USEFUL VOCABULARY INSTRUCTIONS IN TEACHING PROCESS.

Isakova Barchinoy Ne'matovna

English teacher of Fergana Academic lyceum, Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Uzbekistan.

Barchinoyisakova89@gmail.com

Introduction: Studies have shown that reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge are strongly correlated, and researchers have found that word knowledge in primary school can predict how well students will be able to comprehend texts they read in high school. Limited vocabularies prevent students from comprehending a text. Poor readers often read less, because reading is difficult and frustrating for them . This means they don't read enough to improve their vocabularies, which could, in turn, help them comprehend more. This perpetuating cycle can mean that as students continue through middle school and high school, the gap between good and poor readers grows wider.

Topic analysis: Direct instruction in vocabulary can help arrest this cycle. Good readers often acquire much of their vocabulary through wide independent reading, also known as incidental learning. However, explicit instruction can help students learn enough words to become better readers (and thus acquire even more words). Direct vocabulary instruction is useful for students at all ability levels, but it is particularly useful for beginning students who have a limited reading vocabulary and little exposure to incidental vocabulary learning outside of school. Studies have shown that the key to increasing vocabulary is exposure to new words— not an innate ability to learn from context. Experts emphasize that vocabulary development is an attainable goal. If given the opportunity to learn new words as well as effective instruction, most students can acquire vocabulary at rates

that will improve their comprehension. This enables them to read increasingly challenging texts with fluency and betters their chances for success in school and afterward.

Traditionally, vocabulary instruction has focused on having students look up word meanings and memorize them . This teaching approach, however,provides only superficial and short-term learning of words. Students who simply memorize word meanings frequently have trouble applying the information in definitions and often make mistakes about the meanings. To know a word, students need to see it in context and learn how its meaning relates to the words around it. An approach that includes definitions as well as context can generate a full and flexible knowledge of word meanings. When students are given several sentences that use a word in different ways, they begin to see how a word's meaning can change and shift depending on its context. For example, consider the changes in the word got, as it appears in the following sentences: Ann got a cold. Ann got rich. Kate got a note from Daniel. Daniel got in trouble.

Teaching Vocabulary In Context

Researchers (Kruse 1979; Nation 1980; Gairns and Redman 1986; Oxford and Crookall 1988) agree that to learn words in context and not in isolation is an effective vocabulary learning strategy. A word used in different contexts may have different meanings; thus, simply learning the definitions of a word without examples of where and when the word occurs will not help learners to fully understand its meaning. Learning an isolated list of words without reference to the context is merely a memorization exercise which makes it difficult for learners to use the words in spoken and written language. Looking at the context in which the word appears seems to be the best way of learning vocabulary. Good readers also take advantage of their background knowledge in processing the context and in creating expectations about the kind of vocabulary that will occur in the reading

According to Yu Shu Ying a lecturer in the foreign language department of the Central University of Finance and Economics in Beijing, China there are four

assumptions underlie this discussion of a context-based approach to acquiring vocabulary.

1. Drawing inferences from what we observe is fundamental to thinking, and the same principle can be used in the reading process. Schema theory suggests that the knowledge we have is organized into interrelated patterns. These patterns are constructed from our previous experiences and guide us as to what we might expect to encounter in a new context (Nunan 1991). Making use of what we know in order to understand the unknown is a common practice in our daily lives. For instance, if we are in a building and observe that someone is entering folding a wet umbrella, we will infer that it is raining outside.

2. Vocabulary is connected with grammar, so familiarity with grammatical patterns helps the reader guess the meaning of words. For example, a word can be classified as a grammatical item or as a vocabulary item. Beautiful is a vocabulary item, and in functional grammar it is also an epithet in the nominal group the beautiful girl and reflects the speaker's opinion of the person described. The connection between vocabulary and grammar can be seen by the interdependence of grammatical and lexical cohesion. In a typical text, grammatical and lexical cohesion support each other.

3. The subject matter of a passage is interrelated and the text is often redundantly structured. To help readers, writers often give definitions or extensive clues within the text when a new word appears. So readers may have more than one chance to understand the passage.

4. By nature, reading is a process of hypothesis formation and verification; it is a communicative act between a writer and a reader (possibly a large number of readers). Consequently, the reader's understanding is unlikely to be 100 percent accurate. As Wallace puts it, "The mother-tongue speaker learns to be content with approximate meaning...He is satisfied with a meaning which makes sense of the context." He compares this view of reading to the work of secret agents: "In the

secret service there is a principle called the ‘need-to-know’ principle.... [I]n other words, agents are not told more than they need to know in case they get caught and betray their comrades. Perhaps in vocabulary learning the ‘need-to-know’ principle could also be applied. Students should not be told more about the meanings of words than they need to know to understand the context so that they don’t get confused" (Wallace).

A. Types of context clues

There are a number of different context clues that can help a reader infer the meaning of a new word.

Morphology. The students can derive word meanings by examining internal, morphological features, like prefixes, suffixes, and root words.

Reference words. Identifying the referents of pronouns may provide a clue to the meaning of an unfamiliar word. Example: Malnutrition gave him the shallowest of chests and thinnest of limbs. It stunted his growth. In this sentence, the effect of malnutrition is obvious. Students should be able to guess what malnutrition could have done to growth.

Cohesion Sometimes words in the same sentence or in adjacent sentences give an indication of the meaning of an unfamiliar word, because these words regularly co-occur with the unfamiliar word, producing what has been termed "collocational cohesion" (Halliday and Hasan).

Synonyms and antonyms. Often the reader can find the meaning of new items in the same sentence. Example: We had never seen such a large cave: it was simply enormous. Obviously, the unknown word is a synonym for large. Example: To be pretty and not plain, affluent and not poor, represents status in certain social groups. We note that pretty and plain are opposites. When we see the next pair of words in a parallel construction, we can assume that affluent is the opposite of poor, and must therefore mean rich.

Hyponyms. Very often the reader can see that the relationship between an unfamiliar word and a familiar word is that of a general concept accompanied by a specific example (a hyponym). Example: The museum contained almost every type of vehicle: cars, buses, trains, and even old carriages and coaches. Vehicle is being used as a hyponym; it encompasses all of the other items which are listed. Also, all of the listed items are of the same category.

Definitions. Sometimes the writer defines the meaning of the word right in the text. Example: Many animals live only by killing other animals and eating them. They are called predatory animals.

Alternatives. The writer may give an alternative of an unfamiliar word to make the meaning known. Example: Ichthyologists, or specialists in the study of fish, have contributed to our understanding of the past. The word ichthyologist is unfamiliar to some readers, but the writer explains the meaning by giving a more familiar term.

Restatement. Often the writer gives enough explanation for the meaning to be clear. Example: X ray therapy, that is, treatment by use of X ray, often stops the growth of a tumor. The phrase that is signals a clarification of a previously used word.

Example. Many times an author helps the reader get the meaning of a word by providing examples that illustrate the use of the word. Example: All the furniture had been completely removed so that not a single table or chair was to be seen. The learner should be able to guess the meaning of furniture from the two examples which are mentioned.

Summary. A summary clue sums up a situation or an idea with a word or a phrase.

Example: Christopher contributes money to the Red Cross, the Girls Club, and the Cancer Society. She also volunteers many hours in the emergency ward of the

hospital. She is indeed altruistic. From the account of Mrs. Christopher's deeds, the reader can infer that altruistic means unselfish.

Conclusion

All instructers have not the same ability to teach learners and any teachers with classroom teaching experience will agree that their style of teaching is uniquely their own. An effective teaching style engages students in the learning process and helps them to develop critical thinking skills. Traditional teaching styles have evolved with the advent of differentiated instruction, prompting teachers to adjust their styles toward students' learning needs. Although it is not the teacher's job to entertain students, it is vital to engage them in the learning process. Selecting a style that addresses the needs of diverse students at different learning levels begins with a personal inventory — a self-evaluation — of the teacher's strengths and weaknesses. As they develop their teaching styles and integrate them with effective classroom management skills, teachers will learn what works best for their personalities and curriculum.

References

1. Gairns, R., and S. Redman. 1986. Working with words: A guide to teaching and learning vocabulary. Melbourne: Cambridge University Press.

2. Halliday, M. A. K., and R. Hasan. 1976. Cohesion in English. London: Longman.

3. Honeyfield, J. 1977. Word frequency and the importance of context in vocabulary learning. RELC Journal, 2, pp. 35–40.

4. Kruse, A. F. 1979. Vocabulary in context. ELT Journal, 33, 3, pp. 207–213.

5. Nation, I. S. P. 1979. The curse of the comprehension question: Some alternatives. RELC Journal Supplement Guidelines, 2, pp. 85–103.

6. Strategies for receptive vocabulary learning. RELC Journal Supplement Guidelines, 3, pp. 18–23.

7. Nunan, D. 1991. Language teaching methodology. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

8. Oxford, R., and D. Crookall. 1988. Learning strategies. In You can take it with you: Helping students maintain foreign language skills beyond the classroom, ed. J. B. Gleason. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.