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Cognitive Analysis of English and Uzbek Phraseological Euphemisms

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Abstract: *Many euphemisms in human speech are words and phrases that are used instead of words that are pronounced morally and culturally uncomfortable, and their rational use requires knowledge and skill. This article gives examples of how we perceive reality in our minds by focusing on some aspects of the science that has emerged as a new field in linguistics - cognitive and cognitive analysis; the role of cognitive structures in cognition.*

Key words: *"intermediate language", "boxes", "euphemism", "scenario", "slot", euphemism, cognitive and cognize, moral speech, culture.*

Article History

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INTRODUCTION

Language plays an important role in the development of society. The main feature that distinguishes humanity from other beings is also language. With his own language, a person is able to convey to the addressee what he perceives. This process happens very often in a few seconds. This phenomenon is also studied by the science of cognition. This science is a science that emerged at the intersection of several disciplines, and the date of its emergence as a science is recorded as September 11, 1956.

Cognitology is closely related to philosophy, psychology, artificial intelligence, neurology, linguistics, and anthropology. The main object of research in this science is the study of human and cognitive activity. The role of the **"intermediate language"** in this process is unique, said the famous anthropologist Yu.N.Karaulov in his scientific theories and conducted various studies. According to him, **"intermediate language is formed in the process of intellectual activity and its linguistic manifestation, and takes place in the specific language space between sound, external speech and the brain."**¹

But the "intermediate language" he proposed had the same problem: The intermediate language had no dictionary form, making it difficult to distinguish it materially. According to Karaulov, the use of the term "sign means" in relation to the thought process is incorrect. He wrote about it in his book "Русский язык и языковая личность".²

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Russian anthropologist included to the "intermediate language" the following units: "image", "gestalt", "scheme", "frame", "proposition", "picture", "symbol", "formula", "diagram", "word" and etc. Although these molded units differ in form, they are **"boxes"** that hold pieces of information that are collected and stored in the human mind.³ From these boxes, we will make a cognitive analysis of some of the research languages - English and Uzbek euphemisms - using the structural unit **"Scenario"**:

The socio-political changes that have taken place in our society in the past are closely linked with the development of our society. As a result of these changes, humanity's pursuit of perfection is observed, which serves as a beacon of greatness. A person uses his language effectively in carrying out the activities assigned to him in society. Human speech, on the other hand, is governed by moral standards. A mature person, on the other hand, participates in speech processes in accordance with these ethical and cultural norms. The use of certain words and phrases is prohibited or replaced with other words and phrases in order to enhance the culture of speech. The use of words and phrases instead of words that are morally or culturally forbidden or considered unethical is called **"euphemism"**. According to English linguist Rawson, euphemisms are powerful linguistic tools that are "so deeply ingrained in our language that even those who are proud of our shortcomings, even our outspokenness, will miss a day without using them" (Linfoot- Ham, 2005, 228).⁴ The need for euphemism is both social and emotional, as it allows discussion of forbidden topics (such as sex, personal appearance, or

¹ Ю.Н.Караулов- «Русский язык и языковая личность». М: Наука, 1987, стр.363

² Ю.Н.Караулов- «Русский язык и языковая личность». М: Наука, 1987, стр.208

³ Sh.Safarov "Kognitiv tilshunoslik" Sangzor.Jizzax, 2006, 33-b.

⁴ Linfoot Ham, "The Linguistics of Euphemism: A Diachronic Study of Euphemism Formation". Journal of Language and Linguistics 4/2, 2005,p. 227

religion) and acts as a pressure valve while maintaining a cultural appearance (Linfoot-Ham, 2005).⁵

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

There are general and specific aspects of the use of euphemisms in the two language cultures under study, and we have selected general euphemisms for our analysis.

When the health of our loved ones is deteriorating, we use other milder variants in our speech instead of the word "sick" in order not to hurt their hearts and to give them confidence in order to heal faster. Euphemisms used in place of the word "sick" in English:

- Indisposed
- Health reasons
- To feel unwell
- To suffer from discomfort
- To suffer from an uncomfortable physical condition⁶

Euphemisms for the word "sick" in Uzbek:

- Betob
- Bemor
- Mazasi yo'q
- Mazasi qochmoq
- Tobi yomonlashib qolmoq⁷

All of these euphemisms are a softened version of the "sick" concept. We carry out our cognitive analysis using the "Scenario" structural template. So what is a "scenario"?

- The scenario is the illustration of the interrelated facts inherent in a typical event in the form of a model form that reflects their coherence.⁸

These concepts were first introduced to the science of cognition by linguists R. Shenk and R. Abelson in the field of artificial intelligence. In their comments on the "scenario": - Scenarios are used as the main means of showing the sequence of events, their interconnectedness. Scenarios consist of "**slots**", which show the role, goals and actions of the participants. A slot is a small piece of content.⁹

The "scenario" of the "sick" euphemistic concept obtained for the study of our analysis:

Scenario: patient

Roles: caretaker, doctor

The *goal* is to find a cure for the disease

Scene 1: Symptoms of the disease

Patient fever,

Not feeling well,

Loss of appetite.

Scene 2: Attention to the patient

The attention of your loved ones,

⁵ Linfoot Ham, "The Linguistics of Euphemism: A Diachronic Study of Euphemism Formation". Journal of Language and Linguistics 4/2, 2005, p. 263

⁶ A. Grinova "Euphemisms in English Everyday discourse" MA. Diploma work, 2017, p.45

⁷ A. Omonturdiyev "O'zbek tilining qisqacha evfemik lug'ati"- "Fan", 2006, 91-bet

⁸ Sh. Safarov "Kognitiv tilshunoslik" Sangzor. Jizzax, 2006, 35-b.

⁹ Sh. Safarov "Kognitiv tilshunoslik" Sangzor. Jizzax, 2006, 35-b.

Determine the cause of the change,

Call a doctor.

Scene 3: Medical examination

Doctor's appointment,

Prescription drugs,

Medical supervision,

Healthy living.

CONCLUSION

What if this scenario happened to a living person who had not encountered it at least once in his life? As soon as we hear that someone is "sick", this process is reflected in our thinking. In conclusion, these small "slots" that unite the scenarios are one and the same, so that we can get information about how the "patient" claims his illness or vice versa. Through this cognitive structure, we can accelerate the process of perceiving in our minds the events that take place around us. New information is "accepted" without any hassle.

Reference:

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Methods of Developing Intercultural Competence of Future Teachers in The Condition of Teaching a Foreign Language

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Abstract: *In this article we aim to speak about intercultural competence of students` in learning a foreign language, some issues relating the theme and ways of achieving success during the class. Knowledge, awareness and understanding of the relation (similarities and distinctive differences) between the 'world of origin' and the 'world of the target community' produce an intercultural awareness. It is, of course, important to note that intercultural awareness includes an awareness of regional and social diversity in both worlds. In addition to objective knowledge, intercultural awareness covers an awareness of how each community appears from the perspective of the other, often in the form of national stereotypes.*

Key words:
plurilingualism, pluricultural, stabilize, imbalance, critical importance, personal identity, competence, social identity.

Article History

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Plurilingual and pluricultural competence is generally uneven in one or more ways. Such imbalances are entirely normal. Whereas the traditional view of 'monolingual' communicative competence in the 'mother tongue' suggests it is quickly stabilized, a plurilingual and pluricultural competence presents a transitory profile and a changing configuration. Depending on the career path, family history, travel experience, reading and hobbies of the individual in question, significant changes take place in his/her linguistic and cultural biography, altering the forms of imbalance in his/her plurilingualism, and rendering more complex his/her experience of the plurality of cultures.

INTRODUCTION

There are many ways in which modern languages are currently learnt and taught. Cultural identities (the identities which people construct on the basis of their membership of cultural groups) are a particular type of social identity. Culture itself is a notoriously difficult term to define.

Cultures also change over time because of their members' internal contestation of the meanings, norms, values and practices of the group. The ways in which individuals relate to the cultures to which they are affiliated are complex. Because cultural participation and cultural practices are context-dependent and variable, individuals use the multiple cultural resources which are available to them in a fluid manner to actively construct and negotiate their own meanings and interpretations of the world across the various contexts which they encounter in their everyday lives. However, cultures also constrain and limit the thoughts and actions of individuals.

Cultural affiliations influence not only how people perceive themselves and their own identities, but also how they perceive others, other groups and other ways of acting, thinking and feeling, and how they perceive the relationships between groups. Intercultural competence is therefore a combination of attitudes, knowledge, understanding and skills applied through action which enables one, either singly or together with others, to:

- understand and respect people who are perceived to have different cultural affiliations from oneself;
- respond appropriately, effectively and respectfully when interacting and communicating with such people;
- establish positive and constructive relationships with such people;
- understand oneself and one's own multiple cultural affiliations through encounters with cultural "difference".

Here, the term "respect" means that one has regard for, appreciates and values the other; the term "appropriate" means that all participants in the situation are equally satisfied that the interaction occurs within expected cultural norms; and "effective" means that all involved are able to achieve their objectives in the interaction, at least in part. Development of intercultural competence involves the interaction of two cultures in several ways:

- a) to study the culture of the target language country by means of the foreign language itself and understanding the behavior pattern of foreign language speakers;
- b) the influence of the foreign language and foreign language culture upon the development of the native language and behavior pattern within the native culture;
- c) development of the individual under the influence of two cultures.

Let us consider how the intercultural competence of students is being formed, taking into account the above directions.

First direction: study of the culture of the target language by means of the foreign language itself and understanding the behavioral pattern of the foreign language speakers. Foreign language culture consists of various components, which together give us an idea of how the foreign language functions in the conditions of the natural foreign environment. These components include the following:

- (a) knowledge in the field of structure / system of language (lexical and grammatical rules, syntax, stylistic features);

- (b) background knowledge, i.e. knowledge, which is a kind of a screen to show the national language features (proverbs, idioms, realities, the names of objects and phenomena of a traditional and new lifestyle);
- (c) knowledge of the country (historical facts, specific features of a certain era, science and politics, great personalities);
- (d) the culture itself (literature, art and music created by native speakers).

In the process of studying a foreign language, students learn material that illustrates the operation of the language in the natural environment, verbal and nonverbal behavior of native speakers in different communication situations, and reveal behaviors associated with folk customs, traditions, superstitions, social structure, and ethnicity.

Firstly, this happens with the use of authentic materials (original texts, audio, video), which are normative in terms of language, and contain linguistic and cultural information. It is important to know the national and cultural features of behavior of a foreigner in order to avoid potential conflicts in international communication. It is known that the British were very punctual and appreciate every minute. Uzbeks, who are famous for their hospitality, will be puzzled, or even offended, if a German failed to offer them a cup of tea. The British do not tend to offer meals to everyone coming to their place. English logic penetrates not only through judgments and conclusions, but also the specific features of grammatical structure of the English language, which makes a certain difficulty for students. Thus, when learning a foreign language, a student must not only understand its lexical, grammatical and syntactic features, but also learn to adequately respond to the replicas of native speakers, to apply facial expressions and gestures appropriately, and use the formula of speech etiquette and know the cultural and historical features of the target language country.

The second direction: the impact of a foreign language and foreign language culture on the development of the native language and behavior pattern within the native culture. Intercultural communication means not only the person's readiness to accept the representative of another culture with all its national and mental features, but also the ability to change oneself. When studying a foreign language in all its diversity, students face linguistic and cultural phenomena and compare them with those in their native language. For example, when learning the lexical and grammatical system of the English language, students must use the knowledge gained at lessons of the Uzbek language to highlight the similarities and differences in the linguistic phenomena and area of their use. Study of the foreign language culture also leads the student to the need to refer to the cultural and historical facts of his/her country. Thus, when studying a foreign language and being engaging in intercultural communication, a student better understands his/her own native language and culture. As numerous examples show, intercultural communication not only develops a person in terms of his/her vocabulary, but also forms a pattern of behavior. Thus, Uzbek citizens who are permanently involved in the dialogue of cultures with English-speaking representatives borrow friendly manners and a polite smile for further communication in the mother tongue. They are characterized by punctuality, the ability to organize themselves, and a businesslike character, even in everyday life.

Third direction: personal development under the influence of two cultures. It is impossible to imagine a person who participates in the dialogue of cultures and remains at the same level of personal development. While communicating, the communication participant enters an entirely different, higher level, which requires:

- (a) tolerance for the otherness of his interlocutor;
- (b) respect for the culture of the communication partner;
- (c) adoption of differences in lifestyle, clothing, way of thinking;

- (d) overcoming stereotypes about other people and their culture;
- (e) manifestation of interest in the other party and their country;
- (f) openness towards new and unknown things.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Intercultural competence involves an awareness of the role of language competences in intercultural encounters. It also involves an awareness that, within intercultural encounters (as in all interactions), participants may have different levels of competence in the language(s) being used, which can create asymmetries or power differentials within the interaction. More generally, how people interpret, and communicate within, intercultural encounters is shaped by the languages and cultures which they bring to those encounters.

An individual's intercultural competence is never complete but can always be enriched still further from continuing experience of different kinds of intercultural encounter. While the definition of intercultural competence provided above states that such competence involves respecting people who are perceived to have different cultural affiliations from oneself, it is important to distinguish between respect for people and respect for actions.

Several aspects of intercultural competence warrant further comment. First, intercultural competence does not involve abandoning one's own cultural identifications or affiliations, nor does it require individuals to adopt the cultural practices, beliefs, discourses or values of other cultures.

Second, because intercultural competence involves learning about and interpreting other people's cultural perspectives and relating them to one's own, interculturally competent individuals are able to use their intercultural encounters to learn about and reflect critically on their own cultural affiliations.

Third, it is important to emphasize that language has a privileged role within intercultural encounters because it is the most important (although not the only) symbolic system which enables group members to share their cultural perspectives, beliefs and values.

Fourth, it is important to acknowledge that intercultural competence alone may not always be sufficient to enable individuals to engage in successful intercultural dialogue. Intercultural competence can be developed in different ways through different types of education. Three types of education exist and for the purposes of this paper are defined:

1. Informal education means the lifelong process whereby every individual acquires attitudes, skills and knowledge from the educational influences and resources in his or her own environment and from daily experience and conversation (family, peer group, neighbors, encounters, library, mass media, work, play, etc.).

2. Non-formal education means any planned program of education designed to improve a range of skills and competences outside the formal educational setting, and throughout lifelong learning.

3. Formal education means the structured education and training system that runs from pre-primary and primary through secondary school and on to higher education. It takes place, as a rule, at general or vocational educational institutions and usually leads to certification. Each type of education involves a relationship between a facilitator of learning and learners.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Experience, comparison, analysis, reflection and co-operative action, as briefly outlined above, are most effectively implemented in non-formal and formal education if teaching and learning *methods* are in line with the educational aim of developing intercultural competence in any subject matter.

There is much research indicating that learners learn better in contexts where lecturing from the front and transmitting information is minimal, and where pedagogical approaches, methods and techniques that encourage learners to become actively involved in discovery, challenge, reflection and co-operation are used instead. The most effective learning activities engage learners as whole persons and address their intellectual, emotional and physical potential. This also applies to the development of intercultural competence.

Many innovative teaching techniques and work forms are now increasingly widespread with the aim of facilitating the learning process in both non-formal and formal education. Project work, for example, has become very popular in the teaching of many subjects in schools. It involves topic- or theme-based tasks suitable for various levels and ages, in which goals and content are negotiated by all participants, and learners create their own learning materials that they present and evaluate together. Naturally, with such new work forms and new approaches to the learning process, teachers' and learners' roles have also changed.

Such activities that analyze multiple perspectives can be used in non-formal or formal educational settings to develop intercultural competence.

For example, historical events are often described differently by two historians living in different parts of the world and writing in different languages. In the same way as portraits of the same person are painted differently by two artists, drawings of a classroom sketched by people sitting in different corners of the same classroom will also be different. World maps based on projections not usually encountered, or using maps upside down, may stimulate discussion on points of view that are frequent or dominant, and others that are less customary.

The same is true for descriptions of natural phenomena that are often presented in natural science classes. While variations on this activity develop participants' observation and communication skills, they also promote analysis from multiple perspectives, enhance empathy and non-judgmental attitudes, and highlight the misleading nature of first impressions and stereotypes. Comparing perspectives can also be used in the treatment of real conflicts among the members of any group or class, or even within a family, to develop the same skills and attitudes while solving the involved persons' own conflicts or problems.

Multiperspectivity can also be enhanced through storytelling and the construction of narratives by learners. The narration of stories, which could be real or fictional, involves the ability to narrate whilst taking the perspective of specific people involved and distinguishing these from one's own perspective. Such narrations help participants to decenter from their own values, norms and beliefs, and from what is normally taken for granted, and the explanation of matters that would otherwise be omitted. This process may be felled by an audience's questions in informal settings, but it can also be designed as such in non-formal and formal education. Stories in the latter settings could be purposely drawn from the learners' own biographies, which can also be pulled together (e.g. through "American quilt" or puzzle activities where each biography forms a piece of the puzzle) to exemplify the group's diversity and to facilitate learners in exploring each other as complex individuals beyond over-simplified identities and labels which constrain members' understanding of each other. Finally, beyond the discussion of each individual biography or story, the compilation of all of them creates yet another level of rich pedagogical material which can be further analyzed, discussed and reflected upon in

relation to, for example, the kinds of diversity encountered in the group, whether or how it is related to the broader social context, or the kinds of socio-historical influences that brought it about. Role play, simulation and drama activities in foreign, second or native language and literature classes or in non-formal educational settings can help develop learners' intercultural competence. For example, teachers or facilitators can give out role cards according to which learners have to act completely differently from their usual ways, norms and standards.

In addition, they have to solve a problem, carry out a task or discuss an issue in groups following the norms of their assigned "new identity".

The benefits of role plays, simulations and drama for the development of intercultural competence are numerous. Learners experience what it is like to be different, to be looked on strangely, to be criticized or even excluded. They can also discover that, although people may show differences in every aspect from eye contact through language use to basic norms, beliefs and values, these differences do not make them less valuable as human beings. The debriefing discussion with the class or group is very important after each role play or simulation to raise awareness of what happened during the game.

Eliciting from the students or participants what they have discovered while playing – what was easy, difficult, strange or life-like, how they were able to imagine the norms of their assigned "new identity" and whether their character was genuine or stereotypical – will help them reflect on the experience. As a result, such activities can help to develop attitudes of openness, curiosity and respect, as well as a willingness to empathize and suspend judgment. Students are also encouraged to develop skills of observation and interpretation, skills for learning about one's own culture and discovering others, as well as skills of adapting and empathy.

Care has to be taken that such activities do not lead to over-generalisations about other groups of people, and that they do not reinforce stereotypes instead of challenging them. When stereotypes surface in the discussions, either about the self or about the other, the teacher or facilitator can seize such opportunities to discuss these and support learners in reflecting about how stereotypes are created, why they are sustained, how they can be as harmful as helpful and how they need to be challenged. When appropriately implemented, such role plays, simulations and drama also raise awareness of and build knowledge about similarities and differences, assumptions and prejudices, and verbal and non-verbal communicative conventions.

Another group of activities that helps to develop intercultural competence is theatre, poetry and creative writing. When we watch or read plays in our spare time because someone in the family or among our friends or colleagues recommended them, we learn about other people of diverse cultural affiliations with a variety of perspectives. Reading plays in literature or foreign language classes helps students learn from and through theatre in many different ways. Staging theatrical works takes this learning even further as acting out enables people to explore and reflect on experiences that they would probably never encounter otherwise.

Many short stories and poems also lend themselves well to the development of intercultural competence. They can be read, enjoyed, discussed, illustrated with drawings, retold or even – with a little bit of imagination and creative writing skills – rewritten from the learners' own perspectives. These learning activities based on literature, obviously appropriate for the language or literature class but also adaptable to other subject matter, allow learners to gain knowledge about people they have never met and to learn about lives they have never imagined. These processes can help learners to develop a willingness to question what is usually taken for granted in their own environment and to challenge their stereotypes of other people. Depending on the content or message of the poem, short story or play that teachers and facilitators select

for use, these activities may even help learners understand how society and individuals can protect the dignity and human rights of people regardless of their cultural affiliations.

Ethnographic tasks involve learners in going outside to explore life in the real world in order to bring back experience and knowledge that they can compare, analyze and reflect on – a process which can also promote self-discovery and self-reflection. Learners in a class or participants in non-formal training sessions can be assisted in compiling an observation grid to explore how people greet each other, how long they wait in certain situations, what verbal and non-verbal means they use to express respect, gratitude, anger or any other emotions. Another task could be for them to interview people to find out how people in a certain neighborhood live, think or relate to specific questions. The results can again be presented, compared and analyzed in the classroom or training room in order to develop some of the attitudes, knowledge or skills required for intercultural competence. These reflective discussions about the learners' ethnographic experiences will help them think about their reactions to what they observed, especially their interpretations of why they reacted in certain ways and not others to what they had experienced during 'field work'.

Parents can also make conscious decisions to organize outings for their children where they can observe and learn about the norms, behavior or social practices of people with different cultural affiliations and belonging to different ethnic, religious or socio-economic groups. These opportunities can be used to compare and raise awareness of their own norms and practices. A related but distinct methodology within ethnographic approaches is oral history. In non-formal and formal educational settings, oral history can be an approach mobilized by facilitators, trainers or teachers for engaging learners with the past through the use of interviews with people as "living sources", and through the process of developing social science research ethics towards others and their views of the past.

As interviews need to be conducted with sensitivity, patience and as little influence on the interviewee as possible, learners acquire experience of active listening, respecting other views or accounts and allowing, indeed facilitating, these to be voiced even if they do not fully agree with them. *Multiperspectivity* is also practiced here, since a grandfather's memories from school may be quite different from those of a grandmother, for example.

Witnessing oral history may also be relevant in informal education when, for example, grandparents narrate stories of their childhood to grandchildren. Younger generations are often surprised at the differences between how they are growing up, playing and attending school and how these activities were experienced by parents and grandparents.

They may also be surprised when grandparents relate how they challenged the cultural norms of the time through their own life choices, despite the fact that these norms were broader then. Although such conversations may often happen in an incidental manner, they provide opportunities for learners to explore how their own culture is in constant change over time, and how cultures are often challenged from within.

CONCLUSION

Intercultural encounters have now become an everyday occurrence for large numbers of people in many countries. Such high levels of physical and virtual intercultural contact have the potential to lead to self-enrichment and benefit, since encountering otherness, or what is perceived to be different, provides an opportunity for learning from, with and about each other and about oneself. Developing intercultural competence through education is a powerful tool for achieving intercultural understanding, appreciation and respect. The successful

development of intercultural competence, and the realization of the social vision upon which it is based, relies crucially upon the commitment and support of a wide range of stakeholders, including politicians, policy makers, education and training professionals, religious, spiritual and community leaders, parents and careers, and of course learners themselves. To enable the development of intercultural competence through education, the committed support of all these stakeholders is required.

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Politeness Language Patterns in Request

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***Abstract:** Being polite in a conversation should be considered by the speaker to the interlocutor since it is difficult. The reason why being polite is difficult for the speaker is it that needs understanding of the language, the social and cultural of the community. Besides that, politeness is not only viewed from the speaker, but it also viewed by the interlocutor.*

***Key word:** politeness language patterns, syntactic realization, lexical realization, pragmatic perspective, minus-valued politeness, non-polite works, a spectrum of politeness*

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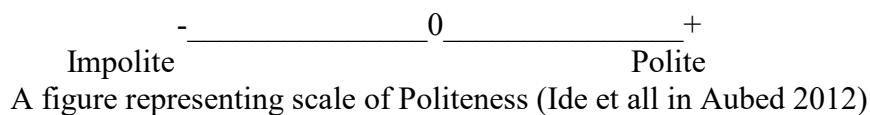
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INTRODUCTION

Politeness is not only viewed from the speaker, but it also viewed by the interlocutor. It makes many experts has different perceptions about politeness. Leech (1983) stated that politeness is one of pragmatic perspective. He begins by establishing two pragmatic systems: pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. Pragmalinguistics includes the speakers’ intentions and illocutionary acts. Hence, it refers to the more linguistics application of politeness. Meanwhile, sociopragmatics refers to how the speaker wants to be perceived socially.

Moreover, politeness could be defined as means of expressing that are used in conversation that has specific roles depending on the participant. Fraser and Nolen (1990) define politeness as a conversational contract that has a set of rights and obligations that participants must follow and can be negotiated and rearranged during a conversation. It meant that the conversational contract is based on the expectations of the members involved in a conversation and determined by the participants.

Meanwhile, Richard in Pichastor (1998) states that there are two definitions of politeness (a) how language expresses the social distance between speakers and their different role relationship (b) How to create, insist, and keep face during conversation carried out in speech community). Furthermore, being polite or impolite basically cannot be determined for sure. One of the experts has the scale in generally. Ide et al. cited in Aubed (2010) points out that politeness is a neutral concept, which we use as the label for a scale ranging from plus – through zero – to minus politeness. Thus, politeness refers to plus-valued politeness, while being impolite means minus-valued politeness and non-polite works the neutral or zero valued centre of the scale. The scale means that something can be said polite if the scale is close to plus. It can be represented by the following figure:



Eelen in Hamzah (2011) maintains that politeness is not universal, but it is shaped by culturally specific social norms. These do not only influence how politeness is produced, but also how it is evaluated. As a result, politeness varies from culture to culture, language to language, and dialect to dialect. Successful politeness is successful communication. It depends on the right application of the right politeness at the time. Eelen supported by Watts (2003) states that politeness is not universal, but influenced and created by cultural values and that behavior ranges on a spectrum of politeness. Behavior is seen as politeness or impoliteness depending on whether it is seen on the positive or negative end of the politeness spectrum. Polite behavior is behavior that is seen as being appropriate in a certain social context, whereas impolite is seen as violating those expectations.

Moreover, Huang (2007) states that politeness is universal. It can be observed as a phenomenon in all cultures. It is used by speakers of different languages. It is also recognized as a norm in all societies. In addition, Mahmud (2008) contends that politeness is culture specific as, like all communicative acts, it carries different meanings in different cultures and it will also vary depending on certain circumstances. It meant that politeness principle does not have standard in the words meaning, depending on the society in some places.

POLITENESS LANGUAGE PATTERNS IN REQUEST

Asking other people to do things is known as making a request. Requests take many different forms and may be very polite, moderately polite or not very polite (rude). When a speaker wants the interlocutor to commit to some future action, it means of a request. According to Svartvik cited in Marzita (2009) request can be mentioned as the act to ask your hearer whether he is willing or able to do something". In politeness patterns in request, there are two types of request. The first one is syntactic realization, and the second one is lexical realization.

SYNTACTIC REALIZATION

The main important rule of a request is to make the listener understands that some actions are desired of him, but there are various ways in which this action can be achieved (Sadock 1974 in Aubed 2012). These ways are as follows:

The Imperative Sentence Types: The imperative tense in English is used to give an order, a warning, an appeal, an advice, a suggestion, an instruction and in some cases a request to another person. Palmer (1986) request can be expressed by imperative sentence. Simply take the verbs' infinitive form (without the "to" infinitive indicator). Usually the verb will be placed at the beginning of the sentence. Levinson (1983) stated that the imperative sentence is very rarely used to issue request in English. Realization of request by the imperative sentence-type can have the following forms: 1. Give me your book, 2. Don't open the window, 3. Do study for tomorrow's test, 4. Calm down, 5. Let's go for watching a movie and Have a sit. Based on the examples above, types of requests are issued to make the listener to do something for the speaker. An imperative sentence has an understandable subject (you), and the verb is in the simple form. Moreover, sometimes people use word "please" to make imperative sentence types more polite. According to Sifianou in Martinez (2009) the word "please" has been regarded as one of the most transparent politeness markers that serves to soften the imposition carried out by request being uttered.

THE INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE-TYPES

Requests can be marked by using interrogative sentence types (Sadock, cited in Aubed (2012). Besides that, Leech (1983) stated that interrogative sentence has the meaning of questioning in request. They are either Yes/No questions or Wh-questions. Yes/no interrogatives are questions that can be answered with a yes or a no response and Wh-interrogatives sentences begin with a wh-word and call for an open-ended answer. A yes or no answer is not appropriate for these questions. The following examples are: (1) Have you got a car? (yes/no question), (2) Do you have an extra piece of paper?(yes/no question, (3) Do you have some money?(yes/no question), (4) Why don't you cook for dinner?(Wh-question) Several examples show that utterance(1) has a question force; utterance (2) requesting a piece of paper; utterance (3) needs a request for some money; whereas utterance (4) has the illocutionary force of requesting for cooking for dinner (Leech, 1983).

THE DECLARATIVE SENTENCE-TYPES:

Requests can be marked by using declarative sentence-types (Leech, 1983). In addition, Palmer (1986) mentions that declarative include types statements that command. It means the term "command" used to refer request.

The following examples are: (1) I am very hungry. (A request for some food), (2) This soup needs some salt. (A request for some salt), (3) It is cold here. (A request for closing the door or the window), (4) You won't drive the car, will you? (A request for not driving the car).

In utterance (4) the tag-question has been used to confirm what is said in the first part of the utterance and its function is to make the request more tactful (Leech, 1983).

MODAL AUXILIARIES

Austin (1962) says that modal auxiliaries can be used for expressing the speech act of requesting. The following examples tell different realizations of this type of politeness in request requests : (1) Could you help me to move this table?, (2) Can you pour the tea into a cup?, (3) Will you get me a pillow?, (4) May I borrow your pen?, (5) Would you help me?, (6) Wouldn't you take me to the airport?

When the speaker used the modal auxiliary verb “can” means that the speaker is asking whether he is able to do the action or not. Can is used to make basic requests from a friend or co- worker. It is often used for small things. Can you is often used informally. It usually sounds less polite than could you or would you. May is used in request that little more formal than could (Thomson, 1984).

In addition, using the past tense form “would” or “could” means the speaker makes his request more tactful and polite. In a polite request, could has a present or future meaning, not a past meaning. The meaning of “ would you” and “ will you” in a polite request is the same. Would you is more common and is often considered more polite. The degree of politeness, however, is often determined by the speaker's tone of voice.

LEXICAL REALIZATION

In this part, Lexical realization divided into two points. Each point has several verbs that often used in request. The following points are:

Verbs: The First Category. In the first category, there are several verbs like “appeal”, “ask”, “favour”, “like”, “mind”, “oblige”, “request”, “want” can be used for marking polite requests (Swan, 1982, p. 386). These examples are: : (1) Can I appeal to you for help?, (2) I ask you to wash the dishes, (3) Will you favour us with delicious food?, (4) I would like to visit my grandmother, (5) Would you mind sweeping the floor?, (6) Could you oblige me with a bar of chocolate?, (7) I request you to send me some flowers, (8) I want four beautiful dresses, (9) I wish you would stop drinking.

In utterance (1) the lexical verb “appeal” is used to express a “direct request” in which the speaker asks strongly for something. In utterance (2) the lexical verb “ask” can be used for request (McKay, 1982). It means that when speaker used “ask” she/he wants to request something more than just an answer, such as directions, food, or help,. In utterance (3) the lexical verb in which the verb “favour” carries the idea of request explicitly. In utterance (4) the verb “like” is used to mean “want” or “wish” particularly in polite requests. In utterance (5) the lexical verb “mind” is used in the expression “would you mind” to express a polite request. In utterance (6) the lexical verb “oblige” has been used explicitly to realize the speech act of requesting (Hornby(1976) cited in Aubed(2012)). In utterance (7) the speaker explicitly uses the lexical verb “request” for the realization of a polite request. An utterance like this is called an explicit request (Austin, 1962, p. 81). In utterances (8) and (9) the lexical verbs “want” and “wish” have been used to express request explicitly.

Verbs: The Second Category. In the second category, there are several types of lexical verbs such as “appreciate”, “thank”, “trouble”, “possibly” and “wonder” that can be used for marking polite requests. The following examples are: (1) I would appreciate your help, (2) I will thank

you for the offer, (3) Could I trouble you to pass the sugar?, (4) I wonder if you wouldn't mind dropping me home? When the speaker uses the verb in utterance (1) the lexical verb "appreciate" is implicitly related with the act of requesting. In utterance (2) the lexical verb "thank" is implicitly used to request something forcefully or widely when it expresses the meaning to be pleased with someone for something. In utterance (3), the lexical verb "trouble" realizes a polite request in an indirect way and simultaneously is used in polite requests to mean "to cause inconvenience to someone". In utterance (4) the lexical verb "wonder" is associated with the act of requesting. It expresses a tentative request and is often said in a statement form (Ockenden, 1972, p. 30).

2.3. Politeness scale

2.3.1. Indirectness Scale

Indicating the amount of inferencing requires the listener to create the intention of the speaker's meaning. Indirectness scale shows the indirectness utterance is more polite than directness utterance. It means that the more utterances are indirect, the more the utterances are polite. On the other hand, the more utterances are direct, the more utterances are not polite (Leech, 1983P.108)

For example:

- 1) Answer the phone
- 2) I want you to answer phone.
- 3) Will you answer the phone?
- 4) Can you answer the phone?
- 5) Would you mind answering the phone?
- 6) Could you possibly answer phone?

Less Polite

More Polite

Textbooks are the most extensive media used in schools at present. They serve the basis of language input for learners and language practice that is used in the classroom. Goodman and Hou (2011) said that textbooks have an important role in students' learning since textbooks are important resources for learning activities in the classroom. Therefore, it is important for the students to have good quality textbooks.

Besides that, textbooks have important roles in teaching English. The teachers use textbooks to help them in transferring the materials to the students. Textbooks also provide the foundation for the content of lessons, the balance of the skills taught, and the language practiced by the students during the class activities. Liu (2005) argued that textbooks are the teaching and learning instruments for both teachers and students. Students are practicing the learning activities in the textbook, while teachers use them for teaching and giving assignments. Thus, the skills in the textbook will be embedded to the students during the learning process. They will make the teacher transfer the teaching materials easily.

Furthermore, a textbook has an important role for the teachers and students in teaching and learning English. It becomes a main element of teaching English. The importance and role of the textbook in the teaching and learning process are certainly recognized by both teachers and students. In other words, the role of textbooks relates the teachers, the students, and the success of English teaching and learning process.

Textbooks are used by the teachers in order to make their teaching more effective. Without a textbook, the teacher will find some difficulties to deliver the materials to the students. A textbook is also as a classroom management tool for interaction between the teachers and students. The textbook will save the time and give direction to the lessons and discussions.

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Methodology of The Perceptual-Auditory Experiment

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Abstract: *Auditory phonetics studies the way in which humans perceive sounds. As a branch of phonetics, it investigates the processes of underlying human speech perception. The starting point for any auditory analysis of speech is the study of the human hearing system that is the anatomy and physiology of the ear and the brain. Since the hearing system cannot react to all features in a sound wave it is essential to determine what we perceive and how we perceive it. This enormously complex field is referred to as speech perception and this area is not only of interest to phonetics but it is also the province of Experimental Psychology. People in the process of perceiving sounding speech extract information not only from the acoustic properties of the utterance but also from the linguistic context and communication situation, predicting the general meaning of the perceived message*

Key word: *phonetics, word stress, speech perception, prominence, segmental\suprasegmental units.*

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INTRODUCTION

One of the main features of experimental research is conducting experiments on speech perception, i.e. perceptual (from Lat. perception "perception") experiments. "Speech perception" thus refers to the set of operations that transform an auditory signal into representations of a form that makes contact with internally stored information – that is, the stored words in a listener's mental lexicon [1, 430]

Speech perception is considered in psychology and physiology of speech, in psycholinguistics and psychology of speech, it is also an integral part of experimental phonetics. This is stated in the linguistic encyclopedic dictionary as follows: "Speech perception is in experimental and general phonetics a set of mechanisms that ensure the transition from the primary phonetic description of a sound or a sound sequence to its interpretation as a certain unit of the language system. In this regard, the perceptual correlates of supra-segmental units (stress, intonation), which are used in the perception of sound units of different levels, are investigated" [2, 86-87]. The modern stage of the development of linguistics is characterized by an increased interest in the problem of studying various aspects of sounding speech. One of the promising areas that have recently attracted linguists, is perceptual phonetics, which studies the peculiarities of perception of foreign language speech. Human perception is a complex process of receiving and processing information. Scientists note a number of differences that exist between the perception of written and spoken speech. In the process of reading, it is possible to control the rate of information receipt and segment the incoming signal, which seems impossible when perceiving the message by ear.

Difficulties of perception can arise not only because of the nature of a different sound of segmental speech (sound - syllable - word), but also at a super-segmental level (division into syntagmatic, logical stress and verbal stress). While the situation or context often helps native speakers in perceiving a particular language reality, listeners for whom the sounding speech is not native rely mainly on the phonetic component. Thus, any deviations from the pronunciation norm will interfere with the perception of information by those for whom English is not their native language.

It is known that in English words can vary in sound depending on whether they are pronounced in the flow of speech or isolated. Interconnected sound combinations are pronounced in the speech stream- the articulation of any sound is influenced by the articulation of neighboring sounds, i.e. it is subject to co-articulation. There are no pauses in coherent speech that correspond to the intervals of written speech. As a rule, pauses in speech are used not between two words following each other, but between groups of words that can be considered one phonetic segment. Such a combination of sounds, pronounced by native speakers, is deciphered through the situation and with the help of standard phrases.

MATERIALS AND DISCUSSIONS

There are a number of factors that have a significant impact on the phonetic structure of the word and causing noticeable changes [3, 24]]. These include features of the distribution of phrasal stress, some rhythmic-melodic features, as well as sound modifications at the junctions of phonemes and words.

The word has a certain phonetic structure, characterized by stability and at the same time flexibility, which allows modification of the sound of the word depending on the pronunciation of the final sentence or the individual characteristics of the speaker. Spontaneous sounding speech is characterized by the phenomenon of sound defecation caused by the fact that when

phonemes are connected in chains, the organs of speech adapt to the rapid change of articulations, providing a more convenient transition from one articulation to another, while changing the quality of sounds. To the most typical cases of interaction of sounds in the speech stream in modern English include such processes as assimilation, reduction and elision. It should be noted that cases of modification of sounds in spontaneous speech are constantly present and are of great importance for understanding what was heard. Here are some examples: – It's a real problem keeping *those stocks* free of vermin. / It's a real problem keeping *those docks* free of vermin. Это настоящая проблема содержать запасы недоступными для мышей и крыс. / Это настоящая проблема содержать доки недоступными для мышей и крыс.

– Give me a signal when the stern rope is *tied*, will you? / Give me a signal when the stern rope is *tight*, will you? / Ты мне дашь сигнал, когда кормовой будет закреплен? / Ты мне дашь сигнал, когда кормовой будет туго натянут?

In the first example, there is a chain of sounds of two consecutive words *those stocks* and *those docks*: [z] – [s] - [t] and [z] - [d]. In the first pair of words, when pronounced quickly, the sound [s] drops out and, under the influence of the assimilation, the deaf [t] rings. In the second example, the words differ only in one sound in sonority/deafness. It is known that Russian-speaking people tend to stun voiced consonants. As a result, the recipient can hear different words in communication.

One of the factors contributing to the emergence of assimilation can be called the style of speech. As a rule, in colloquial speech, characterized by carelessness of pronunciation, a sufficiently high tempo and economy of pronouncing efforts, the assimilation of consonants occurs much more often than in official speech with its measured pace, when sounds are pronounced more carefully and modification processes are less pronounced.

Another example of modification of sounds in speech is reduction, which occurs when sounds are less clearly pronounced. As a result, there is a weakening and a change in the sound of unstressed syllables. With a very strong reduction, unstressed vowels can reach zero, i.e. cease to be pronounced, for example:

- *Does the helmsman understand English?* (Рулевой понимает английский язык?)
- *Double bottom plating.* (Настил двойного дна).
- *Assistance is no longer required.* (Помощь больше не нужна).

The most common phenomenon in the flow of speech is elision, a process in which the articulation of any sound is not realized in careless or successful speech, i.e., this sound is dropped out. This phenomenon is characteristic of both colloquial speech and neutral style. The elision can be attributed to the loss of the labial-dental slit sound in the preposition “of” before consonants (this is especially characteristic before the interdental) at a faster tempo, omission of the alveolar sounds /d, t/, reduction of the doubled consonant. As a result of mishearing, incorrect information can be accepted. An example is the following sentences:

– Lack of *attention* seems to have been the main cause of the accident. / Lack of *tension* seems to have been the main cause of the accident. Кажется, недостаток внимания явился основной причиной несчастного случая. / Кажется, недостаток напряжения явился основной причиной несчастного случая.

– We would have started loading at 09:00 hours but it's a *horrid day*. / We would have

started loading at 09:00 hours but it's a *holiday*. Мы бы начали погрузку в 9 часов утра, но это ужасный день. / Мы бы начали погрузку в 9 часов утра, но это праздничный день.

– Apparently there's been a change of plan; we're *now to* go to Rotterdam. / Apparently there's been a change of plan; we're *not to* go to Rotterdam. Видимо, план изменился, и мы сейчас должны идти в Роттердам. / Видимо, план изменился, и мы не идем в Роттердам.

– You *can't tell* what the pilot's thinking by the look on his face. / You *can tell* what the pilot's thinking by the look on his face. Ты не можешь сказать, что думает лодман, по выражению его лица. / Ты можешь сказать, что думает лодман, по выражению его лица.

Let's consider another aspect of sounding speech that makes it difficult to perceive foreign language speech – the problem of segmentation or differentiation of the speech flow. Perceiving speech by ear, recipients face not only the problem of identifying modified word forms, but also the correct interpretation of phonetic words, with the correct division of speech into segments and, consequently, with the definition of the context of the utterance. According to A. Hill's definition, "An utterance will not be understood even when all the vowels, consonants and accents that make up it are recognized. For a complete understanding it is absolutely necessary recognize the boundaries between them" [4, 5].

A special role in coherent speech can be played by sound units to indicate the beginnings and ends of morphemes and words. This is a delimitative, or delimitative, function. The delimiter signs of the phonetic system should include acoustic signs associated with boundary signals within a continuous speech continuum: a hard attack of vowels the beginning of the word, the refraction of the tone between two borderline syllables, pause, stress. These signs play an important role in segmentation of the speech flow.

It should be noted that, unlike the sense-distinguishing function, the delimitative function of phonemes and their groups does not appear regularly in the language, but the presence of this phenomenon is indisputable, which requires special study. Here are examples demonstrating the above:

– If that reefer hadn't been *so old* we might have been able to arrange a charter. / If that reefer hadn't been *sold* we might have been able to arrange a charter. Если бы этот рефрижератор не был таким старым, мы бы смогли организовать чартерный рейс. / Если бы этот рефрижератор не был продан, мы бы смогли организовать чартерный рейс.

– Coastguard, this is Seabird. We are *at anchor* in the Medway Firth. / We are *a tanker* in the Medway Firth. Береговая охрана, это «Морская птица» (позывной). Мы на якоре в лимане Медуэй. / Наш танкер в лимане Медуэй.

– The Radio Officer asked the Master for a *new assistant*. / The Radio Officer asked the Master for a *newer system*. Радист попросил у капитана нового помощника. / Радист попросил у капитана более новую систему.

Thus, it can be concluded that knowledge of the modification of words under the influence of various kinds of phonetic processes facilitates the perception of the "seamless" structure of speech and that when perceiving sound-rich speech, it is necessary not only to rely on the lexicogrammatical aspect of the language, but also to take into account the articulation of sounds and segmentation of the speech flow.

Thus, a comprehensive study of the problems of perception and speech recognition for listeners based on articulation and acoustics seems promising. To solve this problem, linguistics needs to closely collaborate with psychology, physiology and physics.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Speech perception can be called the process of extracting the meaning behind the external form of speech utterances. When perceiving, the listener uses not only acoustic information extracted by the auditory system from the speech signal, but also other, primarily linguistic knowledge, including knowledge of the dictionary of language signs and the system of sound means, therefore, knowledge of the laws of its construction is required for speech perception [5, 197].

According to S. Kodzasov and O. Krivnova, the main stages of speech perception are as follows:

1. acoustic signal reception;
2. primary auditory analysis;
3. isolation of acoustic events and signs;
4. linguistic interpretation of the sound side of a speech message [5, 197].

For perceptual phonetics, the reception of an acoustic signal and its primary auditory analysis are of interest, first of all. According to scientists, the main purpose of this section of phonetic science is to understand which perceptive phonetic mechanisms provide speech perception in natural conditions of sound communication [5, 88]. This is an extremely difficult task, the complete solution of which is a matter of the future.

Thus, R.K. Potapova notes the complexity of the nature of prosodic phenomena and their differentiation in the flow of speech: "Prosodic and sound aspects of speech are so closely intertwined that it is difficult to divide them into two separate areas. Perception is an active process that tries to use any information that can be determined and reliably interpreted" [6, 2]. It is known that the study of speech perception problems is one of the relevant tasks of both general linguistics and applied phonetics, as one of its sections. Domestic scientists agree that the lack of research in the field of perceptual phonetics and the lack of knowledge of its functional side is the main problem of Kazakh (and in general Turkic) phonetics [7, 10]. In this regard, it is essential to conduct various kinds of experiments in order to more scrupulous and accurate analysis of the phonetic organization of speech. Such experiments include, relevant in modern linguistics, a perceptual experiment, the methodological validity of which is supported by its theoretical significance and the practice of conducting an experimental analysis of the prosody of a word in various languages.

In accordance with the methodology, when conducting perceptual experiments, the researcher should formulate the tasks that he intends to solve with the help of a certain test. It is known that the organizational side of the study depends on the purpose, objectives and content of the experiment: the choice of the studied speech material, the method of obtaining it, the selection of participants (speakers and auditors) of the experiment, etc.

METHODOLOGY

Due to the fact that the tasks of perceptual experiments are usually associated with the study of a person's ability to classify, distinguish or evaluate the similarity between speech or speech-like stimuli, before conducting a perceptual experiment, the following algorithm of actions should be performed:

- make a list of the language units analyzed in the experiment;
 - record and save sound files in the computer (each sound file is one utterance);
 - record the studied sounds with repetition (give them a name, symbols);
 - consider each statement separately: listen to it and visually view it;
 - record audio files in random order on an audio medium;
 - segment each utterance, i.e. specify the boundaries between syllables in each file and add the text of each syllable to the drawing of the intonation contour of this utterance;
 - place the answer matrix in random order;
 - develop response sheets;
 - identify the relevant syntagma of each utterance;
-
- determine the size of the interval between the initial and final frequency of tone movement, i.e. set the boundaries between syllables, as well as determine the duration of each syllable;
 - describe phonetic correlates (intensity, duration, tone movement) [8, 15].

The entire algorithm of the above actions, of course, is performed using computer programs (for example, Pratt, Speech analyzer, Audacity, Gold Wave, etc.).

With the help of such universal computer programs, the following actions are performed:

- the analyzed language material is recorded digitally;
- each utterance is segmented;
- specify the boundaries between syllables in each file;
- the text of each syllable is added to the drawing of the intonation contour of this utterance.

It is important to note that the above actions require a comprehensive knowledge of computer programs from the researcher. Otherwise, the results of the study may be incorrect.

The next important stage of the experiment organization is the process of selecting speakers, which should be carried out in accordance with the general requirements of experimental phonetics [9, 82].

According to the requirements, the speaker must:

- * have perfect orthopedically correct pronunciation;
- * be able to speak in front of a microphone;
- * do not have organic and functional pronunciation defects, etc.

When selecting speakers, it is important to take into account the frequency range of the male voice from 100-250 Hz, the female voice from 200-350 Hz) [8, 29].

In accordance with the general requirements described in the works on experimental phonetics, the speakers must be native speakers of the literary language. During the recording, the following technical conditions are observed:

- * announcers are on equal terms;
- * provides silence and the absence of the influence of extraneous noise;
- * exposure by others.

Of particular importance is the preparation for recording and the preparation of instructions for speakers. At the stage of preparing the announcers for recording, an instruction is given with a detailed explanation of the goals, objectives and conditions of recording, since the recording conditions must ensure the unambiguity of the results obtained [9, 234].

The recorded material is presented to native-speaking auditors. In this regard, it should be particularly noted that the selection of auditors is an equally significant factor in the success of the experimental part of the study. In addition, one of the important conditions is the correct

preparation of instructions in which the tasks for the subjects should be formulated clearly, clearly, concretely. Thus, an auditor conducting an "analysis of the sound features of speech perceived and understood by ear, in ordinary utterance or in a tape recording" must:

- * have normal hearing (in both ears);
- * have a high level of auditory intelligibility;
- * be successful in learning listening;
- * maintain audit focus;
- * have a high degree of concentration and distribution of attention;
- * be able to predict the semantic content and deployment of the linguistic side of the audible message [9, 85-86].

During the experiment, the general requirements for the selection of auditors are taken into account, the number of which should be at least 40 people. On average, 50 to 100 auditors participate in speech perception experiments.

The next significant and difficult task of a perceptual experiment is the selection of experimental material and the procedure for recording it, since the effectiveness of the task undoubtedly depends on the choice of the material under study. For example, if an experiment is conducted to determine verbal stress, isolated words are selected as the material under study.

According to L.R. Zinder, in the experimental phonetic study of verbal stress, one should not limit oneself to reading a list of isolated words only, because the subject will read them, if not with an enumerative, then with a nominal intonation. For the purity of the experiment, it is necessary to select experimental material in such a way that the selected word, firstly, is part of sentences pronounced with different intonation, and secondly, occupies different positions in their structure. Only in this case, the task assigned to the subject will be reduced to "finding in the stressed syllable such signs that will be invariant with respect to phrasal intonation" [10, 267].

According to the perceptual experiment methodology, the audit analysis consists of three stages:

1. listening to statements and determining their naturalness;
2. definition of the words highlighted by the speaker in the utterance (definition of accentuated words in the phrase);
3. definition of syllables highlighted by the speaker in the word (definition of a strong syllable).

Determining the naturalness/unnaturalness of an utterance is an important task of perceptual experiments. So, the purpose of the first stage of the perceptual experiment is to determine the perception of statements for naturalness.

CONCLUSION

It should be noted that when conducting a perceptual-auditory experiment, sounds, isolated words, words in the speech stream, etc. can act as the studied material. It depends on the purpose and purpose of the study. But in general, if we talk about the technique of preparing and conducting a perceptual audit experiment, all the above requirements should be observed.

Sum up, the features of the perception of speech sounds by the human hearing organ is examined by auditory phonetics, in particular by perceptual-auditory experiment. It is designed to answer the questions about what sound properties are essential for human perception of speech (for example, for recognizing a given phoneme), taking into account the changing

acoustic and articulatory characteristics of speech signals, that is, what are the perceptual correlates of relevant (essential) features of phonemes and prosodies. There is a consideration that people in the process of perceiving sounding speech extract information not only from the acoustic properties of the utterance but also from the linguistic context and communication situation, predicting the general meaning of the perceived message.

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Translation in Fashion and The Art of Dressing

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***Abstract:** This paper discusses the theoretical and methodological issues of translating fashion words and expressions and compares these with the expectations and perceptions of students*

Results indicate that when analyzing the translation of the fashionable terminology of glossy magazines, it is noticed that for most of the terms translators do not find equivalents in Russian and use tracing and transcription, especially for shoe designs. It is assumed that it is for this sense of communication in global simplicity. We can conclude that a large layer of vocabulary is translated by tracing, transliteration of transcription in the absence of an equivalent in the target language.

***Key words:** fashion industry, clothing design, equivalent, methods of translation, tracing, transcription, transliteration*

Article History

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INTRODUCTION

The fashion industry plays a significant role in influencing society. Thanks to fashion, public opinion is being formed. This circumstance is due to the direct position of the fashion industry in the system of social institutions and the limited access of the audience to the information circulating in it. Delivery of information about current events, new collections and trends of the season is carried out thanks to the media, acting as a kind of filter of news facts.

It should be pointed out what happened in the fashion industry in the second half of the 20th century. Almost all fashion houses were located in Europe and with the outbreak of World War II either closed or moved to the United States. It was there that the designers continued to create. It was in the USA that a new mass production of clothes was opened and developed, new types of fabrics were invented (for example, nylon - nylon), new styles and directions of malls (street fashion - street

Examples of the most recognizable terms in the field of clothing design and fashion can be such as: prayer, manskin, catwalk, runway, and even a thread with a needle. These words are words that are understandable to a native.

METHODS

When reviewing various articles in fashion magazines, it was noticed that some lexical units that entered the Russian language in the first third - mid-twentieth centuries. Also, when analyzing the translation of the fashionable terminology of glossy magazines, we noticed that for most of the terms translators do not find equivalents in Russian and use tracing and transcription, especially for shoe designs. It is assumed that it is for this sense of communication in global simplicity. For example, on the Internet. It will be easier for users of the Instagram platform to achieve mutual understanding, as well as to save speech means.

The section of footwear terminology is of the greatest interest in translation, since world famous brands, competing with each other, create new footwear models almost every month. And therefore, in the communication of a modern person, a tendency has appeared to use, instead of words denoting varieties of shoes, the names of brands adapted to Russian speech: "Найки"(Nike), "канверсы" (Converse), "Vans", "бэлэнсы" (New balance). Лабутены (Christian Louboutin), Угги (UGG), Тимба (Timberland Company), etc. In these examples, several translation techniques are used, such as transcription and transliteration in combination with tracing.

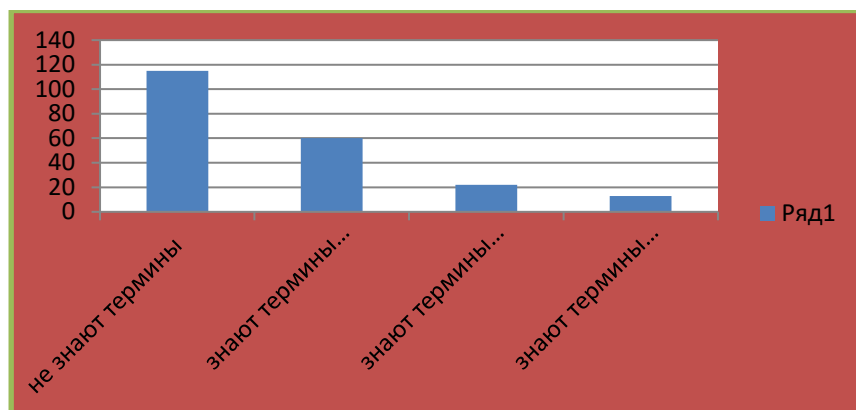
PERCEIVED OUTCOMES

Besides in the course of our research, an internet survey was also carried out 213 respondents of different age and gender and education answered the questions on the topic "Do you know the terms of the mole?"

It was found that 52% of respondents do not know the listed terms, 27% know the terms but do not give a definition, 17% know the terms and partially give definitions, and only 4% know the terms and definitions. It was found that young people from 17 to 23 are most knowledgeable in this topic, and people aged 45 have little command of the presented vocabulary.

Therefore, with regard to the research practice itself, one can draw the following important conclusion: before starting translation, it is important to understand for which audience the translation is being performed. Because for the youth target audience, for example, speaking of flesh color nude, it is not necessary to translate literally or translate in principle. But if the

translator translates for a more mature target audience, whose representatives find it more difficult to adapt foreign words in their speech, then you need to translate with the explanations: nude - a color that has flesh tints.



CONCLUSION

So, we can conclude that a large layer of vocabulary is translated by tracing, transliteration of transcription in the absence of an equivalent in the target language. Subsequently, the language is replenished with borrowed vocabulary, which, on the one hand, has a positive effect on the volume of the lexicon of the language, but on the other hand, the abundance of foreign words projects misunderstanding in the communication of representatives of different target audiences. For this reason, an additional descriptive active stock of the language. most of the items require special attention for further implementation.

Based on the practice of research into the features of translation of terms in the field of fashion, the main conclusions were also made:

1. The main principle of this research work is the term conveyed by the term.
2. To adequately present the content of the lexical unit. The translator requires knowledge of not only Russian terminology, but also English, having previously studied all the components of this unit.
3. At present, a bilingual dictionary is not always trusted source. For an adequate translation, the translator requires certain skills in working with such lexical units and knowledge of the appropriate methodology.
4. Most of the texts on fashion are written in a journalistic style with artistic elements; in this kind of texts, in contrast to the texts of the scientific style, some terms, especially the native ones for the English language, are recognized more corporeally, metaphorical terms are often used. which also complicates the translation process. Therefore, the translator must first isolate such lexical units from the general language ones and, accordingly, determine the methods of their translation.
5. If there is no equivalent term in the translation language in the scientific text, the translator borrows it or creates a new one, or also adds a terminological meaning to the general language unit.
6. Today the problem of translation is urgent. The difficulties of translation are related to traditions with differences in culture and language

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Types of Translation and Their Features

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***Abstract:** The article is devoted to the study of the most common types of translation in the work of a translator. Considerable attention is paid to how the types of translation differ, some problems associated with these types are analyzed, and the most obvious features inherent in each of the distinguished types of translation are considered.*

***Key words:** Types, classification of translation, translation, oral translation, simultaneous key translation, consecutive translation, literary translation, special translation.*

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INTRODUCTION

The work of any linguist-translator can include a wide variety of functions and often depends on conditions, which also vary and depend on many factors. The main material for the translator is the text, regardless of its appearance. The texts for translation, as well as the working conditions, are also very diverse: they differ in many ways, from the topic and genre to the languages that the translator has to work with [1]. In different conditions, different requirements may be imposed on translators, which may relate to both the accuracy and completeness of the translation. Much in the activity of a translator also depends on the form in which the translation is performed, because some types of translation require special knowledge and skills from the translator. There are several types of translation in translation theory. Each of these types can have significant features, which, in turn, necessitates a scientific classification of the types of translation activities. Therefore, for any person who wants to become a real professional in the field of translation, first of all, it is necessary to get acquainted with the theory, find out what difficulties he will face in the process of working as a translator.

All types of translations can be divided into two large classes: by the nature of the translated texts and by the nature of the translator's speech actions during the translation process. The first classification is associated with the genre and stylistic features of the original, the second - with the psycholinguistic features of speech actions in written and oral form.

Psycholinguistic classification of translation, in turn, divides translation activity into two more types: translation and interpretation.

Written translation is a type of translation in which both the original text and the translated text are fixed printed texts, which the translator has the opportunity to refer to during the translation process as many times as necessary in order to ensure the most accurate translation. Also, the translator, when performing a written translation, has the opportunity to make the necessary changes in the translation text before the translation is presented to the recipient.

Interpretation is a type of translation in which the main meaning of an oral utterance is transferred from one language to another. A notable feature of oral translation is its non-fixed form, i.e. the translator can only perceive the original text once (usually it is a small segment of it), and also has no opportunity to compare or correct his translation after its completion. This is the main difference between written and oral translation: when performing written translation, the translator has enough time to think, compare definitions and terms, carefully read the text and understand its meaning even before the complete translation is completed. In interpreting, responsiveness is considered the main skill. Therefore, it is not surprising that written and oral translations are carried out by people with different temperaments.

You can also distinguish two subspecies of interpretation: simultaneous and consecutive. Simultaneous translation is a type of oral translation in which the translator pronounces the translation almost simultaneously with the speech of the speaker, the difference between the reproduction of the speech of the speaker and the translator is only a few seconds. Simultaneous interpretation usually requires the use of special equipment that allows the interpreter to speak at the same time as the speaker.

This special equipment is a cabin with headphones and a microphone. Through the first, the translator hears the speech of the speaker, which he needs to translate, and the second, accordingly, is used in order to pronounce his translation. Then the translation is broadcast to the recipient. Because simultaneous interpreters usually work at conferences, official international meetings and other similar events, then the recipients receive their translation through headphones. The availability of such equipment, both for the translator and for the recipient, helps the translators not to get lost in the sound of their own voice. Since the implementation of simultaneous translation is a rather strenuous work, a shift for such translators lasts about half an hour, therefore, at least two translators usually work at one event, alternately replacing each other. As already mentioned, how not every translator can work orally, so not every interpreter can work simultaneously.

Consecutive interpretation is one of the subspecies of oral translation, which is carried out by an interpreter during pauses in the speaker's speech. The pauses are often short, so a really good specialist should deal with consecutive translation, because you need to have time to translate the speaker's speech, forming the speech when this speech is already being delivered. Therefore, this type of translation requires an excellent memory from the translator, thanks to which the translator will be able to memorize the content of the orator's speech segments for a sufficiently long time, waiting for the moment the translation starts. Depending on the volume of the original, the translator can write down the main points of the content, which will help him to restore the listened segment of speech in his memory and then translate it without missing any important details [2].

Firstly, this is the time allotted for translation: when translating, the time frame is discussed with the customer, after a certain time the customer can receive the finished work. But when interpreting (including both simultaneous and consecutive), the interpreter is limited in his actions. For many reasons (for example, topics of speech, speaker), translators do not have enough time to think and choose the right option from several, and even more so, there is no opportunity to clarify any information in the reference literature.

A huge role is played by the developed semi-automatic skills, knowledge of any stable correspondences, the presence of the ability to clearly and timely reformulate expressions into the target language. Secondly, when carrying out written translation, the translator can take the opportunity to view the entire text before starting the translation. When interpreting, it is necessary to do everything "right off the bat", accepting and translating the original text in parts, being able to correctly link them together. Thirdly, when carrying out written translation, the translator has the opportunity to choose the most comfortable working conditions for himself. In interpretation, many factors "put pressure" on the translator, in this case, to work he has to completely leave his comfort zone [3].

The genre-stylistic classification of translation is also divided into two types of translation: artistic and informative, or special. These two types are contrasted with each other. This opposition is based on the most basic functions that artistic and special texts perform. For literary texts it is an artistic and aesthetic function, for special texts it is a function of communication.

Literary translation is usually the translation of fiction. To carry out this type of translation, the translator must also possess various skills that will help him achieve the main goal of works of fiction - to provide a certain aesthetic impact. Or, in the language of translation theory, the recipient of the translation should have a corresponding pragmatic impact.

Informative translation is the translation of materials that relate to a specific area of knowledge and include the appropriate terminology. These can be business, scientific or general political texts, as well as everyday texts, detective stories, travel descriptions, essays, official business materials. This subdivision of types of translation into fictional and informative is based on the main functions of the original, which the translator must fully convey in translation [3].

In addition to the main types of translation listed above, there are others. Thus, the types of translation can be divided into categories according to the following criteria:

- by quality;
- by the way of execution;
- by the ratio of types of source and target languages;
- on the basis of completeness and method of content of the source text;
- on the basis of primary / non-primary origin.

Let's consider each of these types of translation in more detail.

A quality translation is a translation that is closest to the original text in terms of structure and meaning. The following subspecies of this type of translation can be distinguished according to the degree of its implementation:

- free (does not literally coincide with the original);
- literal (such a translation is also called "word for word");
- adequate (the meaning of the pragmatic potential of the original is preserved, but at the same time the translation is not literal, but literary);
- exact (characterized by the property of semantic precision);
- authentic (translation of official documents that have the same legal force with the original);
- certified (the accuracy of the translation is legally certified);
- interpretation (adapted translation, pragmatically translated).

By the method of implementation, the following translation subspecies can be distinguished:

- manual (translation made by a person, and this person is not the author of the original text);
- machine translation (translation performed using a special computer program);
- mixed (manual translation using machine translation and vice versa);
- author's (translation, which was made by the author of the original text);
- authorized (translation approved by the original author).

According to the ratio of the types of the source and target languages, there are:

- intralingual (interpretation of verbal signs using signs of the same language);
- diachronic (translation of historical texts into modern language);
- interlanguage (translation from one language to another);
- transposition (translation of one genre or style into another genre or style);

- binary (translation from one natural language into another natural language);
- intersmotic (translation from a natural language into another artificial language);

On the basis of completeness and the method of content of a similar text, the following translation subspecies can be distinguished:

- complete (translation that conveys the semantic content of the original without gaps and any abbreviations);
- abbreviated (the text is not fully translated, but abbreviated if compared with the original);
- fragmentary (translation not of the entire text, but only of a separate passage or excerpts);
- aspect (translation of excerpts related only to a given topic).

Based on the primary / non-primary character of the original, the following translation subspecies can be distinguished:

- direct (translation is carried out directly from the original);
- indirect (translation of already translated text);
- reverse (educational translation of the translated text into the original language) [3].

Having considered the most common types of translation and their features, we can conclude that in addition to the basic and known to almost everyone types of translation (oral and written, artistic and special), there are several more classifications of translation, and each such classification has its own characteristics. Particular attention must be paid to working with oral translation, the skills of both simultaneous and consecutive translation require a certain structure and must be clearly worked out to automatism.

And if a real translator really strives to be considered a professional in his field, then naturally, he needs to be well aware of all these types and their specifics. Possessing all the necessary skills, the translator will be able to choose the most suitable and effective work algorithm for himself, will be ready to solve problems for which he will be ready in advance and will be able to become a real professional in his field.

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Students' Knowledge Observation by the help of Informative Program Tools

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Abstract: *The fact that the teacher checks the performance of the evaluation is evidence that we can save the time spent on working on it and gathering new knowledge on science. Automated assessment of students' assessment can result in reduced stereotypical risk situations. The proof of this hypothesis is evident in the results obtained. The results of students' surveys also show that students prefer to pass exams on computer rather than teachers. In the study, we recommend that the research on the effectiveness of students' assessment of computer technology should be continued in an expanded manner. It is also important to increase the information and communication capacities of higher education institutions and enrich the technical basis of the institution.*

Key words: *Assessment, appraising apparatus, modern technology, evaluation models, communication technologies, cognitive independence, graphics, educational goal, automated assessment, assimilate*

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INTRODUCTION

It is obvious from the history that human civilization has undergone various periods, rocky times, hot times, iron eras. This sort of burst of time was, of course, the product of the labor weapon. The fact that scientists call the 21st century as the age of information technology is the fact that today the main weapon used in all aspects of social life is computers, or in other words, information technology. Nowadays, all of the spheres demand modern technologies. So, does learning foreign languages. Language learning cannot be imagined without the use of multimedia teaching aids. The ability to illustrate the actual process of communication in English, the need to approach the educational environment to the real conditions of the target language and culture are urgent method tasks of teaching foreign languages. Utilizing computer technology in teaching is of great importance due to the new opportunities. New information and communication technologies expand access to education and generate educational system. In addition, the representation of qualified characteristics, which must have a modern graduate, is going to be changed by modern technology.

A GREAT NUMBER OF ADVANTAGES OF THE CURRENT ISSUE

The great Indian philosopher, politician and philosopher Mahatma Gandhi said: "If I want to ventilate the room, I have to open the windows to allow fresh air, but dust will also come into the room with fresh air." If we take a deeper look at these puzzling words, we are not dealing with a problem facing today (computer technology), but we must subordinate ourselves to compel us to work for our benefit we understand that it is necessary. There are a great number of advantages of the current issue. For example, teachers use a computer to be able to immediately respond to the information entered to make teaching processes simple and concise.

Further benefits of the modern technology as followings:

- making educational institutes and universities enhance;
- fostering the development of learning and teaching process;
- Creating new methods and forms of work organization;
- developing the ability to use different sources of information and finding the necessary one developing students' cognitive independence;
- representing any type of activity in the form of pictures or animations;
- allowing to create interactive communication between different language groups;
- getting aware of new vocabulary;
- creating a global network of millions of users around the world, etc.

You just have to look at the problem from a different angle, but the problem is not the computer technology but the learning itself. Perhaps the education system in Uzbekistan has failed to meet today's requirements. The primary issue of education informatics is the problem of creating an automated system for evaluating students' learning. Why automation is a major problem, and this is the most difficult task. Creating electronic books, e-books, and electronic materials is not a problem, and it has already been resolved. One of the most important tasks in the process of creating computer systems for teaching is the organization of knowledge control. Of course, computers serve to facilitate our lives, but it is natural that there are various obstacles to using in educational purposes. Ensuring that knowledge is as objective as possible on a computerized basis depends largely on the right choice of evaluation methodology. The correct method of the method allows you to get reliable information about their knowledge, taking into account their individual abilities. Control methods and evaluation models are interrelated. The knowledge we need to make in our students is based on an educational objective.

KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

Knowledge management is based on these educational goals. Selection of knowledge assessment methods should also include educational goals. When creating an automated appraising apparatus, the key issue we need to consider is to create a correct algorithm that identifies learning objectives. What models should be used in the knowledge-based computer system? It depends on how much information about the student and his work in the automated system.

Here's how to implement a computerized test: Introduction of computer testing not only demonstrates the level of preparation of the student, but also entails deeper knowledge acquisition and stimulates independent work.

Daily testing makes it easy to carry out current supervision, all of which are evaluated in accordance with the rule, the assessment is quick (within only 20 minutes), which ensures that students do not get bored. Interim controls during the semester will help identify the weaknesses of each student. This makes it easier for them to organize their own business in time. The results of each student's final exam results in increased competitiveness and motivation in the learning process, which increase students' sense of responsibility for their knowledge level. The experimental trials have proven the hypotheses we have propounded. In particular, the fact that the first part of our hypothesis, that is, automatic logging of the assessment can reduce the total time spent on the control and evaluation process several times, can be found in the above. Computerized control reduces the time spent on the evaluation to double the cost. An automated assessment scheme can be an effective tool to counteract fake (artificial) assessment that may occur during conventional assessment. This hypothesis was proven in the third stage of experimental testing. Even if the students are in a very poor position, not all team members are likely to fall from the exams, and 30% have to pass the exam at a satisfactory level.

The usage of new technology can help the teacher to find more interesting and varied teaching material, to carry out a differentiated approach to each student, and thus to have students assimilate necessary knowledge and skills. Multimedia Technology is considered as an information technology training that integrates audiovisual information. It includes text, video, audio, graphics, animation, etc. Several advantages of multimedia technology in the learning process are as follows:

- improving the process of organic combination of traditional methods of education with innovation;
- Implementing information, games, modeling, design and analysis functions;
- performing the visibility, accessibility, difficulty feasible, system, transition from education to self-education; creating positive emotional background of training.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it is noteworthy to mention that modern teaching science is using new technologies in teaching more than ever. Innovative technologies are acting as special intellectual activity and means having plenty of advantages at present. They support students with linguistic abilities and represent them the basis of distance learning. Moreover, they create an artificial language environment and allow to learn a foreign language increasing students' independence and responsibility. Thus, they trigger teaching methods to flourish and ensure the highest learning levels.

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Analysis of thematic classifications of euphemisms

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***Abstract:** This article is devoted to a linguistic denomination so called euphemistic units. Studying the use of euphemisms facilitates intercultural communication and helps to understand better the role of a language in society, the interrelation between a language and culture. Article also discusses external factors that occur in the dialectical unit in the speech occurrence of euphemistic units.*

***Key word:** Euphemism, verbal signs, thematic groups, softening words, rough words, figurative, metaphorical.*

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INTRODUCTION

Language is a mirror of national customs, values, traditions. The language of any nation is first and foremost a testament to its past and culture. When learning a foreign language, along with the language, we need to study the way of life, mentality, worldview, culture of the people. Therefore, in recent times, scientists and political scientists have been drawing attention to the specificity of the value of cultural and civilizational differences between peoples. Socio-pragmatic and linguo-cultural study of language units, which are one of the main carriers of ethnocultural values, has become one of the main directions of modern linguistics.

Euphemistic units are multifaceted phenomena, which allows them to be classified differently on the basis of each sign. After all, individual speech-specific euphemisms are a combination of linguistic and non-linguistic factors, and only the generalization of the results obtained on the basis of these factors allows to determine the individual nature of each euphemism, as well as individual idiolect euphemisms. Below we divide the classification features of speech-specific euphemisms into two major groups:

- 1) verbal signs;
- 2) non-verbal characters.

According to American linguist R. Adams, euphemism is not just a collection of linguistic expressions. According to the researcher, euphemisms consist of a large number of nonverbal signals. Nonverbal signals include a hotel that does not have an “unlucky” room 13, such as floor numbering.

Classification based on linguistic signs is based on thematic, semantic, formal, methodological features of euphemistic units.

Classification based on nonlinear signs, on the other hand, takes into account the external factors that occur in the dialectical unit in the speech occurrence of euphemistic units. These include pragmatic factors related to speech conditions and situation, along with purely linguistic factors such as the worldview, level, positive or negative image of the speaker and listener, gender, age. The implicit appearances of euphemisms also evoke the impression that they are of a non-linguistic nature. However, since the value of the implicit euphemism is perceived on the basis of the original term of the denotation, it is preferable to consider it also as a linguistic means.

Euphemisms are a moving layer of the vocabulary of any language - in fact new units of this phenomenon appear every day. Many authors who have studied the phenomenon of euphemism have tried to classify these units. Types of classification vary depending on the basis of the classification. L.P. Krysin divides euphemisms into the following thematic groups: Discrimination-related euphemisms: racial, cultural, religious, gender-related euphemisms;

1. Euphemisms for scary and unpleasant events: death, illness, natural needs, physical disabilities, mental and emotional disorders;
2. Euphemisms related to the impact of the state on people's lives: military action, social ills (alcoholism, drug addiction, prostitution, crime, lying), poverty, unpopular occupations, family, government agencies, dismissal, winter failure.;
3. Euphemisms denoting the appearance and age of a person: weight, age, height;
4. Euphemisms for human impact on flora and fauna;
5. Funny euphemisms;
6. Diplomatic euphemisms;

7. Euphemisms in the language of advertising (Krysin, 1994)

R.A. Budagov proposed the most general classification, dividing these units into general literary language euphemisms and various jargon euphemisms (Budagov, 1965). The first involves the use of “softening” words to avoid using the “rough” words (“senior citizens” instead of “the old”).

These euphemisms, according to the author, expand polysemy and also increase the number of homonyms. Jargon euphemisms, in turn, have a different character and nature. Their difference from the general literary language is that in fact the pronunciation of slang euphemisms is inconvenient. A separate group, R.A. According to Budagov, contextual euphemisms form. It is relatively difficult to identify group euphemisms. They are represented by the context in which they exist or by the nature of the person expressing their thoughts. Thus, the diversity of euphemistic exchanges is determined by the situation, the nature of this or that character, as well as the general idea (Budagov, 1965).

E.P. Senichkina points out that contextual euphemisms appear constantly in speech and have all the characteristics of euphemisms, but the nature of reconstruction is not unique to them. Typically, such euphemisms are figurative and metaphorical. A.M. Katsev also draws attention to this type of euphemisms and considers contextual euphemisms to have a large euphemistic effect. (Katsev, 1988). Contextual euphemisms can eventually become literary language euphemisms, but at the same time significantly lose their euphemistic possibilities.

According to E.P. Senichkina, there are several types of euphemisms: linguistic euphemisms that are established in the language and are distinguished by language carriers ("accident" instead of "death"); euphemisms that are not distinguished by language speakers by origin ("Lada" instead of "Jiguli"; "People's Commissar" instead of "Minister"); as well as historical and (dysphemisms).

To give dysphemism a negative semantic color, or simply to increase the effectiveness of speech, it must first be seen as a means of expressing a concept that is neutral in a rude or obscene form (Ivanov, 2003).

Also noteworthy is the thematic classification of AM Katsev, in which ten lexical categories are distinguished by conceptual areas:

- euphemisms for the names of supernatural forces;
- euphemisms for the names of the concepts of death and disease;
- euphemisms for flaws and shortcomings;
- euphemisms for the genital area;
- euphemisms for poverty;
- euphemisms for certain professions;
- euphemisms for mental and physical disabilities;
- euphemisms in the field of physiology;
- Names of clothing items (Katsev, 1988).

V.I. According to Zabotkina, all euphemisms are conditionally divided into the following groups:

1) Basically medical terms. Often medical terms have a negative connotation at the root of the tag. For example, the words mental home or mental hospital are used instead of Asylum (“mental hospital”).

2) Race and nation. Nigger was one of the first corrected words in America. Nigger is derived from the Spanish word negro, which translates as "black". In particular, the word does not have a negative connotation, but still Africans find the word very insulting because their ancestors, who were once slaves, were so named. Indians can be called "Native Americans." Africans and Asians can be called non-whites.

3) Euphemisms that reduce the fear of any prohibition. For many nations, talking about death is forbidden. So, the verb to die is replaced by verbs to de cease, to pass away, to go west.

4) Age. The prefix is a word that is often euphemized. Euphemisms such as *mature*, *senior*, *advanced* in years are synonymous with this lexeme.

5) Appearance flaws. For example, a renoir woman euphemism has emerged to alleviate the problem of overweight.

6) Fashion factors. The emergence of this group of euphemisms is related to commercial motives, the desire to attract the customer. There are also euphemisms that hide body imperfections, such as: *mature figure*, *Big Gal*, *corpulent*, *crummy*, *woman's size*.

7) The next group of euphemisms is related to skin imperfections. For example: *lines*.

8) Religion. For example, in some countries, when addressing people of unknown faith, Marry Christmas is replaced by Happy Holidays.

9) Social and financial status. The word "poor" is almost always replaced by the words *needy*, *penniless*, *deprived*, *low-income family*.

10) Professions. Achieving politeness through euphemisms is associated with neutralizing the gender dimension of individuals in the profession. For example, most professions in America today are typically male, so they are trying to replace them with stylistically colorless words. Therefore, words ending in the suffix "-man" were replaced by the word "-person": chairman - chairperson, congressman - congressperson (Zabotkina, 1989).

CONCLUSION

An analysis of English-language media texts has shown that euphemisms are divided into areas of application: euphemisms related to disease, death, politics and economics, as well as traditional topics aimed at preventing various forms of discrimination.

Most of the euphemisms considered have been formed using methods such as generalization and metaphORIZATION, as well as meaning expansion.

In modern linguistics, two main points can be distinguished on the interpretation of the term "euphemism". In the narrow sense, the term "euphemism" is associated with the mechanism of substituting a forbidden word or phrase. In a broad sense, it means "covering up", "hiding" and "masking" a concept that is considered unacceptable.

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The Methods of Lexical Transformation: Filling Lexical Lacunas in Chinese-Uzbek Translations

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Abstract: *Lacunar units are, on the one hand, a characteristic feature of national culture, an indicator of mentality, and, on the other hand, units that can take on a different appearance in the context of intercultural interaction. The study of the phenomenon of lacuna serves to develop the science of lacunology, to show the similarities and differences between languages and cultures, to overcome barriers to intercultural communication and to increase the effectiveness of foreign language teaching.*

This article is devoted to the issues of filling lexical gaps in Chinese-Uzbek translations by means of lexical transformation methods. In particular, for this purpose, the effective use of five methods of lexical transformation, such as calque (loan) translation, generalization, concretization, explication, analogy, were observed. The lexical lacunar units in the Chinese translation of Utkir Hoshimov's "Dunyoning ishlari" ("The affairs of the World") and the Uzbek translation of Pu Sunlin's novels were selected as the object of research in the article.

Keywords: *Lacuna, phenomenon of lacunarity, translation methods, lexical transformation, calque (loan) translation, generalization, concretization, explication, analogy.*

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INTRODUCTION

A lot of research has been done on the problem of eliminating lacunas in world translation. P.Newmark, M.Shuttleworth, M.Cowie, S.Bassnet, S.Vlakhov, S.Florin, L.Barkhudarov, L.Bayramova, I.Markovina, Yan Ping (闫萍 *Yán Píng*), Tan Dzaysi (谭载喜 *Tán Zàixǐ*), Djou Yuydjung (周玉忠 *Zhōu Yùzhōng*), Chen Sirung (陈喜荣 *Chén Xǐróng*) etc. can be displayed as translators who have made great contributions to phenomenon of lacunarity with their research.

In Uzbek translation various suggestions on the translation of non-equivalent vocabulary, nationally specific words, and lacunas are given by the scientists such I.Gafurov, O.Muminov, N.Kambarov, K.Musaev, E.Ochilov, Sh.Usmanova, H.Hamidov, Sh.Sirojiddinov, G.Odilova.

Most researchers suggest several ways translating non-equivalent vocabulary. In particular, S.Vlakhov and S.Florin distinguish 1) transcription and 2) translation methods of non-equivalent lexicon, ie methods of creating neologisms, close translation and contextual translation (Vlakhov & Florin 1980, p. 88-89). L.Bayramova notes that the following methods can be used in the translation of lacunar units: 1) calque translation (leads to the formation of equivalents in the context), 2) the method of descriptive translation, 3) borrowing (Pleukhova 2005, p. 78). Chinese translator Yan Ping (闫萍 *Yán Píng*) explains the methods of literal transfer, transliteration, calque (loan) translation, and descriptive translation used in the process of translating non-equivalent vocabulary (闫萍 2010, p. 105).

Most studies in Uzbek translation have focused on methods of translating national words, rather than directly lacunas. In particular, E. Ochilov talks about 1) transliteration, 2) analogy, 3) creation of new words and phrases (2012, p. 76-77); K. Musaev talks about 1) transliteration and transcription and 2) translation methods (2005, p. 94).

It should be noted that although lacunas are usually studied within a non-equivalent lexicon, some of the methods mentioned in their translation cannot be used. Thus, in the course of our research, it became clear that translation methods such as transliteration and transcription cannot be used in the translation of lexical lacunar units in Chinese and Uzbek. These methods can be useful in translating realities (national words).

In Chinese and Uzbek, there were no methods of creating and borrowing neologisms in the elimination of lacunarity. V.L.Muravyov notes that the filling of lexical gaps can take place in the process of historical interaction and coexistence of languages. For example, the lacunas can be filled by assimilating this or that unit. The 18th-century French-Russian dictionary contains absolute lacuna for the Russian language. The meaning of lexical units in French is explained in Russian using periphrases: "gesticulation" – "кривление, махание, делание разных видов движение при разговорной речи", and in modern Russian the word "жестикуляция" is used as the equivalent of the French word "gesticulation" (1975, 23). Thus the previously existing lexical lacuna has been supplemented and eliminated.

In addition to the above, it should be noted that in the elimination of lexical lacunarity in Chinese and Uzbek languages there are no idioms. This is due to the fact that the Chinese and Uzbek languages are radically different from each other graphically and phonetically.

THE MAIN FINDINGS AND RESULTS

As a result of research, transformational and contextual translation methods of translation in the elimination of lexical lacuna in Chinese and Uzbek languages, in particular, the methods

of lexical transformation such as calque (loan) translation, generalization, concretization, explication, analogy and grammatical transformation of grammatical substitution, syntactic adaptive translation, omission (lacunar unit) have been widely used.

Transformation is one of the main methods of translation, changing the formal (lexical and grammatical transformation) or semantic (semantic transformations) components of the text in the original language, while retaining the information intended for delivery (Nelyubin 2009, p. 230). The method of transformation is used in the process of translation when no interlingual parallel units are found, in cases where translation is not possible, in order to convey the original content and increase communicative efficiency. In cases where language parallels are present, the transformation method is used to adapt the translated text to the new recipient (Pleukhova 2005, 72).

CALQUE (LOAN) TRANSLATION

Calque (loan) translation is the process of literally translating a word to ensure that the elements in the original text (if the morphemes consist of one word) are alternate in the translated text (Shuttleworth & Cowie 2014, 17). For example:

巫婆刚回到孙家门口，屋内床上的孙子楚已经呻吟起来。

Wūpó gāng huí dào sūn jiā ménkǒu, wūnèi chuángshàng de sūnzi chǔ yǐjīng shēnyín qǐlái.

*Sun Zichu only regained consciousness when he returned **spirit catoptric** home.*
(J.Ziyamuhamedov. A Bao, 189)

It can be seen that the word 巫婆 *wūpó* in this context formed a lacuna because it did not have an alternative in the Uzbek language in terms of its function. In Chinese, the word 巫婆 *wūpó* is used to refer to “a woman who is engaged in the return of departed souls”. In the translation, the word is translated in the method of a calque (loan) translation in the form of a *spirit catoptric*. In fact, 巫婆 *wūpó* could also be translated into Uzbek as *shaman* or *priest*. However, it would not have been understood that 巫婆 *wūpó* was dealing with the "spirit catoptric". It is also unclear in the translation whether the spirit catoptric is a man or a woman. In this case, it is advisable to give a "female" gender marker. Because the hieroglyph 婆 *pó* in the word 巫婆 *wūpó* is used to mean “wife”, “old woman”. So, from this hieroglyph, it is clear that the person who is engaged in the return of spirits is a woman.

TRANSLATION METHOD OF GENERALIZATION

In the method of generalization, a lexical unit with a narrow meaning in the original is replaced by a broad word in the translated text (Sirojiddinov & Odilova 2011, p. 37). In the research of some Uzbek translators, the term is also called "umumlashtirish". Consequently, "the translation is often overstated in the norms of the language of translation in the sense given in the original, indicating that some clarifications are generalized" (Gafurov, Muminov & Kambarov 2012, p. 111). The following examples can be given of this translation method:

虽然他很严厉但一次也没打过我们。(Hoshimov U. World Affairs. 生活琐事, 97, 101).

Suīrán tā hěn yánlì dàn yīcì yě méi dǎguò wǒmen.

*He did not **flip** on any of the brothers, even though he was angry.*

In this example, the Uzbek verb "flip" is translated into Chinese by its hyperonym "beat". The generalized translation method was used here. Because in Chinese there is no alternative to the

verb "flip". However, it will be expedient to translate this action through the expression 用指头打 *yong zhitou da* (literally: "to beat with the finger").

Another example:

一天，正逢胡公生日，四个女都来祝贺，寿礼慢慢摆了一屋子。

Yītiān, zhèngféng húgōngshēng rì, sìgè nǚ dōu lái zhùhè, shòulǐ mànman bǎi le yī wūzi.

One day, four grooms filled their homes with gifts to celebrate Hugong's (Hu Intay) birthday (J.Ziyamuhamedov, Z.Shamsieva. Xu Sinyang, 80)

The word 寿礼 *shòulǐ* in the given sentence is used in the sense of "birthday present" and is a lacuna for the Uzbek language. Apparently, the word 寿礼 *shòulǐ* translated into Uzbek as a gift. It is known that in Uzbek culture, a gift is a common gift given in everyday life, at certain ceremonies, holidays, on days of special significance. That is why the translator used the generalization method of transformation in translating the above-mentioned passage into Uzbek. Here the correlate word, i.e. the word that clarifies the meaning of the lacunar unit, is *birthday*.

The hieroglyph 寿 *shòu* in the word 寿礼 *shòulǐ* means "longevity". Therefore, it can be observed that this hieroglyph in the minds of the Chinese has formed associations with "birth" and "death":

寿面 *shòumiàn* – lagman consumed on the day of birth;

寿桃 *shòutáo* – boortsog to be consumed on the day of birth (baking from excess dough);

寿衣 *shòuyī* – shroud (кафан).

Although there is no Uzbek equivalent of the words 寿面 *shòumiàn*, 寿桃 *shòutáo*, these words do not form a lacuna. On the contrary, it makes sense to call them real.

Another example:

耿生说：“我们算是通家”。

Gěngshēng shuō: "Wǒmen suànshì tōngjiā".

"We're all friends now," Chui Bing said. (J. Ziyamuhamedov. Ching Feng, 180)

In the Chinese context, the word 通家 *tōngjiā* means "family in good friendly relations passed down from ancestor to generation" (现代汉语词典 (第5版), 1364). The translator used the generalization method, giving it in the form of a "friend". However, it can be seen that the form of the tense in the sentence in the translated text has also changed. For example, in essence, it refers to family-friendly relations, which mean "our friends from time immemorial" and continue from the past to the present. Compare with the translation: "now ... we are friends". It appears that the grammatical meaning of a word can also change when the generalization method is used in lacunar unit translation.

In the generalization method of eliminating lacuna, the phenomenon of hyponymy is mainly addressed. Under hyponymy, D. Cruse explains a series of words, lexical paradigms, which serve to express the gender-species relationship in an objective being, and in a hyponymic series, a concept with a singular character is called a hyponym, and a concept with a general character is called a hyperonym (superordinate) (2003, p. 247).

During the translation process, a hyperonym is selected to fill the lacunar unit. A hyperonym is a lexical unit that represents the name of an object denoting a gender sign, a central word of a microsystem that semantically generalizes many meanings, manifesting itself as a dominant one. We will try to support our idea with the following example:

王子服奇怪吴生再不来了，便写了封**请柬**，让人去请。

Wángzǐ fú qíguài wú shēng zàibu láile, biàn xiěle fēng qǐngjiǎn, ràng rén qù qǐng.

But for some reason his cousin did not come again. Wang Sheng's heart sank and he wrote a letter to his cousin. (J. Ziyamuhamedov. Ying Ning, 245)

The word **请柬** *qǐngjiǎn* in the sentence is used to mean “an invitation sent to a guest invited to an event, a ceremony and the house”. Unlike the Chinese culture, in the Uzbek culture people do not send a special invitation when a guest is invited to the house. Invitations are sent to guests only at various large ceremonies. Apparently, in Chinese culture, it is common to give invitations even for small hospitality. That is why the protagonist of the novel writes a letter of invitation to call his aunt's son home and sends him from the servant. The word **请柬** *qǐngjiǎn* is given as a *letter* in the translated text based on the method of generalization. A small correlative piece **让人去请** *ràng rén qù qǐng* (send someone to call), which determines the content of the letter in the original text has been omitted in the translation.

The concept of the *letter* in the example above can be called a hyperonym, and the meaning of the "invitation letter" given by the word **请柬** *qǐngjiǎn* can be called a hyponym.

TRANSLATION METHOD OF CONCRETIZATION

Concretization is the replacement of a word or phrase that is actually used in a broad sense with a word or phrase that has a more specific meaning in the translated text (Sirojiddinov & Odilova 2011, p. 37).

For example:

以后**姐姐的婆婆**也会给我缝衬衫。(Hoshimov U. World Affairs. 生活琐事, 118, 132).

Yǐhòu jiějiě de pópo yě huì gěi wǒ fēng chènshān.

*Then **grandma matchmaker** sews a shirt for me.*

In the given example, since there is no Chinese equivalent of the word *quda* in Uzbek, the term **姐姐的婆婆** *jiějiě de pópo* is translated from the context of the text in the form of *my sister's mother-in-law*.

我并没有妹妹，哪来的**外甥女儿**？

Wǒ bìng méiyǒu mèimei, nǎ lái de wàishēngnǚ ér?

*I have no sister, how can she be your **daughter of your aunt**? (J. Ziyamuhamedov. Ying Ning, 251)*

Here the word **外甥女儿** *wàishēngnǚ ér* was used to mean “daughter of sister or younger sister” and could be translated as nephew. But in this sentence the word nephew is specified and translated as *daughter of the aunt*.

Or:

广东西边有个叫孙子楚的人，是个名士。他生来有六个**手指**。

Guǎngdōng xībian yǒu gè jiào sūnzi chǔ de rén, shìgè míngshì. Tā shēnglái yǒu liù gè shǒuzhǐ.
Sun Zichu was an intelligent man who had six fingers. (J. Ziyamuhamedov. A Bao, 186)

As noted in the study, Chinese, unlike Uzbek, uses separate words for hand and toe: **手指** *shǒuzhǐ* – *finger*, **脚趾** *jiǎozhǐ* – *toe*. These words reveal lacunarism in the Uzbek language.

TRANSLATION METHOD OF EXPLICATION

The term explication was introduced into scientific circulation by J.P.Vine and J.Darbelne. Explication is characterized by the fact that the information in the translated text is expressed more clearly and in detail than in the original text (Shuttleworth & Cowie 2014, p. 55).

This method is reflected in most studies in world translation studies. Our national translators, applying the best practices of world translation, have demonstrated various variants of the method of application, such as "descriptive translation", "annotated translation" and "descriptive translation".

M. Bekasov emphasizes that the descriptive translation is a worthy contribution to the method of calque (loan) translation, noting that it can reveal the semantic and stylistic meanings of the lacunar units involved in the translation, as well as serve to maximize the adaptation of the translation to the reader (2012, p. 89).

Working with explanatory dictionaries in the language in which the lacunar unit is encountered in the process of translating words that cannot be found is also a good result, as well as defining the essence of the method of expression. For example:

于是都争着向四娘敬酒。

Yúshì dōu zhēngzhe xiàng sì niáng jìngjiǔ.

Then they calmed down and immediately offered Xinyang to drink wine. (J.Ziyamuhamedov, Z.Shamsieva. Xu Siniyang, 83)

In the "Annotated Dictionary of the Chinese Language", 敬酒 *jìngjiǔ* is defined as "inviting to drink wine, to raise a glass". In the translation of this word the method of explication was used and an attempt was made to preserve the original form. In Islam, the concept of "offering to drink wine, to raise a glass" is not denominated in Islam, as any type of alcohol is makrooh and haram.

In Chinese, the word 酒量 *jiǔliàng* is widely used in connection with the consumption of wine. For example:

丁钩儿本想夸奖一下他的酒量，转念一想，在酒国市夸人酒量近乎无聊，便把话咽下去。(莫言。酒国，5).

Dīng Gōu'ér běn xiǎng kuājiǎng yīxià tā de jiǔliàng, zhuǎnniàn yī xiǎng, zài Jiǔguó shì kuā rén jiǔliàng jìn hū wúliáo, biàn bǎ huà yàn xiàqù.

Ding Gou-er tried to praise him, but did not say thinking about the shame if to evaluate the quality of a wine while standing in a country of wine. (Mo Yan. The Republic of Wine. World Literature №10, 6).

In this text, the word 酒量 *jiǔliàng* is translated as *quality of a wine*. In fact, the word 酒量 *jiǔliàng* means a person's ability to drink alcohol (*high, low*). In this sense, it can be seen that this word also created lacunarism for the non-lexical Uzbek language.

The word 徘徊 *páihuái*, which is widely used in Pu Sunling's short stories, is used to describe the movement of "walk swaying from side to side" It can be seen that the same extended form of commentary was used in his translation:

门口也没个人可以问问，急得他坐立不安，徘徊犹豫。

Ménkǒu yě méi gèrén kěyǐ wèn wèn, jí dé tā zuòlibù'ān, páihuái yóuyù.

There was no one at the door to ask. He could not sit still because of excitement, and he walked swaying from side to side. (J. Ziyamuhamedov. Ying Ning, 246).

Translations can also be used in reverse. In this case, the word combinations in the content are equivalent to the word in the second language. For example:

女司机突然涨红了脸，用吵架一样的高嗓门吼道。(莫言。酒国，5)

Nǚ sījī túrán zhǎng hóngle liǎn, yòng chǎojià yīyàng de gāo sāngmén hǒu dào.

*The girl suddenly blushed and started **screaming**.* (Mo Yan. The Republic of Wine. World Literature №10, 6).

In this sentence, the Chinese compound 吵架一样的高嗓门 *chǎojià yīyàng de gāo sāngmén* (loudly as if fighting) is given in Uzbek with the word *shallaqilik*. There was no Chinese equivalent of the Uzbek word *shallaqilik*. For this reason, it is expedient to translate this word into Chinese in such a widely interpreted form.

TRANSLATION METHOD OF ANALOGY

The analogy method is also called approximate translation. According to L.S. Barkhudarov, such a method of translation involves searching for a word in the language of translation that is semantically close to the lexical unit of the original language, in the absence of a clear alternative in the language of translation (1975, p. 101). Such analogues can also be used in lacunar conditions in Chinese and Uzbek, but it should not be overlooked that they affect a number of aspects of the text, such as content, idea, style.

For example:

*I had put this **miserable** on my eyebrows so that it wouldn't dry out.*

The word *savil* in the sentence is lacunar because it has not found an alternative in Chinese. Because of this, the translator may have dropped this word. But here an analog variant can be found, although the word *savil* is not synonymous in Chinese. For example, the word 该死的 *gāisǐde* signifies a curse, which can literally be translated as “*o’lib ketgur*” (*die*). The word *savil* is used in the dictionary to mean “*qurub ketgur*”, “*ordona qolgur*” (*be left without an owner*) (EDUL, 3, 410). The word *savil* is used in the possessive, complementary, and determinative functions of speech. The word 该死的 *gāisǐde* can be used alone in adverbs. In the context of a phrase, it is a determinant. Also, the vulgarity of the word *savil* is lower than that of 该死的 *gāisǐde*, which indicates that they are not mutually equivalent alternatives.

Another example,

还出钱给他捐了个贡生，让他参加国家举行的大考。

Hái chū qián gěi tā juānle gè gòngshēng, ràng tā cānjiā guójiā jǔxíng de dàkǎo.

*He also **gave her money** to study and to take a state exam.* (J.Ziyamuhamedov, Z.Shamsieva. Xu Sinyang, 82)

The word 捐 *juān* in the original text means "to help financially", "to donate money". In his translation, an analogical method of transformation was used, and the semantic part of "material assistance" was omitted. At this point, although the content of the sentence was not greatly impaired, it was not revealed that the character was a generous person.

Or:

年轻人作揖后也坐下了。

Niánqīng rén zuòyī hòu yě zuò xiàle.

Then he greeted Chui Bing and sat down at the table. (J. Ziyamuhamedov. Ching Feng, 180)

王子服急忙起身作揖，回答说。

Wángzǐ fú jí máng qǐ shēn zuò yī, huídá shuō.

Wang Sheng immediately greeted the old woman and replied. (J. Ziyamuhamedov. Ying Ning, 246)

The word 作揖 *zuòyī* in this sentence means "to greet with a fist in one hand and a slight bow in the other". There is no such greeting kinesic in Uzbek culture, so this style of action creates a nonverbal lacuna. The translator did the right thing by translating it in the form of a *greeting*. Because such a greeting style cannot be expressed in a few words. The purpose of this kinesic of national culture was the greeting. Hence, it is expedient to use the expression of *greeting*, which is its analogue in translation. This method of greeting is still preserved in Chinese culture.

It should be noted that in Chinese, lexical units such as 问候 *wèn hòu*, 问好 *wèn hǎo*, 打招呼 *dǎ zhāo hū* are used productively in the sense of "greet".

CONCLUSIONS

The analysis of ways to eliminate lexical gaps (lacuna) in Chinese and Uzbek translations is based on:

- 1) Lexical gaps between two languages are eliminated, mainly by means of transformation and contextual translation methods;
- 2) Lexical and grammatical transformation methods differ in the transformation of lexical lacunar units in two languages;
- 3) Methods of lexical transformation, such as calque (loan) translation, generalization, concretization, explication, analogy are effective in the process of eliminating lacunarity in both languages.

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ELT Teachers' Perception About the Use of Authentic Materials in Kazakhstani Classrooms

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Abstract: *Nowadays the use of a wide range of authentic materials has been reflected in numerous reputable manuscripts which illustrates that it has become one of common and central issues in pedagogy. Conversely, a problem of using authentic materials still requires some clarification. This study investigates ELT teacher's perception, views and attitudes towards the use of authentic materials in Kazakhstani classrooms. It is also aimed at identifying respondents' specific preferences in authentic texts through administered questionnaire designed to gather reliable and valid information. Collected results and outcomes demonstrate that most of the participants use authentic materials with their learners at least once a month and they have mainly positive views about it. Approximately 60% of interviewed teachers have shown that they prefer using journalistic authentic texts since they find it more accessible and convenient to apply it to their course plans. Gathered results and collected data might be profitable to use for further studies in vast contexts.*

Key words: *authentic texts; authentic materials; ELT teachers' perception; pragmatic authentic materials; journalistic authentic texts;*

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INTRODUCTION

During the last two decades, with the rise of modern methodology of foreign language, the use of authentic and adapted materials became a common practice and has always been moving forward towards better understanding of language acquisition.

Authentic materials are those sources of knowledge which were originally designed for native speakers and not intended to be used for any specific educational purposes. Those are materials that contain concepts, ideas, expressions and words that are heard and read in real-life situations. (Ciornei, Dina 2014) However there cannot be a clear and unified definition of authentic materials since the authenticity as a concept can be correlated with the nature of speakers' speech and the way readers put it in motion. (Widdowson, Henry 1990) There are many ways to incorporate authentic materials into an English teaching class, but the main and common sources are newspapers, magazines, TV programs, literature, movies and interviews. This study is focused primarily on the use of authentic texts which can additionally include brochures, boarding passes, road signs and the Internet. (Pavlikova, Zamborova 2020)

It has been suggested that the use of authentic materials when teaching English language might influence learners' motivation, enhance their communicative competence, build up their confidence and develop learner autonomy (Djumabaeva 2020; Gilmore 2007). It also demonstrates how the target language is being used outside of the classroom and facilitates overall language proficiency (Qamariah 2016).

There is rapidly growing literature on authenticity, which indicates that the issue of using authentic materials has become one of the central issues in modern methodology of foreign language teaching that needs more elaboration. Consequently, Siegel (2021) raised a question of authentic textbook topics which were compared with actual conversation themes between native speakers, so-called real-life conversations. According to the research, authentic textbook topics tend to be more universal and even superficial as compared to conversations between non-native and native speakers. Wide range of topics selected for textbooks do not include such important subjects as everyday student life, academia, local culture features and on the contrary concern topics which are frequently not of interest for students. In brief, we can claim ELT teachers might need to consider adding a selection of topics related to the area of school life depending on learners' age, experience, interests and course objectives.

In addition, Dakowska (2016) suggests that the primary goal of any authentic text is to engage students in verbal communication in its group of different ways simultaneously being adjusted to the learner's language proficiency level. The study states that authentic tasks for its part, help learners form their target behavior by engaging students with proper adjustment to learners' communicative knowledge level and current language proficiency. It is possible to recognize this type of conclusion as truthful due to the fact that both authentic texts and authentic tasks ought to be fit with learners' wide range of features which can lead to modelling of their target behavior.

Moreover, it is worth pointing out that some researchers (Buendgens-Kosten, 2014) separate the notion of authenticity from the concept of genuineness. It suggests that genuineness should

characterize a text itself while authenticity is to describe certain relationships between a text and a reader. This way authenticity of a text or a passage is achieved when it corresponds to normal communicative activities. However, the ultimate goal is making the authenticity of a text fit with the genuineness of it.

Teachers working with ELT classrooms might find the texts or coursebooks they are using not interesting, not captivating enough to some extent for their learners. Perhaps the great majority of materials used in such classrooms can be considered as such since it lacks some cultural immersion, the variety of themes and a relatability factor to its range of topics which often leads to learners' demotivation process.

In the last few years there has been a growing interest in using authentic materials as a tool to develop learners' communicative competence, increase their motivation to investigate a foreign language as well as making easy transition from fictional, artificial formal language to a tongue used outside of the classroom. For this reason, it is not quite clear what is the depth of ELT teachers' value of using authentic texts during their lessons. Teachers may be aware of the importance of applying authentic materials; however, it is unknown how it influences its usage in the classroom during the learning process.

The purpose of this research is to investigate the attitudes and views of English language teaching educators towards the use of authentic materials directly at their lessons as primary or auxiliary sources of knowledge. Furthermore, it is desirable to examine and get acquainted with their preferences among various types of authentic materials.

The significance of the current study is big enough to consider it as a substantial one since such issues as poor usage of authentic materials and general neglect to it have become very common nowadays. Expected outcomes of this research will be of interest for both teachers and learners as teachers' views and perceptions ought to affect the way learners face main privileges of using authentic materials. Furthermore, when the results of the study will be uncovered, teachers might make attempts to balance their value of authentic texts and its role in the learning process. The finding of this scientific research will be of great benefit for practicing ELT teachers who are interested in their continuous professional development and in expanding their knowledge, skills, and practices.

This study's aims are to find answers to the following research questions:

1. What is ELT teachers' perception, attitudes and views about the role of using authentic texts in Kazakhstani classrooms?
2. What type of authentic materials do teachers prefer more: journalistic or pragmatic?
3. What factors, convictions and biases affect their perception?

METHODOLOGY

In order to find out teachers' views on authentic materials a questionnaire containing 15 items was administered to 20 ELT practicing teachers in secondary schools of Almaty city. The participants of the research were required to answer given questions within 20-30 minutes. As

noted above, 15 questions were mostly multiple choice and closed, some of them were open-ended and Likert scale items.

PARTICIPANTS

Target participants of this research were 20 ELT teachers working in secondary schools in Almaty. The participants of this study were selected by the researcher. They were chosen thoroughly based on their background, as most of them have wide experience in teaching English working with different types of learners. The survey specifies the exact age of respondents in order to connect their view of authentic materials with the depth of their experience. All the answers have given valid results and assist to gather reliable materials needed to conduct the survey.

Most of the respondents were female teachers at the age from 21 to 30 years.

The survey is attempting to measure what type of authentic materials in particular, participants prefer using more and what opinion and attitude about authentic materials they have already formed.

CONSENT LETTER

All the participants were informed about the study's main objectives through the form that they have received through email. Consent letter claims that all the information collected from the respondents will be kept in private, instead of their names, certain numbers will be used. And any audio or video recording and other documents with the exception of the consent letter will be completely destroyed after the research is completed.

The questionnaire is designed by the researcher himself and is intended to answer the mentioned above research questions. Since the participants gave their answers anonymously and certain numbers were assigned to their names, the honesty is guaranteed and therefore the reliability is to be placed in the study.

The questionnaire was distributed via email. The participants were asked to answer questions as honestly as possible. The research started on the 3rd of December and was finished on the 10th of January. After all the responses are collected, the researcher suggests that the outcome will be quite positive; teachers' attitudes towards authentic materials might be overall favourable.

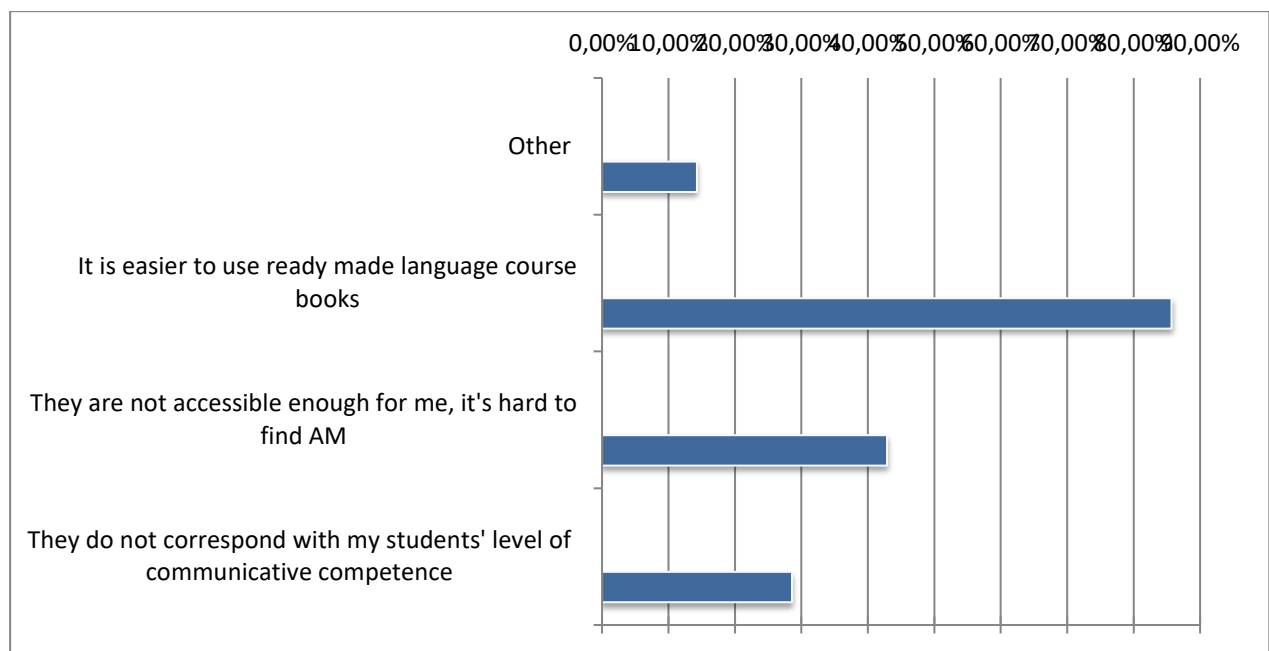
RESULTS

The questionnaire consists of three main parts. The first part lets the researcher get familiar with the participants, identifying their occupation, age, gender and experience. All of the respondents are female ELT practicing teachers at the age of 21 to 35. 85% of them are at the age from 21 to 25 which demonstrates that the audience of the current study is mostly novice teachers. The following part of the questionnaire included such questions as "Do you use authentic materials at your lessons?", "If yes, how often do you use authentic materials?", "If not, how often do you think you should use authentic materials?" and "What do you think is the primary reason why you don't use authentic materials too often?". 75% of the respondents state that they use authentic materials, more than half of them use it once a month, the rest of

them claim to be using it at the end of the semester and every other lesson (12.5%, 18.8%). The other quarter of teachers who don't use AM state that they should use it mostly once a week (37%), 25% of them chose "every lesson" and "at the end of the semester" options.

Answers to the next question identify that 85.7% of the teachers who don't usually use authentic materials at their lessons think it is easier to use ready-made course books rather than searching for authentic materials (Fig.1). 42.9% of the participants claim that authentic materials are not accessible enough for them and it is hard to find it. 28.6% of the teachers state that authentic materials do not correspond with their learners' level of communicative competence. And 14.3% of the participants chose the "other" option as an answer.

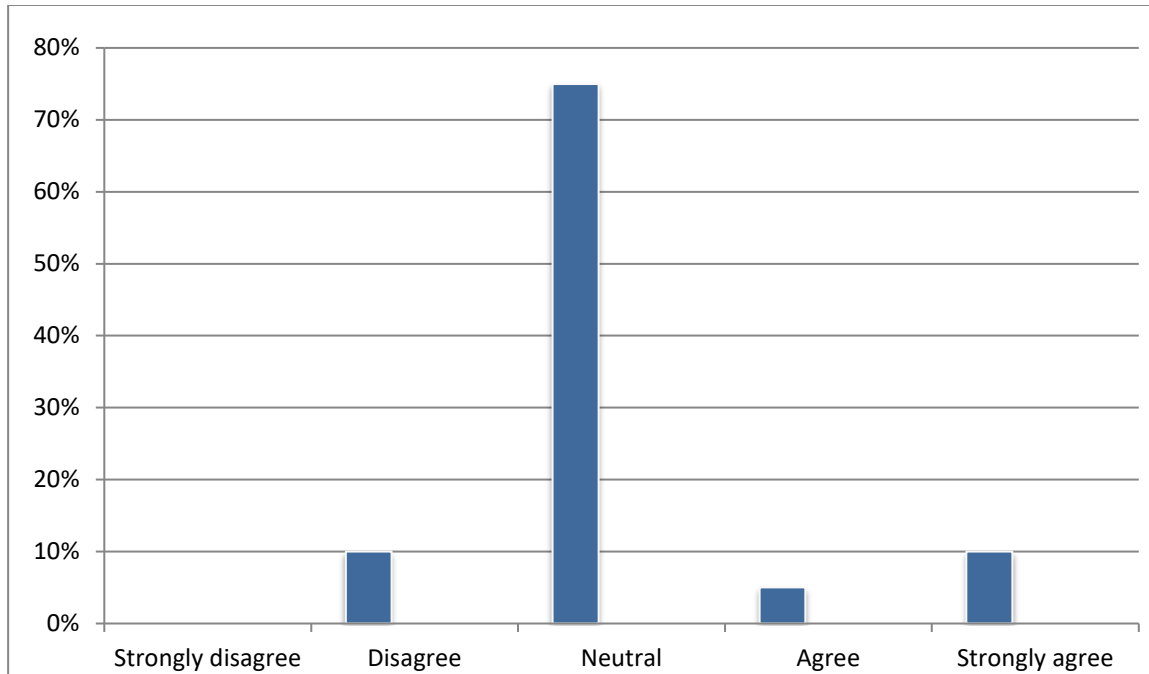
Figure 1. "What do you think is the main reason why you don't use authentic materials too often?"



The third part of the survey is based on five central characteristics which are relatable to authentic materials and consists of five Likert scale questions. Such as the importance of AM, a way of increasing learners' motivation, their communicative competence; the accessibility in Kazakhstan; wide range of various topics, their relatability and general exposure of learners to target language culture. According to collected results, more than half of the participants (55%) strongly agree with the statement that using authentic materials when teaching English is extremely important. 15% of the respondents are neutral to the statement and 30% of the respondents generally agree with the assumption. The same tendency is correlated with the next question. 60% of the participants strongly agree with the statement that AM are a great way to increase learners' motivation, their communicative competence and it brings them closer to the target language culture. 35% of the respondents chose the "agree" option and only 5% of them are neutral to the assertion. However when asked about the accessibility of authentic texts in Kazakhstan (Fig.2) most of the participants chose the "neutral" option (75%).

10% of the respondents strongly disagree and disagree with such a statement and 5% of them claim authentic materials are accessible enough for them.

Figure 2. “Authentic texts are accessible enough in Kazakhstan.”



80% of the respondents strongly agreed with the given statement about the exposure of students to the target language culture through authentic materials. The other 20% of the participants chose the “agree” option instead. Almost the same inclination is demonstrated in the results of the last question. 55% and 35% of the teachers strongly agreed and agreed that AM are rich in terms of various topics and themes to which their students might relate to. And 10% of the respondents are generally neutral to the given statement.

Finally, the last part of the survey is designed to investigate participants’ preferences in authentic materials. 60% of the respondents prefer journalistic authentic materials (literature, works of art, popular scientific works, and scientific articles) to pragmatic authentic materials (advertisements, magazines, brochures, TV programs, road signs, menus, recipes). When asked about the reasons for choosing one type or another, participants claimed they prefer journalistic AM because it is easier to find authentic literature and it is easier to apply journalistic authentic materials into their lessons (69.2%). 7.7% of the respondents think journalistic AM correspond with their students’ level of communicative competence and language proficiency. 30.8% of participants chose “other” option as the answer. The other 8 participants who preferred pragmatic authentic materials justified their choice with general ease of finding it (87.5%). 12.5% of the respondents think pragmatic AM correspond with their learners’ level of communicative competence. Almost 40% of the participants state that it is easier to apply pragmatic authentic materials into their lessons.

CONCLUSION

All things considered, we can claim that most of the interviewed participants of this research have faced the notion of authentic materials and currently are using it with their learners. The majority of respondents state that authentic materials are quite important for the learning process, it exposes students to the target language culture, facilitates learners' motivation and can offer a wide range of various relatable topics. Nevertheless, they are generally neutral to the statement that authentic materials are accessible in Kazakhstan. In addition, it was uncovered that most of the respondents prefer using journalistic authentic texts to pragmatic authentic materials. They have expressed that it is easier to find authentic literature, scientific articles, newspapers and to incorporate it directly into their lessons. Current research appears to validate the view that Kazakhstani ELT teachers have quite a positive attitude towards the use of authentic materials. Further research in this area may include collected results and outcomes and be beneficial for vast context.

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Cognitive Metaphors Usage in Medical Discourse

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Abstract: *This article discusses the general concept of medical discourse and the importance of using metaphors effectively in this process. Medical discourse is the sphere of professional and communicative interaction between medical workers and a sick person. There is a growing interest in medical discourse in the modern world. The number of medical publications, websites and forums filled with medical terminology and concepts is increasing. Patients interested in their own health are more likely to turn to various sources for help, where they try to find answers to pressing questions. They do not always understand a specific medical text, while patients do not always trust the doctor, more often this happens due to a misunderstanding of each other.*

Keywords: *Medical language, medical discourse, cognitive metaphor, anthropocentrism, pragma linguistics.*

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INTRODUCTION

Communication between a doctor and a patient requires a special approach and speech technological methods that deliberately affect a person for therapeutic purposes. Therefore, I would like to dwell on the features of medical discourse. Medical discourse, both written and verbal, has its own characteristics.

First, a medical discourse is a medical text, more often a specialized medical publication that talks about a disease, its diagnosis, treatment, prevention, etc. medical literature is subdivided into popular science (for those not versed in medicine, scientific (for specialists in the field of medicine). Popular science medicine is readily read by a wide range of readers, of various ages and professions.

Scientific medical texts are characterized by a strict, monotonous, practically devoid of any expressiveness style of scientific presentation using terminology and abbreviations.

The purpose of medical discourse: exchange of experience in the medical world; disclosure of research data of certain specialists. Participants of scientific medical discourse - specialists, medical practitioners, medical professionals, students of medical institutions. The participants in the popular scientific medical discourse are doctors and patients. Secondly, in scientific and popular science medical discourse highlight

- speech genres:
- scientific article,
- monograph,
- overview,
- report,
- lecture.

All of them are aimed at providing professional medical care to the patient. Popular science medical discourse: medical booklets, articles, reviews, interviews with practitioners in popular scientific journals on medicine, designed for a wide readership, to inform the patient about the prevention, treatment of diseases and preservation of health. The presentation of medical issues is simple, accessible, understandable.

Thirdly, medical discourse has a special style of presentation of special medical terminology, a special form of dialogue with the patient, where the doctor explains in an accessible language a particular problem related to the patient's health.

It should be noted from the outset that cognitive science, based on interdisciplinary research in the field of the theory of knowledge, cognitive psychology, neurophysiology, cognitive linguistics, non-verbal communication and the theory of artificial intelligence, is characterized by a tendency towards an anthropocentric orientation, where a person is in the center of attention and activity as the owner. consciousness, thinking and language, as well as a source of formation, processing and transmission of information. In this regard, it should be noted that the role of the researcher using cognitive analysis in the research process is increasing and becoming more and more significant, since the researcher plays an active role in the experimental process as an active observer and inventor.

LITERATURE REVIEW

As G. Falconer notes: "When language, mind and culture are the object of scientific study, the researcher is no longer just a spectator [Falconer, 2003, pp. XVIII]. He or she acts as one of the actors as part of the phenomenon being studied: the thinking and talking that needs to be demystified are also the thinking and talking used to bring about the demystification. An investigation that will uncover secrets behind the scenes is also part of the mainstream show, and we are clearly on intellectually dangerous ground.

The language, which should be the object of research, is both a means and an instrument of cognitive processes. During the study of medical discourse, one should take into account the importance of the anthropocentric factor, which has a special effect on the implementation of the language of the specialty according to certain discourse indicators, as well as linguistic and extra linguistic factors. In this regard, it should always be borne in mind that medicine is a special area of human activity that is directly related to the preservation and improvement of human health and life. Therefore the main ontological concepts of this area at the cognitive level are the concepts of "treatment (cure)" and "prevention", which represent the main areas of a more general concept of a universal nature, that is, medicine, which is a vast conceptual field containing a large number of components that exist at different levels of the hierarchy.

MAIN PART

One of the most important points to emphasize in this regard is that discursive factors, and to a large extent extra linguistic ones, can play a significant role in terms of the dynamic nature of the linguistic representation of these conceptual structures, on the one hand, and how the professional language used on the other. This situation was reflected at different levels of linguistic representation, characterized by a specific choice of linguistic means, including specific methods and strategies of lexicographic fixation. Consideration of discourse as a dynamic phenomenon allows us to assert that discursive activity includes the constant processing of information emanating from the discourse itself, the internal cognitive reserves of communicants and the external situation of communication, including implied, implicit information presented by the same linguistic units, at the same time accompanied by some other, non-linguistic conditioned intentions of the speaker (or writer), "hidden" meanings, which also presupposes adequate interpretation and understanding of the listener (or reader). Thus, in this case, the connection between linguistic meanings and the speaker's intentions with the communicative goals of speech activity should be taken into account.

Speaking about the intentionality of discourse, it should be borne in mind that the pragmatics of discourse correlates with the concept of understanding as an adequate interpretation of the transmitted values, which is focused on the creation and reflection of the hierarchy of different types and formats of knowledge. The medical language is reflected in real speech implementations, as well as in a systematic way of design, lexicography, and dictionaries. As in any other vocational language registry, linguistic units in medical English belong to different semantic layers of the language, that is, words of a general vocabulary, words of a scientific vocabulary, medical terms and, of course, medical slang or jargon, which is a peculiar phenomenon in professional languages. The use of allegory (paraphrase), euphemisms and metaphorical expressions is extremely common in medicine, since medical discourse deals with both professional communication between specialists (staff) and communicative situations between a doctor and a patient. It is well known that in professional communication two main types of knowledge are realized - professional knowledge concerning the subject of a certain area of knowledge, and linguistic knowledge, which relate to a certain repertoire of linguistic means used to convey professional information.

From a communicative and cognitive-pragmatic point of view, a patient-oriented approach, which, first of all, is based on patient orientation and considers him as an active participant in preventive and therapeutic processes and as a subject of medical care, became a new direction in the field of interaction between doctor and patient and was extrapolated to the areas of presentation of scientific, popular science and lexicographic materials [Новодранова, 2009]. In other words, in relation to medical dictionaries, one can find the user's approach, which, apparently, refers to the concept of anthropocentric orientation in the field of modern linguistic preferences and helps to satisfy the requirements of the addressee, that is, to take into account the level of his or her knowledge in a certain area of knowledge, the goal referring to the material of the dictionary, a way of using the information obtained to transform it into a pragmatically significant part of knowledge.

The dynamic nature of the language is reflected at the level of both terminological units and words (or phrases) of general linguistic functioning. Thus, a certain kind of homonymy in the establishment of some cognitive linguistic formations presented in medical discourse, conceptual status, turns out to be associated with intricate internal processes within units that find their realization as scientific concepts, on the one hand, and concepts proper, on the other.

The functional approach helps to define their extremely important characteristics within this framework. It should be noted that discursive factors play a decisive role in the research process.

As mentioned above, one of the most important features of medical discourse is the area of nomination, where almost all linguistic units that represent a medical phenomenon have analogs in Latin or Greek, and also some of them have synonyms used in ordinary speech or metaphorical linguistic representation [Вишнякова, Маргания, 2011].

The usage of cognitive metaphors in medical language has several functions. They operate in various fields of science for the purpose of creating and accumulating new knowledge and skills, as well as interpreting some complicated effects. They can also serve to develop new approaches in medical areas related to human life and health. In medical discourse, metaphors are used to describe a patient's condition in terms of certain disease syndromes that are difficult to explain in any other way, especially in emergency situations where urgent action is taken.

Cognitive metaphors can be used for communicative pragmatic purposes in medical discourse, including ethical issues of communication. At the same time, there are situations in which the use of metaphors does not have any positive effect on patients and can be detrimental in the process of establishing mutual understanding between the interlocutors. As already noted, a lot depends on the factors of discourse, which include elements such as linguistic features, characteristics of the communication situation, conceptual and linguistic relationships of the communicant's worldview.

CONCLUSION

Metaphors play an important role in some situations of decision making using specific linguistic means, which are especially important from the point of view of medical communication.

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The Importance of Learning Foreign Languages in s Person's Life

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***Abstract:** The article demonstrates how important English and other foreign languages are in today's society and in the lives of everyone. Introduction gives general ideas about why people want to learn foreign languages; the significance and the role of foreign languages are discussed in the main body by giving several examples and methods.*

***Key words:** Language, competency, pronunciation, globalization, intelligence, skill, ability, listening, reading, writing, speaking.*

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INTRODUCTION

Today, knowing foreign languages is one of the most important issues for everyone as globalization becomes more and more interesting. It is becoming a requirement of the times. Moreover, today, learning foreign language skills is an integral part of vocational education. Due to the high level of cooperation with foreign partners in various fields, the demand for language learning is high in every state. As we live in a modern and globalizing society, foreign languages are becoming more essential to gain high paid jobs.

People learn this knowledge first in school, then in elementary education, in training courses, or by getting acquainted with basic information sets that help them learn a foreign language independently, nowadays there is a large collection of teaching materials not only for students with different levels of language skills, but also for all language learners. It is safe to say that the success of this endeavor depends on the practical skills and competencies of the teachers. Furthermore, foreign languages can strengthen our brain and intellectual ability. To illustrate this point, our memory is improved by learning new and other foreign words that differ from our native language. On the other hand, knowing these languages can actually freshen every learners' psychology and provide them with an efficient comprehend of their own mother tongue and culture.

METHODS AND RESULTS

The ability to use information technology and modern teaching methods is one of the important factors that help to quickly understand new materials. By combining different methods, the teacher will be able to solve specific curricula. In this regard, it is safe to say that the introduction of modern methods of teaching foreign languages by teachers and students is a modern requirement. As a result, you will be able to choose the most effective ways to achieve the goal of learning a foreign language. Using a variety of teaching and learning methods can be effective. Teaching is done in small steps and is based on the student's existing knowledge system.

As time goes on, there are more and more innovations in every field, and we all know how important these innovations are in our lives. There are also different styles of language teaching. It is well known that the ability and level of the learner in teaching English, depending on the age, gives good results in step-by-step teaching. This can be achieved if students are divided into groups based on the level of teaching at the elementary level, teaching at the intermediate level, and teaching at the advanced level, and a special program is developed by the teacher for each stage.

At the beginning, it is important to pay attention to pronunciation. According to Harmer, the first requirement for those who know their native language during the conversation is pronunciation. At the beginning of the learning process, the teacher should focus on the student's pronunciation and the teacher should be very helpful to the student. Although grammar and vocabulary are important, if the speaker's pronunciation is incorrect, speech gets misunderstanding and the purpose of communication will not be achieved. Pronunciation is one of the most important factors. Teachers should explain learners that slow and fluent speech with correct pronunciation is much better than fast speech with wrong and incomprehensible pronunciation. Learners should understand that understandability is more important than fast speech in being able to speak foreign languages. According to EFL teachers, they should be aware of their learners' needs and problems in pronunciation.

Based on their needs, teachers should reveal and help them to overcome with some appropriate materials to reduce their learners' pronunciation problems. In addition to this, teachers should use computer technologies such as different kinds of computer software in their classes to help their learners improve their pronunciation by exposing them to authentic materials. We should learn to others, the more we listen, the more achievable results we shall obtain. During this analysis and practice it in my life it could pay off to improve my language skills as foreign films, songs, TV series, videos on you tube. They are too available to practice. I have been using and relied on it in teaching other children English, they have been improving their pronunciation and skill on understanding other languages except their own native languages.

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Learning and mastering a foreign language opens new doors in a person's life. Knowing the language is up to you when you go abroad provides great benefits. When you go for a simple meal, you can easily explain the dish you want. Learning a foreign language opens the world to finding work. It is no secret that learning a foreign language can improve employment prospects. More than ever, there are a few, often dozens, of companies around the world countries, but they speak at least one foreign language they can't do this without hiring people who speaks at least one foreign language.

The ability to speak a foreign language gives so many potential possibilities to express our feelings, desires, and connect with others when we meet a native speaker in our local area. It opens up opportunities to make new friends while learning a foreign language. You may have a chance to meet with interesting people, share information with them and really strive to form and develop lifelong friendships are worthwhile goals and learning another language will speed up this process is a reliable method. Language expresses our feelings, our desires and serve to connect with other people around us and forms meaningful relationships. Learning a foreign language encourages everyone to think more openly. Learning a foreign language and assimilation into an entirely new culture and worldview - open-minded, the most reliable way to become an understanding, tolerant person, and it's clearly priceless.

Learning foreign languages helps you better understand your own language and culture. This is one of the most unexpected benefits of learning a foreign language. Man is not only a cultural tradition, but also about the grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation styles of the first language will also become more aware. Learning a foreign language is very important and there are countless such reasons to learn the language. Language learning language helps overcome obstacles and deepens people's mutual understanding level.

Another aspect of learning a language is that bilingual language users can share their own ideas with others like their friends, colleagues, classmates to improve and change their lifestyle as foreign language users have their own effective cognitive intelligence and worldview.

CONCLUSION

For the above all mentioned reasons, knowledge of foreign languages is the key to new opportunities for everyone. If a specialist knows his field well, one door will open, if he knows how to speak a foreign language fluently, another door will open. Exactly, knowing the language can open the door for the whole world. It is so important to emphasize that, if we are serious and have liability about educating global leaders and future generations of our state for tomorrow, we need to have students who can engage many different societies and be able to build collaboration between them. Foreign language must be an important part of this

endeavor. The skill of foreign language should be considered as an essential part of everyone's education. Foreign language instruction should be a core element to our education and taught as early as possible from early stage.

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Scientific Opinions of Scholars on the use of The Term "Future" In Slavic and Persian

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***Abstract:** Our research aims to fill the gaps in this system by endowing Slavic languages with future periphrases and the progressive creation of the future using aspectual contrast, the progressive propagation of asymmetries resulting from the use of aspect to express time (more complete south than north).*

***Key Word:** Slavic, morphology, future, dialect, communication, analysis, modality, topicality, linguistic typology, periphrastic future.*

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INTRODUCTION

Paul Garde, University of Provence raises the related problem of the future. He tried to answer the question - How is a future created: the case of Slavic languages. The future, as a morphological category, is in languages an unstable formation, which can be absent, and which in history can appear, renew itself, disappear.

Slavic, having lost the Indo-European future (preserved in particular in Lithuanian), experienced a period without a morphological future, well attested by Old Slavic texts (9th century). There the semantic opposition: "done in progress / fact foreseen in the future" is expressed by the morphological opposition of aspect: "present of imperfective verb / present of perfective verb". The latter therefore fulfills almost all the functions of a future, but is also found with its purely aspectual value in various contexts where temporal opposition is neutralized. It would be wrong to call it "future". As for imperfective verbs, they have no specific means of expressing the future. Special case: the verb "to be", the only one to have a future, since to the same infinitive (byti) correspond two presents: one imperfective (esmi) and the other perfective (bodo), most often equivalent to future "I will be". The latter, joined to the perfect participle of perfective verbs, can form a sort of future tense: bodo napisalŭ "I will have written".

Later, the Slavic languages tend to fill in the gaps in this system by endowing themselves with a future periphrastic. Various auxiliaries are used here and there: "to have", "to begin", "to want" etc. with infinitive, "to be" with infinitive or perfect participle. But this process has different outcomes in the north and in the south:

- in the north (Russian, Polish, Czech, etc.) it only concerns imperfective verbs, mainly with the auxiliary "to be". Thus an imperfective future is created, r. budu pisat "I will write". The perfective future remains expressed by the present napišu, without the other values of this form disappearing.

- in the south, the future periphrastic is created for all verbs. The perfective present loses its future uses, retaining only its other values. We therefore have a perfect parallelism between perfective and imperfective futures, but with different morphological tools depending on the language:

- Slovene (and Kajkavian dialect of Croatian): "to be" + perfect participle (former future future): bom pisal, bom napisal.
- Serbo-Croatian: "to want" (conjugated) + infinitive: hoću pisati (pisat ću), hoću napisati (napisat ću)
- Bulgarian (and Macedonian): "to want" reduced to an invariable particle šte + present (conjugate): šte piša, šte napiša

This development shows the progressive creation of a future, with the use of aspectual opposition, and the progressive dissipation (more complete in the south than in the north) of the imbalances resulting from this use of the aspect for the expression of time.

Homa Lessan Pezechki, University of Provence, analyzes **the future and the future in Persian** [1]. Most grammarians strive to distinguish the temporal and modal values of each drawer of the verbal conjugation. In truth, we can say that the so-called "future" drawer, whatever its temporal application - in the future or the past - is almost always assigned a modal value. What changes depending on the context is simply the nuance of this modality: absolute certainty, near certainty, high probability, low probability, etc.

To speak of what is not yet, languages often reserve the possibility of representing future potentialities as if they were certain. However, as close as it is to the present, the future remains somewhat uncertain.

If, in French, the words "future" and "future" are used almost indifferently in everyday language, it is good to know that etymologically "future" is borrowed from classical Latin *futurus*, participle future of *esse* "to be". And "future" undoubtedly originates from *advenire*, from *ad* "to" and *venire* "to come". To speak of "what will be" and "what will come" Persian has only one term, namely, *âyande* [PPR. of *V. amadan* "to come"]. This serves both as a label to designate the grammatical drawer of the indicative and as a substantive or adjective with the French meaning "future". Persian is the third successive state of the same dialect, Southwestern Persian. We went from a language of the ancient Indo-European type, namely Old Persian, to a language of the modern type, through Pahlavi or Middle Iranian. Like Indo-European which did not have a special grammatical form for noting a planned action in the future, the oldest Indo-Iranian texts lack a proper expression of the future. The two widely used forms are the present indicative and the subjunctive. In (1) the indicative is used to express a state ready to be realized in the near future and humanly certain since it is wanted by man; in (2) the subjunctive does not express human will, but indicates a possible future action escaping humanity and simply prophesied.

(1) *bēz az nūn parron nē giryēm*
litt. but from now to after NEG cryPRES1SG
"But from now on I won't cry anymore. "

(2) *ud hān zōr... pad awē āyab aziš ba uzīhād ud pāk bawād ud ō cwar ud mād ahrāmād.*
litt. and this force in this fire of that to becomeSUB3SG and own beingSUB3SG and to sun and moon high goSUB3SG

"And that force (the force of light) in this fire (that of the end of the world) of the (material world) will come out and be purified and ascend to the sun and the moon."

The Persian "future" is formed from the apocopied infinitive, preceded by the verb *castan* "to want" conjugated to a form that resembles the present tense but lacks the prefix *mi-* [2] characteristic of this drawer. The verb *Câstan* is more or less emptied of its semantics to constitute the drawer called *âyande* "future": *Cândan* "to read", RAD. APOC à *Când* à *Câham Când* "I will read".

CONCLUSION

One of the subtleties of the French language lies in its different ways of expressing the future. Other languages do not necessarily have equivalents. Thus, as we will see in this study, French does not always manage to distinguish what is called, in a questionable way, the "simple future" and the "near future". On the other hand, the present indicative, the subjunctive, the compound past and the Persian simple past are drawers which enter into competition with the future periphrastic without forgetting the verb "to want" in the cases where one wants to make appear the purely volitional meaning of the verb. Analysis of our examples will show that time is interpretive and must be calculated from the whole context.

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Improve Fluency by Problematic Method

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Abstract: *The article deals with the usage of a problem solving method in learning a foreign language, where the trainee considers the language by working on problems. This enables the students to learn new knowledge by facing the problems to be solved. The learners are expected to observe, understand, analyze, interpret find solutions, and perform applications that lead to a holistic understanding of the concept.*

Key word: *Produce new facts, improvement, contradictions, communicative competence, philology, positive motivation, critical thinking, interactive.*

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INTRODUCTION

In modern practice of teaching a foreign language within the framework of the implementation of the State Educational Standard, the emphasis is on the use of modern technologies that contribute to the achievement of the main goal of teaching a foreign language, namely the formation of communicative competence, which includes: speech competence (the student's ability to communicate in all types of speech activity); linguistic competence (the ability to use linguistic knowledge to express communicative intentions in the appropriate communication situation); sociocultural (the ability to build intercultural communication); compensatory (the ability to get out of a difficult situation in the process of communication with a lack of language means); educational and cognitive (the ability to independently master a foreign language using modern technologies).

In the context of the personality-oriented paradigm of teaching and the implementation of interdisciplinary integration, when the cognitive activity of the student is lead to the fore, and not the teaching activity of the teacher, the cognitive and social development of the student's personality in the process of search, creative activity acquires particular importance. It seems that the relevance of the problem, which we propose to consider within the framework of this article, is associated with the determination of the specific features of problem-based learning in the context of the introduction of new state educational standards, which will contribute not only to the formation of the communicative competence of students, but also to the comprehensive development of the student's personality in the process of teaching a foreign language, which is manifested in the achievement of meta-subject results of foreign language education and ensures the readiness of the school graduate for further development.

At the present stage, the norm of the teaching activity of a foreign language teacher is the communicative-cognitive approach, one of the most characteristic features of which is the student's speech creativity in the classroom. A distinctive feature of modern teaching a foreign language is not the reproduction of what was previously learned which is still the case, but creative tasks that stimulate the active thinking action of students. In this regard, it is important to realize that the usual organizing principles of the teacher's activity should give way to mobilizing principles, that is, technologies are needed that would allow the teacher to mobilize students, activate their cognitive and speech-thinking activities, without which it is impossible to form internal motivation that ensures the successful mastering of a foreign language. In my opinion, such technologies include problem learning, which, as you know, is characterized by such an organization of learning, which is characterized by the productive activity of students, during which they acquire their own experience in solving cognitive problems.

In domestic didactics, the definition of problem learning was given by M.I.Makhmutov. "Problem-based learning is a type of developmental education, which combines the systematic independent search activity of students with their assimilation of ready-made conclusions of science, and the system of methods is built taking into account goal-setting and the principle of problematicity; the process of interaction between teaching and learning is focused on the formation of cognitive independence, stable motives for learning and thinking (including creative) abilities in the course of their assimilation of scientific concepts and methods of activity, determined by the system of problem situations "[1, p. 5]. The need to use problem situations was pointed out by A.A. Leontyev: "We must transform the learning process into a system of problem situations. And the content of education is in the system of means aimed at resolving these problem situations" [2, p. 108].

Thus, based on the analysis of pedagogical literature, we define problem learning in the framework of foreign language education as a specially organized type of educational and

cognitive activity aimed at finding solutions to the system of communicative, cognitive, problematic tasks and problem situations, as a result of which the skills and abilities of foreign language communication are formed, mastering the experience of creative activity, as well as the formation of a culture of thinking and cognitive interests of students by means of a foreign language.

Consider the problem situations underlying problem learning. The problematic situation created in the process of foreign language communication is aimed at creating conditions that stimulate the situational communicative need of the student to speak. The problematic situation itself is associated with stimulating productive thinking, overcoming certain difficulties, mobilizing speech-thinking activity, using elements of creative activity. This contributes not only to the acquisition of new knowledge, skills and abilities, but also to the personal development of students, in particular the development of their creative abilities. A problem situation may contain a new way of activity, an object of activity, conditions for performing the activity, and, therefore, a problem situation stimulates the student to independently build a productive statement. By the type of information mismatch, problematic situations can be situations of surprise, conflict, assumption, contradiction, inconsistency, uncertainty.

In the methodological literature, according to the level of problemat�icity, they differ:

- situations put and resolved by the teacher;
- situations put by the teacher and resolved by the student;
- independent formation of the problem by the student and its solution [3, p. 57].

With regard to teaching a foreign language I.A. Winter highlights three levels of problematic educational situations. The author refers to the first of them the level of creating a problem situation on the subject of the statement known to the student by means unknown to him; to the second - the level at which the student knows the ways of forming and formulating thoughts by means of known linguistic means for expressing an unknown, new semantic content, a new subject of expression. The third level is the level of creating one's own speech-and-thinking tasks, given by a new problem situation and perceived by the student as a solution to his personally significant problems [1, p. 51].

PERCEIVED OUTCOMES

The experience in testing situations of various levels of problemat�icity allows us to assert that the most effective in terms of enhancing speech-thinking activity are problem situations of the third type, since in this case the student independently formulates the problem, creates his own speech-thinking task and solves it. In this process of solving independently formed personally significant problem situations, the cognitive need and internal activity of the student increases and the level of his intellectual development rises.

Based on the foregoing, we believe that in teaching a foreign language problem situations are, first of all, problem-communicative situations that encourage students to productive foreign language speech activity, expressed in their own thoughts and productive statements of students as a result of active comprehension and solution of the set speech-thinking task. Consequently, problematic teaching of a foreign language presupposes a consistent and purposeful development and presentation of problem situations to students, for the solution of which students create their own speech statements, perceived by students as personally significant.

Thus, the problematic approach is based on the formation of a certain type of internal motivation - problem-cognitive. In this regard, the educational material that students must master should be presented as a series of problematic tasks. Problem-solving tasks are a special

type of intellectual task in which some elements for its solution are unknown to students, they must find themselves. Problematic tasks are always associated with overcoming any obstacle, mobilizing the cognitive activity of students, using elements of creative speech-thinking activity. A problem situation is a form of presenting a student with an educational task that induces speech actions.

The communicative and cognitive task should be within the reach of the students, adequate to the level of their intellectual development. It is then that she will create a problematic situation for the students.

Taking into account the considered provisions, depending on the type of communicative task, we distinguish problem-informative, problem-motivating, problem-evaluative tasks as a means of creating problem situations in teaching a foreign language. To determine the degree of difficulty of the assignment, we rely on certain criteria: the predestination or unsettledness of the language material and the degree of independence of the students in completing this task, which also depends on the preset or unsettledness of the language material. Thus, we come to the conclusion that the more material is given, the less independence would occur. Problem-seeking learning activity largely contributes to maintaining the motivation for learning a foreign language, in comparison with the intensive use of traditional illustrative and explanatory teaching [5, p. 121]. Therefore, it seems appropriate to use more extensively problem-based teaching techniques that stimulate active communicative postures.

Therefore, it seems appropriate to use more extensively problem-based teaching techniques that stimulate active communicative and cognitive activity of students. In this case, a differentiated approach and the teacher's creativity play an important role.

For the effective use of problem technology in the process of teaching a foreign language, we propose to implement the following requirements:

- selection of tasks that are significant for the student;
- identification of aspects of problem-based learning at different stages of the educational process in a foreign language: when introducing new language material, monitoring, consolidating and at the stage of improving speech skills;
- the choice of the method of organizing a problem situation;
- selection of the type of problem communication task offered to students.

The construction of a lesson as an organized, controlled and teacher-controlled sequence of students' actions, ensuring the optimal formation of foreign language communicative competence and its structural components, required the development of an algorithm for organizing educational and cognitive activities based on a problem approach to teaching a foreign language.

The algorithm for organizing educational and cognitive activities for mastering a foreign language based on a problematic approach includes the following operations:

- identification of obstacles on the way to solving the problem;
- the choice of one of several options for solving the problem;
- leading students to a contradiction and finding a way to resolve it;
- clash of opposing views in terms of content;
- consideration of the issue from different points of view;
- consideration of a phenomenon or event from the perspective of different people;
- comparisons, generalizations, conclusions from the situation, comparison of facts.

The choice of the technique and the implementation of the proposed algorithm is largely determined by the content of the educational material underlying it. So, the clash of opposing

views in terms of content can be used when organizing social, political, moral and ethical types of educational problem situations. The choice of one of several options for solving the problem underlies the organization of behavioral and cognitive problem situations. Consideration of the same issue from different points of view can serve as a method of organizing scientific and cognitive problem situations.

Here is an example of a behavioral problem situation based on the use of the method of removing obstacles on the way to the goal on the topic Surviving in the wilderness Camps: 1) Imagine that you are going up into the mountains. Suddenly fog is coming down, you are running into low-lying clouds and you do not know where you are exactly. What will you do? 2) Imagine that you are camping in the woods. Suddenly you hear a bear trying to get into your tent. You do not have a gun. What will you do? Do you deal with the new situation? The presence of an obstacle on the way to the goal serves as a motive for productive foreign language activity, when the student expresses his own thoughts, and does not reproduce what was previously learned. Gather information about travel connections from our city to neighboring countries. What means of transport are available? What do you do if you find out that on the arrival you have to stay in fifteen-days-quarantine at the airport?

CONCLUSION

Our experience of using problem situations shows that for the successful inclusion of students in the productive solution of educational problem problems, it is important to form in them the ability to independently formulate a problem, comment, reason and refute.

To define the thesis, the students are faced with a problem, during the discussion of which different points of view are expressed. The problem can be presented ready-made. A clearly formulated judgment is a thesis to be argued. More complex problem situations can be created using the thesis for discussion. At the initial stage of work, students are offered arguments in a ready-made form, which provides them with an incentive to productive, reasoned statements.

In the practice of teaching a foreign language, it is advisable to use other types of problematic tasks, which contribute to the activation of cognitive activity and the formation of practical skills to use the language as a means of communication. In our opinion, extra linguistic tasks associated with the processing of the subject content of texts in a foreign language with subsequent interpretation are very effective. Close tests offered to students at the control stage also have a high level of problematicity. For the correct restoration of the missing elements, the student must carry out a number of transformations: analyze the semantic information of the previous and subsequent parts of the text, analyze the grammatical structure of this passage, recall from memory the lexical units that are combined with this grammatical structure, arrange these elements in terms of grammar.

The work on the differentiation of words that have a common equivalent in the native language makes it possible to use problem situations in groups with different training due to the fact that these tasks can be distributed according to the degree of difficulty. Tasks for finding shades of meanings, etymology of words contribute to the activation of cognitive activity have a high productivity of memorization.

We have introduced into the practice of teaching a foreign language intellectual tasks related to the comprehension of drawings, diagrams, geographical puzzle, crosswords, our own definition of any concepts, problem presentation of material when a student must compare,

draw conclusions, as well as tasks to stimulate productive utterance in the proposed situation, when the student independently uses speech material in any new situation.

Thus, systematic work on the implementation of the problematic approach in teaching a foreign language based on the proposed algorithm and a set of problematic tasks stimulates the cognitive activity of students, which orientates them towards the extraction of specific information and the development of skills for its processing, provides the formation of psycholinguistic mechanisms for predicting the content of the read or heard text, activates speech and thinking activity and creativity of students, contributes to the formation of a culture of thinking and social development of students in the process of foreign language education.

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The Cultural Basis of Scenarios and Semantic Coherence in Cognitive Linguistics

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***Abstract:** The implication of this research for cognitive linguistics and discourse is, first and most generally, that more attention should be given to the cultural aspect of the concept of scenario. Research in different disciplines seem to support the claim made in this paper that cognitive structures (scenarios) are crucial in determining the inference rules for discourse understanding. The article provides an overview of major theoretical framework by foreign linguists who pay attention to special aspects and lines of research. The study shows the theory of scenarios, how people store, classify, and access information in the brain, and how these mental scenarios are reflected in the grammar and lexicon of texts. This paper analysis how scenarios provide structure and lexical cohesion and semantic coherence at discourse level. The document investigates the difference of the scenarios between the two cultures, texts and examples was used both two languages, from “O’tkan kunlar” by A.Qodiriy, the brilliant work of Uzbek fiction and lecture written by university teacher. Uzbek examples translated by researcher.*

***Key words:** Cognitive, scenario, discourse, coherence, cohesion, reiteration, cultural, lexical, semantic, script, frame, schema.*

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THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The concept of scenario is applied in Cognitive Linguistics, Literature, Social Psychology, Cognitive Psychology and other disciplines. Linguists, artificial intelligence researchers, educators, and cognitive psychologists have made observations that have contributed to the theory of scenarios and the potential of this theory to help understand the nature of learning, communication, and comprehension. Therefore, there exist different terminology for scenarios which were given by different theorists.

Firstly, in 1932 the theory of scenario was described by Barlett (Barrett, Charles K 1947-1948) who is a social psychologist. He conducted experiments on memory the concept of scenario using the term “schema”. Then in 1977 Rumelhart (Rumelhart, David E 1980) and Orthony used the term “schema” for scenario. In 1984 Mandler (Mandler, Jean. M 1984) was distinguished 3 types of schemata: scenes, scripts and stories. In 1987 Howard added person and action to Mandler classification as types of schemata (Howard, Robert West 1987). Another term was “frame” for scenario used by Fillmore (Fillmore, Charles J 1985) and Callow used the term “relational framework” in 1998 (Callow, Katherine 1998).

Fillmore’s term “case frame” refers only to the core relationships of an “event” scenario (Fillmore, Charles J 1985), i.e. the event and its prototypical participants related semantically (“deep structure”), together with the ways those relationships are represented in surface structure. Fillmore’s case frames, at the level of “deep structure”, are posited as language universal. As such they exclude the culture-specific elements of the scenario, such as what type of person prototypically fills what case slot, where, when, why such activity takes place, etc (Fillmore, Charles J 1985). In 1977 Schank and Abelson used the term “script” for a complex types of “event” scenario (Schank, Roger C. & Robert P. Abelson 1977). This study also uses the terms “script” and “script-type scenario” for this subtype (Richard A. Hoyle 2008). The last term was “Idealized Cognitive Model (ICMs)” which was used by Lakoff in 1987. He listed five types of ICMs (Lakoff, George, & Mark Johnson 1980) :

- Image-schematic
- Propositional
- Metaphoric
- Metonymic
- Symbolic

So, the term “scenario” used by Sanford and Garrod to refer to cognitive structures in our minds (Sanford, Anthony J., & Simon C. Garrod 1981), which we form by categorizing our experiences and we use to organize information and to retrieve information from memory. Scenarios are data networks stored in the brain. We formulate scenarios by categorizing our experiences and dividing them into relevant concepts. Scenarios are based on experience, so they can vary from culture to culture. We use scenarios to interpret new experiences and to understand and build connections. Scenarios are highly structured and are used as a “standard” in understanding and communicating information in specific “slots”.

Despite the differences in terminology, there is a clear interdisciplinary consensus on the existence and nature of scenarios. Proper communication depends on common scenarios. Because scenarios affect not only mental conceptualization, but also scenarios influence the structure of discourse.

Scenarios provide cohesion and coherence in discourse. Scenarios not only influence the writer’s choice of grammar and the listener’s vocabulary interpretation, but also provide the audience with a database to predict possible events and fill in meanings, so it is important to consider their role in discourse. Scenario provides lexical cohesion and semantic coherence.

Baker mentioned (Baker, Mona 1992) that lexical cohesion refers to the role played by the selection of vocabulary in organizing relations within a text. He gives two categories of lexical cohesion:

- a) reiteration
- b) collocation.

a) the main application of repetition in speech is to observe participants during a long speech that provides “basic continuity”.

For example:

Let me tell you about my cat, Dmitri. My husband and I found Dmitri at our local shelter when he was a kitten and fell in love with him right away, despite the fact that he was the only one in the shelter who was hidden under the newspaper in his cage, howling pitifully. (Cowles, H.Wind 2010)

In this text:

Full repetition: my cat, Dimitri

Partial repetition: Dimitri

Pronoun: he, him and who

Synonym; -

Superordinate: -

General word: -

Many reiteration devices are grammatical such as use of pronoun and superordinate.

For example:

There are male guests outside and female guests inside of Qutidor’s house, they are honored with holva, nisholda and palov. A variety of delicacies and candies are prepared for the groom, and they are waiting for the groom. (O’tkan kunlar by Abdulla Kodiriy. 32p)

Here coreferentiality depend on a specific – generic link between “holva”, “nisholda” and “candy” in the source culture scenario. In English “holva” and “nisholda” is not a natural superordinate, since they were uncooked.

b) Baker said that collocation “covers any instance which involves a pair of lexical items (Baker, Mona 1992) that are associated with each other in the language in some way”. Collocation also depends on the word-concept link within the scenarios. The main discourse function of collocation is to provide lexical coherence within paragraphs and episodes, thereby helping the listener to understand the boundaries of the paragraph and episodes through changes in the collocational sets.

Whereas Baker mentioned that lexical cohesion “refers to the role played by the selection of vocabulary in organizing relations within a text” (Baker, Mona 1992), and Crystal mentioned that semantic coherence refers to the “underlying functional or logical connectedness” of a text (Crystal, David 1997). Scenarios not only create lexical coherence between elements belonging to the same scenario, but also provide a basis for semantic coherence through prototypical semantic connections already stored within scenarios, such as general-specific and cause-and-effect.

For example:

Because Otabek fell in love with Kumushbibi, he was distracted at night (cause). Realizing this, Hasanali went to Qutidor's house as a sovchi (result).

Van Dijk points out “an important cognitive condition of semantic coherence is the assumed normality of the worlds involved. The set of propositions characterizing our conventional knowledge of some more or less autonomous situation (activity, course of events, state) is called a frame.” (Van Dijk, Teun A 1977). So, what makes a text coherent and comprehensible is our ability to interpret it as normal in the light of a particular scenario or frame. Even attitudes toward natural phenomena in the world are different in each person. In England, sunshine is considered positive and rain is considered negative. On the contrary, for Uzbek, the sun is not always a symbol of joy and rain is not an expression of depression. Historically, Uzbeks have a ritual of calling for rain, singing the song "Suz Khotin" and making a large puppet and drowning it in a stream or a stream of water. Or everyone should plant at least one tree in their lifetime to provide shade to humans. The fact that two different scenarios of this type of rain or sunshine come to mind is, of course, the fact that Uzbekistan is a sunny and low-rainfall country. England, on the other hand, is a country that receives more rain and less sun. Scenarios also differ due to cultural differences. Shared scenarios provide semantic coherence in discourse, while scenario differences have destroyed it.

For example:

A white king's scarf on his head, a white king's shirt inside, a white-and-silver gilded coat on top, a collar of beavers kissing the turtles, a black curly hair tangled around his neck, raw silver faces choking ... The Yangas got the Kumushbibi from the yard and handed it to the girls: "Here's Kumushbibi Bear to you, girls!" Open your heart to Kumush, girls! Two or three girls ran into the yard, took the paranji from Kumushbibi, and went home.

(Boshdag'i oq shohi ro'ymol, ichdagi oq shohi ko'ynak, ustdagi oq kumush zarrin siril-gan po'stin, baqbaqalarni o'rab o'pib turg'an yoqa qunduzlarining kelishkani, solinib tushkan qora jinggila sochlarning bo'yin tevaragiga chirmashqani, xom nuqra yuzlarning bo'g'riqqani... Yangalar Kumushni havlidan turib qizlarga topshirdilar: — Mana Kumushbibi — sizlarga, qizlar! Kumushning ko'nglini yaxshilab ochinglar, qizlar! Ikki-uch qiz chopib havliga tushdilar-da, Kumushbibidan paranjini olib uyga boshladilar) (A.Qodiriy 1926)

Despite the simple vocabulary and grammar, this is probably not related to each other. Who is Kumushbibi or yangas? Why is her face hidden with paranji? Why should girls cheer him up?

COMPARE:

Her hair and her make-up were perfect. She put on her long white dress and her veil. The one and only time she would wear them. She glanced at the single ring on her left hand. Today there would be two! (Richard A. Hoyle 2008)

This text is clear about the bride on her wedding day, with a wedding dress, an engagement ring and a wedding ring. Still, neither the wedding nor the bride is clear.

The first text is about the bride, the Uzbek bride. The vocabulary of each text clearly reveals the “wedding” scenario for the relevant cultural audience. The “wedding” scenario not only defines “u” as the bride, but also defines a specific stage achieved in the wedding script, i.e., the preparation of the bride. It also provides semantic coherence with the next part of the speech, which relates to the next script stage, the wedding itself, or some interruptions (or distractions) in that script.

Thus semantic coherence in discourse depends not only on lexically marked semantic relations, nor even on the co-occurrence of lexical items *per se*, but on cultural and experiential linking of things and events in one's mental scenarios. It is the ability to correctly identify the author's intended scenario which produces semantic coherence and makes comprehension possible.

CONCLUSION

Scenario theory has been developed in a variety of fields, including linguistics, cognitive psychology, and artificial intelligence. Despite the differences in terminology, there is a strong consensus on the existence and nature of scenarios. Scenario theory is supported by psychological and neurological research. Scenarios are a network of data in the brain that stores concepts in appropriate clusters within an interconnected framework. We shape scenarios by forming a common prototype framework, categorizing and organizing our experiences to group specific experiences together. Consequently, due to common experiences, environments, and worldviews, there are few differences between the scenarios of different individuals within a single culture. However, conversely, scenarios can vary significantly from culture to culture.

Scenarios, by storing lexical items along with related concepts, provide the structure for determining which lexical items naturally collocate. Scenarios also enable the audience to perceive semantic coherence in the text, even when semantic relations are not explicitly marked, by assuming the prototypical relationships from the relevant scenario.

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Dominants of Socio-Psychological Factors in The Origin of Postmodernism

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***Abstract:** This article focuses on the social background of postmodernism and their psychological factors in the post-modernism period. Postmodernism is a creative course in second half of the last century, which is conducted in the post-modernism era, in literature and humanitarian spheres. This direction is a broad and very contradictory phenomenon that affects human worldview. The views of him are not yet fully completed because the incident itself continues.*

***Key words:** Post-structuralism, humanitarian spheres, tendencies, skeptical of explanations, “author’s death”.*

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INTRODUCTION

Postmodernism is a process that reflects the changes that have taken place in society and has taken on the status of a paradigm in the perception and perception of the world. Postmodernism is also seen as an assimilation of traditions and ironic approach to them. This process is important in the literary and social spheres itself. One of the main factors of postmodernism is the denial of the role of the individual in this creation, the concept of "author's death".

Analysis part. Beginning in the 1950s and culminating in the late 1960s, the forces tending to fractionate social psychology came to the fore once more. This trend...has had deleterious consequences not only for social psychology as a whole but also for developments within each of its three faces. (House, 1977: 163) In the late 1970s the social psychology literature was littered with discussions describing the field as undergoing a period of self-criticism.... Practitioners within both psychology and sociology seemed to feel we had lost a clear sense of the central problems of the field. (McMahon, 1984: 121) It is almost commonplace to acknowledge the existence of a crisis in social psychology. But social psychologists have not linked the theoretic crisis with a larger crisis. (Wexler, 1983: 1)

According to James J. Dowd, he is a professor in the Department of Sociology, University of Georgia, although it may contradict the notion of a "crisis" (since, by definition, to ignore a crisis is to expose oneself to peril, that is, to incur whatever unwanted events that exist or may be imagined that constitute the nature of The Crisis), the behavior of social psychologists in response to the crisis rhetoric nonetheless can fairly be characterized as one of casual inattention. To go about one's work in the middle of a crisis has proven to be, in effect, the best possible response. Crises, it seems, are good for business. Indeed, as one reflects upon the frequency with which social psychology seems to be facing crossroads or crises of one sort or another, it is not difficult to understand why a certain amount of skepticism with regard to such claims is not unreasonable.

The remarkable outcome, were it to have occurred, would have been for researchers in this field, as a result of reading one or more of the jeremiads or hectoring critiques on the crisis in social psychology, to have complied with the suggestions of others that they change their research agenda in one or more not insignificant ways. Habits die hard and experimental social psychologists do not become field researchers merely in response to the criticisms of sociologists concerning laboratory methods. Furthermore, given the powerful intersection of economic and psychological motives to continue to produce the type of work that one has produced in the past, the rhetoric of crisis is easily dismissed, if not ignored altogether.

In this article, it is taken as a starting point the indifference that most sociologists and psychologists have shown both toward the presumed crisis in their joint discipline and toward developments generally in the "other" half of the field. Postmodernism is a particularly interesting term inasmuch as it originated within the field of architecture (to describe a style of building distinguishable from its predecessors in the late modern style), but has since been used to describe similar "after-the-modern" movements in art, literature, music, social theory and, most recently, historiography. Indeed, the term has become so widely adopted that one can distinguish several referents or meanings for the concept. Postmodernists are generally "skeptical of explanations which claim to be valid for all groups, cultures, traditions, or races", and describe truth as relative. It can be described as a reaction against attempts to explain reality in an objective manner by claiming that reality is a mental construct. Access to an unmediated reality or to objectively rational knowledge is rejected on the grounds that all interpretations

are contingent on the perspective from which they are made; as such, claims to objective fact are dismissed as naive realism.

Postmodern thinkers frequently describe knowledge claims and value systems as contingent or socially-conditioned, describing them as products of political, historical, or cultural discourses and hierarchies. Accordingly, postmodern thought is broadly characterized by tendencies to self-referentiality, epistemological and moral relativism, pluralism, and irreverence. Postmodernism relies on critical theory, which considers the effects of ideology, society, and history on culture. Critical theory and postmodernism commonly criticize universalist ideas of objective reality, morality, truth, human nature, reason, language, and social progress.

Postmodernism is often associated with schools of thought such as deconstruction, post-structuralism, and institutional critique, as well as philosophers such as Jacques Derrida, Umberto Eco and Fredric Jameson.

One of the most important works written in the direction of postmodernism is Paulo Coelho's *The Alchemist*. This work is a work that narrates the concept of "my own destiny", a key concept at the heart of the shepherd boy Santiago's travels. The fact that the work is written in a narrative style, like our folk tales, that the path of Santiago begins and ends in itself, like Maliksiddiq's Master Khidr, meets in different ways on the path of Santiago. It is also a popular work due to its closeness to the spiritual world and beliefs of our nation.

CONCLUSION

Postmodernism is a way of understanding and explaining current real events, that is, the world. It is also the way of literature, the way of art, the way of understanding the world, the way of feeling. However, it is not the last resort. As long as there are people, societies, their worldviews, aspirations and needs do not stop there. Human is always looking for a new way for himself and he is always on the lookout. As long as he is alive, the search will always continue. I would like to add that postmodern research can be seen not only in world literature but also in Uzbek literature, especially in prose. For example, in the works of O. Mukhtor, H. Dostmuhammad, N. Eshonkul and many other similar writers there are various manifestations of postmodernism. Hence, postmodernism has been, and continues to be, the most flourishing period of world literature in the late 20th and early 21st centuries. Modern world literature and Uzbek literature are very diverse, mixed and complex phenomena, and the debate about it and its future is still ongoing.

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The Historical Development of The Problem of Language Economy

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***Abstract:** The aim of the article is to study the peculiarities of language economy in the modern English- and Uzbek-language. The methods of research which have been used in the work include the method of continuous selection of terminological material, method of reconstruction of word-formative models, methods of definitional and component analysis, methods of qualitative and quantitative analysis, etc.*

***Key word:** Language economy, economical distribution, the law of least effort, saving linguistic*

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INTRODUCTION

The development and functioning of the language is due to numerous processes. One of the fundamental processes of language development is the principle of saving linguistic means. This trend is universal and affects all levels of the language system, which is why the principle of linguistic economy from a certain point of view can be considered as one of the reasons for linguistic changes.

The fact that the tendency to economize on linguistic means is the basic law of language development is recognized by the majority of linguists, who also attribute to it the status of one of the main driving forces of the evolution of the language as a whole. In world linguistics, this trend is called differently: G. Paul – “economy of linguistic means”, F. de Saussure – “the law of least effort”, O. Jespersen - "theory of convenience", A. Martinet, G. Sweet and P. Passy – “the principle of economy”, and the Russian linguist E. D. Polivanov called it “human laziness”¹.

MAIN PART

Despite the variety of names, the essence of linguistic economy is as follows: linguistic economy is a universal category inherent in all languages of the world, characterized by the desire to save money, avoid excessive costs of physiological and psychological efforts when using speech, and manifests itself at all levels of the language system.

The interest in economy as a linguistic phenomenon has always been the focus of linguists' attention. However, its role in the development and improvement of the language system is assessed in different ways. Some scholars recognize it as the main law of the development of language (I.A. not all changes occurring in the language system can be explained by this law (F. de Saussure, O. Espersen), and still others deny the role of economy in the development and functioning of language The thought that language structure should be defined.

“Economical distribution” between its parts became widespread already in the XVII-XVIII centuries. in connection with the discussion of various projects for the creation of artificial languages. In 1629, in particular, Rene Descartes wrote to the Abbot Merseny that an artificial language should have only “... one way of conjugation, declension and construction of words.” Such a language “... would not have at all ... irregular forms arising from the habit of distortion. Changes in verbs and word-formation forms would be made using prefixes added to the beginning or end of root words. These prefixes should be in the general dictionary. Average people (les esprits vulgaires), using this dictionary, will be able to freely master such a language within six months. “The idea of creating an artificial language, which everyone can freely master in a few months, was of great interest to the thinkers of the 17th-18th centuries. This idea turned out to be so tempting (“a language without tears and without torment”) that later, in the 19th century, it was partially spread to natural languages, trying to “Simplify” them, prove the possibility of similar operations on them. At the same time, they began to refer to the “nature of the language itself.”

The beginning of a systematic study of the problem of linguistic economy is noted in the 80s of the XIX century and is associated with the names of such scientists as I.A. Baudouin de Courtenay, P. Passy, G. Suite, O. Espersen. However, the beginnings of the doctrine of linguistic economics can be found already in the works of philosophers of linguists of

¹ Akhmanova O.S. Dictionary of linguistic terms / O.S. Akhmanov. - M.: Editorial URSS, 2007.569 p.

antiquity. So, Aristotle wrote that if you want to speak succinctly (that is, economically), you should use names instead of concepts, for example, "circle" instead of "a flat surface, all points of which are equally spaced from the center".

I.A. Baudouin de Courtenay drew attention to the phenomenon of economy in language and speech, noting that "the cause, the engine of all language changes is the desire for convenience, the desire for relief in three areas of language activity: in the field of pronunciation (phonation), in the field of listening and perception (audition) and, finally, in the field of linguistic thinking (cerebration)". B. de Courtenay pointed out in one of his lectures: "General reasons, general factors that cause the development of a language and determine its structure and composition, it is very fair to call forces. These are, by the way:

- 1) habit, i.e. unconscious memory;
- 2) the pursuit of convenience, expressed by:
 - a) in the transition of sounds and consonants more difficult to easier ones to preserve muscles and nerves;
 - b) in an effort to simplify forms (the action of the analogy of stronger ones on weaker ones);
 - c) in the transition from the concrete to the abstract, to facilitate the abstract movement of thought." ²

In his understanding, language represents a living organism. So, a little later, he wrote: "Linguistic life is a continuous organic work. ... And in organic work one can notice the desire to save energy and to not waste them unnecessarily, the desire for the purposefulness of efforts and movements, the desire for benefit and benefit." In the 17th - 18th centuries, in connection with the discussion of projects for the creation of artificial languages, the idea that the linguistic structure should be determined by "economical distribution" between its parts became widespread.

However, a systematic study of this problem began much later, in the 19th century. Attempts have been made to simplify natural languages in order to make them easier to learn. At the same time, it was noted that this impact on the language only accelerates the natural process of simplification that occurs in the course of its development.

G. Spencer considered the question of linguistic economy in its quantitative understanding. He argued that in the process of development, following the "natural laws of evolution", the language moves from the complex to the simple. Long words become short, "wordy sentences become single-word sentences." The British once resorted to constructions like *we tellen*, now - *we tell* "*we say*" (the ending is lost). Having traced the history of the development of English words, we see that at each stage of its development, as a result of the reduction of endings in the middle period and the loss of final consonants in unstressed syllables in the 15th century. Long words turn into short, polysyllabic ones - into monosyllabic ones, for example: *Drincan* -> *drinken* -> *drinke*-> *drink* - *ichmoq*.

Spencer's statement traces the idea that language moves from more complex to simpler ways of expressing the same content, but does not simplify its general structure, since this would inevitably mean its impoverishment, a decrease in expressive capabilities.

² Barkhudarov L.S. Structure of a simple sentence in modern English - M.: LKI, 2012. 200 s.

G. Paul, in turn, considered the problem of “economy” of the language differently. In his opinion, saving does not mean narrowing the resources of the language, eliminating excesses, it only ensures the expansion of the resources of the language. G. Paul notes: "One already useless memory overload is a sufficient reason to eliminate these excesses." In the book “Principles of the History of Language” G. Paul sets out his thoughts aimed at the tendency of linguistic economy in two chapters “Economy of linguistic means” and “Differentiation of meanings”.

In the article “Saving linguistic means”, we find the author’s sayings, which says that “linguistic activity is characterized by a certain tendency towards frugality” – “in the language, for all cases, methods of expression are developed that contain exactly as much as is necessary for understanding.”³

In his opinion, the need is the engine of thought, which is the degree of use of the expression of linguistic means, it should be noted that he also noted that “very often linguistic means are used unnecessarily wasteful.” This chapter discusses an interesting fact aimed at studying linguistic frugality along the length of the speech chain.

The principle of “economy” of language was especially famous in phonetics, and later in phonology. Paul Passy in 1890, referring to the sound system of the French language, declared: “The language is constantly striving to get rid of what is superfluous and to highlight what is necessary.” Following Sweet, Passy called the first trend "the law of least effort" and the second “the principle of economy.”⁴

P. Passy tried to find the reason for some phonetic changes in the language. Taking into account the fact of the effect of linguistic economy, he drew attention to the fact that there is a "search for the least effort" in the language, therefore in some phonetic changes can be explained precisely by the economy of pronunciation efforts. Revealing the essence of these processes, he drew attention to the following facts:

- 1) the language is constantly striving to get rid of unnecessary things;
- 2) the language constantly strives to highlight the necessary.

The first tendency, according to P. Passy, is the implementation of the principle of linguistic economy, and the second is the principle of emphasis. “The first principle,” notes P. Passy, “is usually viewed as a tendency to create light articulations, sometimes called the law of least effort. I prefer to call it, together with Sweet, the principle of economy, because its action does not always lead to making the effort less necessary. The principle of economy manifests itself in the language very actively. It is expressed in the weakening of less needed syllables, in assimilation, the reduction of long syllables, the elimination of subtle differences, etc. The second principle is the principle of emphasis. It finds expression in such phenomena as aspiration of consonants, insertion of vowels between consonants, dissimilation, replacement of less sonorous sounds with more sonorous ones, etc.”⁵

In the process of studying this trend, he raises the question of the unconsciousness of linguistic economy by speakers. His assumptions are based on the fact that “Everything that is necessary in order to be understood and well understood is carefully preserved in the language. Attention is not paid to everything else, it leaves the language and is consigned to oblivion.” P. Passy concludes that the principle of economy is the desire to get rid of

³ Akhmanova O.S. Dictionary of linguistic terms / O.S. Akhmanov. - M.: Editorial URSS, 2007.569 p.

⁴ Barkhudarov L.S. Structure of a simple sentence in modern English - M.: LKI, 23 2012.200 s.

⁵ Galperin I.R. Essays on the style of the English language / I.R. Halperin. 2nd ed., Rev. M.: URSS, 2012.375 c.

unnecessary things.

CONCLUSION

Thus, economy is a linguistic law that manifests its universal role at all levels of the language system. It should be noted that the principle of economy is recognized by leading linguists as one of the driving forces in the development and enrichment of the language. The systematic study of this problem began in the 19th century, but its relevance has not yet been exhausted, since the dynamics of language development towards linguistic economy has not yet been sufficiently studied.

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The Study of Phraseology and Its Theoretical Features

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Abstract: *In world linguistics, special attention is paid to the study of the transmission in language of the picture of the world, the implementation in language units of the way of life, national-mental characteristics and the character of the people. There is a great need to reveal the expressive means of national languages by comparing different languages, establishing the linguistic and cultural features of figurative units that reflect the national ethno-culture, forming conclusions about changes in the way of life of the people on the basis of the identified linguistic and cultural features. In linguistics, system-structural studies are aimed at the semantic-structural study of phraseological units, identifying the semiotic and sememic composition; ethno linguistic studies-at determining the figurative bases that form phraseological units, the connection of their components with the life of the people, and identifying their specific features, and linguoculturological studies-at assessing how and to what extent the culture of the people is reflected in the basis of the form and meaning of phraseological units. In the formal structure of phraseology, along with the components of zoonyms, hydronyms, biblionyms, gastronomic components are also actively involved. Therefore, special attention is paid to the study on the basis of the influence of language and culture of the formation of phraseological units with the participation of gastronomic components, their manifestation as an identifier of a particular culture.*

Key word: *Phraseology, linguoculturology, zoonyms, hydronyms, biblionyms, gastronomic components.*

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INTRODUCTION

Phraseology came to the field in the 40s of the last century as a separate branch of linguistics, despite the fact that the phrases were very ancient units of folk oral and written creativity. The theory of phraseology was originally founded by the French linguist Charles Bally, for the first time systematized vocabulary in his work "Traité de stylistique française" (Stylistics of French). He distinguished three groups of word combinations: 1) free word combinations, that is, combinations of words that are devoid of stability, disintegrating after declension; 2) all skilful word combinations, that is, combinations of words in which the components are characterized by relatively free communication, allowing some modifications; 3) phraseological rows, that is, two concepts that are located side by side, are groups of words (1961,14).

Among the world linguists, phraseologisms and their role in the language are not yet clearly defined, and the concepts about them differ from each other. According to the German linguist Patricia Francisa Ciaey, phraseology entered linguistics as a science in 1969-1989 and in this direction a lot of literature on semantics, syntax and pragmatics was created. Nevertheless, as in any language, terminology began to arise in this place (1987,189). Even when there was any definition of internal linguistic terminological bias, these attempts were nullified.

DIFFERENT VIEW AND DEFINITIONS TO THE PHRASEOLOGY

In fact, in the comparative analysis of research in the field of phraseology of World linguistics, one can see that there are many variants of the concept of "phraseologism", and in its definition, too, different views. Consequently, G.Nazaryan who conducted research on the French phraseology said: "phraseologism is an independent unit of language, which is characterized by a complete and partial semantic change in composition, vocabulary and speech (1968,5). The independent unit of language phraseologism is more complex than other language combinations, such as phoneme, morpheme, word, and has a lexical, grammatical and especially semantic specific structure. More extralinguistic factors are involved in this structure. And they play a big role in the formation and development of the idioms and show the national character." Linguists Gramley and Patzold describe the phrase as "a complex element that is longer than the word form, but shorter than the sentence and has a meaning that comes from its components."

Also, a scientist who made a huge contribution to the study of English phraseologisms. V.Kunin believes that "Idioms are stagnant word combinations that apply in the sense of full and partial transportability" (1972,7). R.Sholes notes the phrase "units, which are understood by speakers, but their meaning is often different from the meaning of words." (1982, 162)

Linguist S.Irujo also endorses this idea and says, "the phrase is a typical expression whose meaning cannot be determined from component meanings." For example, the expression *milk and water* can not be understood through the words "milk" and "water". (1986, 205)

In our opinion, this idea can not be supported by all phraseological units. It happens that some phraseologisms grow from the function of the components in them and the meaning in which they are meant. For example, the phrase *after meat mustard* (ERPD, 496) in English means "work that has not been done on time will not bring benefits, but, on the contrary, leave a person embarrassed". The words meat and mustard in its composition are associated with the original meaning. The British often eat meat along with mustard or other sauce. The alternative of this phraseology in the Uzbek language is the "Xaytdan keyin arafa" and the words "Xayt"

and “arafa” in its composition are also close to the meaning of the phrase. The Arafa will actually be before the Eid, if anyone spreads the Arafa food after the Eid will cause laughter .

"The semantic interpretation of phraseologisms is not a composite function, but in the form in which they are formed," – said Bruce Fraser who studied phraseologisms in depth. In phraseology, each morpheme has its own role. For example, the verbs "spill", "use", "bring" in the phrases " *spill the beans, use your noodle, bring home the bacon* are also small phrases. (2013, 22)

According to Covi, there is a special role of Eastern European scientists in the recognition of phraseology as a science and the emergence of the term phraseologism. This can also be seen in monographs devoted to the phraseology of certain languages (Fleischer 1982; Greciano 1983; Corpas Pastor 1996), textbooks dedicated to phraseology (Sgise 1986, Glaser, 1986), sectoral dictionaries (Cowie and Macking, 1975; Cowie et al, 1983; Sinclar and Moon 1989, 1995) and dictionaries for Language Teaching (Carter and McCartney 1988), among others. Also, the scientist noted that the theory of Russian phraseology, which began to be promoted in 1940-1960 years, was invented by non-Russian scientists Klappenbach, Weinreich, Arnold and Lipka.

It is worth noting that in the development of the theory of phraseology, in particular, the contribution of Russian linguists was great. Included V.V.Vinogradov, N.M.Lucky B.A.Larin and others also began to distinguish phraseology as an independent linguistic science.

In the studies of Russian linguists, it can be seen that phraseologisms are described as follows. Included According to Arkhangelsky's view, "phraseological unit is a stable, lexical-grammatical integrity of words, in which there is an internal link between parts of speech." (1964, 90) According to Gavrin's description, "phraseologisms are units of language used in a general or a certain territory, and these are new vocabulary words that are thought of as stagnant or colloquial."(1972, 132) According to Molotkov, "phraseology is a unit that does not resemble both words and groups of words, has a special lexical meaning, many component structures and specific grammatical categories."(1977, 281) In this place it can be said that even in Russian linguistics the terminology of phraseology is not clearly reflected, every researcher who studied the problems of phraseology created his own definition.

A.A.Reformatsky proposes to classify phraseological units according to the words that are equivalent according to the systematization prototypes.(1967, 326) Accordingly, the substantive-adektiv, verbal and adverbial phraseological units are distinguished. M.M.Kopilenko and Z.D.Popova distinguish 15 categories of two-word combinations and 35 categories of three-word combinations, taking into account the properties of different semantic components. (1972, 48)

DEVELOPMENT OF THEORETICAL ISSUES OF UZBEK PHRASEOLOGY IN LATER PERIODS

B.Yuldashev, Abdimurod Mamatov, Abdug'afur Mamatov, A.Isaev, A.Rafiev, M.Sadiqova, Q.Hekimav, K.Bazarboev, B.Jo'raeva, Almatova, M.Vafoeva and a number of other linguists was a worthy contribution.

By analogy of phraseologies of different language systems Sh.Usmonova an instrument of comparative studies carried out in Uzbek and Turkish languages, in which expressions consisting of somatic phraseologies, in particular, somatisms of the head, eyes, hands and feet, were studied according to the base terms .

Proverbal phraseologisms in French, Uzbek and Russian languages are studied in Nasirov's work from a national-cultural point of view. In Kholmurodova's study, the thematic ideological interpretation of figurative and motivational phraseologies in English and French was studied from a linguistic point of view.

The monograph titled "Linguistic and semantic-pragmatic study of phraseological units" by A.Mamatov is devoted to the linguistic, semantic-pragmatic study of phraseological units, in which it is mentioned about the cognitive and linguistic, national-cultural features of phraseological units, which characterize individual emotions and personality-specific qualities and characters. This monograph shows the formation of the phraseological composition of the current Uzbek literary language in three historical etymological ways: 1) formed on the basis of the Uzbek case; 2) mastering of relative and non-relative languages; 3) differentiation of phraseologies entering through thickening is emphasized. (2018, 7)

The occurrence of phraseologies in the Turkish language, studied the meaning and grammatical features Kh.Khomidov distinguishes phraseologies as well as free word combinations from each other, emphasizing them only genetically similar combinations. According to the researcher, any phraseology is equal to a word combination or sentence on the syntactic level. (2018,28)

The word combination is formed on the basis of a folk verb and turns into a phraseologies. Consequently, the components that make up idioms are expressed as a cultural code in the minds of a particular nation.

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Phraseology's That Express Emotions

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Abstract: *We know that society receives most of its information from the outside world; we perceive it through our senses such as seeing, hearing, touching, smelling, tasting, as well as experiencing some emotions we experience joy, sorrow, love, hate, fear. All the feelings of the situation affect the members of society. In addition, all experiences gradually shape a person's inner world. Each person's mental activity, his experiences have their own emotional form, emotional color. Researchers studying the human psyche have also come to understand the importance of emotions for human identity and social relationships, even before any scientific evidence. Until 1980s, however, the study of emotions was one of the few fields studied by our researchers. Nowadays, the trend is sprouting. We have recently done a lot of psychological research to analyze this problem.*

Keywords: *Emotions affect, experimental-motivational properties, linguistic expression, phraseology, phrase psych emotes, translate.*

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INTRODUCTION

We consider such research very relevant because emotions affect the human body and mind, without losing their effectiveness in almost all aspects of its existence. According to Izard K.E., "Emotion is an emotion that is experienced as a stimulus, regulator, and control of perception, thinking, and action" (Izard 2011, p. 29). According to Kunin A.V., "emotions are the form of reflecting and knowing reality. Emotions always come with evaluation" (Kunin 2015, p. 178).

Renowned psychologist K.E. Izard's book contains very interesting theoretical and experimental material that is important for understanding the essence of basic human emotions. According to scientists, emotions are the core of the human motivational system. It based this position on the author's theory of differential emotions, which presents emotional elements as a system with specific limitations and degrees of freedom. According to him, the differentiation of emotions is possible because of the study of three conditions: the properties of neurophysiological substrates, mimic complexes, and experimental-motivational properties. "The principle of the formation of emotional complexes shows that one emotion can evoke another, and emotions often appear in complexes or combinations" (Izard 2011, p.115). L.A. According to Kalimullina, "from a linguistic point of view, it is recommended to analyze in everyday (simple-linguistic) mind only the linguistic expression of the emotions that are interpreted in this way. We can consider this approach credible, as some psychologists believe that pre-emotional ideas about emotions are more reliable than scientific ones.

In recent years, several works have emerged that view emotion as a linguistic expression of emotion. However, there is currently no consensus in linguistics on the laws of verbal expression of the emotional realm. L.A. According to Kalimullina, "the absence of an accepted theory of emotion depends in many respects on aim factors, i.e., the uncertainty of the emotional boundaries of language, which is directly related to the perception and observation of the emotional realm. Results from non-existence. A certain responsibility falls on linguists themselves, who use many terms without specifying their content: emotionality, emotionality, the emotional burden of the word, the emotional color of the word, and so on (Kalimullina, 2006, p. 43).

MAIN PART

If we consider the functions of phraseological units, linguists accept it today that phraseological units give a speech to figurativeness, emotionality, which makes speech more expressive. L.I. Roizenson and Yu.Yu. Avaliani according to, "if the dictionary, in its entirety, reflects the whole range of events, facts, processes, phraseology includes, first, the field of feelings and emotions, sorrow, joy, love, friendship, conflict, struggle and quality" (Roizenson 2001, p. 5). If the dictionary reflects people's practical experience, the semantics of phraseological units reflect that experience through the prism of emotions and evaluations. Phraseologists usually carry an additional psychological burden; however, they are used more often than words that express emotions.

Phraseology is one of the important means of emotionally assessing a person's expressive characteristics, personal qualities, or social status. They used phraseology to figuratively express speakers' ideas about the world and themselves, including the emotional realm. However, one of the primary functions of phraseological units is to express a person's emotional response to a particular thing, concept, situation, or event, as well as to express and evaluate their opinion about that reality. A.I. Fyodorov sees the emotional side of phraseological unity as a sign derived from its figurative content. We based the design of phraseological units on folk metaphors, analogies, and metonymy, proverbs, and parables. In turn, the source of the

imagery of phraseological units is the activity of the human imagination, the desire to evoke a certain emotional-expressive reaction in the interlocutor. At the same time, it is not surprising that people have a brighter attitude to unexpected shapes and meanings (Fyodorov 2001, p. 10). Many phraseological units express a person's psych emotional state and his or her emotional response to an object or action, as well as drawing the listener's attention to them, evoking a specific response to those objects or actions. Such phraseological units are called phrase psych emotes. These units describe a person's psych emotional state, are part of a phraseological system, and represent a phraseological picture of the world. Among phrase, psych emotes we distinguish between two types:

1. describes a person's emotional and psycho-emotional state,
2. Represents the speaker's feelings and emotional response to an object or action.

TOWARDS INNOVATIVE INTERCULTURAL LEARNING ACTIVITIES: A THEORETICAL OVERVIEW OF MOST SALIENT APPROACHES

A person's psycho-emotional states are closely related to the person himself, the external environment, and the person's relationship with the outside world. Emotions and evaluations play an important role in a person's life, without which it is impossible to organize his or her purposeful behavior. In addition, they contribute to the formation of intentions, including speech. The same external and internal stimuli in different situations can lead to different experiences in a person, different attitudes towards them, and different evaluations of them. In turn, the same feelings, emotions can affect a person in different ways and cause different reactions. For example:

“王八蛋们，你们是百分之百的法西斯！都给我举起手来！” 金刚钻缓缓地举起双臂，党委书记和矿长的手臂也缓缓举起。金刚 钻面带笑容，镇定自若地问：“老丁同志，您这玩笑开过火了吧！”(莫言。酒国 69 页)

“*Wángbā dànmen, nimen shì bǎifēnzhībǎi de fàxī sī! Dōu gěi wǒ jǔ qǐ shǒu lái!*” *Jīngāngzuàn huǎnmàn de jǔ qǐ shuāng bì, dǎngwěi shūjì hé kuàng zhǎng de shǒubì yě huǎn huǎn jǔ qǐ. Jīn gāng zuān miàn dài xiàoróng, zhèndìng zìruò de wèn: “Lǎo dīng tóngzhì, nín zhè wánxiào kāi guòhuǒle ba!”*

Haromzodalar, fashistlar! – so ‘kindi u, Qo‘llaringni ko‘taringlar, dedim!

O‘rtiq Ding Gouer, otaginam, bu hazilingizning tagi zil bo‘lib ko‘rinmayaptimi sizga? – xotirjam jilmaydi Jin Ganjuan (Amir Fayzullo 2018, p. 90).

The above phrases use phraseological units, 镇定自若 *zhèndìng zìruò* literally 镇定 *zhèndìng* quiet 自若 *zìruò* calm down a phraseological unit is formed because of the merging of words that both have similar lexical meanings. We can use it as a unit. Next phrases 玩笑开过火了吧 *wánxiào kāi guòhuǒle ba* if we translate the phraseological phrase literally 玩笑 *wánxiào* has the translation of laughing, 开过火了吧 *kāi guòhuǒle ba* Turn on the command word! means But when you read it together and the sentence in full, it becomes clear to the reader, and this phraseological unit means that the bottom of your joke does not look like a bell, do not play on the background, with whom you are joking. The translator was very good at translating, finding the alternative in Uzbek, and showing the phraseological unity.

Talia also gave the following definition of emotional, emotionally experienced phraseology: The emotional value of phraseological units has a figurative power, viz. encourage the speaker to experience a specific emotion that is consistent with communicative intent. If there is a

communicative success, these units produce the desired per locution effect. Ultimately, phraseological units make up a crystallized realization of verbal actions (Taliya 1996, p. 288).

仔细看又不太像 (莫言。酒国 18 页)。 *Zìxì kàn yòu bù tài xiàng.*

Zehn solib qarasang, unga o'xshamaydi ham (Amir Fayzulla 2018, p. 23).

As we have seen in the above examples, the word 仔细看 *zìxì kàn* has been a phraseological unit here. The word 仔细 *zìxì* means to pay attention, while the word 看 *kàn* means to look. We translate the translation as perception. However, the mind does not look (Rahmatullayev 1978, p. 209) would be appropriate. So, if you look closely, the word can be a complete verb phraseology.

CONCLUSION

Someone inextricably linked phraseological meaning and phraseological prototypes with different aspects of human life, which are imbued with emotions that express a person's attitude to the world around them. With the help of these phraseological units, we can make our speech more emotional and expressive. Language is a mirror that reflects the history and culture of the people who speak it. Language reflects all aspects of human life, which is inextricably linked with emotions, as experiences absorb any human activity. Man's emotions, feelings, spiritual life are contradictory; they represent man himself, the environment, and man's relationship with the outside world, that is. The image of the world is a phenomenon of the human mind. Man uses phraseological units to more vividly express his inner world, all his feelings, his emotions. Many proverbs and sayings have linguistic images that reflect national characteristics, national history, and way of life, customs, and traditions.

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The Cultivation of Intercultural Pragmatic Competence in The Teaching of Second Language Under Native Language Environment

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Abstract: *Intercultural communicative competence is important to the teaching of second language. Many researchers believe that learners' pragmatic competence determines their intercultural communicative competence. Hence, improving such competence is the basic and fundamental task of the teaching of second language. However, under the native language environment, students' understanding and use of the second language are limited, due to the lack of foreign language environment and social environment. The cultivation of their pragmatic competence is bound to be affected as well. Taking Chinese as an example, this paper analyzes how to develop students' intercultural pragmatic competence during the teaching of second language under non-Chinese environment, so as to provide references for existing second language teaching.*

Key words: *Intercultural Pragmatic Competence, Intercultural Communication, Teaching of Second Language, Native Language Environment*

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INTRODUCTION

Interculture in the Teaching of Second Language

In recent years, the international connections have become increasingly close, the interconnections between cultures and languages across the world have increased significantly as well. All these phenomena have promoted the learning of a second language. Based on the principle of intercultural pragmatic competence of foreign students, the teaching methods of foreign languages are “to learn language via culture and learn culture via language”. With the continuous surge of global immigrants, a multicultural society has been formed in the world, especially in a country. Under this circumstance, the problems of intercultural teaching of foreign students have arisen as well.

Many scholars, such as F. Batsevich, A. Berdichevsky, V. Zagorodnova, have noticed the issue of intercultural education. In their researches, cross-culture was regarded as the methodological premise for developing humanities in a multicultural world, the guarantee of tolerant communication between nations, and the basis of anthropocentrism. According to their researches, due to the dynamics of intercultural connections, human society has been overcoming their priorities of traditional culture. Hence, the issue of cultural identity has been reflected in all aspects of human interaction in modern society, and interculture is conducive to understanding cultural identity of specific human groups shown in the process of intercultural interaction and the historical procedure of mutually enriching (Gorchakova O.A., 2013).

In the 1960s, K. Ober, an American scientist, found that: “when a person enters a new cultural environment, he/she may feel unpleasant; namely, the difference between his/her own culture and foreign culture and language may make him/her unpleasant, which results in confusion over the orientation of certain values and a lack of understanding of social and personal identity.” Researchers called it “culture shock”, and it is constantly occurring in the learning process of a second language (Krylova N.B., 2000).

Consequently, when working with students whose mother tongue is another language, we have to consider specific psycholinguistic national models and social views that have been formed in their opinions. In other words, we need to follow the concepts that bilingualism is a dialogue between world views and systems with representatives (languages) to observe each other through the "prism" of their languages and culture (Grushevitskaya T.G., 2003). In the opinion of K. Yakovleva, for a specific language group, its perception of reality was fixed in the language landscape of such language. As a result, language landscape must be considered when learning a language (Yakovleva E.S., 1996).

Intercultural competence is necessary for intercultural communication, O.A. Gorchakova put forward a practical model of intercultural competence. This model consists of 3 main factors: motivation, knowledge, and skill (Gorchakova O.A., 2013). Motivation factors include participants' need for communication and interaction, mutual contact, social connection, self-perception, and openness to perception of new information. Knowledge factors include expectation, common information network, perception of different views, integration of alternative views, and understanding of similar and different things. Skill factors include demonstrating empathy, tolerating others, adapted to communication, creating a pleasant communication environment, changing one's behavior in the process of communication, and taking other's cultural conditions into account.

Cultural linguistics and intercultural communication theories promote the development of

intercultural pragmatic competence. Different linguistic landscapes contain different cultures, while intercultural communication theories guarantee the interaction between cultures and nations in a multicultural world, which is crucial for mastering a second language.

INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION AND PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE

Intercultural communication refers to the communication between native and non-native speakers, and refers to the communication between people with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. During intercultural communicating events, the two parties are first exposed to the languages produced under different cultural backgrounds, as a medium to convey information. Therefore, how to convey information accurately is the key to achieve the purpose of communication under intercultural background, which requires both parties to possess corresponding pragmatic competence. It requires pragmatic competence in communication. Cross-cultural communication is restricted by culture and language. In fact, the barriers to intercultural communication, or what linguists call pragmatic failures, are the result of the cultural differences of these two factors.

The concept of semiotics was proposed by the American philosopher C. Peirce in the late 1830s. The term of Pragmatics was coined by C. Morris in the *Foundations of the Theory of Signs* published in 1938. Morris proposes a threefold division of semiotics as consisting of syntactics, semantics and pragmatics. Syntactics deals with “the relationship between symbols”, semantics deals with “the relationship between symbols and references (objects)”, and pragmatics deals with “the relationship between symbols and interpreters”. Pragmatics was redefined as “a subfield of semiotics that explores the origin, usage and function of symbols through behavioral activities.” in the *Signs, Language and Behavior* (1946). R. Carnap, a philosopher and advocate of logical positivism, stood up for this view and pointed out that “the study of pragmatics explicitly involves language users; the study of semantics involves the analysis of the words and references spoken by the language users; and the study of syntactics involves the analysis of word associations derived from references” (1948). Based on the findings of Morris and Carnap, Bar-Hillel proposed to take indexical expressions as the research object of pragmatics. It is the first step of pragmatics research in the field of linguistics, as well as the first research item. Since then, the further research on pragmatics, the increasing number of projects and the continuous output of theories have vigorously promoted the development of pragmatics.

The speech act theory hails from the *How to Do Things with Words* based on the lectures given by J. Austin, and plays a crucial role in the field of pragmatics. He believes that speaking is using language to accomplish a thing or an action (e.g. request, command, announcement, statement, promise, thank and apology). Therefore, speech acts are divided into locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts.

The theory of conversational implicatures introduced by H. P. Grice, American philosopher in 1975 is equally important in pragmatics. He proposes cooperative principle, which is a set of norms that are expected in conversations and consists of four maxims: quality, quantity, relation and manner. The significance of this principle lies not in its observance, but in the conversational implicature due to its violation. It serves as the theoretical basis of illocutionary act.

The learning of a language is a process of developing pragmatic competence. Jenny Thomas, a British scholar, firstly explained the meaning of “pragmatic competence”. She defined it as “the competence to use linguistic knowledge to realize specific communicative purposes and understand discourse in specific scenes” (Thomas J., 1983). Bachman, an American scholar, subsequently popularized its concept. He believed that language competence could be divided into organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Organizational competence

consisted of grammatical competence and textual competence, while pragmatic competence included illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. In other words, it refers to the ability to conduct social behaviors with certain words and use language according to context. Language competence refers to the ability to understand a great deal of knowledge applied to socially appropriate behaviors in the process of discourse communication according to context (Bachman L.F., 1990).

After that, other scholars gave other definitions of pragmatic competence. For example, Taguchi, a Japanese scholar, thought that it referred to the ability to express and understand meanings in social situations (Taguchi N., 2009). In general, pragmatic competence can be understood as the competence to recognize context, understand communicative objects in context and express themselves appropriately, including sensitivity to various contexts and appropriateness of expression.

Cultures vary from language pictures. Improving intercultural pragmatic competence ensures barrier-free communication between cultures and nations in a multicultural context, which is crucial to the mastery of the second language.

PRAGMATIC FAILURES IN THE SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

The term of pragmatic failure was invented by Jenny Thomas in his book, *Cross-cultural Pragmatic Failure* published (1983), describing that pragmatic failure is "the inability to understand what is meant by what is said. (Thomas, J. 1983) It opens up a whole new world for the second language learning and the cross-cultural & cross-language studies, and formulates a new framework to figure out the difficulties in language learning and application.

Chinese linguists have also worked tirelessly on this issue. He Ziran believes that "pragmatic error is not a mistake in wording and phrasing, but the communication below expectation due to inappropriate timing, manner and habit of utterance" (He Ziran, 1997). Qian Guanlian holds the view that "pragmatic failure refers to the sentences that conform to semiotic relations but unconsciously violate interpersonal and social norms, or that are spoken without considering time, space or speaker." (Qian Guanlian, 2005).

Thomas is of the opinion that pragmatic failure can be roughly divided into pragmalinguistic failure and sociopragmatic failure. Indeed, pragmalinguistic failure is caused by inappropriate choice of expressions according to communicative context and violation of pragmatic principles. Sociopragmatic failure results from the violation of social principles due to crude understanding of the cultural differences and social customs of the target language.

We tested 60 Kazakh students studying Chinese, with the view to studying pragmatic mastery of the second language in the native language environment. They have been exposed to Chinese for 3-5 years, most of whom coming from Confucius Institutes and Kazakhstan National University offering Chinese lessons. Affected by the COVID-19, this test was conducted by electronic questionnaire. 18 multiple-choice questions were designed to ensure the quality of answers without invigilation. This test examines cultural connotation of words, semantic stress, and comprehension of vocabulary, address form, euphemism, greeting and idiom. In order to have an insight into their abilities, it is noted in the upper part and instructions that "the test has nothing to do with your grades", "choose whichever you think is appropriate" and "the anonymous test won't pry into your privacy". The function of background information collection was designed for data analysis. Their ethnicities and learning periods were collected. The test results have been compiled into tables and bar charts as follows.

Table 1- Accuracy distribution of the Chinese pragmatic competence test

Accuracy distribution of the Chinese pragmatic competence test		
Correct rate	Number of students	Percentage
10-20%	0	0%
21-30%	6	10%
31-40%	12	20%
41-50%	6	10%
51-60%	9	15%
61-70%	15	25%
71-80%	9	15%
81-90%	3	5%
91-100%	0	0%

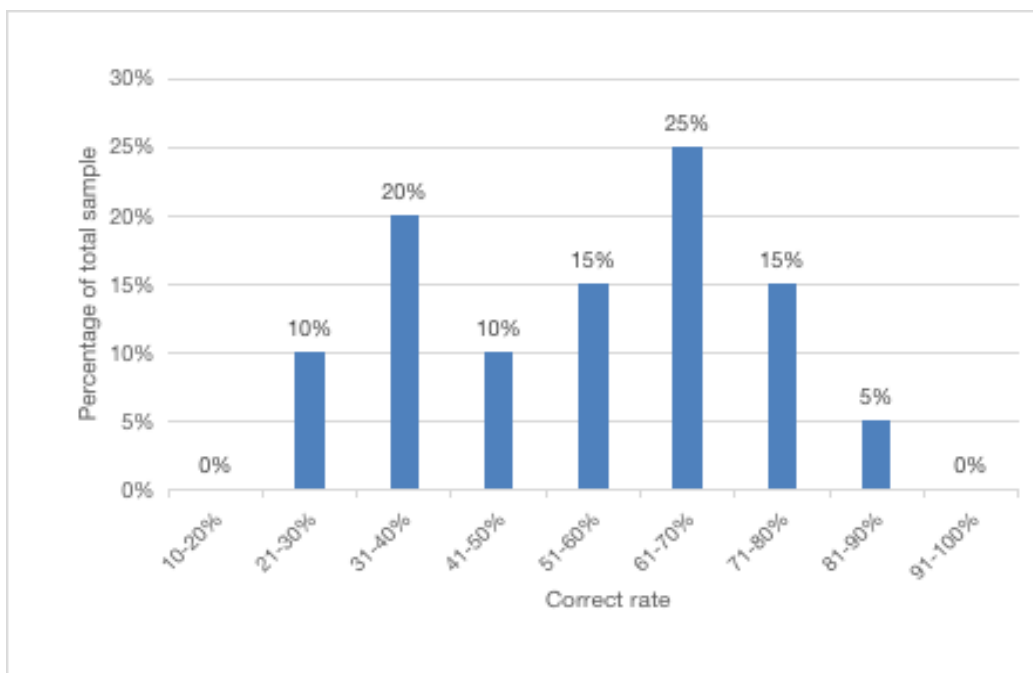


Table 2- Statistics on the accuracy of Chinese pragmatic ability test

The average accuracy and the median accuracy are 53% and 56% respectively. According to data and statistics, values of average score and median score representing central tendency are quite close. As a result, normal pragmatic competence of students can be represented by average accuracy and median accuracy. Data show that there are 24, 9, 15, 9 and 3 students getting <50%, 51%-60%, 61-70%, 71-80% and >80% questions right. More than half (ranging from 60%-70%) of the questions were answered correctly.

Pragmatic problems of cultural connotation of words, semantic stress, vocabulary comprehension, address form, euphemism, greeting & farewell, and idioms are analyzed as follows.

(1) Cultural connotation of words: Q1, Q9

1. 运动会上老师短跑比赛得了第一名, 你会对老师说: 老师, 您跑得真快, 和 B 一样。

1. You'll say to the teacher winning a sprint race at the sports meet that: You run as fast as a B.
 A. 马 B. 兔子 C. 狗 D. 狼
 A. Horse B. Rabbit C. Dog D. Wolf
2. 朋友见到了你和你的伴侣,朋友说:“你们什么时候请我吃糖啊?”朋友的意思是: A
 2. Your friend saw you and your partner, and the friend said: "When will you invite me to eat wedding candy?", he means: A
 A. 询问你们什么时候结婚 B. 询问你们什么时候买糖 C. 暗示你们应该请他吃糖
 D. 暗示你们请他吃饭
 A. Ask about the time to get married B. Ask about the time to buy candy C. A hint for offering candy D. A hint for a treat

NO.	A	B	C	D	Correct rate
1	33	24	3	0	40%
9	48	0	9	3	80%

The comprehension of the extended meaning of cultural words is examined. The illocutionary impression of "rabbit" in Chinese is fast speed, so it is used to describe a person who runs fast. There is a saying that goes, "deliberate in counsel, prompt in action", which means a person looks dignified when still and agile when moving. However, the Kazakh people, who live a nomadic life, believe that the horse is the fastest and regard it as the "wing of the Kazakh". That's why so many students chose option A.

Wedding candy is indispensable for Han Chinese and has become a symbol of wedding. In Kazakhstan, the couple's grandmothers will hand out candies to guests, so it's easy for students to understand. In addition, there are numerous Chinese words with cultural connotations, such as plant and color. Most of them are distinctive, making it difficult to learn Chinese.

(2) Semantic stress: Q13, Q14

13. 你为什么责怪我,明明是他的错。你为什么责怪我,我哪里错了。请问两句话的重音分别应该落在哪里? A
 13. Why am I to blame? It's all his fault. Why am I to blame? I didn't do anything wrong. What are the stresses? A
 A. 我 为什么 B. 为什么 我 C. 我 我 D. 为什么 为什么
 A. Me Why B. Why Me C. Me Me D. Why Why
14. 这个手机是我的,帽子不是。这个手机是我的,不是他的。请问两句话的重音分别应该落在哪里? D
 14. The phone is mine, but the hat isn't. It's my phone, not his. What are the stresses? D
 A. 手机 手机 B. 我的 我的 C. 我的 手机 D. 手机 我的
 A. Phone Phone B. Mine My C. Mine Phone D. Phone My

NO.	A	B	C	D	Correct rate
13	33	12	6	9	55%
14	6	12	15	27	45%

The comprehension of the semantic stress is examined. This kind of questions is easy, so we list two groups of similar sentences to highlight the point, which is easier. Though students do not master the semantic stress well, they can understand thoroughly through explanation. To sum up, the issue can be solved as long as attention is paid.

This easily overlooked issue occupies an important position in practical communication. In addition, pause and intonation are often ignored in the second language teaching. Surveys show

that most students and exams pay little attention to it, which should be made up for.

(3) Vocabulary comprehension: Q3, Q10

3. 夏天能穿多少穿多少，冬天能穿多少穿多少。划线的两个“多少”意义是否一样，是穿多还是穿少？ <u>C</u> 3. How much you can wear in summer, how much you can wear in winter. What does “how much” mean? (Dress reasonably in summer and winter. What does “reasonably” mean?) To wear more or less? <u>C</u> A. 意义相同，都是穿很多。 B. 意义不同，都是穿很少 C. 第一个强调少，第二个强调多 D. 意义相同，都是表达大概的数量 A. Same Wear more B. Different Wear less C. Wear less in summer but more in winter D. Same Indeterminate quantity					
10. 隔壁的小刘，不光人长得漂亮，说话也漂亮。句末的漂亮是指： <u>B</u> 10. The neighbor's child looks well and speaks well. What does second “well” mean: <u>B</u> A. 口才好，思维活跃。 B. 说话让人爱听 C. 普通话标准 D. 说话声音好听悦耳 A. Silver-tongued and quick-witted B. Honey-mouthed C. Standard pronunciation D. Beautiful voice					
NO.	A	B	C	D	Correct rate
3	0	6	39	15	65%
10	37	11	3	9	18%

The comprehension of the special groups of words is examined. The partially-directed compound word in Q3 requests for context understanding, well understood by students. “冬天，能穿多少穿多少。夏天，能穿多少穿多少。”，“多少” in these two sentences is a partially-directed compound word composed of “adjective + adjective”, which represents different meanings in different contexts. The correct understanding is that: It’s cold in winter, and people should try to wear more clothes. The word “多少” here means “多-more”. However, the other sentence means: It’s so hot in summer and people should wear as little as possible. The word “多少” here means “少-less”. When judging the meaning direction of partially-directed compound words like “多少”, it requires long-term accumulated cognitive experience and understanding of language habits. However, Q10 misled more than half of them. They stick to their ideas because in Kazakh culture, being articulate is a "talent of speaking" associated with public speaking, eloquence and quick mind, while it means an “art of speaking” in Chinese culture. Chinese people value harmony as the most precious, so it is regarded as a skill to know the right thing to say and maintain interpersonal relationship. Students do not have enough vocabulary to support the comprehension of the words that imply the background culture.

Context means a lot to pragmatics since it materially defines language symbols. Therefore, students should take cultural background and specific context into account for the sake of appropriate comprehension and expression.

(4) Address form: Q5, Q7

5. <u>C</u> ,您今天的发言太棒了! 5. <u>C</u> , you’ve made a wonderful speech! A. 李 B. 老李 C. 李老 D. 小李 A. Li B. Lao Li (Li Snr.) C. Li Lao(Pro. Li) D. Xiao Li (Li Jr.)					
7. 你想乘坐出租车去商场，上车后你对姓李的司机说： <u>B</u> ，我去商场。 7. When you get a cab and head towards the mall, you’ll say: <u>B</u> 。					

A. 司机	B. 师傅	C. 先生	D. 老李		
A. Driver	B. Shifu	C. Sir	D. Lao Li		
No.	A	B	C	D	Correct rate
5	0	33	18	9	30%
7	3	42	15	0	70%

The comprehension of address forms is examined. Address forms such as "Lao+ surname" and "surname + Lao" may get students confused. "Lao" is a respectful title embodying "wisdom" in Chinese, which doesn't have any corresponding expressions in Kazakh. Option B was mostly selected since both Kazakh and Russian express sentence logic through word forms, rather than orders. As for Q7, most students picked "Shifu", reflecting a great command of common social titles by common international students. Those who chose "Sir" conform to the rules of mother tongue and fail to properly apply the Chinese address forms.

(5) Euphemism: Q4, Q8, Q11

4. 李大爷 <u>C</u> , 以后都不能来参加我们的活动了: 4. Grandpa Li <u>C</u> , so he can't join us. A. 死了 B. 去见马克思了 C. 去世了 D. 夭折了 A. Died B. Was with the Lord C. Passed away D. Yao zhe (Died young)					
8. 一个很好的朋友喊你晚上去他家吃饭, 但是你晚上一般不吃饭, 你会对他说: <u>B</u> 8. You are invited to dinner by a good friend, but you fast at night, so you tell him: <u>B</u> A. 抱歉, 我晚上不吃饭, 就不去了 B. 抱歉, 我晚上有事, 咱们改这周末吧, 我知道一个新地方, 我请客 C. 改天吧 D. 我做饭比你好吃, 周末来我家吃饭吧 A. Sorry, I'm fasting, so I can't go. B. Sorry, I'm tied up tonight. Let me treat you at a new restaurant this weekend. C. Maybe some other time. D. I cook better. Come over for a meal this weekend.					
11. 暂时不方便。这句话的意思是指: <u>D</u> 11. I'm not Fangbian (available). What does that mean: <u>D</u> A. 暂时不去卫生间 B. 暂时不想休息 C. 附近没有卫生间 D. 暂时没空 A. I don't want to go to the bathroom. B. I'm not tired. C. There's no bathroom nearby. D. Not available.					
NO.	A	B	C	D	Correct rate
4	6	0	51	3	85%
8	15	18	24	3	30%
11	0	0	9	51	85%

The comprehension of Chinese euphemism is examined in terms of death and refusal. Students are aware of euphemism application and can handle simple words, which is seen from their correct answers to Q4 and Q11. In a more complex situation (see Q8), an apology and a standby solution of sending out a new invitation are necessary if you decline the invitation by a close friend. That rules out other options. Kazakh people are very straightforward in emotional expression. In the face of such complex situations, students can only establish Chinese thinking modes by deeply learning the euphemistic communication skills. It's one of the difficulties in the second language teaching.

(6) Greeting and farewell: Q12, Q16, Q18

12. 去朋友家做客, 晚上十点钟朋友对你说: 你明天还要上班吧? 朋友的意思是: <u>B</u> 12. Your friend asks "if you were busy tomorrow" at 10.00 pm. What does it mean: <u>B</u>	
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A. 询问你明天是不是上班, 怕影响你工作 B.朋友明天还要上班, 暗示聚会可以结束了 C. 觉得你很辛苦, 明天也要上班 D. 询问明天的安排, 希望和你去公园					
A. For fear of delaying next day's work. B. He wants to end the party because he is occupied next day. C. He cares about you. D. Try to ask if you want to go to the park tomorrow.					
16. 在餐厅外面见到了熟人李明, 你会怎样和他打招呼: <u> B </u>					
16. How to say hello to Li Ming outside the restaurant? <u> B </u>					
A. 你好! B. 吃了没? C.你最近怎么样? D.用餐愉快!					
A. Hi! B. Have you eaten? C. How have you been? D. Enjoy your meal.					
18. 结束做客后, 出门前朋友对你说: “慢走!”朋友的意思是: <u> C </u>					
18. What does "Man zou (Walk slowly)" mean when your friend see you off? <u> C </u>					
A. 外面天气不好, 让我慢慢走 B.让我注意安全, 别着急 C.表示道别 D. 希望下次再来					
A. Walk slowly due to bad weather B. Mind your step C. Say goodbye D. See you soon					
NO.	A	B	C	D	Correct rate
12	24	30	6	0	50%
16	18	15	18	9	25%
18	6	30	18	6	30%

Greetings and farewells are common seen in the Chinese context. The comprehension of Chinese mode of thinking is examined. Students were tested to check whether they could replace native thinking with Chinese thinking. Chinese people greet each other in many ways. For example, acquaintances may say "Have you eaten" when they meet at a canteen entrance or at mealtime. Unfortunately, only 25% of students got the answer right in Q16. Others picked Option A and C because these two most common greetings in Kazakh and Russian mislead almost all Chinese learners.

Students surrounded by the mother tongue environment seldom carry out practical communication, which leaves the conversation skills pale and rigid. Modesty, civility, euphemism and subtlety are distinctive spiritual connotations of Chinese culture. Speech acts of Chinese people are restricted by thinking patterns and communicative attitudes. Exemplified by Q12, Chinese people are not used to giving orders, so even if they intend to end a party, they will give full consideration the feelings of others and then give advice. In Q18, "Man zou" that is widely used in Chinese farewells has no special meaning. Students who made wrong choices are misdirected by literal meaning and fail to understand it further. Low accuracy proves that it's difficult to cultivate the thinking mode of the second language under the interference of native language environment.

(7) Idiom: Q2, Q6, Q15, Q17

2. A 说: “你儿子钢琴弹得真好!”B 说: “哪里哪里, 差得远呢。”请问理解 B 的话? <u> C </u>					
2. A: Your son plays the piano very well. B: Where is it. He needs more practice. What does it mean? <u> C </u>					
A. 儿子钢琴弹得不好, 很差 B. 儿子钢琴弹得一般, 没有 A 说得好 C. 儿子钢琴弹得很好, 很满意 D. 儿子哪里弹得好					
A. Play badly B. Just so-so C. Play very well and satisfied D. Feel puzzled					
6.你真是说曹操曹操就到! 请问这句话如何理解? <u> C </u>					

6. Speak of the devil and he appears. What does it mean? <u>C</u> A. 你跑得和曹操一样快 B. 你预言准确 C. 一提到你你就来了 D.你和曹操关系很好 A. You are as fast as the devil. B. You're right. C. You come just as you're mentioned. D. You're on good terms with the devil.					
15.朋友带了礼物到你家里做客，并且说：“一点小意思，还请收下。”他的意思是： <u>C</u> 15. A friend visits you and says, " A little bit, please accept it (I have a small gift for you)." What does it mean: <u>C</u> A. 礼物很小，很轻便 B. 礼物不贵重，请收下 C. 客气的表达，希望你能喜欢 D.送你礼物一直是我的愿望 A. It's small and light. B. It's affordable. C. It's an expression of politeness. D. I've been hoping to give you a gift.					
17.你带了礼物去朋友家做客，朋友说：“你看你！来就来呗，还拿什么东西！”朋友的意思是： <u>B</u> 17. You visit a friend with a gift. He says, "look at you! Come here, what did you bring!" What does it mean: <u>B</u> A. 朋友问我需要什么东西 B. 朋友埋怨我太客气，并且对我表示感谢 C. 朋友询问我带了什么礼物 D.朋友说我带了礼物，所有不欢迎我 A. Ask you what you want B. Thank you for your generosity C. Ask you about the gift D. You're unwelcome for bringing a gift.					
NO.	A	B	C	D	Correct rate
2	3	30	21	6	35%
6	12	21	21	6	35%
15	0	3	57	0	95%
17	6	48	3	3	80%

The comprehension of Chinese idioms is examined. Idiom, including phrases, proverbs, two-part allegorical sayings and idiomatic expressions, is a representative of Chinese culture, which is inherited from the history and customs lasting for thousands of years. A lot of reading and communication are essential. There are certain examples in this sentence pattern, which requires analysis case by case. For instance, the answer of Q2 is a way to express modesty when someone is highly prized. "Speak of the devil" means the person you are talking about suddenly appears. Students who learn by rote are apt to choose B. Q15 and Q17 introduce the idiom about being a guest, revealing cultural connotations. Given that Kazakhstan and China share similar gift-receiving customs, quite a few students got these two questions right.

The above questions examine typical pragmatic vocabulary. It's a pity that we fail to test Chinese pragmatics comprehensively due to restrictions. The pragmatic units examined intuitively show that students' mastery of pragmatics is greatly related to their native language habits. In other words, pragmatic failures are caused by the mechanical application of thinking habits and language structures of the mother tongue, and the cultural background ignorance of the second language, and the difference in values.

TRANSFER OF MOTHER TONGUE IN THE SECOND LANGUAGE

The factors misleading Kazakh students to pragmatic failures can be summarized into four aspects, namely the negative transfer of mother tongue, the lack of teaching awareness of Chinese teachers, the deficiency of cultural arrangement of textbooks, and the shortage of teaching aids.

The learning of second language can be divided into learning under native and non-native language environment. Take Chinese as an example, many Chinese learners begin to learn this language every year. Some choose to learn it in China, but most of them have no choice but learn it under their native language environment. Without doubt, there are many difficulties. Chinese is a typical isolating language isolate in lack of morphological changes. Therefore, one of important criterions to measure a student's Chinese proficiency is to judge whether he/she can communicate in Chinese appropriately and optionally and whether he/she have good pragmatic competence. However, due to the lack of language environment, the cultivation of Chinese pragmatic competence under native language environment is greatly restricted. As a result, there are problems in teachers' instructing and students' learning.

Pragmatic competence is a complex physiological and psychological phenomenon, whose acquisition is strongly influenced by the native language. The language system of the mother tongue is solidified in people's psychological mechanism, which can be said to have a strong influence throughout people's life.

Most students, who learn Chinese as a second language, are approaching adulthood or have grown up. So, their cultural habits of the mother tongue have been quite stable, generating a profound impact on their learning of a second language. In addition, the influence of negative pragmatic transfer also matters. In the learning of a second language, language transfer means that learners use target language in virtue of knowledge related to their mother tongue to communicate. Such transfer can be divided into positive and negative transfer.

Positive transfer refers to optimizing existing knowledge on the learning of new knowledge; otherwise, it refers to negative transfer. Negative transfer is a common phenomenon, because many learners consciously apply the knowledge and rules of their mother tongue, but the complexity of language itself determines that no language can form a one-to-one correspondence with another language. As a result, learners' pragmatic knowledge of their mother tongue affects their pragmatic understanding and use of the target language. Such effect is particularly noticeable under native language environment.

The negative transfer of native culture is first manifested in the thinking mode. Located in Central Asia, Kazakhstan borders Xinjiang, China, and is culturally diverse. Implication, modesty, convergence and stability characterize the thinking of traditional Chinese culture. The Han people have been farming for generations to cultivate subtle and euphemistic characters, while the Kazakh people are nomadic in nature and are extroverted and enterprising. They seek for different minds and rapid changes. Besides, the Kazakh students we came in contact with tend to be very outspoken. When confronted with problems, the Chinese students in Kazakhstan will weigh their words, while the Kazakh students will address their opinions directly. Nearly half of the students chose to refuse the invitation outright (see Q8) or voice their demands (see Q12). This is the biggest cultural difference between the two nations.

The negative transfer is reflected in cultural tradition as well. Kazakhs are all born horseback riders. The horse symbolizes a lot in Kazakh idioms. For instance, the saying, "Жақсы атқа бір қамшы, Жаман атқа мың қамшы.- Smart horses run with a whip, but inferior ones keep disappointing", indicates that a wise man needs inspiration, but a fool can do nothing with it. Kazakh people show unbounded worship and affection for horses, as evidenced by the fact that the horse is compared to intelligence. That's why most students picked "horse" rather than "rabbit" in Q1. It's hard for them to understand if there is no correspondence between the target language and the mother tongue. Only 30% and 25% of students correctly answered Q5 and Q16 since there's no corresponding expressions in Kazakh, such as "surname+Lao.", "Lao.+surname" or "Have you eaten". As students learn, understand and apply these

expressions through rote memorization, a large number of pragmatic failures occur.

Under native language environment, students' understanding and use of the second language are limited. The ultimate purpose of language learning is to apply this language in daily life. Plenty of words, phrases and sentences in Chinese have different meanings in different environments. Besides, the same meaning expresses different feelings in different contexts, resulting in ambiguities. We can see the example Q3: “冬天，能穿多少穿多少。夏天，能穿多少穿多少。”，When judging the meaning direction of partially-directed compound words like “多少”，it requires long-term accumulated cognitive experience and understanding of language habits. In the Chinese environment, such expression is very common. But in the non-Chinese environment, it is difficult to find such complete sentences. Even if students understand what is a partially-directed compound word, they still cannot fully grasp it in practice.

Under native language environment, students have different learning motivations. As a serviceable tool, language plays an important role in serving life better. In the Chinese environment, it is necessary to use Chinese for necessities of life - food, clothing, housing, and transportation, and students have more opportunities to communicate only in Chinese. Even if students can use body language to express their meanings, language is the only tool available for barrier-free communication, which forces learners to learn Chinese. However, when learning Chinese in native-speaking environment, students are more to deal with exams, and they lack initiative and consciousness. Under this circumstance, Chinese learning is also a superficial learning.

In the Chinese teaching process under native language environment, there are still problems of teaching methods. If students' needs for language use in daily life are not considered, the emphasis of teaching tends to be test-taking ability, and pragmatic competence is generally not seen as the teaching key. Even though some teachers realize the importance of pragmatic competence, they are still exploring their teaching techniques and skills without ready-made achievements for reference.

CONCLUSION

Suggestions for developing pragmatic competence in the teaching of second language under native language environment

Language is a tool for communication. The limitation of the cultivation pragmatic competence will affect the teaching effect of the second language greatly. At present, more and more scholars are devoted to researching on the influence of classroom intervention on the development of learners' pragmatic competence. In terms of teaching methods, they are mainly divided into explicit and implicit teaching. Explicit teaching means that the teacher makes clear teaching purpose and explains pragmatic rules clearly. Implicit teaching refers to attracting students' attention and discovering and summarizing rules of use via teaching interaction [10]. It is necessary to combine these two methods to achieve the best teaching effect. The approaches used widely at this stage, including communicative approach, listening, and speaking approach, situational approach, and cognitive approach, all are teaching methods combining explicit and implicit teaching, which is conducive to developing students' pragmatic competence of their second language.

However, due to the limitations of learning a second language under native language environment, it's believed that comparative methods can be introduced in the classroom. The main principles of comparative teaching methods are as follows: The comparison of cultural

background to promote the development of thinking. Human beings created the world landscape of culture and thinking to form the national consciousness and values of human society, and then formed the cognitive mode and unique character of the nation based on national values.

On the one hand, teachers should introduce Chinese folk culture, folklore, and national conditions as much as possible, to expand students' knowledge and deepen their understanding of China comprehensively; on the other hand, teachers should compare the culture of the second language with students' native language culture to find out the same or similar culture points, interact two cultures to examine students' own values, educate and improve themselves, on the basis of understanding the culture of foreign language. During this process, students can develop their way of thinking of the second language through the perception of foreign culture.

Understanding and assimilation after comparative analysis of text and speech. Through the analysis of text and speech of a target language, comparing the former with the native language, students can consciously understand and absorb (assimilate) the target language. Besides, through the comparative study of the phonology of the first and the second language, students can find out the similarities and differences between them to overcome the interference of the native language during learning of the second language.

Combination of existing teaching methods. Teachers should create a language environment for students to train their overall grasp of this language through 4 activities (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Through plenty of example sentences, teachers should let students understand the different meanings of words in different sentences, or let them master the rules of multiple terms through synonym replacement, or let them experience the language environment and master the grammatical phenomena in coherent texts of various types and styles by leading them to read aloud emotionally for many times, so as to use the language rules and features in their own speaking process and improve their pragmatic competence.

Set a second classroom to improve language accumulation. Learners in non-Chinese environment tend to lose interest in learning due to lack of Chinese communication and exercise. Hence, teachers should focus on arousing students' interest in Chinese teaching by setting a second class, such as Chinese self-scripted performances and Chinese summer camps. Expansion of learners' accumulation of a foreign language and use of the learnt knowledge in practice according to requirements of education and life, the core of the second classroom, are the supplementary training of classroom teaching materials. They can be seen as a combination of psychological cognitive competence and verbal logical competence to activate the whole mechanism of emotional experience, thus creating a Chinese environment of "taking pleasure in what is taught" for students to enhance their studying interest.

It's a great and arduous task to improve intercultural pragmatic competence. To solve this problem, it is necessary to constantly update teaching methods to maximize the role of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in teaching. The improvement of intercultural pragmatic competence is beneficial to forming intercultural communicative competence. Intercultural communication is the full social interaction between two participants or among many participants represented by different national cultures in the communication. In the teaching of second language, students will make a comprehensive analysis of relevant knowledge in their minds by feeling the spiritual connotation and recognizing the world landscape of the second language, including the comparison of characteristics of local culture, cultures of various languages and relevant background information. In this way, students can integrate and expand their own cultural landscape and upgrade their intercultural pragmatic competence.

“Pragmatics is a perspective rather than a parallel component of linguistic theory” [11]. The emotion, thought, and culture expressed by language are the embodiment of the language vitality, and the goal of the cultivation of pragmatic competence. If the teaching of second language is only for the infusion of language knowledge, without the collision and comparison of ideas and cultures, or correct expression and communication of emotions, it is dereliction of duty of teaching. In modern society, education is a necessary way for individuals to grow and a convenient way to gain personal experience. Only by linking language education with pragmatic competence can language education play its due role.

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Teaching Creative Writing at The Tertiary Level in China: A Case Study

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Abstract: *According to College English Curriculum Requirements (2020) and the evaluation index system of college education and teaching (2021), classroom teaching should be learner-centered and teacher-oriented, making the English courses more advanced, innovative, and challenging. At the same time, in order to meet the practical needs of students in our university for their careers and/or further study, it is necessary to innovate college English teaching. This paper aims to report a creative writing course in regard to its background, course design, and implementation effects.*

Keywords: *creative writing; teaching; tertiary education*

Article History

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In our class, the book club method and workshop method were adopted for non-English majors. To be specific, the “book club” method was for the creative reading section, in which students were asked to discuss the reading materials in a seminar manner with the help of a reading guide. The “workshop” method was for the creative writing section, in which students were divided into small groups to do peer-reviews. At the end of the semester, students were asked to hand in a portfolio of their homework.

A questionnaire and interviews were administered to the students in order to check the implementation effects of the course. Most students thought this course was conducive to the cultivation of their innovative ability and critical thinking. However, some subjects’ feedbacks also reflected the difficulties and challenges of teaching this course. From the perspective of teachers, more work should be done in the future to improve the availability and practicality of creative writing in terms of students’ satisfaction and course extension. Generally, this course sets up a model for college classroom teaching, especially in the context of China’s creative industry development.

INTRODUCTION

The English Creative Writing course is originated from the traditional college English course, which involves teaching reading and writing specifically. Our English creative writing course is an innovation of the traditional course model based on some western theories about creative writing. As writing is closely related to reading, our course also prepares a lot of reading materials for students. Based on the reading materials, students are asked to write according to the given subjects.

In western countries, creative writing has a history of more than 80 years and a relatively mature and complete discipline system has been formed. The rapid development of economy and culture also promotes various creative industries, which are directly related to creative writing. At the same time, inviting writers as visiting professors in university provides an excellent environment for students to master writing knowledge and produce professional works. Lots of graduates choose to work in writing industries and be devoted to cultivating more writing talents, forming an effective circle for student cultivation.

Our course attempts to apply western creative writing pattern to our teaching methods and course design. This paper analyzes the national standards for college English teaching and the levels and needs of the students in Beijing International Studies University (BISU) and makes a survey about the feasibility and effect of creative writing teaching. Contrasted with the practice of other universities in China, we aim to find the proper pattern to teach and develop our own course better. Based on the students' feedbacks, we will give some solutions and make some adjustments for future course design.

BACKGROUND

The idea of creative writing originates from the University of Iowa, which is considered the source of creative writing teaching. In this university, there is also an International Writing Program every year to invite worldwide writers to write, communicate and introduce their works. The development of creative writing is a great success in America. The Association of Writers & Writing Programs (AWP), founded in 1967, is the oldest and largest creative writing association (Dai, 2019, p.64).

The creative writing was officially identified as a discipline in the United States since early times. In 1936, the Iowa's writing program began to provide students with MFA degree and the graduates cultivated also made a lot of contributions to more creative writing programs in education career. American creative writing also played more social functions after the Second World War. The prosperity of the cultural industry has become a new driving force for the development of creative writing (An, 2020).

In the 1960s and 1970s, American creative writing quickly spread to other English-speaking countries like the UK and Australia. In 1987, the UK founded the National Association of Writers in Education (NAWE) to promote the development of creative writing. In 2008, it

emphasized the importance of practice in creative writing. The Australasian Association of Writing Programs was founded in 1996, aiming to promote pedagogy research, and multi-disciplinary creative writing in Australian higher education was encouraged (Dai, 2019, pp.65-66).

In China, creative writing has a history of more than 10 years, and it is still in the early stage of development. Universities like Fudan University, Shanghai University, Renmin University of China have started relevant creative teaching and practice. Although some universities have set the bachelor's degree or the master's degree for creative writing, the discipline system of creative writing is still not formed. Creative writing in China still needs to undergo localization development to achieve success (Song, 2019, p.79). Recently, the Ministry of Education made some new adjustments and standards for college English classes. From the documents, College English Curriculum Requirements (2020) and the Evaluation Index System of College Education and Teaching (2021), some new requirements for college English teaching can be concluded. First, classroom teaching should be learner-centered and teacher-oriented. In traditional college English classes, the teacher plays the dominant role, inculcating all the knowledge to students. As the result of such traditional pattern, students' enthusiasm and participation in class are not very high and their abilities have not improved much. Therefore, the transformation of classroom model is inevitable. Students should be in the center of the class, with the teacher as the guidance role. For example, some teaching content can be handed over to students in advance. Then, they will make some preparations to present at class. In the process of preparation and presentation, various kinds of abilities are exercised, like self-study, analysis, and summarization. The teacher's role is to point the direction and answering doubts when students meet some difficulties.

Second, college English courses should be more advanced, innovative, and challenging. According to Bloom's taxonomy of education objectives, it can be concluded that the traditional college English course mostly focuses on the lower order thinking, namely knowledge, comprehension, and application. These three requirements are all basic needs in knowledge level. Another three variables, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation belong to higher order thinking, which should be applied to English classes to cultivate students' ability. Analysis refers to the ability to break down the materials into different parts according to comprehension, then find the internal relationships among these parts and finally summarize the organizational principles of the material. In the analysis process, students can have a deep comprehension to the material. Synthesis means summarization, which puts the parts broken down in analysis process together to form a whole logically. In this process, students will learn to reorganize the material. Evaluation is the ability to make judgements. Generally, students just know the content of the material, but they do not evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of it. In other words, students do not form their own knowledge and judgement system. Therefore, evaluation is the most difficult and important ability, directly related to the innovative thinking (Bloom, 1956).

Third, class teaching should also strengthen moral education. The original intention of education is to educate people and cultivate the whole person. Therefore, the cultivation of personality and deeds cannot be neglected in the classroom.

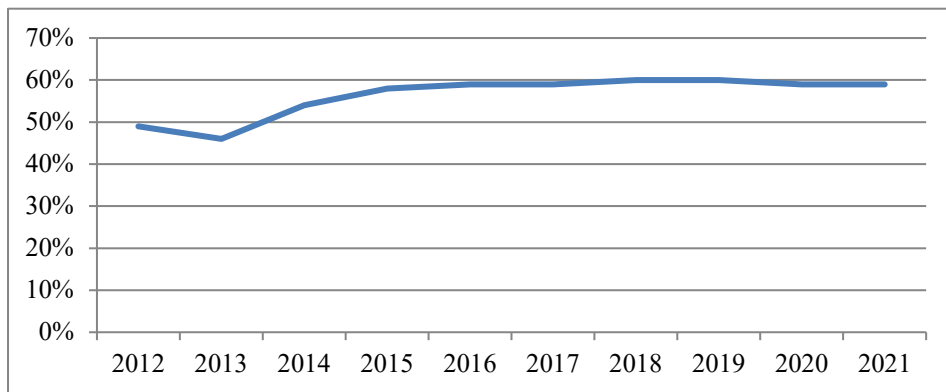


Figure 1. The proportion of Beijing students.

On the other hand, the students in our university have specific and practical needs for the new course. From the perspective of students enrolled in our school each year shown in Figure 1, about 60% are Beijing locals who receive a higher quality of education and generally have a better level of English. As shown in Figure 2, their college entrance scores are all over 500, which belong to the first tier in China's evaluation standard. Considering graduate destination in our university shown in Figure 3, about 40% graduates choose to further their studies at home and abroad. Those who choose to find jobs after graduation also have high self-expectations. From this point, the English writing ability and English expression ability are of vital importance for our students, which are ignored in the traditional knowledge-based classrooms.

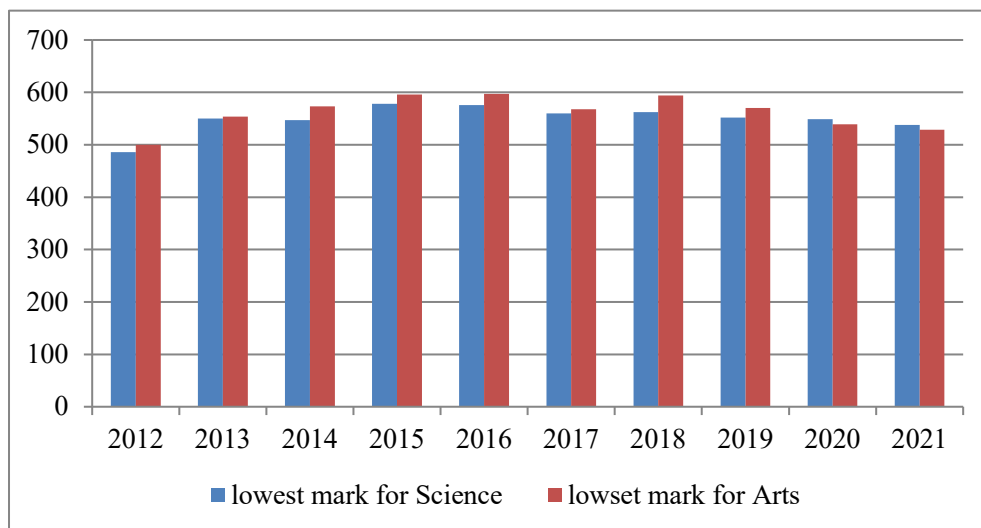


Figure 2. College entrance test scores of Beijing students.

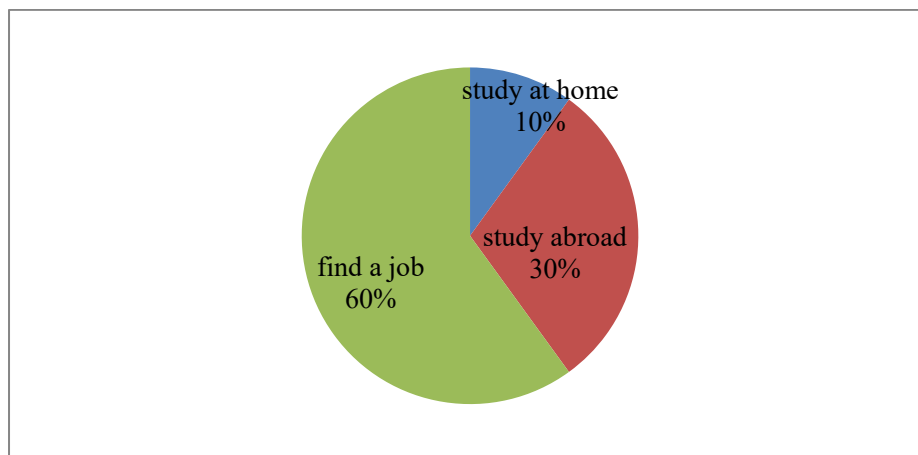


Figure 3. Graduate Destination.

In addition, the previous textbook for the English Reading and Writing course focuses on practical writing and the reading materials are skill-oriented which cannot meet the students' expectations and needs. The new textbook for our course is the Routledge Creative Writing Coursebook (2006) written by Mills. Contrasted with the previous textbook, this book is more academic and practical in giving a complete framework for the whole course as it covers nearly all kinds of writing genres, such as narrative writing, personal writing, poem writing, non-fiction writing and fiction writing. The content of this textbook also conforms to the new training objectives. Therefore, this book can be beneficial to improve students' language ability, English writing ability and the innovative thinking ability. Besides this textbook, some pre-selected reading materials like short stories, poems, novel selections, or essays are also provided for students to further their study. These materials are all assigned in advance in the digital form for students to read and discuss with their partners.

Based on all the discussions above, it is necessary to set up English creative writing course in our university.

THEORETICAL BASIS

In general, there are two main models about creative writing, workshop, and seminar. Our course takes the workshop model as the theoretical framework.

The workshop pattern was widely applied to other English-speaking countries, including the UK, Australia, and Canada, etc. This course pattern integrates teaching practice space, writing practice space and creative activity space into a whole. The research hotspots of western workshops can be summarized into three dimensions: tutor identity orientation, workshop orientation and creative teaching method (Gao, 2020). From the perspective of values, creative teaching education should be a kind of liberatory pedagogy, not an oppressed one. The tutor should guide and encourage the students to find their unique ideas. For teaching content and teaching objectives, creative writing teaching should not be restricted to skill improvement. The students should be encouraged to become writers and experts who can master both the writing skills and the teaching skills (Bishop & Starkey, 2006). Therefore, the workshop pattern is

students-centered and process-based. The content of creative writing mainly involves four genres: poetry, fiction, creative nonfiction, and drama (Starkey, 2016). In terms of ethical problems, the atmosphere of workshop should be appreciative, interactive, and trustful, where everyone is respected (Disarro, 2014).

In our course, the creative writing workshop provides enough space for students to express their own ideas and discuss with their partners. Both the teacher and students' comments and feedbacks will be given, and students can revise their works efficiently.

COURSE DESIGN

In the long run, the overall goal of our course innovation is to construct a cluster of courses. Our English Creative Writing course is designed for one academic year, with the first semester focusing on non-fiction writing and the second semester focusing on fiction writing. In the future, we also plan to set up English courses for specific purposes, such as academic purposes.

The semester goal of this course is the writing portfolio which includes each student's work, namely one drama, one personal narrative, six poems, one fiction and one non-fiction.

This course is designed for 16 weeks, with one different topic a week. All the reading materials with reading guides are assigned to students in advance.

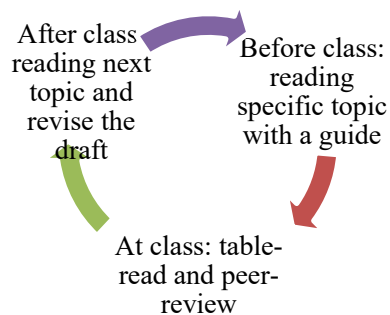


Figure 4. The workshop model process.

From the perspective of teaching methods, this course mainly adopts the workshop model of instruction. The teacher acts as the instructor, letting the students play the dominant role. In other words, the teacher and students will work together as a group to review, comment, and offer advice for editing students' works during classes. To be specific, each class consists of two periods, in which the first period is creative reading section and the second period is creative writing section. As shown in Figure 4, in creative reading section, the book-club model is adopted. Before class, students are assigned specific materials with a guide. At class, they can share their ideas with each other concerning with their reading materials. In creative writing section, the table-read model is adopted. The students sit around and evaluate each other's writing, make comments, and give suggestions for revision. Then the teacher will also give some feedbacks and make the lecture for next topic. After class, students will read next topic

materials and revise their drafts. From this point, we can see that the whole class model goes in cycles. These two periods constitute our class pattern.

Table 1
Week 6 of English Creative Writing Syllabus

Week	Topics	Readings
6	Personal Narrative 2	<p>Workshop: Students will present exercises on exposition, character, conflict and resolution for comment and discussion by the class; Students may present new or previously written (or revised) work for comment and discussion by the class.</p> <p>Class Discussion of Selections from Einstein’s Dreams: Lecture: Character and Dialogue Reading Assignment: Selected stories from <i>The Things They Carried</i>.</p> <p>Assignment: Students shall compose one original short story (suggested length of approximately 5 typed pages). The first complete or partial draft shall be due for presentation to the Workshop during the Week 7 class. Completed drafts shall be due in the Collected Works during the Week 16 Class.</p>

From Table 1, the circulatory process is also reflected and the students are put in the center at class. The tutor gives the lecture every week to clarify the weekly subject and tasks. In such a class model, students are given more freedom and space to produce their own creative ideas and express their opinions. In the preparation and discussion process, higher-order thinking abilities are exercised and cultivated.

IMPLEMENTATION EFFECT

After one semester’s teaching, the implementation effect of our course was examined through semi-structured interview and questionnaire survey. All students in our class participated in the questionnaire survey, thus 39 questionnaires were collected. According to the students’ willingness, 6 students were interviewed at the Tencent meeting platform, with each one given 15 minutes to answer questions. For the questionnaire, we had set 35 questions, from the aspects of general attitude, students’ interest and attention, teaching methods, teaching materials and course teaching. For the interview, students talked about their own learning experiences about the course, their suggestions, and their opinions on the course.

Table 2
The Results of the Questionnaire

Dimensions	Positive Attitude	Neutral Attitude	Negative Attitude
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general attitude	85.47%	7.26%	7.26%
teaching methods	58.12%	28.63%	13.25%
teaching materials	62.67%	21.66%	15.67%
course teaching	81.36%	14.69%	3.95%
students' interest and attention	74.79%	16.67%	8.55%

From Table 2, it can be seen that most of students were satisfied with the course, especially in general attitude, course teaching and students' interest and attention. Through learning, the ability of creative thinking was improved. The class model was interesting and the discussion section helped students to concentrate themselves all the time. However, students' attitudes towards teaching methods and teaching materials were not in a highly positive level. Some students thought that there were too many reading materials which were the burden for them and covered most of their time. Some students thought that the teaching model was single as every class is in the same form and they did not have more expectations. It is also noticed that some students held the neutral attitude towards these two dimensions. This phenomenon showed that these students did not have a clear understanding of the course and they did not know whether the existing course pattern was suitable and good for them. Therefore, more explanation and guide should be given to help students have a correct orientation for the course and for their own future development.

The results of interviews were similar to that of the questionnaires. Some students spoke highly of the course, because they had made great progress in thinking and writing abilities after one semester's learning. Some negative voices mostly focused on the difficulty and time-consumption of the course. The workshop model was accepted by most students, but there were still some queries. As the teacher lectured less, some students could not understand the knowledge better. Peer-review and peer reflections were not very professional and the teacher's feedbacks were also limited. In addition, the course was not very relative to students' major. Some students thought that they just completed the task and did not have some further applications from the perspective of their majors.

In terms of students' doubts and questions, our course needs to make some improvements in the future. The writing subjects can be selected according to students' major features. The time for teacher's lecture and students' discussion needs to make a balance. An online teaching platform may be a solution to the class time limitation. The teacher can upload some teaching videos or materials, and students can have a clearer understanding for the course content. For peer-review section, students can be asked to upload their works on the platform and all the marks and comments on the works are public to all students. The teacher is responsible for telling the rules of peer feedbacks and giving comments for students' works.

DISCUSSION

Our English Creative Writing course attempts to reform the traditional ways of teaching and focus on the cultivation of creative thinking. Our students are all non-English majors. Therefore,

major relevance is an important factor for the course orientation, which is also reflected in students' feedbacks. If combined major-relative materials with creative writing ideas, the effect of the course will be more significant in practicability. From the perspective of student education, our course can be improved from the cultivation of characters. Creative writing is an embodiment of humanism by emphasizing people's self-expression (Zhang, 2020). The writing subjects can also be decided by the students themselves. Giving them more freedom can make the students get more interest in the writing section. In addition, the publicity should also be considered. We need to find the better way to publicize the students' writing works. The existing course demand is just a work portfolio, which is only a task collection form for a course. If connected with industries, students will have more chances to write according to practical needs and know more about the industry demand, which is conducive for their future job hunting.

From the perspective of teacher development, the course design and team construction are the crucial issues for future direction. Creative writing needs a complete teacher team to design courses and carry out teaching tasks. Different teachers in the team can be divided according to their research focuses in order to provide students with professional guidance. Furthermore, the course pattern needs to be expanded to the whole university, even to spread to other universities serving as the class model. Our aim is to design a cluster of courses and apply the creative writing idea to more courses and students.

Since creative writing was introduced to China in 2009, its localization progress in China has made some progress. The "Creative Writing Series" published by China Renmin University Press (CRUP) in 2013 is the first series of books that systematically introduced American creative writing achievements to China. This series introduce the writing methods and techniques of different types of literary works, including fiction, non-fiction, playwriting, and news report so as to help readers have a better understanding of writing. It should be noticed that writing is the way to express people's inner world and to inspire imagination and creativity. Therefore, everyone can write no matter what identity he is. Creative writing also aims to help readers know how to read better and how to create their own works.

In the process of developing creative writing in China, we have two main problems to solve. First, we need to break the traditional view that writers cannot be cultivated under the discipline system. Diao (2017) put forward that writers can be cultivated, and writing is for everyone. Creative writing can change people's attitude towards life. No one is born a good writer, and being a writer is not all about talent. The idea of creative writing is to encourage everyone to write their own thoughts freely. Some universities in China made plenty of attempts to draw lessons from the western model, like the workshop model, small-sized class, and seminar. Through innovating the teaching methods and inviting famous writers to campus, students' skills and abilities are improved quickly. From the perspective of teaching teams, the representatives are Nanjing University and Fudan University. The professors invited used intensive reading and analysis of literary texts at class to guide students in the process of reading and writing. From the perspective of students, many students' creative works have been published. From these achievements, we can see that students have the potential to be cultivated as writers.

Second, modern writing needs innovation. In the 21st century, writing is more and more necessary to develop as a discipline. As the third stage of writing development, creative writing should pay more attention to the development of cultural industry. The objective of creative writing is to cultivate core talents with creative ability for all walks of life (Zhang, 2013). From this point, creative writing teaching in tertiary education should be related to practical industries. The reason for the success of creative writing teaching in the United States is the connection between class and industry. As we all know, the United States won the war against the Soviet Union in the history. However, few people know that the success lies in the culture not military force. At the end of the cold war, the cultural and creative industries in the United States have already accounted for 20% of the GDP, becoming the first pillar industry (Ge & Xu, 2011). Nowadays, American films and other cultural works are also popular all over the world. Creative writing plays an important role in culture export and dissemination.

In addition, from the perspective of discipline construction, creative writing should also be explored from new perspectives. In 2020, the idea of the new liberal arts was put forward, which is a good chance for creative writing development. China as a big country of cultural resources has the potential to reform the construction of liberal arts. We should not only inherit traditional culture and knowledge, but also take knowledge innovation and cultural creativity as the core goal of teaching. The essence of creative practice is to go back the human himself, that is, to cultivate the whole person. For creative writing, it should focus on individual's expression and creation. Everyone has the responsibility to make contributions to our country's cultural industry. That is why creative writing is different from traditional writing in the width of the connotation (Ge, 2020). In tertiary level, creative writing general course should be promoted within the whole school. It is important to strengthen all students' writing skills and application abilities (Feng, 2020).

In terms of cultural communication and dissemination, creative writing development should serve for Chinese culture. One of the essential goals of creative writing teaching is to cultivate students' ability to tell Chinese stories well. Culture as the soft power of a country, has great influences on people's values and thoughts. Traditional writing teaching focuses on teaching writing theories and lacks practice in real life. Creative writing teaching need to change this status quo and provides more opportunities for students to learn more about social life.

With the rapid development of society and science technology, more research can be done with creative writing. For example, the field of digital writing is a new trend, which can be combined with creative writing. Other technologies like big data, artificial intelligence can also be applied to discipline development (Zhang & Liu, 2020). Online education has been receiving increasing attention all over the world, laying a solid foundation for new development of creative writing. Various kinds of online platforms can effectively supplement classroom learning by implementing different teaching activities, like giving in-time feedbacks and uploading teaching materials. To a certain extent, online platforms solve the limitation of classroom time.

CONCLUSION

Contrasted with traditional English writing, creative writing has more advantages in terms of students' participation, ability cultivation and higher-order thinking methods. The workshop model is a good way to implement creative writing course. Previous studies also proved the effects of this model. Lensmire (1994) applied the theory and practice of writing workshop approaches to a third-grade classroom and got good course effects. During the class, the construction of community between the teacher and students was crucial to learning. Our course is designed to let students discuss and do peer-reviews, which also reflects the idea of learning community. Within the community, all people can express their own ideas and discuss together to find better solutions. From the students' feedbacks, most students are satisfied with such class model and speak highly of the course effects in improving their thinking abilities.

In addition, creative writing in China still has a long way to go. For tertiary level education, more connections need to be made with industries. Students should be conscious to publicize their works and know more about industry demand in order to learn more efficiently. Under the background of new liberal arts, creative writing can develop according to national situations and needs. At the same time, the construction of creative writing discipline system should be emphasized. It is not enough that only several universities focus on creative writing studies. Only from the perspective of discipline can teachers and students realize the importance of creative writing.

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Applying Inductive Method as An Innovative Approach in The Methodology of Teaching Foreign Language Grammar

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Abstract: *The research study is dedicated to using inductive method as an innovative approach in grammar teaching process. Following the description and some more information on the methodology of teaching foreign language, the author mentions the stages of inductive presentation of language material within the framework of communicative learning. As an example, the explanation of Past Simple tense through inductive method is given based on observations of such Russian scholars as Frolova and Schukin. Further, the researcher puts an emphasis on the role of inductive learning pointing out that grammar rules are not learned directly, but are “discovered” or induced by learners on their own based on their language experience. The priority is given to using the language, and not presenting information about it, which is typical for a direct method, a communicative approach, and advisory teaching. The paper provides opinions of different scholars expressed in favor of inductive teaching grammar, including K.D.Ushinsky’s, who highly appreciated the use of induction in the study of grammar. Using specially selected examples, he developed in children the ability to notice the patterns of language and make independent generalizations, formulate rules, which was of great importance for the development of students' thinking. According to the thesis, inductive teaching and learning as an umbrella term encompasses a range of instructional methods, including inquiry learning, problem-based learning, project-based learning, case-based teaching, discovery learning, and just-in-time teaching. Despite the statement given above, it is claimed that induction cannot be turned into a universal teaching method. The inductive study of a topic is especially useful in cases where the material is predominantly factual or associated with the formation of concepts, the meaning of which can become clear only in the course of inductive reasoning. Inductive methods are widely used for studying grammatical structure and performing practical tasks.*

Key words: *Innovative approach; Communicative competence; Inductive teaching; Foreign language grammar; Methodology*

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INTRODUCTION

Method is a way of theoretical investigation or practical implementation of a rule, activity, etc¹. Unlike the field of knowledge or research, it is considered to be authorial, that is, created by a specific person or group of people, a scientific or practical school. Due to limited scope of action and result, methods tend to become outdated, transforming into other methods, developing in accordance with time, achievements of technical and scientific thought, and the needs of society. The set of homogeneous methods is usually called an approach.

The methodology of teaching foreign languages is “a science that explores the goals, content, methods and means of teaching, as well as ways of teaching and upbringing on the material of a foreign language” [1; 7]. Teaching foreign language methodology reveals and substantiates the patterns of teaching a foreign language. Historically, in the methodology of teaching foreign languages two functionally different methods have developed: general and specific methods. The general methodology, as a rule, is devoted to the study of the patterns and characteristics of the process of teaching a foreign language, regardless of what foreign language is in question.

However, knowledge of the general laws of teaching foreign languages turns out to be insufficient when the teacher is faced with the specific features of a particular foreign language. Special methodology examines the teaching of those linguistic and speech phenomena that are specific to a particular foreign language being studied.

EXPLICIT APPROACH IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODOLOGY: INDUCTIVE METHOD

Modern methodology of teaching foreign languages puts an emphasis on the improvement of learner’s communicative competence which, in consequence, leads to wide implementation of communicative approach in language teaching process. Within the framework of communicative teaching, we can distinguish following approaches:

- Explicit approach
- Implicit approach
- Differentiated approach

Considering separately the explicit approach to formation of communicative, particularly grammar competence, we can evolve two methods: inductive and deductive. Teachers actively use both the first and second methods, the choice depends on the purpose of teaching. The approaches have their advantages and a set of techniques that help achieve the goal. But the inductive method is considered to be the most productive. The inductive method is based on the transition from particular to general. This method allows students to formulate the rule themselves, relying on the phenomena with which they meet when studying foreign language. Induction is “logical conclusion in the process of thinking from the particular to the general”², a research method and a way of reasoning, in which the general conclusion is built on the basis of particular premises. Within the framework of communicative learning, the inductive presentation of the material does not imply "guessing" the rule, but a full-fledged speech practice and is implemented through several stages. At the first stage, students are presented with authentic language material containing the desired grammatical structure, and are invited to discuss first the problems or situations expressed in these examples. At the next stage, the teacher sets the task to analyze the grammar of the presented samples and make suggestions on the use of the grammatical structure. Next, students read or listen to the text, observe the

¹ Oxford languages

² Shashenkova E.A. Research activities (dictionary). M.: Perspective, 2010.

grammatical phenomenon in context. At the fourth stage, students formulate the rules for using the grammatical structure. At the fifth and final stage, there is a feedback from the teacher and a mutual check.

Frolova and Schukin in their book *Methodology of teaching foreign languages* suggest the formulation of speech task implementing inductive method in the following way:

A teacher lets students read the examples and try to formulate a rule for using the Past Simple form, then determine how the forms of regular verbs in Past Simple are formed. Examples:

I studied very hard yesterday.

The TV set worked very well last week.

We watched a film an hour ago.

Based on observation, students are expected to come to the following conclusion: "As you can see from the examples, Past Simple is used to refer to a specific action in the past. The affirmative form of the regular semantic verb in Past Simple is formed with the ending -ed for all persons and numbers ". [2; 149]

The formulation of the rule, if necessary, is corrected by the teacher. It is also possible to provide assistance to students in the form of hints, the use of visual aids, translation. Then exercises are offered to consolidate the grammatical phenomenon, which leads to the formation of grammatical skill.

Also, inductive method involves a so-called lexical way of mastering a grammatical unit. For example, at the initial stage of language acquisition, the model Let's play, Let's sing, etc. is mastered as a stable expression (lexical unit), denoting an invitation to join an activity, and not as an example of the use of a syntactic structure, known in grammar as a "form of imperative sentence".

In inductive learning, grammar rules are not learned directly, but are "discovered" or induced by learners on their own based on language experience. The priority is given to using the language, and not presenting information about it, which is typical for a direct method, a communicative approach, and advisory teaching.

OPINIONS OF SCHOLARS ON THE USE OF INDUCTION IN LANGUAGE TEACHING PROCESS

The use of induction in teaching makes it possible to draw a generalizing conclusion that is obvious, convincing, arising from the facts and therefore evidential for students. This important feature of induction has been emphasized by many educators. So, N.F. Bunakov wrote about the study of grammar: "The inductive method ... comes from concrete facts, that is, from the language itself as an object of study, from its various natural phenomena, first of all, using the observation of students, turning it to the phenomena of language, to the knowledge of its forms, to the disclosure of their meaning, then direct their thought to comparison, classification and generalization" [3, 173-74].

In this approach, as Herron and Tomasselo explain, the grammar lesson starts either with specific, beforehand prepared questions to be answered orally or an exercise to be filled out. Afterwards, the teacher offers students a controlled version of an activity by writing a sentence on the board and deleting the target structure. Whether students failed in their attempt or not is immediately shown by the teacher's explanation or response to their work without explicitly

stating the rule. What is expected from the students is that, they form a hypothesis throughout working on activities and discovering by themselves the structure and grammatical patterns but only with no direct involvement from the teacher's part. As we could see, the teacher is involved in this type of teaching but there is a purpose behind it.

The teacher's involvement in the beginning or as it is called, the stage of less controlled activity is justified by boosting up students' confidence. [4, 709] In addition to Herron and Tomasselo's description of an inductive method, Thornbury adds very valuable information which concerns several aspects, which should be taken into consideration when teaching inductively. "For induction to work the best, there needs to be the intervention of either the syllabus designer, the material writer, or the teacher, or all three" [5, 50].

An inductive approach does not necessarily have to mean that teachers never teach or lecture; on the other hand, teachers' main responsibilities become to evaluate what skills students possess, what they are capable of and to help them to make their beliefs clearer and less ambiguous by facilitating the construction of new knowledge.

L. D. Kudryavtsev believes that "at the first stages of training, one should give preference to the inductive method, gradually preparing and using a deductive approach," because inductive methods of presenting material, in which there is a consistent generalization of concepts, contribute to a more active assimilation of the material. He further notes: "In recent years, there has been a tendency to replace the inductive approach with a deductive approach, the feasibility of this is often questionable". K. D. Ushinsky highly appreciated the use of induction in the study of grammar. Using specially selected examples, he developed in children the ability to notice the patterns of language and make independent generalizations, formulate rules, which was of great importance for the development of students' thinking.

CONCLUSION

Inductive teaching and learning is an umbrella term that encompasses a range of instructional methods, including inquiry learning, problem-based learning, project-based learning, case-based teaching, discovery learning, and just-in-time teaching. These methods have many features in common, besides the fact that they all qualify as inductive. An inductive teaching takes place when we go from a specific example, activity or an explanation to the more general one, an inductive approach is more student centered, students are exposed to the language implicitly and it is based on rule-discovery as well as it develops critical and analytical thinking of students and even offers them problem-solving samples. Besides, an inductive approach to teaching grammar requires an active participation from the student's part and develops learner autonomy.

However, induction cannot be turned into a universal teaching method. In accordance with modern trends towards an increase in theoretical information in curricula and with the introduction into practice of the corresponding problem-type teaching methods, the role of other logical forms of presentation of educational material increases.

The inductive study of a topic is especially useful in cases where the material is predominantly factual or associated with the formation of concepts, the meaning of which can become clear only in the course of inductive reasoning. Inductive methods are widely used for studying grammatical structure and performing practical tasks.

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