can make hard things easy is the educator”
Ralph Waldo Emerson.

We know that some students are very active and others “the legs”, it means slower learners. We try to work with them individually. I think, teachers should be able to see all students all times. Student desks should be arranged so, that the teacher can see everybody from any instructional area where he or she may be working. The teacher seemed to have “eyes in the back of her head”. Teachers must often consult them with any questions. Students need a clear understanding of what they are expected to learn and they need to be motivated to learn it. We must help students review learning before presenting new information. Before presenting we can re teach them if, there is confusion. We try to give several examples and illustrations to explain main points and ideas.

Teacher’s voice must be clearly, softly. They must give directions distinctly and slowly. If students are confused about what they are supposed to do, we repeat or break information into small segments.

As teacher we must demonstrate personal enthusiasm for the academic content and make it clear why the information is interesting and important and at the end of the lesson we can close the lesson with a brief review or summary.

Effective teachers ask questions frequently to check for student understanding and make sure that students are ready for independent work using new skills and knowledge. We know that weekly and monthly reviews offer students the opportunity for more practice, a strategy related to high achievement. All students are interested in knowing their balls (marks).

Studies on mastery learning show that it is a powerful tool that has the following effects on teaching and learning. They are:

1. Students achieve more and remember what they have learned longer.
2. Teachers have more positive attitudes toward teaching and higher expectations for their students.

Research shows that effective teachers have strong interpersonal skills. They accept, respect, empathize with, and take care about their students’ achievement.

I think, every people remember their skilled, effective teachers. It is one of the “sweet dreams” in our life. You often miss that time. In one word teaching is not an insignificant, irrelevant, paper-shuffling kind of a job. It has meaning, worth, and value. It gives you the opportunity to touch a young and impressionable life and make it better. As a teacher, we will have a rare privilege and responsibility: you can effect and change the lives of children.

We realize that the role of a teacher in the classroom not only to teach a special subject, but also develop critical and independent thinking. Teachers must be advisor and friend. Critical thinking is more important in developing our new generation, because every student has its own feeling, emotions, a point of view.

We must often give them special questions that they are able to answer. Through debates they can learn making judgments, conclusion, and arguments. As any smart

¹Тагаева Тамара Баходировна – старший преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Английского языка и литературы», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

teacher knows, student interests can be maintained by moving from one activity to another during a single room. Following is a sampler of activities teachers can use to maintain student interest by varying the pattern of the English lesson. E.g.: discussion, contests, lecture, creative writing, movies, tapes, board work, role plays, music activities, tutoring, small group activities, student presentations, tests, silent reading, games, debates, brainstorming sessions and others. These types help students be more active and sociable.

Computer method is ideal for any of the following conditions:

- Computer resources are limited.
- You want to be able to brainstorm in any room anywhere (using a laptop).
- You want to slowly convert people from standard brainstorming to computer-aided brainstorming.

- The people in the group are not good at working by themselves.
- You are working by yourself.

During the lesson of phonetics, we often use audio materials.

While making plans of my lesson I identify the text and I use pre-, during-and post-task model. In pre-task model, I ask such kind of questions;

When is (e.g. a certain word, phrase, intonation, accent etc.) used?

Does it always have the same meaning?

During – task questions e.g.

1. Where is the situation taking place? How do you know?
2. Who are the characters in the text/ recording/ video? (Identify their gender, age, nationality, occupation). How do you know?

3. Comment on each use of (e.g. a certain word, phrase, intonation, accent etc.) in the text, recording, video.

Post – task speaking activities that provoke students to render certain meanings using different intonation and other phonological features, e.g. Role-play, gap filling, or recording and analyzing conversations.

Some highly effective teachers go a step further, consulting with their classes to establish learning goals, codes of behavior and ways of enforcing acceptable behavior.

During the practical course of grammar, we also try to use any types of games, presentations, explanations and audio-visual aids.

We suggest the following types of grammar presentation techniques:

1. Visual techniques. These pertain to visual memory, which is considered especially helpful with the grammar retention. Learners remember better the material that has been presented by means of the visual aids. The visual techniques lend themselves well to presenting concrete items of grammar. They help students to associate the presented material in a meaningful way and incorporate it into their system of the language units.

2. Verbal explanation. This pertains to the use of illustrative situations connected with the grammar material studied. Games, as Richard Amato thinks, are to be fun, but he warns against overlooking their pedagogical value, particularly in foreign language teaching programmes. There are many advantages of using games in grammar.

1. Games can lower anxiety, thus making the acquisition of input more likely.
2. Games are highly motivating and entertaining, and they can give shy students more opportunities to express their opinions and feelings.
3. They also enable learners to acquire new experience within the foreign language that are not always possible during a typical lesson.
4. Games add diversion to the regular classroom activities, break the ice and introduce the new ideas.
5. In the easy, relaxed atmosphere which is created by using games the students remember things faster and better.

6. Grammar games are a good way of practicing the language, for they provide a model of what learners will use the language for in real life in future.

7. Grammar games encourage, entertain, teach, and promote fluency.

During our lessons, we often use any types of interactive methods, as cluster BBB, brainstorming and others.

I want to give a conclusion with Jaime Escalante de Escalante own words. He once said: "The teacher has to have the energy of the hottest volcano, the memory of an elephant, and the diplomacy of an ambassador... Really, a teacher was to possess love and knowledge and then has to use this combined passion to be able to accomplish something".

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Abstract

This article is about the some features and conveniences of group work in classes.

Key words: Group work, pedagogical technologies, co-operate, pedagogical strategy interaction, randomly, teacher-selected, by seat proximity, or student-selected, constructive communication.

In the course of time we are coming across various new ways of teaching foreign languages in methodology. Not only different ways of teaching foreign languages but also we can observe new pedagogical technologies in educational process. So that we are going to devote the article about some features of group work.

Groupwork is a very essential part of our lesson, because it demonstrates our ability to communicate, discuss, and co-operate with other learners. The aim of including a group work component in our sessions or courses are to prepare for our future occupation, which may require us to work in a group-based environment. Thus it is not surprising that the ability to work effectively in a group is a much-desired skill. Group work is one pedagogical strategy that promotes participation and interaction during the session.

It fosters a deeper and more active learning process, and it also provides instructors with valuable demonstrations of the degree to which students understand particular topics or concepts. In addition to exposing students to different approaches and ways of thinking, working with other students in groups can promote a sense of belonging that combats the anonymity and isolation that many students experience at a large campus. Some students may initially be reluctant to participate in group work, so sharing the reasons for group work with our students can help to convince the reluctant ones. It might help them to know that research has shown that groups frequently devise more and better solutions than the most advanced individual.

Working together in groups also gives students the opportunity to learn from and teach each other. Classroom research has shown that students often learn better from each other than they do from a teacher. [1,16–20]

From a practical standpoint, group work also fosters interpersonal skills highly valued by employers, not to mention friends, neighbors, and family. For instructors, group work can save some preparation time. Although preparing for effective group work does take some planning, it is less time-consuming than preparing a lecture. It is not difficult to incorporate group activities into our lesson plan, but there are some general rules of thumb about structuring group work so that it has useful outcomes for students.

Small groups or learning teams can be formed in four ways: randomly, teacher-selected, by seat proximity, or student-selected. Random and teacher-selected group assignments avoid cliques and ensure that students interact with different classmates throughout the semester.

We know our learners fairly well, teacher selection can be useful for grouping students. Consider selecting groups or pairs with varying strengths and skill levels, since research has shown that groups of problem solvers with diverse skills consistently outperform groups of problem solvers who are highly skilled in the same way. [2,194]

Group size can be different, as can the length of time that students work together. Pairing is great for thirty-second or one-minute problem solving. Groups that work together for ten to 45 minutes might be four or five people. (If there are more than four

¹Туйчиев Сохибжон Эркинович – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Лексикологии и Стилистики английского языка», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

or five, some members will stop participating). Groups can be formal or informal. Informal groups may be ad-hoc dyads (where each student turns to a neighbor) or ten-minute “buzz groups” (in which three to four students discuss their reactions to a reading assignment). Formal group assignments can serve semester-long group projects. In large groups it is useful to assign roles within each group (examples: recorder, reporter to the class, timekeeper, monitor, or facilitator). If students are not used to working in groups, establishing some discussion guidelines with the class about respectful interaction before the first activity can foster positive and constructive communication.

It is useful to arrange the students in groups before giving them instructions for the group activity, since the physical movement in group formation tends to be distracting.

The instructor poses a question. Students are given time (30 seconds or one minute) to think of a response. Each student then pairs with another and both discuss their responses to the question. The instructor invites pairs to share their responses with the class as a whole.

If your group work consists of a set of short problems for students to work through, as often happens in science and mathematics courses, there are many ways to structure the activity.

During group work, as tempting as it may be, do not disengage from your class and sit at the front of the room! Circulate and listen to your students. Are they on task, or are they talking about their weekend plans? Are students understanding the concepts and the assignment, or are they all stuck and confused? Do they have questions for you? Pull up a chair and join each group for a while.

On implementing group work for the first time in their section, some GSIs find that the students fall awkwardly silent when the GSI walks by or listens to their discussion. This is only temporary, and it should stop once our students are familiar with us and the group-work format. Because unfamiliarity drives this reaction, it is good to implement group work very early in the semester and to use it often in your section.

To sum up we can see the outcomes of working in group. While working in small groups, learners can discuss the given problem, share their ideas with each other, and learn to respect one another and group-work shows easy ways of learning explained topic or theme by teacher.

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UDC 378

IMPORTANCE OF USING TALES FOR THE TEACHING OF VOCABULARY AND GRAMMAR IN A PRIMARY EDUCATION ENGLISH CLASS

D.Kh. Kholmurodova¹

Abstract

This article will give reasons for using children's stories in a class of English, what is the role of stories in English classes, how to select and use those stories and, finally, which story-based activities can be proposed for Primary School Education.

Key words: interpreting, narrative, motivating activity, ideologies, facilitate, acquiring, viewpoints.

Telling stories has long been recognized as a powerful means of human communication. Narrative is probably the most common way of organizing experience. Because of this, even very young children will know, implicitly, a lot about stories, what to expect, how to respond. This is an ability that the school should be able to draw on and build upon.

Children enjoy listening to stories in their mother tongue. Story telling is an ideal introduction to foreign languages as stories provide a familiar context for the child. Moreover, if teachers want to attract children's attention they must propose a motivating activity such as story-telling. Children start enjoying literature from an early age by the teacher's use of extensive reading of stories. They develop their literary competence – a combination of linguistic, socio-cultural, historical and semiotic awareness. Literature, in general, allows pupils to understand and appreciate cultures and ideologies different from their own. Consequently, children learn to respect other cultures and to be involved in them. In addition to this, storytelling provides contexts for talking, listening, reading, writing and other activities such as dance and drama.

According to several critics, there are a number of reasons why teachers use children's stories:

- Stories are motivating and fun creating a desire to communicate. They develop positive attitudes and help children to keep on learning. Positive affective factors facilitate acquiring a second language. Children will learn better if they have a positive attitude towards what they are doing.
- Stories exercise the imagination. Children imagine sceneries, characters and so on about a story. For example, if they become personally involved in a story they can identify with some characters.
- Stories provide a rich resource for education about human societies, offering insights into life in many different communities and into complex cultures.
- Stories are a useful tool in linking fantasy and imagination with the child's real world. So children can make sense of their everyday life. Stories help children to understand the world and to share it with others. "Nine to twelve -year-olds are developing their ability to appreciate other viewpoints. At this age stories about family and friends should not only reassure children about themselves but also provide them with new insights into how other families and children cope with various situations. Children at this age enjoy stories that extend their experiences. On the other hand, there is a need to make language learning easier for young children by relating it to their experience in everyday life.

Several studies have pointed out an array of children's features, which must be taken into account when teaching English as a foreign language. As Agustin and Barrera assert, there are many factors influencing children's maturity such as culture, environment, sex and experiences. According to Piaget, children are situated in a *concrete operational stage*. This means that they can understand concrete aspects and topics rather than abstract ones. A tale helps the teacher to contextualize vocabulary and makes it

¹Холмуродова Дилноза Холмурод қизи – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Методики и практики преподавания английского языка», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

easier to understand and learn. Children see the illustrations of the book or watch the teacher performing an action. Consequently, they can easily understand the meaning of new words whose referents are concrete. Bloor contends that children learn a foreign language better in situations in which attention is focused on meaning rather than on language itself. That happens with a tale. It attracts children's attention and they understand the plot of the story. The vocabulary is not abstract but concrete. Moreover, it is useful because children can understand the new vocabulary without any translations into their mother tongue. In this sense, Halliwell stands out: those young children are good at interpreting the general meaning. Teachers can make use of voice intonation or body language to facilitate the process of meaning understanding. This happens when telling a story.

In addition to this, it is important to remember the relevance given to personal experiences by children of this age. This justifies the use of topics they like, such as tales, in order to motivate them. Consequently, depending on those stories students will study and reinforce several semantic fields and grammar. On the other hand, this has to do with the use of meaningful learning, as the teacher uses their previous learning of vocabulary, grammar, experiences and tales already known in English and Spanish so as to widen their level of English and so as to introduce new information. In this way, story-telling uses "meaningful learning" as children learn new vocabulary and grammatical structures from vocabulary and grammatical structures already known and in the meaningful context provided by the story.

Stories must be chosen depending on the age and the linguistic level of the pupils. Moreover, there must be a particular purpose when selecting a story so that it will carry the ideas the teacher wishes to focus on. Another important question to think about is whether to use simplified or authentic storybooks for the children. There are many authentic story books written for English-speaking children, which are also suitable for those learning English. Moreover, authentic story books are full of examples of real language although simplified stories can be easier for the Primary Education pupils.

Children sometimes already know the story the teacher is going to tell. Genesee argues that choosing stories, which are culturally familiar, may be especially helpful because prior knowledge of characters and plots may make the stories potentially more comprehensible to the learners than unfamiliar ones. If a child already knows the story in his first language he will be able to follow the English version of the same story.

The teacher has to grade the input the children receive by means of stories from less complicated to more complicated ones. If the story is very difficult to understand the teacher can modify or simplify it. Ellis and Brewster give some possible solutions. The teacher must check the clarity of the text and the vocabulary.

Consequently, it may be necessary to substitute familiar words or expressions for more unfamiliar ones. That is usually the case with idioms. They are difficult to understand for children so the teacher will change them for easier words. It is also interesting to check the word order, as it can be difficult to understand. The teacher can sometimes perform actions to make the meaning more explicit. Pupils will also check the grammar.

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Abstract

To analyze strategies used by combining different techniques, that makes teachable to solve specific educational programs, as the ability to use information technology and modern teaching methods contributes to the rapid understanding of new material.

Keywords: Communication Activities, Educational Process, Foreign Language Learning, Innovative Methods, Modernization.

In modern society foreign languages is becoming an essential component of professional training. Experts in different fields interested in a high level of language proficiency, because it affects the successful solution of issues and professional growth. In many areas there is a need to establish contacts with foreign partners.

School would provide a basic set of knowledge that will help to study foreign language in higher educational institutions, training courses or independently. Today, there is a large set of training materials for people with different levels of language knowledge. The success and the achievement of this goal depends on the applied methods and teacher qualifications. The ability to use information technology and modern teaching methods contributes to the rapid understanding of new material. By combining different techniques, teacher will be able to solve specific educational programs. With this in mind, teachers and students should be familiar with modern methods of foreign languages teaching. They further can choose the most effective techniques to achieve their goal.

According to scientific calculations of national and foreign scientists, the term "method" has two basic meanings:

- A certain path to the goal means to achieve the result.
- Complete methodological system and the fundamental direction of the learning process, which prevail in the various periods of the science development.

Modern stage is characterized by careful selection of methods of foreign languages teaching. Particular emphasis today is made on modern information technology and actual trends. There is a sort of selection of the most effective methods, techniques and tools during the preparation of specialists in various fields.

The most important goal, according to scientists is the formation of a secondary language personality. Students must take a new language to a fundamentally new level. To do this, it is important to separate it from the mother tongue, in order to avoid errors in perception.

During selection of innovative methods following criteria taken into account:

- Creating a comfortable and supportive atmosphere for student, promotion of natural interest and desire to learn a new foreign language.
- Involvement of emotions, feelings, experiences in the educational process to stimulate verbal, written and creative abilities.
- Use of the cognitive approach in the educational process.
- Call to work with the language on their own at the level of emotional and physical capabilities.

Mobile and qualified people are needed to the social, economic and spiritual development of the government. To solve the problem modernization of the learning process is made in accordance with the relevant requirements. In particular it relates to foreign languages teaching.

¹Холмуродова Дилноза Холмурод қизи – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Методики и практики преподавания английского языка», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

Modernization involves changing of goals, the volume of mandatory content, as well as methods and tools for the development of new knowledge. Today there is a tendency to individualize the learning process and the use of new information technologies in the education system. Modern processes are focused on the saving of fundamental education. In this case, in learning of foreign languages can be traced the problem to strengthen practical and activity orientation. As a result, the traditional system of formation of knowledge and skills is undergoing some changes.

The key moment in the modernization of the educational process is the introduction of modern information and communication technologies. In our time, they not only help in training, but also become a means of communication for millions of people around the world. Anyone faced with innovative technologies in the educational, professional and personal relationships, so in the process of training particular attention should be paid to this.

The computer makes it easy to simulate a situation, access a variety of educational materials, exercises and multimedia data. Because of this there is a formation of systemic thinking. In studies of foreign language students are able to use educational programs and to perform various exercises. Teachers, in turn, have better control of learning. At various stages of study the students will take advantage of the Internet and various multimedia tools. This makes it easier to use humane methods and cultural studies. Teachers will be able to model problem situations much faster and easier, and students become more involved in the learning process. With the help of modern technologies it is much easier to gather information, analyze and organize it.

Many institutions go to a new level the use of multimedia capabilities for sending and receiving information. The use of computers and other devices determines the success of the whole educational process. Multimedia textbooks and teaching materials are available in digital format. The Internet opens up opportunities to communicate with native speakers virtually anywhere in the world. This was almost impossible even 10-15 years ago. Most teachers today are actively developing these technologies, because it concerns the issue of professionalism and career development.

Various forms of work will help to achieve these goals. Practical experience allows concluding that the personality and interests of the student directly affects the quality of foreign language understanding. To do this, it is important to use a variety of techniques and learning tools.

By the end of the 20th century in pedagogy has accumulated lot of interesting and effective methods and approaches. Scientists have enriched the methodology of foreign languages teaching, so it has become complex and multifaceted science. It has been proven that traditional studies directed only to the transfer and maintenance of knowledge, skills and abilities, and do not demonstrate adequate performance. Innovative methods are an integral part of the modernization of the whole system. Teachers should familiarize themselves with the most progressive approaches and later combine them and use in work.

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Abstract

The aim of this article is to identify the points of carefully constructed lesson plan which allows teachers to enter the classroom with considerably more confidently. For effective lesson planning rests heavily in good habits such as setting aside quality time for planning and putting the plan in writing.

Key words: issue, dignity intact, generating, decreasing, long-term goals, variety and variation, recreational value, efficacy.

Ideally, much of a teacher's planning should already be done even before he or she sits down to make up tomorrow's lesson plan. First, the overall course goals help determine what kinds of activities are needed and why, so that teachers don't need to start from scratch each day with the question "What will I do tomorrow?" Furthermore, having a clear sense of overall goals often helps teachers focus on a relatively limited and stable set of activities that they draw on more or less regularly for lessons, thus decreasing the amount of time that needs to be devoted to generating new ideas for the next day's class. Of course, teachers will want to build in some variety and variation from day to day lest the course become overly monotonous, but they will not need to rely too much on novelty and variety to keep the course interesting because the overall sense of purpose and direction will provide much of the drive necessary to engage students' interest and participation.

At this point in your teaching life, overall course goals may be as much of a source of concern as they are of security, so for the moment your course goals have only limited value as a rock on which to anchor your sense of direction and confidence. Furthermore, your ability to predict how things will go in class - how students will respond to a given activity or how long it will take - is also probably still somewhat shaky. During the early phases of your teaching life, the confidence with which you enter the classroom is often based less in your sense of long-term goals than in the efficacy of your day's lesson plan. So it seems appropriate to begin this chapter on lesson planning and classroom survival with a discussion of the most basic - and important - lesson-planning habits that can maximize the chances of a good day in class.

The most important of these habits is also the most obvious: you need to make a plan for each lesson. A few gifted individuals can regularly wing it in the classroom and get by reasonably well, but such people are the exception rather than the rule (and many members of this select minority are more skilled at entertaining than educating). Teaching well and establishing a good classroom atmosphere are hard enough even if you prepare properly; to skimp on preparation is to beg for a lousy day in class.

The second important habit is to block out quality time in your weekly schedule for making lesson plans. Preparation can seem a rather ephemeral and undefined activity, at least when compared with classroom teaching or composition correcting, and it is therefore sometimes relegated to scraps of time left over from other activities. However, during your early days as a teacher, effective lesson planning probably places more demands on your concentration and creativity than paper grading or other activities do, so you should plan when your mind is freshest. Reserving prime time specifically for preparation ensures better lesson plans. A third basic habit consists of writing down your lesson plans - in some detail - rather than keeping them in your head.

A written lesson plan gives you something to which you can refer in class when you need to jog your memory and leaves you a written record to draw on if you want to use that particular lesson again. However, the most important advantage is that writing

¹Холмуродова Дилноза Холмурод қизи – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Методики и практики преподавания английского языка», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

a plan down forces you to think it through more carefully. Class plans you dream up but do not write down have a tendency to seem more thorough than they in fact are, much in the way that a polluted river seen in dim moonlight may appear a lot nicer than it really is. Letting plans first see the light of day on paper is generally very helpful in ensuring that you have worked out the details.

The final habit is that of writing flexibility into your lesson plans. One of the hardest things for beginning teachers (and even more experienced ones) is to accurately predict how long any particular activity will take. Sometimes an activity you thought would only take a few minutes engages students for a whole class period; other times, an activity you thought would generate discussion for at least thirty minutes dies after only three.

However, for planning many English classes, a basic initial formula would consist of the following parts:

1. preview: Giving students an overview of the day's lesson conveys a sense that there is a definite purpose and plan behind the day's activities. (This step may be done either before or after any warm-up activities.)

2. warm-up: Just as a concert often starts with a short lively piece to warm the audience up, a lesson often starts with a brief activity that is relatively lively. Its main function is to generate a good class atmosphere, but it can also be used for reviewing material from previous lessons or introducing new material in the day's lesson. Incidentally, the warm-up tends to set the tone for the lesson, and if it involves real communication, it will tend to reinforce the importance of genuine communication right from the beginning of the class period.

3. main activities: These are the main course of the day's menu, the more demanding activities to which most of the lesson will be devoted.

4. optional activity: This is an activity that you hope to use but are ready to omit if you are running out of time. (Normally, I simply designate one of my main activities as optional by marking it if time allows in my lesson plan.)

5. reserve (or spare-tire) activity: This is an activity that is not a key part of your lesson plan, but you have it available in case the other parts of the lesson go more quickly than planned, leaving you with unexpected time at the end of the class.

Finally, part of the art of being a good teacher knows when to lighten the pressure a little by scheduling what I call candy: a game, song, or film for class. All of these can have educational as well as recreational value, but teachers would be kidding themselves if they didn't admit that they often use such activities more because students like them than because they offer the most efficient road to language proficiency. However, remember that one of the most important goals of any language program is to help students become more interested in studying the language, and a song that makes up for weakness in grammar teaching efficacy by kindling a student's desire to learn may affect the student long after a grammar point would be forgotten.

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Abstract

The article considers about language learning based on content and its advantages.

Key words: content, methods, language, learning, teaching, content – centered, communication

Communicative language teaching has produced a variety of different teaching methods "that share the same basic set of principles, but which spell out philosophical details or envision instructional practices in somewhat diverse ways" [5, 86]. These CLT spin-off approaches include content-based teaching, task-based teaching, cooperative language learning, proficiency-based instruction, the natural approach, and the functional notional approach.

"Content-based, also known as 'content-centered', language teaching integrates the learning of some specific subject-matter content with the learning of a second language". According to Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, content-centred education is "the integration of content learning with language teaching aims. More specifically, it refers to the concurrent study of language and subject matter, with the form and sequence of language presentation dictated by content material". In other words, content-based language teaching views subject-matter content as the source for language learning and language as the channel for learning content. The second or foreign language is the medium to convey subject-matter content of interest and relevance to the learner, often in academic subjects such as mathematics, science, and social studies. "Content-based language teaching usually pertains to academic or occupational instruction over an extended period of time at intermediate to advanced proficiency levels" [2, 215]. The overall format of a content-based curriculum is directed more by the nature of the subject-matter than the language forms and sequences. This approach contrasts sharply with many traditional language curricula in which language skills are often taught virtually in isolation from subject-matter content.

Integrating content from other disciplines in language courses is not a new concept. Larsen-Freeman writes that "for years, specialized language courses have included content relevant to a particular profession or academic discipline". In many parts of the world, interest in integrated language and content instruction is prominent particularly in countries where English serves as the medium of instruction for part of an educational program. For example, "in Canada, successful second language immersion programs, in which Anglophone children learn their academic subjects in French, have existed for years". In the 1970s, the 'language across the curriculum' movement for native English speakers in England was introduced to integrate the teaching of reading and writing into all other subject areas [4, 107].

In the United States, Krashen's theory of second language acquisition has affected the development of integrated instruction at all educational levels. Krashen suggests that a second language is most successfully acquired when the conditions are similar to those present in first language acquisition: that is, when the focus of instruction is on meaning rather than on form; when the language input is at or just above the proficiency of the learner; and when there is sufficient opportunity to engage in meaningful use of that language in a relatively anxiety-free environment. In other words, the implication for second language classrooms is that learning should be focused on meaningful

¹Шиманская Диана Баходировна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Английского языка и литературы», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

content, such as academic subject-matter. "Modification of the target language facilitates language acquisition and makes academic content accessible to second language learners" [3, 81].

In content-based classrooms, students' intrinsic motivation and empowerment increases when they are focused on very useful, practical objectives as the subject matter is perceived to be relevant to long term goals. As students work towards their own long-term goals, their self-confidence increases as they view themselves as competent and intelligent individuals capable of using their new language for their personal goals. Based on the benefits of content-centered language teaching, which include more motivated students and a marked increase in second language skills, it seems quite likely that there will be an increase in the provision of content-based language courses in the future [1, 60]. These courses offer a means for adult ESL learners and foreign language students to acquire academic language proficiency while still being able to continue their academic or cognitive development.

A variety of models of content-based language teaching have been developed to meet the needs of second language students, many involving the integration of language and content instruction. Some examples of content-based curricula include: adjunct model; sheltered English programs; competency-based instruction; immersion programs for elementary school children; language across the curriculum; and English for specific purposes. What all models of content-based language teaching "have in common is learning both specific content and related language skills". Wesche comments that "in content-based language teaching, the claim in a sense is that students get 'two for one' - both content knowledge and increased language proficiency" [4, 142].

In the adjunct model of content-centred language teaching, a subject-matter teacher and a language teacher combine efforts by linking their courses and curriculum so that each complements the other. Students enroll in a language course that is linked to an academic course. During the language class, the language teacher's focus is on helping students process the language in order to understand the academic content presented by the subject teacher. The language teacher also assists students in writing term papers, improving their note-taking abilities, and reading academic textbooks assigned by the content teacher.

Content-based language teaching has also been used in sheltered-language instruction in a second language environment. Both native and non-native speakers follow a regular academic program. However, sheltered instruction is geared towards helping non-native speakers develop second language proficiency. Instructors support students with specific instructional techniques and material. The advantage for second language students is that they don't have to delay their academic study until their language control reaches a certain level [4, 142].

Finally, some content-based programs do not focus on academic needs but rather on certain functional abilities. For instance, competency-based instruction, an effective method of content-based language teaching for adult immigrants, affords students opportunities to develop their second language skills while they are learning essential survival skills such as filling out a job application or preparing for a job interview.

Content-based language teaching provides new opportunities and challenges for teachers and students alike. Instruction in content-based language teaching is usually directed by ESL, bilingual, or foreign language teachers. "They use instructional materials, learning tasks, and classroom techniques from academic content areas as the vehicle for developing language, content, cognitive, and study skills". Brown writes that challenges for teachers range from a demand for a whole new genre of textbooks and other materials to the training of language teachers to teach the concepts and skills of various disciplines, professions, and occupations, and/or to teach in teams across disciplines. Teachers need to adopt a different perspective in regards to their role; first and foremost, they are subject-matter teachers, and second, they are language teachers. Students who are studying academic subjects in a second language need a great deal of support in comprehending subject-matter texts. Consequently, providing clear language objectives in addition to content learning objectives is essential in advancing their educational program.

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UDC 378

THE NECESSITY OF VARIOUS TECHNOLOGIES IN TEACHING AND LEARNING VOCABULARY

Z.K. Yusupova¹

Abstract

This article explores various technologies and its importance in the learning and teaching process of vocabulary.

Keywords: technology, classroom, teaching, teachers, skills, national standard, methods, course

Various technologies deliver different kinds of content and serve different purposes in the classroom. For example, word processing and e-mail promote communication skills; database and spreadsheet programs promote the understanding of science and math concepts. It is important to consider how these electronic technologies differ and what characteristics make them important as vehicles for education.

Technologies available in classrooms today range from simple tool based applications to online repositories of scientific data and primary historical document, to handheld computers, closed circuit television channels and two way distance learning classrooms. Even the cell phones that many students now carry with them can be used to learn.

Each technology is likely to play a different role in student's learning. Rather than trying to describe the impact of all technologies as if they were the same, researchers need to think about what kind of technologies are being used in the classroom and for what purposes. Two general distinctions can be made student can learn from computers – where technology used essentially as tutors and serves to increase students basic skills and knowledge; and can learn with computers where technology is used a tool can be applied to a variety of goals in the learning process and can serve as a resource to help develop higher order thinking creativity and research skills.

Types of classroom listening performance; with literally hundreds of possible techniques available for teaching listening skills, it will be helpful for you to think in terms of several kinds of listening performance that is what your students do in a listening technique. Sometimes these types of performance are embedded in a broader technique or task and sometimes they are themselves the sum total of the activity of a technique.

Reactive - sometimes you want a learner simply to listen to the surface of an utterance for the sole purpose of repeating it back to you. While this kind of listening performance requires little meaningful processing, it nevertheless may be a legitimate, even though a minor, aspect of interactive, communicative classroom. This role of the listener as merely a 'type recorder' is very limited because the listener is not generating meaning. About the only role that reactive listening can play in an interactive classroom is in brief choral or individual drills that focus on pronunciation.

Intensive- techniques whose only purpose is to focus on components of discourse may be considered to be intensive in their requirement that students single out certain elements of spoken language. They include the bottom up skills that are important at all levels of proficiency. Examples of intensive listening performance include these: students listen for cues in certain choral or individual drills.

The teacher repeats a word or sentence several times to 'imprint' it in the students' minds. The teacher asks students to listen to a sentence or longer stretch of discourse and to notice a specified element, such as intonation, stress, a contraction, a grammatical structure.

¹Юсупова Заррина Курбановна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Английского языка и литературы», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

Several decades of research and practice in teaching listening comprehension have yielded some practical principles for designing classroom aural comprehension techniques. These principles should help you to create your own techniques and activities. Some of them especially the second and third, actually apply to any technique the others are more germane to listening.

Academics study and research in the LLT program focuses on the nature of human learning and literacy across learners of diverse social, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds and ability levels and contexts, the use of technologies to support learning environments, and the conditions under which learning occurs.

The professional education sequence for foreign language majors at university. In the first course teacher candidates receive an introduction to foreign language education at the secondary level. Students are expected to bring their laptops to each class session in order to complete daily assignments, carry out research and investigation on the internet, and share information with others in the class. In the introductory course students learn about the NETS-T technology standards, the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) Principles, the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines and state standards for foreign language teachers and learners. Students also receive instruction in basic webpage design, and they begin to develop their own digital teaching portfolios.

The second required methods course focuses on instructional strategies, teaching approaches, and materials development. In this course students explore some of the possible ways that technology can be integrated into foreign language classes, how technology can facilitate the contextualization of language and how technology can be used to meet state and national standards for foreign language learning.

The final foreign language methods course covers the topics of assessment and technology in foreign language education. Technology skills that are developed in this class include designing web pages, managing digital audio and video, creating graphics, scanning, using digital cameras and digital camcorders, working with software programs such as Power Point and Word, constructing web based lessons, and producing brief digital movies. As students develop their technology skills, class discussions focus on integrating technology into foreign language curricula in methodologically sound ways that will benefit learners for language learners. In these and other education courses instructors consistently model technology use and challenge teacher candidates to find appropriate ways to use technology in their own future classes.

One way to use computer for English language learners is to teach vocabulary. Any attempt to treat vocabulary learning as learning of isolated facts certainly will not promote real vocabulary knowledge. Students need to learn vocabulary in context and with visual clues to help them understand. Computers can provide this rich contextual environment. The computer also allows students to become active learners in a one on one environment. Computers can incorporate various learning strategies as well as accommodate a variety of learning styles.

Learning words does not occur in a vacuum; that is, children do not acquire meanings of words in isolation. All learning - both personal and academic occurs within the socio-cultural environment of the home, community, and classroom. "Literacy is a social practice, so students learn academic vocabulary through social interactions as members of the learning community". Therefore, effective teachers of language and literacy provide practices that stimulate rich uses of language, designing their instructional programs within a social context that promotes literacy learning.

Teachers know that students who are learning to read and write and those who are reading to learn that is, learning in content areas will benefit from a sound instructional vocabulary program. This is especially true for classrooms where children have small vocabularies and are English language learners. Knowledge of words is acquired incidentally, where vocabulary is developed through immersion in language activities.

Vocabulary is the first and foremost important step in language acquisition. In a classroom where students are not finding themselves comfortable with L2, language learning can be made interactive and interesting with the introduction of appropriate vocabulary exercises.

Pavicic dealt with a way to improve students' abilities to explore, store and usage of vocabulary items. He determined the role of vocabulary teaching and how a teacher

could help their learners. He laid emphasis on self initiated independent learning with strategies, in which formal practices, functional practices and memorizing could be included. He said that the teacher should create activities and tasks to help students to build their vocabulary and develop strategies to learn the vocabulary on their own.

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Abstract

The article considers about language learning based on tasks and its advantages.

Key words: tasks, language, teaching, learning, communication, learners, lessons, class-room

Task-based language teaching, also known as 'task-based learning', is a teaching approach based on the use of communicative and interactive tasks as the central units for the planning and delivery of instruction. In this approach, learners are presented "with carefully graded activities or tasks in order to develop their communicative competence". Such tasks are believed to provide an effective foundation for language learning since they involve meaningful communication, interaction, and negotiation. They also enable learners to acquire grammar as a result of participating in authentic language use [4, 115]. Appropriate contexts are provided for developing thinking and study skills as well as language and academic concepts for students of different levels of language proficiency.

David Nunan offers five characteristics of a task-based approach to language teaching:

- (1) An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
- (2) The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.
- (3) The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language, but also on the learning process itself.
- (4) An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
- (5) An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom.

As with content-based language teaching, task-based learning is not a new method. Brown points out that "it simply puts task at the center of one's methodological focus". The learning process is viewed "as a set of communicative tasks that are directly linked to the curricular goals they serve, and the purposes of which extend beyond the practice of language for its own sake" [2, 84]. Research on task-based language teaching attempts to identify types of tasks that enhance learning, for example, open-ended, structured, teacher-fronted, small group, pair work, and to define task specific learner factors, roles, proficiency levels, styles, teacher roles, and other variables that contribute to successful achievement of goals.

In essence, task-based learning extends the learning principles of communicative language teaching, and its advocates attempt to apply principles of second language learning to teaching. Tasks are used in communicative language teaching. However, a task in a CLT lesson is intended to allow students to practice making various communicative functions, whereas in a task-based lesson, the approach does not focus on specific functions or any other specific language forms. Long and Crookes explain that "the departure from CLT lay not in the tasks themselves, but in the accompanying pedagogic focus on task completion instead of on the language used in the process". This indicates a shift in perspective [3, 137].

Task-based language teaching goals and curricula differ in distinct ways from content-based language teaching. The course objectives in task-based learning are somewhat more directly language-based than what we observed in content-based language teaching. The ultimate focus is on communication, purpose, and meaning. The

¹Шиманская Диана Баходировна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Английского языка и литературы», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

goals are more linguistic in nature, but not in the conventional manner of just focusing on grammar or phonology. The course goals centre on students' pragmatic language competence by focusing on the importance of practical functions such as greeting people, expressing opinions, requesting information, etc. "While content-based instruction focuses on subject-matter content, task-based instruction focuses on a whole set of real-world tasks themselves" [2, 229].

Task-based language teaching and content-based language teaching share the similar goal of providing "learners with a natural context for language use". Advocates of the task-based approach believe that learners must be involved in making meaning and negotiating meaning with others. They need to interactively use language while carrying out tasks and attend to form in the context of making meaning. »Such interaction is thought to facilitate language acquisition as learners have to work to understand each other and to express their own meaning". As Candlin and Murphy write, "The central purpose we are concerned with is language learning, and tasks present this in the form of a problem-solving negotiation between knowledge that the learner holds and new knowledge".

There are a number of different interpretations in the literature on how to describe or define a task. However, what all of these interpretations emphasize is the central importance of the task in a language course and the importance of organizing a course around authentic, communicative tasks which are meaningful to the learners in the real world [2, 30]. Michael Breen's interpretation seems to capture its essence: "any structured language learning endeavor which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task". According to Brown, a task is actually a unique form of technique. In some instances, task and technique may be identical; in other situations, several techniques may comprise a task.

Prabhu identified three types of tasks: an information-gap activity, an opinion-gap activity, and a reasoning-gap activity. An information-gap activity involves the exchange of information among participants in order to complete a task. An opinion-gap activity requires that students give their personal preference, feelings, or attitudes in order to complete a task. A reasoning-gap activity requires students to derive some new information by inferring it from information they have been given. Of the three types, Prabhu suggests that reasoning-gap tasks work best because they tend to encourage a more continuous engagement with meaning, even though a somewhat predictable use of language is common. On the other hand, information-gap tasks tend to involve a single step transfer of information and opinion-gap tasks tend to be vague and open-ended.

Long and Crookes have distinguished three different types of task-based approaches which they call syllabi. The first task-based approach is procedural. The second approach is based on Breen and Candlin's concept "that language learning should be seen as a process which grows out of communicative interaction. As such, students and teachers decide together upon which tasks to do". Lastly, the third approach is based on their own task-based language teaching. Meaningful interaction is stressed while still pointing out language form to students as required.

A task-based curriculum determines what second language learners need to accomplish with the English language. To reach those goals, tasks are organized in terms of target tasks, which students realize beyond the classroom, and a series of pedagogical tasks, which form the core of the classroom activity. Target tasks are similar to the functions of language listed in notional-functional syllabuses; however, they tend to be more particular and more specifically related to classroom instruction. "If, for example, 'giving personal information' is a communicative function for language, then an appropriately stated target task might be 'giving personal information in a job interview'" [2, 228]. The context is specified in the task.

Pedagogical tasks are distinguished by a series of techniques that are ultimately intended to teach second language learners to perform the target task. Both formal and functional techniques may be included. In a climactic pedagogical task, students are involved in some type of simulation of the target task itself. For instance, building on the target task of 'giving personal information in a job interview,' students may role-play a 'job interview'. Brown writes that the pedagogical task specifies exactly what learners will do with the input, what the respective roles of the teacher and learners are, and the

evaluation thereof forms an essential component that determines its success and offers feedback for performing the task again with another group of learners at another time.

A distinctive characteristic of task-based curricula is the "insistence on pedagogical soundness in the development and sequencing of tasks" [2, 229]. As the tasks become more sophisticated, a more developed set of communicative skills is required. This is reflected in the structure of a task-based syllabus, sometimes referred to as a procedural syllabus, in that the syllabus is organized according to the level of difficulty of the tasks required of the learner throughout the course. In addition, task-based language teaching seeks to integrate the principles of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in relation to the development of the student's communicative competence for real-world tasks.

In terms of the organization of a task-based lesson, three different models have been implemented. The classic PPP approach (presentation, practice, and production) is the most traditional model. The teacher presents individual language forms, students practice the content in the form of spoken and written exercises, and then students produce and perform what they have learned in speaking or writing activities. Two criticisms arise: the selection of the language form may not meet the linguistic needs of the learners, and often there is an inauthentic emphasis on the chosen structure during the production stage [1, 169].

The TTT approach (test, teach, and test) is an alternative to the PPP model. First, the students are asked to perform a communicative task which is monitored by the teacher. In the lesson stage, the teacher then focuses on some of the grammatical or lexical problems that occurred in the first stage. In the last stage, the students are then required to either perform the first task again or perform an identical task, hopefully with a greater degree of linguistic accuracy than before. An advantage in this approach is that the language presented in the lesson stage can be predicted if the initial task is selected carefully. However, there seems to be a risk of randomness in this model.

A third model is described in Jane Willis' book, *A Framework for Task-Based Learning*. It is based upon sound theoretical foundations and it also takes into consideration the need for authentic, meaningful communication. This model is typically based on three stages. In the pre-task stage, the teacher introduces and describes the topic. Learners then engage themselves in vocabulary activities that are essential to the task or will be helpful to them during the performance of the main task. During the next stage, the task cycle, learners perform the task in pairs or small groups. Students then prepare a report to share with the class on how they did the task and the conclusions they reached. Lastly, in the language focus stage, students work on specific language forms from the task they worked on. Feedback on the learners' performance during the task cycle may also occur at this time. The task-based learning model stresses the [1, 170].

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SOME BACKGROUND ANALYSIS OF RENOWNED POEM
BY A.NAVOIYA.U. Rakhmonova¹*Abstract*

The article considers the prerequisites for analyzing the glorious poetry of A. Navoiy.

Key words: poem, couplet, analysis, background, gazelle, sweet voice, poet, start.

Alisher Navoiy is considered as a king of gazelle in Turkish and Persian languages. This is because he wrote a great number of marvelous gazelles, quatrains, poems in both languages, which are still the heat of the day. This article is devoted to background analysis of one very famous poem. While, the poet was studying in Samarkand he was attracted by the beginning of one poem.

***My chest is more pressured than the lines of the morning,
My eyelashes are wetter than the greening split dew on.***

The owner of the couplet which attracted Alisher was a beggar. The beggar repeated the couplet in a loud and sweet voice in the market of Samarkand from morning till night. The people of malady and value who listened to it repeatedly with pleasurable weren't few. Navoiy listened repeatedly the couplet by the beggar's execution. He heard it on his way to house when he returned home; it rang in his ears, even in the evenings it didn't let him sleep.

"If I were a custom and would he sell that couplet to me, would he sell it? Perhaps he would sell, perhaps he wouldn't. I wish he would sell it to me". The desire didn't let Navoiy alone, it appealed to follow behind the beggar, to go to his shanty, to request holding his hand.

-Hey, Old man! Please sell your couplet to me. If my coins aren't enough, I will sell my robe. Please don't refuse.

The old man heard the please and laughed loudly, the shook his head, turned down.

-You look a poor student. Don't you?

-Yes, I do.

-If yes, in that case, forget the intention of buying the couplet, get freely of charge and learn by heart, read it. How opposition may be from my side for it.

-I must buy it in that case you will be free of singing it and begging.

After the bagger had heard such kind of words from Alisher Navoiy, he giggled and shook his head treacherously.

-Perhaps, you may not afford it. I won't change it for reigning. Because this couplet is a heritage from my father and I have been repeating it for forty years. I feel in my stomach, look after my children.

-Was your father a poet?

-He wasn't a poet. He was a gardener. He took care of the garden singing the couplet in a loud voice.

- Was it only one couplet or was it full and perfect and did you remember only one couplet.

-No, my father used to receive only the couplet too.

-Don't you know which great person's work is it?

¹Ракмонова Амира Ульфатовна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Лексикологии и Стилистики английского языка». Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

-I am sorry. I don't know his name and penname. My father mustn't have known too.

Alisher Navoiy was silent and the beggar went on his words.

-Isn't my agreement enough for you to learn by heart it and read?

-Without your agreement I am learning and telling it but it isn't enough for me.

So the disappointed poet went back home weakening.

After that some years went on. With Husain Baykara's invitation's Alisher Navoiy went to Herat. He held the position of Minister in reign. If Husain Baykara held the position of king of the country, Alisher Navoiy was acknowledged as a king of "gazalle". After more than ten years went on Navoiy took a way to Samarkand on business of the country, visited relatives' house as a guest and in one conversation he remembered the couplet which attracted him. His companions told him that the beggar became very old and couldn't walk from market to market, from shop to shop sitting in one place bending, saying the couplet whispering and begging. The next day Alisher Navoiy found the beggar at the threshold, called on then introduced himself.

-Can you remember? I was a customer for the couplet. You declined.

-I have remembered. Haven't you forgotten your desire yet?

-No, father. I have been attracted by the couplet.

The old man smiled:

-I will sell. But it would be good if you can afford.

-Perhaps, I will afford.

-I become very old. Now I am weak for reading it in a loud voice. If I tell the truth I even bothered about beggary. If you can afford the couplet will be yours for a good house which is near a mill and give an ass. I will bless you until I die. I work as a miller during my life left.

Alisher Navoiy said:

-Well, with satisfaction.

The old man's all wishes come true. Splendid house, a mill, and a donkey were bought for him. The couplet whose owner was unknown became Navoiy's bought property. Then the poet started to work with it and made the full formation of gazalle.

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ПОЛИФУНКЦИОНАЛЬНОСТЬ АНТОНИМИЧЕСКИХ ОТНОШЕНИЙ У СУЩЕСТВИТЕЛЬНЫХ В АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ

Ш.Г. Джураева¹

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается разница между синонимией и антонимией количественного порядка полярных и качественных существительных в английском языке.

Ключевые слова: полифункциональность, синонимия, антонимия, гипонимические отношения

По мнению некоторых исследователей, разница между синонимией и антонимией скорее количественного порядка: «Антонимия есть семантическое отношение возможных для каждого случая употребления крайних (полярных) членов тематической группы, синонимия (качественных слов) – отношение ближайших членов этой группы» [3, с. 10].

На наш взгляд, более правы те лингвисты, которые считают, что различия между синонимией и антонимией имеют качественный характер: а) “Synonymy and antonymy are sense-relations of a very different kind” [4, с.128]. б) «...различие между синонимией и антонимией касается структурной организации и типа соотносительных семантических связей членов противопоставлений» [2, с. 12].

К сожалению, эти положения авторами дальше не развиты с позиций полифункциональности слова [1, с. 4; 5, с. 114-115]. Однако есть основания поставить вопрос об определённой иерархии разных типов семантических связей: так отношение антонимического типа может быть осложнено отношениями, характерными для синонимии или гипонимическими [родо-видовыми] отношениями.

Например, в антонимической паре *bad – excellent* антонимическое отношение, лежащее в основе противопоставления, осложнено различием в степени интенсивности – одним из типов оппозиций свойственных синонимическим рядам.

Антонимическое противопоставление может сопровождаться различиями в стилистической окраске слов (*good* нейтр. – *rotten* разг.), в объёме значения противопоставленных слов (родовой термин или видовой *reality – illusion*).

В то же время осложнение синонимии отношениями антонимического типа невозможно.

Гипонимические отношения проявляют некоторое своеобразие: отношение оппозиции в гипонимическом ряду [род ↔ вид] может совпасть с антонимическим отношением.

Возможность осложнения антонимических отношений отношениями других типов предполагает в полифункциональном рассмотрении возможность противопоставления одного и того же слова разным словам, причем между ними наблюдаются отношения одного и того же типа. Но языковой статус таких антонимических пар неодинаков.

Например, во всех приведенных ниже случаях противопоставление идет по одному и тому же отношению полярности, и все пары противопоставленных слов следует считать антонимами:

...Charles had accepted the world of real power with its minor implications, good and bad, and such second-rate failures were beyond his notice [2, p. 110].

“There are good posts in the scholastic world”, said Eleanor. “Many more poor ones, my dear”, said her husband [1, p. 112].

But where Livia had been unquestionably wicked. Grandma was unquestionably good... [4, p. 166].

¹Джураева Шахло Гуломовна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Истории и грамматики английского языка», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

I was just saying that Abe North may be a good swimmer, but he a rotten musician [3, p. 216].

I take back what I said about it being a good morning – it's a dreadful morning [5, p. 302].

Someone else said if we're not responsible for abominable actions, then we're not responsible for good ones [1, p. 309].

Из всех этих пар выделяется одна – good – bad. Эти слова воспринимаются как антонимичные и вне всякого контекста. Они так же, как и long – short, remember – forget, success – failure, victory – defeat, являются антонимами в парадигматике, и для реализации антонимического отношения их противопоставление в речи совсем не обязательно.

Такие антонимичные пары можно назвать парадигматическими антонимами.

Парадигматические антонимы выделяются по ряду признаков.

Антонимическое отношение между такими словами устанавливается в чистом виде, т.е. значение таких слов обладают полной симметрией компонентов.

С этой характеристикой тесно связана другая: такие слова имеют один и тот же объем значения и одинаковую сферу употребления. т. е. они удовлетворяют определению антонимов которое дают авторы словарей [2-216].

У парадигматических антонимов антонимичны прежде всего основные значения. Оба слова в паре являются стилистически и экспрессивно нейтральными. Эти признаки для парадигматических антонимов являются обязательными, что подчеркивает их функциональную специфичность.

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Abstract

This article is directed to illustrate the role of the forms of address in English, Uzbek and Russian. Forms of address are important for effective and successful communication and have long been considered a very salient indicator of status of relationship. One can use different forms of address to show his respects or fondness towards other people, or to insult or depreciate them. This is one of the main problems of Modern Linguistics. The research work is connected with the formulas of addressing to men in the English, Uzbek and Russian languages.

Keywords: interaction, address behavior, master, asymmetrical age, professional title, Anglophone.

Address phenomenon is important as well as frequent in social interactions. Appropriate address behavior is crucial for effective communication and successful maintenance of interpersonal relationship. Normally, address behavior is governed by politeness phenomenon which is culturally bound. Misunderstanding and misinterpretation can lead to feelings of offence, insult, and suspicion on the individuals involved, which will result in break-down in cross-cultural communication. For instance, nonnative speakers of English often express their surprise at the wide use or distribution of reciprocal first naming among people in UK and USA. This change from an address form employed to define intimate relationships within a family or among close friends or business associates to the one used to define general relationships between strangers, between people of asymmetrical age and occupational status, between students and professors, and between young people and their seniors, has been quite a recent development which has naturally stimulated cross-cultural studies of address behavior in different countries.

Master is an English honorific for boys and young men. As for the term Sir is used in England for men of some rank, especially "free masters" of a trade guild and by any manual worker or servant employee addressing his employer (his master), but also generally by those lower in status to gentlemen, priests, or scholars. In the Elizabethan period, it was used between equals, especially to a group ("My masters"), mainly by urban artisans and trades people. It was later extended to all respectable men and was the forerunner of Mister. After its replacement in common speech by Mister, Master was retained as a form of address only for boys who have not yet entered society. By the late 19th century, etiquette dictated that men be addressed as Mister, and boys as Master.

The style "Mr." or no style at all is usually used when addressing boys today. The use of Master as a prefixed title was according to N. Chomskiy, "until recently ... a way of addressing politely a boy who was too young to be called "Mister", " Robert Hickey, deputy director of the Protocol School of Washington, states that "use of Master as an honorific when addressing boys is considered old fashioned outside of conservative circles." Nancy Tuckerman of the Amy Vanderbilt Complete Book of Etiquette writes that a boy can be addressed as master until age eight, and then is addressed only by his name with no title until he turns 18, when he takes the title of Mr., although it is not improper to use Mr. if he is slightly younger. "Mstr." is used as a prefix for boys on the UK Passport Service online application form.

Master is used sometimes in the UK to describe the male head of a large estate or household who employs many domestic workers.

¹Аззамова Нигора Ражаббоевна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Методики и практики преподавания английского языка», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

The heir to a Scottish lordship, barony or viscounts is given the style or dignity. Master of followed by his father's title. For instance, the heir of Lord Elphinstone is known as the Master of Elphinstone.

Mister, usually written in its abbreviated form **Mr.** (US) or **Mr** (UK), is a commonly-used English honorific for men. The title derived from earlier forms of master, as the equivalent female titles Mrs, Miss and Ms all derived from earlier forms of mistress.

Historically, mister – like Sir or my lord – was applied only to those above one's own status in the peerage. This understanding is now obsolete, as it was gradually expanded as a mark of respect to those of equal status and then to all gentlemen. It is now used indiscriminately.

In past centuries, Mr. was used with a first name to distinguish among family members who might otherwise be confused in conversation: Mr. Doe would be the eldest present; younger brothers or cousins were then referred to as Mr Richard Doe and Mr William Doe and so on. Such usage survived longer in family-owned business or when domestic servants were referring to adult male family members with the same surname: "Mr Robert and Mr Richard will be out this evening, but Mr Edward is dining in," but such usage today is rare in American culture but still quite common in others as a sign of respect when first names are being used, the last name is not known, or where English is not the mother tongue.

Professional titles, Mr. is sometimes combined with certain titles (Mr. President, Mr. Speaker, Mr. Justice, Mr. Dean). The feminine equivalent is Madam. All of these except Mr. Justice are used in direct address and without the name. The title Mr. Justice is not used in direct address. In certain professional contexts in different regions, Mr has specific meanings; the following are some examples.

In Medicine, in the United Kingdom, the Republic of Ireland and in some Commonwealth countries (such as South Africa), many surgeons use the title Mr (or Miss, Ms, Mrs, as appropriate), rather than Dr (Doctor). Until the 19th century, earning a medical degree was not required to become a qualified surgeon. Hence the modern practice of reverting from Dr back to Mr after successfully completing qualifying exams in surgery (e.g. Memberships of the Royal College of Surgeons) is a historical reference to the origins of surgery in the United Kingdom as non-medically qualified barber surgeons.

Military usage, in the United States Military, Warrant Officers and Chief Warrant Officers are addressed as Mister. In the United States Navy and United States Coast Guard it is proper to use Mister to refer to commissioned officers below the rank of commander, though the use of Mister implies familiarity compared to the use of rank title for an unknown officer.

In the British Armed Forces, a Warrant Officer is addressed as "Sir" by other ranks and non-commissioned officers; Commissioned officers, particularly of junior rank, should address a Warrant Officer using his surname and the prefix Mister, for example Mr Smith, although often their rank or appointment is used, for example "Sergeant Major," "Regimental Sergeant Major," or "RSM".

Judges, in the Courts of England and Wales, Judges of the High Court are called, for example, Mr Justice Crane (unless they are entitled to be addressed as Lord Justice). Where a forename is necessary to avoid ambiguity it is always used, for example Mr Justice Robert Goff to distinguish from a predecessor Mr Justice Goff. The female equivalent is Mrs Justice Hallett, not Madam Justice Hallett. When more than one judge is sitting and one need to be specific, one would refer to My Lord, Mr Justice Crane. High Court Judges are entitled to be styled with the prefix The Honorable while holding office: e.g. the Honorable Mr Justice Robert Goff. In writing, such as in the law reports, the titles "Mr Justice" or "Mrs Justice" are both abbreviated to a "J" placed after the name. For example, Crane J would be substituted for Mr Justice Crane.

The Chief Justice of the United States may be referred to as either "Mr. Chief Justice," or "Chief Justice." For example, "Mr. Chief Justice Roberts," or "Chief Justice Roberts".

Catholic clerics, among Catholic clergy, "Mr." is the correct title and form of address for seminarians and other students for the priesthood and was once the proper

title for all secular and parish priests, the use of the title "Father" being reserved to religious clergy only. The use of the title "Father" for parish clergy became customary around the 1820s.

A diocesan seminarian is correctly addressed as "Mr.", and once ordained a transitional deacon, is addressed in formal correspondence (though rarely in conversation) as the Reverend Mister (or "Rev. Mr."). In clerical religious (those primarily made up of priests), Mr. is the title given to scholastics. For instance, in the Jesuits, a man preparing for priesthood who has completed the novitiate but who is not yet ordained is properly, "Mr. John Smith, SJ" and is addressed verbally as "Mister Smith" – this is to distinguish him from Jesuit brothers, and priests. (Although, before the 1820s, many Jesuit priests were also called "Mr.") Orders founded before the 16th century do not, as a rule, follow this practice: a Franciscan or Dominican, for instance, becomes a friar after novitiate and so is properly titled "Brother" or, if a cleric, "Father".

Sir is an honorific address used in a number of situations in many anglophone cultures. The term can be used as a formal prefix, especially in the Commonwealth, for males who have been given certain honors or titles (such as knights and baronets), where usage is strictly governed by law and custom. It may also be used informally towards a male of superior rank or status, such as an educator, or as a form of address from a merchant to a customer. Equivalent terms of address to females are "ma'am" or "madam" in most cases or in the case of a very young woman, girl, or unmarried woman who prefers to be addressed as such, "miss". The equivalent term for a knighted woman or baronetess is Dame or «Lady for the wife of a knight or baronet.

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ПОЛИФУНКЦИОНАЛЬНОСТЬ И СЕМАНТИКА МНОГОЗНАЧНЫХ СУЩЕСТВИТЕЛЬНЫХ В АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ

Ш.Г. Джураева¹

Аннотация

В статье рассматриваются полифункциональность и семантика многозначных существительных в английском языке

Ключевые слова: полифункциональность, семантика, анализ, существительные, семантическая связь

Задачей данного раздела является исследование характера лексико-семантического варьирования многозначного существительного *tongue*, которое входит в большую тематическую группу слов, обозначающих части человеческого тела в современном английском языке. Как известно, применение методов, обеспечивающих разносторонний подход к изучаемому объекту, помогает глубже проникнуть в его сущность. На 1-м этапе исследования мы использовали метод лексических трансформаций. Он является эффективным средством исследования смыслового содержания слов с сильно развитой многозначностью. На основании данных использованных словарей был составлен сводный список всех приводимых ими значений существительного *tongue*. Задача заключалась в том, чтобы все значения указанного существительного объяснить одно через другое и определять наличие или отсутствие семантической производности путем выявления в их дефинициях общих элементов-показателей семантической связи. Значения существительного *tongue* выписывались вместе с их словарными дефинициями (толкованиями). Для значений поясняемых при покое, синонимов, дефиниции составлялись посредством замены этих синонимов их дефинициями, взятыми из используемых словарей. В случае необходимости эти дефиниции подвергались преобразованиям, направленным на выявление формальных показателей семантической связи (т.е. общих элементов). Следует отметить что на I-м этапе исследования все словарные значения существительного *tongue* рассматривались безотносительно к формам их языкового выражения и функциональной реализации.

В результате трансформационного анализа установлено, что лишь 6 словарных значений существительного *tongue* имеют между собой семантическую связь, что формально выражается наличием в их словарных дефинициях общих элементов:

*tongue*₁→the movable organ in the mouth, used in eating, tasting, licking,

etc.; the principal organ of articulate speech in man

*tongue*₂→the tongue of an animal, as an article of food

*tongue*₃→the faculty of speech; voice

*tongue*₄→the manner or character of speech

*tongue*₅→the speech or language of a particular people, region or nation

Отсутствие каких-либо общих элементов в дефинициях остальных словарных значений существительного *tongue* свидетельствует об отсутствии семантической связи между ними.

На II-ом этапе исследования мы использовали метод контекстуального анализа. С помощью данного метода были выявлены формальные средства реализации всех значений существительного *tongue*, зафиксированных в толковых словарях. Результаты проведенного анализа показали, что лишь значения *tongue*₁ – *tongue*₆, связанные между собой отношениями семантической производности имеют четкие типовые контексты употребления.

¹Джураева Шахло Гуломовна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Истории и грамматики английского языка», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

Этимологически исходное значение *tongue*₁ «язык» реализуется в лексическом контексте I степени в сочетании с прилагательными и причастиями, обозначающими цвет и физическое состояние (*red, black, swollen, coated, etc.*).

She held Pyle's leash – a black, chow with a black tongue [4, с. 48].

Сочетание *a black tongue* означает «иссиня-чёрный язык» (язык такого цвета имеет чау, собака китайской породы, напоминающая лайку).

Указанное значение реализуется также в сочетании с глаголами, выражающими различные физические действия (*to bite, to burn, to stick out, to put out, etc.*).

Beatrice put her tongue between teeth and laughed wickedly [3, с. 68].

Сочетание *to put one's tongue between one's teeth* означает «показать, высунуть язык».

Значение *tongue*₂ «блюдо, кушанье» реализуется в лексическом контексте I-ой степени в сочетании с причастиями, обозначающими результат кулинарной обработки (*pickled, smoked, rolled, boiled, etc.*), а также в сочинительном сочетании *ham – and – tongues*:

...They expect tea and bread – and – butter for four – pence, and cake for sixpence, and apricots or pineapple for nine pence, and ham – and – tongue for a shilling... [1, с. 114].

Сочетание *ham – and – tongue* означает «бутерброд с ветчиной и языком».

Значение *tongue*₃ «голос, дар речи» реализуется в сочетании с глаголами *to lose, to find, to hold, to loosen, etc.*

The young man was short of speech as a rule, but he could find his tongue with his 'uncle' [1, с. 216].

Сочетание *to find one's tongue* означает «стать разговорчивым, словоохотливым; (вновь) обрести дар речи».

Значение *tongue*₄ «речь манера говорить» реализуется в сочетании с прилагательными и причастиями, выражающими эмоционально-экспрессивные свойства (*rough, sharp, excited, flattering, etc.*).

Rose Waterford had a blistering tongue. No one could say such bitter things... [5, с. 49].

Сочетание *a blistering tongue* означает «ядовитый язык, язвительная манера речи».

Значение *tongue*₅ «язык нации, диалект» реализуется в сочетании с прилагательными, имеющими локальное значение, а также с прилагательными, выражающими национальную принадлежность (*local, native, Hebrew, heathen, etc.*).

'She was baptized Blodeuwedd, which being interpreted into your heathen tongue means literally, Flowerface' [106, с. 149].

Сочетание *the heathen tongue* означает «речь людей языческой веры».

Сочетание *a tongue of flame* означает «язык пламени».

Наличие тесной семантической связи и четких типовых контекстов употребления значений *tongue*₁ – *tongue*₆ анализируемого существительного свидетельствует о том, что они представляют собой самостоятельные, парадигматические значения и являются содержательной стороной соответствующих лексико-семантических вариантов существительного *tongue*.

Все остальные значения рассматриваемого существительного, зафиксированные в английских толковых словарях, не имеют четких типовых контекстов употребления. Как указывалось выше, в их словарных дефинициях отсутствуют общие элементы – показатели семантической связи. Все это свидетельствует о том, что эти значения не отвечают определению самостоятельного, парадигматического значения. Они обусловлены особенностями речевого функционирования существительного *tongue* и относятся к сфере синтагматики.

Таким образом, соотнесение результатов, полученных с помощью метода лексических трансформаций, с данными контекстуального анализа дало возможность объективно определить характер семантической структуры многозначного английского существительного *tongue*.

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Аннотация

В статье исследуются типы контекста и рассматривается его роль в реализации значения английского слова.

Ключевые слова: индикатор, контекст, лингвистическая база, микроконтекст, макроконтекст, реализация значения, смешанный тип, сюжет, ситуация, экстра-лингвистическое явление, ядро.

Прежде всего, рассмотрим типы контекста, основываясь на языковых, материальных индикаторах. В зависимости от их характера различаются лексический, грамматический и смешанный (лексико-грамматический) типы контекста. При лексическом типе важно лексическое значение слов-индикаторов, под влиянием которых и происходит выбор семантически связанной с ними части значения ядра (Г.В. Колпакова, 2004: 47).

Например, прилагательное *sound* потенциально может быть реализовано в одном из четырех значений:

- 1) *healthy, not injured, hurt or decayed;*
- 2) *based on reason, prudent;*
- 3) *capable, careful;*
- 4) *thorough, complete.*

В речи каждое из этих значений оказывается в окружении разных индикаторов:

- 1) *sound mind in a sound body; sound fruit;*
- 2) *sound argument (policy); sound advice;*
- 3) *a sound tennis player;*
- 4) *sound sleep; sound thrashing.*

Лексическое значение индикаторов *mind, body, fruit* (smth that can be injured, hurt or decayed) указывает на значение ядра 1. Сема *reason*, содержащаяся в лексическом значении индикаторов *argument, policy, advice*, указывает на необходимость выбора значения 2. Подобным же образом действуют индикаторы *player* и *sleep* или *thrashing*.

Еще пример: существительное *mouth* реализуется в значении *opening through which animals take food in; space behind this containing the tongue, etc.* в сочетании с индикатором *dog*, в лексическом значении которого есть сема *animal*. Другое значение *mouth* - *opening or outlet* - реализуется в сочетаниях с лексическими индикаторами *bag, cave, river, etc.*, объединенных семой *inanimate*. В лексическом контексте, таким образом, выбор значения ядра зависит только от лексического значения индикатора или индикаторов.

Грамматический контекст возникает тогда, когда в роли индикатора выступает какая-либо грамматическая функция. Так, например, значение слова *ill* зависит от той функции, которую оно выполняет в высказывании. Если функция предикативная (*fall ill; be taken ill*), значение ядра можно толковать как *in bad health*. В атрибутивной функции (*ill luck; ill will*) значение ядра - *bad, hostile*.

Аналогичный пример - выбор значения глагола *make*, который в функции части составного сказуемого (*make smth move*) реализует значение *compel, cause* (*They made me tell the story.*), но в функции простого сказуемого с прямым дополнением означает *construct or produce smth* (*She made coffee for all of us. Bricks can be made of clay.*).

¹Ибадова Нафиса Ахматиллоевна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Английского языка и литературы», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

Чаще всего, однако, для верного выбора части объема значения многозначного слова используется смешанный (лексико-грамматический) тип контекста, где важно и лексическое значение, и грамматическое оформление индикаторов.

Например, при одинаковой грамматической оформленности фраз *He ran a horse* и *He ran the risk* реализации значения *make move* и *expose oneself to a possibility of danger* способствуют лексические значения индикаторов. Однако одновременно с этим «срабатывает» и грамматический контекст - присутствие дополнения при глаголе-ядре в данной конструкции в отличие, например, от *The horse ran*.

Также недостаточно для полного понимания высказывания *It stopped to start again soon* его грамматическое оформление, хотя оно и снимает часть «лишних» значений ядра *stop* (ср. *It stopped doing smth*). Необходимым оказывается еще и лексическое значение индикатора *it*. Если это заместитель слова с общим лексическим значением *living being*, реализуется значение ядра *come to rest, halt* (*The dog stopped to start again. The tourists stopped for a night to start again in the morning.*); значение *it* — *inanimate object* уточнит ядро как *discontinue* (*The rain stopped.*).

В тех случаях, когда в качестве индикатора выступает не материальный отрезок речи, а условия, в которых происходит речевой акт, мы имеем дело с речевой ситуацией или экстралингвистическим, «неязыковым контекстом». Заметим попутно, что в разных работах он может называться макроконтекстом, речевым, бытийным или тематическим контекстом. Формы речевой ситуации разнообразны. Одна из наиболее распространенных - так называемая «жизненная ситуация», т. е. внеязыковые обстоятельства, в которых употреблено многозначное слово.

Рассмотрим пример со словом *table* в предложении *Move that table a bit to the right*. В ситуации перестановки мебели значение выясняется под ее влиянием - *a piece of furniture*; в ситуации подготовки к выступлению, докладу это *list of facts, numbers, systematically arranged (mathematical tables)*. Реализация нужного значения происходит с помощью не языковых индикаторов, а внеязыковой «жизненной ситуации». К обстоятельствам речи относятся также жесты, мимика, интонация говорящего.

Близкая по характеру разновидность речевой ситуации - ситуация тематическая, или, как ее часто называют, сюжетная. Индикатором, помогающим отбору, является все содержание текста, его тема. Несмотря на название, сюжетная ситуация не связана с сюжетом художественного произведения. Тема, как правило, помогает определить значение слова в специальных текстах, особенно если речь идет об использовании термина в разных отраслях (А.Л. Новиков, 2002: 83).

Классический пример - действие тематической (сюжетной) ситуации в роли индикатора при ядре *case*. В работах по грамматике слово реализует значение *form of a noun or pronoun*, в юридических текстах — *question to be decided in a law-court*, в медицинских — *person suffering from a disease*, в военном деле — *operation*, в финансовой тематике — *actual state of affairs* и, наконец, в бытовом смысле — *instance or example of the occurrence of smth*.

Особо выделяется описательная ситуация, когда в роли индикатора выступает не сама обстановка речи, как в первом типе, а описание этой обстановки. Частный случай описательной ситуации - авторские ремарки в пьесах, например: *What a mess this table is! (bangs his fist on it spilling the tea)*.

И контекст, и речевая ситуация нейтрализуют в речи многозначность слова. Если индикатор варьируется, не влияя на семантику ядра, контекст носит переменный характер. Словосочетание свободно и подчинено только общим законам сочетаемости слов в языке (*a boy's - girl's - dog's - cat's mouth*). Иногда индикатор и ядро образуют неразрывную смысловую связь, взаимно влияя на семантику друг друга. В этом случае контекст называется постоянным, а словосочетание перестает быть свободным и переходит в разряд фразеологических.

Выбор того или иного соответствия при переводе во многом определяется контекстом, в котором употреблена та или иная языковая единица. В процессе перевода «снятие» многозначности языковых единиц и определение выбора пе-

реводческого эквивалента обуславливается рядом факторов, как то: узким контекстом, широким контекстом и экстралингвистической ситуацией (Г.Х. Бакиева, 1993: 23).

Без учета всех этих факторов в их взаимодействии понимание речевого произведения и, тем самым, его перевод называются невозможными. Именно по этой причине лингвистический базой теории перевода, как было отмечено, должны служить, во-первых, лингвистика текста, во-вторых, макролингвистическое описание языка с учетом функционирования его системы во взаимодействии с экстралингвистическими явлениями, определяющими предмет, построение и условия существования объекта перевода - речевого произведения.

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РОЛЬ КОНТЕКСТА В РЕАЛИЗАЦИИ АНТОНИМИЧЕСКИХ ОТНОШЕНИЙ, ЗАКЛЮЧЁННЫХ В ПАРАДИГМАТИЧЕСКИХ ХАРАКТЕРИСТИКАХ СЛОВ В АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ

Ш.Г. Джураева¹

Аннотация

В статье рассматриваются типы антонимических отношений не свойственных лексико-семантической группе, а также группы глаголов говорения.

Ключевые слова: роль, антонимические отношения, слова, антонимы, семантика

Роль контекста в реализации антонимических отношений, заключённых в парадигматических характеристиках слов, возрастает если между двумя противопоставленными словами в конечном счете можно установить один из типов антонимических отношений, не свойственных данной лексико-семантической группе.

Например, отношение между значениями слов

shout – whisper – pronounce in a loud voice – можно в конечном счёте свести **pronounce in a loud voice** к отношению – loud – low, но это отношение свойственно прилагательным, а не глаголам, и для лексико-семантической группы глаголов говорения антонимия вообще не характерна.

Вряд ли можно найти другие пары глаголов, где противопоставление идет по такому отношению: антонимичность здесь никак не опирается на типичную модель. Ее главной опорой является соответствующий контекст:

“Whisper, don’t shout, However did you get in here?” [6, с. 124].

Противопоставление для пары rags – finery:

Would you go in rags when all your neighbours were dressed in finery? [1, с. 170] в конечном счете сводится к отношению полярности: new and rich // old and cheap, т.е. типу, никак не свойственному существительным – названиям предметов.

Примерно то же происходит в некоторых случаях противопоставления слов в метафорических значениях, когда в основа переноса значения лежат признаки, находящиеся в антонимическом отношении:

feather – plummet (lightness – heaviness)

float – drag (ease – difficulty):

The delight in Nicole’s face – to be a feather again instead of a plummet, to float and not to drag [1, с. 190];

shiver – sweat (cold – heat):

...the Baumgartner child in the orange buckskin leather charro dress shivered in it instead of sweating [1, с. 113]

swagger – cringe (pride – humiliation):

But whether the native swaggers or cringes, there’s always something behind every remark he makes, always something, and if nothing else, he’s trying to increase his izzat – in plain Anglo-Saxon to score [2, с. 149].

thoroughbred – mongrel (high – low breeding):

But every individual has his or her own fate, and her own sphinx. Alvina’s sphinx was an old deep thoroughbred, she would take no mongrel answers [3, с. 181].

Во всех этих случаях при конечной сводимости противопоставлений к отношению, типичному для какого-либо другого лексико-грамматического класса или лексико-семантической группы слов, непосредственное отношение между значениями в каждой паре слов не является типичным, не является моделью других противопоставлений.

¹Джураева Шахло Гуломовна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Истории и грамматики английского языка», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

Контекст, акцентируя в значениях слов те признаки, между которыми можно установить антонимическое отношение, играет здесь примерно ту же роль, которую для парадигматических и парадигматико-синтагматических антонимических пар играет сам моделированный, типичный характер непосредственного отношения между значениями.

Такой тип антонимии можно назвать синтагматико-парадигматическим.

К этой же группе антонимов, по-видимому, следует отнести пары находящиеся в отношениях, характерных лишь для ограниченного числа пар в данном языке – мало типичную не только для лексико-семантической группы или части речи, но и для языка вообще, слабо отмеченную в сознании говорящих антонимию.

В английском языке одним из таких слабо отмеченных типов антонимических отношений является противопоставление существительных по линии высота – глубина.

Немногочисленные пары подобным образом противопоставленных слов употребляются антонимически обычно в переносных значениях, о чем свидетельствуют приведенные ниже примеры:

At one moment he is in the heights, at another he is in the depths [1, с.192].

Each character has to face the problem overcoming the shell shock of the first disillusionment, the psychic fatigue too at the thought of going through all the heights and depths with a new partner»

There are no mountains in my life... nor chasms. It is a rolling pleasant land, verdant, my darling, thank you [3, с.129].

При употреблении в прямых значениях антонимичность подобных слов гораздо менее очевидна:

It was a warm day, unusually so for April, windless and pacifying: looking out into the sunshine one felt anthropocentrically that the pastures, rises and hollows wore pacified too [1, с.115].

Антонимы этого типа следует считать синтагматико-парадигматическими.

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ТАРЖИМА ЛУҒАТЛАРИДА ФРАЗЕОЛОГИК БИРЛИКЛАР БАЁНИДА УЧРАЙДИГАН АЙРИМ МУАММОЛАР

Э.Н. Хайитова¹

Аннотация

Ушбу мақола таржима луғатларида айрим фразеологик бирликлар баёнида учрайдиган муаммолар ҳақида.

Калит сўзлар: семантика, эквивалент, фразеологик бирлик, лексикография, фразеологизм.

Лексикография амалиётида энг муҳим қийинчиликлардан бири бу сўз ёки сўз бирикмасининг маъносини унинг қўлланишидан фарқлаш ҳисобланади. "Қўллаш мазмун билан тенг қийматга эга эмас, унда сўзнинг қўллаб мазмуний имкониятлари яшириндир. Қўллаш-бу фақатгина сўзнинг у ёки бу маъносини ишлатиш демакдир" (1,92).

Бу каби муаммо фразеологик материалга ҳам дахлдордир. Аммо ФБ сўзга нисбатан нутқий семантик хилма-хилликнинг яширин имкониятларига кўпроқ эгадир, чунки ФБ нутқ жараёнида иштирок этиши мумкин бўлган бир қанча семантик жиҳатлардан иборатдир. Фразеологиянинг бу ҳилдаги мунтазам, батартиб характеристикаси Brewer E.C. A Dictionary of Phrase and Fable. Cent.ed. 2nd impr. London, 1991; Hyamson A.M. A Dictionary of English Phrases.- London: New York, 1992: Longman Dictionary of English Idioms.- London, Longman Group Ltd., 1999 каби луғатларда келтирилади.

Таъриф (дефеницияси) ўзига хос вазифаси боис, тил бирлиги мазмунининг, шу жумладан, ФБнинг ҳам систем-коннотатив жиҳатани акс эттирмайди. Мазмуннинг систем-коннотатив жиҳатини таъриф таркибига киритишга бўлган ягона уруниш Ф. Вуд томонидан амалга оширилган. Айнан битта тил бирлигининг маъноларини таърифлашда, яъни бу бирлик семантик белгиларини тартибга солишда лексикограф албатта ҳар доим аниқ семантик белгиларининг қандайдир умумий (яъни қзгармас) тўпламини ажратиб кўрсатишади. Бу умумий тўплам одатда ушбу тил бирлигининг асосий ажралмас семантик белгиларидан тузилган бўлади. Айрим ҳолларда бир биридан фарқланувчи белгилар ҳам бўлиб, улар одатда ҳар хил онтекстлардан олинган бўлади. Шунга қўра, улар у ёки бу ФБ мазмунининг ўзгарувчан қисmini ташкил қиладилар. Бу каби маълумотлар турли хил матнларни изчил тарзда таҳлил қилиш натижасида олинади.

Таржима луғатларида фразеологизмларнинг мазмун моҳиятини очиб бериш энг мушкул вазифалардан саналади. Ушбу вазифанинг қай даражада бажарилиши таржима луғатининг қиймати ва сифатини белгилайди.

Таржима луғатлар тузиш жараёнида асосан икки хил бирликлар иртасида эквивалентлик муносабатларини ўрнатиш масаласи ётади. Ушбу эквивалент муносабатлар асосан турли тил вакиллари мантиқий тушунча системаларининг умумийлигига асосланади, яъни халқларнинг қайси ҳудудда истиқомат қилишидан қатъий назар, дунёни идрок қилишдаги мантиқий тушунчалари бир хил ҳисобланади. Ушбу фалсафий тамойил бир тил элементлари билан иккинчи тил элементлари ўртасида эквивалент муносабатлар ўрнатиш мумкинмаслигини асослайди.

Таржима луғатларида тузиш жараёнида қуйидаги эквивалент муносабатлар ўрнатиш принципларидан фойдаланиш мумкин:

1. Фразеологизм бир тилдан иккинчи тилга тўлиқ эквивалент орқали таржима қилинади. Буни қуйидаги символлар орқали ифодалаймиз:

¹Хайитова Эльмира Норбаевна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Английского языка и литературы», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

L1	L2
A+B=AB	A+B=AB

Бунда A+B=AB ҳар қандай структурага эга бўлган фразеологизмларнинг рамзий белгиси.

Масалан, қуйидаги ибораларнинг шакли ҳам, маъноси ҳам тўла мос тушади:

L1	L2
Life and death struggle	Ҳаёт мамот жанги
To draw the line	Чизиқ тортмоқ
The seven wonders of the world	Дунёнинг етти мўжизаси
The seven deadly sins	Етти кечирилмас гуноҳ

2. Фразеологизм бир тилдан иккинчи тилга қисман эквивалент орқали таржима қилинади. Бунда фразеологизмлар шаклида баъзи ўзгаришларга қарамасдан, маъно эквивалент ҳисобланади. Бунда қуйидаги тарзда ифодалаш мумкин:

L1	L2
A+B=AB	A+C=AC
L1	L2
A+B=AB	A+C=AC

Бунга мисол қилиб қуйидагиларни келтирамиз:

L1	L2
The last straw	Охирги томчи
The seven virtues	Етти эзгу иш, етти эзгу фазилят

3. Аналог орқали таржима қилиш принципи.

Юқоридаги услублардан фойдаланиш имконияти мушкул бўлиб қолган вақтда тиллардаги ўхшаш ибораларни жалб қилиш орқали таржима қилиш мумкин.

L1	L2
A+B=AB	C+D=CD

Ушбу фразеологизмларда шакл турли бўлишига қарамасдан, эквивалент маъно **кузатилади**.

L1	L2
Everything is at sixes and sevens	Ҳаммасининг оёғи осмондан бўлмоқ
To join the angels	У дунёга рихлат қилмоқ
Play the advantages over smb.	Кимнидир чув туширмоқ
Back and forth	Миридан сиригача

Юқоридаги мисоллардан кўриниб турибдики, фразеологик бирикмаларнинг асл мазмун моҳиятларини таржима луғатларида тўлақонли очиб бериш жуда мушкул иш. Бу борада лексикографлар олдида бир қатор муаммолар кўндаланг туради. Хулоса сифатида шуни айтиш мумкинки, ушбу муаммоларнинг қай даражада ижобий ҳал этилиши таржима луғатининг сифатини белгилаб беради.

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СООТНОШЕНИЕ СЕМАНТИЧЕСКОЙ СТРУКТУРЫ СЛОВА И ЕГО СОЧЕТАЕМОСТИ В РАЗВИТИИ ПОЛИФУНКЦИОНАЛЬНОСТИ

Ш.Г. Джураева¹

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается семантическая структура слов и их сочетаемость в развитии полифункциональности существительных в английском языке.

Ключевые слова: слова, полифункциональность, модель, агентивное значение, экспериенциальность

Общепризнан и не вызывает сомнения факт, что сочетательные возможности слова прежде всего определяются принадлежностью его к той или иной части речи.

В таких дистрибутивных моделях, как NV, VD, VprpN, VN, V'Ving, V'V=, встречаются все без исключения полнзначные глаголы.

С другой стороны, окружение слова в большой степени детерминируется его значением.

Как отмечают многие авторы [1, с.21; 2, с.20], семантическая структура ведущего слова словосочетания предопределяет появление в предложении тех или иных классов слов, то есть ту или иную поверхностную структуру. Поскольку в значениях слов, относящихся к одной лексико-семантической группе (ЛСГ), наблюдается значительная общность, постольку можно предполагать наличие ряда сочетательных особенностей, характеризующих данную группу в целом в аспектах развития полифункциональности.

Семантическая ёмкость и широкие конструктивные возможности глагола выдвигают на первое место проблему изучения его сочетаемости.

Глагол больше, чем другая часть речи, способен диагностировать свое окружение. Глаголы направленного действия имеют «открытую структуру», то есть предполагают наличие в предложении объекта, адресата или обстоятельства направленности действия.

Всякое предложение построено вокруг предикативного элемента, который сопровождается обычно именными элементами, состав этих элементов диктуется семантической структурой глагола.

Таким образом, глагол является конструктивным ядром предложения, и знание его глубинной (семантической) структуры обязательно для понимания полифункциональных процессов, в результате которых возникает та или иная поверхностная структура предложения.

Исследуя валентность глагола, мы разграничиваем обязательное и факультативное его окружение. Первое детерминируется, диктуется конкретным глаголом, второе лишь потенцируется им благодаря присущей всему классу глаголов синтаксической сочетаемости.

Реализация потенциальных сочетательных возможностей зависит от содержания высказывания. Поскольку факультативные элементы могут входить в окружение почти каждого глагола, то есть отличаются низкой степенью избирательности, их наличие или отсутствие не может являться релевантным дистрибутивным свойством глагола.

Ср: I never thought of you as one. [3, с.155]

It was a fixed principle with him never to allude to June [4, с.45].

You will notice, never gives himself away [4, с.117].

¹Джураева Шахло Гуломовна – преподаватель английского языка кафедры «Истории и грамматики английского языка», Самаркандский государственный институт иностранных языков, Узбекистан.

Было бы однако ошибкой считать нерелевантным любое наречное окружение. Дело в том, что лексическое заполнение элемента L в модели VD во многом определяется семантикой самого глагола, поэтому сравнение наречий, встречающихся в окружении различных глаголов, помогает вскрыть особенности смысловой структуры каждого из них.

В настоящем разделе мы делаем попытку показать связь между смысловой структурой слова и его сочетаемостью. При этом полагаем, что различия в синтаксическом поведении слов всегда сигнализируют наличие семантических различий между ними, то есть определенный тип окружения указывает на тип значения управляющего слова.

Для исследования были отобраны шесть глаголов зрительного восприятия, входящих в первую тысячу наиболее частотных знаменательных слов see, notice, look, watch, regard, observe.

Все эти глаголы входят в класс, объединенный лексическим значением «пассивное – активное восприятие».

Отобранные нами глаголы распадаются на две группы:

- 1) глаголы произвольного действия (look, watch, regard) и
- 2) глаголы непроизвольного действия (see, notice).

Глагол observe – занимает особое положение, так как он может обозначать как непроизвольный акт видения, так и непроизвольное наблюдение объекта. Поэтому в дальнейшем изложении мы будем говорить об observe₁ со значением непроизвольного действия и observe₂ с агентивным значением [обозначающим производителя действия].

Особенности глаголов группы see позволяют называть их экспериенциальными (experiential). Эти глаголы обозначают процессы и требуют дополнения. Однако вряд ли можно отношения между словами в предложении типа Tom saw a snake считать отношениями между деятелем, действием и объектом.

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Адрес для направления статей и сведений об авторе:

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