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Relative Pronouns' Functional, Semantic, and Syntactic Aspects

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Abstract

The semantic and syntactic roles of relative pronouns in complicated subordinate clauses are identified and defined in this article. Furthermore, the writer attempts to elucidate the characteristics of their use in a sophisticated subordinate clause, as well as the semantic and syntactic evaluation of relative pronouns' roles in complicated subordinate sentences.
Key Words: *syntaxes, syntactic semantics, personal, possessiveness, syntaxemic analysis, qualificative, substantial.*

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Pronouns are distinct from substantive, adjectival, and other categories of lexemes in that they identify the presence of unique variations in syntax, individual, but expressiveness (pronominal and prepositional adverbs are similar to them in this regard, as well as particles that, like pronouns, receive individual reflection when designating variants of syntax); Pronouns present some challenges to the researcher when it comes to their classification, which is fundamentally tied to syntactic semantics, as we will attempt to demonstrate here, particularly with respect to different non-categorical syntactic-semantic features. The experience of A.M. Peshkovsky, who felt it was improper to distinguish a distinct category of possessive pronouns in the Russian language and instead dissolve them into a broad category of "personal pronouns," demonstrates how genuine these challenges are. He adds that "traditional grammar gives the classification of pronouns by meaning, as is well known [1]." Here, as in other departments, conventional grammar requires us to make several changes to this categorization since the meanings of roots and grammatical components of words are often confused. Nonetheless, the roots' meanings in this context are equally grammatical. However, in this case, it's critical to distinguish between the variations in them and the variations in affix meanings (pronominal and non-nominal words are identical in this regard).

Traditional grammar violates this principle when it speaks, for example, about the pronouns "personal" (I, you, he, we, you, they), "reflexive" (yourself) and "possessive" (my, yours, ours, yours), since by the meaning of the roots I, you, he, we, you, they, my, yours, ours, yours are all personal, and yourself, yours are reflexive, according to the meaning of the affixes, I, you, he, we, you, they, themselves are nouns, and my, yours, yours, ours, yours are adjectives. As for the shade of "possessiveness" in these adjectives, it is not particularly expressed in them and is due only to the pronominal meaning of the roots, so there is still a question whether it should be emphasized". Proceeding from this, A.M. Peshkovsky distinguishes the following "personal pronouns: I (me)T is mine, in my opinion, you, yours, in your opinion, he (she, it, his, him, her, etc.), his (folk), her (folk), in his, we (us, us, us), our, in our, you, your, in your opinion, they (them, by them), theirs (almost literary), in their way".

A. M. Peshkovsky based the allocation of "personal pronouns" on the commonality of their roots, thus combining personal and possessive pronouns, as well as some adverbs (the latter we do not touch here). At the same time, morphological features of the combined pronouns and their syntactic specificity, primarily related to their syntactic semantics, were left out [1]. But it is the consideration of the morphological characteristics of possessive pronouns in the Russian language and especially their syntactic semantics that prompts us to allocate these pronouns into a special group. By their morphological structure, possessive pronouns in the Russian language (my, yours, etc.) are distinctly different from the group of pronouns, for which the name "personal pronouns" is attached by tradition (I - me, you - you, etc.). And with this morphological difference, the differences in the syntactic semantics of those and other pronouns are in accordance, which cannot be ignored in syntaxemic analysis [2]. The theoretical and methodological problems arising here are very closely related to the problems of syntaxemic analysis, which is associated with the differentiation of units of morphological and syntactic levels of language and taking into account their interaction. According to their systemic relations at the syntactic level of the language , possessive pronouns it is precisely how the means of expression of syntaxes and their variants in business are distinctly different from personal pronouns. Cf., for example: 1) equivalence relations of possessive pronouns and possessive adjectives, as well as nouns in the genitive case when expressing various possessive syntaxes, in particular the possessive proper: your house, fathers' house, father's house, etc.; 2) equivalence relations of personal pronouns and nouns in the form of the nominative case as a means of expressing agentive syntaxes, in particular the particulars of the own-agency: you have arrived, the father has arrived, etc. The syntactic semantics of possessiveness has predetermined the very name of these pronouns, although this name – "possessive or possessive pronouns" — does not mean at all that they cannot be carriers of other syntactic semantics. Similarly, in English, there is a group of possessive pronouns that are in equivalence with the genitive case of nouns (sometimes referred to as the "possessive case"), although they may be carriers of other syntactic semantics. True, in modern English, the possessive pronouns my, your, etc. are morphologically not separable, unlike the corresponding pronouns in Russian, but this only emphasizes the fact that possessive pronouns are allocated to a special group of pronouns, taking into account their syntactic semantics. And the basis of the allocation of personal pronouns into a separate group based on the material of the Russian language, in essence, is the consideration of syntactic semantics, as well as their morphological features. However, in their very name, syntactic semantics does not receive any reflection, and this is explained by the fact that personal pronouns have different case forms — nominative, genitive and other cases, each of which has a variety of syntactic and semantic content. Under these conditions, you can only use such a general and inaccurate a name like "personal pronouns", which is largely conditional, since personal pronouns denote not only persons (pronouns that are not personal can also denote persons). In modern English, where personal pronouns are virtually devoid of case forms, it is possible to distinguish between two groups of personal pronouns, called above "subject" and "object" pronouns. These names already partly reflect syntactic semantics, although, as in the case of possessive pronouns, their very name should not be interpreted in the sense that some of them denote only the subject of an action or state, others only the object. The subject pronoun also serves as a means of expressing the object syntaxeme in the position of the nuclear predicated component, and the object pronoun can represent an agentive syntaxeme in a dependent position (in combination with the preposition by); cf.: I was invited by them, etc.

According to syntactic semantics, all and both are close to the last of the groups of pronouns mentioned above, which are also means of expressing both substantial and qualificative syntaxes; for example: a) All are present. All that I remember is true (Christie). Both were punished; 6) ... and he had put all his clothes over him for warmth (Maugham). Have you never had a moment's regret for all the unhappiness you caused them? (I bid.). He lived here all his life. He sat up all night. Both sisters are doctors. Both his brothers are teachers. The proximity of these pronouns to the indefinite pronouns any (any), every, each, etc. discussed above is due to the fact that both are carriers of the syntactic-semantic sign of collectivity (collectivity), i.e. both serve as means of expressing collective syntaxes - from the categories of substantial and qualificative. However, the question arises: is it possible, in relation to the pronouns all and both, to establish a syntactic-semantic sign of indeterminacy (uncertainty), the presence of which in pronouns any, every, etc. justifies their very name as "indefinite pronouns?". If this meaningful feature is alien to the pronouns all and both, then, of course, they should not be combined together with these pronouns under the general name "indefinite pronouns". There is reason to believe that this is exactly the case with these pronouns, which, unlike indefinite pronouns, should be called "collective pronouns" in accordance with the presence of the mentioned syntactic-semantic feature of collectivity, or collectivity. This conclusion can be reached by studying the paradigmatic series of variants of substantial collective syntaxes, in the expression of which the pronouns all and both participate. The equivalence relations of each of these pronouns differ significantly from the equivalence relations of the indefinite pronouns any, every, etc., and this is manifested not only in the fact that among the variants of substantial collective syntaxes expressed by the pronouns all and both, there are no complex pronouns on -body, -one, -thing, but also (mainly) the fact that the functional equivalents of the pronouns all and both are syntactically indivisible combinations, which include two pronouns at the same time. We mean, in particular, complex, or composite, variants of syntaxes, the first element of which is a personal pronoun (subjective or objective), and the second is the pronoun all or both: They both went there. They are both gone. We all love him. They all came late I know it all. I see them both. We wrote to them both, etc. Such combinations, which would serve as means of expressing indefinite syntaxes and would include indefinite pronouns any, every, some, etc., are impossible. In turn, the indivisibility of these pronominal combinations, representing variants of various substantial collective syntaxes, is emphasized by their equivalence to indivisible pronominal combinations, the first the element of which is the pronoun both or all, the second is a personal (object) pronoun with the preposition of: both of them, all of them, and t, P. Pronominal combinations of both kinds form pairs of optional variants of the corresponding substantial collective syntaxes, as evidenced, for example, by the following substitution transformations: They both went there → Both of them went there. They are both gone → Both of them are gone. We all love him → All of us love him. They all came late → All of them came late. I know it all → I know all of it, etc. At the same time, such pairs of combinations as they both — they all or both of them — all of them, etc., make up connotative variants of the corresponding syntaxes, differing in semantic shades that the pronouns both and all contribute to them. A syntactically indivisible combination representing a variant of a particular substantial collective syntaxeme may also include a noun as a variable S with the preposition of (variants of both of S, all of S); for example: Both of these possibilities must be taken into account. Such a variant can be replaced by a compound pronominal variant with the preposition of, which was mentioned above; cf.: Both of these possibilities must be taken into account → Both of them must be taken into account. As the above example with the variant of both of S shows, a noun in the latter may have a pronominal element (these) with it, which is natural, since we are talking about substantial syntaxems, which are characterized by compatibility with pronominal elements.

From the indefinite pronouns some, any, every, etc., the pronouns both and all considered here also differ in their distributive features - as a means of expressing collective syntaxes. In particular, this applies to the pronouns both and all, expressing a qualificative collective syntaxeme: they are characterized by the use in a dependent position before a noun that has a possessive or demonstrative pronoun, or a definite article (all his clothes, both his brothers, all the unhappiness, etc., see the above examples of group b), whereas for indefinite pronouns expressing one or another qualifying taxeme, for example, indefinite, or indefinite quantitative, or indefinite collective (cf. the corresponding examples of the group), such use is excluded. This difference in the distributive order is obviously affected by the absence of a sign of nndefiniteness in the syntaxeme, the means of expression of which are the pronouns both and all. As for the substantial collective syntaxes expressed by the pronouns both and all, then in distributional terms, their difference from the substantial indefinite syntaxes, we would associate primarily with the presence of composite variants, including the pronoun both or all and the combination of the object pronoun with the preposition of (both of them, all of them, both of S, etc.), which can be replaced by compound pronominal variants of the type they both, they all, them both, them all. It is these composite, or complex, variants, and not simple ones, expressed by the pronouns both and all, that are obviously the main and variants of various substantial collective syntaxes, in particular collective agentive (They both went there. Both of them went there), collective object (I see them both. I see both of them), collective indirect-object attribution (We wrote to them both. We wrote to both of them), etc. Substantial indefinite syntaxems do not have such composite variants, and the prepositional group with of represents a separate syntaxeme, with which one or another substantial indefinite syntaxeme is combined, expressed by the pronouns some, any, every one, etc. In relation to substantial collective syntaxes, it is possible to note the compatibility with the syntaxeme expressed by the adverb (adverbial particle) else, although this compatibility is apparently realized only on the material of the pronoun all; for example: For everything she did ... was separated from all else that I heard or saw or touched (Snow). This distributive feature of the pronoun all indicates that it is necessary to take into account not only the common thing that unites the pronouns all and both as means of expressing the same syntaxeme, but also the specific thing that each of them has in the sentence structure. However, this applies to the pronominal variants of all other substantive and qualificative syntaxes, including those that will be discussed later. Like the negative, indefinite and collective pronouns already considered, demonstrative pronouns also serve as means of expressing syntaxes from the categories of substantial and qualificative, which are carriers of the syntactic-semantic sign of definiteness (definiteness). Substantive definitive syntaxems are represented by demonstrative singular and plural pronouns this, these, that, those, and in different syntactic positions these pronouns either by themselves or in combination with a service element express various substantive syntaxems. Cf., for example: a definitive identifiable syntaxeme (What is this? Who is this? Perhaps these are they. These are my children. What is that? Who is that? Ave those your children? Is that all the luggage you are taking?), definitive identifying (Fine art is that in which the hand, the head, and the heart go together), definitive syntaxeme of the quality carrier (This is new and that is old), definitive agentive (Dogs are more faithful animals than cats — these attach themselves to places and those to persons. Those who wish to go may do so. Work and play are both necessary to health; this gives us rest and that gives us energy), a definitive object (I don't like this at all. Will you have this or that?), definitive object and indirect object (I prefer these to those), definitive locative ablative (You filthy beast, get out of this), etc. Representing the same substantive definitive syntaxems, the pronouns this and that, these and those are their connotative variants (also in combination with prepositions), since they differ in semantic shades: this and these indicate close, that and those — distant objects. This semantic difference between this and that (these and those) underlies some specific cases of their use recorded in dictionaries, when, for example, this indicates the last (second) of the subjects named earlier in the text, that indicates the first (cf. the examples given: Work and play are both necessary to health; this gives us rest and that gives us energy, etc.).

Along with demonstrative pronouns, some other pronouns, in particular he - him, she - her, they - them, which are among the personal pronouns, also serve as means of expressing substantial definitive syntaxes. The use of these pronouns, however, has a pronounced combinatorial character: they are used in the main sentences in the presence of subordinate clauses introduced by a relative pronoun (without a preposition or with a preposition). Cf. in the corresponding relations he that…. the one who…., he of whom… The one about whom … to him who …. 'to the one who… etc . D.: 1) He that believes .... He of whom you speak is my best friend. The prize goes to him who comes in first; 2) She that believes .... Site whom you saw is my best friend; 3) They who believe ... They do least who talk most. In sentences of the third type, it is possible to use the demonstrative pronoun those instead of the personal pronoun they (cf. the above example: Those who wish to go may do so), the pronouns he and she usually do not allow their replacement with the demonstrative pronoun that (not to mention the pronoun this). It can be said that the personal pronouns he - him, she - her, and they - them (without a preposition or with a preposition) are combinatorial variants of substantial definitive syntaxes, since their use is allowed only in these correlative combinations. The system of variants of the above-mentioned definitional identifiable syntaxeme, along with the demonstrative pronouns this, that, these, those, also includes the pronoun it, which is devoid of a specific semantic shade characteristic of the pronoun this or that (an indication of a near or distant object): Who is it? - It is the postman (cf. the above examples: Who is this? Who is that?). All this indicates that, when studying the system relations of variants of various substantial definitive syntaxes, one should not lose sight of other pronouns that are functionally closely in contact with them. In this respect, demonstrative pronouns can be compared, for example, with the indefinite pronouns some and any, which, being the means of expressing indefinite quantitative syntaxes (from the category of substantial, as well as qualifying syntaxes), are in close contact with another category of lexemes - the pronominal adjectives many, much, little, etc. The above factual material, no matter how limited it may be, clearly shows that substantial definitive syntaxems, expressed by demonstrative, as well as sometimes personal pronouns of the 3rd person, occupy a special position among the elementary units of the deep structure of sentences. They cannot be functionally identified with any other substantial syntaxems expressed, for example, by nouns, although often one or another substantial definitive syntaxeme can be replaced in a sentence by a substantial syntaxeme expressed by a noun in combination with an indicative pronoun, as well as a personal pronoun; cf.: These are my children →

These boys (they) are my children. Are those your children? → Are those boys (they) your children? etc. These transformations become possible because both the original sentence and the transfor-mation sentence include a substantial identifiable syntaxeme, however, in one case the substantial syntaxeme is also a carrier of the sign of definiteness, in the other it is devoid of this syntactic-semantic feature. The sign of definiteness in the transform is already endowed with another syntaxeme, expressed by the demonstrative pronoun these or those, which belongs to the category of qualifying syntaxes. The qualificative definitive syntaxeme can be represented by all the demonstrative pronouns mentioned above, but the system of its variants no longer includes the personal pronouns he, she, they, and it, which are capable of indicating a substance, but cannot denote its sign or characteristic. Cf. also the pronouns this and that as variants of the qualificative definitive syntaxeme in the dependent position with the noun: Look at this picture. By this time he was far away. Everybody is agreed on that point; in this place, this morning, since that time, etc. As with the expression of substantial definitive syntaxes, pronouns this—that, these—those often serve as connotative variants of the qualifying definitive syntaxes, which is especially evident in cases of their semantic opposition, also registered in dictionaries, for example: This book is interesting and that one is not.

The specificity of the definitive syntaxes, substantial and qualificative, especially clearly appears in their comparison with the above-considered indefinite syntaxes, substantial and qualificative. If we tried to replace in the sentences given here any definitive, substantive or qualifying syntaxeme with the corresponding indefinite syntaxeme expressed, for example, by the pronoun some or any, in most cases this would lead to a complete distortion of the sentence. The uniqueness of the syntactic and semantic content of both directly affects their environment. So, if the substantive indefinite syntaxems expressed by the pronouns some and any are often combined with the elective syntaxeme of the whole, expressed by a noun or a pronoun with the preposition of (Some of the boys come very early. If any of them should see them, etc.), then for substantial definitive syntaxes in general, such compatibility is not characteristic. The immediate environment of the qualifying definitive syntaxeme often includes the intensifying syntaxeme very (He lives in this very place. Come here this very minute! from this very day; at that very moment); the qualificative indefinite syntaxeme, expressed by the pronouns some, any, absolutely does not allow such an environment, etc. All these distributional differences must be carefully identified so that the role of demonstrative and indefinite pronouns in the construction of sentences is fully disclosed. It is also important to pay attention to the fact that, unlike indefinite pronouns, demonstrative pronouns are used to express a wide variety of syntaxes, which cannot be attributed either to the category of substantial or, moreover, to the category of qualifying syntaxes. We are referring to examples such as I'm not the sort of man that women love I've always known that (Maugham). I didn't come here for that (I bid.). It was about five years after this that I decided to live in Paris for a while (I bid.). I did not see him for several days after that (I bid.). Here, the demonstrative pronouns this, that do not serve the purpose of designating any objects or substances, unlike the examples above, where they functionally come into contact with nouns and can replace them or be replaced by them. However, demonstrative pronouns here also have a certain syntactic semantics by themselves or in combination with a preposition, being means of expressing various definitive syntaxes - definitive object, or definitive causal, or definitive temporal, etc. These definitive syntaxems, devoid of a categorical syntactic-semantic feature, differ from substantial definitive syntaxems in that the system of their variants does not include the demonstrative pronouns these and those. This circumstance allows the researcher to resort to experiments with substitutions of one variant with another when distinguishing between those and other definitive syntaxes. Note also that the pronoun it (without a preposition or with a preposition) may be a variant of some definitive syntaxes devoid of a categorical sign of substantiality; cf.: I like her for it (Maugham). She just missed being beautiful, and in missing it was not even pretty (I bid.).

Thus, when considering demonstrative pronouns from the side of their syntactic semantics, we also encounter the presence of such units that remain outside the three main categories of syntaxes - substantive, qualifying and procedural.

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Appropriate Usage of Dictionaries in the Translation of Linguacultural Words

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Abstract
Linguaculturalogy is an actively developing field of linguistics. It is a new branch of science, which deals with manifestations of the culture of different nations, which became fixed and are reflected in the language. Linguaculturalogy is a rapidly expanding field at the interface between linguistics, cultural studies, ethnolinguistics, and sociolinguistics. However, it has its own integral aspect of studying language and culture and in turn, translating linguacultural units using different kinds of dictionaries has some difficulties. This paper is dedicated to the importance and analysis of linguacultural units taking into consideration of lexicography.
Key Words: *linguacultural units, lexicography, translation of linguacultural units, types of lexicography, linguopersonology, linguoculturology.*

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1. Introduction

The main goal of linguoculturology is to study the culture, the thinking of the people, and the linguistic expression of specific aspects of their perception of the world. The object of this field is language and culture, and the subject is language units that reflect cultural semantics. Consequently, in linguoculturology, language units that carry cultural information are studied. Such language units are grouped under the term linguocultural units. Symbols, mythology, standard, metaphor, paremiological units, lacunae, stereotypes, precedent units, and speech labels are the most basic linguocultural units. The problem of the interaction of language and culture is also studied in the fields of ethnolinguistics, ethnopsycholinguistics, cognitive linguistics, linguistic-state studies, linguoconceptology, and linguopersonology. Therefore, these areas are close to linguoculturology.

1.1. Background

Linguoculturological research focuses on the following issues: 1) the linguocultural features of a particular speech genre. It often deals with myths, the language of folklore genres; 2) the study of the expression of the linguocultural concept in a work written in a certain style. It mainly analyzes the language of fiction; 3) comparative work. In this case, mainly linguistic units in English have compared with Uzbek; 4) aspects of linguoculturology related to pedagogical science. The main goal is to develop translators' skills in identifying and analyzing lingvoculturological units.

Lexicography is defined as the "Theory and practice of compiling dictionaries. (Hadumod, 2006, p.316). Hadumod (2006) maintains that lexicography provides the principles that are necessary for documenting the vocabulary of a language, a dialect or a profession by drawing on lexicology with its theoretical bases and materials for lexicographic codification and by taking practical concerns such as marketability, user-friendliness, etc. into consideration. The form of presentation depends on whether one intends to compile a single or multi-language lexicon, a diachronic or synchronic record of a specific vocabulary, or a descriptive or prescriptive reference work. The distinct purpose of the individual types of dictionaries determines how the materials are to be organized. While alphabetic ordering is by far the most frequent type, some dictionaries are systematically compiled according to semantic principles.

During the analysis of the literature on the research, subject was found that one of the main tasks of cultural linguistics is the study and description of the interaction of language and culture. Language in cultural linguistics is not only and not so much a tool of cultural understanding, it is an integral part, one of its images. In the same way, that in the culture of every nation there is a universal and ethno-national element, in each language can be found a reflection of the general, universal components of culture and identity of a particular nation's culture.

According to Timko N.V. (Timko, 2011) the culture is not simply a set of norms, behaviors, and values that exist in the culture of translated language speakers. Culture, among other things, is also an indispensable condition for the existence of language, the context in which the language functions and reveals. Language is inseparably connected with culture, with the reality in which people lives, and the activities that they perform, i.e. culture is an important culture-forming element. Under the factor "culture" in the translation we understand the totality of everything material and spiritual, created by a nation and opposed to "primordial" nature, the totality of all national-specific, which distinguishes one linguocultural community from the other: specificity of thinking and perception of the world, beliefs, traditions, values orientations, communicative strategies and cognitive environment that determines the basis of behaviour shared by all members of a particular linguocultural community.

Performing a translation, the translator chooses the method of translation, even when reading the text. "The translator must possess actively the linguo-ethnical specificity of the text, as it often is not given in the text in a concentrated form, but dispersed therein, or encrypted, and his task is to recognize this specificity, based on the total activity of knowledge" (Alekseeva, 2004). However, it should be noted that the need and importance of lexicography also play a vital role. When translating it is referred to the transference of a literary work, not only from one language system, but also from one mental sphere in another, where all relations and communications, all poetic origins are not like as the first one. In this case, the translator can be fully dependent on lexicography.

1.2. Status of problem

The translation recently began to be regarded as a complex and multiple-aspect phenomenon. It is no longer limited only to linguistics, in which mainly deployed translation studies. Currently, the need to reconsider the translation role in the epoch of global integration is more acutely aware. Understanding of translation as a phenomenon of "cultural transfer" is inherent in H. Vermeer views, according to which the most important for the understanding of translation lies in its functioning in the new cultural environment (Vermeer, 1986). A view at the translation as "an eternally relevant culturological category" (Lyusyy, 2003) is reflected in linguocultural translation theory, in which the study of the mechanisms of intercultural interaction through the texts exchange is the most rational because it can contribute to the expansion of spiritual spaces of receiving cultures and their self-identification within the world spiritual space, not only by receiving categorized concepts, meanings and ideas, but also due to the expansion of space and means of understanding (Galeeva, 2003).

A particular importance has linguacultural aspects which are humor, national spirit, special idioms that usually delineated by territorial borders of countries and regions and national identity. For example, human beings master national humor, absorbs it from the culture of the country in which he lives, and translated texts from different cultures, in the last ones outlines the need to transfer not only the form but also content with the diversity of the meanings containing therein provided always preservation of these meanings. On this occasion, L.L. Nelyubin notes that so far as the translation is a "transformation of the original text while retaining of the meaning", the translator must try to find "the equivalent forms of expression of a certain meaning" in another language (Nelyubin, 2003).

The study of linguocultural units is directly related to the methodology and depends on all its directions (speech, formal, scientific, journalistic, artistic, and literary methods). Based on these directions it is complicated to translate and use specific translation books because special translation books related to various fields including formal, literal, idiomatic, artistic, and others have not been developed yet. Therefore, this is one of the essential problems in lexicography.

2. Methodology

The method of the article is an observative-descriptive approach. The design is to examine bilingual and annotated dictionaries against criteria by how they are important to translate of linguacultural units from English to Uzbek and from Uzbek to English. Additionally, this method is helpful to find out the defaults of those dictionaries that created a sort of confusion among their users. Hence, the paper has a diagnostic feature by which areas of weakness, which affect the dictionaries to lose the main objective found in language enhancement and development, are identified and described. The purpose of identifying and describing weakness areas is intended to be constructive in nature aiming at finding and offering solution to the problems by which the inter-cultural communication and foreign language learning is impeded.

3. Results

In order to get the required results from the survey of this article, there is given only one example to show the importance of lexicography in translation process.

Homeroom teacher - the teacher attached to the homeroom of a group of students (Collins English Dictionary). When this expression is translated into Uzbek language by word by word it may confuse the reader or students. The first part of the expression is homeroom does not refer to any kind of meaning related to class or education. So, an Uzbek translator can translate it into his/her language wrongly if he/she does not use any specific dictionary. So that is the main reason for developing different types of dictionaries is important and it should be implemented by learning and developing lexicography.

4. Discussion and conclusion

Translation is not a simple modification of some language structures into others, but a complex process of conveying meaning, defined as the result of the interaction of linguistic meanings and cognitive additions that match the utterance. Cognitive additions are a part of the translator's cognitive knowledge, that is, the totality of his encyclopedic (linguistic and extra-linguistic) knowledge stored in his "long-term" memory. They are also a part of the so-called cognitive context, that is, the knowledge learned by the translator from the previous parts of the text and used in the meaning transfer of its subsequent parts.

R.K. Minyar-Beloruchev says "the object of the science of translation is not just a communication using two languages, but a communication using two languages, including correlated activity of source, translator and recipient. Central element of this communication is translator's activity or translation properly, which is one of the most difficult types of speech activity". That is the reason for the importance of lexicography to translate different linguacultural units of languages.

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The Challenge of Recognizing Gender Markers in Contemporary English

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Abstract

The article delves into the complexities of identifying gender indicators within modern English, exploring the challenges and nuances associated with this linguistic aspect. In addition to dissecting these challenges, the author incorporates insights from prominent linguists renowned for their significant contributions to traditional grammar. Their perspectives and scholarly input provide valuable context and depth to the discussion, shedding light on the evolution of gender indicators within the language and the broader field of linguistics.
Key Words: *gender, masculine, feminine, lexicographic sources, nomination, gender markers.*

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Since gender markers in linguistic research theory and practice represent the most cognitively indicative example of structuring knowledge about the world from some minimal conceptual units correlated with the cognitive dissection of reality, the problem of identifying gender markers in modern English has a rather remarkable and long history of its own. The conceptual and semantic boundaries of gender universals in language are contrasted, the differences between male and female speech strategies are continuously examined from various angles, and the possibilities for linguistic normalization of speech traditions in designating the genus of linguistic units are explored throughout the process of linguistic evolution.

In the past, the masculine gender in English has been linked to normativity in the usage of lexical and grammatical units, but feminine markers have, until recently, received less attention from researchers. The author of a book on the axiological benefits of the masculine gender over the feminine in voice communication practices, which was published in 1751, supports this idea. In all languages, the masculine gender is associated with "the Supreme Essence / Existence," as stated by James Harris [1], "just as belonging to the male sex is considered the highest and more perfect characteristic."

Writers who disagree with the notion that male gender traits have a major impact in language might be seen developing the idea of "male superiority" in their works. One of the most vocal supporters of the feminine gender in language, Dale Spender, feels that the story of Eve's creation from Adam's rib, which suggests an incorrect nomination and erroneous redistribution of childbearing functions, is the source of the injustice of linguistic control in the form of a male marker.

In later works of researchers of gender relations in language practice, the influence of the above mythological pattern on the derivative nature of female gender characteristics in the design of linguistic units of different levels was noted.

Derived feminine forms are usually marked with a suffix or some other morphological or lexical feature that distinguishes the feminine gender from the general one and in some cases partially duplicates the form of the original masculine gender. For example, a man is a woman, the author is an authoress. Some researchers interpret’s in the English feminine pronoun 'she' as a prefix that is attached to the masculine pronoun 'he', which seems to be an erroneous statement in the light of etymological data on the origin of these linguistic units. A similar erroneous interpretation is found in the correlation, at first glance, of the related English nouns ‘man’ and ‘woman’: despite the rather transparent orthographic similarity, the feminine noun is by no means derived from the masculine noun, because it came into English from the Latin ‘femella’, the diminutive form of the Latin corresponding noun 'femina'.

Over the past two centuries, linguists offering a pseudo-historical interpretation of the category of gender in English have insisted that the female communicative code is derived from the male and cannot serve as a role model due to its subordinate status in relation to the language of men. As an argument of “derivation”, theoretical arguments were used about the original meaning of words in the English language, false etymological definitions, and statements about the excessive talkativeness of English women, reproaches for their too distinct and loud pronunciation of sounds, even accusations of excessive detail and accuracy in the choice of language units or cloying politeness. Etymological research in the field of the study of linguistic universals, which serve to designate the category of gender in the English language, confirms that the evolution of the English gender paradigm has been dominated for several centuries by studies focused on proving the advantages of the masculine gender over the feminine at various levels [2]. Similarly, the creators of artificial or philosophical languages propose to consider the range of linguistic characteristics of the feminine gender as a derivative subordinate to the markers of the masculine gender. So, since the seventeenth century, in a number of artificial languages, the system of feminine markers has acquired semantic value and integrity only in comparison, or rather, in opposition to the masculine gender.

In the system of artificially created feminine pronouns, they were considered linguistically marked in contrast to unmarked masculine pronouns, or their categorical gender signs were not recorded at all. In Esperanto, for example, its creators marked both genders with a suffix, although when referring to the feminine gender, this suffix is additionally associated with affectionate diminutive semantics: "la knabo" - boy; "la knabino" is a girl. In the works on etymology, the functions of men and women that are socially fixed by gender are quite clearly reflected. According to John Ruskin, native English words mirror objectively existing referents, and the referent of the English noun “woman” is inextricably linked with the concept of “home": "What do you think the beautiful word "wife" comes from?... This is a great word in which English and Latin are winning over French and Greek. I hope that the French will someday find a word for this instead of their terrible ’femme'. But where do you think it comes from? ...the great use of Saxon words is that they usually really mean something. Wife means ‘weaver'...You have to be either house wives or moths; remember that. In a deep sense, you must either weave the destinies of people and embroider them; or feed on them and bring them to decay” [3]

As the review of lexicographic sources of that time shows, the desire for the accuracy of lexicographic comments was combined by researchers with their own anti-feminist sentiments and prejudices. For example, the author of a treatise on the origin of words and their romantic biographies, Wilfred Funk, rightly noted that over time many of the terms for women have degraded, and gave an example with the noun ‘coquette’, which came from the noun ‘cock', originally in a figurative sense having a quite decent man as a referent. Other transformations of the lexical unit 'wench', which alternately denoted 'a child of any sex', 'a young worker', 'a rustic, uncouth female' and, finally, 'a libertine', quite convincingly confirm the statement about the degradation of the mentioned words, and on the other hand, indicate the desire of researchers to consider nouns, marked with the category of the feminine gender, from the standpoint of explicit anti-feminism. However, the mechanism of formation of the system of gender markers in the English language has been constantly improved and supplemented as a result of linguistic transformations caused not only by internal "genetic", but also by external factors of interaction of the English language with another linguistic environment, as well as traditional poetic personification. Along with the rules for matching adjectives, pronouns and articles with animate and inanimate nouns, languages that have historically developed a common cognitive cultural space due to intensive borrowings have undoubtedly had a regulating influence on the paradigm shift of gender characteristics in English. So, the nouns 'sea' and 'sword' in the eighteenth century were associated with the masculine gender, cities, while ', 'ship', 'tree' – with the feminine.

These associations were not caused at all by the needs of literary metaphorization, but were explained by their genetic similarity with gender markers in Latin, Greek or French, from which they were borrowed.

A special place in the creation of a cognitive gender module is occupied by feminine markers of English nouns denoting people in their professional field. First of all, in this subgroup, it should be noted the traditional suffixes that formalize nouns of the corresponding semantics: -ess, -ette, -ine. Despite the numerous variants of interpretations proposed for these suffixes, the definitions that contain a description of semantic components from the standpoint of cognitive linguistics seem to be the most convincing and reliable. Of undoubted interest in this regard is the suffix -ess, which owes its origin to the Greek language. The "transshipment points" for him were Latin and Old French, where he had the function of a familiar indicator of derived feminine names. After the Norman conquest, the English language borrowed the nouns countess, mistress, lioness, mistress, and since the fourteenth century this suffix joins the basics of the original nouns, forming a series: dancer, resident, teacher, etc. In the fifteenth century, the popularity of the "feminine" suffix increased so much that it began to be attached to nouns that already had a suffix of similar semantics: operator, interlocutor. In the XVIII century, the suffix is an essay, and in the textbooks of the XIX century. there are direct recommendations to avoid the design of nouns using this formant. However, contrary to predictions and recommendations, the suffix essay turned out to be very viable, which can be illustrated by examples of both standard and slang usage of nouns such as: adulteress, waitress, governess, murderer, actress, writer, etc [4].

The English nouns authoress and poetess deserve special comment, since they almost constantly had the correlates author and poet, respectively, which denoted representatives of both the masculine and feminine genders. It is important to emphasize that in the history of the development of literary English, cycles of the appearance, disappearance and "resurrection" of gender markers are clearly traced. An example is the English nouns nominating female persons in diplomatic circles: ambassadress, ambassadrice, ambassadrix, ambassadatrice, ambassadatrix. The fate of the generic marker in question in modern English is also determined by the geographical area. If 'actress' has the highest frequency index in American English, then in the British version, the normative use allows hostess, waitress, governess, stewardess, as well as authoress, manageress, proprietress, which seems to signal the revival of this marker in English at the present stage of its development. Similar trends are found in American slang: crimestress, actress, bankeress, spyess, etc., and the need to clarify the generic affiliation in the context of works of fiction or in oral communication expands the gender range due to the parallel coexistence of the forms 'woman doctor', 'she-doctor', 'doctress', 'doctorine'. Regarding the suffix -ine, with which the last noun is formed, it should be noted that despite its high productivity in the field of names of the most diverse semantics (actorine, knitterine, mottorine, sailor, soldier), which have become quite widespread in American slang, this marker only occasionally occurs in oral colloquial speech.

The susceptibility of the American version of English to suffixes, with the help of which lexical units are created for the nomination of professions that gradually attract female staff, is explained by a number of social and psychological factors (higher educational status of women in modern society, expansion of the professional range for female representatives, increased ambitions in business, career, etc.). Examples of this kind are among the nouns with the suffix -ette: astronette, cosmonette, aviarette, farmarette, pickette – 'woman striker' (participant of protest-picketing), copette –'woman police officer' (policewoman). Similar formations are registered among the nominations in the field of show business: usherette, screenette, glamorette. Sports and military slang also offer variants of names marked with the suffix -ette, which correlate with the participation of women in a wide variety of sports and military activities: tankerette, champette, kaydette. Interestingly, it is this suffix, genetically related to the semantics of diminutive size, that is used to form nouns that serve to designate the names of things intended for women: mockinette, flatterettes, jamarettes [5].

In lexicographic practice, when discussing the status of gender markers in the English language, it is noted that lexical correlates play an important role in identifying the genus of English nouns along with explicitly expressed grammatical features. However, at present, the researchers' opinion boils down to the fact that it is inappropriate for nouns of the so-called gender-neutral status or units with zero gender marking to perform a double load, spreading their semantic influence on the cognitive domain of gender markers. Observations show that the cognitive mechanism of the formation of a system of gender markers in English is determined by the degree of their interaction with linguistic reality and with reference objects, and in modern conditions, an additional argument can be such an extralinguistic factor as the development of the feminist movement in English-speaking countries, which significantly expands the potential social and professional opportunities for women, and therefore - objective prerequisites are being created for the active use of explicitly expressed gender markers in the English language.

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The Function of Inversion in Grammar

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Abstract
This article describes the roles of inversion, then trace its involvement in the structuring of emotionally expressive sentences to specify the categories of inversion statements.
Key Words: *modified, original, normal, neutral, non-emphatic, rhetoric, generally accepted.*

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This issue is quite interesting in terms of pragmatic usage and study into various elements of inversion in the English language. The pragmatic characteristics of inversion in English are a little-studied topic that is important for the execution of the emotional-expressive component of communication. The actualization of the sentence and expression intersect as a semantically and communicatively relevant category in the plane of pragmatics, because here the speaking subject with all his objectives comes to the fore. Linguists have long recognized the tight relationship between subjective actualization and the emotional-expressive component of communication; nonetheless, this topic remains largely unexplored. The examination of inverted phrases reveals that inversion is used to indicate an emotionally expressive time in communication.

A language can serve numerous purposes while communicating. We can use language to communicate our feelings, enlighten our interlocutors about previously unknown knowledge, influence people's views and behaviors, discuss about the language itself, converse with friends about nothing in particular, or tell stories and jokes.

The text (which moves between communication partners) is referred to as the object of research while studying communication. A lunch discussion, a novel, a film, or advertising are all considered texts in this sense.

V.G. Admoni, identifying the emotional function of the word order as a separate one, sees the major significance in the formation of greater emotional content in syntactic units, which he believes is achieved by a “modified” (shifted) form of the original word order. Many writers use the antagonism of the ideas of “original” and “modified” as a divergence from the norm, which should be justified by the tradition linked with the idea of European rationalism. Natural language syntax is continuously in conflict with iconic standards, indicating not a violation of norms, but that “norms” are flawed. Modern English grammars are moving away from categorizing word order as normal or deviant.

Disputes about the arrangement of words in “normal, neutral, non-emphatic” and “abnormal, special, emphatic” (I.R. Galperin’s phrases) have long plagued stylists and linguists. Scientists have been studying the problem of the position of sentence members (which includes the inversion problem) since the dawn of “rhetoric” research. The word order – “generally accepted” - was simply fixed at first, then grammar began to consider the connections between the members of the sentence – “syntactic relations of the members of the sentence”, and only then stylistics, as the science of everything expressive, colored, and put forward, began to consider “deviations from the generally accepted” and determine their purpose in speech.

Galperin I.R. defines the functions of science dealing with everything “unusual, different, and extraordinary” as follows in his work “Essays on the stylistics of the English language”: “The stylistics of language studies syntactic expressive means of language and syntactic stylistic techniques that create a special organization of utterance that distinguishes such a statement from a statement in the conditionally called by us "neutral" form of presentation [2].

Inversion, as a "deviation from the norm", is the topic of stylistics research. Stylistics examines its impact on speech. Grammar views inversion to be a breach of sentence structure grammatical principles. Grammar determines which sentence members are "put forward, highlighted", and stylistics describes what impact the nomination of this specific sentence member will have.

"Indeed, the problem of inversion is considered in both grammar and stylistics" [2]. In grammar classes, a formulation like "Only then have I made up my mind to go there" is considered a stylistic inversion, but in stylistics classes, it is called a grammatical inversion. As a result, it appears to be difficult to label certain evident grammatical faults as errors. They can be labeled "deviations" since they have a place to be. Grammar must consider the stylistics and duties of its subordinates in this scenario.

The vast majority of stylists believe that "... deviations from the norm cannot be regarded as mistakes" [2]. It is considered that the distinctive creative style of the author is often veiled in such aberrations based on the living processes of language. If such a deviation is frequently employed in various writers' distinct creative styles, it can gradually be characterized, obtaining the right to exist in the stylistics of the language, and later when forming specific and strong standards for the use of such deviations, and in the area of grammar. As a result, "it is difficult, and sometimes impossible, to draw a clear demacration line between grammatical and stylistic syntax".

Syntactic design necessitates a suitable interpretation; otherwise, the reception suffers. The use of inversion in a really creative work is always inspired by the objective of the utterance.

Mr. Micawber's talent is capital. Mr. Macawber's (Dickens') inputs of ability and finance come first. Interesting points are observed here in terms of the relationship between the given and the reported: if we compare this word order to the traditional one, then the subject (Mr. Macawber) is the data (give); additions (talent, capital), and the predicate has and has not are the reported (new). Predicates frequently end up in an unstressed place in traditional word order and do not carry a logical phase. Additions have all of the power of logical allocation.

Everything new is reported in the inverted order of words, both the predicate and the complement: the additions because they are placed first, the predicate because it is emphasised as the final part of the utterance. This is especially obvious in poems when the predicate appears at the end of the line. Thus, not only are stylistically contrasted talent and capital highlighted, but also has and has not.

The basic stylistic function of inversion is generally evident by looking outside the sentence. In modern English, inversion can have many circumstances of sentence member placement. We shall utilize I.R.

Galerin's explanation of the ways to put the proposal's members [2]:

First: the addition is placed at the beginning of the sentence (see example)

Second: the definition follows the definable (postposition of definitions), for example: with fingers weary and worn (Th. Hood)

Third: a) the nominal part of the predicate stands before the subject: A good generous prayer it was (Twain)

b) the nominal part of the predicate is in front of the bundle, and both of them- before the subject: Rude am I in my speech (Shakespeare)

Fourth: the adverbial modifier is in front of the appropriate sentence: Eagerly I wished the morrow (Poe) My dearest daughter at your feet I fall. (Dryden)

Fifth: the circumstance and predicate stand before the subject of the sentence: In went Mr. Pickwick (Dickens) Down dropped the breeze. (Coleridge)

All the above cases of inversion in English can perform its various functions.

In the above examples, inversion, firstly, performs a grammatical function, since it violates the "neutral" structure of the language. Grammar considers these cases of "unusual" arrangement of the members of the English sentence, that is, it registers these "deviations", describes which "unusual" member of the sentence stands in what "unusual" place compared to the rules of the arrangement of the members of the sentence in English grammar. As we mentioned above, such grammatical "deviations" cannot be called errors. Grammar is designed only to fix them, describe and call the positions of the members of the sentence grammatical definitions.

When changing the "habitual, correct" (that is, grammatical) structure of the word order, the perceiving party (addressee, listener) receives a signal, he highlights this utterance or sentence, since it is different, issued from a number of homogeneous, "gray" utterances. That is, the inversion begins to perform other functions peculiar to it.

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Estimation Through Interpretation of Anthropocentric Linguistics

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Abstract
The article delves deeply into the intricate analysis of estimative classifications, elucidating their role as subjective representations that encapsulate the essence and significance of objects and phenomena within our surrounding world. Through a comprehensive exploration, it sheds light on the nuanced mechanisms and intricate frameworks that underlie the formation of these classifications. Furthermore, it probes into the interplay between subjectivity and objectivity, unveiling the ways in which these classifications serve as a lens through which we interpret and attribute meaning to the complex facets of our environment. The study offers profound insights into the cognitive processes involved in constructing these estimative classifications, highlighting their profound impact on our perception, cognition, and understanding of the world around us.
Key Words: *anthropocentric linguistics, axiology, estimation, linguaculturology, system of values, estimative component.*

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Analysis of scientific literature shows the diversity of approaches to the study of the notions of value and estimation that are key points for axiology.

Lingua-axiology is rather young but precipitously developing sphere that combines theoretical and methodological achievements of axiology as a general study about values and linguistic approaches to the comprehension of purports and their linguistic explication – estimations. Terminological point of lingua-axiology is still demanding additional comments.

One of the key points of axiology is an issue of determination and classification of values. Different approaches to the description of values showed that none of the differential features nor classification of them can be exhaustive as the notion of value is rather subjective and historically changeable.

Estimation was of interest both for philosophy, logics and linguistics. The full description of the values system as well as stratification of purports breeds difficulties. The classification of Arutyunova N. is more demanded as she managed to reflect interconnection of estimation and values. The means of expression of estimation is found at all levels of language system that also mists the creation of full description of linguistic estimation. The matter about the place of estimative component in lexical meaning of the word and its correlation with connotation is rather disputable. We suppose that estimation can be found both in significative and connotative components of the word.

Analysis of historical, explanatory and ideographic dictionaries showed that reflection of estimation in lexicographic practice also runs into certain problems as insufficient elaboration of estimative system and the absence of a single methodology of determination of emotionally estimative points.

The research of anthropocentric linguistics regards estimation through speaking subject's prism and considers it as multilevel comprehensive operation that reveals mechanisms of formation and verbalization of estimative utterances. Linguaculturology, regarding the language as cultural phenomenon, allows address to the comprehension of axiological dynamics of words.

Appealing to the subject of utterance signifies transition from analysis of word's stable meanings to the consideration of changeable content of the utterance. Researchers appeal to anthropological key point of estimation category, studying it from positions of cognitive linguistics, psycholinguistics, linguaculturology and socio-pragmatics.

In cognitive investigations, the main interest while studying estimation belong to mechanisms that form estimative meanings, their perception and assimilation. Cognitive analysis of the estimation can be based on the theory of frame, theory of prototype by E. Roche, theory of conceptual metaphor of J. Lakoff and M. Johnson that is widely used during the investigation of axiology of variable discourse. A.N. Baranov distinguishes in the process of estimation such comprehensive operations as the choice of estimation object, the choice of estimation feature, juxtaposition of estimation subject to estimative feature, adscription the feature of meaning to the object that is under estimation.

Psycholinguistic analysis of estimation category, based on, firstly, linguistic data of informants, is directed to the investigation of perception and formation of estimative meanings in correlation with the means of expression of estimation in language and speech. The purpose of this direction of investigations is the description of transition mechanism of estimative meaning from “associated verbal net as a form of saving linguistic meanings to the external verbalization”.

Linguaculturological approach signifies not only the notion of estimative meaning but appeals to the estimative categories as well. Yu. Salnikova distinguishes two directions of linguaculturological investigations – from language unit to the unit of the culture and vice versa. It is linguaculturological approach to interaction of estimative categories that seems to be more perspective for description of axiological dynamics.

Classification of values is natural basis for building estimative classification, explicating values in the language. The complex of valuable representations and estimative operations that are put on the utterance, is imaginary called by N. Arutyunova “a light-shadow net that catches and distributes everything existing”.

Emphasizing personal, subjective preferences of a person in his interaction with surrounding world and other individuums, general meaning of value is formulated as “one of the forms of reality reflection in human consciousness through the prism of his interests, needs, wishes, his attitude towards matter under description” [Kremich, 1986: 19].

The cognitive nature of this action is underlined in various determinations of value and there is a certain connection between estimation of linguistic and non-linguistic behavior of the speaker that breeds the matter of the estimation basis.

Estimation is a subjective expression of objects’ relevance and phenomenon of surrounding world for our life and activity and can be regarded as “means of determination of significance of anything for acting and cognizing subject”.

In logics estimation is described by four key points: subject, object, basis and character. The same principal of detailed analysis of estimative act is used in linguistics. Subject of the estimation is a person (or socium), that determines the value of any object by expressing purport. Object of the estimation – is phenomenon that belong to value or anti value. Basis of estimation – is the motivation of the purport or estimative feature from the point of view of which estimation is done. There are external and internal bases of estimation. Internal ones are oriented on emotional sphere of the speaker: his positive and negative emotions, feelings connected with psycho sphere of sympathies and antipathies. External bases of estimation reflect cognitive sphere of a speaker: knowledge of the subject that is formed by the attitude towards mental and social reality surrounding a person. Character of the estimation – is value confession of the object of estimation.

Polemical is the question about correlation of rational and emotional types of estimation. V. Teliya analyzes in detail the approaches to this matter formed in linguistics and determines:

- emotivism, according to which emotional side of the speech is on the first place, and rational side is on the second one;
- priority of rational estimation over emotional one. The priority is shown by the any estimation – as the result of intellectual activity. Emotional estimation is regarded as a kind of psychological or as a feature of rational estimation, actualized in speech;
- interaction of rational and emotional estimation in ontology with their clear separation in speech. Rational estimation – is the assertion of value and objectivity, and emotional one is a stimulant that is inclined into the word, phraseologism or text.

Classifications of the estimations as well as the classifications of purports are variable. There is general and individual estimation. General estimation informs holistic, generalized opinion about object, combining its various attributes and characteristics, collating it to a certain standard, ideal, presentation of rate. General estimative meanings are realized by the pair that includes general axiological axis and expresses "axiological result" – antithesis good – bad. The space between estimative opposite points is filled with synonyms of axiological pair with different stylistic and expressive shades. Yu. Salnikova calls general estimation axiological, adding to it such features as subjectivity, relativity and non-stability that can characterize purports as well. Such approach deletes the border between value and estimation.

Individual estimation belongs to separate sides and characteristics of the object and is more subjective in comparison with the general one. N. Arutyunova proposes to distinguish the following types of individual estimative meanings:

- sensory-gustatory;
- psychological, divided into intellectual and emotional estimations;
- aesthetic;
- ethic;
- utilitarian;
- normative;
- teleological.

Considering the classification proposed by N. Arutyunova, T. Vendina distinguishes the following kinds of estimation dependent on the stages of estimative object perception:

1. Affective estimation – the reflection of sensual stage of object perception and phenomenon of external world. They are divided into dependent on receptors eyesight, hearing, scent, touch, taste; some others are based on temperature feelings and gravitation.
2. Cognitive estimation, reflecting comprehension of estimation by the possibilities of the mind. There are rationalist and psychological kinds of estimation among them. Psychological estimation is divided into emotional and intellectual estimations.
3. Absolute estimations – the variety of estimations that interprets

the feelings of beautiful and ethical feelings of the subject. There are also aesthetical and ethical sublimate estimations.

We have to mention that the same notion can have the different value for various social groups. This difference can be seen at the level of estimative meanings in social varieties of the language and can be of great importance during linguistic description.

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The Importance of Neutrality in Linguistics

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Abstract

This article presents the first applications of the concept of neutrality in linguistics, as well as the opinions of a number of scientists on this issue. The importance of neutrality is evident at all language levels, with the exception of the differences between ambiguity and vagueness, as well as its distinctive features and are identified by examples.

Key Words: *neutrality, vagueness, ambiguity, pragmatics, lexical ambiguity, interdeminacy ambiguity.*

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Introduction. In all languages, certain polysemantic means, some grammatical categories, can cause some (for the listener, reader) ambiguity or unknowns in the use of lexical units in communication, text. There are also different approaches, methods regarding the research and analysis of such linguistic tools. In studies on the ambiguity highlighted, we mainly witness the appeal to the terms (belonging to the English language) vagueness as well as ambiguity. However, P.N. Whitman's research, these concepts began to be studied within the term neutrality [1].

Literature analysis. It is conspicuous that the use of the term neutrality is more expedient than terms such as vagueness or ambiguity. In the concepts of causality, ambiguity (ambiguity) or vagueness (anonymity), ambiguity is evaluated from a more logical point of view. And the concept of neutrality can be the most acceptable term here. Because the term covers not only the meaning content, property of the lexical unit, but also grammatical categorical characters, paralinguistic means, cognitive activity, pragmalinguistic means as well as semantic properties. In particular, Lascarides argues that the ambiguity is that properties associated with ambiguity are related to pragmatic means [2].

Lascarides notes that a given sentence may remain ambiguous even though it has its own intonational sound characteristics [2]. In the following sentence, two iterations of one lexical unit may also preserve ambiguity. It may not be neutrality or ambiguity when only additional lexical means are well-defined. In particular, looking at the examples of who went to a bank and Robin went to a bank here, the lexical unit of the bank has meant neutrality, despite the fact that it is repeated twice. An example is a banking unit evaluated as neutrality while clarification of the lexical meaning of this unit is required to be clarified through pragmatic content, or it becomes clear that clarification can only be made by considering it within a pragmatic framework.

Research methodology. In different languages there are many lexical units that are identical from a homonymic or homophonic point of view but that mean different meanings in terms of meaning. There have been analyses of lexical units of this kind from a linguistic point of view. In particular, we have touched above on the fact that in English the use of terms such as ambiguity (ambiguity), vagueness (ambiguity) has become widespread, depending on the use of such lexical units in a small context. In particular, Zwitski and Sadok prefer the term lexical ambiguity i.e. lexical ambiguity when applying such terms [3]. The question may arise as to why linguists have encouraged these units to abandon homophonic or homonymous units used in traditional linguistics or to apply terms such as new ambiguity, vagueness i.e. ambiguity, obscurity to them if not.

The use of homonym or homophone in traditional linguistics is evaluated from a more phonetic point of view. That is why Kempson considers it inappropriate to use terms such as homonym or homophones in relation to lexical units with the same pronunciation and shape, meaning that they are not attached to one another [3].

Zwitski and Sadok offer their own feedback on lexical events with different content but with two one-form representations. They come to the reasoning that the use of interdeminacy ambiguity pronouns is related to the speech situation [3]. In this context, a particular lexical unit noted offers the term neutrality in relation to them, expressing them in different field-specific meanings. It is known that in terms of the ambiguity that lexical units with the same phonemic and orthographic form, which represent several meanings belonging to different areas, mean when, applied in a certain small context, the term neutrality seems to be purposeful.

Analysis and results. Neutrality is also relatively expressed in cases where it is not known whether the uncertainty that arises in a given context or what content, meaning, or form is addressed. For example, it may be unclear whether the English lexical unit "teacher" refers to a male or female individual. From this point of view, the presence of lexical neutrality is visible in this case. Similarly, it is argued that the English-language banking lexical unit can express a similar meaning of neutrality or vagueness obscurity. For example, if we take the sentence She went to the bank, then it will have uncertainty or obscurity that the coast is a seaside destination or that it has gone to the part of a financial institution. However, in this situation, the term neutrality seems more acceptable than the use of the term uncertainty or anonymity. Reason, uncertainty or anonymity cover logic rather than linguistically.

Neutrality expressed in a language like this is considered to be related to cognitive activity at the same time that lexical units have immediate semantic, epstemic properties. General uncertainty, anonymity (ambiguity, vaguness), linguistic features of the concepts of neutrality activation in the language comparative studies in the framework of different languages J.Park, R.Deyets,.T. Williamson, P. Egre, a number of linguistic scholars, have found their place in theories. In the beginning of our century, comprehensive studies began to be carried out, comparing the features of neutrality in the language on the example of different languages. Of course the basis of such research, as we noted above, was proposed by the likes of Zwitski and Sadok [3] in the 70s of the last century. Later, Nicholas argues that uncertainty constitutes a vague logical idea or thought based on uncertainty, anonymity (ambiguity, vaguness) [4].

The linguistic theory of uncertainty or neutrality applies to the analysis of objects with a broader or shorter Unknown or uncertain emphasis in terms of degree of certain objects. The term neutrality, or vagueness, is usually only a study of uncertainty that occurs during a separate analysis process when a given noun category, cross section, or object is applied to a dependent count.

The ambiguity or neutrality characteristics found in lexical units like this are considered a characteristic of all languages. From this point of view, it is noticeable that the possibilities of studying this area from a typological point of view are wide.

Research is underway on the concepts of ambiguity uncertainty, vagueness uncertainty, and neutrality neutrality, which are widely emphasized in modern English Studies [5]. These researchers aim to identify differences between polysemantic properties of lexical units and uncertainty or neutrality. It is known that each language has many polysemantic units. The use of these polysemantic units within a given sentence or sentence in a small text may in some cases give ambiguity sometimes obscurity. Such cases have been considered by many linguists in the interpretation of certain lexical units [5]. But Arnold Zwitski and Jerrold Sadok have advanced opinions and considerations regarding the existence of ambiguity (ambiguity) in the English sentence system, i.e. syntactic relations as well. The authors note that ambiguity, the concept of ambiguity, is important in syntactic conjunctions. Certain sentences are considered ambiguity that is, what is meant or what is meant by the meaning that a certain syntactic form implies in this determination of the imperfection gives rise to clumsiness. Focusing on the analysis of the I don't think she bald gap for example the authors compare in this vague concepts such as It is not the care I think she is a bald or I think she is not bald. The interpretation of such statements can give rise to a diverse analysis of speech acts. Or if I don’t Why don’t you ask for help? as an example, Here Comes the concepts of you have to ask for help you are not to ask for help.

An objection to the “Ambiguity” analysis approach is that there is a question of linking each indefinite predicate in a language to a particular function that sorts a real number (the level of property control chosen by that predicate) to each object, and linking each indefinite sentence in a language. In this, an unthinkable or somehow ambiguous expression of the information conveyed may arise. In this case, the degree and ambiguity of truth, which means the sentence, are considered important [4].

In general, language is a human artifact. Sounds expressed by a person that is, native speakers understand what these sounds mean. It is considered a product of their native linguistic experience and knowledge. For example, if the word dog “has always been used where”, cat “was used, and vice versa”, dog “may actually mean” cat, or vice versa. Thus, differences are also observed in addition to the fact that there is an important relationship between meaning and the use of speech.

- All information about what the speaker actually says and writes, including event-events, is realized as a result of the consequences of events in the universe that surrounds him.

- The speaker uses all the information that he has the opportunity to speak and write under any circumstances.

It is common in the scientific literature to suggest that semantic expression is not primitive or finite [6]. Semantic expression always has signs that define a different meaning. There are also opinions that means determinants of actual use, opposite use, and use dispositions occur [7].

Thus, if this information is insufficient to determine the (individual) meanings of certain statements, then there may be considerations that these statements do not have (individual) meaning.

For example, Keefe and Smith argue that "predicates that produce neutrality are used to put a limit between situations that imply finite, ambiguous opposite meanings. In this regard, P.E. Klindinst argues that linguistic units are susceptible to paradoxes of meaning [8, 9]. The existence of these boundary States is a decisive criterion: "it becomes clear if the word describes a well-defined set of objects. Conversely, the inappropriate use of a word in relation to an object would be ambiguous" [10]. A simple example is, for example, the word "tall", which is used to refer to people, since tall people are considered a concept that distinguishes them from those who are not tall. The fact is that "high" applies to border situations (that is, people who may or may not be considered high). The use of a unit like this can also generate a certain uncertainty or neutrality interpretation. Because, the "high" tushincha is relatively evaluated. The meaning of "balanced person" is the presence of people of low stature in relation to that person reason this is used in this context. Also, the "high-rise building" is assessed by the presence of low or small buildings in relation to this building.

Conclusions. In general, when analyzing certain lexical units in a language, uncertainty or anonymity can be baratarafed using cognitive, pragmatic approaches.

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Using Information Technology in Enhancing of Students' Speech Competence

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Abstract
This article provides the features of the use of information technology in the perspective of the development of students' speech competence and gives several notions from prominent pedagogues who contributed in the sphere of pedagogy.
***Key Words:** information technology, vibrant, multimodal, personal orientation, autonomous, method.*

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Modern technologies, which are vital to every aspect of human existence and guarantee the global flow of information, have an impact on the evolution of civilization today. Society requires instructional action with fundamentally novel qualities. Information technology skills are now being developed in higher education since employers are looking for professionals who can use new technologies in their line of work. Information and communication technologies (ICTs) are widely used in English lectures, which has accelerated their integration into the curriculum and helped contemporary university classrooms.

Studies conducted both domestically and abroad have shown that one of the key components influencing how foreign language instruction is organized is the computerization of the educational process. This problem has not received enough attention in the field of teaching English as a second foreign language, despite the abundance of expertise that has previously been gained in computer learning.

The digitization of education, which is a system of integrated techniques, software, and hardware procedures for gathering, processing, storing, disseminating, and using information, is one of the top goals of the informatization of contemporary society.

Opportunities offered by information technology include:

1. Students' rational arrangement and cognitive engagement during the learning process;
2. Well-structured education that stimulates university students' senses in all directions and provides their minds with new conceptual multimedia skills;
3. Establishing an open educational framework and giving every individual a personalized learning path;
4. Including students in an active learning process while taking into account their unique learning preferences and skill levels;
5. The use of elements unique to computers that enable customization of the learning process, which translates into essentially new cognitive instruments;
6. All stages of the cognitive and educational process are activated [1].

Information technology is primarily useful for education because it makes it possible to construct incredibly vibrant, multimodal, interactive learning environments where instructors and students have access to nearly endless possibilities. In contrast to traditional technological learning aids, information technologies foster students' intellectual creativity, independent learning, and ability to work with a variety of information sources in addition to providing them with a wealth of knowledge.

The application of information technology in English language instruction is becoming more and more popular as a result of advancements in science and technology.

The primary goal of the educational process at this point in its development is to significantly raise student motivation and educational quality while also overcoming a number of cumulatively harmful phenomena. This can be accomplished by fusing traditional methods with the most recent advancements in science and technology. The notion of fostering university students' personal orientation and autonomous, creative thinking as part of the modernization of education is gaining more and more traction. This will help to reinforce the activity-based approach to learning.

Making sure that the educational process is effective is largely dependent on activation through the use of modern information technologies.

The following paradoxes necessitate the quest for new information technologies:

- motivating students and encouraging them to study;

- passive-contemplative and actively transformative learning activities;

- psychological comfort and discomfort;

- education and training;

- levels of learning and personal development;

- subject -subject and subject – object relations [2].

In relation to the student, the computer can perform many functions, as:

1. Teachers;
2. The expert;
3. Business Partner;
4. Operation tools.

Students can use information technology in various capacities and at different phases of their studies based on their own needs. Computers are frequently utilized in offline language learning to close knowledge gaps for students who are falling behind during homework and individual work because of the teaching function's capabilities. Training computer programs created especially for educational reasons are employed in these situations.

Apart from the matter of education becoming digitalized, there are other significant concerns such instructors' information literacy, their preparedness to employ technology in the classroom, university infrastructure, and so on. Therefore, it is already evident that the rate at which information technologies are developing much outpaces the investigation and analysis of issues pertaining to their use [3].

Modern English teaching techniques are based on the communicative approach, which puts the student at the center of the learning process and makes every effort to take into account the psychological, age, and national characteristics as well as the interests of the student. This approach is used throughout the world, but it is especially prevalent in Uzbekistan.

The communicative approach is a deliberate method of teaching English that helps students acquire the language necessary to generate speech utterances as well as the ability to perceive and comprehend foreign speech semantically. According to Galskova N.D.'s writings, the methods in which educational activities and interactions between students and instructors are planned serve as the cornerstone of the communicative approach [4].

The capacity to employ linguistic material to produce spoken utterances, as well as the formation of semantic perception and comprehension of foreign speech, are formed through the communicative method, according to Golub L.N.'s hypothesis [5].

The communicative approach emphasizes communicative learning, which suggests that language is a tool for communication in everyday contexts. This entails developing one's ability to communicate both orally and in writing, interacting with others, and refining one's conversation and monologue.

Students should be able to generate scenarios in the classroom that they could come across in real life, such as talks on intellectual subjects, casual chats in stores, or typical job scenarios. Students should debate current events and themes and voice their ideas in casual discourse [6].

Following a review of scientific literature, it can be said that communicative competence—which includes the following elements—plays a significant part in the development of speech abilities.

1. Usage (the manner, person, and occasion in which language is employed for diverse goals and activities);
2. Context (awareness of the distinctions between written and spoken communication, official and informal speech);
3. Written language (reading and comprehending narratives, conversations, interviews, and reports, among other written materials);
4. Carrying on a dialogue despite having a restricted vocabulary and grammatical foundation.

From the foregoing, it can be seen that the subject-subject system, in which the student is the active subject of educational activity and the instructor leads the process, is at the core of communicative foreign language instruction. It's also important to remember that the communicative approach views teaching communicative competence-that is, the capacity to utilize language for productive communication-as one of its main objectives.

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The Role of Irony in Main Characters' Speech of O'Henry's Stories

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Abstract
We can say that a literary text is rich in various means of expression, with the help of which the author builds images and concepts of what is being discussed in a work of art. The literary text has a high degree of emotionality. The author cannot only convey his own emotions, but also evoke them in readers. Artistic texts are also characterized by integrity. This means that the individual categories of the text are interconnected, they form an integral structure. In addition, a literary text should always have the main idea of the author. A literary text always has an addressee and carries specific information. It also plays an important role in the cultural context.
Key Words: *a stylistic device, lexical semantic means, zeugma, dramatic irony, situational irony, verbal irony.*

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Irony (Greek Eironeia - pretense, mockery) is a satirical technique in which words or expressions contain a mocking assessment of an object, phenomenon or person. A hallmark of irony is a double meaning, where it is not the directly expressed thought that is considered true, but the implied one. The greater the contradiction between them the stronger is the irony. However, not only the essence of the subject, but also its individual aspects can be ridiculed. In linguistics, irony is a fairly popular object of study, its pragmatic potential is known in terms of influencing and manipulating the reader [3, 315-317].

There are 4 types of means of expressing irony as a stylistic device. At the phonetic level, irony is most often found in oral speech. The speaker may change intonation or pause, emphasizing the most important part of the sentence. For example, in the work “Gifts of the Magi”, the announcer highlights the word that in order to focus the reader’s attention on the worthlessness of the amount – “One dollar and eighty-seven cents. That was all” [4].

In the story "The Last Leaf", the announcer emphasizes the word colony, ridiculing the process of creating the so-called colony.

“So, to quaint old Greenwich Village the art people soon came prowling, hunting for north windows and eighteenth-century gables and Dutch attics and low rents. Then, they imported some pewter mugs and a chafing dish or two from Sixth Avenue, and became a colony"[5].

At the morphological level, the use of plural nouns or superlatives of adjectives is highlighted to create irony. In the story "Duel" the author uses an oxymoron, brilliantly showing the various facets of New York life.

«It has the poorest millionaires, the littlest great men, the haughtiest beggars, the plainest beauties, the lowest skyscrapers, the dolefulest pleasures of any town I ever saw»[5].

In the work “Gifts of the Magi”, the author depicts the humour of the situation with the help of the most unwisely.

“And here I have lamely related to you the uneventful chronicle of two foolish children in a flat who most unwisely sacrificed for each other the greatest treasures of their house” [4].

Lexical semantic means are distinguished for creating irony at the lexical level. They are the use of proper names, antithesis, homonymy, polysemy, ironic word formation, affixation and paradoxical word formation. In the story "The Leader of the Redskins", the play on words helps to achieve an ironic atmosphere by replacing the welter-weight champion with a welter-weight cinnamon bear.

“That boy put up a fight like a welter-weight cinnamon bear; but, at last, we got him down in the bottom of the buggy and drove away” [5].

O. Henry also often used antiphrasis (the use of a phrase or word in the opposite sense). For example, in the work "Peaches" the hero ironically calls a fight with a heavy opponent "a little quarrel".

“Say, sport, I wish you'd size up this rib of mine and see if it's broke. I was in a little scrap and bumped down a flight or two of stairs” [5].

In his works, we can also find polysemy. For example, in the short story "The Pharaoh and the Choral", the word "hand" appears in the text a few times, but has different semantic meanings and refers to different parts of speech.

1) "…and when Soapy moves uneasily on his bench in the park, you may know that winter is near at hand" (as a description of the imminent onset of winter).

2) "At the corners of four streets he hands his pasteboard to the North Wind…" (as the verb "transfer").

3) "If not in coin you must pay in humiliation of spirit for every benefit received at the hands of philanthropy" (in direct meaning)

Understanding the polysemantic word "hand" allows the reader to feel the sarcastic atmosphere and at the same time appreciate O` Henry`s ironic writing style.

And, finally, the syntactic level consists of logical-syntactic means, or rather repetitions, rhetorical questions, introductory constructions, gradation, enumeration, and intonation graphic means (ellipsis and quotation marks). In the story "The Pharaoh and the Choral", the irony over the hero's dream (to go to prison) is achieved through the use of rhetorical questions.

"Well, why don't you call a policeman? I took it. Your umbrella! Why don't you call a cop? There stands one on the corner" [5].

In the work "The Last Leaf" irony is demonstrated in the repetition of the characters' questions with an interrogative intonation. The doctor thinks drawing is stupid, and Sue thinks men.

"Has she anything on her mind?"

"She - she wanted to paint the Bay of Naples someday," said Sue.

"Paint? - bosh! Has she anything on her mind worth thinking twice - a man for instance?"

"A man?" said Sue, with a jew's-harp twang in her voice. "Is a man worth - but, no, doctor; there is nothing of the kind" [5].

In the same story, O. Henry uses zeugma as an expression of the author's irony towards his characters.

"So, to quaint old Greenwich Village the art people soon came prowling, hunting for north windows and eighteenth-century gables and Dutch attics and low rents" [5].

"They had met at the table of an Eighth Street "Delmonico's," and found their tastes in art, chicory salad and bishop sleeves so congenial that the joint studio resulted" [5].

There are three different types of irony.

1. Dramatic irony

Dramatic irony is a graceful literary device that became popular in Greek tragedy. One famous example of dramatic irony is Shakespeare's hit Othello. The audience knows that Othello's best friend Iago is a bad guy who wants to destroy Othello. The audience also knows that Desdemona was faithful. Othello knows neither. This means that the audience can feel some kind of imminent fireworks while poor Othello remains in the dark.

There are three stages of dramatic irony: installation, exploitation, and resolution. In Shakespeare's tragedy «Othello», the setting occurs when Iago convinces Othello that Desdemona is having an affair with the mysterious Cassio. Exploitation occurs when Iago puts Desdemona's handkerchief, Othello's gift, in Cassio's room. The resolution comes when Othello kills Desdemona after her friend Emilia says that Iago was kind [1, 101].

2. Situational irony

Situational irony is when the outcome of a situation is completely different from what people expect. This type of irony is a literary device with contradictions and contrasts. For example, in the book “The Wonderful Wizard of Oz”, all inhabitants of the Emerald City assume that the land Oz is powerful and impressive. However, Oz is the complete opposite.

3. Verbal irony

Verbal irony is when the speaker says something opposite to what he means. While this sounds like sarcasm, it's not exactly the same. People usually use sarcasm to attack something, but this is not always the case with irony [1, 101].

Alanis Morissette managed to insert one example of irony into her song. When the person whose plane is crashing says, "Well, isn't that cute," this is clearly in the form of verbal irony. In fact, he is not very happy that the plane is about to crash, so his statement is exactly the opposite of what he means. Unlike dramatic irony and situational irony, verbal irony is always a deliberate move by the speaker. A common example of verbal irony is when people say, “What a nice day!” when there is a thunderstorm outside [2, 133].

There are different types of stylistic devices in literature. The role of the translators is quite essential, and high demands are placed on them.

Emotional vocabulary is involved in the creation of the psychological nature of the main characters and embodies the positive and negative qualities of a character, contributing to positive or negative images. In general, emotional vocabulary performs several functions, the main of which is the creation of emotional content. The universal method of realizing the semantics of an artistic image lies in lexical, syntactic and stylistic devices.

Irony is a multifaceted and multifunctional phenomenon in linguistics, and its nature can be determined in specific situations, using the example of a single context. Modern linguistic science establishes the dialogical nature of irony and analyzes the relationship between the consciousness of the author and the addressee, as well as the subject of the ironic utterance. The starting position of most modern studies is the opinion that the very essence of ironic communication contains the need for active intellectual contact of its participants, and to explain the essence of irony, it is most important to pay attention to its iconic nature and paradox.

The main classifying feature of the linguistic means of expressing irony is their belonging to different levels of the linguistic structure. In this case, the appropriately organized context together with the communicative task determines the ironic semantic structure of the text. To express irony in the text, various linguistic means are used in accordance with the language levels like phonetics, vocabulary, morphology and syntax. The main feature of irony is to indicate a humorous attitude of the reported facts and phenomena.

The interpretation of irony as a complex phenomenon of culture, a philosophical and aesthetic category that serves to reveal the value meaning of objects and phenomena of the surrounding world, made it possible to consider it as a form of the comic, as a way of perceiving the world.

Thus, we can conclude that the mastery of the language and the skillful use of irony allows O. Henry satirically show the desires and problems of people in his works, focusing on more important things such as true love, the purpose of a person, family relationships and many others. As a stylistic device irony gives lightness and unobtrusiveness, it creates the feeling that the author is laughing at the characters and, of course, thanks to this device, reading is much more interesting, which is why many authors do not bypass this stylistic device. And as for our daily life, we use irony just as often, even in the most ordinary conversations.

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Particular Aspects of Teaching Polysemy Among Senior High School Students

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Abstract
One of the most important things to teach in elementary school is speech development. Speech serves as a means of understanding reality and serves as a vehicle for interpersonal impact, emotional self-expression, and communication. The growth of a student's speech helps to shape their thinking. The author of this article outlines a few potential approaches for educating senior students about polysemy.
Key Words: *polysemy, polysemantic words, phraseological units, active vocabulary, metaphor.*

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Introduction

The expansion of vocabulary is one approach to the development of schoolchildren's speech. The process of incorporating new words into pupils' vocabulary and giving already-existing terms new meanings is known as dictionary enrichment. The research on the word's polysemy is quite interesting in this context. Although polysemy of words is something that schoolchildren continuously experience, they are not always aware of it. Students in secondary schools lack the knowledge of how to apply the various meanings of polysemantic terms.

Students in schools frequently encounter word polysemy, albeit they are not necessarily aware of it. When reading the texts of the numerous stories, students experience this phenomenon for the first time even throughout the literacy stage.

During this time, the primary focus on ambiguity is word analysis and meaning distinction from the read text. Additionally, though, certain workouts must be performed. Next, the work plans of the educational methodological complex—which guide the way this class teaches English—are followed while working with polysemous terms. The development of pertinent notions is just a preliminary step, and secondary education realistically does not provide theoretical material on ambiguity.

Methodology

One of the focuses of vocabulary practice is multivalued vocabulary, with the ultimate goal being to increase students' vocabulary. The methodology of speech development at the lexical level, as described by T. G. Ramzayeva and M. R. Lvov, offers the following three main directions for determining the methodology of working on polysemous words in secondary school: dictionary enrichment, dictionary refinement, and dictionary activation [5].

Let's take a closer look at the primary goals of vocabulary instruction in secondary education, which are relevant to helping younger students understand the fundamentals of the polysemy phenomena.

1. Vocabulary enrichment enables students to learn new terms that they were not previously familiar with as well as new definitions for words that they already knew. The learner's vocabulary is expanded by four to six new lexical units every day in order to do this.

Increasing pupils' vocabulary is crucial for the development of their speech. Since the dictionary is one of the pillars of the language, N. S. Rozhdestvensky notes that one cannot learn a language without having an adequate vocabulary [6]. As a result, it's critical to spark students' interest in a particular term by developing ongoing dictionary use. Studying the word's history, structure, pronunciation, spelling, and—above all—meaning is essential. It is important to demonstrate to children how a word functions and evolves within the framework of phrases, sentences, and short texts; link a term to a particular speaking scenario [1]. Without a doubt, games may be helpful in expanding secondary school students' vocabulary. Playing word games helps students hone their language skills and gets them ready to understand poetic forms. Since many proverbs and sayings contain metaphorical language, they are also frequently used to help pupils whose vocabulary is confusing by expanding their vocabulary.

Fictional works, instructional book texts, media, and remarks from parents, instructors, and peers are the primary sources of the dictionary's enrichment and enhancement. The work of expanding a language's vocabulary cannot be limited to adding individual words and phrases to the vocabulary of secondary school students since a language's vocabulary is not a mechanical collection of individual terms. Thus, improving the lexicon is the next area of work to be done on the evolution of speech.

2. The goal of dictionary refining is to improve the dictionary's correctness, expressiveness, and flexibility through stylistic effort. This activity includes the following: incorporating words into their context; comparing and contrasting words with one another; assimilating words' lexical compatibility, including in phraseological units; assimilating words' allegorical meanings; and polysemy [4].

The following methods can be used to understand a word's meaning: visual, contextual, synonym substitution, antonym selection, logical definition, in-depth explanation, examination of the word's morphological structure, and word creation [3]. Context is the greatest translator of the meanings of polysemous words. It is no accident that elucidating dictionaries include quotes-illustrations that show how words are compatible and trace both their primary and secondary meanings. Because semantic definitions play a crucial role in elucidating the meaning of polysemous words, exercises focused on analyzing definitions of multiple meanings in an explanatory dictionary and exercises requiring independent search for differences between multiple meanings of a single word are essential when studying polysemicity.

The methodology of teaching the foreign language employs a variety of techniques to address word meaning, including word-formation analysis, word comparisons to highlight differences, context-based explanations of meaning, definitions derived from dictionaries, demonstrations of objects or actions that serve as the foundation for in-depth descriptions, and the creation of logical definitions. Using every strategy gives you a range of work and enables you to insert a new term in the most sensible way possible for this specific situation.

Consistent, continuous, lesson-planned work on the term's lexical meaning and dictionary activation is required for the word to become part of the child's active vocabulary.

3. The process of dictionary activation involves moving as many words as possible from secondary school students' passive to active vocabularies. Secondary school students have more perfect active vocabulary—vocabulary that they employ in their own speech. Work on vocabulary aims to educate students how to use words wisely and correctly

by activating as many terms as possible.

The job of the secondary school teacher is to assist pupils in mastering the range and compatibility of passive word usage so that the terms may be included into the child's active vocabulary.

When a student uses a term in free speech—that is, when they use it without a teacher's permission—in retellings, tales, essays, and other contexts, it is deemed activated [3]. The method offers the following kinds of activities to help students engage polysemous terms in their dictionaries:

- using polysemous words to form phrases. Word compatibility, or the traditional relationships between words, are fixed in the phrase; - creating sentences using a word with several meanings; - adding a new term that the kids have created to the context; etc.

Hence, the process of working on a polysemous word in a dictionary involves making the word a schoolboy by: - accurately perceiving it in the text; - understanding it in all of its nuances; - learning it so that it would be added to his dictionary; - reproducing it in their own statements in the appropriate situations (activated).

One of the most crucial aspects of vocabulary work in foreign language classes is dictionary activation. For this reason, teachers should assign specific activation tasks on a daily basis, following a systematic approach, based on the texts being read, on observations, and on the words that have been worked on to enhance students' comprehension.

There is continual interaction between all of these dictionary-related fields of work. In secondary grades, these vocabulary-building activities are only feasible when approached practically, mostly through text analysis, without the need for theoretical background or, often, term devoid instruction.

Working with dictionaries is one of the key strategies for helping primary school pupils improve their oral and written language abilities. The level of speech development of secondary school students can be raised by significantly enhancing their vocabulary via the systematic usage of various types of dictionaries in the classroom. For students to begin mastering their native language's vocabulary at the very beginning, they must learn to rely on the dictionary, create opportunities for them to look up a word's lexical meaning in the classroom, and use situations that come up on their own to analyze unfamiliar words in textbooks or other literature. Students should be able to use dictionaries, understand their purpose, and know how to locate the correct term in them while working through an assignment.

The idea of polysemy, the structure of dictionary entries in an explanatory dictionary, the relationship between meanings in a polysemous word, the method for choosing synonyms and antonyms for different meanings of a polysemous word, the types of name transfers, and the distinction between a polysemous word and homonyms are among the points raised by E.I. Arkhipova [2].

Schoolchildren must be taught to the various forms of transfer (metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche, and functional transfer of meaning) in order for them to comprehend the phenomena of polysemy more accurately. Because of the typical similarity of abstract notions (a person runs - time runs, icy hands - a cold heart), pupils do not instantly comprehend the metaphor. A useful strategy that makes this kind of transfer easier to absorb is a thorough analogy (clouds float as smoothly as ducks). The metonymic kind of transfer is more challenging for students to comprehend, even though in practice they utilize examples often (a bouquet of cherry blossoms, juicy raspberries, etc.). Students discover the links in the transfer via adjacency: the subject and what (or who) is on it (a tall pear is a ripe pear), the topic and what is in it (a silver dish is a wonderful dish), etc. Younger students find it challenging to acquire the common in instances mentioning work and outcome (making lovely needlework, learning at school - instruction came in helpful).

Conclusion

As a result, while dealing with primary school pupils, it's important to employ a variety of techniques to expand, make sense of, and activate their vocabulary-including multivalued vocabulary.

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"Homework Online" As an Innovative Technology of Teaching a Foreign Language

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Abstract
The article raises the problem of reducing the performance of homework in a foreign language, as one of the main ways to consolidate the material obtained in a practical lesson, control and self-control. With the help of an Internet service Learningapps.org the author suggests an experiment on the topic "Homework online" with a group of students; which contributed to the popularization of homework among pupils, increased the percentage of knowledge quality and developed the skill of working with information.
Key Words: *Internet service; homework online; Learning apps.*

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It is difficult to argue with the fact that homework is a necessary element of the educational process, especially in a foreign language, as it helps the student to strengthen the acquired knowledge and is a powerful tool for control and self-control.

But, unfortunately, the role of homework has declined significantly over the past decades, and at the moment many students do not have the proper motivation to do it. It is often easier for students to use ready-made banks of credits or to write off from their classmates, which leads to a loss of the importance of homework in the educational process.

The new generation, the children of the digital age, want the school to speak the same language with them and digital technologies are one of the ways of communication. In this regard, one of the main reasons for children's lack of motivation for homework is the retrograde ways of doing it. I conducted a survey among students from 2nd to 10th grade; they were offered-it was necessary to answer the question: would it be interesting for them to receive homework online, through some network resources. The expected result was the overwhelming prevalence of the supporters of this idea, which prompted me to conduct an experiment on the introduction of online homework in a foreign language using an Internet service.

To implement the experiment, the following preliminary stages were worked out:

- analysis of thematic planning for which internet services will be used;
- planning of universal educational activities of students;
- formation of goals for the use of network services (study of new material, consolidation, generalization of material, control);
- analysis and selection of effective types of Internet services;
- creating tasks for students to practice on the service and step-by-step instruction for working with it on the YouTube video hosting;
- the introduction of Internet services into educational activities as a testing material in the classroom to familiarize students with the service itself and how to work with it;
- experimental implementation as a home assignment;

The ultimate goal of this experiment was to introduce online homework as a permanent element of the educational system in foreign language lessons.

Currently, without the use of information technologies, it is difficult to imagine the effective activity of a teacher. One of the resources that the Internet provides us is the use of Internet services that enable teachers to develop not only various tasks and develop cognitive interest in the subject, but also to implement the principle of student activity in the learning process, which was and remains one of the main ones in didactics [1, p. 21].

After analyzing the Internet resources recommended for training, I chose an Internet service Learningapps.org.

This service was created to support the educational process using interactive applications. The use of the service does not provide for any collection of funds. There is a wide selection of ready-made tasks of the right subject for any subject. The service also provides an opportunity to share the finished product via social networks, web links and QR codes. The service is available from any gadgets that have access to the Internet [3].

Also, this service contributes to the implementation of the following modern educational technologies:

1. Multi-level training that allows you to help a weak student and pay attention to a strong one. At the same time, strong students are confirmed in their abilities, and weak ones get the opportunity to experience academic success. The level of motivation for learning increases.
2. Information and computer technologies, which allow a person to adapt more successfully and faster to the environment and the ongoing social changes, thereby respond to the demands of the information society.
3. A health-saving technology that, through the introduction of interactive, ensures the physical and psychological well-being of students.
4. Game methods that broaden horizons, develop cognitive activity, form certain skills and abilities necessary in practical activity [2, p. 9].

All exercise templates of the service LearningApps.org conditionally divided into 5 categories:

1. Choice.
2. Distribution.
3. Sequence.
4. Completion.
5. Online games.

How can we use them in a foreign language lesson? In fact, everything is limited only by your imagination.

For example, to memorize new words, you can use the game "Find a pair", "Crossword Puzzle", "Find a word", while practicing spelling skills and computer keyboard skills.

When teaching English, we meet with various types of activities, one of which is working with tech. Let's take an example: homework includes reading and translating a text, and the teacher plans to bring students to a brief retelling of this material, while the vocabulary of this text is already familiar to students. In this case, the following work option may be offered: the teacher prepares the game "Make a sequence" in advance, where the text is simplified to simple sentences that are entered into the allotted cells. I would like to note that this study of the text makes it much easier for students to remember the use of the vocabulary in the context, students' confidence in retelling the text increases and they cope quite easilythis task, as well as writing your own story on the model.

The use of various quizzes very well trains grammatical skill and the skill of working with text. And with the help of the "audio\video content" template, students practice listening and speaking skills.

The service is interesting not only by using different templates, various types of intelligent interactive tasks, but also by the fact that you can create an account for each of your students, where they can independently train the materials of the lesson they have passed, as well as participate in the educational process as consumers and developers. With the help of this service, it is possible to organize a project activity where students can create their own applications on a certain topic, thereby developing their creative potential [3].

The teacher, in turn, has the opportunity to monitor the activity of students on the service and monitor the completion of tasks using summary tables in his personal account. There is also an opportunity for reflection, with the help of a local chat service, where students can discuss certain tasks, both with the teacher and among themselves.

Thus, having completed all the preparatory work, I started experimental activities.

The experiment lasted for a month. I selected children from the same parallel with approximately equal cognitive abilities and divided them into an experimental (group№ 1) and the control (group №. 2) group, where the children of group № 1 received homework via an Internet resource, and the children of group № 2 did it in workbooks. The students reacted responsibly to the experiment and actively participated in it. Based on the results of the topic, a test was written. After the analysis of the work, the following results were established. The percentage of the quality of the learned material in the module of group № 1 was 70%, when as in the control group only 40%. These results proved that online homework has a positive effect on the level of students' knowledge.

At the end of the experiment, the children of group №1 asked for the continuation of homework in electronic form, and I, in turn, had the idea of introducing additional work via the Internet to group №2, and subsequently to other classes.

Of course, this project has its drawbacks:

– it takes a lot of time to compile tests, but this is a temporary phenomenon, because in the future they will not need to be compiled, since you will have your own development bank. You can also use the material of colleagues, but they do not always correspond to the topic of your lesson.

- the weakening of the skill of calligraphy, as students mainly use a computer to complete the task. But the main thing here is to understand that everything is good in symbiosis, and this service should be used with classical writing training in the classroom.

- no Internet connection or gadget. Unfortunately, in this case we are powerless, but there is always an alternative. This is doing homework in writing, and then completing its electronic counterpart in the lesson. In addition, the degree of informatization increases every year and should come to naught within a certain time. At the same time, this problem is not relevant in some schools right now.

Thus, analyzing all of the above, I made sure that by doing homework via the Internet, students spend less of their free time, they do it with pleasure, learn to work with information independently, develop self-control, get rid of the fear of mistakes, knowing that the test can be redone. I believe that the project "Homework Online" can radically change the attitude of students to homework, and also simplify the work of colleagues, so that they do not have to sit on dark nights with stacks of notebooks.

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The Concept of Incomplete Sentences and Their Types

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Abstract

This article deals with the general concept of incomplete sentences and its variants. In addition, author provides several feasible notions which might be helpful for researchers who make research in this field. Furthermore, it gives presuppositions from prominent linguists with their suggestions.

Key Words: *incomplete sentence, transitive, verbal, non-verbal, cognitive, categorization.*

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A statement containing syntactic positions that are not supported by the language is considered incomplete. It is evident from the speech circumstance or the context who the other officially organizing members-main or secondary-are wholly unnamed. The patterns of text formation have a direct bearing on how incomplete sentences operate.

In the lengthy history of language representation, incomplete sentences have evolved. In the 19th century, Meletius Smotritsky, the founder of 20th-century Russian linguistic notions [1], made the first reference of word deletion in a sentence in his work "Grammar" [2]. While examining incomplete sentences in scientific literature and textbooks, we have to acknowledge one thing: linguists who research this issue virtually universally describe and classify incomplete phrases in diverse ways and scientists have varied perspectives on this matter.

Therefore, incomplete sentences can be understood from the following perspectives: 1) formal and structural [N.I. Grech, A.M. Peshkovsky]; 2) cognitive [A.A. Shakhmatov]; and 3) structural and semantic [V.V. Babaytseva].

One of the leading authorities on logic and grammar, the philologist N.I. Grech, states in his writings that incomplete sentences are ones in which one or more of the sentence's major components are either suggested or left out [3]. Main (subject, predicate, and copula) and secondary (definition and complement) components are included in simple sentences, according to him. And most of these sections are left out of the sentence: 1. A collection of the verb "to be" in the present tense. For example, in the sentence "The rose is tender", the bundle "is" is omitted; 2. the subject. In the sentence "We wish you well", the subject "we" is omitted. Or in the case when the noun is omitted with an adjective, which completely and completely replaces it. For example, "Rich (people) do not always understand the need of poor (people)". So is the personal pronoun: "Give (you) me a drink", "Do (you) want to walk", "From Paris (all / many) write about it"; 3) predicate. In the dialogue "— Who is returned? — John" the predicate "returned" was omitted [3].

According to A.M. Peshkovsky, it means that one or more elements are lacking as compared to the sentence constructs that have been examined thus far [4]. In other words, the formal construction of the statement largely determines how incomplete it is. Such sentences are devoid of secondary components in addition to the primary (subject, predicate, or both). When a transitive verb is used in the transitive meaning, for instance, its case is not governed by it. That is, no addition has been made. Whom or what is not included to the sentence "He killed". Furthermore, stationary incomplete sentences-which, in their entire form, are either exceedingly rare or, in any case, less common than in incomplete form-were also recognized by A.M. Peshkovsky. Such as "What's wrong with you?", (in the sense of "does she feel unwell?"); all kinds of wishes: "Good night!", "Good health!"; congratulations: "Happy New Year!", "Happy arrival!" etc. The description of such sentences belongs more to the field of phraseology than to syntax.

Additionally, A.M. Peshkovsky highlights the fact that both common and uncommon verbal and non-verbal statements might be incomplete. For example, in the sentence “He gave”, the transitive verb “to give” requires a direct complement. But in this sentence, where only the subject and predicate are present, the complement is not specified; therefore an incomplete non-extended sentence arises. Or in the highlighted part of the following sentence, “I provide you with white bread, Mr. Green, there are guests, and I eat my black bread”. Here, without taking into account the context, the adjective “black” is not a generally understandable substitute for a noun. But in the context, we understand that “black” means “black bread”. There are both main and secondary members in this proposal, so we have an incomplete distributed proposal in front of us. Verbal and non-verbal sentences include sentences such as the infinitive incomplete sentence “pour water into a glass... There will be three drops…- Charles” or a nominative incomplete sentence, for example, in the inscriptions on boxes of chocolates “chocolate, rum, milk”. The meaning of this sentence becomes clear only in a certain context or situation. Examples of personal and impersonal verbal sentences can be traced in the sentence “Not enough”, which requires the genitive case, and in the sentence “Can't sleep”, which requires the dative case [4].

A.M. Peshkovsky provides the following in addition to the frequently cited facts (which depend on the context (previous or subsequent)) and are replaced with authentic representations from the speech environment of the speakers' prior general experience) when it comes to filling in the meaning of the missing portions: 1) Take a term from its definition in a dictionary rather than from the speech's context or environment. So, in the sentence “Harry mounted a horse: put his foot in the stirrup, and the horse reared up”. (“Woe from wit”) the verbs of the highlighted part are borrowed from the dictionary meanings of words of the same phrases (“foot in the stirrup” determines the insertion, inserted); 2) borrow a word from intonation. In the sentence “Only be careful with him; he is a big-handed cheat”, the imperative mood “be careful) is omitted in the highlighted part” [4].

We believe that A.M. Peshkovsky's definition of incomplete sentences is more thorough than N.I. Grech's since he proposes highlighting stationary incomplete sentences in addition to considering the structural details of an incomplete phrase. N.I. Grech states that only the major components of an unfinished phrase can be disregarded while discussing its structural aspects. Furthermore, according to A.M. Peshkovsky, it affects both the primary and secondary components. Furthermore, A.M. Peshkovsky demonstrates the relationship-which is based on several criteria - between the various kinds of offers. According to him, incomplete sentences might be vocal or nonverbal, impersonal or personal, and frequent or uncommon. It's also crucial to remember that A.M. Peshkovsky uses tone and dictionary definitions in addition to context when filling in the blanks.

According to A.A. Shakhmatov, who examines sentences from a cognitive perspective, sentences are the only form that can accurately convey thought. He believes that a sentence may be deemed complete even if it has an imperfect structural form as long as it has a psychological subject and predicate. He separated the phrases into ones and twos parts based on this notion. Consequently, he concluded that a sentence is incomplete if it contains only one key phrase and leaves it out. For example, in an incomplete one-part definitely personal sentence "For your health!" the conjugated verb form "drink" is omitted. As incomplete (insufficient) two-part sentences, he considers such sentences in which one of the main terms is omitted and the missing member of the sentence is easily restored. So, in the highlighted part of the sentence, "Who wrote the comedy "The Inspector"? William" the missing part (the predicate "wrote") is easily restored from the context [5].

From our perspective, incomplete sentences are seen in a novel way by A.A. Shakhmatov. A.A. Shakhmatov amalgamates one- and two-part sentences in contrast to A. M. Peshkovsky's definition, so aiding us in comprehending the whole meaning of incomplete statements.

While looking through and analyzing the scientific literature on incomplete sentences, we came across a variety of categorizations, indicating the high level of study that exists in this area.

According to V.V. Babaytseva, N.S. Volgina, A.M. Peshkovsky, and A.P. Skovorodnikov, incomplete sentences are only distinct when compared to whole phrases. Thus, we contrasted the details of complete and partial suggestions for these classes in addition to explaining the categorization principles and procedures, when needed.

V.V. Babaytseva categorizes incomplete sentences into three categories based on the semantics and sentence structure. The primary characteristic of incomplete sentences is their structural incompleteness, from which semantic incompleteness develops as an auxiliary indicator [6]. We will now go into further depth about its classification:

1) statements that are both semantically and structurally complete. These are phrases containing semantically incomplete indefinite pronouns that hint and indicate a place, person, activity, etc. For example, the sentence "Someone in the cinema". Without context or a known situation in this sentence, it is difficult for us to guess the subject "someone", it can be any person.

2) statements that are both conceptually and structurally lacking. The law of linguistic economy appears at many levels of language systems during the process of language development. People can save time and energy by employing incomplete statements that are accompanied by specific gestures, contexts, life experiences, and facial expressions. We will give the following examples for this type: "—Next one, please", "—Pizza is very tasty! —I'll have a piece, please".

In the first sentence, if the listeners do not have a certain life experience, then they will not be able to understand what "next" is and why passengers inform the driver about it. Only the circumstance of the place is present in this sentence, the other members of the sentence are omitted. The predicate is omitted in the second sentence and in a specific situation we understand what the word "piece" means. All these sentences turn out to be structurally and semantically incomplete.

Two variants of this category, contextually and situationally incomplete phrases, are also identified by V.V. Babaytseva. Situationally incomplete sentences are typical of oral speech; the missing parts are reflected in the comprehension of the sentence's meaning, but the sentence's semantics are made evident with the assistance of speech situation elements like the situation, speakers' perspectives, conversation situations, etc. Sentences lacking context are common in written discourse. In this instance, the preceding phrases provide the meaning of the terms that are absent. Sentences that are situationally incomplete, however, might occasionally vary depending on the context. For example, a dialogue in the store: "What do you want? — Bread". Here, the response proposal differs in both situational and contextual specifics.

3) statements that are both structurally and conceptually deficient. Here, V.V. Babaytseva views elliptic sentences as a particular type of incomplete sentence, with the null predicate serving as its peculiarity [6]. It turns out that adding a missing predicate to a phrase of this kind is superfluous. We will give examples for this classification: "He is wearing glasses", "She is in a dress", "He has long hair". You don't need to use the verb "walk" in the first and second sentences. In the third sentence, the insertion of the verb "is" is not necessary.

We believe that this categorization is inappropriate for elliptical statements. Elliptical sentences lack a predicate, although they may still be understood without one [7]. Thus, elliptical and unfinished statements are by definition non-continological. Whether or not a sentence's meaning is dependent on the circumstance or the context is the primary distinction between the two categories of sentences. Understanding the missing sentence components in incomplete sentences relies on the situation or context. Furthermore, humans are able to comprehend the meaning of elliptical words even in the absence of a circumstance or context.

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Expressing Aspectual Semantics in Discourse

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Abstract
The main plot of the article is the use of aspectual semantics in functional usage as discourse. Author proves compositional approach in forming aspectual semantics. Compositionality comprises not only grammatical and lexical indices but other units of the text and this approach reveals contents of the article.
Key Words: *aspectual semantics, inner syntax, narration, aspectual situation, narrative, stativity dynamic feature, discourse, viewpoint.*

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Generally available-objects and phenomena are much more complicated than it seems when studied from the point of view of science. This is especially evident in the linguistic analysis of the universe. An example is the fact that the research of the grammatical category type, which exists in the Russian language and constantly attracts the attention of researchers, does not stop, the debate among linguists about what vid means continues. In addition to these arguments, the fact that vid is analyzed within the framework of other areas of linguistics, that is, from a cognitive, pragmatic point of view, also indicates the difficulty of revealing the essence of this issue. In addition, it is obvious that the vid category does not match in different languages, and is also expressed in different ways [3,115].

The types of aspect meaning are also interpreted differently by scientists. While Slavic aspectologists put the axial semantics and grammatical markers of the verb in the first place, Western, including English, divide it into four types (case, process, completion, result), focusing on the quantitative semantics of arguments (complement, possessive case) within the predicate. These basic aspectual types –state, phenomenon-process, and habituality-also have the characteristics of discourse.

In this regard, the discourse is a kind of chain of related events, habits (habituality), temporary plates mediated by anaphora [5, 349-385]. Individual cases, plates in this discourse can represent any aspect type. For example: in retrospect, he behaves as if he is tasteless. Anger had blinded him from the moment he recognized her. His words had escaped without thought. If you want someone to say what you say, you need to know that you are saying what you are saying. And some of them had been false (Allison Lane, 12).

The sequence of sentences in this quoted text formed a kind of aspect chain. Each process expressed by the predicate represented a complete aspect situation.

A more general and more complete term, according to the term "message", is "discourse", which is interpreted as several related sentences, although in a broader sense it also includes other texts studied during the previous conversation related to the same genre [7, 65].

Of course, the idea that "the function of deixis discourse is to define a "situation" (concrete and abstract) within the events that arise in the text [4, 234-237]" is applicable to aspect situations as well.

In particular, semantic meanings such as indecision, indecision, and rigidity of the subject are also manifestations of aspectuality, and signaling and characteristics are realized in various types of discourse [3, 48].

As you know, in natural language examples, three discursive connections are distinguished: narrative, explanation and consequence. The clarification has an informational status, implying the novelty of the content of the sentence or information in a biological context for the listener. There may also be a certain connection between phenomena and processes [9, 73]. The data presented in the information; the processes of the selected phenomenon are implemented on the basis of a certain language system. This requires ensuring the harmony of grammatical and lexical choice. This harmony serves to ensure the consistency of the aspect information in the text. Aspect information-applies to any type of aspect semantics expressed within the predicate. A whole combination of information in a small context or a large text, that is, a description of a certain phenomenon and the correspondence of aspect information in the process of this phenomenon, constitute an aspect discourse. Let us turn to the compositional approach to the definition of aspect semantic types in discourse. The term compositionality is used in the literary, philosophical and linguistic fields. In the linguistic framework, compositionality is used in relation to the complex meaning of certain syntactic and semantic means, which are expressed as a single whole [6, 715-716].

Compositionality is a natural basis for determining the type of situation. An important goal in this is analysis, that is, by analyzing the aspect possibilities of the verb and its arguments, the type of aspect situation in the sentence is determined.

The aspect contradiction occupies an important place in discourse, especially in narrative. The perfectivity or imperfection of phenomena and situations is reflected in the chronological relationship of various actions in the text. Let's focus on the following examples:1) Jeremy Caristoke pulled his muffler tighter and swore at the snow swirling outside the carriage (Allison Lane, 5); 2) The lady turned jerkily away and tripped over a chair. Still holding Harry, he lunged to catch her, and then froze, unable to breathe (Allison Lane, 9).

In the examples given, each predicate (pulled his muffler, swore at the snow, turned jerkily away, tripped over, froze) separate completed aspectual situations were created.

K. Smith suggests defining the aspect value in a sentence at three levels, arguing that in the communicative method, the aspect distribution in a component depends on the preceding aspect value:

A. The external structure of a sentence is studied in relation to the verb category, the participation of temporal adverbs, and the observation process. The aspectual nature of the component is manifested in the lexicon. Characteristics corresponding to the aspect meaning include quantitative indicators of the predicate argument or other adverbial meanings of the verb, such as limited/unlimited, locativity, orientation, and the like.

B. The rules of composition determine the type of case of the corresponding time units (if any) in the verb series. Based on these rules, the external structure of the proposal is formed, and the aspect information is considered as a result. Their result forms the essence of the discourse and defines the type of situation statically and abstractly.

C. The aspectual meaning is determined by the situation of the discourse. The type of information in a discursive situation manifests itself as the content of each sentence [8, 91].

Based on the scientist's proposal, to determine the aspect semantics, not only this context is important, but also references to previous events-events-to cover the full meaningful content. The listed levels cover the field of composite analysis. It is the compositional approach that underlies the discursive view of the understanding of aspectuality. In the approach from the point of view of compositional analysis, studies related to aspectuality consider the event, the internal nature of the event and how it is distributed over time. Because the context of the situation is inherently aspectual. It presents the content of various types of situations in the form of a discourse. It is known that the text covers the phenomenon and statics in a narrative and informational form [8, 67]. For example: 3) She married. Her husband died. She worked as a governess in Boston for two years. When the war ended, she returned to England (Allison Lane, 27); 4) Every time he moved, someone stopped him to talk (Allison Lane, 30).

The given example (3) was narrative, and each context represented complete aspect information. In each context, the completed predicates complemented each other in meaning. In the third and fourth examples, despite the fact that the forms of time have the same appearance, we can observe different aspectual situations. In the fourth example every time temporal as a result of the semantic impact of the combination, iterative aspectual semantics arose. But in both cases, the coherence and continuity of phenomena and situations ensured the expression of the aspect discourse. As proof of our word, let us turn to the following opinion of V. Grigorieva: "discourse as a linguistic unit is characterized by common and isolated features. The universal properties of discourse include integrity and dependence [1, 22]".

The aspect Viewpoint is similar to a camera lens. It covers all the fragments presented in the context, and also openly displays the information that is being paid attention to. In this situation, only visible data can be subjected to semantic analysis [8, 68]. K. Proposed by Smith-E. regarding the types of lexical aspect and point of view aspect. Paducheva expresses the following considerations: "Viewpoint aspect covers aspectual oppositions concerning different temporal positions of the observer in relation to the same situation. Wed. pair stand up - get up: the perfect stood up denotes the situation as a whole, throughout its entire length, in retrospect, or from a retrospective perspective; and the imperfective rises (in its main meaning) represents the same situation in a synchronous perspective, as observed at one of the moments of its development - in one of its middle phases [2, 4-24]".

Event and static can be compared in contrast to dynamic-static in another tariff. Dynamism, in turn, finds its expression in aspectual situations of limitation-limitlessness, durativity – multiplicity. Stativeness, on the other hand, is expressed in unlimited predicates as a subject state and in the category of stative verbs. Dynamics occur at different levels and in small situations. Each small situation will be directly related to the process of time and will cover various changes during this time. Dynamism, as well as instantaneity, finds its expression in solo actions. Therefore, limitation includes such aspect features as direct action, completion of a situation and a change of state in the process, that is, a change of state from one state to another. Limited aspectual situations arise directly in such phenomena as context, the axial feature of the verb, the quantifiability of the argument (possessive, additional), how the phenomenon finds its expression in the form of a whole. An unlimited aspect situation arises with the use of additional time indicators in the context. On the basis of dynamic/static plates, aspect and taxic, temporal and anophoric dependencies are determined. An aspect-related, complementary context forms an aspectual discourse. Let's focus on the following examples: 5) She laughed. Duncan had been thirteen when she'd left, one of a group of cousins she had often entertained with ghost stories. "Surely you could have asked Rufton. I learned most of my tales from him." (Allison Lane,24); 6) He paced the room in silence for several minutes, trying to decide how much to tell George (Allison Lane, 27); 7) They danced in silence for several minutes (Allison Lane, 40).

While the given example (5) is narrative in nature, the aspect semantics of predicates created various situations as a result of the axial character of the verb and contextual influence. In this discourse, we can observe the interrelation of the aspect situations of procedurality, perfectivity, staticity, terminativity and iterativity. In the examples given (6), (7) for several minutes' temporal conjugation and the property of the verb of unlimited have formed the procedural aspect situation of the predicate. In these examples (6), (7) for several minutes' temporary connection in several minutes if we change it to a combination, we will see another aspect representation, that is, in this case, a limited (completed aspect state) aspect predicate arises.

Based on the opinions of linguists and the analysis of examples, we can observe that the expression of aspectuality in discourse is a kind of aspectual chain. Within the framework of discourse, we can interpret combinations of aspect meanings expressed in predicates within the framework of the term "aspect discourse". It is advisable to interpret the emergence of the content of aspectuality in discourse in a compositional approach, narrative constructions, from the point of view of an observer of the communication process.

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Theoretical Basis of Pronoun Study

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Abstract
This article delves into the intricate theory of pronouns across various historical periods, offering a comprehensive exploration of their evolution and usage. It meticulously examines and presents several factual propositions put forth by prominent scholars while facilitating debates among linguists. The focal point of this scholarly discourse revolves around the nuanced study of pronouns within the English and German languages, shedding light on their multifaceted roles and transformations over time.
Key Words: *pronoun, categories, number, gender, suspect pronouns, grammatical functions.*

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In world linguistics, the history of the development of the English language is divided into three periods: the period of the Old English language - the 5th-11th centuries, the period of the Middle English language - the 11th-15th centuries, and the period of the early modern English language - from the 15th century to the present day. are periods of the period of the early modern English language is divided into two, and the period from the 15th century to the time of Shakespeare is studied as the period of the early English language, and the period from the time of Shakespeare to the present day is studied as the period of the modern English language. When we pay attention to the history of the appearance of pronouns and their increase and development, we can witness the diversity of opinions and opinions of linguists.

Alfred Bammesberger, a linguist who specialized in the investigation of suspicious pronouns in the English language, recommended studying pronouns in five types in his manual entitled “A Sketch of Diachronic English Morphology” [1].

It is known that in the period of the Old English language, pronouns were classified according to the categories of agreement, number, and gender. During the Middle English period, the number of pronouns increased. Personal and relative pronouns have appeared in addition to the above-mentioned pronouns. Instead of the indefinite personal pronoun “I” the pronoun “one” is used. In this period, indefinite and negative pronouns some, any, non and each, every stop being used. In the period of the Old English language, the pronouns man, me, and me were used in the unstressed, weakened state in the sense of indefinite personal pronouns. The combination of the accusative pronoun oon (= one) with other accusative pronouns in the Middle English period is noticeable, for example everyckon = every one, many one. Later they are used independently in texts and speech. By the time of New English, the demonstrative one's also appears in the dependent pronouns.

Personal pronouns in general in the Old English period ic, Þā, hē, hit, heō, wē, ʒē, hiē, hī, hȳ; demonstrative pronouns sē, Þæt, sēo, Þā, Þes, Þis, Þeos, Þās; interrogative pronouns hwæt, hwylc, hwā and were categories such as agreement, person, number, gender. In the Middle and Early Modern English period, personal pronouns lost their accusative case, and they combined with possessive pronouns to express the meaning of possession.

Information about the morphological categories of interrogative, indefinite, negative, personal, relative, and indefinite personal pronouns in English is not detailed. In this chapter, we have focused more on suspect pronouns, mainly because they have been the subject of research.

If we pay attention to the opinions of modern English scholars, we can witness different approaches to the subject pronouns. For example, English linguist E. Kreising refuses to classify suspect pronouns and describes them in alphabetical order [2].

Description of V.A. Zhigadlo, I.P. Ivanova, L.L. Iofiks: “Pronouns are words with an extremely abstract meaning that indicate objects and their signs without naming them. In speech, they relate to real persons, objects and signs, revealing first of all their relationship to the speaker. Pronouns are distinguished by the absence of common formal features that would characterize this whole part of speech as a whole. Speaking in a sentence as a subject member of a sentence and definition, one pronoun can be used as significant words that do not perform official functions, others combine official functions with significant ones, and others in certain meanings are used only in a service function. [3].

According to the definition of R. Quirk, S. Greenbaum, G. Leech, T. Swartvik, "Pronouns form a category with a large number of subclasses". Despite the diversity of pronouns or their main categories, there are several common features that distinguish them from nouns [4].

So, we can witness the existence of similarities as well as many differences in the opinions of English scholars.

It is noticeable that the opinions of linguists are not the same when defining and classifying pronouns in the English language. Pronouns in Richard Hogg, David Denison's manual "A history of the English language"

1. Personal pronouns;
2. Possessive pronouns;
3. Demonstrative pronouns;
4. Interrogative pronouns;
5. He gave information about such types as indefinite pronouns [1] and gave evidence about their grammatical functions and history of origin.

L.P. Vinokurova divides English pronouns into eleven types:

1. Personal pronouns: I, he, she, it, we, you, they, thece
2. Posessive pronouns: my-mine, his-his, her-hers, it-its, our-ours, your-yours, their-theirs;
3. Reflexive pronouns: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves;
4. Emphasizing pronouns: These pronouns are similar in form to personal pronouns;
5. Reciprical pronouns: each other, one another;
6. Demonstrative pronouns: this, these; that, those; such, the same;
7. Indefinite pronouns: one, each, every, all, either, both, other, another, some any, everybody, someone, anything, much, many, (a) little, (a) few and etc.
8. Interrogative pronouns: who, whom, which;
9. Relative pronouns: who, whose, whom, which, what;
10. Conjunctive pronouns: who, whose, whom, which, what;
11. Negative pronouns: no, neither, no one, nobody, nothing, none [5].

S. M. Mutallibov, who paid attention to pronouns in the example of the Uzbek language, compared the language of the work written about a thousand years ago with the modern grammar, and based on the material of written monuments, divides pronouns into the following types.

1. Personal pronouns -– man, san, ul, biz-miz, siz-si(lar);
2. Demonstrative pronoun - ul, anda, angar, mu, mungar, muni, o'shandog', mundog', nu, na, ne, naluk, nachuk, necha, natak, neg'utak, qali, nedak, neg'u;

3. Marking pronoun - qamug'dir, qamuq-qamug', tagma [6].

Pronouns are divided into the following 7 types in textbooks and specially researched works: 1) personal; 2) identity; 3) show; 4) interrogation; 5) designation; 6) indivisibility; 7) suspect pronouns.

On the example of the Russian language, R.F. Protogenova divides pronouns into seven types: 1) personal; 2) reflexive; 3) possessive; 4) indicative; 5) interrogative-relative; 6) determinative; 7) indefinite pronouns [7].

In modern English, there are the following grammatical categories of suspect pronouns at the morphological level, which can be explained in the table as follows:

1.1-table

Suspect pronouns	number	case	gender	possessive
Some	-	-	-	-
Any	-	-	-	-
Somebody	-	+	-	-
Anybody	-	+	-	-
Someone	-	+	-	-
Anyone	-	+	-	-
Something	-	-	-	-
Anything	-	-	-	-

The gender category does not exist in English accusative pronouns. It applies to the Duetsch dependent pronouns.

In short, as it is known from the sources mentioned above, in the case of English, German languages, the lack of uniformity is noticeable as a result of the disproportion between the approaches of linguists in the classification of pronouns.

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The Notions of Phraseology

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Abstract

This article meticulously delves into the semantic-structural analysis of the distinctive features exhibited by phraseological units in the English language. In light of the intricate and multifaceted nature of these linguistic constructs, previous research endeavors have predominantly centered on two fundamental aspects: the formation mechanisms of phraseological units and the essence of their content. The exploration of these phraseological units encompasses an in-depth investigation into their semantic and structural underpinnings. Beyond mere compilation, this study aims to dissect the intricate layers of meaning embedded within these units, shedding light on their semantic nuances, inherent structures, and functional roles within the broader context of the English language.

Key Words: *phraseology, phraseological compound, phraseology, fixed expression, idiom.*

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The lexical richness of any language is enriched not only by the creation of new words, but also by the number of phrases and stable expressions, both quantitatively and qualitatively. The science that deals with the "world" with such stagnant compounds in the language is the science of phraseology [1]. Phraseology is a doctrine about phraseology, and this term was first used in 1928 year by Y.D.Polivanov: "I found it necessary to apply the term "phraseology", a special science that deals with the same relation to the lexicon as with what the syntax relates to morphology" [2].

In fact, phraseology for the last half century has become the focus of World linguistics.as a result of a number of monographic scientific research, its subject was determined, research methods were developed, and this science formed its place among other areas of linguistics. Currently, this term is used in two meanings:

1. Total of phraseological combinations in the language;
2. Field of study of unstressed phrases, science.

Extensive phraseological research based on the materials of many languages in recent years has defined phraseology as follows.

A fixed linguistic unit consisting of two or more components that have a holistic phraseological meaning is called a phraseology or phraseological combination (phrase). For example, in English a feast or a famine ["great luck or complete failure"]; think on one's feet ["think quickly"; "respond immediately"], put on the grill; be (all) at sixes and sevens; phrases such as set on six and seven, set on cinque and sice are examples of this.

Balli was one of the first Western linguists to use the term phraseology in 1905. He interpreted phraseologies from a stylistic point of view as a unit of expression of language. Among the scholars who have studied phraseology in the twentieth century, it is worth noting the semantic classification of VV Vinogradov. The scientist made a semantic classification of Russian phraseology, and this classification led to the intensive study of phraseology in many languages. Special mention should be made of the theoretical and practical research of English phraseologists N.N. Amosova, A.V. Kunin, German phraseologists I.I. Chernishyova, A.D. Reichstein, researchers of French phraseology M.I. Retsker.

Phraseology is a lexical unit like a word. Because they exist in a language like a word, they are a linguistic phenomenon, not a speech phenomenon. Just as a word has a lexical meaning, a phraseology has its own phraseological meaning. All the paradigmatic, syntagmatic features of the word can be clearly seen in the phraseology. However, phraseology differs from word and free expression in a number of ways. For example, phraseology is an element of the phraseological level, as a unit of the object of phraseology and phraseography. The components that make up a phraseology do not have a whole of meaning, they are just like words in terms of form and sound. The phraseological meaning of the components that make them up is a sign that is stable, more emotionally expressive, and so on. Therefore, phraseological meaning differs from lexical meaning in several respects. Most phraseologies do not have an identifier, meaning that the meaning of the phraseology cannot be replaced by a single word, and this meaning can only be explained by a free phrase.

The scientific classification of fixed expressions in languages should, first of all, consist of the arrangement of terms given to phraseologies. Linguistics uses a variety of terms to describe stable expressions. This is due to the complexity of the nature of these stable expressions. They are semantically, structurally and functionally complex. Accordingly, phraseologies are classified on the basis of structural-semantic, stylistic, semantic, complex, colloquial syntactic function and other principles. One of the traditional methods of classification is the classification based on the structural-semantic principle. According to him, regular expressions are divided into pairs of words, idioms, wise sayings (aphorisms), proverbs.

A pair of words is a fixed phraseological expression consisting of units belonging to the same word group back and forth [again and again, consistently, to the smallest detail]; backward (s) and forward (s); dos and don't's [according to the rule]; between grass and hay; Examples of stable combinations such as open and shut [simple, uncomplicated] are pairs of words.

The term "idiom" is derived from the Greek word meaning real, original. Idioms are fixed expressions that are used to express events, happenings, and objects in an expressive way, the meaning of which does not come from the sum of the meanings of the components that make them up, but from the new phraseological meaning. The meaning of some idioms can be expressed in another word, but the connotative meaning of the idiom, stylistic specificity is not fully covered by this synonym.

The main features of wise sayings are determined by their meaning, their international character, and their relevance to a particular author. Words of wisdom are aphoristic comments, slogans, quotes, quotes from the sages of the past, famous people of our time. These characteristics are the main criteria for their inclusion in the list of regular expressions. Although some of their properties become obsolete over time, they remain a stable expression in the language. Proverbs are also a type of phraseology that differs in form and content. Usually they are formed as a sentence structure and represent the wisdom of our wisdom. The common feature of proverbs and idioms is that, first; they have a structurally stable, general figurative meaning, as an independent unit of language. The four traditional groups of compounds analyzed above are based on a single principle, with pairs of words and proverbs differing in structure. The diversity of words of wisdom, both structurally and semantically, makes it difficult to consider them on the basis of any particular principle. In addition, a number of idioms in languages are not covered by this classification.

As we have already mentioned, VV Vinogradov's semantic classification based on Russian phraseology has played an important role in the formation of the classification of stable compounds in many languages. More precisely, the classification created by the scientist proved that there are three groups of phraseologies in other languages as well [3]. According to this classification, phraseologies are classified as follows:

1. Phraseological confusions. This group includes language units that have a fully portable meaning, are semantically inseparable, and have a common meaning that does not derive from the lexical meaning of the components that make up the compound. For example, to kick the bucket, everything is at sixes and sevens = everything upside down.

2. Phraseological units. This group includes phrases that have a holistic meaning. The difference between them and phraseological confusions is that their common meaning can be derived from the meaning of the constituent components. For example, like a cat in a strange garret [feel uncomfortable].

3. Phraseological compounds. This group includes compounds that are partially figurative, have semantic motivation, and are syntactically identifiable. Components of such compounds can also be replaced by synonyms. For example, jerk (or snatch) smb. bald-headed [to be rude to someone, to take revenge on someone]; come (or get) down to cases [to begin doing what needs to be done, to move to work]; fix (or stop) smb's clock [mute someone]; be (or sit) on a cloud [feel very happy].

I.I.Chernysheva developed complex principles that take into account both grammatical, semantic and stylistic features of stable expressions. Thus, on the one hand, it is possible to distinguish phraseological units from words, and on the other hand, it is possible to distinguish them from fixed phrases that do not have phraseological properties.

A regular expression must be at least two words long. In this process, the components of the phraseology may lose their ability to withstand certain changes, while maintaining their stability. Below we consider the role of words in the formation of phraseology:

He realized that ... he was sailing rather close to the wind financially... (Th.Dreiser).

he'ssailing near the wind with those large contracts that he makes (J.Galsworthy).

He didn't buy a programme - they were asking a shilling each for them and a man must draw a line somewhere (J.B.Priestley).

He was drunk … rotten drunk. A follow's got to draw the line somewhere (A.J.Cronin).

Examples show that phraseological units are units that are readily available in a language. They have two or more components. As a result, phraseologies are considered to be a stable form in terms of their meaning, composition, and structure. As you can see,

1. Phraseological units are not created in the process of speech, but they are ready in the language;

2. The integrity of its components, the consistency of its structure and semantics are characteristic of phraseological units;

3. The components of phraseological units may have two or more main accents;

4. Phraseological units are fixed compounds consisting of separate parts that can be understood as words by the speaker.

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Cognitive Semantics of a Verb and its Lexical Interpretation

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Abstract
This article discusses the semantic name of verbs, determined by their lexical meaning. The main approach to the study of verbs is to determine the volume of the selected subclass of verbs, the structure of the subclass, the structure of the lexical meaning of the analyzed verbs; to establish features in the meaning and system of linguistic means of expressing these categories for these verbs.
Key Words: *presupposition, paradigmatic, syntagmatic, situation, lexical-semantic interpretation, epidigmatic.*

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Verbs are actually semantically diverse. To outline the range of verbs studied in this work, we can use fairly familiar names of such frequently identified lexical-semantic groups as: verbs of dividing into parts (saw, cut, tear, pound, chop, tear, crush, shred, crumble, break, grind), verbs of connection (sew, glue, rivet , weaving, soldering), changing shape (cutting, bending, crumpling, ironing, forging, crumpling), cleaning (washing, cleaning, washing), cooking (cooking, frying, baking), coating (smearing, painting, varnishing, paving , tin), changes in the state of aggregation (melt), verbs of digging (dig, dig, harrow, loosen, hoe), soak (wet, tan, ferment), surface treatment (scrape, scrape, sharpen, grind) and others.[4] According to her, the objective difficulty in studying verb semantics is based on its logical-object character. The content of a specific verb depends not only on its lexical determination, but also on the semantics of other words connected in the context. From the syntactic point of view, the compositional structure of the filler is also important. Unlike a noun, the conceptual basis of a verb is so wide that it can be evaluated even at the level of complete desemanticization.

Understanding the contextual process of the verb is carried out in several stages:

1) identifying an object in the semantic field;

2) to distinguish the signs and characteristics of the object;

3) to carry out the analysis of these signs.

The presence/absence sign of the action includes concepts such as minimal, the subject (agent) performing a certain action on the object, and determining the dynamics of the process expressed by the verb (state of change).

The interaction between the subject and the verb is noticeable. This process is carried out by comparing the concreteness and abstractness of the verb.

For example, English verbs to see\to look can cover both static and dynamic features: Dora and Michael didn't like Mr Coyne much, he always looked as if he were about to have a fight with someone (Menve, 54) (dynamic property); At the back, hidden away, they saw the seat of three drinkers in the discreet bar area (Menve, 56) (dynamic feature); It would hardly be tactful to give that to them, if you see what I mean (Menve, 357) (static feature).

Verbs can cover both static and dynamic features.

Thus, in the process of analyzing emotional verbs, one of their main features is taken into account - the relationship or object function specific to the state, process and human action. The main participants of the primary reality are calculated through the relations of subject-subject and object, predicativeness, and in turn, the active movement of human senses is considered important in terms of expression in one of the four-part oppositions, including feeling and being perceived, which can be a passive relation to it. [1]

Feeling, which forms the basis of the group of verbs such as to see, to look, to hear, to feel, to smell, to touch, receives information about the world with the help of human sensory organs.

M. Hamrayeva, who was engaged in the analysis of the category of evidentiality in the semantics of emotional verbs, notes that these verbs in most cases have testimonial information (Hamrayeva, 2023). Verbs belonging to this group express direct and indirect signs and processes.

The predicates of these relations are focused on the current state of the world in its subject, and are reflected in procedural and event aspects [Апресян, 10]. As a result of this, three forms of the objective world imagination appear:

1) existence or scientific imagination about the universe;

2) subjective perception of the universe;

3) the perception of the world objectified with the help of language. [4]

All the realities that a person feels and reacts to are reflected in the semantics of words. Any sentence in the indicative mood is based on perceptual information. For example, the information "Jane came home" in turn covers the presuppositional content such as "I saw her entering the house" or "I see lights through her window". It belongs to the presupposition of expression. In linguistics, a presupposition is the knowledge of the interlocutors' initial speech set on a topic [2].

A presupposition is the background knowledge of the speaker and the listener (writer and reader, addresser and addressee, sender and receiver of speech), based on which the hidden, explication is expressed to inform the content, which is carried out during the process with the help of derivatives of expression and meaning relations [3]. This definition has its influence in the study of communicative actions, in the process of participation of two or more actants.

The units of the lexical-semantic field are connected in such a way that they show a hierarchical structure, which in turn consists of a unity of semantic spaces and semantic networks related to certain conceptual areas. Nowadays, the study of the lexical system of the language is already structured and defined lexical-semantic groups, lexical-semantic fields, etc. corresponds to this requires filling their unique gaps, combining the last level semantic fields formed between the considered paradigms.

Emotional verbs, whose essence and structure meet the tasks of cognitive research; can be interpreted in the form of epidigmatic derivatives. Lexical units are presented as a semantic paradigm in epidigmatics, with their deep development, vertical (polysemy) and horizontal (word formation) associative connections, and the study of the relationship lexeme of the verb based on dynamic structure helps to do.

The idea of the given material is that for each of these proposals it will be possible to first determine whether it is an implementation of the main LSV, and, if not, and then determine its place in the proposed system of models, groups and subgroups. This reveals the most essential aspects of the semantics of a given sentence: the type of subject of the situation and object (if any), the characteristics of some of its other participants, the idea of the nature of the situation itself (action, state, process, property) and its relevance to one or another extralinguistic sphere reality (nature, inanimate objects, various aspects of human life). The possibility of using formalized procedures for a more detailed analysis presupposes a further, deeper stage of elaboration of the material.

As everything was told above, we can conclude that this complex work is devoted to one of the most complex and actual problems of studying and describing the semantics of the verb through the prism of gradualism. We have reviewed certain fragments, core areas of the specified problem. Detailed study and description of lexical-semantic groups of verbs from a gradual point of view, a detailed description of the gradual predicate, structural semantic analysis of the verb word in a sentence from a gradual point view have a further perspective of scientific description.

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Construction Grammar: Disciples and Followers

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Abstract

The present study is related to the linguistic description of special units in language: constructions or collostructions. They are characterized as not simple, since they consist of several simpler units, but function as a single whole. Achievements in this field can no longer be ignored – they have to be included in all linguistic theories, regardless of the initial postulates, accepting that the facts require recognition of the closest connection between form and meaning. For this reason, I think it is necessary to mention about Construction Grammar. On the other hand, the philosophy of corpus-based approach envisages well in the framework of the Construction Grammar. The concern will be about different concepts, descriptions, and theories of language in Construction Grammar. The theory of the Construction Grammar (abbreviated CxG or CG) was suggested at the end of 80s – it was from the time when this term began to appear in the lectures and public speeches. The founder of CG is a linguist Charles Fillmore, who generally writes a little and has practically no books.

Key Words: *construction, collostruction, argument structure.*

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The fundamental work by C. Fillmore's student Adele Goldberg under the title "A Construction Grammar Approach to Argument Structure" [9] is still the most reliable introduction to CG, although it was published in 1995. In this work, she argued that sentence meaning was defined not only by the verb and its arguments, but also by the construction in which they occur. Below the "core" constructions studied by Goldberg are illustrated, together with some limitations on their use. Ditransitive construction contains verbs with two arguments in addition to the subject: a "recipient" or "addressee" argument, and a "theme" argument. Ditransitive verbs have sense of giving, selling, bringing, telling, etc. The ditransitive construction implies the intention of transferring of something to something. [9]

Intention is one of the principal semantic constraints, as demonstrated in the examples below [9,143]:

(1) Joe painted Sally a picture.

In (1), Joe painted a picture intentionally for Sally, so Sally is an intended recipient.

(2) *Hal brought his mother a cake since he did not eat it on the way home.

Example (2), however, sounds odd and weird because supposedly if Hal intended the cake for his mother, it would never have crossed his mind to eat it on the way home.

Finally, there is another issue related to the argument structure, which Goldberg also supposes to solve relying on CG. It is known that the same syntactic construction can be grammatically correct or incorrect, depending on what words are used in it. Let's compare the following examples from her work (Goldberg, 1995):

(3) a. Sam carefully broke the eggs into the bowl.

b. *Sam unintentionally broke the eggs onto the floor.

(4) a. This room was slept in by George Washington.

b. This room was slept in by Mary.

Such pairs are a quite challenging issue for a generative approach, under which it is assumed that the verb defines the number of its arguments. For example, the verb "give", which specifies three arguments (subject, direct object and indirect object), as in John gave Jane a letter. However, as we can see, real examples like pairs (3) – (4), do not always correspond to this.

At the same time, within the constructionist approach, which ascribes argument structures not to the verb, but to syntactic constructions in which it appears, is absolutely natural. As a matter of fact, if we admit that the general semantics of the construction presented in (3) is related to intended activity, the semantics of its locative participant should reflect the idea of the intended action, as in (3a). However, the adverb with the sense "accidently" and the surface (floor) do not correspond to this construction, therefore the substitution made in sentence 3b turns out to be impossible.

Analyzing such kind of examples, I come to the conclusion that constructions as a tool for describing a sentence turn out to be more flexible than the traditional verb-centered approach. They are better at "coping" with issues arising in the field of argument structure, - whether it is a change of management model by a verb or stylistically marked and other occasional uses in which the verb deviates from its standard syntactic behavior.

Anatol Stefanowitsch and Stefan Gries: Collostructional analysis.

Recently, the theoretical constructions of A. Goldberg concerning the dependence of the components of a structure on its general meaning and their interdependence from each other, received powerful support in the form of a statistical base – methods and techniques, by which such dependencies can be assessed mathematically. The popularity of statistics among CG supporters is growing rapidly; a vivid example of this is the "collostructional analysis", that is a research area created by Stefan Gries and Anatol Stefanowitsch. [10,11]

Coll. analysis is a corpus-based quantitative method of defining the reciprocal attraction of lexemes and constructions which has gained immense popularity in the field of corpus and cognitive linguistics. Coll. analysis is a method that allows you to study collocations inside the grammatical construction. It can answer the following questions:

Which words are attracted to a grammatical construction? for instance future construction – be going to, which occurs with any word (drink, meet, have fun);

Are the verbs specially attracted? Do they appear more often than it is expected? That is what the coll. analysis can help to figure out.

In 1900s the purpose of corpus linguists was to measure the degree of mutual attraction between lexical elements in content, therefore they focused on associations between constructions and lexemes. In 2003, Anatol Stefanowitsch and Stefan Th. Gries presented a set of methods entitled "collostructional analysis".[10] The corpus-based methods aim for the development of tools for investigating interactions between lexemes and grammatical patterns. To be more exactly, coll.analysis determines the associational strength between constructions and the lexical elements and gives an explanation to the semantic differences between synonymous constructions ('alternations') by comparing the collostruction strength. Coll. analysis includes a particular construction and investigates the most strongly attracted and repelled lexemes (collexemes), or which lexemes appear more or less frequently. S & G in their research focused their attention on the verb slot, the two dative alternation constructions.

E.g., She gave him the book.

She gave the book to him.

Moreover, they demonstrated the "N waiting to happen" construction, where they paid attention to the nominal slot.

Eventually coll. an. depends on frequency of tokens of different types of phenomena (lexemes) in a corpus. To apply this approach successfully, S & G took for different scores for frequency of a target lexeme (L) and a target construction (C) from the corpus:

- the frequency of L in C,

- the frequency of L in all other constructions,
- the frequency of C with lexemes other than L,
- the frequency of all other constructions with lexemes other than L.

S & G demonstrated this setup with data from the British National Corpus (BNC) with the noun accident in the construction N waiting to happen (cf. Table 1):

Table 1. The frequency table of data from S & G [10;219].

1. frequency of L in C 14	2. frequency of C with other than L 21	row total 35
2. frequency of L in all other constructions in the corpus 8,606	4. frequency of all other constructions with lexemes other than L 10,197,659	row total 10,206,265
column total 8,620	column total 10,197,680	grand total 10,206,300

The frequency table serves as input for statistical tests that measure the association between constructions and lexemes. Although various tests are available, Gries in most studies have used a test known as Fisher Exact or Fisher-Yates to carry out the coll. an. Coll. strength defines the degree of attraction or repulsion of a lexeme and that is considered as the p-value of Fisher Exact Test. In other words, the smaller the p-value, the higher the strength of association between lexeme and construction. Very often, p-values are so small that their significance resides only in the number of decimal places. These scores are expressed in numbers like "1.12E-10": we read 1.12 times 10 to the power of minus 10", i.e., 0.000000000112. To make it simple, a logarithmic transformation of these scores is often given, which essentially shows the number of decimal places. This transformation turns the score of 1.12E-10 into "10". The lower the p-value, and thus the stronger the expected attraction between lexeme and construction. P-values are calculated individually for each of the lexemes investigated in a given construction based on their observed frequencies.

Thus, lexemes which occurred less frequently than others in a given construction may still show a smaller p-value (and thus be more strongly attracted than more frequently found ones) if they occur less often in the corpus altogether. For example, the verb award has higher collostruction strength in the ditransitive construction than the verb allows, even though the latter verb appears 18 times in the construction in the BNC, and the former no more than 7 times [10;229]. This is because award is less frequent than allow in the whole corpus.

Table 2. list of collostruction strengths of top-ranking verbs in the ditransitive construction

Collexeme Raw frequency in ditransitive C Collostruction strength

Collexeme	Raw frequency in ditransitive C	Collostruction strength
give	461	0
tell	128	1.6E-127
send	-64	7.26E-68
offer	43	3.31E-49
show	49	2.23E-33
cost	20	1.12E-22
teach	15	4.32E-16
award	7	1.36E-11
allow	18	1.12E-10
lend	7	2.85E-09
deny	8	4.5E-03
owe	6	2.67E-09

promise	7	3.2E-08

The term "Collostruction" is made up of two words: collocate and construction. Collocates (collocations) are the words with which commonly a target word co – occurs. Each collocate is associated with a single meaning of a target word. They can be left and right. Left collocates co – occur words immediately preceding a target word. For example, the most occurred left collocates of the word "virus" are nouns INFLUENZIA (9.84), AIDS (7.19) and BACTERIA (7.43). Right collocates take a place just after the target word or the following the target word. According to Biber [1,2], focusing on collocates is useful way to investigate the meaning of the words.

Theoretically, coll.analysis is based on the theory of CG, practically it includes three main research methods: collexeme analysis, distinctive collexeme analysis and covarying collexeme.

1) Collexeme analysis, which helps to measure the degree of attraction/repulsion for the specific word.

2) Distinctive collexeme analysis, that determines which of two functionally similar constructions a specific word prefers.

3) Covarying collexeme analysis is a method that allows to measure how often one lexeme in one of the slots is used simultaneously with certain lexemes in other slots.

On the basis of the above given examples and above mentioned, I would say that the basic aim of the coll.analysis is to figure out the association between words and construction. Specifically, it aims (1) to determine coll. strength, the strength of association between a particular syntactic pattern and its constituent lexical constructions and (2) to identify the meanings of these constructions.

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The Peculiarities of Teaching Multisensory Style of Learning

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Abstract
Throughout the formative education, the most of the scientists and professionals may have discovered the critical and unique four learning styles and how to modalities and alterations together to form their own unique approaches for learning in the boardroom. However; what if applied the way they take a knowledge to the way you approach your developing business? Since making a new business is partially about climaxing brain power and mental ability, new entrepreneurs can enhance and burst their business propositions by utilizing the learning modalities that fit them.
Key Words: *visual learner, picture, aural learners, networking, oral presentations, insights, communication, verbal learners, role playing techniques, kinesthetic learners, tactile learner, auditory approaches, writing and drawing, aural learners.*

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Appearing entrepreneurs commencing their businesses speculatively know there will be many roadblocks, speed bumps and learning curbs on the winding road to startup success. Each of the ups and downs is a learning experience and a gaining a knowledge. And furthermore, each learning experience is a strategic investment in your company's welfare and profitability. The business strategies you develop will not only be unique to your business goals, but also your vision for the company and its mission. [1,4]

What is the definition of four learning styles?

The insights of highlighting and expressing learning styles is that all of the students have a specific and vital approach or style of learning.

According to the learning style theory, learning is the most useful or effective if students are allotted an important knowledge for utilizing their preferred learning styles or approaches that have been specified as their learning style. Just for exemplifying that, the most of the students formed authentic materials as having a visual learning style could be instructed more effectively through a variety of images, mathematic charts and graphs while utilizing traditional and conventional visual practices and exercises.

If the learners are studying and exploring towards an educational degree or psychology and physic certificate, then they will probably run into the theory of Learning flexibility and complexity at some climax points. This presented article is not enhancing and honoring this infamous theory as, in the furthest years, the empirical evidence that is not enough for styles of learning has been increasingly highlighted and embedded. Through the early 2000 years, it was not uncommon and rare especially for primary and middle schools to label children with their 'preferred and chosen learning style'. This kind of poor and lack of ability for managing practice giving a clear meaning is that children and young aged ones were very quickly (and incorrectly) categorized. At best of them, this would have been detrimental and not allowed to educational attainment, and the myth in some schools continues to this current fast-paced days.

For the purposes and main insight of this mentioned article, the scientists and professors revisit the thoughts and provide you with some of the theoretical and grammatical background information, it will depend on you and your colleagues who work and discuss together to decide whether there is any credibility in this classroom and auditory myth. According to the updated information, utilizing visuals within the context of dual coding is a powerful learning methodology. The teachers also explore that encouraging purposeful classroom conversation promotes educational incomes.

The aim and goal identifying 'a preferred learning style and utilizing this to dictate our auditory practice, especially for most of us, is a little uncomfortable. However, if you are currently preserving a research project or enrolled in an education degree, then you are might going to come across this theory and it's worth to mention knowing a little background to the concept. [2,2]

Auditory learners

Auditory learners (also called aural learners) have a tendency to take a knowledge best through listening the information via audios and videos. Auditory learners compare better learning through lectures by sitting the auditory or when things are said them.

Kinesthetic learners

Kinesthetic learners, sometimes named after tactile learners, learn through experiencing or doing the important things and details. They like to get involved by acting out competitions or utilizing their bodies to touch and handle in order to understand concepts the process of the lesson. These kinds of learners might struggle to sit still and often be brilliant at sports or like to dance. They may need to take more frequent breaks body movements while studying.

Reading / writing learners

While there is some overlap with visual learning, these types of learners are emphasized to expression and ideas through writing, reading articles or books, writing in diaries, looking for words in the dictionary and taking a look the internet sources for just about everything [3,23].

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Embracing the Power of Collaborative Online Learning: Unveiling the Benefits of Studying with Peers

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Abstract
This abstract explores the transformative advantages of collaborative online learning in modern education. It delves into the dynamic environment facilitated by this approach, fostering active engagement, inclusive participation, and peer-to-peer learning. The abstract highlights how collaborative online learning enhances critical thinking, problem-solving abilities, and prepares students for real-world collaboration. Ultimately, it emphasizes the pivotal role of this methodology in shaping a generation of adaptable, globally connected learners equipped with essential skills for success beyond academia.
Key Words: *collaborative learning, dynamic learning environment, engagement, cultivate, participation, critical thinking and problem-solving skills, facilitating peer-to-peer learning.*

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Collaborative online learning is described as a joint effort by students—guided by instructors—to achieve shared learning goals (Goodsell, Maher, & Tinto, 1988). Learning collaboratively is especially noteworthy in education and is often singled out as the most important instructional approach in college teaching (Cockrell, Caplow, & Donaldson, 2000). Collaborative learning fundamentally moves beyond a teacher-centric classroom setup, emphasizing an educational atmosphere where students actively teach each other. In this context, the instructor serves as a facilitator, offering materials and guidance to support learning among students as they engage in mutual teaching and knowledge exchange. Although lecturing remains the dominant pedagogical delivery method in higher education (Raver & Maydosz, 2010), abundant evidence suggests "active" forms of instruction are more effective in promoting student achievement than "passive" approaches to teaching and learning (see Prince, 2004). Accordingly, an increasing number of empirical investigations have explored more active forms of teaching and learning—including collaborative learning—at the collegiate level (see Rocca, 2010). Collaborative learning is thought to influence intellectual growth by requiring students to assume individual responsibility though interdependent work with others in achieving shared educational goals. The change that happens as a result of learning collaboratively occurs as a consequence of the socio cognitive conflict and attendant cognitive disequilibrium that arise in group work. Disequilibrium occurs when group members are confronted with the diversity of others' perspectives in the group (Davidson Worsham, 1992; Piaget, 1950; Vygotsky, 1978). As group members experience with these new perspectives, they "rehearse and restructure information to retain it in memory and incorporate it into existing cognitive structures" (Johnson &Johnson, 2002, p. 120). Nelson (1994) added that student misunderstandings of new ideas and concepts may inhabit their ability to learn effectively. The diversity in perspectives associated with collaborative learning, however, allows students to identify and correct those misunderstandings, thereby enhancing the potential for student achievement.

In the ever-evolving landscape of education, the traditional notion of learning has transcended physical classrooms. The advent of technology has paved the way for collaborative online learning, an innovative approach that harnesses the collective knowledge and expertise of students worldwide. This paradigm shift from solitary study to collaborative online learning has proven to be a game-changer, offering a plethora of benefits that enrich the educational journey in profound ways.

1. Fostering a Dynamic Learning Environment

Collaborative online learning redefines the boundaries of education by fostering an inter-active and dynamic environment. Engaging with peers from diverse backgrounds and cultures introduces a variety of perspectives, stimulating discussions and critical thinking. Through this interaction, students can gain insights beyond textbooks, broadening their understanding of different subjects and cultivating a more holistic approach to learning. Collaborative learning thrives on diversity—diverse backgrounds, experiences, and perspectives. Private community digital platforms are catalysts for diversity by attracting participants from various walks of life. Students gain exposure to ideas and viewpoints they might not encounter in their local classrooms.

When learners from different cultures and backgrounds collaborate, they bring a wealth of unique insights to the table. This diversity enriches the learning experience, encouraging critical thinking and the exploration of alternative solutions to complex problems. Moreover, one of the most profound impacts of private community digital platforms is their ability to bridge geographical gaps. In a world where students and experts can be scattered across the globe, these platforms create a virtual space where they can connect, interact, and learn from one another.

Imagine a budding entrepreneur in New York seeking insights from a successful business owner in Tokyo. In a traditional educational setting, this would be a challenging feat. However, within a private community, this interaction becomes seamless. Questions are answered, experiences are shared, and collaborative learning is set in motion.

"A dynamic learning environment is characterized by change, activity, and progress. It is intentionally designed to meet the needs of all students while challenging them to enhance existing skills, interests, and understandings, as well as meaningfully building new ones."

- Peace Wapiti Public School Division - Grand Prairie, Alberta

2. Encouraging Active Engagement and Participation

One of the standout advantages of collaborative online learning is its ability to encourage active engagement and participation. Unlike traditional classroom settings, where some students may feel hesitant to speak up, online platforms provide a comfortable space for every individual to contribute. This inclusivity promotes confidence among students, empowering them to express their opinions, ask questions, and actively participate in discussions, thereby enhancing their learning experience. Peer-to-peer learning is a cornerstone of collaborative education, and private community platforms provide the ideal environment for it to flourish. Within these communities, students become both learners and educators, sharing their knowledge and skills with peers.

This empowerment of students as active contributors to the learning process has far-reaching benefits. It fosters a sense of ownership over one's education and cultivates skills in communication, leadership, and teamwork—all essential for success in the modern workforce. For students, participation and engagement are important because they function as a behavior pathway that contributes to increased learning and development (Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Joen, & Barch, 2004; Connell & Wellborn, 1991). Participation and engagement predict students' achievement and comprehension of educational material (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003). Many teachers overlook the importance classroom arrangements have on their students' academic success and the creation of a positive learning environment. Teachers can foster greater student participation and engagement by paying particular attention to their classroom arrangement.

3. Facilitating Peer-to-Peer Learning and Support

The collaborative nature of online learning cultivates a sense of camaraderie among students. Peer-to-peer learning becomes a cornerstone, as individuals share their expertise, insights, and study techniques. In this environment, students not only learn from instructors but also from each other, creating a support system where they can seek help, pro-vide guidance, and collectively navigate through challenges. This involves creating opportunities for students to collaborate, learn from, and support each other. By promoting peer-to-peer learning, students can develop stronger communication and teamwork skills, gain different perspectives, and build a sense of community within the classroom.

Peer learning is not a single, undifferentiated educational strategy. It encompasses a broad sweep of activities. For example, researchers from the University of Ulster identified ten different models of peer learning (Griffiths, Houston & Lazenbatt 1995). These ranged from the traditional proctor model, in which senior students tutor junior students, to the more innovative learning cells, in which students in the same year form partnerships to assist each other with both course content and personal concerns. Other models involved discussion seminars, private study groups, parrainage (a buddy system) or counselling, peer assessment schemes, collaborative project or laboratory work, projects in different sized (cascading) groups, workplace mentoring and community activities. The term 'peer learning', however, remains abstract. The sense in which we use it here suggests a two-way, reciprocal learning activity. Peer learning should be mutually beneficial and involve the sharing of knowledge, ideas and experience between the participants. It can be de-scribed as a way of moving beyond independent to interdependent or mutual learning (Boud, 1988)

4. Enhancing Critical Thinking and Problem-Solving Skills

Working collaboratively on projects, assignments, or problem-solving tasks sharpens critical thinking skills. By engaging in discussions and tackling challenges together, students learn to analyze situations from different angles, brainstorm innovative solutions, and effectively communicate their ideas—a skill set that transcends academia and is highly valued in professional environments. This involves teaching students how to analyze, evaluate, and synthesize information, as well as how to apply these skills to real-world problems. By incorporating activities and assignments that challenge students to think critically and solve complex problems, educators can help students develop valuable skills for academic and professional success. According to Mohd Sohod (2013), Critical Thinking and Problem-Solving Skills of students is an ability that needs to be mastered because it involves several abilities to think critically, creatively, innovatively, analytically, as well as the ability to apply understanding and knowledge to new and different problems. This clearly shows that each student must master each of the elements contained in Critical Thinking and Problem-Solving Skills

5. Preparing for Real-World Collaboration

In today's interconnected world, the ability to collaborate effectively is a crucial skill. Collaborative online learning serves as a preparatory ground for real-world collaboration, equipping students with the tools to work harmoniously in diverse teams, leverage collective strengths, and achieve common goals—an invaluable asset in various career paths and industries. Additionally, one of the significant advantages of private community digital platforms is their ability to bridge the gap between theory and practice. Students can engage with professionals and experts in real-world scenarios, gaining insights into the practical applications of their learning.

For instance, a student studying environmental science can collaborate with professionals in the field to address real environmental challenges. This experiential learning not only enhances understanding but also prepares students for the demands of their future careers.

Outcomes associated with collaborative learning

Collaborative learning yields a range of positive outcomes that extend beyond traditional learning methods. Some key outcomes associated with collaborative learning include:

Enhanced Understanding: Students often gain a deeper understanding of concepts when they explain them to peers. Teaching others reinforces their own comprehension.

Improved Communication Skills: Working with peers encourages students to articulate their thoughts clearly, listen actively, and express ideas effectively, enhancing both verbal and written communication skills.

Critical Thinking: Collaborative learning environments promote critical thinking as students engage in discussions, analyze various viewpoints, and solve problems collectively.

Teamwork and Collaboration: Students develop teamwork skills, learning to collabo-rate, negotiate, and compromise effectively to achieve common goals. These skills are vital in professional settings.

Increased Engagement: Collaboration fosters a sense of ownership and responsibility, motivating students to actively participate and contribute to group tasks.

Diversity of Perspectives: Interaction with peers from diverse backgrounds and experiences exposes students to different viewpoints, broadening their perspectives and promoting cultural understanding.

Enhanced Retention: Engaging in discussions and activities with peers helps reinforce learning, leading to better retention of information compared to passive learning methods.

Social and Emotional Development: Collaborative learning nurtures social skills, empathy, and emotional intelligence as students learn to work with different personalities and navigate group dynamics.

Preparation for Real-world Challenges: The skills acquired through collaborative learning, such as problem-solving, adaptability, and effective communication, prepare students for real-world challenges and diverse professional environments.

Positive Attitude towards Learning: The interactive nature of collaborative learning of-ten fosters a positive attitude towards learning, making it enjoyable and fostering a life-long learning mindset.

These outcomes highlight the multifaceted benefits of collaborative learning, emphasizing its role in not only academic success but also in the holistic development of individuals. Compared with learning individually or competitively, students who learn collaboratively accrue a wide range of educational benefits. For example, research has linked learning collaboratively to such as better communication and groupwork skills (Terzini, Cabrera, Colbeck, Bjorklund, & Parente, 2001), critical thinking skills (Gokhale, 1995; Schamber & Mahoney, 2006), a need for cognition (Castle, 2014), student engagement (Bruffee, 2003), academic achievement (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1998; Springer, Stanne, & Donovan, 1999), appreciation for fine arts and increased understanding of science and technology (Cabrera, Nora, Bernal, Terenzini, & Pascarella, 1998), and better psychological adjustment (Johnson & Johnson, 1989), among others (see Johnson et al., 1991, and Barkley et al., 2014, for extensive reviews of this literature).

Conclusion

In conclusion, the embrace of collaborative online learning marks a pivotal advancement in modern education, accentuating the manifold benefits of collective engagement among students. By transcending traditional boundaries of education, this approach champions an interactive and inclusive environment where peers collaborate, share insights, and learn from each other's diverse perspectives.

The shift from instructor-centric to student-driven learning cultivates active participation, fostering a dynamic space where every voice matters. Through this collaborative synergy, individuals hone critical thinking, problem-solving skills, and adaptability, preparing themselves not just for academic excellence but for success in a globally interconnected world. The guiding role of instructors as facilitators in this model underscores the im-portance of guidance and support in fostering a vibrant learning ecosystem. As students take charge of their learning journey, the instructor's provision of resources and guidance acts as a catalyst for deeper exploration and understanding.

Ultimately, embracing collaborative online learning doesn't just enhance academic out-comes; it molds individuals into collaborative, adaptable, and empathetic learners—equipped with the essential skills to thrive in diverse academic, professional, and societal landscapes. This paradigm shift in education heralds a future where the synergy of collective knowledge becomes the cornerstone of holistic and impactful learning experiences.

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Contours of Tolerance: From Historical Philosophical Perspectives to Modern Multicultural Paradigms

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Abstract
The article delineates various foundational perspectives on the concept of tolerance, aiming to provide a comprehensive understanding of its essence. Emphasizing the significance of tolerance within the contemporary globalized landscape, the paper expounds upon its relevance in addressing the challenges posed by globalization and underscores the potential of multiculturalism in addressing these pressing issues.
Key Words: *tolerance, globalization, multiculturalism.*

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In the current era marked by heightened global integration across diverse domains such as economics, legal frameworks, culture, and artistic expressions, there emerges a pressing need to establish guiding principles that mitigate conflicts within intercultural dialogues. Philosophy has, over an extensive period, exhibited a profound interest in exploring the complexities of tolerance. Even in antiquity, thinkers such as Socrates and Plato acknowledged the pivotal role of tolerance in fostering effective interaction. Their conceptualization linked "patience" with intellectual austerity, positioning it as a prerequisite for forging spiritual and social cohesion among individuals [6, 75]. Aristotle, in interpreting human virtue as a "mean," conceptualized "tolerance" as the facilitation of equitable coexistence among entities and individuals [2, 23]. These early philosophical notions laid the groundwork for understanding tolerance as an essential element in fostering harmonious social dynamics and intellectual discourse.

During the Middle Ages, philosophical inquiries were directed toward surmounting religious fervor, misconceptions, and animosity toward dissenters through the lens of tolerance. Within Europe, philosophers like S. Castellion, P. Bayle, Voltaire, and J. Locke exhibited heightened interest in tolerance amid the era marred by religious conflicts. The conceptualization of tolerance during this epoch revolved around a compromise necessitated by the discord between Catholics and Protestants. The origins of the term "tolerance" can be traced back to this juncture, with the Larousse dictionary noting its initial mention in 1361 [10, 177]. The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology places the emergence of the concept of "tolerance" in the 15th century and that of "toleration" in the 16th century. While the term initially denoted "endurance" or "the ability to withstand pain" in the 15th century, its 16th-century connotations expanded to encompass "permission," "restraint," and "abstinence" [11, 264].

Over time, shifts in societal consciousness prompted a reevaluation of the tolerance paradigm, amplifying its scope to assume global significance. A comparative analysis of the definitions of "tolerance" across different languages reveals a consistent understanding across European languages: tolerance denotes a disposition of forbearance toward divergent opinions and reverence for varying beliefs. It's crucial to underscore that tolerance isn't synonymous with apathy or disregard for others but rather is rooted in respectful acceptance. Moreover, tolerance embodies an active engagement with differences, representing an active and constructive attitude. An essential semantic facet of tolerance revolves around its connotations of resilience and fortitude. Embracing differing viewpoints signifies strength, whereas intolerance and xenophobia signal weakness.

In the Uzbek language, the term "tolerance" embodies the notion of endurance, the capacity to accommodate divergent opinions, showing leniency toward others' actions, and displaying gentleness in acknowledging their errors and faults. Y. Holikov associates the essence of tolerance with intrinsic human virtues such as humility, meekness, and magnanimity. Conversely, intolerance is reflected in actions characterized by irritability, impetuosity, and a demanding nature, hinting at an impulsive and immature disposition. Holikov exemplifies the concept of tolerance through instances of respecting personal beliefs and accommodating different faiths.

In the 19th-century Russian cultural milieu, figures like F.M. Dostoevsky, L.N. Tolstoy, and A.A. Ukhtomsky forged a tradition wherein tolerance was construed as comprehension. This perspective found elaboration in the works of M.M. Bakhtin and his adherents. This Russian tradition diverges from the Western philosophical tradition's comprehension of tolerance. In the Western context, tolerance is largely construed as a measure, defining the limits within which one can accept another.

Hence, the concept of tolerance exhibits intricate layers of meaning. Contrary to its colloquial usage denoting endurance, scholarly discourse highlights its multifaceted nature.

Tolerance emerges as a doctrinal phenomenon within contemporary philosophy, irrespective of the specific object of assessment by tolerant or intolerant consciousness. The essence of fostering a tolerant consciousness lies in perceiving interactions as equitable dialogues, a pivotal prerequisite for embracing a tolerant worldview.

The pivotal milestone in the evolution of tolerance ideals unfolded with the establishment of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948. This landmark Declaration articulated fundamental principles governing peace and democracy. It explicitly recognized that both violence and warfare could stem from the suppression of democratic values and intolerance. UNESCO's relentless efforts in recent decades have propelled the concept of "tolerance" onto the global stage, transforming it into a key tenet in discussions surrounding peace [1, 180]. Within the United Nations' ambit, UNESCO formulated the notion of a "Culture of Peace" and ratified the "Declaration of Principles of Tolerance" on November 16, 1995. UNESCO designated 1995 as the International Year of Tolerance, marking November 16 as the annual International Day dedicated to fostering tolerance. This declaration garnered signatures from 135 member states, including Uzbekistan.

The ongoing process of globalization holds promise for universal advancement. The technological revolution in telecommunications and computing presents unprecedented opportunities for leveraging the benefits of international labor division, industrial collaboration, and resource optimization. The escalating interconnections among states, nations, peoples, and continents underpin the imperative for robust international cooperation and collective efforts to address the pressing challenges that humanity confronts in the latter part of the twentieth century.

Concomitantly, the accelerated pace of globalization has brought forth increasingly visible negative repercussions. Prevailing challenges in contemporary society encompass intolerance, aggression, and xenophobia. The uneven economic progress, religious diversification, and cultural and ethnic diversity contribute significantly to the origins of intolerance.

Notably, cultural orientation emerges as a pivotal factor shaping tolerance levels. Antagonistic cultural paradigms—aggressive-intolerant and tolerant—exist, with a certain adaptive capacity. Social satisfaction emerges as a decisive determinant of adaptability; higher levels foster tolerance, whereas lower levels relegate it to peripheral social strata.

Recent events underscore that the prevailing modes of globalization and associated post-industrial shifts inadequately address societal issues, thereby failing to cultivate a culture of tolerance in developed, developing countries, and the global community. The disparities in relationships among individuals, social groups, and national-state communities perpetuate inequalities, fostering social alienation and animosity, which obstruct the dissemination of public tolerance.

Multiculturalism has emerged as a potent countermeasure against this trend in recent years. In contrast to assimilationist approaches, multiculturalism advocates for the parallel existence and recognition of diverse ethnic communities representing distinct cultures. Public institutions bear the responsibility of facilitating this coexistence by creating conducive legal and material environments.

Contemporary philosophy perceives the predicament of modern society as a discernment between concepts such as globalization, multiculturalism, and tolerance. This signifies that tolerance is not merely a resolved societal quandary but an ongoing challenge within the global framework.

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