ҚҚДУ ҲУЗУРИДАГИ МИНТАҚАВИЙ МАРКАЗИ

КОММУНИКАТИВ ТИЛШУНОСЛИК ВА ТИЛ КОМПЕТЕНЦИЯЛАРИ

Дилбар Ходжиева | ф.ф.н., доцент

Нукус 2021

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ
ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ

ҚОРАҚАЛПОҚ ДАВЛАТ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ ҲУЗУРИДАГИ ПЕДАГОГ КАДРЛАРНИ ҚАЙТА ТАЙЁРЛАШ ВА УЛАРНИНГ МАЛАКАСИНИ ОШИРИШ МИНТАҚАВИЙ МАРКАЗИ

“КОММУНИКАТИВ ТИЛШУНОСЛИК ВА ТИЛ КОМПЕТЕНЦИЯЛАРИ” МОДУЛИНИНГ БЎЙИЧА

Ў Қ У В – У С Л У Б И Й М А Ж М У А

Қайта тайёрлаш ва малака ошириш курси йўналиши: Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш: инглиз тили

Тингловчилар контингенти: Олий таълим муассасалари профессор-ўқитувчилари

Нукус – 2021

Модулнинг ўқув услубий мажмуаси Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлигининг 2020 йил “7”-декабрдаги 648-сонли баённомаси билан маъқулланган ўқув дастури ва ўқув режасига мувофиқ ишлаб чиқилган.

Тузувчи:
Д.Т.Хаджиева – филология фанлари номзоди, доцент

Тақризчилар:
Г.А.Нурымбетова – филология фанлари номзоди, доцент
Г.Тлеумуратов**– филология** фанлари номзоди, доцент

Ўқув-услубий мажмуа Бердақ номидаги Қорақалпоқ давлат университети илмий-методик кенгаши (2020 йил “30” декабрдаги 5-сонли баённомаси).

М У Н Д А Р И Ж А

I. ИШЧИ ЎҚУВ ДАСТУРИ

Кириш

“Коммуникатив тилшунослик ва тил компетенциялари” модули Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2017 йил 7 февралдаги “Ўзбекистон Республикасини янада ривожлантириш бўйича Ҳаракатлар стратегияси тўғрисида”ги ПФ-4947-сон, 2019 йил 27 августдаги “Олий таълим муассасалари раҳбар ва педагог кадрларининг узлуксиз малакасини ошириш тизимини жорий этиш тўғрисида”ги ПФ-5789-сон, 2019 йил 8 октябрдаги “Ўзбекистон Республикаси олий таълим тизимини 2030 йилгача ривожлантириш концепциясини тасдиқлаш тўғрисида”ги ПФ-5847-сонли Фармонлари, Ўзбекистон Республикаси Вазирлар Маҳкамасининг 2019 йил 23 сентябрдаги “Олий таълим муассасалари раҳбар ва педагог кадрларининг малакасини ошириш тизимини янада такомиллаштириш бўйича қўшимча чора-тадбирлар тўғрисида”ги 797-сонли ҳамда Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2012 йил 10 декабрдаги “Чет тилларни ўрганиш тизимини янада такомиллаштириш чора-тадбирлари тўғрисида”ги ПҚ-1875-сонли қарорларида белгиланган устувор вазифалар мазмунидан келиб чиққан ҳолда тузилган бўлиб, у олий таълим муассасалари педагог кадрларининг касб маҳорати ҳамда инновацион компетентлигини ривожлантириш, соҳага оид илғор хорижий тажрибалар, янги билим ва малакаларни ўзлаштириш, шунингдек амалиётга жорий этиш кўникмаларини такомиллаштиришни мақсад қилади.

Модулнинг мақсади ва вазифалари

“Коммуникатив тилшунослик ва тил компетенциялари” **модулининг мақсади:** ҳозирги кунда Коммуникатив тилшунослик ва тил компетенциялари сохасидаги билимларини янгилаш ва янада такомиллаштириш, ва бу тил компетенцияларини ва коммуникатив тилшуносликни укитишнинг олий таълим профессор укитувчилари учун ахамияти ва долзарблиги ва уларнрнг педагогик ва коммуникатив компетентлигини ривожландириш булиб прагматик компетенция ,дискурс ,социо- лингвистик ,стратегик компетенцияларини ривожлантириш ва коммуникатив тилшунослик бўйича кўникма ва малакаларини таркиб топтириш.

“Коммуникатив тилшунослик ва тил компетенциялари” **модулининг вазифалари:**

- коммуникатив тилшунослик ва тил компетенциялари ва уларни ривожлантириш масалаларига илмий ёндашиш, Коммуникатив тилшунослик

ва тил компетенциялари ва уларнинг таркибий кисмлари прагматик,дискурс,социо- лингвистик ва стратегик компетенцияларни масалалари таълим-тарбия жараёнида аҳамияти ва тингловчиларда уларни аниқ илмий назарий таҳлил қилишни вужудга келтиришга эришиш;

Коммуникатив компетенция ва унинг турлари буйича ўқитишнинг жараёнини ташкил этиш, уни режалаштириш ва баҳолаш методлари. Лингвистик ва маданиятлараро компетенцияларни шакллантириш. Таълим жараёнида нутқ коммуникацияси элементлари, социолингвистик элементлар, прагматик элементлар, коммуникатив компетенциянинг асосий турларини ўзлаштириш. Мавзуга оид олимлар томонидан билдирилган фикрларни таҳлил қилиш. Ўқув мақсадлари ва кутилаётган натижаларни тўғри белгилай олиш.

Хорижий тилларни умумевропа стандартлари талаблари асосида ўқитишнинг лингвистик аспектлари. Матн билан ишлаш малакаларини шакллантириш ва матнни таҳлил қилиш.

Анъанавий ва замонавий таҳлил методлари асосида лисоний ва маданий тузилмаларнинг ўзаро муносабатини аниқлаш ва таҳлил ўтказиш. Билимлар тузилмалари ва ахборотнинг акс эттирилиши йўлларини ўрганишга қаратилган когнитив методлар.

Модул бўйича тингловчиларнинг билими, кўникма ва малакаларига қўйиладиган талаблар

Коммуникатив тилшунослик ва тил компетенциялари**" модулини** ўзлаштириш жараёнида амалга ошириладиган масалалар доирасида тингловчилар:

– ахборот-коммуникация технологиялари соҳасида юзага келадиган муаммолар ва уларни ҳал этиш стратегияларини, интеллектуал мулк ва муаллифлик ҳуқуқини, давлат фаолиятининг турли соҳаларида ахборот-коммуникация технологияларини қўллаш принциплари ва усулларини **билиши** керак;

CEFR ва унинг доирасида 4 компетенция: лингвистик, социолингвистик, дискурсив ва стратегик компетенциялар **кўникмаларига эга бўлиши** зарур

– Гапириш, эшитиш, ёзиш,ўқиш борасида коммуникатив компетенцияни шакллантириш, **малакаларини эгаллаши** лозим.

– Коммуникатив грамматика хэм коммуникатив лексика. Тилни дискурсив шаклда ўқитиш. ўқишга конструктивистлик ёндашув. Сўз ва концепт. Концептларни интерпретация қилиш ва ўқитиш малакаларини эгаллаши лозим.

Модулнинг ўқув режадаги бошқа модуллар билан боғлиқлиги ва узвийлиги

“Коммуникатив тилшунослик ва тил компетенциялари” фан мазмуни ўқув режадаги “Тадқикотлар олиб боришда лингвистик метод ва ёндашувлар” “Тилшуносли назариясининг тил амалиётига интеграцияси” ўқув модулларии билан узвий боғланган ҳолда профессор –ўқитувчиларнинг умумий тайёргарлик даражасини оширишга хизмат қилади.

Модулнинг олий таълимдаги ўрни

Модулни ўзлаштириш орқали тингловчилар коммуникатив тилшунослик ва тил компетенциялари билими хәм тил компетенциялары хакида ва унинг истиқболли йўналишлари профилига мос зарурий билим, кўникма ва малакаларни ўзлаштирадилар ва касбий махоратларини ривожлантирадилар.

Модул бўйича соатлар тақсимоти:

№	Модул мавзулари	Тингловчининг ўқув юкламаси, соат			
		Ҳаммаси	Аудитория ўқув юкламаси		
			Жами	жумладан	
				Назарий	Амалий машғулот
1.	The notion of Communicative competence. Four branches of Communicative competence: linguistic, sociolinguistic competence	2	2	2	
2.	Sociolinguistic competence The notion of sociolinguistic competence Ideology Social metaphors Strategic competence	2	2	2	
3.	Principles of Language Teaching Cognitive principles, affective principles, and linguistic principles	2	2	2	
4.	Speaking and communicative competence	2	2		2
5.	Listening and Communicative Competence	2	2		2
6	Writing and Communicative Competence	2	2		2
7	Reading and Communicative Competence	**2**	**2**		**2**
8	Discourse and language teaching	**2**	**2**		**2**
9	**Total**	**16**	**16**	**6**	**10**

Назарий машғулотлар мазмуни

1-Мавзу: Коммуникатив тил билими тушунчаси. Коммуникатив компетенция сохалари. CEFR ва унинг доирасида 4 компетенция: лингвистик, социолингвистик, дискурсив ва стратегик компетенциялар.

2- Мавзу : Социолингвистик ва стратегик компетенциялар. Социолингвистик ва стратегик компетенциялар тушунчалари. Идеология .Социал метафоралар

3- Мавзу: Тил укитиш принциплари Когнитив, афектив ва лингвистик принциплар.чет тилларни укитишнинг 12 принципи.

АМАЛИЙ МАШҒУЛОТЛАР МАЗМУНИ

1- Мавзу: Гапириш ва коммуникатив компетенция. Гапириш куникмасини ривожлантириш билан коммуникатив компетенцияны ўргатиш.
Ёзишни ургатиш бораборида гапириш куникмаларини ривожлантириш.

2- Мавзу Эшитиш ва коммуникатив компетенция ни ривожлантириш.
Эшитиб тушинишни ривожлантирувчи методларни қўлланиш.
Уқиш борабарида коммуникатив компетенцияни ривожлантириш йуллари.
Укишни ургатиш метод ва техникаларынан фойдаланиш.

3- Мавзу . Ёзиш ва коммуникатив компетенция. Коммуникатив грамматика ва коммуникатив лексиканы уқитишда ишлатиладиган методлар

4- Мавзу Уқиш борабарида коммуникатив компетенцияни ривожлантириш йуллари. Укишни ургатиш метод ва техникаларынан фойдаланиш.Тилни дискурсив холда ўқитиш. Ўқитишда конструктивистлик техниканы қуллаш билан дарс самарадорлигини ошириш

5- Мавзу. Сўз ва концепт. Концептларни интерпретация қилиш ва анализлаш.

АДАБИЁТЛАР РЎЙХАТИ

1. Каримов И.А. Ўзбекистон: миллий истиқлол, иқтисод, сиёсат, мафкура. Тошкент: Ўзбекистон, 1996. Т.1. -364 б.
2. Каримов И.А. Бизнинг бош мақсадимиз – жамиятни демократлаштириш ва янгилаш, мамлакатни модернизация ва ислоҳ этишдир. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий Мажлиси қонунчилик палатаси ва Сенатининг қўшма мажлисидаги маъруза. - Тошкент: Ўзбекистон, 2005. -64 б.
3. Каримов И.А. Мамлакатимизни модернизация қилиш ва кучли фуқаролик жамияти барпо этиш – устувор мақсадимиздир. // Ўзбекистон овози. 2010 йил, 28 январь.
4. Каримов И.А. Жаҳон инқирозининг оқибатларини енгиш, мамлакатимизни модернизация қилиш ва тараққий топган давлатлар даражасига кўтарилиш сари. Т.18. -Тошкент.: Ўзбекистон, 2010. -280 б.
5. Ўзбекистон Республикасининг Конституцияси: Ўн иккинчи чақириқ Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий Кенгашининг ўн биринчи сессиясида 1992 йил 8 декабрда қабул қилинган (Ўзбекистон Республикасининг 1993 йил 28 декабрдаги, 2003 йил 24 апрелдаги, 2007 йил 11 апрелдаги, 2008 йил 25 декабрдаги, 2011 йил18 апрелдаги, 2011 йилдаги 12 декабрда қабул қилинган қонунларга мувофиқ киритилган ўзгартиш ва қўшимчалар билан) // Т., 2012.
6. Ўзбекистон Республикасининг “Таълим тўғрисида”ги Қонуни. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий Мажлисининг Ахборотномаси, 1997 йил. 9-сон, 225-модда.
7. Кадрлар тайёрлаш Миллий дастури. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий Мажлисининг Ахборотномаси, 1997 йил. 11-12-сон, 295-модда.
8. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2010 йил 28 июлдаги “Таълим муассасаларининг битирувчиларини тадбиркорлик фаолиятига жалб этиш борасидаги қўшимча чора-тадбирлар тўғрисида”ги Фармони.
9. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2010 йил 2 ноябрдаги “Олий малакали илмий ва илмий-педагогик кадрлар тайёрлаш тизимини янада такомиллаштириш чора-тадбирлари тўғрисида”ги ПҚ-1426-сонли Қарори.
10. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2011 йил майдаги “Олий таълим муассасаларининг моддий-техник базасини мустаҳкамлаш ва юқори малакали мутахассислар тайёрлаш сифатини тубдан яхшилаш чора-тадбирлари тўғрисида”ги ПҚ-1533- сонли Қарори.
11. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Вазирлар Маҳкамасининг 2006 йил 10 февралдаги 21-сон қарори билан тасдиқланган “Ўзбекистон Республикаси таълим муассасаларини давлат аккредитациясидан ўтказиш тартиби тўғрисида”ги Низом// Ўзбекистон Республикаси қонун ҳужжатлари тўплами, 2006, 6-7-сон, 37-модда.

12. Атаджанов Ж.А., Каримов У.Ф. Ахборот-кутубхона, ахборот-ресурс марказларида интернет электрон ресурсларидан фойдаланган ҳолда махсус маълумотлар базасини шакллантириш алгоритми // Бетгер ўқишлари-2007: “Кутубхона даврий ўзгаришлар даврида” давра суҳбати материаллари.– Тошкент, 2007.-167-169 б.
13. Раҳматуллаев М.А., Каримов У.Ф., Мухаммадиев А.Ш., Атаджанов Ж.А. Корпоратив ахборот-ресурс марказларининг автоматлаштирилган тизими (КАРМАТ).–Т. Алишер Навоий номидаги Ўзбекистон Миллий кутубхонаси, 2008.–36 б.
14. С.С.Қосимов Ахборот технологиялари, Техника ОЎЮ талабалари учун ўқув қўлланма. – Тошкент, 2005.-277 б.
15. “ Ғаниев С. К., Каримов М. М., Ташев К. А. Ахборот хавфсизлиги. Ахборот-коммуникацион тизимлар хавфсизлиги. Олий ўқув юртлари талабалари учун. “Алоқачи”, 2008.
16. С.К.Ғаниев, М.М. Каримов. Ҳисоблаш системалари ва тармоқларида информация ҳимояси. Олий ўқув юрт.талаб. учун ўқув қўлланма.- Тошкент Давлат техника университети, 2003.
17. Т.Л. Партыка, И.И. Попов. Информационная безопасность. 4-е издание. Москва “Форум”, 2011 г.

Шангин В.Ф. “Комплексная защита информации в корпоративных системах”, Учебное пособие. М.: 2010 г.

III. Махсус адабиётлар

22. Ишмухамедов Р.Ж., Юлдашев М. Таълим ва тарбияда инновацион педагогик технологиялар.– Т.: “Ниҳол” нашриёти, 2013, 2016.–279б. 16
23. Креативная педагогика. Методология, теория, практика. / под. ред. Попова В.В., Круглова Ю.Г.-3-е изд.–М.: “БИНОМ. Лаборатория знаний”, 2012.–319 с.
24. Каримова В.А., Зайнутдинова М.Б. Информационные системы.-Т.: Aloqachi, 2017.- 256 стр.
25. Информационные технологии в педагогическом образовании / Киселев Г.М.,Бочкова Р.В. - 2-е изд., перераб. и доп. - М.:Дашков и К, 2018. - 304 с.
26. Natalie Denmeade. Gamification with Moodle. Packt Publishing -ebooks Accoun2015. - 134 pp.
27. Paul Kim. Massive Open Online Courses: The MOOC Revolution. Routledge; 1 edition 2014. - 176 pp.
28. William Rice. Moodle E-Learning Course Development - Third Edition. Packt Publishing - ebooks Account; 3 edition 2015. - 350 pp.
29. English for academics. Cambridge University Press and British Council Russia, 2014. Book 1,2.

30. Karimova V.A., Zaynutdinova M.B., Nazirova E.Sh., Sadikova Sh.Sh.Tizimli tahlil asoslari.– T.: “O’zbekiston faylasuflar milliy jamiyati nashriyoti”, 2014. –192 b.
31. Yusupbekov N.R., Aliev R.A., Aliev R.R., Yusupbekov A.N. Boshqarishning intellectual tizimlari va qaror qabul qilish. –Toshkent: “O’zbekiston milliy ensiklopediyasi” DIN, 2015. -572b.
32. David L.Chiesa (Ed) ,U.Azizov, S.Xan, K.Nazamutdinova, K.Tangirova. Re-conceptualizing Language Teaching: An-In-service Teacher Education course in Uzbekistan. 237, (forthcoming)
33. Gardener H. (1993) Multiple Intelligences: The Theory and Practice, New York: Basic Books.
34. Jack Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers (2001) Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Cambridge University Press
35. Catlin R. Tucker. Blended Learning. Corvin. USA, 2012.
36. Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. – Cambridge University Press. 2001
37. Jan Bell, Roger Gower. Expert Advanced with my Lab pack (Student`s Course book, CD, Resource book, Teachers book). UK: Pearson Longman Великобритания (United Kingdom), 2014.
38. Lynch, Tony. Communication in the language classroom. - XVI, 174 p.: fig. - Oxford; New York, 2001
39. Mike Boyle, Lindsay Warwick. Skillful 4 Reading & Writing. UK: Macmillan Education. Великобритания (United Kingdom), 2013.
40. Michael McCarthy “English Vocabulary in use”. Cambridge University Press, 1999, Presented by British Council.
41. Patrick J. Schloss, Kristina M. Cragg. Organization and Administration in Higher Education 1st Edition. Routledge. Великобритания (United Kingdom), 2012.
42. Stanley Kubrick. A narrative and stylistic analysis. AN imprint of Greenwood Publishing Group, Inc. Великобритания (United Kingdom), 2001.
43. Stephen M. Alessi, Stanley R. Trollip. Multimedia for Learning: Methods and Development (3rd Edition). Pearson; 3 Edition (November 19, 2000), 580 pages, 2011.
44. Jack C. Richards, Willy A. Renandya. Methodology in Language Teaching: An anthology of current practice. Cambridge university press. 2002.
45. Diane Larsen-Freeman, Marti Anderson. Techniques & Principles in Language Teaching (3rd edition). Oxford University Press. 2011.

Интернет сайтлар

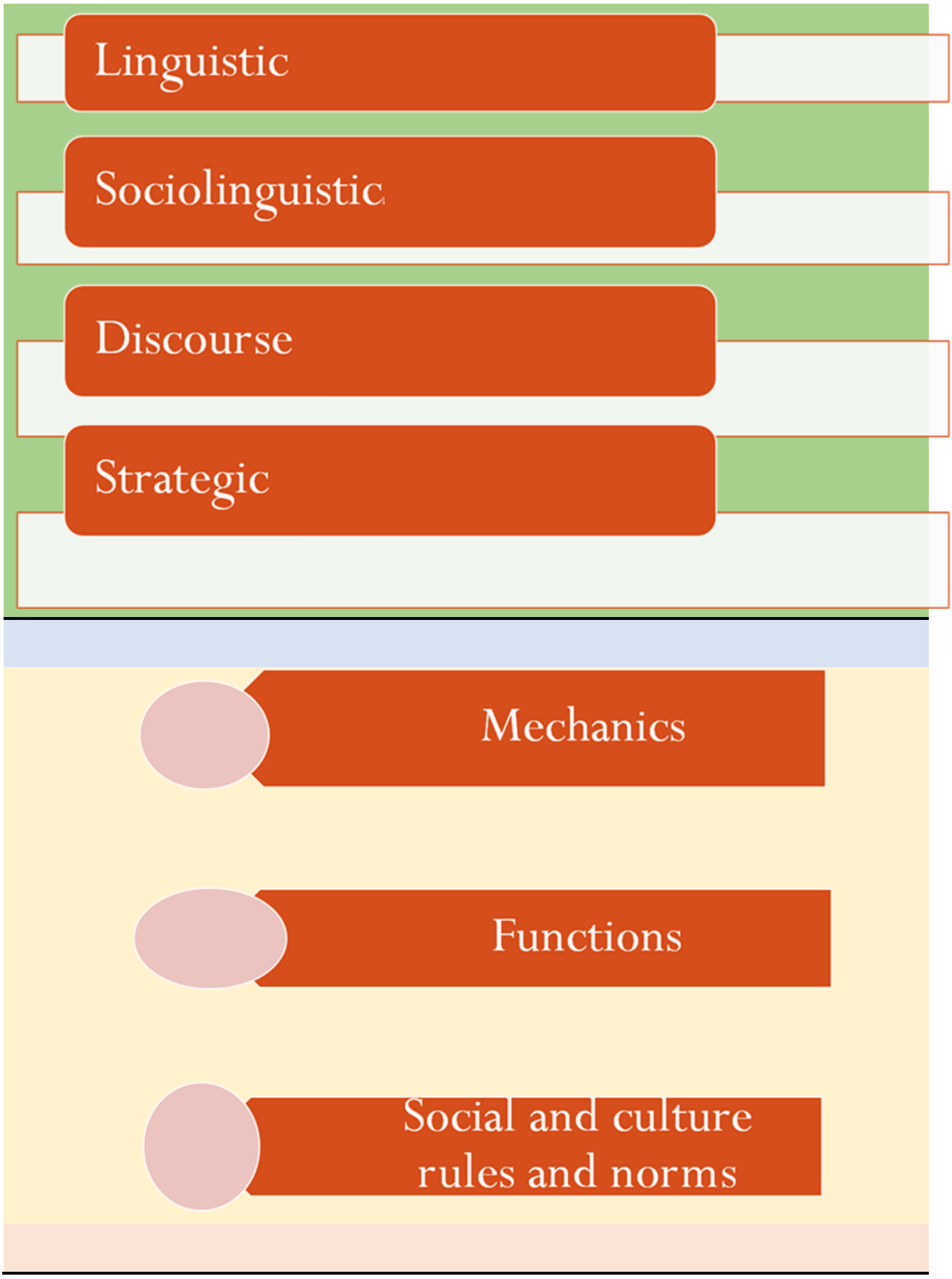
46. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлиги: www.edu.uz.
47. Тошкент ахборот технологиялари университети: www.tuit.uz.
48. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Давлат Ҳокимияти портали: www.gov.uz
49. Ўзбек интернет ресурсларининг каталоги: www.uz
50. Британия кенгаши веб сайти: www.Britishcouncil.org
51. Таълим портали: www.ziyonet.uz
52. Тил ўрганиш веб сайти: www.tefl.net
53. Тил ўрганиш веб сайти: busyteacher.org

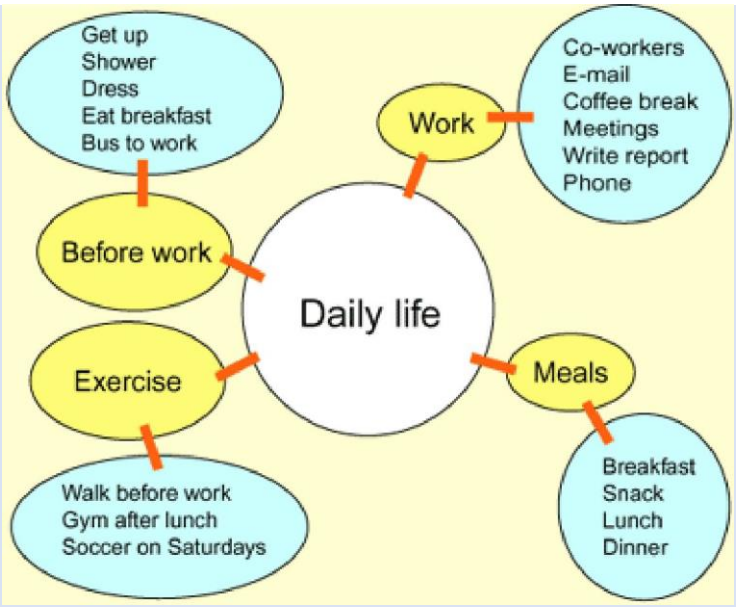
II. МОДУЛНИ ЎҚИТИШДА ФОЙДАЛАНИЛАДИГАН ИНТРЕФАОЛ ТАЪЛИМ МЕТОДЛАРИ

Машғулотлар жараёнида “Ақлий ҳужум” ва “Хотирани чархлаймиз” усуллари қўлланилади.

Ақлий хужум	(брейнстормнинг – мия бўрони), амалий ва илмий муаммоларни ечишда жамоа билан маълумот йиғиш
Усулни асосий ғояси	ғоялар тўплаш, уларни баҳолаш ва таҳлил қилиш, ажратиш. “Ақлий ҳужум”ни олиб борувчининг ҳатти-ҳаракати учун бу ғоя асосий кўрсатгич бўлиб, иштирокчиларни имконият қадар кўп ғоялар таклиф қилишга ундайди. Хотирани чархлаймиз усули бўйича саволлар экранда намойиш қилинади. **(1-мавзу, 1а- илова); (1-мавзу, 1б- илова);**
Қоидалари	имкони борича кўпроқ ғояларни таклиф этиш (жамлаш), уларни талқин қилиш, муаммоларни ечиш ва уларни қайд этиш.
Таълим берувчи	иштирокчиларни қўллаб-қўвватлайди (имо-ишора, жилмайиш, ҳа-йўқ сўзлари билан); сўровга киришиб кетишига ёрдам бериш ва психологик тўсқинликни йўқотиш учун, олдинги ёки шу дарсдан кутилмаган, оригинал саволлар бериб машқ ўтказади (блиц сўров). Қатнашчиларни жавобларини таҳлил қилади умумий хулоса беради. ҳар бир жавоб текширилади **(1-мавзу, 2- илова)** хулосалар чиқарилади**(1-мавзу, 3- илова)**
Фидбэйк	- ҳар бир ғояни муҳокама қилиш; **(2-мавзу, 2-илова)** - энг тўғри ғояларни қўллаб-кувватлаш **(2 мавзу, 3-илова)**

1-мавзу учун (1а- илова)



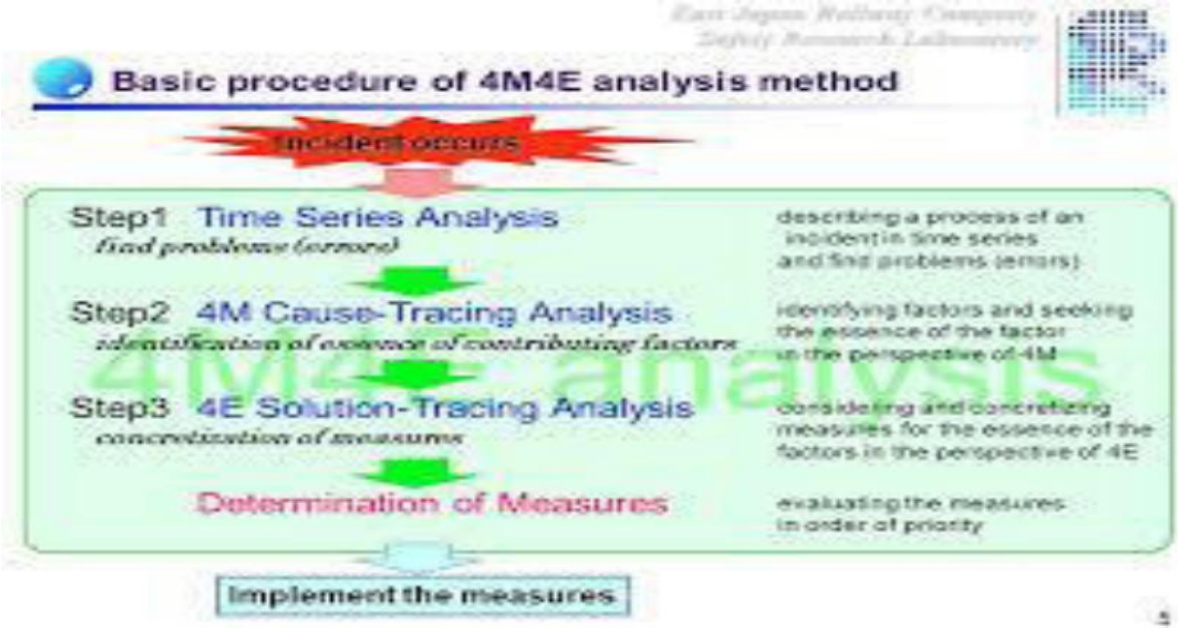


CLUSTER

is the task of grouping a set of objects in such a way that objects in the same group (called a cluster) are more similar (in some sense or another) to each other than to those in other groups (clusters).

INCIDENT PROCESS

This teaching style involves a case study format, but the process is not so rigid as a full case study training session. The focus is on learning how to solve real problems that involve real people. Small groups of participants are provided details from actual incidents and then asked to develop a workable solution



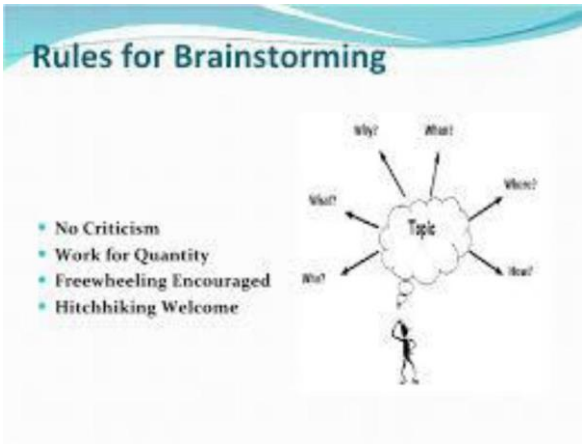
Q&A SESSIONS

On the heels of every topic introduction, but prior to formal lecturing, the teacher requires students to jot down questions pertaining to the subject matter on 3Ч5 index cards. The lecture begins after the cards are collected. Along the route, the teacher reads and answers the student-generated questions. Some tips for a good session are as follows:

Randomize — Rather than following the order of collection or some alphabetical name list, establish some system that evokes student guesswork concerning the order of student involvement.

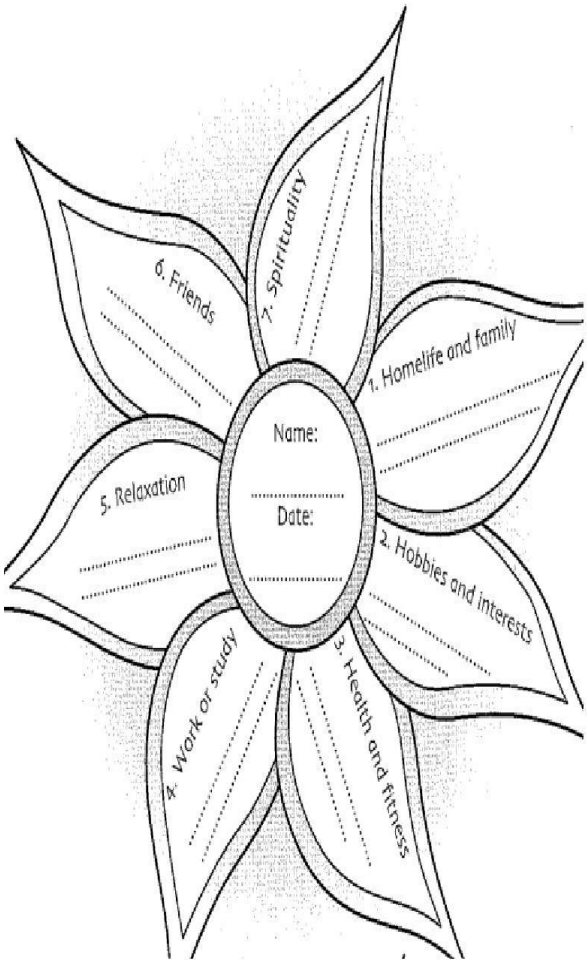
Keep it open-ended — If necessary, rephrase student questions so that participants must analyze, evaluate and then justify the answers.

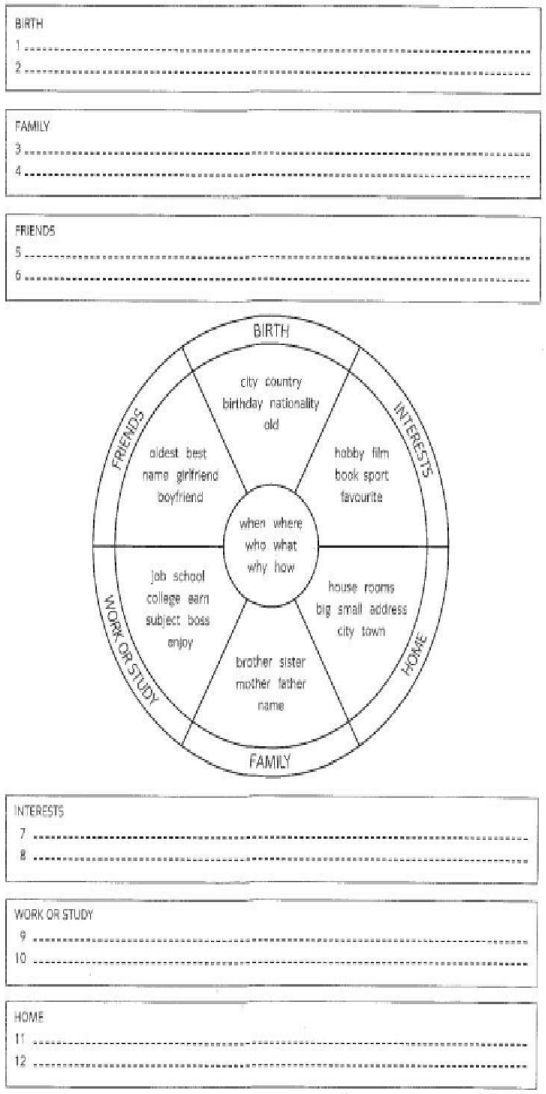
Hop it up — Gradually increase the speed of the Q & A. At some point, you should limit the responses to a single answer, moving faster and faster from question to question.



INFORMATION GAP ACTIVITY

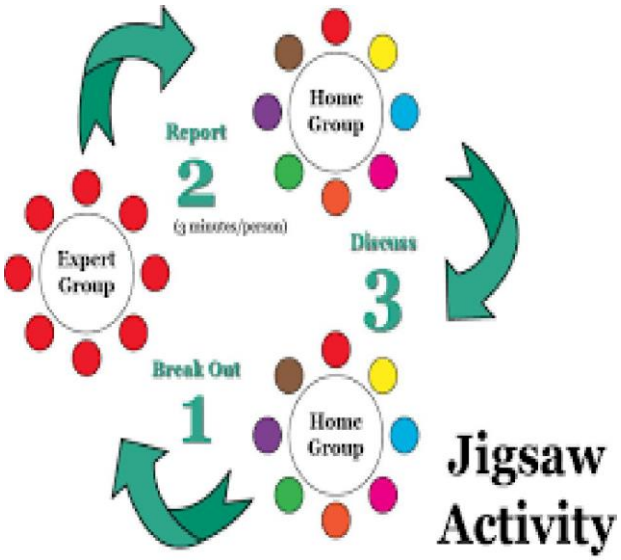
an activity in which a pair or two groups of students hold different 11 information, or where one partner knows something that the other doesn_t. This gives a real purpose to a communication activity. An information gap activity is an activity where learners are missing the information they need to complete a task and need to talk to each other to find it.





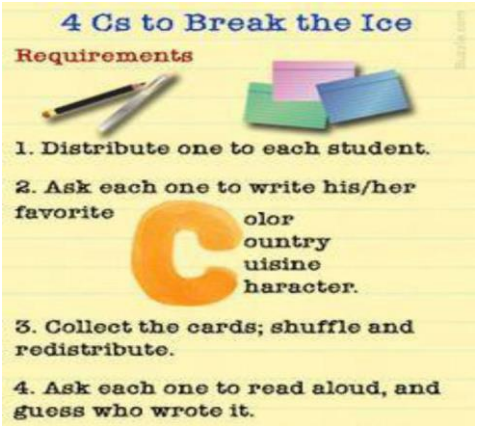
JIG-SAW ACTIVITY

A type of co-operative activity in which each member of a group has a piece of information needed to complete a group task. Often used in reading work when each learner or group of learners reads and understands a part of a text, then takes part in pooling information to establish the meaning or message of the whole text.



meet. **ICE-BREAKER**

An activity to make learners feel less nervous or inhibited when they first

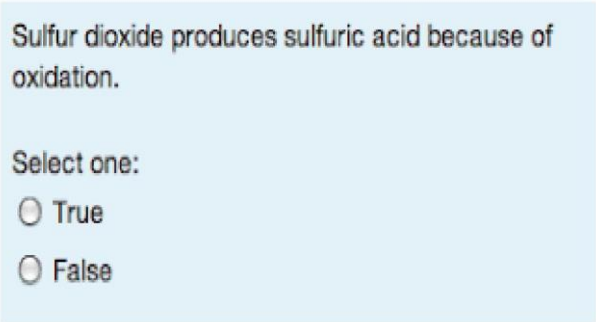


PRESENTATION

The way which something is offered, shown or explained others. A formal monologue presents ideas, opinions or a business proposal

TRUE-FALSE ACTIVITY

It is a strategy of teaching students, where a teacher allows students to compare two different historical perspectives to the same question. It allows students to see differing opinions to the same problem and go about doing history. It is designed to add inquiry into the teaching of history.



THINK, PAIR AND SHARE

Establish a problem or a question. Pair the students. Give each pair sufficient time to form a conclusion. Permit each participant to define the conclusion in his or her personal voice. You can also request that one student explain a concept while the other student evaluates what is being learned. Apply different variations of the process.

A.Think ..Pair cShare

A. 1 Minute Think
Think about these questions.
Jot some notes *i* you wish. They will not be collected.
•. 2 Minutes- Pair (Discuss)
Discussyour thoughts with one or two people sitting near you. Were there some interesting similarities among your Individual thoughts? Any interesting differences? identify someone in your group willing to report a few of your conclusions.
C. 2 Minutes - Share (Report back)
Report one ortwo of yourflndngs. If someone from another group announces one of your findings, don't report that one.

LECTURE 1

Language and Communicative competence

PLAN:

1.1. **Principles of Communicative Competence**
1.2. **The notion of Communicative competence**
1.3. **Four branches of Communicative competence:**
linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence

Key words: CEFR, communicative competence, linguistic /grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, pragmatic /discursive competence, and strategic competence.

Principles of Communicative Competence

"Human communication fulfils many different goals at the personal and social levels. We communicate information, ideas, beliefs, emotions, and attitudes to one another in our daily interactions, and we construct and maintain our positions within various social contexts by employing appropriate language forms and performing speech activities to ensure solidarity, harmony, and cooperation – or to express disagreement or displeasure, when called for" (CelceMurcia&Olshtan, 2000, p. 3).

The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) was implemented in Uzbekistan in 2012 as a framework for teaching, learning, and assessing languages. CLT is employed within CEFR (Beresova, 2017) and the approach is much different than the rule-based/grammar-translation method (GTM) to

language teaching that language teachers are accustomed to in Uzbekistan. Within CLT, the identity of a language teacher is that of a facilitator instead as a conduit of information. Learning languages for communicative purposes shifts the classroom focus from the teacher to the learner; however, this shift does not mean the teacher no longer has a role to play! A teacher's role is to guide students to become communicatively competent in the following four areas: linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic, and strategic.

Think about the following:

1) What is the difference among traditional and non-traditional ways to teaching language?

2) What do you understand when we speak about different communicative competencies?

3) How one can organize classes in terms of four competencies?

The term «communicative competence» is comprised of two words, the combination of which means «competence to communicate». This simple lexicosemantical analysis uncovers the fact that the central word in the syntagm «communicative competence» is the word «competence».

«Competence» is one of the most controversial terms in the field of general and applied linguistics. Its introduction to linguistic discourse has been generally associated with Chomsky who in his very influential book «Aspects of the Theory of Syntax» drew what has been today viewed as a classic distinction between competence (the monolingual speaker-listener's knowledge of language) and performance (the actual use of language in real situations)

Soon after Chomsky proposed and defined the concepts of competence and performance, advocates for a communicative view in applied linguistics (e.g. Savignon, 1972) expressed their strong disapproval at the idea of using the concept of idealized, purely linguistic competence as a theoretical ground of the methodology for learning, teaching and testing languages. They found the alternative to Chomsky's concept of competence in Hymes's communicative competence which they believed to be a broader and more realistic notion of

competence. Namely, Hymes (1972) defined communicative competence not only as an inherent grammatical competence but also as the ability to use grammatical competence in a variety of communicative situations, thus bringing the sociolinguistic perspective into Chomsky's linguistic view of competence.

During the 1970s and 1980s many applied linguists with a primary interest in the theory of language acquisition and/or the theory of language testing gave their valuable contribution to the further development of the concept of communicative competence. Just a few of them will be mentioned in the following, namely those whose theoretical reflections and empirical work seem to have had the most important impact on the theory of communicative competence.

In an attempt to clarify the concept of communicative competence, Widdowson (1983) made a distinction between competence and capacity. In his definition of these two notions he applied insights that he gained in discourse analysis and pragmatics. In this respect, he defined competence, i.e. communicative competence, in terms of the knowledge of linguistic and sociolinguistic conventions. Under capacity, which he often referred to as procedural or communicative capacity, he understood the ability to use knowledge as means of creating meaning in a language. According to him, ability is not a component of competence. It does not turn into competence, but remains "an active force for continuing creativity", i.e. a force for the realization of what Halliday called the "meaning potential" (Widdowson, 1983:27). Having defined communicative competence in this way, Widdowson is said to be the first who in his reflections on the relationship between competence and performance gave more attention to performance or real language use. Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) understood communicative competence as a synthesis of an underlying system of knowledge and skill needed for communication. In their concept of communicative competence, knowledge refers to the (conscious or unconscious) knowledge of an individual about language and about other aspects of language use. According to them, there are three types of knowledge: knowledge of underlying grammatical principles, knowledge of how to use language in a social

context in order to fulfill communicative functions and knowledge of how to combine utterances and communicative functions with respect to discourse principles. In addition, their concept of skill refers to how an individual can use the knowledge in actual communication. According to Canale (1983), skill requires a further distinction between underlying capacity and its manifestation in real communication, that is to say, in performance Unlike Hymes, Canale and Swain or even Widdowson, Savignon (1972, 1983) put a much greater emphasis on the aspect of ability in her concept of communicative competence. Namely, she described communicative competence as «the ability to function in a truly communicative setting – that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors" (Savignon, 1972:8). According to her, and many other theoreticians (e.g. Canale and Swain, 1980; Skehan, 1995, 1998; Bachman and Palmer, 1996 etc.), the nature of communicative competence is not static but dynamic, it is more interpersonal than intrapersonal and relative rather than absolute.

Communicative competence – an ability and knowledge of a language user about how, what and where to speak appropriately from the view point of culture, traditions, shared rules and norms. An ability of understanding social meaning and being understood within a social context.It consists of four aspects: linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic/discourse, and strategic competence.

Linguistic or grammatical competence – is the ability to be able to apply grammatical, lexical, syntactical, and stylistic rules to oral and written utterances. Linguistic competence is important since it explains how utterances and sentences are structured – structural conceptualization of language. However, these rules are not enough to accomplish a communicative goal since non-linguistic factors play a role in constructing social meanings.

Pragmatic/discourse competence – an ability to interpret and convey meaning in context.To understand a dynamic meaning depends on time, space, and social context. While communicating people not only exchange meaningful

structures and semantics but they transfer intentions. An utterance carries within itself such intentions of a speaker. This intention is tied to time, space, and social context. To able to interpret these intentions in communications is to possess a pragmatic/discourse competence.

Sociolinguistic competence – being aware of how culture(s), shared social rules and norms affect the way we describe things, objects, and processes within a society. Sociolinguistic competence targets at developing students' ability to understand how different cultures choice different grammar, syntax, semantic, stylistics in describing the same objects, subjects, and processes. It also tries to understand how something is spoken appropriately in a social context.

Strategic competence – while lacking knowledge in linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic competences, strategic competence is being able to overcome such a shortage of knowledge by delivering a message from one language into another one with the help of means other than those in linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic competencies. While communicating with different people in a foreign language we are not always aware of certain words. To be able to deliver the meaning of these unknown words without using these words themselves implies the possession of strategic competence.

A head of an English Language department was asked by the rector of the University to observe a teacher's lesson, and to determine if the language teacher is using communicative approaches in his/her class. The head of the department (observer) expected to see a class on family, in which, students interacted with one another and did group discussions on their own stories on this chosen topic. However, the head of the department only saw the teacher explaining the vocabulary and the expected grammatical rules students should memorize. The observer reported the class was not interactive and the teacher's voice could be heard only during the lesson.

The following day, the head of the English Department decided to conduct a master class based on CLT. Everyone was interested in this communicative class, including the teacher who was recently observed. The class started. The topic

was “The Principles of Communicative Competence.” Rather than starting with an explanation of the rules on the principles of communicative competence, the head gave two examples. The first read:

The sister (she) of my friend (he), sitting in front of me, is the best.

The head asked the class to discuss for two minutes who is sitting, he or she.

Some said he is sitting, while others said she is. Furthermore, the head asked the teachers why some people made the decisions they did. The class discussed but did not come to a consensus. The head asked if there were any syntactical rules that would guarantee his or her sitting? No teacher could answer the department head’s question. This example shows that syntactic rules are not enough to answer his query. Language is about social context, that is, the real life to which syntactical rules should fit into, and not the other way around. People, while communicating, could make mistakes from a GTM perspective but might be right from a communicative perspective. In other words, GTM says that “friend/he” is sitting because “there is at least a collocational relationship between” “friend/he” and “sitting”, in which sitting in front of me “is a phrase headed by the participle” (Matthews, 1981, p. 176). CLT, however, prioritizes communication that takes place in a concrete time, space and social context, thus he or she might be the case of sitting in that time, space, and social context.

The department head gave another example to demonstrate how non-linguistic factors affect the way we interpret words, sentences, etc. The example reads: I will be back in five minutes.

The head continued the previous discussion and asked participants whether this utterance could be considered successful or not (i.e., successful communication can ensue). Teachers mostly said there was no problem in understanding and the intended meaning was apparent. However, the head said that this communication was not successful between two people in real life because the speaker’s interlocutor did not understand appropriately the utterance from a cultural perspective. (Even though this utterance is grammatically correct.) The head explained the social context for this utterance to the teachers: an Uzbek who was

talking to a person from the United States. Once this utterance was made, the American questioned it, saying "whether it is real five minutes or Uzbek five minutes." The American used to experience that Uzbeks use the phrase 5 minutes to represent a certain amount of time, but not actual five minutes. Even though five minutes is an objective fact, different cultures affect the way we differently interpret this objective fact. Thus, we should decide whether we are educating students to be competent only in knowing facts and rules, or they should also be able to put these facts and rules into practice. One should be able to accomplish a communicative goal.

What do you think about the examples given in the vignette? Can you provide additional language examples that shows how non-linguistic factors favour meaning construction in human communication?

LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

"... the harmony between thought and reality is to be found in the grammar of the language"(Wittgenstein, 1974, p. 162).

The study of language (its form/structure and meanings/semantics) in Uzbekistan was regarded as being the main source of knowledge that was believed to secure the successfulness of human communication. We often relied on dictionary meanings, structured rules, and impenetrable facts when we learn and teach language. However, times have shifted and with new insights from cognitive linguistics (Langacker, 1991), Construction Grammar (Croft, 2001), and recent In-Service Language Teacher Education-Uzbekistan approaches to Applied English Linguistics (Larsen-Freeman, 2003), we have moved to a more communicational/functional approach.

Think about the following:

1) What does linguistic competence mean to you?

2) Please think about the word, 'facilitator.' How would you facilitate a language class while understanding the core of linguistic competence; how does this approach differ from what you already do?I remember vividly my language teachers at the Uzbekistan State University of World Languages in the 2000s who

educated me in the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). From that time, we targeted at analyzing only form/structure and meanings/semantics and left out an analysis of use/discourse/pragmatics. Let's see how such an analysis looked like in the following example:

A teacher in class asks students to analyze and translate the following utterance: "It's a holiday today; my kid is home from school." Students say that this is a simple sentence, which contains a noun phase, verb, and secondary parts of speech. Each word in the sentence is given in its primary meaning, thus it is a neutral sentence. Students learnt by heart all the words given in these sentences. The dictionary helped students to translate them easily. GTM says that once you know all these rules (the building blocks of language), you can easily apply them to a new situation, composing an indefinite amount linguistically correct sentences to describe the reality.

We never questioned how this sentence – "It's a holiday today; my kid is home from school" – could be interpreted differently in a real-life situation. So, once these sentences are regarded to be the relevant utterances from the viewpoint of form/structure and meanings/semantics, their use could cause a communicative problem. Instead, Americans tend to use, "It's a holiday today, my kids are home from school." "Kid" in its plural form. To use "kid" in a singular form may mean (meaning-in-use) "my kid, whom I do not like or even despise" is home. To show endearment, the speaker may use the singular noun, child instead of kid. The form/structure and meanings/semantics never tells us meaning-in-use, functional meaning, communicative meaning

Think about the vignette and reflect on it and the relationship among form, meaning, and use.

Then, think about the following sentence: Vegetarians like eating beef. How could this sentence be correct in its form? Using Figure Two above, what are the building blocks of this sentence? (Thus, can you explain each level of the pyramid with the sentence, Vegetarians like eating beef?)

Linguistic competence – an unconscious as well as conscious knowledge of language "which consists of the basic elements of communication: sentence patterns, morphological inflections, lexical resources, and phonological or orthographic systems" (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, 16). The subsystems of form, meanings, and use (Cecle-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999) are both interdependent and overlapping because "each element in a language is explained by reference to its function in the total linguistic system" (Halliday, 1994, p. xiv). Form, as one of the dimensions, "consists of the visible or audible units: the sounds (or signs in the case of sign language), written symbols, inflectional morphemes, function words (e.g., of), and syntactic structures" (Larsen-Freeman, 2003, p. 34). Form takes into consideration how grammar operates at the subsentential or morphological level and is constituted by studies in phonology, graphology, semiology, morphology, and syntax

US-China Friendship Volunteer is pronounced as /iu es tʃaɪnə frɛndʃɪp vɒlənˈtɪər/, and is a noun phrase (NP) with five morphemes. US-China (noun + noun) are two free morphemes compounded to form one lexical item. Friendship, (noun + noun), consists of one free and one bound morpheme. The bound morpheme, ship, is derivational and does not change the grammatical function of the word. Volunteer consists of one free morpheme. The word order, or internal structure, of the NP US-China Friendship Volunteer, is fixed.

Meaning is another dimension. "When dealing with meaning, we want to know what a particular English grammar structure means and what semantic contribution it makes whenever it is used" (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p. 4). When placed in an appropriate case-form, the NP functions as a complement in clause structure; for example, as a subject (A US-China Friendship Volunteer arrived), object (Our school needs a US-China Friendship Volunteer), or predicate complement (Dave is a US-China Friendship Volunteer). Additionally, the US-China Friendship Volunteer's denotation, the dictionary definition or referential meaning, means "an unpaid person from the US Peace Corps who represents a

friendly relationship between the United States of America and The People's Republic of China."

Use is the third dimension in Larsen-Freeman's form, meaning, and use paradigm. According to Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999), pragmatics is another name for use. Levinson (1983)explained that pragmatics are the "relations between language and context that are grammaticalized, or encoded in the structure of a language" (p. 9). Just knowing the form and meaning of the noun phrase, US-China Friendship Volunteer, is not sufficient for someone to be able to use it appropriately. A speaker will need to know when to use US-China Friendship In-Service Language Teacher Education-Uzbekistan Volunteer instead of Peace Corps Volunteer or another one of the hundreds of volunteer organizations from America that is currently in China. While I was in China, US-China Friendship Volunteer was used only in speeches at banquets, ceremonies, and festivals and in any other formal interactions between a Peace Corps staff and someone from China's Communist Party

2.4.PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE

The term 'pragmatic competence', first appearing as a component of the idea of 'communicative competence', was introduced to the field of linguistics by Hymes (1972) as part of his reaction to Chomsky's distinction of competence and performance (1965). According to Chomsky's concept, which laid the foundations for his 'generative grammar', competence and performance distinguish the underlying knowledge of a language user (i.e. competence, which is subconscious and includes features such as phonology, syntax, semantics, and so on) from what they can actually produce in 'real time' (i.e. performance) ' Communicative competence, therefore, combines 'linguistic competence' (involving grammatical knowledge of lexis, syntax, morphology, phonology, and so on) with the sociolinguistic knowledge of *how* to appropriately use language according to context.

That is, a speaker may have knowledge of politeness strategies (pragmalinguistic competence) and the understanding of where to apply them in context (sociopragmatic competence), but if grammatical ability lets them down, their pragmatic intentions might still be miscommunicated. For instance, if a speaker stutters or pauses as a result of underdeveloped organisational competence, this might be taken as a reflection on their character (e.g. shyness). Also, as a result of stuttering and hesitancy, the illocutionary force of an utterance might be miscommunicated (e.g. an order misinterpreted as a request). Furthermore, a speaker may know a strategy and wish to apply it to a particular context, but be unsure of its correct grammatical construction. Not wanting to make a grammatical mistake, the speaker may end up opting for a strategy which they know is correct, but which is less polite, e.g. *'Can you pass me the salt?'* instead of *'I wondered if you could pass the salt'* (which is grammatically more sophisticated). For these reasons, organisational competence is included as a component of the working definition.

- *Would/Could you spell that, please?* (p. 11)
- *I want to ask a question.* (p. 11)
- *Sorry, could you repeat that?* (p. 11)
- *Can we just summarise the points we've agreed so far?* (p. 34)
- *Can you transfer the money by next week?* (p. 34)
- *Could I make a suggestion, why don't we …?* (p. 81)

Despite potentially being useful, a criticism is that it is not explicitly explained how the strategies might be used to discern particular contexts, e.g. in light of social status, familiarity, age, cost of imposition, and so on. For instance, whereas the strategy, *'Could I make a suggestion?',* might be applied whilst speaking to a senior boss, the utterance, *'I want to ask a question',* in the same context could be considered too abrupt. In further consideration of the strategies provided in the Useful language boxes (such as the above), it can be seen that the range of Internal modifications is somewhat limited, primarily illustrating the Politeness marker, *Please*, and only a light dusting of other lexical downtoners (e.g. *just*). *Could I*

have a quick word with you?' and '*I need to talk to you about something'*, are provided as examples of Preparator and Getting a precommitment strategies, according to Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper's CCSARP coding manual (1989). The issue, however, as with the case of the other strategies, is that context is again not considered, nor is the issue of prosody and the importance of intonation in softening requests. Intonation is especially critical, since the Preparator example ('*I need to talk to you about something')*, could potentially sound threatening without the right modulation of pitch. The teacher's notes in relation to this do suggest going through the Useful language box, '[getting] individual [students] to read the expressions, working on intonation.' However, explicit indications about how to teach intonation are not provided. Rather, it is assumed that the teacher will already be intuitive of such issues, which is not always the case, particularly for non-native speakers (Savić, 2014).

"Pragmatics studies the context within which an interaction occurs as well as the intention of the language user ... Pragmatics also explores how listeners and readers can make inferences about what is said and written in order to arrive at an interpretation of the user's intended meaning" (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 20).

Pragmatic competence – an ability to interpret and convey meaning in (social) context. The intended meaning is more than what is said. A dialogue can be wrong in terms of form/structure and meanings/semantics, but it can be correct from the viewpoint of pragmatic meaning. Once interloutors understand each other's intended meanings, even with grammatically incorrect sentences, the communication is still successful.

Pragmatic competence is 'the ability to use language appropriately in a social context' (Taguchi, 2009). It is the key to effective communication in a second language. While communicative competence and grammatical competence are explicitly taught and developed in the EFL classroom, developing pragmatic competence is often overlooked. However, it is actually the skill which native speakers subconsciously use to define a non-native speaker as a successful

communicator…and, hence, as someone they would like to talk to, help, be friends with and even hire.

It is important to note the distinction between language transfer and pragmatic transfer. Common examples of language transfer include:

- '*I have 20 years*' (*J'ai 20 ans*). In French, '*avoir*' (to have) is used to express age as oppose to the verb 'to be' in English.
- '*I have house*' ('U menia est' dom). There are no articles in Russian and many other Slavic languages as well as Japanese and Korean, to name but a few.
- Not using intonation in interrogative sentences. For example, intonation is not used in questions in Spanish.

On the other hand, there are two types of pragmatic transfer. Firstly, pragmalinguistic transfer occurs when L2 learners use the strategies of their L1 to perform a linguistic function which is performed (often significantly) differently in the L2. In the EFL classroom, this is often dealt with purely as an issue of register. However, the root cause of a student producing inappropriate register is often pragmatic transfer. Common examples of pragmatic transfer include:

- '*Open the window!*' The imperative is the most appropriate request-making strategy in lots of languages (for example, Slavic languages)
- '*I apologise*' or '*Forgive me*' instead of '*I'm sorry*' when expressing an apology. In this case, the performative is directly transferred from the L1.

The second type of pragmatic transfer is sociopragmatic transfer which occurs from applying the sociocultural norms of the L1 to the L2. Examples include:

- Referring to the teacher by using a title such as '*Miss*' or '*Sir*'. The use of titles is more commonplace in non-English speaking cultures. This could also occur because English does not have a T/V distinction (like the tu/vous distinction in French, for example). As such, English is a very informal language with relatively low social distance between all interlocutors, regardless of one's position, power or ranking within the culture.

- Asking someone you have just met for the first time: '*How much money do you earn?*' While this situation would be perceived as somewhat offensive to a native English speaker, it would not be considered inappropriate in some other languages and cultures.

  The cooperative principle – an equal amount of effort (i.e. true, sincere and appropriate information) that is invested by both a speaker and hearer to construct meaning while communicating. Consider the following dialogue (Yule, 1996, p. 36):

  Man: Does your dog bite? Woman: No (the man reaches down to pet the dog. The dog bites the man's hand).Man: Ouch! Hey! You said your dog doesn't bite.Woman: He doesn't. But that's not my dog. What do you think is the problem in this conversation? Why is this communication not successful?How did the interlocutors not understand each other, even though semantically and grammatically correct sentences were deployed? While we talk, we do not only exchange semantically meaningful and grammatically correct utterances, we also "…provide an appropriate amount of information (unlike the woman [in the given conversation]); we assume that they are telling the truth, being relevant, and trying to be as clear as they can" (Yule, 1996, p. 37). Grice's (1975) cooperative principle (maxims) should be followed in a dialogue so that interlocutors understand each other within a given social context:

  1) The maxim of quantity – evaluation by the speaker hearer's need in new information much/less speaking may lead to unsuccessful communication). In the given example, the woman did not provide enough information to the man. She just said no, which is misinterpreted by the man, who thought that no refers to this dog does not bite. This break of the maxim led to the failure of the communication, the result of which is an unintended action, i.e. the dog bit the man.

  2) The maxim of quality – truth, intersubjectively accepted truth within a society. Both speaker's and hearer's beliefs on truthfulness of what is spoken and what is heard. Usually, when people talk to each other, they rely on common, shared memories, practices and experiences. These shared practices and experiences

contain within themselves a certain type of truth, which is known to both interlocutors. Besides, if a person poses a statement without enough evidence to prove that statement, which is easily recognizable to the other party in the communication, a conversation may fail since one of the parties is not telling the truth. Analyze the following dialogue and try to guess at what stage the conversation is broken because the maxim of quality is not kept.

3) The maxim of relevance – connected with the topic, timely given information. While talking to each other, people are required to pose utterances that are connected with the discussed topic. To be irrelevant in saying words and sentences that are off the topic may lead to the situation, in which a hearer stops accepting speaker's information.

4) The maxim of manner – coherent (sequence, structure), well ordered and – organized utterance, absence of ambiguity. A speaker should be able to realize that his utterance is transmitted to a hearer, to an audience clearly. For example, there are lots of cases among scholars in Uzbekistan, in which the maxim of manner is broken while using PP presentations. Scholars use long sentences, texts from legal documents in their PP presentations, which are not readable by an audience because of poorly ordered organization of the language of PP presentations.

QUESTIONS

1.How do you understand the notions language and communication?

2. What is communicative competence?

3. What are the four branches of communicative competence?

4. How do you explain pragmatic competence?

5. What is linguistic competence?

6. Please think about the word, 'facilitator.' How would you facilitate a language class while understanding the core of linguistic competence; how does this approach differ from what you already do?

LECTURE 2

SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

PLAN:

1. **The notion of sociolinguistic competence**
2. **Ideology**
3. **Social metaphors**

Key words: strategic competence; an uneasy situation; repair strategies; reduction strategies; generalization strategy; the extended paraphrases; and, compensation.

"... a child learning to communicate through language has to acquire 'knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, in what manner'. In other words, there are social rules [and shared practices] of use, a dimension of language use 'without which the rules of grammar would be useless'" [Street & Leung, 2010, p. 292].

In line with Hymes's belief about the appropriateness of language use in a variety of social situations, the sociolinguistic competence in their model includes knowledge of rules and conventions which underlie the appropriate comprehension and language use in different sociolinguistic and sociocultural contexts.

Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) understood communicative competence as a synthesis of an underlying system of knowledge and skill needed for communication. In their concept of communicative competence, knowledge

refers to the (conscious or unconscious) knowledge of an individual about language and about other aspects of language use. According to them, there are three types of knowledge: knowledge of underlying grammatical principles, knowledge of how to use language in a social context in order to fulfil communicative functions and knowledge of how to combine utterances and communicative functions with respect to discourse principles. In addition, their concept of skill refers to how an individual can use the knowledge in actual communication. According to Canale (1983), skill requires a further distinction between underlying capacity and its manifestation in real communication, that is to say, in performance 3.Unlike Hymes, Canale and Swain or even Widdowson, Savignon (1972, 1983) put a much greater emphasis on the aspect of ability in her concept of communicative competence. Namely, she described communicative competence as «the ability to function in a truly communicative setting – that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors" (the nature of communicative competence is not static but dynamic, it is more interpersonal than intrapersonal and relative rather than absolute. It is also largely defined by context.

Different cultures share different values, social rules, norms, practices, and ideologies. Even withinone culture these practices, social rules, and norms could differ depending on such variables as social class, ethnicity, gender, and age (Coupland & Jaworski, 2009; Wardhaugh, 2006). While communication takes place between and within cultures, people evoke and exchange different values, social rules, norms, myths, beliefs, prejudice, and/or ideology via language they use. For example, the utterance "I will be back in five minutes" (see Section One) brings to the forefront different shared practices in Uzbekistan from the United States. In Uzbekistan people use the phrase "five minutes" to denote something more than an exact time of five consecutive minutes.

They share the practice of being absent even two hours, and this is normal because they share these practice of being absent longer than an actual five minutes. In the

United States, however people do not share this practice, and if an Uzbek uses this phrase while talking to an American, U.S. citizen may interpret "five minutes" as being five minutes. Thus, communicating means exchanging shared practices and experiences. Being able to interpret these shared practices and experiences between different cultures as well as within a culture implies the possession of sociolinguistic competence.

Think about the following:

1) How culture(s) can be reflected in utterances?
2) What socio-cultural factors play a key role in interpreting utterances?
3) How could one able to teach classes in terms of sociolinguistic competence?

Sociolinguistic competence – being aware of how culture(s) and the variables such as gender, age, social status, shared norms and rules, and ideologies affect the way we describe and/or interpret objects and processes. As such, different cultures interpret the same objects and processes differently. Each culture and the variables carry within themselves shared practices, experiences, rules and norms, shortly called shared knowledge. Shared knowledge is prior knowledge that has been constructed during previous experiences among interlocutors. Such knowledge is key in securing common interpretations of objects and processes. Even though people talk the same language and use grammatically correct sentences (form/semantics), they may not understand each other because of knowledge that is not shared. Myths, proverbs, music, poems, tales, publications carry within themselves certain shared knowledge, which is activated in and through language itself. For example, there is a difference between shared knowledge in Uzbekistan and the United States with regard to how teachers start lessons. Read the dialogue between a teacher and student and explain how shared knowledge and practices in university education are materialized in and through language. T=teacher; Ss=students. In line with Hymes's belief about the appropriateness of language use in a variety of social situations, the sociolinguistic competence in their model includes knowledge of rules and conventions which underlie the appropriate

comprehension and language use in different sociolinguistic and sociocultural contexts.

Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) understood communicative competence as a synthesis of an underlying system of knowledge and skill needed for communication. In their concept of communicative competence, knowledge refers to the (conscious or unconscious) knowledge of an individual about language and about other aspects of language use. According to them, there are three types of knowledge: knowledge of underlying grammatical principles, knowledge of how to use language in a social context in order to fulfil communicative functions and knowledge of how to combine utterances and communicative functions with respect to discourse principles. In addition, their concept of skill refers to how an individual can use the knowledge in actual communication. According to Canale (1983), skill requires a further distinction between underlying capacity and its manifestation in real communication, that is to say, in performance3.Unlike Hymes, Canale and Swain or even Widdowson, Savignon (1972, 1983) put a much greater emphasis on the aspect of ability in her concept of communicative competence. Namely, she described communicative competence as «the ability to function in a truly communicative setting – that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors" (Savignon, 1972:8). According to her, and many other theoreticians (e.g. Canale and Swain, 1980; Skehan, 1995, 1998; Bachman and Palmer, 1996 etc.), the nature of communicative competence is not static but dynamic, it is more interpersonal than intrapersonal and relative rather than absolute. It is also largely defined by context.

In Uzbekistan:

T: Who is absent today?

Ss: Student B is absent, but he has a good excuse for not coming.

T: But, he did not take my permission.

Ss: We do not know B said that he/she had asked your permission.

T: No! Be calm! Let's start our lesson.

In the United States:

T: Good morning, everyone. I hope you are doing well. Today we will be addressing three main

content areas: X, Y, and Z. Before we begin, I would just like to make sure I know who is

not here today.

Ss: Student B is absent today.

T: Thanks for letting me know. (Teacher takes note on a piece of paper.) Would anyone like to take notes for Student B and let him know about the content for the day? Also, please let him know that if he wants the PowerPoint for the lesson he will need to contact me after class to my email because the PPT is not on our course Moodle.

Ss: Ok. Will do!T: Great – let's begin.

As we can see from the examples given above, different cultures carry within themselves different shared knowledge and practices about the same social phenomenon, i.e. staring class at universities. In the cultural context of Uzbekistan, the university teacher shows his or her authority and control over students at the beginning of the class (Duff, 2010, p. 430); while in the United States the focus is not about showing authority, but about making sure the student who is absent receives the necessary information from the class. Thus, through communication, people in different cultures materialize again and again what they share. It is within these shared practices and knowledge that language and people who use it get their significance, social role, identities.

As such, "... dialogue imposes itself as the way in which men achieve significance as men" . Consequently, sociolinguistic competence examines how culture (shared knowledge/practices) affects what we say and think appropriate to say in a social situation. What is appropriate/sayable in Uzbekistan to start the class at universities may be inappropriate/unsayable in the United States.

Ideology – a set of beliefs, shared practices and social institutions within a normative context. As such, ideology determines what language (form and semantics) is meaningful and appropriate within a specific time and space.. Any text (i.e., spoken and written) can carry an ideology of a time and space. For example, curricular and textbooks are not exceptional in this regard. "Researchers conduct such content analyses to investigate [ideology in the example of] the social roles stated and implied by textbook activities …" We will analyze two textbooks (see Figure Five below): one is the textbook on English (Kid's English) for third grade students, which was designed by the language specialists in Uzbekistan and approved by the Ministry of Public Education of Uzbekistan to use in public schools in the country the second book is the textbook on English (English World) for third grade students, which was prepared by the British language specialists and published by Macmillan Education (Bowen & Hocking, 2009). Below is given a comparative analysis of how different cultures and ideologies can be reified in and through language. The analysis focuses on: the ideas with which participants and observers frame their understanding of linguistic varieties and map those understandings onto people, events, and activities that are significant to them. These are ideologies – because they are suffused with the political and moral issues pervading the particular sociolinguistic field and are subject to the interests of their bearer's social position.

Cultural metaphors – figurative utterances that represent a nation's culture, ideology and social institutions. As such, figurative utterances carry within themselves the ways of doing things and seeing the world. Thus, these utterances are active in a sense that they construct the world we live in; they determine our valuing of things Lakoff & Johnson, asserts that "As a result utterances contain within themselves shared practices, and thus] they shape the goals we seek, the plans we make, the way we act, and what counts as good or bad outcomes of our actions" . The everyday utterances in the English-speaking countries connected with concept of time is spoken via the metaphor time is money, you're

wasting my time, I've invested a lot of time in her. Following these metaphorical utterances Lakoff & Johnson conclude (1980, pp.7-8):

Time in our culture is a valuable commodity. It is a limited resource that we use to accomplish our goals. Because of the way that the concept of work has developed in modern Western culture, where work is typically associated with the time it takes and time is precisely quantified, it has become customary to pay people by the hour, week, or year. While modern Western culture associates time with money, causing the social institutions such as paying people hourly, weekly; Uzbek culture never experienced such a quantified form of understanding time. Uzbek time is expressed via such metaphorical utterances as: "Вақт тоғни емирар, сув тошни кемирар", "Вақтинг кетди – бахтинг кетди", "Вақтдан ютдинг – бахтдан ютдинг", "Вақт – қози". All these figurative utterances characterize time as being a non-quantifiable category. As such, Uzbek time is associated with someone's happiness that could be lost once he or she loses his or her time; or with philosophical power that could destroy even mountains for the duration of long time. Thus, there is no paying salaries hourly or/and weekly in Uzbekistan. These different metaphorical associations cause differences in social institutions (e.g. paying salary) via language we use.

2.2.STRATEGIC COMPETENCE

"If you do not know a foreign language, its form and semantics, this does not mean that you do not know how to communicative in certain social situations in that foreign language" . Often, one thinks that if we know linguistic rules (i.e. form and semantics) of a language then we will be able to communicate effectively in the target language. However, this is far from the truth. When a person communicates in an additional language that is not his/her own primary language, often times there are words, phrases, and clauses that could be misunderstood or misinterpreted. Thus, there is a difficult relationship between knowing how to be accurate in a language while also being fluent, which can sometimes, if not spoken effectively, can cause communication breakdowns. Additionally, every time we speak a language we are taking risks that could promote or hinder

communication. Sometimes we are embarrassed (e.g., losing face), we do not want to offend anyone, scared of miscommunication, and misunderstanding. For example, authentic situations such as telephone conversations and job interviews pose lots of concerns for language learners that are less manageable by applying only linguistic rules. For example, what to do if you do not know the meaning of a word/question that is asked in a job interview, to which you have to answer; at the same time, to say to the interviewer that you do not know the meaning of a word directly shows your level of comprehension that might be treated by the interviewer negatively.

The traditional foreign language curriculum in Uzbekistan does not deal with these communicative situations. Instead, language education has focused on memorizing linguistic rules that might have nothing to do with real-life situations. This section introduces some ideas about how to teach these strategies to students.

Think about the following:

1) Think about a time when you used communication strategies to continue a conversation. What were you trying to say? What strategy did you use? What was the result?

One day a student who was majoring in English came to his language teacher at the university and explained a strange situation that had happened to him while he was talking to a foreigner who was visiting Uzbekistan from the United States. The foreigner did not speak Uzbek or Russian but only English and he was interested in Uzbekistan's national food. The student explained that he could not accurately and fluently talk about the famous Uzbek national food plov (i.e., what ingredients it contains and how to cook it). The student said that he felt shameful because he did not represent his country well. The student said he lacked vocabulary; he also said he was accompanied by fear that grammatically incorrect sentences were considered unacceptable (as he was taught). He felt embarrassed. After listening to the student, the teacher thought for a while and was not sure about how to support the student in this situation.

REFLECTION

Think about the situation above. What kind of communication strategies would you tell the student he could have used to communicate with the foreigner in a more effective way?

Strategic competence – in having deficiencies in knowledge (linguistic, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic competences), being aware of how one is able to compensate such deficiencies to communicate effectively .

An uneasy situation – a breakdown that might happen during the communication because of (a) a speaker comes across the unfamiliar topic, (b) a speaker faces a situation, in which his/her interlocutor fails to understand the speaker (Canale & Swain, 1980).

Repair strategies – the ways through which one is able to overcome an uneasy situation. They are reduction strategy, generalization strategy, paraphrases .

Reduction strategy – reducing and/or adapting what we know to our goal. Example: if we do not know the vocabulary on routes/travels/tickets, buying a ticket from an automatic vending machine, on which the pictorial explanation is accompanied to customers. By this, we avoid the risk of not being understood by a native speaker.

Generalization strategy – replacing a specific term with a commonly used word without destroying a general meaning of a message. For example, using this thing instead of screwdriver, for example.

The extended paraphrases – saying its functions rather than mention exactly its name. For example, while talking people can come across special terms that they do not know in foreign language, in which one can use extended paraphrases such as “how one can say this devise in your language, with which you can combine two metals together so that they cannot be separated and transmit electricity” (i.e. the function of a devise is targeted).

Compensation – a communicative process, in which a speaker uses verbal and non-verbal language to compensate for communication problems that is caused by speaker’s insufficient knowledge in linguistic rules.

Strategic competence needs to be taught in foreign language teaching classes as it enhances students' ability to overcome uneasy situations that a speaker comes across in real life situations while talking to foreigners.

QUESTIONS

1. First, explain briefly how you understand strategic competence (i.e., what does strategic competence mean to you);
2. Second, explain how you can include strategic competence in the lesson for Homework Task One
3. How can human communication be successful, even if deficiencies connected with linguistic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic competencies arise? Use evidence from your life to provide your rationale and justification on overcoming such deficiencies.

REFERENCES

1. Celce-Murcia, M., Dornyei, Z. & Thurrell, S. (1995). Communicative competence: A pedagogically motivated model with content specifications. Issues in Applied Linguistics, 6(2): pp. 5-35.
2. Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical based of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. Applied Linguistics, 1, pp. 1-47.
3. Dornyei, Z. & Thurrell, S. (1991). Strategic competence and how to teach it. ELT Journal, 54(1): 16-23.

LECTURE 3

Principles of Language Teaching

PLAN:

1. Cognitive principles, affective principles, and linguistic principles
2. Value of Communicative Language Teaching
3. 12 Principles of language teaching

Key words; cognitive principles, affective principles, and linguistic principles.

"For every complicated problem, there is an answer that is short, simple, and wrong" (H. L. Mencken).

Each teacher has their own personal theory of teaching, whether they can articulate it or not, and it is based on previous schooling, professional coursework, contextual factors, and classroom practices . Personal theory is important for a teacher's professional development. Kontra iterates this idea, and explains that "Teachers need to know the tricks of their trade, but also need to know why they do what they do" (p.1) In this section, you will explore the teaching principles that focus on cognitive, affective, and linguistic facets, which can help practicing teachers relate theory to practice, evaluate, and justify with confidence why they do what they do.

Think about the following:

1) Do you think teaching is complicated? If so, why; if not, why not? 2) Have you ever written a teaching statement?

3) Do you think that relating theory to practice can help you to teach better? If so, how?

Teachers go through a long path from being a novice teacher to becoming an experienced professional. In many cases, this path is difficult and many language teachers have left their job to pursue other careers. Knowing how to bring in theory and research into the classroom might have helped those teachers to survive and build a successful teaching carrier.

The teacher's view is not unique. Kouraogo (1987) writes that teachers are reported to be consistently asking for "practical tips and ready-made materials to be used as soon as they return to their classrooms" (p. 173). Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) state that teachers do need knowledge and skills that will increase their ability to provide improved opportunities for their students to learn. Teachers need deeper subject knowledge and greater confidence in classroom management and proficiency in new teaching strategies with a focus on learning rather than on teaching only. Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) argue that understanding teacher development process involves not only knowledge and skills teachers need but also understanding "what sort of person the teacher is and the context in which most teachers work" (p. 14). "The role of the language teacher is to help learners get along in real-life situations" (Savignon, 1997, p. 114). L2 speakers must be able to process and interact with the language they experience in order to succeed in the sociocultural contexts in which they find themselves.

Whether in the classroom, the grocery store, or the workplace, if L2 speakers do not have access to this language, they have less opportunity and less power to interact as equal members of social interactions. CC as a goal, through various Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)methodologies, allows L2 speakers the cultural and linguistic knowledge needed to handle the interactional challenges presented to them.

When preparing to teach L2 speakers a second or foreign language, teachers must realize that correct L2 grammar and denotative meanings are insufficient to prepare those L2 speakers for real interactions in the target language. L2 speakers must

understand the intent of communication, embedded in specific cultural settings, in order to fully demonstrate CC Savignon, 1997). The following research discusses the value of CLT, measurement of CC, the role of pragmatics within CLT, differing opinions within academia of the value and purpose of language courses, critiques of applying CC theory to curriculum, difficulties of implementing CLT, and the future of CLT.

Value of Communicative Language Teaching

The tension between a focus on grammar and a focus on communicating meaning has created an either/or mindset in language instruction. However, putting these two foci in conflict is inaccurate: L2 speakers must not only make themselves understood to native language speakers but also use correct grammar in the process (Canale & Swain, 1980). Canale and Swain's (1980) components of CC can be defined as follows: "grammatical…knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, semantics and phonology; sociolinguistic…knowledge of rules of language use; strategic…knowledge of strategies to overcome communicative problems; and, discourse…knowledge needed to participate in literacy activities" (Hall & Pekarek Doehler, 2001, p. 3). Savignon (1997) uses these four components to develop a study comparing a CLT approach with a traditional grammar approach. Students in the CLT group perform better on grammar assessments than students whose instruction focuses solely on grammatical structures. Furthermore, students experiencing a CLT approach are also able to communicate more easily in spontaneous communicative interactions than do students who only experience traditional grammar teaching (Savignon, 1997). When L2 speakers experience pedagogical opportunities for communicative practice (using language authentic contexts rather than isolated, grammar drills), their facility for more natural use develops. Lightbown and Spada (2013) conclude that Savignon's study "offers support for the hypothesis that meaning-based instruction is advantageous, not that form-based instruction is not" While CLT does provide an opportunity for students to be creative in their use of language, it does not have to exclude a focus on form.Teachers can help language

learners acquire variations of textbook language by appropriating a "sociocultural framework of pragmatics as mediated action" (Van Compernolle, 2013, p. 358). In Van Compernolle's (2013) study, the tu vs. vous formality dichotomy helpsstudents know when to use the pronouns on or nous and when to leave out or use the negative particle ne. Students learn not just what the words mean, but what kind of attitude the students will convey based on these language and grammatical choices. When teachers begin with "meanings – concepts – that are important for learners to appropriate rather than forms or structures" (Van Compernolle, 2013, p. 358), students begin to make situation-specific appropriate use of formal and informal language markers without mediated support. This framework uses dynamically-administered scenarios to simultaneously assess students' current competence with expressing a concept while also guiding the students who are unable to perform independently. While direct instruction, awareness-building, and noticing are useful in language study, they are insufficient to lead to competence (Van Compernolle, 2013). Van Compernolle (2013) and Savignon (1997) both demonstrate that focusing on meaning while also drawing attention to form can lead L2 speakers to CC, including appropriate grammar usage.

Measurement of Communicative Competence

One aspect of teaching and learning for which teachers are accountable is reporting progress that students make, often in a quantifiable form. Several monographs address how to quantify CC (i.e., identify or label a CC level) in terms of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), including some discussions considering the validity of comparing proficiency levels to CC (Bartning, Martin, & Vedder, 2010). Teachers should hesitate using a focus on errors for assessing beginners' proficiency levels; instead, teacher must understand the sophisticated development of a learner's interlanguage: "one should always bear in mind that…'accuracy growth' and 'interlanguage development' do not represent the same construct" (Pallotti, 2010, p. 163). Teachers should also be careful to focus on the meaning and intent of proficiency level descriptions rather than converting proficiency level to a numerical percentage (Pallotti, 2010).

Numerical scores may be easy to calculate, but they do not describe the nuances of language development that teachers must consider as they develop lessons.

Vocabulary growth can be used as a diagnostic tool to determine proficiency level, such as found in the CEFR (Milton, 2010). L2 speakers' word choices reveal how broadly and deeply they can interact with topics. Beginning speakers will demonstrate word choices concerning very specific, personal experience topics while advancing speakers will be demonstrate word choices about less immediate topics, as well. CC growth can also be observed "both at the level of expanding one's range of communicative activities and at the level of performing them in increasingly more complex and sophisticated ways" (Hulstihn, Alderson, and Schoonen, 2010, p. 12). In order for a student to fully develop his or her communicative competence, both breadth and depth must take place in the classroom activities an L2 speaker experiences.

Role of Pragmatics in Communicative Language Teaching

As mentioned above, mastery of surface level structures, understanding denotative word meanings and being able to construct grammatically correct sentences, is insufficient for achieving CC. L2 speakers must be able to navigate the sociocultural contexts in which they must actually use the language. For example, if a child who forget to bring bread to the table, a parent, as an authority, might remark, "Where's the bread? Who set the table? I don't see the bread" (Savignon, 1997, p. 19). The child is to infer that an indirect command is being given without the parent using a grammatically imperative sentence. This understanding of nuance, of knowing the meaning intended by the speaker within the specific context, goes much deeper than explanations provided by dictionary definitions or grammar textbooks. Pragmatics creates a lens in which to understand CC in real life situations where intentions and expectations of linguistic and behavioral interactions are often left implicit.

Research in SLA often does not match practice in the classroom. Ishihara (2007) writes, "Although pragmatic ability (the ability to use language effectively to achieve a specific purpose and understand language in context) has been

recognized as an essential component of communicative competence…, pragmatics has not been fully incorporated into today's second/foreign language (L2) teaching and teacher education [emphasis in original]" (p. 21).

Lessons on why and when to use specific speech acts such as thanking or apologizing, beyond simply how to form the words for the speech act, help students to understand cultural appropriateness better. Journaling allows students to compare their own cultural experiences with the expectations of the new culture and creates a metapragmatic awareness in students that allows them to process "the cultural ideologies underlying the L2 use" (Ishihara, 2007, p. 32) and helps them to make choices of "how to express themselves through the L2" (Ishihara, 2007, p. 32). While students may be overwhelmed by the amount of information developed through a lesson based on pragmatics, an explicit approach in which students are taught to use noticing techniques may "[provide] an insider perspective of the target culture" (Ishihara, 2007, p. 32) often lacking in formal language instruction.

Vásquez and Fioramente (2011) echo the importance of teaching pragmatics to students and are concerned about the lack of pragmatics instruction within ESL master's degree programs in the United States. In their words, "to be a competent language user, an individual must have the ability to produce utterances which are grammatical as well as appropriate to the context in which they are made, considering the participants, their relationships, as well as the (often unstated but assumed) social rules for interaction" (Vásquez & Fioramente, 2011, p. 1).

Pragmatics within ESL instruction may be narrowed to the areas of speech acts, language functions, and linguistic politeness, with explicit instruction needed in each area (Vásquez & Fioramente, 2011). While ESL teachers may be prepared to help ELLs form language structures (Hymes' possibility and feasibility criteria), these teachers might not be prepared to address Hymes' appropriateness criterion in their curricula. Teachers may not have identified the indirect language needed for appropriate interactions in the L2, taking this understanding for granted. Assignments with real-world applications can help teachers and their students to

understand the implications of pragmatics and thus their importance (Vásquez & Fioramente, 2011).

Teachers may be reluctant to participate in voluntary professional development offerings focused on pragmatics, even though the research clearly calls for it as part of CC and shows instruction in pragmatics to be effective (Vellenga, 2011). Teachers may feel pragmatics are not as important as teaching linguistic features or that there is no time in language courses to integrate pragmatics. In Vellenga's (2011) study, teachers are encouraged to use contrastive analysis with their students to compare L1 and L2 approaches to speech acts such as greetings, requests, and refusals. Some teachers, who use English-only methodologies, report feeling confused about asking students to think about how these speech acts occur in the L1 but value this approach when they receive appropriate training, nonetheless.

The communicative approach to language teaching is, relatively, a newly adapted approach in the area of foreign/second language teaching. CLT is a "hybrid approach to language teaching, essentially 'progressive' rather than 'traditional'...." (Wright, 2000:7). CLT can be seen to derive from a multidisciplinary perspective that includes, at least, linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology and educational research (Savignon, 1991). It is generally accepted that, proponents of CLT see it as an approach, not a method (Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Savignon, 1991; Brown, 1994). For Brown, for instance, "[Communicative language teaching] is a unified but broadlybased theoretical position about the nature of language and language learning and International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW) Volume 6 (4), August 2014; 436-445 HosseiniBreshneh, A., &Riasati, M. J EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245 www.ijllalw.org 439 teaching"(1994: 244-245). He further maintains that though it is difficult to synthesize all of the various definitions that have been offered, the following four interconnected characteristics could be taken as a definition of CLT:

1. Classroom goals are focused on all of the components of communicative competence and not restricted to grammatical or linguistic competence.

2. Language teaching techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Language forms are not the central focus but rather aspects of language that enable the learner to accomplish those purposes.

3. Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use. 4. In the communicative classroom, students ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts (Brown, 1994: 245). The communicative approach is a hazy concept, which can have a variety of meanings along the continuum between a strong version and a weak one. Johnson (1979) argues that the weak version attempts to integrate communicative activities into an existing program, whereas the strong version claims that language is acquired through communication. Howatt adds that creating information gap activities, games, role-plays, dramas, simulations etc., are some of the exercise types in the weak versions of CLT. Although we have different versions and various ways in which CLT is interpreted and applied, educators in the area, Littlewood (1981); Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983); Brumfit (1984); Candlin (1981); Widdowson (1978, 1979); Johnson and Morrow (1981); Richards and Rodgers (1986); Larsen-Freeman (1986); CelceMurcia (1991) and Johnson (1982) put some of the major characteristics of CLT as follows: 1. It is felt that students need knowledge of the linguistic form, meaning and functions. However, CLT gives primary importance to the use or function of the language and secondary importance to its structure or form (Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Johnson, 1982). This does not mean that knowledge of grammar is not essential for effective communication, rather systematic treatment of both functions and forms is vital. Stressing on this, Littlewood says "one of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language"

(1981:1). "CLT suggests that grammatical structure might better be subsumed under various functional categories...we pay considerably less attention to the overt presentation and discussion of grammatical rules than we traditionally did" (Brown, 1994:245). Emphasis is also given to meaning (messages they are creating or task they are completing) rather than form (correctness of language and language structure). For Finocchiaro and Brumfit "meaning is paramount" (1983:91) since it helps the learners to manage the message they engage with the interlocutors. International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW) Volume 6 (4), August 2014; 436-445 HosseiniBreshneh, A., &Riasati, M. J EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245 www.ijllalw.org 440 2. "Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques" (Brown, 1994:245). However, at times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy because "fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal" (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983:93) and accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in contexts. Fluency is emphasized over accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use. It is important, however, that fluency should never be encouraged at the expense of clear, unambiguous, direct communication. And much more spontaneity is present in communicative classrooms (Brown, 1994). 3. Language teaching techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Classrooms should provide opportunities for rehearsal of real-life situations and provide opportunity for real communication. Emphasis on creative role plays, simulations, dramas, games, projects, etc., is the major activities which can help the learner provide spontaneity and improvisation, not just repetition and drills. Another characteristic of the classroom process is the use of authentic materials because it is felt desirable to give students the opportunity to develop the strategies for understanding language as it is actually used by native speakers. In the classroom, everything is done with a communicative intent. Information gap, choice and feedback are thought to be truly communicative activities (Johnson & Morrow, 1981).

The search of various effective methods in teaching English in one of the actual problems for many linguists and methodologists in our country and abroad. English is regarded as one of the important academic subjects in the school and high educational systems. The demand for effective language teaching is increasing immensely. The National Programme for Specialist Training and Education puts before the English teachers a lot of actual problems: What methods help to achieve better results and teach all language skills? What method is the most effective in teaching speaking in English? What are the advantages of interactive methods?

Teaching English as a foreign language requies different approaches and methods. Under a method we understand a set of procedures and a collection of techniques used in a systematic way which will result in efficient learning. In a teaching-learning process method may be considered as a structural- functional component of Teacher – Learner Activity. A technique is the narrowest term, meaning one single procedure. A method way consist of a number of techniques, probably arranged in a specific order. Each approach or each method has something to offer. Teachers use a selection of techniques, not a single method. There is no single acceptable way to go about teaching today. (12, p=21)

The emphasis is placed on using the target language to accomplish a function such as complaining, advising or asking for information. Attention is also paid to the social context in which this function takes place. One of the founders of the Communicative Method in teaching English Christopher Brumfit emphasized that “The basic question is if the teacher will be able to teach students communicating in the foreign language out of the classroom”. (13)

Interactive Methods of teaching English are the effective methods which became popular nowadays. The teacher and students are equal partners in the studying process and all the students are involved in this process. One of the requirements of these methods is to create a comfortable atmosphere for the students, which will help to see their abilities, mental and intellectual, and their success and it makes the process of teaching more productive.In teaching speaking

various techniques may be widely used: role play, dialogues, improvisations, readings, compositions, small-group discussions, debates, motion pictures, songs, poetry, group projects, field trips, games and others.

Additionally, many researchers in L2 teacher cognition studies and in teacher development look towards the KASA model to understand teacher learning and teacher dynamics. The KASA model is based on Knowledge, Attitude, Skills, and Awarenesses and is portrayed in the following model: This model can be used for language teachers to identify their strengths and weaknesses in teaching and learning. Additionally, the model shows that when one aspect of KASA changes, then all other aspects shift as well. Thus, our attitude towards language teaching is tied directly to the skills that we use and the knowledge of the subject matter. The specific techniques, methods, activities and materials that you use in the classroom have an underlying reason – which is often tied to your attitude. Therefore, for learning to happen for teachers, there should be awareness raising, which results in a change in attitude, knowledge, and skills of teaching. There are twelve overarching principles that teachers of EFL can employ to learn how to teach language better. These principles might help language teachers gain an 'all-important ability to comprehend when to use a technique, with whom it will work, how to adapt it for your audience, or how to judge its effectiveness (Brown, 2000). The twelve principles are grouped in three strands: cognitive, affective and linguistic, although some with no clear boundaries.

To teach more effectively teachers must understand how learners learn and what cognitive processes they go through. We cannot teach effectively if we do not know how people create knowledge, how they retain and extract it from the memory.

Exploratory learning (Allwright, 2001) can help create a positive learning climate and ensure the learner movement from unconscious incompetence towards unconscious competence

Principle 1 Automaticity …involves a timely movement of the control of a few forms into the automatic processing of a relatively unlimited number of language forms

Principle 2 Meaningful Learning

Meaningful as opposed to rote learning. (Meaningful learning will lead toward better long term retention than rote learning)

Principle 3 Anticipation of Reward

Human beings are universally driven to act, or "behave," by the anticipation of some sort of reward – tangible or intangible, short term or long term – that will ensue because of the behavior.

Principle 4 Intrinsic Motivation

The most powerful rewards are those that are intrinsically motivated within the learner. Because the behavior stems from needs, wants, or desires within oneself, the behavior itself is self-rewarding; therefore, no externally administered reward is necessary

Principle 5 Strategic Investment

Second language mastery will be due to a large extent to a learner's own personal investment of time, effort, and attention to the L2 in the form of an individualized battery of strategies for comprehending and producing the language. Based on the five cognitive principles discussed, answer the following questions:

1) Please rank order what you think is the most to least important cognitive principle above. Then, provide a rationale for your ran order.

2) Provide a classroom example from your life about how you have incorporated your most important cognitive principle?

The importance of addressing Affective principles in teaching languages is vital. We cannot teach effectively if we do not understand the process by which people create knowledge, which Sengeet. al (2000) call a living system "made up of often-invisible networks and relationships." Rogers (1986) stresses that learners possess a set of "values, established prejudices and attitudes in which they have a

great deal of emotional investment" and warns that when this experience is devalued or ignored, this implies rejection of the person not just the experience

Principle 6 Language Ego

As human beings learn to use a second language, they also develop a new mode of thinking, feeling, and acting – a second identity. The new "language ego," intertwined with the second language, can easily create within the learner a sense of fragility, a defensiveness, and a raising of inhibitions

Principle 7 Self Confidence

Learners' belief that they indeed are fully capable of accomplishing a task is at least partially a factor in their eventual success in attaining the task.

Principle 8 Risk-Taking Successful language learners, in their realistic appraisal of themselves as vulnerable beings yet capable of accomplishing tasks, must be willing to be "gamblers" in the game of language, to attempt to produce and to interpret language that is a bit beyond their absolute certainty.

Principle 9 Language Culture

Connection

Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a complex system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling, and acting

Principle 10 Native Language

The native language of learners exerts a strong influence on the acquisition of the target language system. While that native system will exercise both facilitating and interfering effects on the production and comprehension of the new language, the interfering effects are likely to be the most salient.

Principle 11 Interlanguage Second language learners tend to go through a systematic or quasi-systematic development process as they progress to full competence in the target language. Successful interlanguage development is partially a result of utilizing feedback from others.

Principle 12 Communicative Competence

Since it is the goal of a language classroom, instruction needs to point toward all its components: organizational, pragmatic, strategic, and psychomotor.

Communicative goals are best achieved by giving due attention to language use and not just usage, to fluency, and not just accuracy, to authentic language and contexts, and to students' eventual need to apply classroom learning to previously unrehearsed contexts in the real world

Based on the three linguistic principles above…

1) Please rank order what you think is the most to least important linguistic principle above.

Then, provide a rationale for your rank order.

2) Provide a classroom example from your life about how you have incorporated your most important linguistic principle?

Looking back at the three questions in the Introduction and Overview part, think about the following.

1) Will you answer those questions differently now?
2) Can you formulate your personal theory of teaching?
3) How can knowing how to relate theory to practice can help you teach better?

The twelve language teaching principles proposed by Brown (2000) are not exhaustive but can serve as corner stones for building and enlightening your teaching path. The principles can help you and other teachers reflect on your teaching practice and get insights into successes and failures we face in our professional life. Teaching by principles will empower you as a professional: being able to justify your choice of certain techniques appropriate for your students, monitor yourself while implementing them and evaluating their effectiveness, and making decisions on how to improve or adapt them to address your students' needs

QUESTIONS

1. What is sociolinguistic competence?
2. How do you understand strategic competence
3. Can you formulate your personal theory of teaching?
4. How can knowing how to relate theory to practice can help you teach better

5. Please rank order what you think is the most to least important linguistic principle above.
6. Provide a classroom example from your life about how you have incorporated your most important linguistic principle?

REFERENCES

1.Allwright, D. (2001). Exploratory Practice: an 'appropriate methodology' for making optimal use of research as a vehicle for language teacher development? Paper delivered at IALS Edinburgh Symposium. Unpublished.

2.Brown, H.D. (2001). Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy (2nd ed.). 3.Addison-Wesley Longman, Inc.Hargreaves, A. & Fullan, M. G. (1992). Introduction. In A. Hargreaves and M.G. Fullan (Eds.), Understanding Teacher Development. London:

4.Cassell.Kontra, E. H. (1997). Reflections on the purpose of methodology training. ELT Journal, 51(3), 242-250.

5.Kouraogo, P. (1987). Curriculum renewal and INSET in difficult circumstances. ELT Journal,41(3), 171-178.

6.Rogers, A. (1986). Teaching adults. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

7.Underhill, A. (1992). The role of groups in developing teacher self-awareness. ELT Journal, 46(1), 71-80.

8.Senge, P., Cambron-McCabe, N., Lucas, T., Smith, B., Dutton, J., & Kleiner, A. (2000). A fifth discipline resource. Schools that learn. A fifth discipline fieldbook for educators, parents, and everyone who cares about education. London: Nicholas Breale

IV. АМАЛИЙ МАШҒУЛОТ МАТЕРИАЛЛАРИ

Practical classes

LESSON 1

Speaking and Communicative Competence

"The basic assumption in any interaction is that the speaker wants to communicate ideas, feelings, attitudes, and information to the hearer or wants to employ speech that relates to the situation. The objective of the speaker is to be understood and for the message to be properly interpreted by the hearer(s). It is speaker's intention that needs to be communicated to the hearer" (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 166).

Language teachers in Uzbekistan often utilize the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) when they

teach the skill of speaking. To master speaking skills has meant to memorize form/structure and meanings/semantics. As such, students are expected to follow linguistic rules and dictionary meanings (i.e., denotation) while speaking about any topic. Teaching speaking within a GTM conceptualization has often caused some problems that carry over into real (and substantial) human communication. With the introduction of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in Uzbekistan, in 2012, the focus has shifted from learning form and semantics to studying language in use. We do not argue that the GTM is invaluable, and we respect what this methodology brings to the area of language teaching and learning. Within use, however, language learners are expected to consider the intended meaning of an utterance (i.e., pragmatic competence), and/or take into consideration values, beliefs, and shared knowledge (i.e. meaning-in-use). A question arises regarding how to teach not only form/semantics, but also use in EFL classes in Uzbekistan via speaking activities. This brief section presents one activity you can utilize which focuses on pragmatic competence for the speaking course.

Objective : how one can use an activity for teaching speaking that is focused on form/semantics as well as meaning-in-use in real-life situations.

By the end of this lesson, participants will be able to...

A) understand how better to teach intended meanings (i.e., meaning-in-use) based on interactive classroom activities; and,

B) interpret pragmatic meanings in different social contexts. This means knowing pragmalinguistics (i.e., meaning-in-use depending on time, space and social context) and sociopragmatics (i.e., societal shared rules and norms that make an utterance appropriate from the viewpoint of the maxims of quality, quantity, relevance and manner).

TASK IN CLASS

Topic: Researching different sociolinguistic categories (e.g., age, gender, and nationality) about how people respond to the utterances hello, how are you, and I heard you have problems these days.

Purpose: To understand how different categories of people respond to utterances hello, how are you, and I heard you have problems these days from the maxims of quantity and quality (see Grice, 1975, and chapter 1 for a detailed discussion of maxims). Generally, the maxim of quantity implies how many words/sentences different categories of people use to respond to the utterances hello,
how are you, and I heard you have problems these days (i.e., language variation). On the other hand, the maxim of quality means to what extent a person who is responding is open/genuine, and thus telling the truth about his or her state of being. Usually, people (e.g., friends, relatives) respond to the utterance I heard you have problems these days as follows: (i) shortly "no," meaning this person does not want you too close to him or her. Thus, he or she is not open, even though he or she has a problem; or, (ii) people are very open and tell all his or her problems. The meaning of the utterance I heard you have problems these days depends on how people respond to your question. Thus, forms/structures and meanings/semantics are meaningful while speaking takes place. Students doing this speaking activity will feel how form, rules, and dictionary meanings are deployed in real life situations to accomplish a communicative goal

Focus: questioning people (i.e., other students, relatives, friends (via phone, for example)) by asking: hello, how are you, and I heard you have problems these days.

Pre-work: none.

Activity: individual work. Students will explore how different categories of people respond to hello, how are you, and I heard you have problems these days. The answers, with the permission of interlocutors, will be recorded with the help of mobile phones and then the content of these communications will be analyzed from the viewpoint of the maxims of quality and quantity. The findings of students will be presented one by one.

Needed technology: mobile phones, laptop, and projector.

Procedure

1.1. The teacher divides a class into four (or more) groups – depends on the size of your class.

Each group will be responsible for obtaining different types of data. Three of the groups will be given a task of asking people hello and how are you? After they have asked participants the questions and wrote down their responses, the learners

will categorize people's answers based on three categories – age (group 1), gender (group 2), or nationality (group 3). This task could be conducted either in Uzbek and/or Russian/English to investigate the language variation.

1.2. Group 4 will be given the task of looking into authentic materials (e.g., movies), in which proficient English speakers will answer the questions hello and how are you. If there is a highly proficient English speaker on the University campus, he or she can also be questioned.

Sometimes these speakers come from English dominant speaking countries.

1.3. The teacher asks each group to bring the results of their survey to the class the following session.

In class – Day 2

2.2. Each group will present their results on the screen. A comparative analysis will be carried out to understand language variations in the context of different categories (i.e., age, gender, and nationality) from Grice's maxims perspectives. For example, the maxim of quality – whether Russian speaking people in comparison to Uzbek speaking people were more open while answering, and/or told the truth about their inner state (i.e., the hearer's assessment of the speaker's utterance as being true in accordance with generally accepted social norms, rules, traditions). The maxim of quantity – whether different categories of people use long/short sentences; one, two or three moves to answer the questions. These results will be compared to the answers taken from the authentic materials in English or from a proficient speaker of English.

These activities have demonstrated how different non-linguistic factors such as age, gender, and nationality affect the way people order their speaking; and how these non-linguistic factors make people choose a certain type of grammar, semantics, syntax, stylistics while speaking. Thus, learning language should not only be limited to memorizing the linguistic rules; it should also take into consideration how people appropriately speak in real-life situations.

Dialogues and improvisations.

A short conversation between two people presented as a language model – the dialogue – often receives top billing in the manipulative phase of language learning. Students spend much time repeating dialogues for pronunciation and memorization practice or for grammar drills on selected lines. But when we come to the dialogue in the communicative phase of language teaching, or specifically, to its role in directed conversation sessions, its glamour seems to wave, and it is

quickly retired. The experience of working with dialogues for many years shows that there are several ways to turn dialogues into stepping stones to free communication. The procedures that follow have been tested by experience and can help the student help the students develop fluency in English.

1.After the dialogue to make it conform to the reality surrounding you and your students. Suppose your students already know the following dialogue:

George: Do you have any hobbies?

Ann: Yes, photography and gardening.

George: I don't have any hobbies at all.

Ann: I thought you used to collect stamps.

George: I did. But now that I have two jobs, I don't have time for anything else.

Ann: Speaking of time, I must get to the bank before two o'clock. See you later.

George and Ann, the participants of the above-given dialogue have no reality as individuals to the students and the teacher. The teacher can introduce a measure of reality using the names of the students for the characters in the dialogue. This "alone" will not make the dialogue "real" of course. To bring more reality to the above conversation it is necessary to introduce variations on specific dialogue lines or aspects for question – and – answer practice. Doing this it's necessary to insist that students give an answer consistent with reality. Sample questions might be: What are your hobbies? Do any of your friends collect stamps?

Is his name (indicating a student in the class) George? What is his name?

Do you have to be somewhere by two o'clock?

Did you go to the bank yesterday afternoon?Would you like to have two jobs?

First, the teacher should make up the first group of questions himself. Later he (she) may call on individual students to compose similar questions requiring answers that pertain to their own experience. They can ask questions of one another, or to vary the exercise, a student could ask his question and the teacher

would respond with a factual answer. “Reality exercises” such as these, are good start towards free expression.

2. Another procedure is writing the dialogue on the blackboard and have the students suggest one more exchange that would be a logical addition to the conversation. For example, Ann says, “See you later”. George could add: “Wait a minute. I’ll give you ride”. Ann could reply, “That would be a wonderful”. As soon as the class has agreed on the exchange, the teacher can add it to the other lines on the blackboard. This kind of exercise challenges the students to express themselves in an imaginative way while remaining within the spirit and general form of the dialogue.

3. The students should paraphrase the lines in the dialogue. This will stimulate them to choose their own words and structures within the framework of the dialogue situation. One way to conduct this exercise is to ask the students to look at the dialogue in their books or on the blackboard. Then ask one student to say something similar to the first line of the dialogue. Have another student respond with something similar to the second line but pertinent to what the first student said. Then go back to the first student and have him say something similar to the third line of the dialogue, and so on until the dialogue is finished. The students’ version of the dialogue might go something like this:

A: What are your hobbies?

B: Collecting postcards and sewing.

A: I don’t have any hobbies these days.

B: Why not? I thought you used to paint in your spare time.

A: I did, but I don’t have time now. I have one job all day and another one in the evenings.

B: Speaking of time, I’m late for my class. See you tomorrow!

4.When the students have become adept at paraphrasing, they make paraphrasing of the dialogue, each taking one of the parts and using the appropriate motions, such as looking at a watch, raising the eyebrows, and so forth. In this way the student’s paraphrase of the dialogue becomes a real conversation.

5. For an even closer approximate to free expression , you can outline a situation similar to the one in the dialogue and have two students perform the conversation completely on their own. This kind of exercise is most challenging and therefore is a good test of your students' competence. The exercise might go something like this:

Teacher: Here is the situation. It's quarter to five in the afternoon and Marco and Giulia (two students in the class) are talking about hobbies.

Giulia suddenly remembers that she has to be somewhere by 5 o'clock.

Marco: Did you say that your hobby is gardening?

Giulia: Yes, how about you? Do you have any hobbies?

Marco: I don't have time for hobbies. I have to work at the shop all day and sometimes in the evenings too.

Giulia: That's too bad. Everyone should have some time for relaxation.

Marco: You're right, but we have to take care of a lot of customers these days.

Giulia : Oh, excuse me. I must meet my sister at five, and it's ten to five now. Good bye!

To make this exercise as successful as possible, the teacher should prepare carefully. Work out the situation in your mind and write it down in language the students will readily understand. In order to make the students aware of any errors they may make during their performance, the teacher may record the conversation on a tape recorder. Then, when the conversation is over, he can play it back and correct the errors, working not only with the two students who performed, but with the class as a whole.

6. Prepare the situation, dictate it to the class and announce that each student is to write his own dialogue around this situation as an outside assignment. Correct the papers later on and correct any errors. This kind of exercise gives students practice in creative written expression and allows you to correct papers quickly.

7. Use the dialogue as a departure point for general conversation. For example, the reference to hobbies in the dialogue between George and Ann could open a discussion among your students as to their particular hobbies, why they enjoy them, how much time they spend on them, their friends' hobbies, unusual hobbies, and so on. Only advanced students are able to toss this kind of conversation ball back and forth, but it is precisely the goal we aim at through progressively less controlled language practice. (14, p 46)

8. Give the students a chance to compose their own dialogues as a group project. We recommend the following common dialogue types.

Type one focuses on a common, everyday situation, such as buying clothes, discussing sports, or going to a movie. It simply shows what people would say when involved in such a situation. For example:

A: Let's play tennis.

B: It's too hot. Besides, my racquet is broken.

A: I can lend you one of mine.

B: Well, all right.

A: If we leave now, we can get a court.

B: O.K. But I don't feel like playing mare than one set.

Type two revolves around a specific grammar point. For example:

A: How long have you lived in WashingtonD.C.?

B: Three years. How long have you lived here?

A: Let's see-we moved from New York to Washington in 1952. We've been here since 1952!

B: That's more than twenty years. You've been here for a long time.

Type three clarifies the meaning of a specific word or expression. For example:

A: What do you call the powder used in water to make clothes stiff?

B: "Starch".

A: Is there a verb "to starch"?

B: Yes, you can say, "Please don't starch these shirts", for instance.

A: That's what I needed to know. I can't stand starch in my shirts.

Type four expresses very strong emotion. For example:

A: Mary, I want to apologize for –

B: Don't bother! I don't want to talk to you!

A: Just a minute. Please listen! I'm sorry I couldn't call you last night.

B: Do you realize I waited three hours for you to call?

A: It won't happen again! I promise you!

B: Well… it better not!

Type five collects related vocabulary items. For example:

A: So this is where so much fruit is grown!

B: Yes, the soil and climate are ideal for most fruits.

A: During the fall you have apples, quince, pomegranates –

B: - And in the winter there are oranges, lemons, limes, tangerines and grapefruit.

A: I suppose you have cherries, strawberries, plums, peaches, apricots, grapes, and melons in the summer.

B: Yes, but we have no bananas. They grow along the coat where it's really hot.

Type six highlights specific cultural features or customs. For example:

A: How was the New Year's Eve party?

B: It was lots of fun. We danced all evening and sang Auld LanySyne Just before midnight.

A: Did you blow a paper horn and threw confetti when the clock struck twelve?

B: Yes, everybody did. Then we went on dancing until 3 A.M.

After each pair of students has decided on how they will construct their dialogue, they should write it down on a piece of paper. Then they should bring it to you for correction.

9. Occasionally, students learning English may want to stage a "show" for friends based on dialogues. This is a good project for a conversation group and can

be done at all proficiency levels. At more advanced levels, the students can design their own dialogue themes and rehearse the conversations. (15, p 14).

A variation of this method could be the use of partial masks, a technique which has been successfully employed to help people overcome stuttering.

Improvisations.

The technique known as "improvisation" was borrowed from the field drama. The improvisation is a dramatic hypothetical situation in which two speakers interact without any special preparation. Drama students learn how to polish their acting abilities in improvisations. English students working with improvisations use the language in an inventive and entertaining form.

Improvisations demand a high degree of language proficiency and imagination, they should only be used with relatively advanced-level English students. Here is an example of a setting for improvisation:

You are walking down the hall in an office building. A girl ahead of you drops a paper but does not realize it is missing. You pick the paper up and give it to her. As she thanks you, you suddenly realize that she was a classmate of yours several years ago.

The situation is clearly stated, easy to act out, and has a dramatic story twist. When students are fairly fluent in English, they should be able to create a plausible conversation around this situation, complete with appropriate facial expressions and gestures. This kind of conversation exercise is fun for the participants and entertains the rest of the class who serve as the audience. When working with improvisations, you will want to have a large supply of hypothetical situations on hand-situations which are simply stated and challenging to the students' creativity. The following list of situations is suggested by Julia M. Dobson, they are suitable for use in classrooms or conversation clubs. All English teachers can select the ones they think students would most enjoy acting out.

Situations for improvisations.

1. You are at home alone. Suddenly the telephone rings. You pick up the receiver and hear a strange voice on the other end of the line.

2. Your friend asks you to return a book that you borrowed from several months ago. At first you cannot remember what you did with it. Then you explain why you kept the book for such a long time.

3. At the theatre you discover that another person is sitting in your seat. You talk to him, explaining that he is in the wrong seat.

4. You visit a friend's home. After sneezing several times, you realize that you are allergic to your friend's cat.

5. You are walking downtown with a friend. Suddenly you remember that you left some meat cooking on the stove at home.

6. You are awakened in the middle of the night by a long noise outside the window. You look out of the window and see a strange man standing there singing. You ask him to stop but he refuses.

7. One day you get up early and go downstairs. There to your surprise, is a stranger sleeping on the sofa. You wake your mother up and ask her who the stranger is.

8. You are so busy that you cannot get all of your work done. Your boss calls you into his office and asks you why you have not finished a certain project.

9. It is a midnight. You are walking home. Suddenly you see a shadow in front of you. You hear a voice telling you to stop.

10. You are a teacher. When you walk into the classroom you see that one student is crying at his desk. You ask him why he is so upset.

11. You get off a train in a strange country. You find a person who speaks a little English and ask him how to get to a certain address. After speaking with him for some time. You understand how to get where you want to go.

12. Your house has been robbed. You call the police. When the policeman comes, he asks you a number of questions.

Working with improvisations, the following sequence is suggested:

1) Explain the general idea of improvisations to the class; 2) Ask each student to write in English three situations which can be used for improvisations. The student should write each situation on a separate slip of paper. Be sure that the student creates a situation involving two speakers only. The student should simply describe the situation - not write the conversation that would ensure; 3) Collect the slips of paper. After class read over the situations and correct the English where necessary. Choose the situations which are the most suitable. Although the students may want to have time to prepare for the improvisation, the teacher should explain the benefits of working out the conversation in a spontaneous manner in front of the class, with no rehearsal or fixed dialogue line. Once the two students begin the improvisation, they will probably be surprised how well the conversation turns out. Even though a few pronunciation and grammar errors may occur, the conversation will most likely be coherent and entertaining , with appropriate sentiments and gestures. The performers will naturally reach a logical stopping point or possibly exhaust all conversation potential. At this point the teacher can ask class members if they think the conversation was natural, what they would have done in a similar situation, or other questions to induce the students to evaluate the total performance. The teacher should not interrupt or correct a student when he is actually involved in the improvisation.

Through frequent use of improvisations, students will soon be able to create more meaningful, natural conversation in English. This device is also excellent in helping students get over their shyness in speaking a foreign language, besides providing rewarding communication activity for speakers and onlookers alike.

REFERENCES

Arnold, J., Dörnyei, Z. and Pugliese, C. (2015). The principled communicative approach: Seven criteria for success. Helbling Language.

Celce-Murcia, M,. & Olshtain, E. (2000). Discourse and context in language teaching: A guide for language teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Grice, H.P. (1975). Logic and Conversation. In P. Cole and J. Morgan, (Eds.), Syntax and Semantics 3: Speech Acts, pp. 41-58. NY: Academic Press.

Arnold, J., Dörnyei, Z. and Pugliese, C. (2015). The principled communicative approach: Seven criteria for success. Helbling Language.

V. КЕЙСЛАР

CASE 1 One person's experience

This case study exemplifies a contrast between two working cultures: Canadian and Taiwanese.

Read the text and the list of possible actions. Then makerecommendations as to what the Canadian should do.

1 Choose from the list below those activities you think he should carry out.

2 Rank them in order of priority.

3 Add any other actions you think necessary.

Dave Thompson is a Canadian working for a 'Baby Bell' company which owns shares in a Taiwanese mobile phone company. They have recently acquired a licence to operate in this crowded and competitive market. Dave has been posted to Taiwan on a three-year contract. He has now been living there for three months. He has good experience of the mobile phone business, both technically and strategically, and was previously involved in the startup of a new mobile phone company in Lithuania.

He believes he has the opportunity to make the new company a great success by adopting the management style of his home company: open, innovative, confident and aggressive. In Taiwan he faces a tradition based on Chinese hierarchies and family-run businesses. The Taiwanese company Dave works for belongs to one of these families, but the current generation sees the advantages of a western approach in what is for them a new kind of business. So they back his efforts to 'turn the company around'. Dave's biggest problem is one of time: he wants to get on with building up a western-style company, and is prepared to trust people, take risks, and act fast to improve market share in a rapidly developing market. The deregulated market is not so transparent to him, depending as it does on old traditions, complicated business practices, and personal connections. On top of all this, only a few of his top managers speak English. The rest of his managers speak Mandarin, and have to be addressed through an interpreter. Although Dave is keen to leap into action, his colleagues need time to build up trust with him, as with all strangers. They also believe in consensus, not the kind of questioning and challenging of ideas which leads easily to conflict. At meetings, they always appear to accept what Dave suggests, deferring to his status as a respected senior

and an outsider. Dave decides he must do something. He draws up the following list of possible actions:

■ send some of his managers to Work in North America
■ organise a one-day seminar on business cultures
■ organise a meeting at which all the cultural problems are discussed
■ bring in a local management consultant
■ learn Mandarin
■ bring in more Western managers
■ organise lectures for his employees on Western business practices
■ learn more about Taiwan
■ slow down his approach

CASE 2

English language expert arrived in Uzbekistan in 2017 to examine and provide recommendations for the improvement of the National In-Service Language Teacher Education Program in Tashkent. This program provided university language teachers with recent language teaching methodological discussions, and provided teachers up-to-date information about best practices for language teaching, which included using tasks and TBLT. The TBLT discussions were well-received by the teachers and many people said they were going to incorporate TBLT into their language classes. However, after observing ten teachers across the Republic, it was clear to the English language expert that the university teachers did not use TBLT as they had said they would. Additionally, they did not give tasks for group work or pair work, and they mostly utilized the exercises from their course books. Mostly, in all the observed lessons, students were bored doing those exercises. There was a disconnect between what was taught in the training and what the teachers did in their classes.

Think about the case above. What could be the disconnect between what was taught in the training and what the teachers did in their classes? What do you think are some solutions?

CASE 3

While observing an in-service teacher training class, the director of the Innovation Center under the Uzbekistan State University of World Languages, witnessed how a male teacher trainer was talking to a female teacher about an inappropriate

behavior. The female was talking on the phone during the class. She believed she remained unnoticed. However, the male trainer saw the teacher and then started communicating with her in the following way:

Trainer: Hello

Teacher: Sorry

Trainer: How are you?

Teacher: Excuse me!

Trainer: I think, you published a book last year on the topic that we are talking today, didn't you?

Teacher: I am sorry, because my child is ill and thus I am worrying, and thus I am trying to know about how he is now.

Think about the problem indicated in the vignette. Why did the teacher not answer any of the trainer's questions during their communication? Was the trainer satisfied by the teacher's justification about her talking on the phone during the class session?

CASE 4

I was invited to the private language center to work with teachers. My duties comprised of lesson observations and running teacher training seminars. I observed all teachers to understand what kind of problems they faced and find possible solutions. The majority of teachers were young, with good English, and very ambitious. The lesson observations revealed that although they had different experiences and teaching styles, many of them lacked understanding of principles of language teaching. I wanted to start the first teacher training seminar with an exploration of teachers' attitudes towards language teaching. I decided to start with participants reading and discussing statements related to teaching like, whether our learners should know grammar; what is the role of reading aloud and translation; the role of the mother tongue in learning foreign languages; and the role of encouragement and reward ... in the middle of the discussion one young teacher stood up and said: 'I don't think this discussion will help me. You must give me something tangible, ready-made recipes, which I can take to my class on Monday!'

Think about the case above.

What is the disconnect between the teacher trainer and the language teacher? Do you share the teacher's opinion? If so, why; if not, why not?

Practical lesson 2

Listening and Communicative Competence

"When people listen – whether they are listening to a lecture, a news broadcast, or a joke, or are engaging in a conversation – they are listening to a stretch of discourse. ... good listeners make use of their understanding of the ongoing discourse or co-text (i.e., they attend to what has already been said and predict what is likely to be said next" (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, pp. 102-3).

INTRODUCTION

Listening within Grammar Translation Method (GTM) classes in Uzbekistan has been an activity within which purely linguistic features such as phonetics (i.e., whether one pronounces sounds correctly), grammar (e.g., whether tenses are used properly), semantics (i.e., whether one can translate what is heard within the meanings fixed in dictionaries) have been taught and assessed.

As such, listening and the comprehension of it have depended upon knowing these linguistic features. With an outgrowth of the works of anthropological linguists such as Hymes and Halliday Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Snow, 2014, p. 8), listening has started to be regarded as an activity of interpretation, and not just understanding the linguistic rules/features. An interpretation of what is listened to is closely connected with the term discourse – a social event happened in a particular time and space within which prior knowledge, sociocultural knowledge, shared norms and rules as well as a certain regime of truth determine the meaning of a conversation. This definition implies that comprehension of a listening activity is closely connected with interpreting a particular discourse, and not the text itself.

The lesson will show how one can teach listening via discourse in the context of communicative competence.

Objectives

This section illustrates how one can teach listening communicatively. To achieve this goal, this section presents two classroom activities: one targets sociolinguistic competence, one examines listening and pragmatic competence.

By the end of this section, you will be able to...

A) understand how listening is a social act through which non-linguistic factors such as shared knowledge, prior knowledge, and accepted truth within a section of society contribute to comprehending a spoken meaning (sociolinguistic competence);

B) understand how listening is a social act through which the intention of speakers are transmitted through form and semantics (pragmatic competence); and,

C) organize a class that targets developing students' sociolinguistic, as well as pragmatic, competencies.

TASK IN CLASS

Activity #1 (Sociolinguistic Competence)

Topic: The person you really need to marry.

Background: Ted Talk. A talk by Tracy McMillan, a television writer from the United States.

Purpose: To understand how the idea of whom one should marry is meaningful from the viewpoint of an American cultural perspective, as well as how one should understand "The person you really need to marry" in its social context (i.e., beliefs, norms, and traditions). Focus: Listening and watching a video taken from YouTube on June 15, 2018:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=P3fIZuW9P_M&t=194s

Pre-work: Yes. The teacher asks the students to watch and listen to the video carefully and find

out why McMillan's talk is meaningful to the audience by answering the following questions: (1)

What is the meaning of really in her talk title? (2) Why does the audience applaud when she said

she had married three times? (3) What are those social conditions (beliefs, norms, etc.) that make

"The person you really need to marry" meaningful and successful in American society? (4) What

is the meaning of the "The person you really need to marry" in Uzbek culture? These are questions

listeners would have to find an answer to while listening and comprehending the video.

Activity: Individual work, interpreting, group discussion.

Needed equipment: Laptop, projector and speakers.

1. While listening, students try to answer the questions mentioned in the pre-work section above by taking brief notes. (Learning how to take notes can be and should be taught prior to this lesson.)

2. After listening to the TED Talk, the teacher asks students to talk in pairs and/or groups about the answers to the four questions. Students discuss the answers. The teacher conducts a full class discussion and asks for volunteers from each group to talk on behalf of the group. Students are not expected to understand everything, but key ideas that make McMillan's speech meaningful and successful to the audience.

3. The teacher can extend the activity to include a speaking component. The teacher asks students to make a speech on the same topic that he or she thinks is relevant and socially acceptable in

Uzbek culture. TASK IN CLASS
Activity #2 (Pragmatic Competence)
Topic: Understanding a word – hello – beyond its dictionary meaning.
Purpose: To understand how hello might have different social meanings depending on time, space and social context; and, at the same time how by saying hello people transmit their intentions to the other party.
Focus: Listening and watching a video taken from YouTube:
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5aeCxWyNAQQ;
Pre-work: Yes. Discern the fixed meanings of hello by using a published English dictionary.
Activity: Individual work, interpreting, group discussion.
Needed equipment: Laptop, projector, and speakers.
In class
1. Before watching the video, the teacher asks students to use the dictionary to discern how many meanings for the word hello. The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2015) states three meanings of hello:
1. … Used as a GREETING when you meet somebody, when you answer the telephone or when you want to attract somebody's attention.
2. …Used to show that you are surprised by something.
3. …Used to show that you think somebody has said something stupid or is not paying attention.
2. Then, the teacher asks students to listen to a conversation from YouTube that focuses on using the word hello without watching it and find out what meanings of hello each situation contains. In the video there 14 situations in which interlocutors use the word hello. Students are asked to write in the "Definition without a social context" column what meanings of hello are used without watching the video, but listening only. Students are limited to discern the meanings of hello out of the three given above by The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary.
3. The teacher asks students to watch (one can interpret a social context) and listen to the video carefully, and see how a social context can give new meanings (meaning-in-use) of hello depending on time, space, and social context. Students will write their findings in the "Definition with a social context. What is the intention of the speaker?" column. See below for chart.
Word Definition without a social context
Definition with a social context.
What is the intention of the speaker?

CONCLUSION

The activity in this section has shown how listening comprehension is not limited to meanings fixed in a dictionary. Social circumstances play a role in defining the meanings of words. People, while comprehending oral speech, should also be able to recognize a social context, which listening and listening comprehension depend upon.

REFERENCES

Celce-Murcia, M. & Olshtain, E. (2000). Discourse and context in language teaching: A guide for language teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Celce-Murcia, M., Brinton, D. and Snow, A. (Eds.) (2014). Teaching English as a second or foreign language. Boston, the USA: National Ge

Practical lesson 3

Writing and Communicative Competence

"From the sociocultural perspective, writing is seen as part of a socially and culturally situated set of literacy practices shared by a particular community. From this perspective, the process of learning to write is the process of becoming a member of a discourse community, a group of people (e.g., biologists, politicians, or even fans of a particular musical genre) who share values and assumptions about using language and also have certain ways of using language (oral or written) for particular purposes" (Weigle, 2014, p. 223).

INTRODUCTION

Teaching writing is perceived as a difficult task for language teachers. In a traditional classroom, students are asked to do translations, read texts, retell them, and conduct grammar exercises. Thus, most students from universities throughout the Republic of Uzbekistan demonstrate insufficient knowledge to write well-organized, genre-specific, and culturally-situated texts. Additionally,

most language teachers in Uzbekistan report that writing is an individual activity. Therefore, at the end of a semester of study, what is going to be measured is the final written product instead of the process of writing. As is assumed by most teachers in Uzbekistan, to know syntactical rules andto be competent in logically ordering texts leads to the production of successful information in a paper. However, with the development and implementation of CLT writing has started to be regarded as a socialized discursive process. In this process, a reader of a written message plays a great role in interpreting a conveyed meaning. It is not only a writer that should follow syntactical rules and logical coherence to successfully communicate a meaning, but a reader (his culture, his shared knowledge, the truth that he is embedded in, etc.) of this written message should be taken into consideration.

GOALS

This section illustrates how one can teach sociolinguistic competence through writing.

By the end of this section, you will be able to...

A) understand how writing is a socialized dialogic speech (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000); and,

B) realize that writing, to be successful, should take into consideration and include readers' culture, discourse, and shared knowledge.

TASK IN CLASS

We have two classroom activities for writing. One is "recommending someone" for scholarship programs and the second – "Welcome: Writing an address for the UzSWLU's website".

Activity #1

Topic: Recommending someone.ographic Learning.

Purpose: To understand how culture could influence someone's choice of syntax, grammar, and semantics in writing. While understanding this concept, one should take into consideration the reader's culture, shared knowledge and truth, which in turn leads to convincing the reader regarding a recommended person.

Focus: Writing a recommendation letter in class.

Pre-work: None.

Activity: Pair-work, discussion.

Needed equipment: Laptop and projector.

In class

1. The teacher asks students to work in pairs and provides them with instructions: write a recommendation letter about each other. Tell them that this recommendation letter should be submitted to a Fulbright Scholarship Program, as his or her friend has applied to the program. The program allows accomplished scholars from Uzbekistan to stay in the United States for up to one year to conduct research at American universities. The recommendation letter should convince a reader in his or her field of expertise that the applicant can conduct research at an academic level.

2. The teacher informs learners to finish writing the letter of recommendation within 30 minutes

(type on laptops or handwrite on paper).

3. The teacher chooses one pair's letter and projects it onto the screen. (See Example 1 below.)

4. At the same time, the teacher brings a recommendation letter written by a proficient English writer for the same purpose (see Example 2 below).

5. The teacher projects the writer's letter along with the letter written by an Uzbek student in class.
6. The teacher asks students to find the differences between these two letters: (a) semantics – word choice, that is, more verbs vs. adjectives, word collocations while recommending an applicant; (b)
syntax – how these letters are structured in terms of simple, compound and complex sentences, passive and active voices. Using active or passive voices show whether a person that is recommending is direct (active voice) and thus tries to show his or her direct relation to the recommended person, or not (passive voice); (c) grammar – what tenses a person that is recommending uses. By this, we can see whether we are leaning upon facts (past tense, what one did), or upon people's present state of being in general (e.g., the present tense with an example he is a good person); (d) how recommending an applicant in individualist vs. collectivist societies reflects on grammar, syntax choices, etc.
7. The teacher asks students to write the differences they have found on their laptop and asks them why these differences are the case.
Below are two recommendation letters. Example #1 is a letter written by an English teacher in Uzbekistan, whose nationality is Russian. Example #2 is a letter written by a proficient English writer from the United States. Both letters are given to the same person who applied to the Fulbright program in the United States. Names (and other identifiable information) in these letters are erased to protect the anonymity of the participants.
Example #1
REFERENCE LETTER
Date Dec 5th, 2017
Name: XXX
Title: Senior lecturer
Institution: XXXX
City: XXXXX
To whom it may concern
Dr. Mr./Mrs.,
As the participant of teacher training course in Uzbekistan State World Languages University, it is a privilege for me to write a reference letter for Mr. XXX and his/her position XX is mentioned.
Undoubtedly, Mr. XXX has been the vital part of the professional growth of University of World Languages being the member of new curriculum committee and eagerly taking up extra responsibilities as researcher in the new areas of social constructivism, cognitive linguistics, critical linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, and interpretative methodology in social sciences.

His recent publications in the above mentioned areas have shown that XXX embraces any opportunity for professional development, which makes him an ideal promoter of socio-linguistics studies in the Republic of Uzbekistan. I particularly want to highlight his book XXX, published in Berlin in 2015, which is very crucial for our region.

In his position as XXX he or she is able to build effective working relations between all his staff members and trainees demonstrating a high level of competence, integrity and commitment.

I recommend Dr. XXX to you without reservation. If you have any further questions with regard to his background or qualifications, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,X

Activity #2

Topic: Welcome: writing an address for UzSWLU's website.

Purpose: To understand how two different cultures influence the way one structures his or her form and semantics in writing. The differences will lead to an understanding of the language-inuse in the context of the university welcome address.

Focus: Writing a welcome address for the university website.

Pre-work: None.

Activity: Pair-work, discussion.

Needed technology: Laptop and projector.

In class

1. The teacher asks students to work in pairs and provides instructions: to write a welcome address for a university website for potential incoming students. Tell them that this welcome address will be read by millions of people, who are interested in university life. The address should reflect the social role that the university takes while fulfilling its main functions for society. The address should also attract future students, so at the same time, it should have an advertising purpose. The address should be limited to 200 words and it must be in English.

2. The teacher asks students to finish writing within 30 minutes and compare the finished writing with the one that is written by a proficient English writer from the United States.

An English specialist from Uzbekistan	An English specialist from the United States

Welcome to the Uzbek State World Languages University. Applying the Uzbek State World Languages University enables you to have enough competence to communicate with the world much more easily, since we provide our students with the sufficient knowledge based on both the language and culture. Our undergraduates are able to obtain the skills of 27 languages that have their centers offering free face-to-face classes and speaking clubs. The lessons are professionally organized in three languages, namely Uzbek, Russian and English. Receiving their diplomas, the graduates have been employed at the ministry of foreign affairs, educational institutions, international companies, JV enterprises and other governmental as well as nongovernmental administrations. We hereby feel totally grateful to invite you to our higher institution.	Welcome to the Uzbek State World Languages University. We are delighted you have taken an interest in joining our community of language practitioners, scholars, and researchers and look forward to building a lasting and professional relationship with you. The university provides students with exceptional knowledge and skills in language learning, teaching, translation, and interpretation. As we believe in creating transformational learning experiences for students, we whole heartedly support the connection between language and culture in our every day practices. Through ourrigorous curriculum and exceptional teaching, you will gain enough competence to communicate and interact with people and organizations from around the world within varying sociocultural contexts. Our undergraduates have had a tremendous impact on the global society and have been able to obtain the skills of multiple languages. Alumni from the university have gone on to become translators and interpreters, language educators, policy makers, workers in international companies, and also employees in JV enterprises. A degree from Uzbek State World Languages University will open many doors to careers that will support your professional and academic development. We hereby feel grateful to invite you to join our collaborative and engaged community of professionals in order to

	make the world a more meaningful place.

3. Compare the linguistic and sociolinguistic differences based on the following criteria: a) audience: that is, whether the address clearly knows whom it is addressing; is it clear from the utterances who is expected to read the address?; b) politeness: what do you think? Which address is more polite and how is this politeness is achieved?

CONCLUSION

Both activities have demonstrated how writing is affected by culture(s). The Uzbek/Russian and American ways of thinking are not the same, even though those who wrote the given materials have a good command of English. Thus, through writing, students learn not only to write grammatically correct sentences, but also appropriate and persuading messages.

REFERENCES

Celce-Murcia, M. & Olshtain, E. (2000). Discourse and context in language teaching: A guide for language teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Harmer, J. (2015). The practice of English language teaching. England, Edinburg: Pearson.

Weigle, S. (2014). Considerations for teaching second language writing. In Celce-Murcia, M.,

Brinton, D., & Snow, A. (Eds.), Teaching English as a second or foreign language. Boston, USA: National Geographic Learning.

Practical lesson 4

Reading and Communicative Competence

“In the process of trying to understand a written text the reader has to perform a number of simultaneous tasks: decode the message by recognizing the written signs, interpret the message by assigning meaning to the string of words, and finally, understand what the author’s intention was. In this process, there are at least three participants: the writer, the text, and the reader”

(Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p.119).

Teaching reading in Uzbekistan has been regarded as a structured process. This process means that the text’s meaning is dependent upon knowing the structured relations within a text. The structured relations are associated with anaphoric and cataphoric references, with the help of which a reader, as is believed within the GTM, easily interprets the text’s meaning. Generally, within the GTM, the relationship between the reader and the text is scrutinized. What is left out of analyses is the author, who can bring into a text different types of interpretations, worldviews, and discourses(i.e., meaning-in-use). As is seen within the CLT, the author is not passive, but active in constructing meanings in a text. What is written is not neutral, but reflects the author’s point of view, culture, ideology, and shared norms on things.

This section illustrates how one can teach sociolinguistic competence through reading. Reading texts is not neutral, but reflects certain intersubjective interpretations by an author.

By the end of this section, you will be able to...

A) understand how texts communicate an author’s worldview, culture, norms, ideology, and power relations; and,

B) realize that reading texts is not only understanding what is written and seen in texts, but what is hidden in those texts. The latter is characterized by a situation, within which an author’s worldview, his or her truth, normative judgement, as well as ideology in a particular time and space are communicated throughout texts (sociolinguistic competence).

TASK IN CLASS

Topic: Assessing the educational system in Country Name.

Purpose: To understand how a certain type of assessment by the author became possible while interpreting the education system in Country Name.

Focus: Interpreting the text “Country Name: An educational system in crisis”.

Pre-work: None. Only sociolinguistic competence is needed.

Activity: Individual work, group discussion.

Needed facilities: Handouts, blackboard.

In class

The teacher distributes among students the following text (see below) and asks them to read it carefully. While reading the text, students are required to interpret the meanings of photos that appear within the text to deliver a certain ideological meaning. All words that indicate the belonging of the country name in this text are hidden to keep neutrality (i.e., anonymity) regarding the judgment given by the author of this text. The changed words are given in italics.

1. Country name: An educational system in crisis

Country name has implemented reforms aimed at giving pupils an equal shot at a good education. But the introduction of centralized university entrance exams has so far failed to end corruption in the school system. Country name's educational system in the post-Soviet era was largely rooted in patterns from the second half of the 20th century. Just a few subjects were withdrawn from the curriculum at the beginning of the 1990s. Whether children got a good education depended heavily on their individual teachers and on how wealthy their families were. University education was mainly reserved for the offspring of urban, high-income families. People from that country from rural areas had to get by with the equivalent of a high school diploma or vocational training.

In the middle of the 1990s, reforms were introduced, and many schools changed course. Specialized educational institutions sprang up. College degrees, which had lost some attractiveness due to the financial difficulties of the 1990s, regained their luster. But the university admissions process got more and more difficult. Citing corruption in the admissions committees, the government put an end in the early 2000s to the existing system of university entrance exams.

Unified University Examinations In place of the old exam system came the unified university exams, which are now administered by a central body to each graduate of the 11th grade in all 83 of Country's regions. The centralized exam tests each of the most important school subjects, like Country's language and literature, math, foreign languages and natural science. Those who want to attend university submit their scores to their desired colleges. Only select institutions like the public universities in City 1 and City 2 are allowed to require additional tests. "The idea was good, but the result has been sobering," said Person's name of the Organization's name, adding that as soon as the new national exam was introduced, problems came up. An enormous number of high school graduates crowded into the large universities in the capital, where the infrastructure was not in place to accommodate them." There isn't even enough room in the dorms," Person's name said.

PRACTICAL LESSON 5
CROSS-CULTURAL AWARENESS

DISCUSS

- How often do you communicate with people of other cultures? In what situations do you communicate with them?

- What considerations is it necessary to make whilst communicating with someone from a different cultural background?

READING

1. Read the introduction to the article and think of a suitable heading.

2. Read the text quickly and then decide whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F). Correct the false ones.

a. It is offensive to show your bare legs in Turkey.
b. To mitigate the likelihood of miscommunication, it is worthwhile recognising that gestural meaning is not cross-cultural.
c. Animate cultures are more likely to misinterpret gestural meaning than restrained ones.
d. Arabic men like to emphasise their expression of emotions such as sadness.
e. Caribbean and British perception of the meaning of eye contact is the same.
f. According to Islamic culture, hand-holding is forbidden in public.
g. Members of the Scandinavian cultures are open to touching during communication**.**

Here are some common ways of starting a request:

Maybe I could . . .
I want to . . .
I'm wondering if I could . . .
Can I . . .
Would it be possible to . . .
I'd like to . . .
I was thinking I might . . .

leave early today

1. Discuss with a partner which of the request forms listed above are the most polite. Put them in order of politeness/softness:

Your advisor suggests that you take a course during the summer. You prefer not to take classes during the summer.

You say: _____

(Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993:144)

1. *Dialogue Completion with Initial Turn*

Your advisor suggests that you take a course during the summer. You prefer not to take classes during the summer. Advisor: What about taking a course in the summer?

You say: _____

(Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, *ibid.*)

2. *Dialogue Completion with Rejoinder*

At a student's apartment: Larry, John's roommate, had a party the night before and left the kitchen in a mess.

John: Larry, Ellen, and Tom are coming over for dinner tonight and I'll have to start cooking soon;

_____

Larry: OK, I'll have a go at it right away.

(Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984:198)

2. In pairs, take it in turns to discuss the following statements. If you start, you agree with the statement and your partner opposes. Interrupt where necessary and try to use as much of the language from this section of the unit as possible.

- Cats are better than dogs.
- TV is better than cinema.
- Fake flowers are better than real flowers.
- It's better to be single than married.

Supplement D (no. 15)
KEEPING THE CONVERSATION GOING

I'm sorry to hear that.
Please, accept my condolences.
Amazing!
Congratulations!
Congrats!
Well done!
Glad to hear it!
Ah …
Oo …
How wonderful!
Wow!
What rotten luck!
I don't Adam 'n' Eve it!
I don't believe it!
I know just what you mean.
Nice!
Yeah.
Lucky you!
No!
No way!
Oh my goodness!
God!
Really!
That sounds awful!
Commiserations!
Ah, what a pity!
True!
What a shame!
You lucky thing!
Yes!
You're pulling my leg!
Pull the other one!
You poor thing!
Jesus!

3. You can keep the conversation going by showing interest in what the speaker is saying. You can do this with words and noises. Look at the following and again decide which would be appropriate for the following contexts: formal (F), informal (I) and neutral (N).

PRACTICE

4. In pairs, take it in turns to talk about the following (2 minutes for each). As you are listening to your partner, try to use as much of the language from above to keep the conversation going.
5.

- A terrible journey you had
- A wonderful experience

References

1. Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. Applied Linguistics, 1(1), 1-47.f the interactions, these goals will have been achieved.
2. Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride, & J. Holmes (Eds.), Sociolinguistics: Selected readings (pp. 269-293). Harmondsworth: Penguin.
3. Kramsch, C. (2006). From communicative competence to symbolic competence. The Modern Language Journal, 90(2), 249-252.
4. Lee, Y. (2006). Towards respecification of communicative competence: Condition of L2 instruction or its objective. Applied Linguistics, 27(3), 349-376. Savignon, S. J. (1997). Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice (2nd ed.).New York: McGraw-Hill.
5. Savignon, S. J. (1991). Communicative language teaching: State of the art. TESOL Quarterly, 25(2), 261-277.
6. Savignon, S. J. (2002). Communicative language teaching: Linguistic theory and classroom practice. In Interpreting communicative language teaching: Contexts and concerns in teacher education. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press.
7. Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. W. (Eds.), Language and Communication,2-27. London: Longman.

VI. ГЛОССАРИЙ

Тушунчалар	Уларнинг шарҳи
Communicative competence	is a term in linguistics which refers to a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology and the like, as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately
Grammatical competence –	is to recognize lexical, morphological, syntactical, and phonological features of a language and to use these features effectively to interpret, encode, and decode words and sentences.
Sociolinguistic competence –	is the ability to communicate appropriately by using the right words, expressions, and attitude towards a specific topic, setting, and relationship.is how well a person speaks and is understood in various social contexts
Discourse competence –	is the knowledge of how to produce and comprehend oral or written texts in the modes of speaking/writing and listening/reading respectively.
Strategic competence	is the knowledge of how to use one's language to communicate intended meaning. Foreign language students may develop competence in each of these three areas at different rates, but all are important in developing communicative competence.
Communicative Language Teaching:	Communicative language teaching (CLT) is an approach to foreign or second language learning which emphasizes that the goal of language learning is communicative competence.
Competence learning model:	Especially when we take specialized courses, learning seems to take place in four stages. We begin with unconscious incompetence: we do not know how much we do not know.
Comprehensible input:	Language that is understandable to learners
Content words:	Words that carry meaning; usually nouns, verbs and sometimes adjectives and adverbs.

Context clues:	used when guessing word meanings; clues that provide students with meaning or comprehension based on the environment in which a word is found.
Contrastive analysis:	Comparing two languages to predict where learning will be facilitated and hindered.
Controlled practice:	Practice of language forms in a way that is controlled by the teacher.
Creative construction hypothesis:	Hypothesis in language acquisition which states that learners gradually develop their own rule systems for language
Deductive teaching:	Also known as deduction, from the verb "to deduce"; a teaching technique in which the teacher presents language rules and the students then practice those rules in activities. Deductive teaching is usually based on grammar-based methodology and proceeds from generalizations about the language to specifics. (See "Inductive teaching".)
Delayed copying:	The teacher writes a short familiar sentence on the board, gives students time to look at it, erases it, and then they see if they can write it.
Descriptive grammar:	Grammar that is described in terms of what people actually say or write, rather than what grammar books say tho grammar of the language should be. See "prescriptive grammar".
Diagnostic test:	A test to diagnose or discover what language students know and what they need to develop to improve their language abilities; may be used before a course of study and combined with placement test.
Dictation:	technique in which the teacher reads a short passage out loud and students write down what the teacher reads; the teacher reads phrases slowly, giving students time to write what they hear; the technique is used for practice as well as testing.
Facilitator:	A concept related to a teacher's approach to interaction with students. Particularly in communicative classrooms, teachers tend to work in partnership with students to develop their language

	skills. A teacher who is a facilitator tends to be more student-centred and less dominant in the classroom than in other approaches. The facilitator may also take the role of mentor or coach rather than director.
Feedback:	Reporting back or giving information back, usually to the teacher; feedback can be verbal, written or nonverbal in the form of facial expressions, gestures, behaviours; teachers can use feedback to discover whether a student understands, is learning, and likes an activity.
Fluency:	Natural, normal, native-like speech characterized by appropriate pauses, intonation, stress, register, word choice, interjections and interruptions
Form-focused instruction:	The teaching of specific language content (lexis, structure, phonology). See "language content".
Free practice:	Practice activities that involve progressively less control by the teacher.
Function words:	form words, empty words, structure or structural words and grammar words; these words connect content words grammatically; function words have little or no meaning by themselves. Examples include articles, prepositions and conjunctions
Functional syllabus:	Syllabus based on communicative acts such as making introductions, making requests, expressing opinions, requesting information, refusing, apologising, giving advice, persuading; this type of syllabus is often used in communicative language teaching.
Gesture:	A facial or body movement that communicates meaning; examples include a smile, a frown, a shrug, a shake or no of the head. Gestures often accompany verbal communication.
Grammar:	See "descriptive grammar" and "prescriptive grammar". Also, see "communicative competence".
. Graded reader:	Reading material that has been simplified for language students. The readers are usually graded according to difficulty of grammar, vocabulary, or

	amount of information presented.
. Grammar translation:	A method of language teaching characterized by translation and the study of grammar rules. Involves presentation of grammatical rules, vocabulary lists, and translation. Emphasizes reading rather than communicative competence
Grammatical syllabus:	A syllabus based on the grammar or structure of a language; often part of the grammar translation method.
Interlanguage –	The language a learner uses before mastering the foreign language; it may contain features of the first language and the target language as well as non-standard features
Interlocutor: –	In a conversation, this refers to the person you are speaking to.
Language content: –	Language has three components, which are commonly taught as language items.
49. Motivation paradox: –	Students' main motivators are factors the teacher has little control over (integrated versus instrumental motivation, which heavily influence time on task), yet motivation is critical to learning.
Metalanguage: Language used to describe, analyse or explain another language. Metalanguage includes, for example, grammatical terms and the rules of syntax. The term is sometimes used to mean the language used in class to give instructions, explain things, etc. – in essence, to refer to all teacher talk that does not specifically include the "target language".–	Language used to describe, analyse or explain another language. Metalanguage includes, for example, grammatical terms and the rules of syntax. The term is sometimes used to mean the language used in class to give instructions, explain things, etc. – in essence, to refer to all teacher talk that does not specifically include the "target language".

Rapport:.	: Relationship, usually a harmonious one, established within a classroom between teacher and students and among students.
Recycling or spiralling:	Sometimes called the cyclical approach; the purpose is to repeat language items throughout the syllabus; each time a language item is encountered more detail about it is added; this allows students to build on prior knowledge.
Needs assessment:	Measurement of what students need in order to learn language and achieve their language learning goals; also may include consideration of the school syllabus

VII. ФОЙДАЛАНИЛГАН АДАБИЁТЛАР РЎЙХАТИ

I.Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президенти асарлари

1. Мирзиёев Ш.М. Эркин ва фаровон, демократик Ўзбекистон давлатини биргаликда барпо этамиз. – Тошкент: Ўзбекистон, 2016.

2. Мирзиёев Ш.М. Танқидий таҳлил, қатъий тартиб интизом ва шахсий жавобгарлик ҳар бир рахбар фаолиятининг кундалик қоидаси бўлиши керак. – Тошкент: Ўзбекистон, 2017.

3. Мирзиёев Ш.М. Буюк келажагимизни мард ва олийжаноб халқимиз билан бирга қурамиз. – Тошкент: Ўзбекистон, 2017.

4. Мирзиёев Ш.М. Қонун устуворлиги ва инсон манфаатларини таъминлаш – юрт тараққиёти ва халқ фаровонлигининг гаровидир. – Тошкент: Ўзбекистон, 2017.

5. Мирзиёев Ш.М. Миллий тараққиёт йўлимизни қатъият билан давом эттириб, янги босқичга кўтарамиз. 1-жилд. – Тошкент: Ўзбекистон, 2017.

6. Мирзиёев Ш.М. Халқимизнинг розилиги бизнинг фаолиятимизга берилган энг олий баҳодир. 2-жилд. – Тошкент: Ўзбекистон, 2018.

7. Каримов.И.А. Юксак маънавият-енгилмас куч. Тошкент: Ўзбекистон, 2008.

8. Каримов.И.А. Демократик ислоҳотларни янада чуқурлаштириш ва фуқаролик жамиятини шакллантириш – мамлакатимиз тараққиётининг асосий мезонидир. 19-жилд. Тошкент: Ўзбекистон, 2011.

9. Каримов И.А. Ўзбекистон мутақилликка эришиш остонасида. Тошкент: Ўзбекистон, 2011.

10. Каримов И.А. Она юритимизнинг бахту иқболи ва буюк келажаги йўлида хизмат қилиш – энг олий саодатдир. Тошкент: Ўзбекистон, 2015.

II. Норматив-ҳуқуқий ҳужжатлар

11. Ўзбекистон Республикасининг Конституцияси. – Тошкент: Ўзбекистон, 2018, 40-бет.

12. Ўзбекистон Реслубликасининг "Таълим тўғрисида"ги Қонуни. Т, 1997.

13. Ўзбекистон Республикаси "Кадрлар тайёрлаш Миллий дастури". Т, 1997.

14. Ўзбекистон Республикасининг “Ёшларга оид давлат сиёсати тўғрисида” Қонуни, 2016 йил 14 сентябрь, ЎРҚ-406-сон.

15. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2017 йил 7 февралдаги “2017-2021 йилларда Ўзбекистон Республикасини ривожлантиришнинг бешта устувор йўналиши бўйича Ҳаракатлар стратегияси тўғрисида”ги ПФ-4947- сонли Фармони.

16. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2017 йил 20 апрелдаги “Олий таълим тизимини янада ривожлантириш чора-тадбирлари тўғрисида”ги ПҚ-2909-сонли Қарори.

17. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2018 йил 21 сентябрдаги “2019-2021 йилларда Ўзбекистон Республикасини инновацион ривожлантириш стратегиясини тасдиқлаш тўғрисида” Фармони.

18. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2019 йил 25 февралдаги “Ўзбекистон Республикасининг халқаро рейтинглар ва индекслардаги ўрнини яхшилаш чора-тадбирлари тўғрисида”ги ПҚ-4210-сонли Қарори.

19. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2019 йил 29 апрелдаги “Ўзбекистон Республикаси халқ таълими тизимини 2030 йилгача ривожлантириш концепциясини тасдиқлаш тўғрисида”ги ПФ-5712-сонли Фармони.

20. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2019 йил 8 майдаги “Ўзбекистон Республикаси мактабгача таълим тизимини 2030 йилгача ривожлантириш концепциясини тасдиқлаш тўғрисида”ги ПҚ-4312-сонли Қарори.

21. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2019 йил 11 июлдаги “Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим соҳасида бошқарувни ислоҳ қилиш чора-тадбирлари тўғрисида”ги ПФ-5763-сон Фармони.

22. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2019 йил 11 июлдаги “Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим тизимига бошқарувнинг янги тамойилларини жорий этиш чора-тадбирлари тўғрисида”ги ПҚ-4391-сонли Қарори.

23. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2019 йил 27 августдаги “Олий таълим муассасалари раҳбар ва педагог кадрларининг узлуксиз малакасини ошириш тизимини жорий этиш тўғрисида”ги ПФ- 5789-сонли Фармони.

24. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2019 йил 8 октябрдаги “Ўзбекистон Республикаси олий таълим тизимини 2030 йилгача

ривожлантириш концепциясини тасдиқлаш тўғрисида”ги ПФ-5847-сонли Фармони.

25. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Вазирлар Маҳкамасининг 2019 йил 23 сентябрдаги “Олий таълим муассасалари раҳбар ва педагог кадрларининг малакасини ошириш тизимини янада такомиллаштириш бўйича қўшимча чора-тадбирлар тўғрисида”ги 797-сонли Қарори.

III. Махсус адабиётлар.

1. Beresova, J. (2017). The impact of the CEFR on teaching and testing English in the local context. Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 7(11), 959-964.
2. Celce-Murcia, M. & Olshtain, E. (2000). Discourse and context in language teaching: A guide for language teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
3. Coupland, N., & Jaworski, A. (2009). The New Sociolinguistics Reader. Palgrave: Macmillan.
4. Grice, H. P. (2004). Logic and Conversation. In: Syntax and Semantics: Speech Acts. pp. 41-58.
5. Matthews, P. H. (1981). Syntax. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
6. Richards, C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). Approaches and methods in language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

7. Wardhaugh, R. (2006). An Introduction to Sociolinguistics. Sussex, U.K.: Wiley-Blackwell.

8. David L.Chiesa (Ed) ,U.Azizov, S.Xan, K.Nazamutdinova, K.Tangirova. Re-conceptualizing Language Teaching: An-In-service Teacher Education course in Uzbekistan. , (forthcoming)

9. Gardener H. (1993) Multiple Intelligences: The Theory and Practice, New York: Basic Books.

10. Jack Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers (2001) Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Cambridge University Press

11. Catlin R. Tucker. Blended Learning. Corvin. USA, 2012.

12. Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. – Cambridge University Press. 2001

13. Jan Bell, Roger Gower. Expert Advanced with my Lab pack (Student`s Course book, CD, Resource book, Teachers book). UK: Pearson Longman Великобритания (United Kingdom), 2014.

14. Lynch, Tony. Communication in the language classroom. - XVI, 174 p.: fig. - Oxford; New York, 2001

15. Mike Boyle, Lindsay Warwick. Skillful 4 Reading & Writing. UK: Macmillan Education. Великобритания (United Kingdom), 2013.
16. Michael McCarthy “English Vocabulary in use”. Cambridge University Press, 1999, Presented by British Council.
17. Patrick J. Schloss, Kristina M. Cragg. Organization and Administration in Higher Education 1st Edition. Routledge. Великобритания (United Kingdom), 2012.
18. Stanley Kubrick. A narrative and stylistic analysis. AN imprint of Greenwood Publishing Group, Inc. Великобритания (United Kingdom), 2001.
19. Stephen M. Alessi, Stanley R. Trollip. Multimedia for Learning: Methods and Development (3rd Edition). Pearson; 3 Edition (November 19, 2000), 580 pages, 2011.
20. Jack C. Richards, Willy A. Renandya. Methodology in Language Teaching: An anthology of current practice. Cambridge university press. 2002.
21. Diane Larsen-Freeman, Marti Anderson. Techniques & Principles in Language Teaching (3rd edition). Oxford University Press. 2011.

IV. Интернет сайтлари

22. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлиги: www.edu.uz.
23. Тошкент ахборот технологиялари университети: www.tuit.uz.
24. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Давлат Ҳокимияти портали: www.gov.uz
25. Ўзбек интернет ресурсларининг каталоги: www.uz
26. Британия кенгаши веб сайти: www.Britishcouncil.org
27. Таълим портали: www.ziyonet.uz
28. Тил ўрганиш веб сайти: www.tefl.net
29. Тил ўрганиш веб сайти: busyteacher.org

Қаракалпак мамлекетлик университети жанындағы педагог кадрларды кайта таярлаў хәм олардың қәнигелин жетилистириў аймақлық орайы жоқары оқыў орны профессор-оқытыўшылары ушын филология тәлим бағдары тынлаўшылары ушын "Коммуникатив тил билими хам тил компетенциялары" модулы бойынша дүзилген оқыў-методикалық комплекске

СЫН ПИКИР

"Коммуникатив тил билими хам тил компетенциялары" модулы бойынша дүзилген оқыў-методикалық комплекс Өзбекстан республикасы жоқарғы хәм орта арнаўлы билимлендириў Министрлигиниң 2020 жыл 2 ноябрьдеги 1023 санлы буйрығы менен татыйықланған үлгили оқыў реже хәм бағдарлама тийкарында ислеп шығылған.

Жоқары оқыў орынлары педагог кадрларының қәнийгелигин арттырыў курсының Коммуникатив тил билими ҳәм тил компетенциялары модулиниң мақсети педагог кадрлардың оқыў ушын зәрур болатуғын кәсиплик билим, көникпе хәм талапларын турақлы турде жаналаў, касиплик компетентлиги хам педагогик шеберлигин үзлуксиз раўажланыўын тәмийинлеўден ибарат.

Бул окыў- методикалық комплекс модул ис бағдарламасын, модулди оқытыўда колланылатуғын интерактив тәлим методлары, теориялык хам амелий сабак материаллары, кейслар, глоссарий хам пайдаланылган адебиятлар дизимин, сондай-ак сабак процессинде колланылатугын презентация материаллары хам тест сорауларын өз ишине камтыйды.

Модулди озлестириу аркалы ЖОО профессор окытыушылары коммуникатив тил билими хам тил компетенциялары хаккында хам онын перспективалы профилине сай зарурли билим хам конликпелерин озлестириуде хам касиплик шеберлигин рауажландырыуда бул Методикалык комплекс ахмийетли.

Пикир билдириуши: п.и.к. доц. Дж. Курбанбаев