

The third international research conference
at the Faculty of Education on
EDUCATION, ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING,
ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURES IN ENGLISH

Proceedings

ISSN 2298-0180

April 19-20, 2013

Tbilisi

The third international research conference at the Faculty of education on EDUCATION,
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING, ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURES IN
ENGLISH

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WHAT HAPPENS WHEN WE DON'T CONSIDER STUDENTS' INTERESTS

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Abstract

The effectiveness of teaching process is the outcome of successful learning. Teaching does not deal with only lesson planning. It is much broader where students' interest and motivation should be considered. Certainly, good planning provides effective teaching where classroom management (relationship), lesson planning and teachers competence are included. Correspondingly, this paper deals with the problems that arise when teachers are only focused on planning rather than relationship. Only teachers' competence could not overcome this obstacle as students' involvement in the process is much more essential than their just obedience and passive participation. Ignoring students' willingness at any stage of lesson definitely would be revealed at the end.

Key words: students' interests, classroom management, teaching style,

Experience from filming a lesson

For many years researchers and teachers themselves have tried to find the secrets of successful teaching. The difficulty is that, although there are certain factors which occur over and over again, there can be considerable variations in the local context in which expert teachers work. One skilled practitioner may reward good work from a pupil by praising it, another by displaying it on the wall, a third by giving a written recommendation in a record book. Someone else might use a combination of these strategies, or just use another one (Oxford, 2002, p.59).

There are certain skills that teachers possess, like classroom management, which are of paramount importance. Without the ability to manage a group effectively, any other qualities teachers have may be neutralized. It is no good knowing your subject matter, being able to devise interesting activities appropriate to the topic, knowing what sort of questions to ask or being able

to give a clear explanation, if you cannot obtain a hearing or organize a group of children (Freeman-Larsen, 2002, p.89).

The principal aim of our research, therefore, is to give newcomers to the profession some basic notions and patterns about class management, and also to enable experienced teachers to examine their own practice and, it is hoped, improve it. One of the most satisfying features of teaching is that it is possible to work at and improve one's professional skills throughout one's teaching career. The ideas in this paper are in part based on our own research into classrooms, as well as that of others, and the activities have been tried out and evaluated over several times for last two years.

Teaching is different from that time-honored stereotype, because even newly qualified teachers have a lot to 'manage'. From the beginning to the end of their careers, teachers are responsible for managing, among other things:

- Resources and materials (including quite expensive equipment, in some cases);
- Time and space (lesson beginning and end, time spent on activities, layout of room);
- Teaching and learning strategies (e.g. use whole class, small groups, individual learning);
- Pupils' behavior, safety and wellbeing, interactions with others, progress;
- Relationships in and out of school, including with parents, support staff, other agencies.

(Wragg, 2003, p.5)

Purpose of study

In 2011-2012 academic years a new program-ELCE (English Language through Civic Education) was conducted in Kakheti public schools. The aim of this program was giving sessions to English school teachers. 28 teachers out of 6 public schools participated in the first round. Later the second group was trained, 21 teachers out of 6 schools. But the difference was on duration of the time. The first group's sessions lasted for one academic year. They had workshops once in two week and the second group's workshops were every other Saturdays and they have lasted for one semester. The program was conducted by the native speaker and each group covered ten modules. As for the evaluation the trainer has attended teacher's lessons after each sessions based on teachers' schedule. The aim of the program was combining Civic

Education with English teaching methodology. At the end four finalists were chosen from each group.

Methods of study

As we have already mentioned at the beginning of academic year the second round of session started. 21 teachers out of 6 public schools have sessions every other Saturdays (except of holidays). They have covered each module on Saturdays and the trainer attended each teachers lessons. The aim of observation was implementation of new material in English teaching methodology while in class. The result was really good as students' motivation was high. New strategies were combined with the course book materials, and students' eagerness to participate was revealed in each lesson.

At the end of program each teacher has applied for the summer camp application. For the presentations they were assigned to film their lessons. The purpose of filming was to make a present for the summer camp. For filming teachers firstly, were to design lesson plan, then send to the trainer and finally the cameraman had to film it. The permission letters for parents have been prepared and after signing the filming dates were chosen and the trainer together with the cameraman came to school. The first three teachers had no problems with filming, only the fourth teacher who was conducting lessons with the 10th graders had problems as the students have complains from the very beginning. Although they have brought the signed permissions they did not like the idea. The teacher tried to talk with them and pointed the positive side of filming. In this way the teacher had tried to involve students. Students just kept silence while discussion and the teacher had considered their silence as agreement.

So the date was fixed and trainer together with the cameraman came on time. It was Wednesday and 10th graders had English lesson at 9.00am. Unfortunately only 3 students out of 18 appeared for the first lesson. After consultation with the administration the teacher was allowed to change the schedule and the lesson was postponed for the next hour. 10 students have come for the second lesson. When they were informed about the changes in the schedule they did not show their disappointment, just came in class and expressed their feelings with passive participant. The lesson was filmed but that did not reveal the teacher's expectation. On the other hand, the same

lesson with slight differences was conducted with younger 7th graders and the lesson was recorded successfully.

Everything was clear there was a problem either in relationship or the way of conducted the lesson. To find out the basic problem we have used the professional's consultation. After discussion we have designed the questioners for students. There were 8 questions with four optional answers but basically we were interested in three of them. These three questions were mixed with others so the students would not guess what the questioner was for. This mini research was anonyms and the Art teacher had distributed them.

The result was revealed, out of 18 students 12 totally refused to be recorded as they did not feel comfortable while filming only 1 student liked the idea and 5 preferred to be filmed with hidden camera. So, the solution of the problem was clear.

Discussion:

After that the teacher has never mentioned that case and even we thought that students had forgotten about filming. But at the end of first semester (2012-2013 academic years) students enquired about that film. At first the teacher thought that it was just an innocent interest but later it turned out that students were seriously thinking about "that failure". The teacher has insured them that it was not a failure but considering their will and even has gifted the kept CD to them.

We have shared this information with you because the teaching process is really hard not only for new teachers but for experienced ones as well. From the very beginning the process was not student-centered as we have not considered the students interests and age. The only thing we were focused were lesson plan and the contest. The positive side was that students have managed to depend themselves as they have expressed their objection clearly. This was the evidence that students were used to authoritative teaching style. Even though they respect their teacher they have protected themselves as they could. But a bit slight feeling of being "guilty" had bothered them.

As we have already mentioned at the beginning the principle aim of this article is to enable both experienced and non-experienced teachers to examine their own practice daily. In case of

problem not ignore them but find the best way for obtaining students effective learning and involvement.

Conclusion. Thus, we can see that teaching is really challenging, but inspiring, as well there is no ready-made suggestion or advice for educators. Teaching/learning process should be conducted accurately, based on both students' and teachers' expectations. To my mind, students' interest and desire is much more important rather than focusing on the content of the lesson. In this case students' silence may be caused by students' age, not by their nature. Informing students beforehand about the aim of the lesson and considering their willingness will make the educational process student-centered where both sides – teachers and students - would be active.

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THE ROLE OF LEARNER AUTONOMY IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

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Abstract

The article deals with the problem of learner autonomy which is an increasingly important aspect of higher education because it meets the needs of developing life-long, autonomous learners. Its purpose is to develop the students' learning performance, give guidance on their learning strategies, and develop their interest in language learning. Teaching the learner autonomy in foreign language learning and the ways of fostering it in the learning process is very important. The article explores actual teaching practices relating to learner autonomy in order to gain a better understanding of teacher's roles in fostering learner autonomy in language teaching and learning.

Key words: principles of learner autonomy, the learner's role, the teachers' role, learning process, cognitive and metacognitive strategies, motivation, fostering learner autonomy

“I believe that all truly effective learning entails the growth of autonomy in the learner as regards both the process and the content of learning; but I also believe that for most learners the growth of autonomy requires the stimulus, insight and guidance of a good teacher” (Little, 2000).

Introduction

Autonomous learning has greatly developed both in theory and practice ever since its appearance in 1960s. It has transformed old practices in the language classroom and has given origin to self-access language learning centers around the world. As the result of such practices, language teaching is now seen as language learning and it has placed the learner as the centre of our attention in language learning education. While in the past what the learners should do, and how they should do it was typically decided by an authority figure i.e. the teacher, the director of studies or the education department, the notion of autonomous learning has gained in popularity since the 1980s. The term "learner autonomy" was first coined in 1981 by Henri Holec, the "father" of learner autonomy. Many definitions have since been given to the term, depending on

the writer, the context, and the level of debate educators have come to. It has been considered as a personal human trait, as a political measure, or as an educational move. This is because autonomy is seen either (or both) as a means or as an end in education. One of the key principles of learner autonomy is moving the focus from teaching to learning; take the teacher out of his spotlight and point it at the learners. This may seem daunting to new teachers or indeed experienced teachers who have been the centre of attention and in control of their classroom. Moving the focus from teaching to learning clearly doesn't mean that the teacher becomes obsolete or redundant. It means a change of pace from where lessons are organized around textbook material and the ground a teacher needs to cover. Lessons are now organized in collaboration with learners in regards to both material and methods. One of the key aspects to consider in defining Learner Autonomy is whether we view it as a means to an end (learning a foreign language) or as an end in itself (making people autonomous learners). These two options do not exclude each other, both of them can be part of our views towards language learning or learning in general. In the present study, it will be shown that learner autonomy is a perennial dynamic process rather than a static product, a state, which is reached once and for all. Principles of learner autonomy could be:

- Autonomy means moving the focus from teaching to learning.
- Autonomy affords maximum possible influence to the learners.
- Autonomy encourages and needs peer support and cooperation.
- Autonomy means making use of self/peer assessment.
- Autonomy requires and ensures 100% differentiation.
- Autonomy can only be practiced with student logbooks which are a documentation of learning and a tool of reflection.

Body

Autonomous learners are those who explicitly accept responsibility for their own learning (Little, 1991). The autonomous learner shows initiative regarding learning, and shares in monitoring progress and evaluating the extent to which learning is achieved (Schunk, 2005). Autonomous learners are intrinsically motivated to learn and evidence life-long learning. The learner's role in an autonomous environment is not that of a passive receiver of information. Learners are the makers of their own fortune and valued members of a learning community that is their class. Autonomous learners have the ability and willingness to learn on their own. Learners become successful if they take responsibility for their own learning. It is up to learners if they want to learn (Lowes & Target, 1999). Autonomous learners are those who understand why they are learning specific topics, accept responsibility for their learning, take the initiative in

planning and executing learning activities and are willing to assess their own learning (Little, Ridley & Ushioda, 2002). Learners' active participation in and responsibility for their own learning process are essential in the field of foreign language learning. (Dam, 1995). Learner autonomy includes the learner's reflective involvement in all aspects of the learning processes. Learners become autonomous by assuming responsibility for their own learning. This includes being involved in all aspects of the learning process: planning, implementation (monitoring) and assessment. Their autonomy grows as they become conscious of the process of learning (Little, Ridley & Ushioda, 2002). A factor that is vital to learner autonomy is self-assessment. Learners need to build up their own personal criteria for the quality of their work and develop independence from the teacher as the sole judge of their weaknesses and strengths. This helps the learners make informed decisions about their next steps in the learning process and removes the dependence on the teacher. They do not have to wait for him to tell them what to do next and how well they are doing. Even though the teacher remains the more knowledgeable and experienced person in the classroom, the goal is for learners to increase their knowledge and level of competence. Within the context of education, though, there seem to be seven main attributes characterizing autonomous learners:

- autonomous learners have insights into their learning styles and strategies;
- take an active approach to the learning task at hand;
- are willing to take risks, i.e., to communicate in the target language at all costs;
- are good guessers;
- attend to form as well as to content, that is, place importance on accuracy as well as appropriacy;
- develop the target language into a separate reference system and are willing to revise and reject hypotheses and rules that do not apply;
- have a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language (Omaggio, 1978).

The teachers' role in an autonomous language classroom is to help learners learn by exposing them to the language and providing opportunities for them to practice the new language in class as well as at home (Lowes & Target, 1999). A big part of implementing autonomy in the classroom is to teach diverse learning strategies, and assist the learners in finding the methods that best suit them. The learners have to be given the tools they need to become more self-sufficient and independent. The role of the teacher as supporting scaffolding and creating room for the development of autonomy is very demanding and very important. In order to be successful in implementing and reinforcing learner autonomy, teachers need to be aware of their role and responsibilities. This requires that teachers are willing to change and

negotiate with their students in the classroom. In order to promote autonomous learning, teachers have to be prepared to accept their new role (Little, 1995).

Which skills does the teacher need to foster to develop learner autonomy is largely dependent on how independent you expect your students to become. Initially teachers can develop skills that students need in order to find access and use resources; such as internet sites or online journals, supported by activities that are completed as homework tasks. Eventually this leads to students developing their own skills for setting objectives, planning their self-study, and even self-assessment. It's important to acknowledge that autonomy is a matter of degree, not 'either/or'. Nunan points out that this is developed in stages, starting from fostering awareness of the learning goals and the content of the materials learners are using, and developing into a 'transcendence' as learners go beyond the classroom to make links between the content of the classroom learning and the world beyond. How deep the learner is able to develop this process depends on the teacher, the learner and the resources available. Somebody may think that fostering learner autonomy remove the teacher from the learning process. But it is not so. Many learners come to the language class from a background of authoritative teaching. Their previous learning experience may well have conditioned them to be heavily reliant on the teacher for approval, direction, instruction, organization and learning strategies. We can't simply expect these learners to be autonomous, and there is typically a real need to develop learner autonomy in the classroom. Eventually the learner is equipped to conduct his/her ongoing learning outside the classroom and even evaluate it. The learner should come to see the teacher in her role as a facilitator and resource rather than the 'unquestionable authority'. Furthermore, although a learner may develop skills of autonomous learning, this doesn't preclude them from participating in language classroom lessons. In the learning process the learners use any specific set of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Cognitive strategies operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning. Learners may use any or all of the following cognitive strategies:

- repetition, when imitating others' speech;
- resourcing, i.e., having recourse to dictionaries and other materials;
- translation, that is, using their mother tongue as a basis for understanding and/or producing the target language;
- note-taking;
- deduction, i.e., conscious application of L2 rules;
- contextualization, when embedding a word or phrase in a meaningful sequence;
- transfer, that is, using knowledge acquired in the L1 to remember and understand facts and sequences in the L2;

- inferencing, when matching an unfamiliar word against available information (a new word, etc.);
- question for clarification, when asking the teacher to explain, etc.

There are many more cognitive strategies in the relevant literature. According to Wenden (1998), "Metacognitive knowledge includes all facts learners acquire about their own cognitive processes as they are applied and used to gain knowledge and acquire skills in varied situations'. In a sense, metacognitive strategies are skills used for planning, monitoring, and evaluating the learning activity; 'they are strategies about learning rather than learning strategies themselves". Learner autonomy is more closely related to metacognitive strategies. Let us see some of them:

- directed attention, when deciding in advance to concentrate on general aspects of a task;
- selective attention, paying attention to specific aspects of a task;
- self-monitoring, i.e., checking one's performance as one speaks;
- self-evaluation, i.e., appraising one's performance in relation to one's own standards;
- self-reinforcement, rewarding oneself for success. (Cook, 1993).

At the planning stage, also known as pre-planning (Wenden, 1998), learners identify their objectives and determine how they will achieve them. Planning, however, may also go on while a task is being performed. This is called planning-in-action. Here, learners may change their objectives and reconsider the ways in which they will go about achieving them. At the monitoring stage, language learners act as participant observers or overseers of their language learning, asking themselves, "How am I doing? Am I having difficulties with this task?" and so on. Finally, when learners evaluate, they do so in terms of the outcome of their attempt to use a certain strategy. According to Wenden, evaluating involves three steps: 1) learners examine the outcome of their attempts to learn; 2) they access the criteria they will use to judge it; and 3) they apply it. It is necessary to shed some light on learner motivation. Although the term 'motivation' is frequently used in educational contexts, there is little agreement among experts as to its exact meaning. What most scholars seem to agree on, though, is that motivation is 'one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of second or foreign language (L2) learning. Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process' (Dornyei,1998). According to Gardner and MacIntyre (1993), motivation is comprised of three components: desire to achieve a goal, effort extended in this direction, and satisfaction with the task.

It is manifest that in language learning, people are motivated in different ways and to different degrees. Some learners like doing grammar and memorizing; others want to speak and role-play; others prefer reading and writing, while avoiding speaking. Furthermore, since '[the learning of a foreign language] involves an alteration in self-image, the adoption of new social and cultural behaviors and ways of being, and therefore has a significant impact on the social nature of the learner' (Williams, 1994). An important distinction should be made between instrumental and integrative motivation. Learners with an instrumental orientation view the foreign language as a means of finding a good job or pursuing a lucrative career; in other words, the target language acts as a 'monetary incentive' (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993: 3). On the other hand, learners with an integrative orientation are interested in the culture of the target language; they want to acquaint themselves with the target community and become integral parts of it. Of course, this approach to motivation has certain limitations, but an in-depth analysis is not within the purview of this study. The bottom line is that motivation is 'a central mediator in the prediction of language achievement' (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). Intrinsic motivation has the biggest impact on autonomous learning. Those students who are intrinsically motivated will be more goal-oriented and might want for example a lot of tests and exams. The students who are intrinsically motivated will derive a lot of satisfaction from solving language problems - the solution will be a reward in itself (Lowry, 2008). Closely related to motivation is the concept of self-esteem, that is, the evaluation the learner makes of herself with regard to the target language or learning in general. "Self-esteem is a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that the individual holds towards himself" (Coopersmith, 1967). If the learner has a 'robust sense of self', his relationship to himself as a learner is unlikely to be marred by any negative assessments by the teacher. Conversely, a lack of self-esteem is likely to lead to negative attitudes towards his capability as a learner, and to 'a deterioration in cognitive performance', thus confirming his view of himself as incapable of learning. There are many resources that teachers can draw from in order to encourage learner autonomy. With the wealth of these resources available for self-study language teaching is, now more than ever before, in a position to encourage learner autonomy – supported by learner training in the classroom. These resources are: general and specialist dictionaries, journals and periodicals, television, radio streaming, Internet. If a teacher raises awareness that these resources can be accessed and utilized independently for further self-study, many students will do so.

Experiment

The experiment was held in Gori State University on intermediate level (III year) students in 2012 year. 36 students whose ages ranged from 19 to 22 participated in the experiment. The experiment lasted for one semester. The students were divided into two groups. Eighteen students were in experimental group and eighteen – in control group. Before the experiment both groups had to write tests and their results showed that they had approximately the same level of language skills. Both the two classes used the same textbook under the guidance of the same teacher and followed the same syllabus. The only difference was that one class was under the traditional grammar-translation teaching approach (Control Group), and the other was under the learner autonomy approach (Experimental Group).

In the experimental group

- Teacher became less of an instructor and more of a facilitator
- Students were discouraged from relying on the teacher as the main source of knowledge
- Students' capacity to learn for themselves was encouraged
- Students were encouraged to make decisions about what they learn
- Students' awareness of their own learning styles was encouraged

Both groups had to write 3 tests: before the experiment, in the middle of the experiment and final – after the experiment. The results of the final tests showed that students in the experimental group benefited a lot from this learner autonomy approach. They could take more responsibility of their learning. The students' grammar, vocabulary, listening, speaking, writing and pronunciation skills in experimental group were much better than in the control group.

Conclusion

Thus, we can make a conclusion that the students' ability to behave autonomously depends on their teacher who is responsible to create an autonomous learning atmosphere. First of all the teachers should understand their role in developing and delivering learner autonomy as a pedagogical approach and then help their learners take control of their own learning. Autonomy helps students develop good study habits, a positive attitude about studies and helps them realize that studying does not have to be a painful process. Autonomy prepares students to deal with everyday situations and to find solutions avoiding frustration. So "Autonomous learning is more effective than non-autonomous learning.

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TEACHER'S SELF-IMPROVEMENT DURING EXTENSION COURSES

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Abstract

In the article the essence of person-oriented professional self-improvement of the teacher in an independent mode in the extension courses is proved. The modular-sized orientation of the additional professional educational programs, differentiated and an individual approach promoting self-improvement of the teacher and overcoming of professional difficulties is offered. It is one of indispensable conditions of development of the level of their professional-pedagogical competence in the extension courses.

Key words: extension courses, teacher's professional self-improvement, teacher's individual work, pedagogical competence, professionalism, teacher's improvement of professional skill, principle of GSP.

The Baku City in-service teachers training and re-training Institute (BCI) is the basis for professional development of teachers of comprehensive secondary schools of Baku. The necessity of continuous education for them is caused by a new educational paradigm and incremental dynamism in an educational situation (Aliyeva, 2012; 2012a). In the conditions of the new educational paradigm the teachers, not to decrease the level of proficiency, should not only acquire new knowledge, but also be able to choose independently the necessary information from the methodical literature and Internet resources.

According to the basic concepts of adult learning, the organization of cognitive activity of adults is impossible without the creation of necessary conditions for self-organizing and self-acting control of their activity so that new knowledge can be discovered (Hansman, 2008). It specifies the necessity of the account of teacher self-education in extension courses. This is possible through differencing approach and orientation to the training on creative development of the competence level, and also through the use of pedagogical experience of teachers (Knight et al., 2011).

The experimental research of development of professional-pedagogical competence of teachers carried out by us within a teacher training system on the basis of BCI have shown that improvement

of professional teacher skills has optimal conditions for self-reliant education and professional self-improvement (Aliyeva, 2012b).

In the present article the results of research of conditions and didactic principles of self-improvement of teachers during extension courses in BCI are being discussed.

It is accepted to understand all kinds of cognitive activities of the teacher as his/her self-improvement during the extension courses. According to the results of these investigations of self-reliant education during extension courses the given concept is considered as application of *principle of GSP*, i.e. **gradually**, **sequentially** and **permanently** acquiring new knowledge and skills, for achievement of high level of professional-pedagogical competence.

Some scientists-educators prefer the concept “autonomy of the teachers learning during the extension courses”, defining the given point as follows (Zmeev, 1997, p. 38):

1) “autonomy of teachers’ learning, defined as self-sufficiency of educational and work activities, is shown in a conscious choice of various variants of the solution of educational tasks and problems, in the critical estimation perceived”;

2) “the autonomy as the major distinctive, intrinsic sign of auto-didactics” can be considered in the quality “the further development of the research method of basic learning under the influence of increasing self-sufficiency in learning and pedagogical thinking”;

3) “self-sufficiency learning is characterized, first of all, by a major level of autonomy, self-sufficiency of teacher from external influences - favorable and adverse, and also by flexibility of training on time, place, the maintenance, forms and training methods”.

Self-sufficiency of cognitive activity of the teacher includes:

1) the correct statement of the purpose on the basis of awareness of teacher’s educational needs, definition of problems and prospective results of work;

2) planning of self-sufficiency work, definition of the maintenance, stages of work, total amount of time necessary for its implementation, and implementation terms;

3) definition and choosing of the effective ways and means of self-sufficiency implementation of work;

4) self-organizing and timely self-control behind a course of performance of a task in view; it therefore comes to light, whether the task in these ways and means is correctly carried out, whether updating in a course and modes of work is required;

5) self-assessment of success of educational-cognitive activity in specific goal achievement in implementation of exercises, tasks from a position of perfection of certain actions.

The teacher self-improvement during the extension courses as a whole corresponds to the listed positions: joining in self-sufficiency work, it necessarily receives concrete, in advance programmed result - an activity product - methodological materials, the project of a lesson, etc. In the course of

mastering and transformation of concrete volume of knowledge and abilities through a prism of the expertise the teacher masters methodological bases of studying of theoretical material and educational practice, ways and means of professional self-improvement. In parallel to it there is a development of self-sufficiency design thinking as a major characteristic of the modern expert, readiness for self-improvement and training. The last personally significant result of self-improvement of the teacher during the extension courses acquisition of experience of self-sufficiency activity and on its basis - readiness for self-sufficiency professional work and self-improvement in it is final. The success of self-improvement of the teacher depends on many internal and external factors: abilities and volitional merits, motives and installations of the teacher, the general educational and vocational training, the maintenance and complexity of problems of self-sufficiency work and in the greatest measure - on its organization and management.

The above-mentioned research, carried out by us, on a problem of self-improvement of the teacher on the basis of BCI, in particular, concerning the organization of self-sufficiency work during the extension courses, has shown that professional self-improvement, formation and development of readiness of the teacher to this activity does not occur relevantly and is disconnected. Motivation development to self-improvement and didactic readiness of the teacher is also inconsistent. At the general positive relation to the extension courses the majority of teachers show low level of possession of a technique of teaching of a subject, the majority does not have a fair idea of ways of designing of a lesson. The situation becomes complicated by the fact that the majority of teachers consider that research in the field of teaching techniques cannot give significant results for the development of level of their professional-pedagogical competence.

To organize self-improvement of the teacher on the basis of BCI effectively we consider the leading principles of didactics:

- motivation leading to assiduous activity on self-improvement;
- gradually, sequentially and permanently working of teachers, named as a *principle of GSP*, according to the program of extension courses;
- presence of materials for the self-sufficiency work, necessary for *GSP principle* realization and availability of necessary educational-methodological materials in the library and at institute chairs;
- productivity of self-improvement of professional competencies of teachers;
- taking into account the personal features and level of professional-pedagogical competence of the teacher;
- methodological materials and office equipment accessible Internet, and also normal sanitary-and-hygienic conditions of classes, essential for well-being of educational process.

Firstly, among the listed didactic principles of the organization of self-improvement of the teacher, motivation is the guiding principle. It induces to active actions from the first occurrence in the educational environment of BCI. The teacher training institute has an important mission of formation and motivation development of training and self-improvement.

Secondly, trainings in BCI according to the *principle GSP* begins with a choice of the corresponding modular-sized program. The teacher, considering the various offered modules chooses the modular-sized program, more corresponding to level of his/her pedagogical competence. Our long-term experience shows that teachers with low level of professional-pedagogical competence try to conceal this fact, and choose difficult, high-capacity modular-sized programs or in general find it difficult to choose the suitable modular-sized program. In such cases we offer them an initial diagnostic assessment (in the beginning of extension courses) to find out the level of their competence (Aliyeva, 2012 c). Thus, by results of an assessment level of knowledge, scientifically-methodical abilities and skills of the teacher comes to light and corresponding modular-sized programs are offered. The given didactic principle equally concerns all listeners of the extension courses.

Thirdly, teacher who received a positive charge from motivation and is actively adjusted to join in the cognitive, educational process, needs additional methodological materials. For methodological support of teachers and assistance in self-improvement the methodological materials prepared by us, in particular, innovative samples of lessons (Aliyeva & Rzayev, 2013), the book of test tasks (Aliyeva & Nadjafova, 2010), texts for dictation at lessons of the native language (Aliyeva & Damirova, 2006) and release prints of scientific and pedagogical articles on the application of interactive methods of teaching and on the increase of lesson's density are offered. Mastering by the teacher of these ways is considered as a didactic means of formation of abilities of self-improvement, samples of innovative lessons, educational test tasks - as unit of educational process.

By the way, our co-authors in the referenced above methodological manuals (Rzayev, Nadjafova and Damirova) are the oldest advanced teachers of the Azerbaijani language. Their advanced pedagogical experience has been carefully studied, generalized, and introduced at comprehensive secondary schools of Baku taking into account its regional and mental features (Aliyeva, 2012, d).

Fourthly, productivity of self-improvement professional competencies of teachers is defined on the basis of comparison of an initial, intermediate and final diagnostic assessment of the level of professional-pedagogical competence by a technique offered by us in (Aliyeva & Rzayev, (2013).

Fifthly, an important condition of extension courses is a due regard on personal features and the level of professional-pedagogical competence of each teacher. These issues were considered by us

in detail earlier (Aliyeva, 2012b). Here, we pertinently insist on the individual approach to the organization of self-improvement of the teacher. It is natural that young, unskilled teachers especially need to develop their professional-pedagogical competence.

Annually held by us traditional questionnaire of novice teachers for the first time participating on extension courses in BCI shows that only a few of graduates of pedagogical high schools, right after graduation start teaching activity. Many of them for a long time remain unemployed, or work in other spheres. It leads to a considerable decrease in level of theoretical knowledge on the specialized field, and also deadening of pedagogical abilities and skills. Some years ago there were recovery courses in teacher training system of Azerbaijan for novice and unskilled teachers. However, with the application of new rules of admission of teachers to work, recovery courses have been cancelled.

Last among the didactic principles of self-improvement of the teacher offered by us in extension course on the basis of BCI provides the creation of normal sanitary-and-hygienic conditions, maintenance with office equipment and accessible Internet. Comfortable conditions also are the factor stimulating autonomous teacher activity of research character.

To summarize all the above-stated, we believe that the modular orientation of additional professional educational programs (based on differentiated and individual approach) on overcoming of professional difficulties of each teacher is one of indispensable conditions of the development of level of their professional competence.

In conclusion it is necessary to notice that the improvement of professional skill as a stage of continuous pedagogical education should possess an advancing character in relation to existing requirements to vocational training of teachers. Only in this case its evolutionary function will be realized.

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CONCEPT OF DEATH IN HEMINGWAY'S SHORT STORIES

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Abstract

The paper views the concept of Death in E. Hemingway's short stories. Death is the main theme in Ernest Hemingway's writings. His short stories such as "Indian Camp", "The Undefeated", "A Natural History of the Dead", "Nobody Ever Dies", and "The Snows of Kilimanjaro" involve death and leave the reader with an ending that lacks hope. The reason is most likely related to Hemingway's life and the influences of other writers of his time. Because of the painful events in his life, Hemingway's writing exhibits a continuous theme of death – an obsession and struggle that is reflected through the words of his stories.

Keywords: death, life, war, fight, pain, symbol of death

Death is the main theme in Ernest Hemingway's writings. His short stories such as "Indian Camp", "The Undefeated", "A Natural History of the Dead" and "Nobody Ever Dies", "The Snows of Kilimanjaro" involve death and leave the reader with an ending that lacks hope. The reason is most likely related to Hemingway's life and the influences of other writers of his time. Because of the painful events in his life, Hemingway's writing exhibits a continuous theme of death – an obsession and struggle that is reflected through the words of his stories. The problem of death and hopelessness that overrides most of Hemingway's stories came from Hemingway's life, but before coming out in his stories, the despair was kept inside his mind.

As writing is the natural outflow of what is in the mind, fears and desires held in our subconscious will come out into the words of a story. In Hemingway's stories, we can see the hopeless endings and the focus on death, whether expressed as victory or failure. Hemingway's stories can be seen as a way for him to get back to sanity from a mind full of a fear or an obsession with death. A study of Hemingway's stories could be construed as showing Hemingway's fragmented self and the things he lacked, or as his unfulfilled desires and dreams. At the same time Hemingway's short stories reveal his brokenness. They show an obsession. The stories that reveal this obsession also reveal what Hemingway was deeply lacking and how what he desired so intensely became intertwined into each story.

"Indian Camp" (1925) is one of Hemingway's first stories. Nick and his father, a doctor, go across the water by boat to the Indian camp to help a woman give birth to her child. Once they get into the shanty, they find that the woman is having complications with her birth and her

husband is in the bunk above her with an ax wound on his leg. Nick's father operates on the woman to get the baby delivered. She is fine, but when Nick's father looks for the husband, they find that he has slit his throat. Nick sees this and asks his father why the man had killed himself. His father replies, "I don't know, Nick. He couldn't stand things, I guess" (Hemingway, 1987: 69). Nick continues to question his father about death, probably thinking about it in a real sense for the first time. At the end of the story, as Nick and his father are rowing home in the boat, Hemingway writes that Nick "felt quite sure that he would never die" (Hemingway, 1987:70). This story starts with the hope of life, but death prevails in the end. It is a desire for life as well as a fear and lack of understanding of death. "There is irony in Nick's conviction that he would never die. The reader suspects at the end that it is based on the boy's wish for belief rather than a confident belief in the sheltering strength of his father" (Shaw, 1973: 31). Nick's desire was for protection from death, yet in this situation, he realized that there is brokenness in the world, and that his life will never be whole because of death's shadow over life. Hemingway must have experienced this fear after the death of his father.

The suicide of his father was not the only form of death with which Hemingway dealt. Hemingway was also grappling with a general fear of death unconsciously in "Indian Camp". The story can be analyzed to show the author's desires and fears. Nick looks to his father for protection from death. In reality, nothing can protect a person from the finality of death, but Nick's longing for it shows Hemingway's longing for such protection. He realizes that death is powerful and real when the Indian father dies. This is his first death experience. Nick asks questions, trying to understand death and how it affects him. Nick finally denies that death will ever take his own life, showing Hemingway's desire for life but underlying realization that death will ultimately win. Hemingway realized the law of the world – that death is real – and struggled with accepting it. The desire that is seen in "Indian Camp" is eternal earthly life, and the fear is death.

In "A Natural History of the Dead" (1933), Hemingway tried to write interesting things about the dead. Herein Hemingway spoke of the dead lightly, almost as if they were not people, but objects. His opening says, "Can we not hope to furnish the reader with a few rational and interesting facts about the dead?" (Hemingway, 1987: 335) The first group discussed is animals--mules specifically. The ancient Greeks, fighting in Smyrna, broke the legs of mules and let them drown in the water. Later Hemingway discusses the explosion at a munitions factory in Milan, Italy. The dead found there were all women. Hemingway

was actually writing about the explosion he experienced during the war. In 1918, he was helping in Milan, Italy when a munitions factory exploded. The consequences were gruesome and "fourteen years later his memories of the scene would form the basis of the section in *Death in the Afternoon* called "A Natural History of the Dead"(de Koster, 1997: 17). He described how flesh changes color the longer a person is dead; that dead bodies grow to enormous sizes; that these were all rolled over onto their stomachs so that those still alive could get the papers out of their back pockets to know where to bury them. Hemingway continued, "the heat, the flies, the

indicative positions of the bodies in the grass, and the amount of paper scattered are the impressions one retains. The smell of a battlefield in hot weather one cannot recall” (Hemingway, 1987: 337). Hemingway had never seen a natural death, except for that resulting from the Spanish influenza. In his actual experience, Hemingway also mentioned the weather, which was not hot like in Milan, but rather very cold—especially for generals who fought and died in the mountains. Hemingway also wrote of doctors and injured who had to hide in caves in the mountains.

Though Hemingway displayed a lack of emotion (or even sincerity) throughout the story, it is evident that not only these deaths, but the entire experience of war affected him. “The effects of the war experience on Hemingway the man were profound and lasted all his life. For years after Italy he left his bedroom light on at night. Insomnia plagued him. Death was always with him in dreams and nightmares” (Shaw, 1973: 20). These painful emotions were suppressed at first; later they came out through the words of his stories. Even so, Hemingway’s style is devoid of emotion from the beginning of the story to the end. At the end of the dialogue, the doctor lacks compassion towards the soldier’s pain. Hemingway emotionless prose perhaps combated his deep pain. . The doctor at the end of the story represents death and how it ultimately has control over every person. Hemingway’s desire, here again, is for a lack of pain and death, and the fear is the presence of it.

“Nobody Ever Dies” (1939) is another story in which Hemingway wrote of death and war. The story opens with a young man in a house with a mockingbird. The young man is Enrique, a war soldier. He is hiding in the house. As he waits nervously, he sees a Negro outside. Finally, Maria, his girlfriend, comes to visit and bring food, and they start talking about all the people who have died so far in battle—one of whom is her brother. Enrique tries to explain to her that people do not die without reason, but that they die as part of the process of helping others. However, Enrique speaks without emotion, which upsets Maria. She tells him that he talks “like a book,” showing no emotion about those who have died (Hemingway, 1987: 475). This conversation causes Maria to view death as inevitable, but her view continues to change. She learns despite the inevitability of death, the dead give confidence and strength to the living. The two begin kissing when suddenly sirens go off, and they have to escape. Police surround the house, and Enrique is eventually shot and killed. As they capture Maria, she cries out, ““No one dies for nothing . . . Everyone is helping me now” (Hemingway, 1987: 480). The story ends with the frightened Negro holding voodoo beads. In the end, Enrique is killed and Maria is captured. He accepts the deaths of all the people he knew fighting in the war. He is under the control of death and of his enemies in the war. Enrique’s character thus represents death’s control over life. In the scene where Enrique and Maria are kissing, Hemingway wrote, “the being alive returning and no pain, the comfort of being loved and still no pain; so there was a hollowness of loving, now no longer hollow” (Hemingway, 1987:477). The longing for love seems to be fulfilled in Enrique’s mind, but then reality interrupts this, a siren goes off, and Enrique is captured and killed. Irony appears again in the title, which gives the impression of life, though the story ends in death. Here

Hemingway seems to be struggling. Enrique dealt with death by showing no emotion and explaining very matter-of-factly that the deaths of many are needed to help others, and Hemingway was probably dealing with the same struggle himself by writing about it. Hemingway could not write that he was afraid of death or that he longed for eternal earthly life so badly, so he attempted to express an acceptance of death or an apathetic attitude. In actuality, he did fear death and he did long for life, but he knew that the object of his fear was inevitable and that he longed for something that was impossible.

The short story entitled "The Undefeated" (1927) addresses death through bullfighting. Manuel, the main character, goes to Retana, a man who is in charge of bullfighting, and asks to bullfight to make some money. Retana is unfriendly, seemingly uncaring, and tells Manuel that the only thing he can let him do is fight at a night show as a substitute for an injured bullfighter. Night shows pay the least amount of money and are less glorious than the day shows. Bullfighting has brought death into Manuel's family in the past, killing his brother, but this does not stop him from participating in it. Manuel is reluctant, to fight, but gives in and asks Zurito, a picador he knows, to help him. A signifier that a man is a bullfighter is the coleta, or pigtail, he wears in his hair. At the beginning, Manuel kept it hidden, but later lets it hang down for others to see. Zurito does not want to help Manuel because he thinks he is too old, and threatens to cut off his coleta. However, Zurito decides to help on the condition that Manuel stop fighting if this fight does not go well. Manuel fights that night and indeed it does not go well. The story ends with Manuel badly hurt by the bull, and Zurito by his side. Despite the seriousness of his injuries, Manuel is still trying to convince himself and others that he is fine and that he fought a good fight.

Bullfighting brings an adrenaline rush to the fighter and a sense of excitement. Thus, the physical pleasure in this story comes with the bullfighting. But, with this comes the realization of the loss of wholeness. This loss is seen when Manuel first goes to Retana and is rejected for the day fight, and has to substitute for an injured night fighter. Manuel sees his lack of wholeness as his strength diminishes and he realizes he is not the bullfighter he once was. He has to accept the rules that Retana has set for him. There are two images that foreshadow the eventual end. The first is the bullhead above Retana's head, mounted on the wall of his office. This is the head of the bull that killed Manuel's brother, and represents the authority that Retana has over Manuel and the loss of wholeness that Manuel's brother's death has brought to him. It also symbolizes the danger that looms over Manuel and that caused his brother's death. Secondly, Zurito threatens Manuel that he will cut off his coleta because he should not be fighting any more. This threat is like a threat to life for Manuel, in the same way that death is a constant threat to Hemingway. Later, Manuel goes to a bar and talks to some waiters who realize that he is a bullfighter. After talking to him about his fighting for a short time, they finally forget that he is there. "Manuel looked at them, standing talking in front of his table. He had drunk his second brandy. They had forgotten about him. They were not interested in him" (Hemingway, 1987:29). Manuel was not well known, and the fact that he would be fighting at night made the waiters less interested in him. As the story proceeds, the reader is left with disappointment and lost hope. At

the end of the bullfight, Manuel grows tired, less focused, and angry. His confidence has turned into loss. The last fight of Manuel's life shows that though he has killed the bull, he cannot hold on to

his own life. The blood of the bull shows that he conquered some of the trials of life, but Manuel lies there almost dead. The last lines show this tension. Manuel asks Zurito if he had fought well, and Zurito gives a positive answer, though he betrays what he truly believes. Then, "the doctor's assistant put the cone over Manuel's face and he inhaled deeply. Zurito stood awkwardly, watching" (Hemingway, 1987:205). Manuel is dying, and though he tries to deny it, he lacks the strength that he once had. Hemingway's desire was to conquer defeat, and though his title goes along with this, the message of his story shows that in the end, reality proves differently.

In "The Snows of Kilimanjaro" (Hemingway, n.d.) the main character is dying from the very beginning of the story. Unfortunately, he has not lived in a way that makes his death any easier. He has "sold out" for money and traded his talents and skills. Therefore, Hemingway's short story, "The Snows of Kilimanjaro" is not only filled with recurrent images of death but death's presence overshadows the entire story as Harry slowly rots away from gangrene.

Death is shown largely through symbolism. The white, mysterious mountain of Kilimanjaro is one symbol. From the very beginning, the reader is told that the native call the mountain "The House of God." And so it will become the final resting place for Harry as he continues to rot away with gangrene. If the frozen leopard is a symbol of the entrance to heaven, then it makes sense that Harry would spend his last days on earth passing judgment on himself. "No one has explained what the leopard was seeking at that altitude" (Hemingway, n.d.). In this way it remains mysterious as does the ending of the story.

The reader never really knows if the peak of the mountain is heaven or hell. The snow-capped mountain could certainly stand for sterile death, but the whiteness of it could also stand for heaven. He leaves earth and travels through a dark rainstorm with a bright light at the end. Kilimanjaro is only described as "wide as all the world, great, high, and unbelievably white in the sun" (Hemingway, n.d.). All the reader comes away with is the mystery of death, especially with Hemingway using that whole dreamlike sequence at the end of the story. He slips into a coma and his friend Compton arrives to get him help. However, the reader does know that the story ends in death because of the double ending where the woman finds Harry dead.

The whiteness of the snow both on Kilimanjaro and interspersed into his other reveries as well is a symbol. Of course, white stands for innocence and purity. However, in the italicized part of this story are the stories that Harry never told. In these stories the snow is dirtied in some way. This stands for the fact that Harry has never written all the stories he wanted to write. As Harry tells the reader, "Now he would never write the things that he had saved to write until he knew enough to write them well. Well, he would not have to fail at trying to write them either. Maybe you could never write them, and that was why you put them off and delayed the starting. Well he would never know, now" (Hemingway, n.d.). His purity is dirtied by the fact that he sold his

talent out for money and comfort. As a result of not using his talent, he says that he stinks. "It was a talent all right but instead of using it, he had traded on it.

It was never what he had done, but always what he could do. And he had chosen to make his living with something else instead of a pen or a pencil" (Hemingway, n.d.). Of course this must condemnation of himself must be taken both literally and figuratively since he is rotting as well. So, maybe the rot coming from his leg symbolizes the very moral decay that led him here. In fact, the very idea that he doesn't not suffer this slow-death may be a figurative way of saying that everything good about Harry was already dead. He gets almost nonchalant about his death as he contemplates his life. "So now it was all over, he thought. So now he would never have a chance to finish it. So this was the way it ended, in a bickering over a drink. Since the gangrene started in his right leg he had no pain and with the pain the horror had gone and all he felt now was a great tiredness and anger that this was the end of it" (Hemingway, n.d.).

The hyena that hovers throughout the story is another symbol. Hyenas are traditional symbols of death since they feed on the dead bodies of animals and occasionally people. The woman actually goes out to kill the hyena, telling Harry that she doesn't want to disturb wildlife when clearly she does not want to disturb her dying husband with yet another image of death. The hyena, as a scavenger and sure symbol of death contrasts with the frozen leopard, which may be a symbol of heaven. However the hyena wakes the woman up to tell her of Harry's death. "Just then the hyena stopped whimpering in the night and started to make a strange, human, almost crying sound. The woman heard it and, stirred uneasily" (Hemingway, n.d.). She awakens and shines a flashlight to find Harry dead.

Throughout the story, the symbols are repeated in different ways. The story begins with death and ends with death. Mount Kilimanjaro may symbolize heaven or hell in its ambiguity, but it is definitely the final resting place of Harry. The whiteness is also a double-edged symbol. White is purity, but where white is sullied, it represents all the failings of Harry. Lastly, the hyena is the symbol of death and the very presence that lets the woman know of Harry's death. This is contrasted with the frozen leopard on the mountain. Harry's physical death runs parallel to his reminiscing about his life and detailing his spiritual and professional death. The ambiguity of the symbols leaves the reader guessing, but the wasteland of Harry's life is certain.

Hemingway's writing reveals more than just stories, it reveals underlying reasons for his obsession of death. Hemingway's heroes give in to death's power and lament life's inevitable end. That is why his stories end with death or hopelessness. Hemingway shows the human weakness. Objects in real life symbolize what is in the world and also what Hemingway lacked - the lack of strength to ultimately fight death. Finally, a close consideration of Hemingway's life shows clear reasons for the unconscious fear and desire that comes out in his stories. He feared death and desired eternal earthly life, but in the end he received what he feared and was left without his attaining his desire.

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DECENTRALIZATION OF SCHOOL BASED MANAGEMENT AND SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

(American Experience)

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Abstract

School improvement and effectiveness has long been a problem in many countries. Although managerial, content and process reforms are receiving active consideration of the governing bodies, scholars, education experts and community, corresponding change which would meet the challenges of the new era in secondary education management, however, is not visible. This is a universal story all the world over. Change in education management for sustainable growth in a free market economy operating in a competitive environment is extremely complicated, risky, and costly experiment. Nevertheless, school administration and management decentralization is considered by many countries to be one of the most efficient modern approaches for further progress of school education. The approach to school based management is to be a system change, which is painfully slow, and it involves several stages: Decentralization of education management policy, development of the framework and guidelines for effecting managerial change, and delegation of specific functions to the regional, district and school levels. What makes school effective? First and foremost, it is a school decentralized management initiatives which comprises the devolution process of important decision making authority to school principals, teachers, parents and students. Pedagogical shift for pedagogical renovation is a key to success to achieve real change which embraces issues of cardinal importance, such as, flexible curriculum, student-centered class, proactive teaching, staff development, teachers' self-evaluation, peer coaching, and other. The article deals with the problems Georgian school system faces at present and argues about the perspectives of school administration and management decentralization as one of the efficient approaches to school improvement.

Key Words: decentralization of managerial structure, school based management, school effectiveness, restructuring school division, community involvement, staff development, school leadership, school level decision making

Decentralization for School Based Management and School Effectiveness

(American Experience)

School improvement and effectiveness has long been a problem in many countries. Although managerial, content and process reforms are receiving active consideration of the governing bodies, scholars, education experts and community, corresponding change which would meet the present challenges in secondary education management, however, is not visible. This is a universal story all the world over. Public school administration and management decentralization is considered by many countries to be one of the most efficient and modern approaches for further progress of school education. However, **not** all forms of decentralization are equal in the result, nor does decentralization by itself produce meaningful change. Decentralization proves effective when it enhances public school choice, and therefore creates competitive market for education. A traditional friction between the central administrative office and individual schools has been identified in many countries, including Georgia. The existed tension, between state school administration and the central office caused by restrictions imposed from above, usually leads to school ineffectiveness. It is necessary to determine how the responsibilities are to be shared between those two entities – the school and the central office, so that a constant resistance should be resolved into a cooperative relationship. International practice shows that it is a solemn responsibility of the supreme governing body to set out educational standards and execute auditing of school performance, on the other hand, schools should be granted more independence in operating decisions.

An experiment in administration and management decentralization was first initiated by a school district in Edmond, Alberta, Canada in 1976. But twenty years later this innovation has been translated to Cincinnati (Miles and Roza, 2004), St. Paul, San Francisco, and Oakland (Honig, 2003). In 2005 it was implemented statewide in Hawaii and pilot programs are now still underway in Boston, Chicago, and New York City. The reason why we were inspired to investigate the problem is that Minister of Education and Science of Georgia, Giorgi

Margvelashvili in his TV interview raised the problem of school decentralization. Georgia has a Unitarian – top-down government structure, consequently, education administration is conducted from the central office (Ministry) which operates on the basis of the Supreme Law on Secondary Education in Georgia. The initiative of the Minister of Education seems very timely because society's dissatisfaction with the public schools in Georgia is still growing; in the result, more and more parents prefer private schools to public ones, though private school fees are too high if compared with the average income per capita in Georgia. Many of the school reforms initiated by the Georgian Government in the last decade were not successful, nor were the results of implementation. There is a need of fundamental change in our public school administration and management; if the government does not undertake necessary measures, drawbacks in secondary school performance is likely to continue. On this stage, the schools are to be given more operational freedom to work out flexible implementation schemes and tailor the instructions to the specific nature of the particular school. State schools in Georgia are funded from the state budget, so financial independence, which is viewed as one of the essential points in the process of decentralization, is less likely to be achieved in the nearest foreseen future. Our school system traditional structure is U-form, which means that that it has a unitary organization system and all curriculum design decision is made by central department. While, in the U.S. there are school districts which are governed by school boards and enclose different sources of funding, including local budget.

What does decentralization in education mean?

Decentralization means a dispersion of power and authority. This involves the devolution of important decision making authority to principals/ school heads, teachers, parents and students. Among many waves of school reform, only a few represent attempts of organizational or structural decentralization. It should have M-form structure - which means decentralized district, where each school in the district controls most its instructional decisions. Each school must attract its own students which raises competition between them. Types of decentralization vary according to their levels: it can be from national to state level (Fiske and Ladd, 2000), from state to local school district (Corcoran and Christmas, 2002). Researches conducted in the area have not yielded consistent effects of school decentralization on student achievement. However, some researchers (Walberg et al., 2000) making crucial distinction, note that, moving decision from

the national to the state or district level is not important, while a decentralization to the level of the individual school - does make a difference. For example, in a strongly decentralized American School District, an individual school may choose its own types of teachers, can vary on a daily school schedule, and hire its own internal staff to perform specialized functions. Schools are free to choose teaching methods, purchase teaching materials and provide teacher training of their own. Scholars also have often relied on local budget power as a central attribute of school decentralization, and consider that providing teams with power over their budget is a key part of this strategy.

One of the first attempts to challenge the centralized school administration was an initiative taken early in the 1970s, referred as school site-based management (SMB). This approach includes an appointment of the committee of teachers, parents, and community members at each school, but usually in an advisory rather than a decision-making capacity (Morhman and Wohlstetter, 1994). The idea of community involvement was excellent, but site committees turned out to be ineffective because they did not have budget control. The experiment proved that unless schools have access to the funds necessary for the implementation of the changes worked out by the local management, the attempt to achieve any tangible effects is useless. Another prerequisite of success of SBM is that the school should have balanced and productive relationship with the central office. In order to highlight achievements, as well as drawbacks in the decentralization process in America, the present article refers to the study carried out by the Institute for Operations Research and Management Sciences – “Power to the principals: Decentralization in three large school districts”. The results of the analysis of decentralization process carried out in Seattle, Edmonton and Houston Public School Districts will be discussed in the article.

An experiment in administration and management decentralization was first initiated by a school district in Edmond, Alberta, Canada in 1976. But twenty years later this innovation has been translated to Cincinnati (Miles and Roza, 2004), St. Paul, San Francisco, Seattle and Oakland (Honig, 2003). In 2005 it was implemented statewide in Hawaii and pilot programs are now still underway in Boston, Chicago, and New York City.

In 1990s public dissatisfaction with the Seattle district grew to the point that the Washington State House of Representatives had severely criticized the failure of the public schools.

Enrollment had declined from 100,000 students in 1970 to 39,000 by 1990, by which time about 47% of all students were enrolled in private schools.

(<http://go.galegroup.com.vlib.interchange.at/ps/i.do>) What actions did the designers take to implement decentralization?

In 1973 Mike Strembitsky was appointed superintendent of Edmonton public schools. He went through the budget and gave control to the principals. Alongside with it, he implemented an accountability system (Strembitsky 1997) that measured test scores and budget performance. School employees, students and parents rated their school each year on brief questionnaires. Principals also rated the superintendent and the school board. All of these results were made public. It is also important to note that an “open school” choice plan was initiated, under which each family could choose their school of choice for their child. This raised compatibility among schools and demonstrated the positive side of the reform.

One of the distinctive features of the Edmonton School District approach was a funding mechanism that assigned a weight to each student based on such characteristics as the family’s income level, whether the student is a native English speaker, gifted, or has physical and mental disabilities. Under this weighted student formula (WSF), the “Maximum” weighted student receives nearly five times as much money per year as the “minimum” weighted student, and each student takes this money to the public school of their choice. It should be mentioned that the same kind of change was implemented in Georgia, when the main source of university funding was the student’s personal financing received from the state. This raised the responsibility and compatibility among higher institutions. The per-student fund ensures that the money intended by the state to help students of various need levels is actually attached to those students. (Honig, 2004). WSF is now beginning to achieve recognition as a practical way to redress past inequities in funding the public education of students who are low income, poor, and either gifted or challenged. (Miles et al. 2003). WSF approach policy should be carefully studied by Georgian policy-makers to define appropriateness of its implementation in Georgia.

In Seattle, businesses formed a coalition with community organizations and sponsored reform candidates for the school board. In the Seattle implementation of WSF, each school first receives a block allocation (approximately \$195,000 to each elementary school, \$418,000 to each middle school, and \$529,000 to each high school in 2001-2002) and then its per-student funds. That

amount follows the student to public school of his or her choice. (Roza and Hill 2004). When examining school education system in Georgia, we acknowledge that its main weakness is that the society is, in fact, isolated from the school problems, while an increase of community involvement is considered to be crucial in successful school performance.

Variety in Schools

One striking consequence of decentralization in all three above-mentioned school districts was the development of a great variety of very unique schools, whereas previously all schools had been very similar. For example, John Hay Elementary School (K-6) in an upper middle-class neighborhood, the principal controlled approximately \$25,000 before the change to decentralization and now controls about \$2 000,000 per year, which is virtually the entire school budget. After the change, the principal changed the standard school schedule and instead adopted more suitable and effective one, also he hired 12 part-time reading and math coaches and set up a tutoring classes, also special classes for the gifted children. Over a four-year period following the change, the school's standardized math scores rose from the 36th percentile to the 62nd, and reading scores from he 72nd to the 76th. In the third grade now white and black students have identical reading scores, and all of them are at or above grade level. (Tyack and Cuban 1995).

Another example is Seattle Gatsberg Elementary School (K_6) serves a student population, about 30% of which are homeless, while 100% are low income and of color. These children all carry high weghts, with the results that the school has enough money to hire as many specialists as needed. Teachers also have long tenure, which is unusual for such a school. Tenures report that WSF gave them the resources with which they their students to succeed. (Ouchi 2006)

Decentralization of Decision Authority

The most critical indicator of the extent of decentralization was the proportion of school spending that is controlled by the principals. As the analysis of the data suggested, the results of all three schools were consistent, and it proved that the more funds were controlled by the school, the higher were the students' achievements.

Does decentralization produce improved student performance? To answer the question, it is important to consider Edmonton School superintendant Angus Mcbeath, who declares the following:

“Don’t blame me for my students’ poor performance in math, You, guys in the board, select the stuff, you decide how many I have, you pick the text-books, you pick the methodology, and what am I in charge of?”

In contrast, a senior official of the teachers’ union argued that decentralization has been the major cause of Edmonton’s success:

“During the past 20 years, since we have become decentralized, we have become much more desirable as a district. People think that our schools are wonderful.”

An elementary school principal commented on her new situation:

“We can do practically anything we need to make this school successful.... We’ve started Saturday tutorials, mandatory for fourth graders by my decision. To fund tutorials we use extra “materials and supplies’ money. The core of our incompetence was the way we spent money. “ (Ouchi 2006)

The appreciation of the school teachers, directors, principals, parents and observers were very positive in their appreciations when they observed the results of the school decentralization, noting a significant progress in management, teachers and students achievements.

Also, the researchers performed their own analysis of year to year comparisons, district averages, and comparisons between ethnic groups. Dramatic improvement in the Houston School achievement they attributed to decentralized management. According to Texas Education Agency, in 1993, Huston had no exemplary schools, four recognized, 186 acceptable, and 55 low-performing. By 2001, the distribution had changed to 35 exemplary schools, 88 recognized, 137 acceptable, and 2 low performing. As evidence suggest the improvement can be attributed to the changes when the decision-making and money were shifted from top administration to the school-based management. (Huston longitudinal study by Snipes at.al. 2002).

Although the comparison between centralized and decentralized districts on student achievements are fragmentary and the number of districts is small, the pattern is still consistent. The evidence supports the view that decentralized districts outperform centralized districts both in overall student performance and in reducing achievement gaps between racial groups. Decentralization is also attractive to teachers and parents alike who feel more free in their decision making process. Local school should have a certain control over budget and a close cooperation with the authoritative bodies. School decentralization is a rather complicated process during which cardinal changes take place. School gets wider access to major funding, top-down approaches are substituted by school-based management, teachers have wider control on curriculum materials and teaching methods, parents and district community have wider access to the decisions, money accompanied the child approach is more feasible and economically effective. Decentralization of the school system is a big step towards school democratization. It provides solid basis for establishing equity and justice in education.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF PRONUNCIATION IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Abstract

The article is intended to examine the importance of teaching pronunciation in the course of English language acquisition. Though everybody understands the role of pronunciation for acquiring fluency in English language, teaching pronunciation in depth is often neglected by many language teachers. Some of the major factors justifying the need for teaching pronunciation such as reaching the native-like fluency or aspiring for the intelligibility among the language users is highlighted in the article. By paying attention to some key factors while teaching pronunciation, such as sounds, intonation, word stress, and connected speech, the author examines the overall aim of teaching pronunciation and concludes that though pronunciation is both incredibly complex and important area for teaching/learning, it is still one of the major determinants for establishing effective communication.

Key words: pronunciation, ELT, fluency, intelligibility of pronunciation, sounds, intonation, word stress

Pronunciation is one area of teaching which is often neglected. This is evident in the way that pronunciation is treated in most course-books. In the majority of the course-books there is no regular pronunciation activities in the units. It goes without saying, that, many aspects of pronunciation are difficult to teach (or at least that is the perception). Moreover, unlike a grammatical or functional area of language, it can be quite difficult to build a lesson around a pronunciation point and therefore such points are add-ons to a unit in a course-book or a lesson in the class. Considering the above-said, teachers often feel under prepared to teach pronunciation and many seem to struggle to learn the phonemic alphabet.

One problem is to do with the way in which pronunciation is presented. Quite frequently the emphasis is on individual sounds and distinguishing these sounds from each other. Sometimes there might be a bit of work done on word stress, or sentence stress (but this is usually limited to tonic prominence and contrastive stress). And some work might be done on intonation (but this mostly focuses on questions and question tags). It seems that these areas are chosen not because they are

useful for students, or will help them be better English speakers and listeners, but simply because they are (relatively) easy to teach. Let me give an example.

One of the few areas of pronunciation that invariably crops up in course-books, and which most teachers talk about having covered, is the regular past endings /t/, /d/ and /ɪd/. But, if we actually look at the usefulness of teaching these endings, we will notice something significant. Distinguishing between words that take either the /t/ or /d/ ending is really unnecessary, as it is virtually impossible to say a word that ends with a /t/ sound with a /d/ sound and vice versa. It is, of course, possible to say any past form with a /ɪd/ ending, even when this is incorrect. Therefore it is possibly useful to teach which words take /ɪd/ and which don't. The same can be said for /s/ and /z/ sounds for the third person 's'.

To start with, teachers need to think about the main aim of teaching pronunciation. Is it because they want their students to speak with an RP (Received Pronunciation) accent, or is it that teachers want them to be understood and to be able to communicate effectively? For most students, the first target would be both unrealistic and, to be blunt, pointless. Not only would very few students be able to achieve such a goal, but very few native speakers speak with an RP accent and so it seems a rather unrealistic target. However, if the second aim – intelligibility – is the target, then we need to work out what it actually is that makes people intelligible or unintelligible; in other words, we need to work out what aspects of pronunciation are key.

Of course, the teaching of pronunciation should not solely focus on the production of sounds, but also on receptive skills, i.e. understanding when listening. So, even if we think that our students may not be able to speak with an RP accent, should they at least be able to understand one?

One argument here is that English is now a *Lingua Franca* and is more likely to be used as the means of communication between two non-native speakers than between a non-native and native speaker. As such, a *native* model of pronunciation is not necessarily the best model. As Anna Mauranen and Elina Ranta suggest (2009), in the past ten years or so, a number of linguists have been trying to identify 'core' features of pronunciation that occur in English when used as a *Lingua Franca* (Jenkins, 2009). This is not a *simplified* form of pronunciation, but rather a different model that can be used for teaching and learning.

On the other hand, detractors of a *Lingua Franca* model of pronunciation argue that there is a need for a *standard* model against which everything can be measured (Allen, 1971). They argue that this model should be a *native* model such as RP or Standard American (Bauer, Dienhart, Hartvigson,

Jakobsen, 1980). They point out that even when this model is not one which is spoken by a majority of native speakers, it still acts as a model for all native speakers. For example, people with a strong regional accent will ‘tone down’ or modify their accent when talking to people from other regions or countries in order to make themselves intelligible. So, the important thing here is not necessarily having an achievable target, but having a model that can be used in order to aid intelligibility. Let’s examine some aspects of pronunciation and look at what we should be teaching.

As mentioned above, a lot of pronunciation work does focus on distinguishing between individual sounds. The obvious examples of this are things such as /ʃɪp/ (*ship*) or /ʃi:p/ (*sheep*) and /tri:/ (*tree*) or /θri:/ (*three*). The first thing to ask here is whether it is necessary / useful to try and teach these differences or not. First of all, not all native speakers of English actually distinguish (many speakers say /tri:/ for /θri:/, for example); and, secondly, surely the context these words are used in will, more often than not, be sufficient to help the listener distinguish which word is being used. For example, “*We went to France by /ʃi:p/*”. It is fairly obvious which word fits the context and insisting that the pronunciation of the word is essential for understanding is being ridiculous.

Does this mean teachers shouldn’t teach sounds? No, not at all, but it does mean that teachers need to think about why they are teaching them. If, for example, they are teaching a multilingual class and there are any sounds that all the students or the majority of them are having problems with, then teachers might want to spend some time on these. Or, are there any sounds that particular students find hard to produce and this means that other students in the class find it difficult to understand them? If, on the other hand, teachers are teaching a monolingual class, are there particular sounds that they know are difficult for speakers of this language? As Acton (1984) suggests, the decision as to whether to focus on sounds will depend on who the teachers are teaching and if they feel it causes a communication problem.

In many cases, incorrect word stress will lead to more problems than the use of an incorrect phoneme (sound) in a word. This is not only because word stress can sometimes alter the complete meaning of the word, changing it from a noun to a verb, for example, *present* (n.) vs. *present* (vb), but also because, in English, not every syllable in a word is necessarily the same length (especially in connected speech) and this is often the main cause of a sound being wrong, rather than a learner’s inability to form the sound. For instance, most diphthongs in English will be problematic for foreign students, particularly to those who tend to give equal stress to the two parts of a diphthong rather than stressing the first element as it is done in English.

The unpredictability of word stress is often a cause of problems. In many languages speakers know exactly which syllable is stressed as it is the same in every word, e.g. in Hungarian the first syllable is always stressed. Quite often students aren't aware of what they do in their own language and therefore don't understand why they are having a problem with English sounds and stress patterns. Awareness-raising activities are a good way to start.

Why do some students have problems with sentence stress in English? Probably the root cause is linked to the student's first language. Students whose language is syllable-timed - e.g. Italian, French, Hungarian – may have problems with English, which is a stress-timed language. So, in particular, aspects such as weak forms in connected speech can be difficult. This is because students are used to giving equal stress to each syllable in their own language.

Of course, stress in English sentences is extremely important as it is often used to indicate the meaning and importance of certain information. When the stress is incorrect then there can be a breakdown in communication. These problems can be both in terms of speaking (productive) and listening (receptive) skills. Activities that make students aware of the importance of sentence stress, as well as activities that focus on hearing and producing various aspects of sentence stress, are extremely useful.

On the other hand, Intonation plays a key role in pronunciation. In many respects it's not what we say, but how we say it that conveys meaning. However, it's a bit silly to talk about intonation in isolation as it is often affected by stress, tone and rhythm (Allen, 1971). This can be seen on a word level when one syllable is stressed for emphasis, the pitch falls from high to low (Allen, 1971).

If we look at intonation at sentence level, we will notice that a particular sentence can have a number of meanings simply by varying the intonation. Here's an example. Take the short phrase *It's ready*. If we go from high pitch on *It's* to low on the first syllable of *ready* and then to high on the last syllable of *ready* this will probably indicate surprise. If on the other hand we go from high pitch on *It's* and the first syllable of *ready* to low pitch on the last syllable of *ready* then this is probably indicating a matter of fact, or if the drop is quite large it might indicate frustration or relief from the speaker. Coupling these shifts in intonation with lengthening certain sounds, i.e. the /e/ phoneme in *ready*, changes the meaning again and now indicates a *Come on, we're waiting* or *Hurry up!* meaning. Quite clearly intonation is an important aspect of pronunciation. It's important to make the students aware of this fact and get them to try intonation activities to help them become better at hearing and producing different intonation patterns.

Connected speech includes sentence stress and intonation, let's focus on a different aspect of connected speech – what happens to sounds in connected speech. This is an important aspect of pronunciation not just in terms of producing the correct sounds, but in understanding when you are listening (Ladefoged, 1981). In fact, many learners find it difficult to understand native speakers of English for this very reason. They have learnt words and sounds in isolation and struggle when a word is pronounced differently because it is in connected speech.

Students need to be made aware of areas such as *assimilation* (where a sound is affected by the other sounds around it, often by sounds that follow it but sometimes by those preceding it), *elision* (where a sound disappears completely because of the sound that follows it) and *liaison* (where a sound is added that is not normally part of the word or words) (Lado, 1954).

This type of focus needs to be included right from the start of learning English and not left until students are at intermediate level or higher. Examples of *assimilation*, *elision* and *liaison* are common with even the most basic phrases and word combinations in English. For example, *How do you do?* is not said as /'həʊ'du:'ju:'du:/ but as /'həʊdju:'du:/ or even as /'həʊdjə'du:/. Not only are the words not articulated separately, but some sounds disappear, i.e. the /u:/ from the first *do* is assimilated into the word *you* rather than repeated. So, regular work on connected speech is essential if students are going to be able to deal with English as it is really used.

Quite clearly, pronunciation is both incredibly complex and an important area for teaching and learning. We could clearly state, that pronunciation is not just about producing the right sounds or stressing the right syllables, it is also about helping students understand what they hear. Therefore, teachers should pay particular focus on teaching pronunciation and the primary reason for that is students need to become intelligible and understand the native or the non-native speakers around them.

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REVIEW OF THE ETYMOLOGICAL PROBLEMS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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Abstract

The paper deals with the review of the origin of the English language and its varieties. Etymologically the vocabulary of the English language is far from being homogeneous. It consists of two layers - the native stock of words and the borrowed stock of words. Numerically the borrowed stock of words is considerably larger than the native stock of words. In fact native words comprise only 30 % of the total number of words in the English vocabulary but the native words form the bulk of the most frequent words actually used in speech and writing. Besides the native words have a wider range of lexical and grammatical valency, they are highly polysemantic and productive in forming word clusters and set expressions.

Key words: borrowed words, loan, origin, classified, polysemantic, term, existing, native

Introduction

English arose in the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of England and what is now southeast Scotland. Following the extensive influence of Great Britain and the United Kingdom from the 17th century to the mid-20th century, through the British Empire, and also of the United States since the mid-20th century, it has been widely propagated around the world, becoming the leading language of international discourse and the lingua franca in many regions (Bosworth and Toller, 2010). Historically, English originated from the fusion of closely related dialects, now collectively termed Old English, which were brought to the eastern coast of Great Britain by Germanic settlers (Anglo-Saxons) by the 5th century – with the word English being derived from the name of the Angles. and ultimately from their ancestral region of Angeln (in what is now Schleswig-Holstein) (Abbott, 2000). A significant number of English words are constructed on the basis of roots from Latin, because Latin in some form was the lingua franca of the Christian Church and of European intellectual life. The language was further influenced by the Old Norse language because of Viking invasions in the 9th and 10th centuries.

Borrowed words/loan words or borrowings are words taken over from another language and modified according to the patterns of the receiving language. In many cases a borrowed word especially one borrowed long ago is practically indistinguishable from a native word without a thorough etymological analysis (street, school, face). The number of borrowings in the vocabulary of a language and the role played by them is determined by the historical development of the nation

speaking the language (Pullum, 2006). The first term is applied to the language from which the word was immediately borrowed, the second - to the language to which the word may be ultimately traced e.g. table - source of borrowing - French, origin of borrowing - Latin elephant - source of borrowing - French, origin-Egypt convene - source of borrowing - French, origin-Latin. The closer the two interacting languages are in structure the easier it is for words of one language to penetrate into the other.

There are different ways of classifying the borrowed stock of words. First of all the borrowed stock of words may be classified according to the nature of the borrowing itself as borrowings proper, translation loans and semantic loans. Translation loans are words or expressions formed from the elements existing in the English language according to the patterns of the source language (the moment of truth - sp. el momento de la verdad). A semantic loan is the borrowing of a meaning for a word already existing in the English language (e.g. the compound word *shock brigade* which existed in the English language with the meaning "аварійная бригада" acquired a new meaning "ударная бригада" which it borrowed from the Russian language.

Body

The most characteristic feature of English is usually said to be its mixed character. Many linguists consider foreign influence, especially that of French, to be the most important factor in the history of English. This wide-spread viewpoint is supported only by the evidence of the English word-stock, as its grammar and phonetic system are very stable and not easily influenced by other languages. While it is altogether wrong to speak of the mixed character of the language as a whole, the composite nature of the English vocabulary cannot be denied.

Latin Loans are classified into the subgroups.

1. Early Latin Loans. Those are the words which came into English through the language of Anglo-Saxon tribes. The tribes had been in contact with Roman civilisation and had adopted several Latin words denoting objects belonging to that civilisation long before the invasion of Angles, Saxons and Jutes into Britain (*cup, kitchen, mill, port, wine*).

2. Later Latin Borrowings. To this group belong the words which penetrated the English vocabulary in the sixth and seventh centuries, when the people of England were converted to Christianity (*priest, bishop, nun, candle*).

3. The third period of Latin includes words which came into English due to two historical events: the Norman conquest in 1066 and the Renaissance or the Revival of Learning. Some words came into English through French but some were taken directly from Latin (*major, minor, intelligent, permanent*).

4. The Latest Stratum of Latin Words. The words of this period are mainly abstract and scientific words (*nylon, molecular, vaccine, phenomenon, vacuum*).

Norman-French Borrowings may be subdivided into subgroups:

1. Early loans - 12th - 15th century
2. Later loans - beginning from the 16th century.

The Early French borrowings are simple short words, naturalised in accordance with the English language system (*state, power, war, pen, river*) Later French borrowings can be identified by their peculiarities of form and pronunciation (*regime, police, ballet, scene, bourgeois*).

The Etymological Structure of English Vocabulary

The native element

I. Indo-European element

II. Germanic element

III. English proper element (brought by Angles, Saxons and Jutes not earlier than 5th c. A.D.)

The borrowed element

1. Celtic (5th - 6th c. A.D.)

2. Latin

1st group: 1st c. B.C.

2nd group: 7th c. A.D.

3^d group: the Renaissance period

3. Scandinavian (8th - 11th c. A.D.)

3. French

a) Norman borrowings: 11th - 13th c. A.D.

b) Parisian borrowings: (Renaissance)

5. Greek (Renaissance)

6. Italian (Renaissance and later)

7. Spanish (Renaissance and later)

8. German

9. Indian and others

Almost all words of Anglo-Saxon origin belong to very important semantic groups. They include most of the auxiliary and modal verbs (shall, will, must, can, may, etc.), pronouns (I, you, he, my, his, who, etc.), prepositions (in, out, on, under, etc.), numerals (one, two, three, four, etc.) and conjunctions (and, but, till, as, etc.) (Blench, R.; Spriggs, Matthew 1999). Notional words of Anglo-Saxon origin include such groups as words denoting parts of the body (head, hand, arm, back, etc.), members of the family and closest relatives (father, mother, brother, son, wife), natural phenomena and planets (snow, rain, wind, sun, moon, star, etc.), animals (horse, cow, sheep, cat), qualities and properties (old, young, cold, hot, light, dark, long), common actions (do, make, go, come, see, hear, eat, etc.), etc.

Etymological structure of English word-stock consists of 2 types of words – native words and borrowings (Crystal, 2002). By the native words we understand common Indo-European words – the oldest words in any European language, which have cognates in all the other Indo-European language; they are – terms of relations – son – сын; nature phenomena – water – вода; names of animals – a cat – кот; some numerals etc. And common Germanic words which have cognates only in Germanic language – summer, rain, house, hope, keep etc. Most of the native words have undergone great changes in their semantic structure, and as a result are nowadays polysemantic, e.g. the word *finger* does not only denote a part of a hand as in Old English, but also 1) the part of a glove covering one of the fingers, 2) a finger-like part in various machines, 3) a hand of a clock, 4) an index, 5) a unit of measurement. Highly polysemantic are the words *man*, *head*, *hand*, *go*, etc. Most native words possess a wide range of lexical and grammatical valency. Many of them enter a number of phraseological units, e.g. the word *heel* enters the following units: *heel over head* or *head over heels*— 'upside down'; *cool one's heel*—'be kept waiting'; *show a clean pair of heels*, *take to one's heels*—'run away', *turn on one's heels*— 'turn sharply round', etc.

The English language happened to come in long and close contact with several other languages, mainly Latin, French and Old Norse (or Scandinavian). Thus about 70% of English word-stock are borrowed words. Two main sources of borrowings are Latin and French. And traditionally several levels are distinguished within the Latin and French borrowings. These are – (for Latin) – the earliest continental borrowings – before the 5th century at the time of Angles, Saxons and Jutes – *wine*, *dish*, *cup*, the second period – the adoption of Christianity – *altar*, *school*, *devil*. Then the renaissance period (16-17th cent) – influx of complicated words - *art*, *science*, *elegant*, *superior*. And much later some terms from Latin were absorbed – *telegraph*, *lexicology*. As for the borrowings from French here we can distinguish the borrowings of the 11th century – after William the Conqueror. These are the words connected with government, policy, army, courts, arts. These are cooking and medical terms – *souse*, *toast*, *stomach*. And later the terms of diplomacy and arts were borrowed – *intrigue*, *attaché*. There are also borrowings from other languages – Celtic (features of landscape – *dagger*, *moor*) and geographical names – *Winchester*, *Salisbury*; German – *iceberg*, *lobby*, *Kindergarten*, Italian – *alto*, *tenor*, *solo*, *opera*, *piano*, *violin*; Spanish – *cargo*, *embargo*, *rumba*, *tomato*, *apricot*. Borrowings enter the language in two ways: through oral speech (by immediate contact between the peoples) and through written speech (by indirect contact through books, etc.). Oral borrowing (Lieberman, 2006) took place chiefly in the early periods of history, whereas in recent times written borrowing gained importance. Words borrowed orally (e.g. L. *inch*, *mill*, *street*) are usually short and they undergo considerable changes in the act of adoption. Written borrowings (e.g. Fr. *communiqué*, *belles-lettres*, *naïveté*) preserve their spelling and some peculiarities of their sound-form, their

assimilation is a long and laborious process (Cheshire, Jenny 1991). There are several types of borrowings (loans) – 1) loan words proper – are borrowed as words, i.e. English borrows a certain sound – [é] - and its spelling and the meaning of the word – communiqué, 2) translation loans – are words and expressions formed from material already existing in English but according to the pattern taken from another lang.by literal morpheme-for-morpheme translation – they are mostly from German – *Übermensch* – superman, a standpoint. 3) semantic loans – they develop a new meaning in an English word under the influence of related word in another language - *bureau* – used to be a writing table – under the French influence – department. It is suggested here that the term source of borrowing should be applied to the language from which this or that particular word was taken into English. The term origin of the word should be applied to the language the word may be traced to. Thus, the French borrowing *table* is Latin by origin (L. *tabula*), the Latin borrowing *school* came into Latin from the Greek language (Gr. *schole*), so it may be described as Greek by origin (Ziegler, J. C., & Goswami, U. 2005). There exist also special groups of words – etymological doublets – 2 words of the same language which were borrowed from the same words from different sources - *cavalry* (Lat.) – *chivalry* (French); *major*- *mayor*; *fragile* – *frail*, *inch* (from Lat.) – *ounce* (French), *canal* – *channel* (different dialects of French). Another special group is etymological hybrids – these are the words which were built by using elements from different languages – like */native/* - *dislike* – *likable* */borrowed/affixes/*; *peace* */borrowed/* - *peaceful/native affix/*; *violinist* – root borrowed from Italian, suffix from Greek. And there also exist the so-called international words – words of identical origin which occur in several languages as a result of borrowing from the same source – *cavalery*.

Conclusion

The most effective way of borrowing is direct borrowing from another language as the result of contacts with the people of another country or with their literature. But a word may also be borrowed indirectly not from the source language but through another language, When analysing borrowed words one must distinguish between the two terms - "source of borrowing" and "origin of borrowing".

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AN EXAMINATION OF THE TYPOLOGICAL FEATURES OF TURKISH

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Abstract

In this study, Turkish is examined in terms of language typologies and the language opportunities to the user of Turkish. Moreover, the easy and difficult characteristics of Turkish are aimed to explore. While attempting to investigate, description and comparison methods were used and the typological features of Turkish were examined in terms of the theory of language richness and perfection. That a language is a magical and perfect system is widely acknowledged by thinkers and linguists. Another agreement among the linguists is that languages resemble each other through certain features, therefore some generalizations can be established. Given the typical instances of agglutinative languages, Turkish is suggested as a developing language of science, education and art, according to "Language Perfection Criteria" and the arguments are thought to provide useful insights to Turkish learners, material designers, language researchers and practitioners.

However, every language has its unique features. Thinking styles of societies is one of the important factors that determine the language structure. As Sapir & Whorf's "*Linguistic Determinism*" highlights language determines our thinking style; therefore, a language has peculiar features that differ from another language.

Key words: Turkish, language typology, agglutinative languages, language perfection criteria

Introduction

Though research studies into language universals have reached significant results (Comrie, 2005), various grammar books have been written (Dilemre, 2008), the studies about language typologies have been increasing and languages are continually compared and contrasted. The rationale of these study results from the fact that every language changes from one society to another. According to Sapir and Whorf's "*Linguistic Determinism*" (Kay & Kempton, 1984) language determines our thinking manner, therefore languages are relative. The distinguishing features in a language do not exist in another, for instance; in Indian Hopi language every flying creatures and objects except for birds (e.g. insects, planes, pilots and kites) are called by means of the same single noun.

Many thinkers and linguists acknowledge that each language has a magical and perfect system, however, when a language is specifically compared to another language or language groups, a language have been regarded as richer as or more beautiful than another. Tosun (2005) states that some people think their own language to be superior to other languages is quite common, some languages have been accepted as ancient, logical or the languages of gods and some have been qualified as musical or more suitable for songs.

For example, Arabs claim that the Arabic language of Quran is the most aesthetic, logical language and has a grammar and vocabulary source that cannot be compared with other languages in terms of its style and organization. Further, since classic Arabic language is the language of Quran, then it has acquired a religious characteristic.

Moreover, Becanus, in the 16th century, claimed that Germanic language was the language of Adam spoke in the heaven.

The Roman Empire Charlemagne stated that he spoke to his servants in French, to women in Italian, to God in Spanish and to his horses in German (Tosun, 2005).

Language Perfection and Language Richness Criteria

The comparisons between languages have arisen the question whether there is a perfect language and a competition was organized in Berlin Academy of Sciences in 1794 to determine the main framework of a perfect language and evaluate Europe's most known and newest languages through this framework, and to determine the language closest to the ideal. In D. Jenisch's work, the winner of the competition, which was published in 1796, 14 languages were compared in Europe and finally, richness, effectiveness-shortness, understandability, and harmony were described for language perfection.

Linguists do not describe a language as rich or poor, because "every language is adequate to verbally express the environment, universe, every event and reality of society" (Aksan, 2005; p.13). However, the language of culture, education and science better progress compared to others and can be more widely uttered. This advancement, therefore, is considered language richness and languages are evaluated according to these criteria.

According to Sayılı, language richness, probably at first sight, implies the richness of vocabulary base. In a rich and developed language, also, varieties and rhetoric in language use, practical and diverse concept and thought patterns, the thoughts that language implicitly states via suggestion, association, and prominent application instances, elements of color, vividness and excitement, provision or inspiration of variety of expressions with small number of words; language awareness, sense of language, language aesthetics, stress, rhythm, sound harmony, fine meaning diversities and language sensitivities appear to symbolize language richness. (Sayılı, 1994: XII)."

Aksan (2005) asks the following four questions about the criteria to qualify a language either rich or poor:

a) What is the current situation in a language in terms of number of words when it is compared to other languages that are considered languages of culture?

b) Can any language separately call the objects in nature, the universe and human behaviors; and meet abstract concepts, and express the scientific, technical, and artistic concepts via its own patterns?

c) Does this language possess an expression diversity in the same conceptual domain?

d) To what extent does the entry possession of the language consist of its own words?

(Aksan, 2005: 13)

To Eker (2006) having the oldest written works, to be spoken in a wide range of land, the number of users and words of the language are considered among the criteria of language richness.

Therefore, the typological characteristics of languages influence their behaviors in terms of perfection or richness criteria. In order to assess Turkish in terms of the aforementioned criteria, determination of the typological characteristics of Turkish language appears to be significant.

Turkish

World languages are classified under two main criteria that is origin and typology. Thus, Turkish is known to be an agglutinative language in Ural-Altai Language Family. Some typological features of Turkish can be summarized as follows:

Turkish is a synthetic language according to indication manner of the elements that states the concept details.

The elements that express concept details are added to root within lexical or/and grammatical morphemes. Concept relations are constructed by means of the forms of the concept forms instead of subordinate word or words like in analytical languages. For instance, the relationship of the concepts of the sentence “Kuşlar, böcekleri sever” is not established according to the order of the sentence but by means of concepts’ own forms. No matter how the sentence is constructed (e.g.

“Böcekleri kuşlar sever” and “Sever kuşlar böcekleri”) the meaning of the sentence does not change.

However, it should be stated that every analytical language can include synthetic patterns and every synthetic language can encompass analytical patterns as well. Therefore, there appear some analytical structures in Turkish too.

***Beraber** yürüdük biz bu yollarda (not yürüştük)*

***Beraber** ıslandık yağın yağmurda (not ıslanıştık)*

Turkish is an agglutinative language according to the style of organizing and adhering of the structural elements. The relationship between the concepts is provided by means of affixes added to the roots. Unlike the synthetic languages in which a morpheme meets more than one function, there is one morpheme for each function. For instance, in the conjugation of "am-o" in Latin, the "-o" indicates present and present continuous tenses, first singular person and active voice. However, in Turkish, these concepts are added to the root within different morphemes: sev-Ø-er+im

Lexical and grammatical functions are mostly done by affixes, however, adverbs and particles can be also used as functional elements. That adverbs are confused with the complements cause some misunderstandings as well. These two functions that are separated by stress in Turkish, adjective-adverb- complement and even adverbial complement can be confused since stress is often ignored in Turkish.

*O **yalnız** okur.*

*O **yalnız** (insan olarak) okur.*

Though in many textbooks several situations are defined as exceptions, these exceptions are considerably rare. In contrast, conceptual relationships are orderly formed.

All the verbs are attributed by the same morphemes as for the tense, mood, and person. Every noun is changed into predicate, subject and complement. Every noun acquires plurality in the same way. Yet, the lexical values of the lexical morphemes affect the deep structure of the concept relationships. For example,

Evden geldim.

Görmezlikten geldim.

Köprüden ketçim.

Kendimden geçtim.

The sentences above are formed in the same way, but the morpheme /+dan/ has a different function. It is a must that these functions be learnt and taught for a sound communication. The affixes that mark concepts or construct relationships between concepts display a general situation in terms of usage but a specific situation in terms of meaning. While language users should be aware of these affixes in general, the specific situations should be known.

Turkish is not a cursive language that connects subordinate clauses in a linear way but a complexive language that make these subordinate clauses one of the elements of the sentence changing into a noun. The subordinate clauses change into adverbs, adjective or noun losing their structural sentence form. This can change a few sentences into one complex sentence.

Ben bir kuş tanıyordum

O kuş bahçemin üstünde uçardı

(Benim) bahçem baharda salkımlar açardı

Though this complexity seems to be a difficulty for understanding the expression, it actually facilitates communication since it constructs an appropriate form for time and action sequence.

For instance;

Okuldan çıkınca manava uğrayıp sebze alarak eve gittim.

In this sentence, there appears a time and action sequence and this sequence accurately reflects the event occurred.

The phenomenon of voice is rich and often used with affixes being agglutinated to the verb. The voice of a verb also describes the number of the doer of the action and all of these doers are included in the sentence via a morpheme.

Babam benimle o konuyu tartıştı.

The verb “Tartış-“ implies reciprocation, in other words, it requires two doers one of which is the grammatical subject of the sentence. The other subject “ben” is the second doer of the action who reciprocally does the action with the first subject and is connected with the particle “ile” and if it is not demonstrated the sentence does not become complete.

Accurate determination of the doer and action relationship, and correct understanding of the morphemes that construct concept relationship function according to the voice of the verb should be taken into consideration.

For instance, when the affix +A is used with an active verb establishes a target relation. However, when this affix is used with a causative verb, it establishes a relation between the second

doer and the action. In this case, in a causative sentence, if the target relation is sought to indicate, a function element to express in a clearer way should be selected.

Anneme bir pasta yaptım.

Anneme bir pasta yaptırđım.

In order to correctly understand this sentence, whether the word “annem”(my mother)is the second doer or the target should be determined. In other words, it should be understood whether “ I made my mother make a cake for me” or “ I have a cake made for my mother at the confectioner’s shop”. If this situation is not well clarified, the sentence should be constructed so that the communication does not become ambiguous such as “ I have a cake made for my mother”

The personality and the perception style of the speaker is a significant determinant of the statement. As an example, a person whose visual perception has well developed often prefers descriptive expression and accordingly process sentence. Thus, when a speaker describes the fall of the trees after a strong storm can choose one of the following statements:

1. *Rüzgâr yüzünden bütün ağaçlar devrilmişti. (All the trees were thrown down.)*
2. *Rüzgâr bütün ağaçları devirmişti. (The wind threw all the trees down.)*
3. *Rüzgâr bütün ağaçların devrilmesine sebep olmuştu. (The wind caused all the trees to throw down.)*

When the number of the doers is more than one, while the voice and the sentence structure provide a focusing opportunity that determines the surface structure, it unconsciously determines our view about the world.

Reduction is done on every possible instance. The subject, object, descriptive affixes or particles and the described noun are not often referred since nouns can be used as an object, adjective or an adverb, and therefore, an ambiguity occurs. In particular, this ambiguity is often

seen between adjectives and adverbs.” However, given the deep structure, this argument appears to be unacceptable. For example,

Burak’ın ehliyetsiz (ehliyeti olmayan biri) olduğunu bildiğin halde arabasına bindiğin için konuşmak istiyorum.

(I would like to talk about why you got in Burak’s car though you knew he had no driving licence.)

In the statements in which any emotional meaning does not include; the subordinate element precedes the main element.

Adj+ Noun= Noun

Adv+Adj= Adj

Adv+Adv= Adv

Subject+(complement+verb)= Sentence

Conjunctions almost do not exist, but relationship between the sentences is generally at the semantic level. This relationship is reflected to the surface structure by means of deictic elements:

Sınıfta çalışıyor (o) \ güzel gözleri (onun) bana bakıyor (o).

The language of Turkish is morphologically economic. The principle of being economic refers to be able to express the most emotion and ideas with the least efforts. The principle “if the definite one comes then the indefinite one is erased” in Turkish displays the systematicity of being economic in this language. That this principle is selective results in inclusion of a different

semantic discrimination to the sentence. For example, in pronoun determination, the pronoun is reduced. Instead of “benim okulum”(my school), “ okulum” is said. However, the utterance “my school” can also be preferred in which the possessor is focused.

The principle of the least effort makes one –element sentences possible in Turkish.

Done.

Bittim.

Economy at the textual level gives depth and strength to the expression. For instance, the reduced statements or the unsaid words in poems that are acknowledged as the most effective texts consist of the core of the communication.

These sentences, in fact, are the reasons for the results that are sought to convey. The result in other words the implied meaning is expected to perceive.

Turkish is a permutable and transpositive language according to the manner of expressing the ideas’ flow. The aforementioned features have made this characteristic possible. Since the function of a word is determined according to its own form instead of its place in sentence, it is possible to change the order at the syntactic level.

This characteristic seems be the most likely admiring features of Turkish language in that this opportunity is not possible as widely so in Turkish neither in isolating languages where meaning is provided by means of word order only, neither in the analytical languages in which conjugations are possible.

Soykan (1998) in his study found that a five-element sentence could be constructed in 120 different ways and reached a formula as follows:

$$\text{Sentence}=\{1,2,3,4,5\}\text{---}5!=1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5= 120$$

The following permutation can be suggested in a four-element sentence:

In the ordinary sentence structure “Süleyman çavuş, patronuna kumar yüzünden borçlanmış.”

Su + Co1 + Co2 + V

Su: Subject

Co: Complement

P: Predicate

S: Sentence

$S = 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 = 24$

It is possible to construct 24 diverse orders as follows:

The sentence with its common order is seen as “Süleyman çavuş, patronuna kumar yüzünden borçlanmış.”

SU + CO1 + CO2 + P

$S = 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 = 24$

SU + CO1 + CO2 + P ---- Süleyman Çavuş patronuna kumar yüzünden borçlanmış.

1. SU + CO1 + P + CO2 ---- Süleyman Çavuş patronuna borçlanmış kumar yüzünden.
2. SU + CO2 + P + CO1 ---- Süleyman Çavuş kumar yüzünden borçlanmış patronuna.
3. SU + CO2 + CO1 + P ---- Süleyman Çavuş kumar yüzünden patronuna borçlanmış.
4. SU + P + CO2 + CO1 ---- Süleyman Çavuş borçlanmış kumar yüzünden patronuna.
5. SU + P + CO1 + CO2 ---- Süleyman Çavuş borçlanmış patronuna kumar yüzünden.
6. CO1 + CO2 + P + SU ---- Patronuna kumar yüzünden borçlanmış Süleyman Çavuş.
7. CO1 + SU + CO2 + P ---- Patronuna Süleyman Çavuş kumar yüzünden borçlanmış.
8. CO1 + SU + P + CO2 ---- Patronuna Süleyman Çavuş borçlanmış kumar yüzünden.

9. CO1 + CO2 + SU + P---- Patronuna kumar yüzünden borçlanmış Süleyman Çavuş.
10. CO1 + P + CO2 + SU---- Patronuna kumar yüzünden borçlanmış Süleyman Çavuş.
11. CO1 + P + SU + CO2 ---- Patronuna borçlanmış Süleyman Çavuş kumar yüzünden.
12. CO2 + SU + CO1 + P ---- Kumar yüzünden Süleyman Çavuş patronuna borçlanmış.
13. CO2 + SU + P + CO1 ---- Kumar yüzünden Süleyman Çavuş borçlanmış patronuna.
14. CO2 + P + SU + CO1 ---- Kumar yüzünden borçlanmış Süleyman Çavuş patronuna.
15. CO2 + P + CO1 + SU ---- Kumar yüzünden borçlanmış patronuna Süleyman Çavuş.
16. CO2 + CO1 + P + SU ---- Kumar yüzünden patronuna borçlanmış Süleyman Çavuş.
17. CO2 + CO1 + SU+ P ---- Kumar yüzünden patronuna Süleyman Çavuş borçlanmış.
18. P+ CO2 +SU + CO1 ---- Borçlanmış kumar yüzünden Süleyman Çavuş patronuna.
19. P + CO2 + CO1+ SU ---- Borçlanmış kumar yüzünden patronuna Süleyman Çavuş.
20. P + CO1+ SU + CO2 ---- Borçlanmış patronuna Süleyman Çavuş kumar yüzünden.
21. P + CO1+ CO2 + SU ---- Borçlanmış patronuna kumar yüzünden Süleyman Çavuş.
22. P + SU + CO2 + CO1 ---- Borçlanmış Süleyman Çavuş kumar yüzünden patronuna.
23. P+ SU + CO1 + CO2 ---- Borçlanmış Süleyman Çavuş patronuna kumar yüzünden.

The opportunity that this sentence can be constructed in different voices should be added as well. The element that establishes a reason relationship between the subject and the predicate can be changed into the subject and the subject can be changed into an object and this sentence can be constructed within more 24 ways.

Kumar, Süleyman Çavuş'u patronuna borçlandırmış.

Turkish sentence structure easily permits use of foreign root words; in fact an artificial language such as Ottoman Turkish could only survive through this sentence structure.

Consequently, the message that the sentence conveys remains the same but each syntagm has a differently emotional value, and this means that meaning can determine form as the form determines the meaning. In other words, the subject of the utterance has a chance of selection that no other languages have this chance. Such easiness requires some responsibilities as well. In other words, Turkish is an easy language but the second articulation level should be conceived at the first articulation level, that is at the idea level.

Conclusion

Given the typical instances of agglutinative languages, Turkish is suggested as a developing language of science, education and art, according to “Language Perfection Criteria” and Jenis’ “Language Perfection Theory”. Turkish appears to have some elements of language perfection criteria such as economy, understandability, harmony, and richness with its synthetic and flexible structure. That is why, Turkish is easily learnt in that it has a systematic grammar and exceptions are quite rare.

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MOTIVATION IN TEACHING AND LEARNING VOCABULARY

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Abstract

Vocabulary acquisition is an important part of language learning. By having a wide vocabulary students can have better access to information and communicate with each other more easily and effectively. Motivation is a key to language learning. The article deals with the topic of motivation as one of the important components of foreign language learning process and its importance for language learners. The paper reviews some definitions and ways of motivating language learners to acquire foreign language vocabulary more easily and effectively. Special attention is given to the role of games, songs, movies and videos in vocabulary learning as effective motivational tools.

Key Words: language, learning, motivation, teaching, vocabulary.

Introduction

One of the most important things to help learners to communicate successfully is knowledge of vocabulary. The richer vocabulary they have, the better they can communicate. In order not to fail on the way of teaching and learning vocabulary, teachers and students should try their best to find out an appropriate method for themselves.

As some researchers claim, motivation is an essential component of successful foreign vocabulary acquisition. Having one means that students are able to define the purpose of studying a subject, learning a foreign language or gaining any kind of knowledge. When it comes to learning vocabulary, learners may find it boring to learn lists of words only with their definitions or translations. Students are expected to be persistently motivated in vocabulary learning, be engaged in vocabulary instruction to meet vocabulary learning standards in order to pursue required accomplishment. Central to understanding students' behaviors and emotions in vocabulary learning activities, students' motivation is a necessary step towards identifying the factors that affects students' behaviors and emotions in vocabulary learning. Motivation is what activates behavior and helps individuals persist in given tasks (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). That is why teachers should be interested in raising students' motivation and searching for the method that is not only interesting but also doable during the lesson.

The Role of Vocabulary Teaching

In foreign language teaching vocabulary had been a neglected area for a long time. Vocabulary teaching above elementary level was mostly restricted on presenting new items as they appeared in reading or listening texts. This indirect teaching of vocabulary supposed that vocabulary can be increased when other language skills are practiced. Also coursebooks provided little guidance but word lists. In recent years, vocabulary teaching has become part of the syllabus, and has been taught on a well-planned and regular basis. As a result, new coursebooks now include word study sections.

It is undeniable that vocabulary, like grammar and phonetics, plays an important role in mastering a foreign language. According to Wilkins (1972), ‘...without grammar, very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed.’ Besides, Harmer (1992) shared the same idea that ‘If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh. An ability to manipulate grammatical structures does not have any potential for expressing meaning unless words are used.’ By these statements, it can be concluded that vocabulary is the decisive component of all uses of language. Therefore, if the learners have a wide range of vocabulary, they will have more confidence to communicate with others and vice versa.

Additionally, vocabulary is a means of communication, without words or vocabulary, how we could think and communicate with others. Vocabulary makes much effect on other English skills: writing, speaking, listening and reading. A good command of many words will make students better writers, speakers, listeners, and readers. Studies have shown that students with a strong vocabulary and students who work to improve limited vocabulary are more successful in school. To make it short, vocabulary is considered a vital part of effective communication.

In conclusion, vocabulary is the backbone of any language. It not only enables students to decode message while listening or reading but also helps them improve their speaking and writing skills. To make vocabulary learning process more interesting and amusing teachers should motivate their students and use various methods of teaching.

Definitions of Motivation

Motivation has been defined in various ways by different authors. Gareth Jones, Jennifer George and Charles Hill (2000, p. 427) define motivation as ‘psychological forces that determine the

direction of a person's behavior [...], a person's level of effort, and a person's level of persistence in the face of obstacles.' David Myers (1996, p. 297) defines motivation as 'a need or desire that serves to energize behavior and to direct it towards a goal.'

Frank Hawkins (1993, pp. 132-133) defines it as "what drives or induces a person to behave in a particular fashion [...] the internal force which initiates, directs, sustains and terminates all important activities. It influences the level of performance, the efficiency achieved and the time spent on an activity." All of the definitions refer to stimuli that trigger the motivational process.

One more definition is worth mentioning that concerns the foreign language learning process. Kyösti Julkunen (2001, p. 29) claims that "in the classroom context, motivation can be seen as a continuous interaction process between the learner and the environment. [...] Its main role is in controlling and directing an activity [...], coordinating various operations towards an object or goal, motivation transforms a number of separate reactions into significant action. Learners build object-directed structures [...]."

Motivation is vital in language learning process because it determines whether the action of foreign language acquisition is undertaken by learners and to what extent they are ready to continue this intellectual effort. This is the reason why so many scientists and researchers have devoted such a great deal of attention to motivation.

Motivating Learners to Learn Foreign Language Vocabulary

Vocabulary, more than grammar, is the key to learners' ability to understand spoken and written messages and to communicate successfully with language users. For this reason, it is very important for the learners to build up as large a store of words as possible.

However, not all the learners are truly intrinsically motivated towards learning the foreign language, thus it may be sometimes difficult to find the motivation to teach and learn all the vocabulary they are expected to acquire. Moreover, not all the learners find all vocabulary useful. Language teachers should help their students and motivate them by using different techniques.

There are several techniques that can encourage learners to learn foreign language vocabulary enthusiastically. The teachers should conduct their lessons in a more attractive way by using some games, songs, stories, movies and videos, computer games or pictures. Thus they can make the process of acquiring new vocabulary pleasurable to the learners. People are motivated either when

they are engaged in activities chosen by themselves or when the activities are leisure ones. All of the techniques enumerated above are tools that can be used by teachers to make the lessons more attractive to language learners, thus to motivate them to learn more. Use of games, songs, movies and videos are discussed in detail.

Games

Games help and encourage learners to sustain their interest and work. They are important tools for addressing a variety of problems that can impede students' progress in learning a language. Games help students relax so that gender, cultural barriers and tensions can be broken down. They provide structured independence for beginners helping them move through the 'silent period.' They add flexibility to planning for classes where attendance is unpredictable. They facilitate learning in different styles, which maximizes students' chances for absorbing the language. Games allow teachers to have student-to-student practice while still maintaining control over the content of that practice.

Some teachers think that using games with adults is a bit boring for them. You are there to teach a serious subject, one that may affect students' careers, hopes for the future and even their ability to survive in a new country. However, games can help teachers overcome numerous roadblocks that stand between the students and their mastery of English.

The main roadblock teachers may face is their hesitance about using this approach with adults. However, basically, there is no difference between young and adult learners because we all like to have fun. Classes for adults that contain games are refreshing and allow ample opportunity to practice communicating.

According to research, many adults feel anxious when learning a foreign language. Games can help them forget that they are learning and instead enjoy the experience while enhancing their knowledge. The positive emotions make them relax and feel more confident. Adults can learn through games in language teaching just as much as children. They learn from known to unknown. As a Chinese proverb says, "I hear I forget. I see I understand and I do I remember" (Vernon, 2009).

All people learn differently, and there are many factors involved as to why there is so much variation. Gender is an important factor to consider. There is a tendency for women to be more flexible and for men to be more competitive. The idea that women are more 'verbal' and men are

more 'analytical' is one that is widely accepted. Women are often seen as more contemplative, and men as more active.

Most language games combine verbal and analytical elements so that both male and female students can excel at them. Word puzzles, as well as quiz games, mix language skills with strategic thinking in a way that is fun for everyone. It is not unusual to have teenage boys remain silent all through classes, because they feel they are too cool for school, until these games come out. Suddenly, it's all about winning and being involved in the process, they don't mind speaking in English. The girls want to show off as well, and pretty soon teachers can't keep them quiet!

It is essential to consider the cultural background and cultural setting of the learners before including games in a lesson plan. Students in multi-cultural classes are usually more flexible in the expectations of the class. Start with 'get to know you games' and games that allow the students to examine their preconceptions in a new setting. Riddle contests where students try to stump each other, or where you set the class a riddle to solve, can be a really fun way to do this at the intermediate level, since riddles inherently require players to look at ordinary things from a different point of view. It makes for an interesting cultural lesson if the students translate riddles from their own countries. If you have the students solve their riddles in teams, then this also makes a good icebreaker.

Students in monolingual classes in their home country will bring a lot of their own cultural expectations in class. Get to know just what these expectations are in regards to adults playing games. Bringing in weekly comics from English speaking papers, English news magazines, and sharing out snacks from home are other good ways to set up cultural boundaries. Comics especially can lead to some interesting cultural discussions, since many kinds of humor tend to be dependent on cultural norms and expectations.

In conclusion, learning vocabulary through games is one of the effective and interesting ways that can be applied in language classrooms. Games bring in relaxation and fun for students, thus helping them learn and retain new words more easily. They usually involve friendly competition and keep learners interested. Games create the motivation for learners of English to get involved and participate actively in the learning activities. Last, vocabulary games bring real world context into the classroom, and enhance students' use of English in a flexible and communicative way.

Songs

Jeremy Harmer (2001, p. 242-45) names music ‘a powerful stimulus’ for language learning. He classifies the song as one of the tools for teaching listening. It is a versatile technique, as it enables the teacher to present the words graphically (printed song lyrics), verbally (listening to the song) and contextually (song lyrics) at the same time. The song can change the learners’ mood and it can positively influence their motivation for vocabulary learning. As Harmer (2001, p. 242) states, “it can make a satisfactory connection between the world of leisure and the world of learning.”

Learners memorize vocabulary more willingly that is linked to real life situations, their own experience and interests, so they remember it for a longer period of time if not for a lifetime. Some scientists support the thesis that the influence of music on both hemispheres of the brain is undeniable, thus the text combined with music has probably better effect on the learners’ minds and their language acquisition process than the text alone.

Music enhances and strengthens the process of remembering because it stimulates the limbic system, which is the emotional centre in the brain closely linked with learning. It helps to integrate internal rhythm and external cognitive activity and balances the emotional processes.

The song has the greatest value when it becomes an integral part of the learning processes, when it is used regularly and frequently, not only for fun but also to facilitate learning the language. By the effective use of the song one should understand using it on many different levels, including the song as a whole (music and lyrics), only the content of the song (only lyrics) or a part of the story selected for the purpose of the lesson, or even just the theme music.

Such multifaceted and flexible approach to the use of songs helps to integrate them into the learning process so that they become its integral part perfectly complementing and enriching other teaching materials. Songs provide language exercises, which reflect the use of authentic language, for learners. They teach learners the correct pronunciation, rhythm, accent and intonation. Moreover, the text of each song is a source of new vocabulary in a specific context. Lexical phrases introduced in this way are easier to remember and are stored in the learners’ memory for a longer period of time.

Songs influence the learners’ motivation. Their activity is no longer so highly dependent on external motivation (marks) when the songs are used. They motivate learners and create a feeling of success in a different way than marks. When singing with understanding the lyrics, even the weaker students can experience the feeling of success.

The way of presenting the task is also very important. Teachers should present teaching materials to learners in such a way that learners do not have the impression that something has been imposed on them. It is very important that the tasks the learners are completing during the lesson are interesting for them.

Thus filling-in the gaps in the song lyrics usually has a better effect than just filling-in the blanks in some grammar sentences which are usually quite artificial. Such tasks help to evoke pleasant emotions and create positive attitudes towards language in the learners. Songs seem to have the psychological impact in two ways, by the word content and music content. Therefore, teenage learners are more interested in activities connected with songs, and their attention is more focused and persistent.

There is also another thing to consider, it is the song selection. Teachers should choose songs carefully to have a desirable effect. When choosing an appropriate song, one should remember to especially consider the level of language proficiency of the learners and their age. Teachers should decide whether it should be a rock song, a pop song or any other style.

Another important factor is the choice of a text. If the main task, for example, consists in presenting and teaching certain grammatical structures, teachers choose a song in which the structures occur and teach them after the introduction and practice phases. Similar criteria should be taken into account when introducing vocabulary through the song or practicing listening.

Movies and Videos

There are different ways of defining the term 'Video' in language teaching. In the most popular way, Longman dictionary of Contemporary English has applied the meaning of the term 'video' as 'a copy of a film or television program, or a series of events recorded on videotape' or 'a process of recording or showing television programs, films, real events etc. on videotape.' In other way, movies and videos are briefly known as one kind of visual aids. They are visible with both sound and pictures. In fact, video is a useful means of communication as well as a powerful vehicle of information and effective aid in language teaching and learning.

'Movies' is defined as a film shown in a cinema or on television. There are several kinds of movies such as silent movies, movies with subtitles, and movies without subtitles.

As mentioned above, video and movies provide not only sound but also vision therefore, learners have chance to listen and see the moving pictures at the same time. Learners would find it more interesting so video and movies help to draw the attention and capture the interest of learners. The benefit of using them in teaching and learning is undeniable. They help to motivate learners and maintain their interest, attention during the lesson. In classroom, where the teacher keeps talking all the time and has nothing to attract learners' attention, they will get bored and tired. By using video and movies, teachers will not have to talk much and encourage students to talk more, which results in more learners' participation. Besides, video is a combination of sound, colorful pictures and human-video interactions, which is quite different from traditional classes with text-books, cassettes in bad quality and non-native speakers. Video and movies are more effective than traditional printed textbooks. What students can see from the textbooks are only dead words and sentences. Students would become more excited to experience this new way of teaching and learning. They would be more eager to try to understand the new language and remember them for a long time. Learning with videos is a chance to be acquainted with the native voice, which makes students not feel so isolated from the real world and they absorb the new language without being aware of this. When watching videos, students would not be aware that they are learning so they feel free from pressure and stressful situation in traditional language classes. They learn the language incidentally and as a result, they gain success. In addition, as educators, our goal, of course, is to get students engaged in learning. Video can help us do this work effectively. Since there are lots of videos which are designed for foreign language purposes, they can combine learning with entertainment such as watching films and cartoons.

In conclusion, among many kinds of visual aids, videos and movies are recognized as the two most effective methods of teaching and learning. In comparison with other visual aids such as pictures and flashcards, which only provide the image or audiocassettes that present new vocabulary through sound, video is absolutely better. Videos and movies provide both sound and moving pictures, which both interest and motivate learners. Video can be compared with radio or television, it is certainly more preferable. It is clear that in the video learners can achieve advantages in learning through both radio and television. By watching videos and movies, the learners do not just hear the language but see the context in which it is used. Besides, with TV sometimes we cannot select the program that is appropriate to learners' level as well as the content of the lesson but we can do this with video.

Conclusion

In teaching vocabulary, it is important to implement appropriate techniques and teaching aids. The teachers are responsible for choosing the best techniques and methods that will give their learners the opportunity to gain as much knowledge as possible. Selecting the way of teaching vocabulary is based on the class situation and the learners' condition. Therefore, the chosen technique should attract the learner's attention and help them to achieve the learning aims.

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ERRORS AND THE WAY OF THEIR TREATMENT

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Abstract

The article deals with the problem of error correction. Nobody doubts that the role of teaching-learning English greatly increased at the end of the twentieth century and one of the most problematic questions to deal with in this process is error correction. Recent theory on language acquisition and teaching methodology supports the position that not all errors should be corrected, and those that are corrected should usually not be “treated” immediately. This position is based on the fact that errors are normal and unavoidable during the learning process.

Key words: error, occur, analysis, involve applications, transfer, overgeneralization, avoidance, idiosyncratic errors, pre-systematic, systematic

Introduction

We have to notice why errors occur because this can help teachers decide what to do about errors. The process of studying errors is called error analysis and it helps teachers to decide what to do about them.

- learners make an error because the learner has not had specific chance to observe the right forms.
- learners make errors because the learner has not observed the forms correctly.
- learners are sometimes nervous and it makes them make errors.
- some activities are difficult and this is the reason that causes errors.
- some activities are confusing and it may be the reason for making errors.
- learners make errors because they are using patterns from the first language instead of the patterns of the second language.
- learners make errors because of copying incorrect models.

Speaking about any kind of teaching process which includes the relation between teachers and students **errors and their treatment** is one of the most problematic topics to speak about. As some methodologists agree there are **the following types of errors**:

- **transfer errors that involve applications of rules that hold in the first language but not in the second language.**
- **overgeneralization in the application of a general principle in the case of exception.**
- **avoidance errors** deal with misuse of phraseology.
- **idiosyncratic errors** deal with not very natural utterances of L2 learner, unique to an individual.
- **pre-systematic errors** deal with no knowledge and attempts.
- **systematic errors** deal with wrong knowledge or interpretation, a learner does know the rule, but is unable to apply it due to wrong interpretation of the rule.

Body

Recent theory on language acquisition and teaching methodology supports the position that not all the errors should usually be “treated” immediately. This position is based on the fact that errors are normal and unavoidable during the learning process. Errors occur for many reasons. One obvious case is interference from the native language. A learner may make errors because she assumes that the target language and their native language are similar, when in fact they are different. This kind of overgeneralization is the case of many mistaken guesses. Another obvious case is simply an incomplete knowledge of the target language. (Combs, 2001). Certain aspects of English (e.g., the s in the third person singular present tense) are difficult for all students, no matter what their native languages. Spelling is also problematic for nonnative speakers of English (and many native speakers too). Finally, fossilization occurs when an individual reaches a satisfactory level of competence in the L2 and does not worry about persistent mistakes she may make, which may not inhibit communication. **What is an error?** According to H.D. Brown “a mistake is a performance error that is either a random guess or a ‘slip’”. Errors are problems that a native speaker would not have. Brown defines an error as “a noticeable derivation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage (between two or more languages) competence of a learner.” So a “slip” is what a learner can self-correct and an error is what a learner cannot self-correct. An attempt is a guess or when neither the intended meaning nor the structure is clear to the teacher.

Responding to the spoken errors: feedback is information given to learners how well they have performed a learning task. In its broad sense, feedback can take a variety of forms. These include: giving praise and encouragement, correcting errors, setting regular tests, discussing learners' performance, and giving individual tutorials. Feedback, in its narrow sense, is mainly related to assessment and correction. In assessment the learner is merely informed how well or badly he has performed (e.g. by being given a percentage grade in an exam, being told "No" after attempting to answer a question in class, receiving the comment "fair" for a written assessment). Correction includes information on what learners did right and wrong and why. Feedback has a great motivational value, but it can also produce an extremely negative effect on a learner. For this reason, feedback has to be:

- supportive_ if it is given in an atmosphere of warm solidarity the learners will know that their teachers' aim is to promote learning rather than put them down.
- helpful and meaningful _ learners should be given reasons for their success and failures if the feedback aims to produce a favorable effect and reinforce learning.
- clear_ learners should understand what is being said or written to them.
- honest and realistic_ both positive and negative feedback should be available to the learners in a supportive, reassuring manner. (Harmer, 2001)

Responding written errors: writing activities cover a great variety of task types. They include written compositions, assignments on grammar or vocabulary, answers to comprehension questions, and tests. When students do tests, teachers mark their answer right or wrong, penciling in the correct answers for them to study. However, when the teacher is more interested in the content than the form of the written work _ which is the case with more creative or communicative type of writing _ too much preoccupation with the correction of mistakes is almost always discouraged. As even with many grammar and vocabulary mistakes, the writing may still convey a comprehensible message. However, errors cannot be ignored all the time. Students want to be informed of their progress-or their lack of progress- and also to be shown effective ways of improving their written production in the future(Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Feedback on written errors should be given in three different ways, or modes:

1. Oral mode is especially effective for after-the-activity feedback. Oral correction of written errors always takes the form of the whole class activity conducted by the teacher, who identifies and explains common errors and sets additional tasks for further practice.

2. In written feedback since written feedback is designed not only to assess but also to teach, one of the devices to respond to student errors in writing is to make helpful (rather than censorious) comments in the margin, at the end of the writing, or on the separate piece of paper. After the comments have been made, students are expected to look at their writing again and review it. In the case of a final draft-the finished text-the teacher can say what she liked best and what the student should do when they write something similar in the future. Another constructive way is giving alternative techniques through reformulation. The teacher can make a comment like “ I would write the paragraph in a slightly different way.....” and rewrite it, but keeping the original meaning intact.
3. In auditory mode, the teacher records either on video or audio tape her response to any incorrectness in learners’ production. The learners work out the errors and try to provide solutions to their problems. At the final stage, the teacher helps them with their errors. Total correction is the traditional approach to written work, but it is most discouraging for students when their written work is handed back covered in red ink. For some students, such an attitude does help to maintain an interest in writing, but recent considerable changes in ELT have shown the way to more effective, alternative ways of correction.

Survey results:

I have carried a survey about correcting mistakes among 40 teachers and 40 students. I carried out a survey among the Gori University teachers and students. I had only one question. The question was: “Should teachers correct all the errors immediately or should students be given time to correct their errors themselves?” As errors occur on every level of teaching/learning a foreign language, my survey covered all the levels of teaching/studying a foreign language. I marked their answers and finally I got the following results: 32 from 40 teachers refused to correct errors immediately. Only 8 teachers said that all errors should be corrected immediately. However, 12 from 40 students claimed that their errors should be corrected immediately by teachers. Only 28 students claimed that they should be given time to correct their mistakes themselves.

40 TEACHERS

40 STUDENTS

Teachers should correct all the errors immediately	8	Teachers should correct all the errors immediately	12
Teachers should not correct all the errors immediately	32	Teachers should not correct all the errors immediately	28

Experiment

Because of the importance of the task we made an experiment. The experiment was carried out in Gori State Teaching University in 2011-2012 academic year. The aim of the experiment was to check how error correction effects on students and their motivation. The experiment in stages:

- The mini experiment lasted for three weeks to prove that it was worth holding the long term experiment.
- The long term experiment lasted for two semesters and its aim was to check the correctness of the hypotheses.

20 students were involved in the experiment. They were divided into two small groups with the help of a questionnaire and a language test. Ten students were in the experimental group and ten students were in the control group. Before the experiment the students had to write a test and their results showed that they had one and the same level of language skills. We gave similar tasks to the students of the both groups and observed how they reacted on different methods of correcting errors. Our mini-experiment proved that it was worth holding the long term experiment. During the long - term experiment we had two groups_one of them was an experimental one and the other was a control group. In the control group I (a teacher) corrected every error immediately but in the experimental one I identified the types of errors and treated them differently. If learners made errors because they did not have sufficient chance to observe the correct form or to develop sufficient knowledge of the language system I did not correct their errors. I only gave more models and opportunity to observe. If the errors were caused because of nervousness, I tried to lighten the mood. If the activity was difficult and it was the reason for making errors, I made the activity easier and repeated it. If the activity was confusing I did not correct the error, I tried to improve the activity. If the error was caused because of the first language interference, I gave some correction and explained the reason for making the error. At the beginning of our experiment the level of motivation was the same in both groups, but at the end of the long – term I noticed decreasing motivation in the control group and increasing motivation in the experimental group.

Conclusion

While discussing errors and their treatment we have to notice that there are several types of errors and there are some reasons causing errors. Teachers have to distinguish what are objectives of the lesson and treat errors according to lesson objectives. According to our survey and experiment we may give some recommendations: if learners make errors because the learner has not observed the forms correctly, teachers should give a little correction by showing the learner the difference between the correct form and the learner's error. If learners are sometimes nervous and it makes them make errors, teachers should not correct. They should use less threatening activities or even joke to lighten the mood. If some activities are difficult and this is the reason that causes errors, teachers should not correct. They should make the activity easier or give several chances to repeat the activity. If some activities are confusing and it is the reason for making errors, teachers should not correct errors, they should improve the activity. If learners make errors because they are using patterns from the first language instead of the patterns of the second language, teachers should give some correction. If there has been plenty of opportunity to develop knowledge of the second language, then some time should be spent on correction to help learners break out of making errors that are unlikely to change. Errors which are resistant to change are sometimes called fossilized errors and correction is often needed to break the fossilization. If there has not been a lot of opportunity to develop the knowledge of the second language, teachers should correct by telling learners what to look for when observing people using the second language. This is called consciousness raising. It does not actually teach the correct form but makes the learner more aware of what to look for to learn it. If learners make errors because of copying incorrect models, teachers should correct learners and provide better models.

The survey carried out by me shows that the recent theory on language acquisition and teaching methodology which claims that not all errors should be corrected and those that are corrected should usually not be "treated" immediately is the most relevant approach and speaking about any kind of teaching process which includes the relation between teachers and students "errors and their treatment" is one of the most problematic topics to discuss.

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PROS AND CONS OF THE USE OF TECHNOLOGY IN ELT CLASSROOM:

A case of International Black Sea University

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“Technology can become the “*wings*” that will allow the educational world to fly farther and faster than ever before –if we will allow it.”

Jenny Arledge

Abstract:

Doubtless, English is one of the most widely spoken languages in the World and thus the importance of learning is even needless to mention. We are living in the century where technology is playing a crucial role. This research was done in order to highlight all advantages and disadvantages of usage of technology and technological devices while teaching and learning English particularly at International Black Sea University.

Key words: ESL, EFL, ELT, ELL, Smart Board, TELL, Kindle, Educational Software

Introduction:

Over last years technology has been changing our life style by surrounding us with devices that eventually become the part of our routine. For example, ten years ago nobody could imagine that smart phones would be capable of acting as a standalone computer, that they would be able to search the Internet and do all those functions we are now used to. So, as mentioned above it is now impossible to imagine our usual day without technology in it. Thus, it is obvious that modern students expect to see the technologies even in their classrooms.

Literature Review:

One of the most dramatic changes in education has been the increase in the number of students whose first language is not English. Since the 1990–1991 school year, the ELL population has grown by 105% compared to a 12% growth among the general population. And now these numbers are only growing more and more (Dukes, 2005). Such growth in English language learners’ population means many things for teachers. The digital age challenges teachers to use

technology in ways that facilitate language learning. ESL/EFL teachers should achieve “bit literacy” or “technology literacy” in other words, because it would allow them to reclaim their classroom from any technology that interferes with English Language Teaching. This is quite effective as ESL/EFL students are empowered when teachers harness new technology in ways that promote language learning (Morgan, 2008).

By the same token, new technology can turn out to be either valuable resource or disappointing failure. Teachers should not let the novelty of technology replace its real purpose in the ESL/EFL classroom, as it can easily become more of a disadvantage, rather than advantage. That purpose should be decided by ESL/EFL teachers, not by manufacturers of technology or publishers of software. If the good result is desired, teachers must themselves think of certain strategies and behaviors they need to use in ESL/EFL classrooms. Singularly, many of the same strategies and behaviors that we recognize as good teaching are essential to effectively teach ELLs in the regular classroom. For the most part; there are many different strategies that teachers can use. A lot has been said about the benefits of technology in education and the effects of technology on English learning. Advocates for integrating technology into the English classroom emphasize the positive effects of technology. It is important, however, to take a more critical look at the effects of technology on English education so that we can maximize the positive effects and minimize the negative ones (Lin, 2012).

We need to include the use of technology in English language teaching. Why? By incorporating technology into lessons, students will become more engaged in and excited about the subject at hand. Lessons that would normally be tedious for many, such as social studies, can be much more engaging with virtual field trips and streaming video (Hermitt, 2012). Computers allow students to learn through exploring the internet and doing research. The act of looking up information and researching papers with such an extensive resource can keep students engaged in a project and learning far longer than they would with a set of encyclopedias (Hermitt, 2012). Digital literacy is as important as our students' ability to use English. Because technology is a part of daily life (for work, for play, for study) in the real world, education should be about preparing kids for success in that world. As children, we learn our native language through a natural process of listening and repeating the words and phrases we constantly hear from those around us, and interaction between biological, sociocultural, and environmental factors also

influence our language development.” One software program that incorporates many of these principles of native language development (use of images, sounds, written words) is the Rosetta Stone Language Library (O’Sullivan, 2005). There are lots of programs and other software helping to develop and improve language skills. One of those that are well-known and developed is Rosetta Stone Language Library which is a series of programs on CD and online for learning a second language. Students work individually with the program to master each of the instructional levels. Using a combination of text, photographs, and voice, the learner can choose from 13 exercises that develop listening comprehension, reading, speaking, and writing and meet the needs of a variety of learning styles.

On the other hand, there are several negative opinions representing the disadvantages of using Computer Technology in ESL classrooms. While technology opens the door to opportunities and access to people outside our immediate social circle, the result of the virtual world often closes doors to real-world encounters . Technology has increased the opportunities for long-distance communication, but in exchange decreases our ability to communicate proficiently in face-to-face encounters (Lin, 2012). The effect on students might be that they are not learning some very essential social skills. Training to use computers in the classroom can be costly and time-consuming. Special needs technology can be very expensive and take an inordinate amount of money to acquire and operate. While searching the Web some students might explore beyond the bounds and parameters of the project and become distracted by other activities that they find on the internet (Hermitt, 2012).

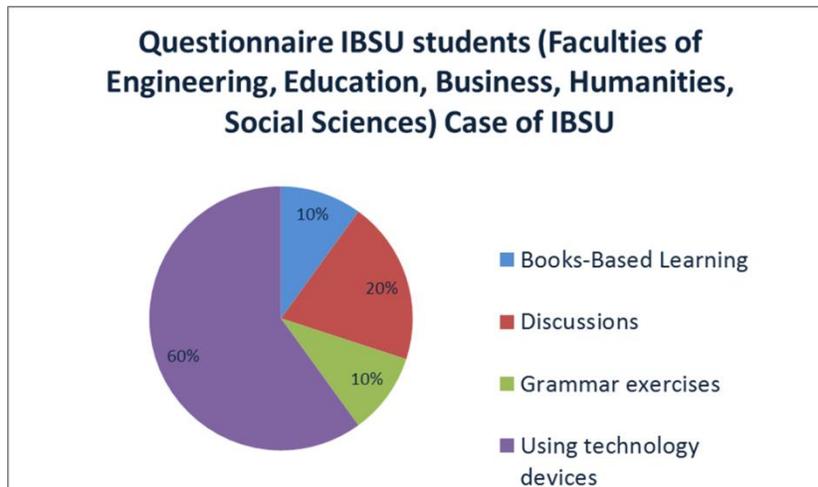
Conversely, the report by the Milken Exchange on Education Technology indicates that the positive effects of technology on education far exceed the negative effects. For example, students learn more in less time when they receive computer-based instruction, and the use of technology results in higher level reasoning and problem-solving abilities. The negative effects were minimal by comparison.

The study was conducted at International Black Sea University, to the students Faculty of Education, Humanities, Business Management, Computer Technologies and Engineering in Tbilisi in 2012-2013 academic year spring semester. It included 60 participants. They were asked four different questions.

Findings:

To more precisely find out what exactly are the expectations of young learners, I decided to interrogate International Black Sea University students in order to analyze how do they see the perfect English lecture? (see Diagram №1).

Diagram 1. Questionnaire for IBSU students



The Diagram №1 represents that 10 % of questioned said that they are expecting to read and analyze texts, 20% said that they would enjoy discussions with each other and lecturer, 10% stated that they would prefer doing some grammar exercises, while other 60% of asked students answered that they find essential usage of power point presentations, using projector, multi-media software, video and audio discs.

The conclusion should be just one: since the majority of students prefer to have a lecture using technologies it will be much effective to use them up to a certain point. It was mentioned a “certain point”, because it is believed that if the usage of using technology and other interactive activities are not balanced, the advantage of technological devices is starting to turn into a disadvantage.

Diagram №2. Usage of computer’s hardware and software (especially computer applications) in learning and teaching English

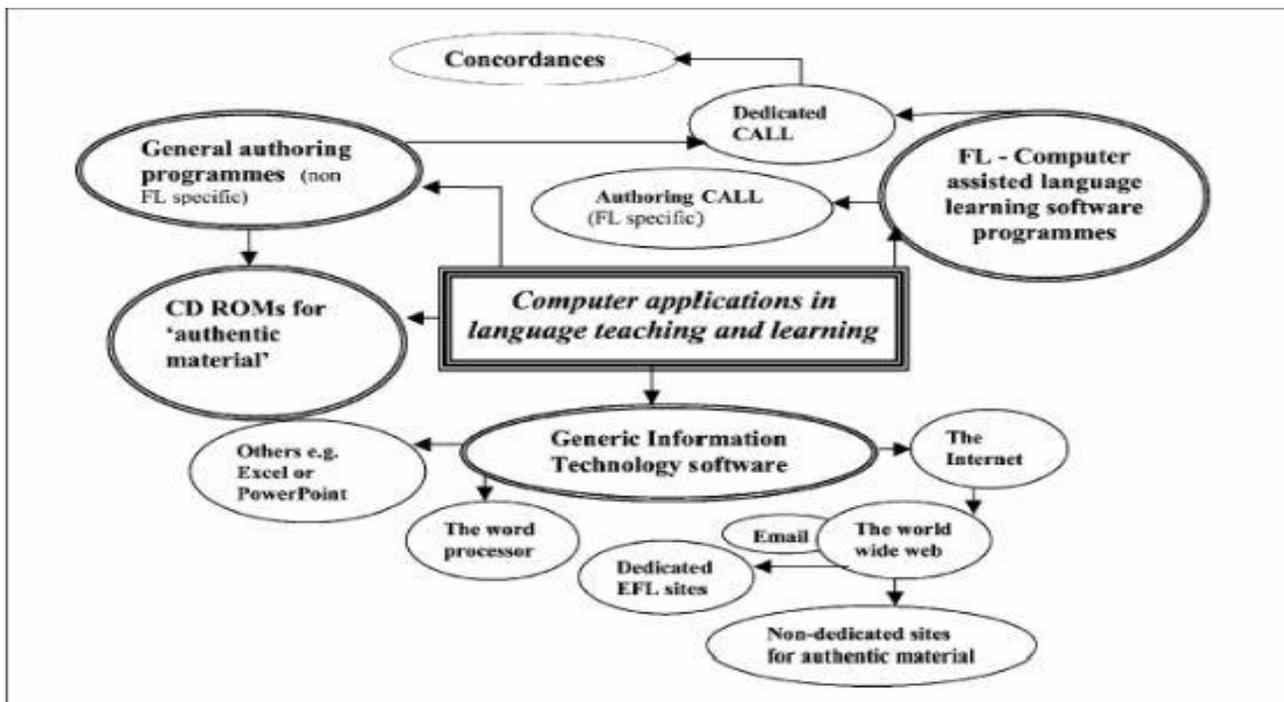


Diagram №2 helps to understand the use of computers in language teaching and learning in ELT classrooms.

Basic devices that would be useful in ELT classrooms

SMART Boards; It is not a new device. In fact, to give you brief information on it, it was developed in 1991 by a company called SMART Technologies. It is an interactive whiteboard that displays images and text from projector to a computer, to the board. It varies in size, which is quite is quite necessary because you can use the size you need for your classroom. It can also be mobile or attached to the wall. Now the most exciting feature of the board (the one mostly adored by students) is that it is completely touch-screen (Jefferson, 2011). Other extra materials can be given as; using web-based resources, showing video clips to help explain certain concepts, creating digital flip charts, presenting power point presentations to whole class. It is effective among children and university students. The major impact on both of above mentioned is the ability to hold their attention and catch interest, which is very important especially for preschoolers, as they have short attention spans. As for university students, from my personal experience, I can say that it feels much more professional and interesting when you are, for

example, having the presentation in front of the Smart Board, as you control the situation and feel self-confident.

Another newest concept is mobile learning. Mobile learning is a subset of e-learning, which is one of the most modern ways to support learning process through mobile devices, such as handheld and tablet computers. This method is quite helpful, because students today widely use those devices and it would be an interesting experience for them to use something they have a contact with every day in learning. Seven out of ten IBSU students said that they have at least one mobile device, like iPad, iPod, tablets, and android-powered smartphones. All those seven, actually stated that they would find it quite entertaining to use some of those in classrooms. One of the examples of usage of those devices is recording everything that students say during the lecture and then giving the assignment to listen it over and over again in order to catch the mistakes “that just do not sound right”. As well as that, mobile devices are quite helpful when taking notes or searching the web, or using online dictionary is needed. Mobile learning can be easily practiced as an individual, pair and group work in English language classroom.

Kindle is another device that can help learning. It is different form above mentioned mobile devices as it is more learning oriented due to the wide access it offers to thousands of books. No library check outs needed, no book swapping, most probably students will not even to buy a students' book, as they simply can download it from Internet, just few clicks and the books you need can fit into the palm of your hand.¹

The potential of mobile learning has not been fully explored. It is possible that the paper-free style, completely replacing books with e-readers will be adopted in future. But in my objective opinion it is not quite the advantage, or the positive side, because replacing books with technology devices will lead to its disappearance from peoples' lives, which apparently is a big disadvantage.

Another reason why using mobile devices is quite effective is that there are thousands and dozens of special software applications by a very low cost or even for free that you can download on your mobile device and use in order to develop your language skills.

¹ <http://www.spreader.com/blog/is-kindle-the-solution-to-learning-english-fast-an-examination/>

Here are examples of several of them:

“Listen and speak” is an android application that you can install on your mobile for free. This application helps language learners improve their foreign language learning using a set of predefined templates of how words should be pronounced and understood. (Hill, 2012)

“Fluent English” application helps to improve both speaking and listening skills. It is like an audio book and has audio translations of any word you do not understand. It also provides pronunciation in different voices.

“Pronunciation app” is Winner of the British Council ELT Award 2012 for ‘Innovation in learner resources’, Sounds is Macmillan’s mobile English pronunciation app for both students and teachers. (Hill, 2012)

“Scrabble” is one of the most entertaining games, which will help you improve your spelling skills.

There are many other useful applications that you can use absolutely free of charge and might consider useful.

One of the important concepts is usage of Power Point Presentations.

In IBSU the majority of lecturers when explaining the new information to students, use Power Point Presentations and then upload them on our university’s website so that students have the opportunity to repeat or review the material they do not remember or want to learn better. I believe this is quite helpful, as while explaining students are able to actually see what lecturer is talking about and if you did not catch the information or did not have enough time to note something you will always have a chance to see the presentations afterwards and clarify all details that you misunderstood.

Discussion and Conclusion:

All things considered, I would like to come to a logical conclusion now.

Albert Einstein said: “I fear the day when the technology overlaps with our humanity. The world will only have a generation of idiots.”

Was he right? Most probably yes. This is the biggest disadvantage of technological progress. Technology devices are good and useful and helpful, but up to a certain point. They should be helping in the studying process but not replacing it, or, moreover, they should not exclude books from our lives. In order to escape from the destiny Einstein predicted, we must learn to use technology in balanced proportions.

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STUDY OF AUTOBIOGRAPHY AS ONE OF THE GENRES OF BUSINESS RUSSIAN

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«Know yourself and thus know the world"»

Socrates

Abstract

The paper is dedicated to the study of autobiography as one of the genres of business Russian. Autobiographies and resumes are normally obligatory components of business style teaching. Peculiarities of these genres in business Russian are shown.

Key words: business letter, documents, autobiography, CV.

Introduction. The Great thinker of the antique period, Socrates, called: know not a human being and people in general, but know yourself – your place in life, you inner world. But how can one know oneself? It means to think about yourself, evaluate your actions, and remember your life. Of course, this is a complex process and sometimes, even an entire life is not enough to do that. The Russian writer and philosopher, Vasily Rosonav (1913) wrote in this regard: "Basically, there is one book, which a person should attentively read – this is a book of his own life". But to read it, it should be written first. These are dairies kept by authors every day, every year – for example, dairies of L. N. Tolstoy.

In the early 20th century futurists had a wonderful slogan: "We are the image of our time!" Yes, just like the ocean is made of small drops, the portrait of our time is made of many images and personalities.

The autobiography sample is often required from students during their studies at the university or at the places of internship. It should contain the main data of birth place, close relatives, places of study. If the student served in the army, worked on a labour contract basis, this information should also be specified. The usual length of autobiography is one or two pages. Some universities do not request detailed information and in this case the main content fits in half of page.

Autobiography. The document is drafted by a jobseeker/competition participant/... and contains personal data, information about the work or study experience of the drafter (chronologically) and his family member. According to Ozhegov (1986: 18), autobiography (Greek, autos – self, bios – life, grapho – writing) is a consistent description of own life by the author. It begins with a human addressing himself, seeking in himself, in his life, something that he can tell – interesting events, thoughts, feelings. It is also important to define at whom your story about yourself is oriented. My story about myself – this is a kind of literary autobiography which I can tell you, my friends. But if I were writing an official autobiography, I would select facts pertaining to my professional activities.

What is the criterion of biography? What are biographies like? For the purpose of comparative analysis we offer samples of official and literary autobiographies. We find out that the text of official autobiography is stricter and more concise. Anyone can use the samples of autobiography as a template for creation of own document narrating about his life journey. For example:

Autobiography

Of the third year student of dental department, Tbilisi State Medical University,
David Nizharadze (patronymic – Temur)

I, David Nizharadze (patronymic – Temur) was born on February 10, 1988 in Tbilisi. I finished Tbilisi secondary school No. 12 with a silver medal.

I was accepted at the medical professional school No.1 in 2007 and finished it in 2009 specializing as a dental technician.

I completed courses of classic massage in 2008 and have a certificate of completion.

I used to take up swimming and achieved a ranking. I also took up Georgian dances during 9 years in Tbilisi Youth Palace. I am a participant of many international competitions.

I was accepted at the dental department of the State Medical University in 2010.

In line with my studies, I have been working as a manager in the insurance company “Hope” since 2009.

I speak Georgian, Russian, English and Turkish languages.

I have the following computer skills: Microsoft Word, Microsoft Office, Internet.

Marital status: married, have a son and a daughter.

Wife: Diana Nizharadze (patronymic – Alexander), born in 1989, student of the State Medical University.

Son, Tengiz Nizharadze (patronymic – David), born in 2010.

Daughter, Tamara Nizharadze (patronymic – David), born in 2011.

My address is:

20, Griboedov Street, apt. 17,

Tbilisi, 8009565, Tbilisi, Georgia,

Phone.595 25 65 75

Date:

Signature:

This is a sample of autobiography of a minimal length. If required, more detailed data about one's life can be written.

As most of students have not encountered this genre of official-business style of speech, we offer you to write your autobiography personally, to look into yourself. When studying writings of any writer or artist we are trying to define the level of reflection of his life events in his compositions. And probably, we can agree, that personality of many of them reflects its time. The deeper and more interesting a person is, the more interesting his biography is, in which he is presented not as a passive recorder of events, but as a personality, a person of his time.

The theme “autobiography” is always essential. Its goals are:

- Study of peculiarities of the genre of official-business style of speech at the example of autobiography;
- Developing – development of skills to create a text in the given situation;
- Educational – help to know oneself as a personality by means of acquiring the genre.

Meanwhile, the following tasks are set:

- Study of the structure of autobiography;
- Detection of differences between literary and official autobiographies;
- Teaching the document drafting rules.

Fedorova (2003) states that it is important to comply with document drafting rules in the structure of autobiography to meet the requirements placed by society to a business person.

Résumé (CV). There is also an absolutely necessary kind of document which should be drafted by any person seeking a good job. This is a *résumé*. “The document is drafted by a jobseeker/competition participant etc. and contains personal data, information about the work or

study experience of the drafter from the present day to beginning of work/study” (Revia, 2012: 103).

The structure is as follows: Surname, name, patronymic, date and place of birth, marital status, and citizenship are specified. They are followed by professional experience data: education, knowledge of languages, level of computer skills, work experience. The achievements may be written here, which can play a decisive role when reviewing your *résumé*: diploma with honours, work experience, practical training abroad etc. Afterwards, your address, phone (office and home), place of work and position should be specified. Letters of recommendation (opinion about your work or study) can be attached. Usually, this document is sent by fax (Lebedev, Petukhova, 2002).

Conclusion. The genre of autobiography is connected with self-cognition, discovery of one’s own “me”, events common for a student – school, additional education, first achievements in something. They have achieved a lot by the age of 20, but there are many heights to be conquered still. Self-cognition, understanding oneself as a personality, will continue during the entire life. The important thing is, that the book of one’s own life – the autobiography – should be informative and written correctly, in a beautiful manner!

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DOES THE ROAD THE ROAD FROM HOME SCHOOLING TO UNSCHOOLING LEAD US TO THE END OF THE TUNNEL?

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Abstract

The paper views different ways to receive education, including the traditional for today schooling (in various types of schools), home schooling and unschooling. Though both in home schooling and unschooling children temporarily or totally do not attend school, the difference between them is that home schooling involves a sort of curriculum and assessment, while unschooling means total freedom (or chaos?). The author supports the idea of home schooling, but is against unschooling except separate very special cases. A questionnaire was held which showed that the majority of respondents (100 students & teachers from Georgia) support her idea, however, there are many enough supporters of unschooling, which she views as a dangerous trend.

Key words: home schooling, unschooling/deschooling, freedom of choice in education

There was a time when just the fact of being able to go to school was a privilege. To attend school was prestigious and meant a good future. So many people from lower social standing, women, ethnic and racial minorities had to fight for the right to go to school. Later, with the development of democracy, the right to get a free-of-charge (primary, depending on the country, incomplete or complete secondary) education became not only the right, but also the duty. Correspondingly, in majority of countries, people having no more need to prove their right to go to school, became more demanding towards what school could offer.

It is only natural that parents want to be able to choose what kind of education their children should get. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (1999), the reasons for it may be:

- a) academic
- b) religious

- c) moral environment
- d) convenience

I would add culture, safety, moral climate (drug and alcohol abuse), the state of the child's health (including psychological health), remote residence, special gifts or disabilities. If the neighboring school satisfies these requirements, parents normally prefer to take their children there, as it saves both parents' and children's time (Rose and Gallop, 1998). Certainly, the financial capacity of the family may restrict their desire to provide the best education and conditions for their children, but everybody living in a democratic society expects to have this freedom of choice, at least on a legal level. The more choice, the more freedom. This is why the freedom should not be only between public and private schools (as this choice is, probably, except very gifted children, unavailable to less well-off families), but also between various types of state-funded (and, correspondingly, free) schools. As the movement of school choice has been very active in the USA since the 1980s, nowadays American education offers a wide range of publicly-funded schools: community schools, magnet schools, intra- and inter-district controlled choice plans, charter schools and contracted schools. Besides, there are various types of schools (including private ones) with vouchers, tax credits, and scholarships offered, as well as alternative schools (Hadderman, 2002, p. 3).

However, irrespective this variety, some parents prefer home schooling for their children. **Home schooling** is the education of children at home, typically by parents and/or by tutors, rather than in other formal settings of public or private school. Although prior to the introduction of compulsory school attendance laws, most childhood education occurred within the family or community, home schooling in the modern sense is an alternative in developed countries to attending public or private schools. Home schooling – to be legal – has to have a curriculum. In order to obtain a document of education assessment is done by corresponding education organs. Though the timetable is not as strict as at school, but it normally exists, and the methods of teaching/learning, though, probably, more original, are more or less the same as at school. Also, in a way, there is a classroom, or more exactly the workplace where the studying occurs.

The majority of parents in the US want home schooling for their children for religious reasons – often they are members of certain sects (Russo and Gordon, 1996). A smaller group, identified as “pedagogues” are dissatisfied with emphasis on discipline, homework and patriotism, they are

also stressing the need in individualized instruction (Hadderman, 2002, p. 62). However small, this group is growing fast. According to Stevens (2001), more and more parents are worried about the quality of their children's education as well as the situation in which they are receiving it (cases of violence and gun-shooting). Many of them share a willingness to sacrifice (money, time, and career advancement) for their children's education (Cloud and Morse, 2001). It is difficult to hold statistics on such families, as some eventually send their children to school, while some move from state to state thus making statistics complicated. Though one doesn't have to pay for this kind of education, it is directly connected with financial status of the family: at least one parent has to stay at home, which means that the other should get high enough salary. The education level of the parent doing most of the teaching job has to be high enough (at least BA), and involve various spheres (such as math, natural sciences and humanities), which is rare enough. Besides, parents can provide good teaching if they are either born teachers or have a teacher's education (knowledge of effective teaching methods is needed). On the other hand, they can benefit from internet materials (but to know whether they are good or bad, a certain qualification is needed). This is why home schooling is generally limited to primary/elementary school level.

In the remote past all over the world home schooling was the privilege for the rich and aristocratic (however, it wasn't always good schooling, it depended too much on the quality of the hired teachers and on the ability of parents to check this quality).

In the 1960s, Rousas John Rushdoony began to advocate homeschooling, which he saw as a way to combat the intentionally secular nature of the U.S. public school system. Before home schooling legislation was introduced, he was frequently called as an expert witness by the HSLDA (Home School Legal Defense Association) in court cases. Another leader in this movement was John Holt. Holt became a visiting teacher for Harvard University and the University of California at Berkeley education departments. He appeared on major TV talk shows, and wrote book reviews for Life magazine concerning home schooling. In 1972 Harold Z. Bennett authored "No more Public School", published by Random House, which, for the first time, offered advice to parents on how to keep their children out of school illegally (Hegener, 2012).

By 1986 home schooling became legal in all 50 states of the USA. However only 26 states require children to take exams to prove their knowledge and 9 states require from parents a record of higher education or teacher training (Klicka, 1997; Lines, 2001). So, it is difficult to expect really high quality of education in some cases. Those children who are tested show results higher than average, but who said that those who don't are as good, so the statistics in not too fair.

In 1985 to the question whether home schooling is a good or a bad thing, 73% of Americans disapproved, in 1997 – 57%, and in 2001 – 54% (Rose and Gallop, 2001). The National Center for Educational Statistics (2011) reported that in 1999 850,000, while in 2007 over 1.5 million American children were being homeschooled. These results can be differently interpreted, such as

- a) People get used to it
- b) People get more information about it.
- c) Quality of education or conditions in public schools are decreasing
- d) People are becoming more demanding
- e) People are becoming more individualistic

Though children in home schooling are socializing less than in public schools (which may later become the reason of their social adaptation later), they do not necessarily live socially isolated lives. They meet other children while playing in the yards and parks, during sports activities, visiting some events. Parents involved in home schooling tend to socialize with each other, correspondingly, their children can benefit from it. They sometimes co-operate in teaching (one parent, a musician, teaches several children music, another, a language specialist, languages, etc.).

The homeschooling movement spread to Canada in the 1970s, and nowadays the situation concerning it in the USA and Canada is very similar.

According to Symes (2012), in large continental landmasses such as Australia, forms of education, including correspondence schooling, emerged in the early twentieth century that allowed children in remote regions to access education. To make such schooling possible, other "technologies" of state provision were mobilized such as the postal system, rail network, and

radio stations. One of the curious, under-analyzed features of correspondence schooling - a state sponsored form of home schooling - was the degree to which - as a "spatial construct" - it allowed the education centre to act on its periphery. It did so through enlisting strategies that rendered the correspondence pupil visible not as embodiment but as inscription. A complex semiotic landscape was generated consisting of exercise books, school magazines, radio programmes and film, which dealt with the evolution of distance education (tele-didactics) in New South Wales from 1920 to 1950.

According to Kostelecka (2012) in post-communist states after 1989, the countries also dealt with the problem of how to include home education in their own legislation. Her article investigates the development of legislation on home education in five states of post-communist Central Europe: the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Slovenia, Poland and Hungary. However, the information is quite relevant for the majority of post-soviet countries, including Georgia. Generally, laws tend to regulate home education rather strictly, all home-educated children must be enrolled at some school, and these schools are mandated by the state to serve as supervisory bodies for home-educated children. This legal arrangement puts the parents of home-schooled children in a very subordinate position in relation to the school. Despite these restrictions, which, in fact, limit home schoolers to disabled children, however, the states have gradually opened up the option for home education to quite a broad pool of potentially interested people.

In Georgia we do not have home schooling as a movement, but there is legislature concerning extern exams taken at school (for a semester/year/years which a child who did not attend classes can take in order to further continue education. Like in the post-communist countries of Eastern Europe, the child has to be "attached" to a certain school.

So far, so good. All that I knew about home schooling did not contradict my pedagogical ideas. About half a year ago I heard a new term – unschooling.

The term "**unschooling**" (sometimes mistakenly used as a synonym of home schooling) probably derives from Austrian philosopher of Croatian origin Ivan Illich's term "deschooling" which not only not taking the child out of school, but also changing the laws to make schools non-compulsory. Unschooling places little if any emphasis on curriculum and encourages children to learn through their natural life experiences including games, household responsibilities, personal

interests and curiosity, work experience, travel, books, elective classes, family, mentors, and social interaction. Unschooling encourages exploration of activities initiated by the children themselves, believing that the more personal learning is more meaningful, well-understood and therefore useful to the child. Differing from conventional schooling and even home schooling, unschooling questions the usefulness of standard curricula, conventional grading methods, and other features of traditional schooling in maximizing the education of each unique child.

At first sight, it looks so attractive: student-centered, authentic and humanistic. Total freedom, creativity, learning only what and when something is really needed (internal motivation), etc.... No violence, letting the child develop in a natural way... Such familiar and popular today words.

If you look up you.tube, you will find a lot of parents and young people (“students”) advertising unschooling. They say famous inventors like Edison didn’t finish school. How many percent of inventors are like him?! Who knows what he might have invented had he received a better education?! They say there are hundreds of Harvard students who were unschoolers, that only this kind of education can lead to development of individuals, etc. Take care: they (I think, purposefully) mix home schooling with unschooling. **No child with an unschooling education can get a school certificate which will legally permit him/her to be admitted to a university.**

By the way, when speaking about creative professions like movie actor, musician, poet, painter, etc., if the child really has the talent, which will trigger him/her spend hours playing/writing/painting, etc. until s/he reaches perfection, without any document of education really s/he might achieve success (however, it will be more difficult than having a corresponding diploma). What about mathematicians, historians, linguists, etc.? Shall we have them with unschooling?

Even for home schooling we need very dedicated, encyclopedically educated, enthusiastic and talented parents. In unschooling, with no timetable at all, parents should be always by the child’s side, at any moment ready when the child (at last!) decides to learn something. This means absolutely no personal life or interests for parents (by the way, when, then, they will get that fantastic education?). They should be able to explain about chemistry and physics while cooking, and in such a way that the child, without any systematic knowledge will understand it. What super-geniuses should they be! Johann Strauss, Sr. teaching Johann Strauss, Jr.! Or Dumas père

teaching to Dumas-fils! How many such people have there been on the earth?! When I put myself, a doctor of sciences, a bilingual (Georgian-Russian) specialist of English who knows some French and Spanish, who teaches education, psychology and literature, etc. in the home schooling parent's shoes, it is certainly difficult, but I can imagine myself in this role. My father did a lot of home schooling to me additionally to the formal schooling. I did the same to my children. Majority of educated people do. I would think of – yes, my own, but still a logical and systematic - curriculum, I would read up beforehand, expecting certain questions, I would plan imaginative and enjoyable activities. But with all my knowledge and teaching experience, I absolutely cannot think of myself providing an unschooling education to my children/grandchildren.

And don't forget, that if home schooling puts some educational demands on the teacher-parent, there are no such demands on him/her in unschooling. Except, perhaps, the complex of superiority of a person who thinks s/he alone can do the job 10-15 people are doing at school. And who thinks s/he is an expert of selecting good educational materials in the bookshop, library and internet. And an expert on efficient teaching.

Now let us imagine a case. A child revealed no interest in math or anything related to it till the age of 15 and was not taught it, then suddenly s/he got interested in it. To start math at 15 you need to be a Lomonosov. In the majority of cases it's too late.

To sum up, there are reasons for a child to go to a school, to do home schooling or unschooling. But when we (as parents) make the decision, we should be very careful in order not to risk our child's future due to our "innovative" ideas.

Why send children to school? Parents' view

- We pay taxes to provide free public education
- Teachers are professionals of both subject/matter and education
- Often children refuse to perceive parents as teachers (do not obey, are not afraid of getting low grades, etc.)
- We usually do not have enough knowledge in various spheres and time to spend it on teaching our children ourselves
- At school children learn to socialize and to be disciplined

- Students get standard knowledge and skills that society requires from them
- Children are looked after, while we are working

Why send children to school? Government/society view

- To provide required standards
- To have educated population which will help the society to progress, to have a lower criminal level, and to have a healthy social environment (in other words, more happy or at least satisfied people)

Why homeschool?

- One can avoid (often) unimaginative, factory-like style of the educational process
- Each child is an individual. This is often difficult to take into consideration in schools with large classes.
- A child can learn at his or her own pace; the curriculum can be built around the child's academic needs, teaching/learning methods can be chosen according to the child's learning style, dominant intelligence type, etc.
- School authorities are no longer in charge; the child is safe at home away from peer pressure.
- Homeschooling allows for more family time to build lasting bonds and the opportunity to teach traditional values and moral principles.
- The child is offered much freedom, however, the education is systematic and standard enough

Why permit children to home school? Government/society view

- To provide the fulfillment of democratic norms

Why unschool? Parents' view

- All the reasons above except the last one
- People of creative professions can succeed if they are not standard (however, in the majority of cases creativity is achieved after mastering the standards by later going beyond them)

I would put the question otherwise: **why not unschool? Government/society view**

- The education is unsystematic and does not fit into standard
- Except creative professions the child, when h/se grows up, will most probably be unable to be employed to “normal” jobs
- If a child decides to change the major sphere of interests, it will be too difficult if possible at all to do so
- Speaking demagogically about student-centered learning, it is parents, in fact, who decide what the child will be, as parents leave them no choice. With home schooling the child has a chance to return to traditional schooling, with unschooling neither legally nor practically can s/he do so.

It is very good that contemporary society offers many ways to receive education, but how should this be regulated? Should just the market decide, what and how many types of schools are needed, and if going to school is a necessity at all? Should it be parents’ or government’s responsibility to provide education to children and define its contents and volume? Will it be good for society if the home schooling and unschooling movement progress? Can we prohibit these movements or should we motivate parents to take children to school by providing a better education and better conditions at schools? There are so many questions to be answered scientifically and legally.

I held a short questionnaire concerning the attitude towards unschooling. In this way I am trying to make my very modest contribution to the investigation of the public attitude towards unschooling. 100 respondents volunteered to answer the questionnaire on survey.monkey (47 teachers and 53 students from different universities in Georgia – questions 1 and 2).

#	question	yes	no	not sure
3	As a child, would you like the idea not to attend school at all?	54%	39%	7%
4	Do you think you mom / dad would like to stay with you at home and be totally responsible for your education?	44%	47%	9%
5	Do you think your mom / dad has enough qualification to provide your education without sending you to school?	33%	61%	6%
6	As a (future) parent would you like your children not to attend school at all?	22%	73%	5%

7	As a (future) parent would like to stay with your children at home and be totally responsible for their education?	25%	67%	8%
8	As a (future) parent do you believe you have enough qualification to provide your children's education without sending them to school?	35%	58%	7%
9	Do you think it would be good for children to have total freedom concerning contents, form, and schedule of education?	33%	59%	8%
10	Do you think it will be beneficial for your country to legally permit children not to go to school and not to receive any document of education?	26%	71%	3%

I knew we Georgians are individualistic, too self-confident, not terribly hard working, and often wrongly understand freedom, but I still was rather surprised with the high percentage of “yes” I received. But exactly this brings me to the conclusion – introduction of laws permitting unschooling is dangerous. In fact, if the fact that everybody will get the right to choose whether to provide some schooling to his/her child will deprive the child of the right to get education. Governments in some countries, to save the money on education expenses, may be happy to introduce such laws which would look like democratic, but in reality people would lose the right to get a free-of-charge education.

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THE ROLE OF A TEACHER WHILE TEACHER THE LISTENING SKILL AT PRIMARY LEVEL

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Abstract

The article is concerned with the teacher's role in teaching listening at primary level as during listening activities teachers encounter a problem that students have difficulties with proper understanding and subsequent interpretation. The objectives of the work are to focus on the role of the teacher by taking into consideration listening process and stages of listening, different learning styles, students' needs, anxiety and individual learning strategies. The aim of my work is to centre on teacher's role during the listening activities and various stages and processes of listening. The present study seeks to focus on the teacher's role in the most efficient ways of teaching listening comprehension regarding students' needs and learning styles.

Key words: anxiety, listening comprehension, role of instructor, supportive, learning styles, listening process, purposes for listening, stages of listening, students' needs and difficulties during listening.

Introduction

Learning English as a foreign language has become an essential part of our lives. Based on the National Curriculum pupils at present are supposed to start learning English language in their first year and teachers are expected to teach their pupils the four basic skills: Speaking, Listening, Reading and Writing. We hear myriad of complaints about foreign language anxiety. One of these aspects which receive many complaints with regard to anxiety is listening comprehension. Listening is the ability to identify and understand what others are saying. A person's ability to listen and understand spoken language is critical to oral communication in any language. Rivers (1966) in this regard pointed out that speaking does not of itself constitute communication unless what is being said is comprehended by another person (p.196). One key factor in anxiety is the role of instructor. Horwitz et al. (1986:132) reported that anxiety is induced when instructors correct students' errors in a non-supportive manner. The importance of listening in language learning has changed over the past years. Listening used to be overlooked and educators supposed that listening abilities would be acquired during the grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation practice. This was quite surprising as abilities to listen play an equal role

as abilities to speak in successful communication. There are a lot of reasons why educators are now focused on the ability to understand and contribute to communication.

- Firstly, pupils at basic schools are encouraged to develop good listening abilities in their mother tongue so that they can be successful in everyday communication;
- Secondly, students have to develop effective listening strategies that will enable them to learn another language.

Body

The teacher of primary level develops the children's personal/social skills and language abilities, as well as reading, writing, speaking and listening. Working with very young children involves assisting with the development of basic skills such as physical co-ordination, speech and communication. In every case, the teacher aims to develop and expand the child's curiosity and knowledge. Teachers of young children:

- organize carefully, planning what they want particular children to do;
- make imaginative use of resources and often develop their own materials;
- assess each child's progress;
- normally have the support of a nursery nurse or an education support officer and are responsible for managing the way in which these people work.

Students have different levels of ability. Some may excel at certain subjects but be weak at others. Part of the teachers' role is to build lessons that reflect this and ensure that each student is given enough help to allow her to keep up with the rest of the class. Teachers must also be aware of any cultural differences and incorporate this into their teaching. A primary teacher has an equally important role in nurturing a child's social and emotional development, particularly at a young age. Children are aided by their teacher in learning about right and wrong and about how to play and interact with other children.

According to the division suggested by Harrmer (1991) there are eight main roles while teaching listening:

- A teacher as an organizer - one of the most important roles of the teacher since the whole success depends on the teacher's organization skills. They have to explain what their students are going to do, give clear instructions and at the end of the lesson they must give a constructive feedback.
- A teacher as a controller - is a teacher who conducts the whole lesson. It is their responsibility to organize what students do, when they should speak and what language they use. Teachers whose roles are to control the lessons specify what students should do throughout the listening stages.

- A teacher as an assessor - another important part of teacher's job is to assess their students, to give the students a feedback on their performance. They should evaluate how good students were.
- A teacher as a resource - such teacher can facilitate their students by giving advice and is available when the learners need to consult some problems. They usually help with unknown vocabulary or grammatical patterns.
- A teacher as a tutor - is a teacher who acts as a coach and as a resource and is able to help their students to develop ideas. Teachers as tutors can help their students during each stage and their help is very valuable during the while-listening stage during which they should help their students with prediction of the missing information.
- A teacher as an investigator - a teacher, who observes the activities in their lessons and subsequently evaluates their efficiency, belongs into this group. They keep reflective journals and evaluate the benefits of each listening activity.
- A teacher as a prompter - is a teacher who encourages their students and offers suggestions about activities that are being done by the students. They ought support their students during each stage so that the students can be more successful.
- A teacher as a participant - a teacher can participate as an equal in the set activities but they must beware of leading in these activities. Their participation can also improve the classroom atmosphere. Teachers as participants can participate in pre and post-listening task such as discussions role-plays and so on (p.242).

A primary teacher must control her class, not only to ensure that all children have a fair chance to learn. As the school year progresses, it is a vital duty of the teacher to monitor the learning achievements of each student and decide which areas, if any, require further help or instruction. The problem is that in classes there are learners with a lot of different learning styles and diverse needs. Since listening comprehension belongs among the most difficult skills it is crucial for teachers to help their students to learn good listening strategies because without proper understanding people cannot contribute to various discussions and more over listening provide exposure to the target language. Teachers must have patience, compassion and the ability to inspire good listening skills. Listening skills are an incredibly important skill for teachers. It is difficult for a teacher to know what needs to be taught unless he can hear what is missing, what needs clarification and what is understood. If a class of any age feels the teacher does not hear them, their needs or their concerns, then the learning will suffer whether the teacher knows it or not. It is important for teachers to actively listen to the class in a sincere and meaningful way. During instruction, the teacher who uses open dialogue should listen to each student's contribution intently. This promotes participation and helps the students feel secure

while learning in the classroom. Although a teacher must multitask, when actively listening, listening must be the priority. A teacher must listen to the entire class during their activities apart from the active listening done during pure instructional time. If a teacher gets involved in students' conversations from time to time during these moments, it will alert the students to a constant teacher presence that is attentive to their needs as well as maintaining discipline among them. It is important for teachers to listen to situations and discussions to protect students who may be in need of protection. In more difficult areas, teachers should also do this to be aware of negative actions against teachers, schools or possible gang activity. In most situations, however, it is a question of a teacher being able to identify bullying behavior or to see if certain students are depressed, acting out of anger, or need to be referred to a guidance counselor for any other rational concern. It is important to keep in mind that a teacher must listen as much as he speaks. And he must take into account what he hears when directing lessons and progressing with the many different teaching philosophies and techniques. A conventional listening comprehension lesson simply adds yet another text to the learners' experience; it does little or nothing to improve the effectiveness of their listening or to address their shortcomings as listeners..., no attention is paid to what may have gone wrong in the process of listening. Hence the likelihood that, confronted with a similar text next time, learners will use the same unsuccessful techniques. They will not have improved as listeners (Field, 1998:111). Teachers should assist students to develop their own special schema for the second language culture, raising their awareness of those culture-specific factors which could prove vital to adequate comprehension in the second language (Sheerin, 1987:127). In his own five criteria, Richards includes reference to the growing recognition that many traditional listening tasks simply serve to test rather than teach listening skills, and, moreover, that they often demand and test learners' memory rather than their listening skills (Richards, 1985:202-205). I noticed that a lot more of the class started participating, not just those who thought they knew the 'right' answer. I also gained more insight into what my students found difficult or easy in listening (White, 1998:9). This diagnostic aspect of the kind of approach would appear to provide the key to developing a more systematic, positive and effective method of teaching listening. From a process perspective, wrong answers can be seen to be of more significance than correct ones. Instead of judging understanding by the number of learners who answer correctly, teachers need to follow up incorrect responses in order to determine where understanding broke down and then put things right. (Field, 1998:111). Field proposes that more emphasis be placed on post-listening activities, 'in which gaps in learners' listening skills could be examined and redressed through short micro-listening exercises', and provides a list of sub-skills that could be focused on in these activities and possible exercises to be used to do this, many involving dictation. (Field, 1998:112-114).

Underwood (1989) suggests that teacher's aims of supporting the students to become better at

listening should contain: Introducing learners to a variety of listening experiences. Teachers can use a great number of listening texts that contains range of the usage of the target language. This will prepare their students for different situations in their lives. Helping listeners to gain the insight what listening represents. Teachers ought to make their students change their attitude towards listening and explain the process of it to them. It is making listening meaningful for the learners. Teachers should try to bring recordings that are as realistic as possible, contain normal speech, so that the listeners are in touch with the outside classroom listening. Raise learners' confidence. Teachers must encourage their students during the listening texts to help them to continue with listening. They should also try to bring such listening texts in which the learners can be successful but on the other hand are not too easy. Other aspects of the teacher's role that will help their students to become better at listening are to include areas into listening course such as employing strategies used in mother tongue during listening activities, building up knowledge of the cultural background of the target language and helping the learners to accept partial understanding. There are other things teachers have to take into consideration while preparing the lesson plan:

- Whether teachers should prepare a separate listening lesson, which will be focused on listening practice, or incorporate listening into more language lessons, which would be more or less focused on general knowledge.
- The availability of the equipment. During the listening practice teachers usually serve as technical support and that is why they should check before the lesson whether a player is working or not or whether they can handle with the new equipment or not.
- Amount of time spend on listening practice. Nowadays teachers are required to reserve a part of a lesson for listening and therefore it is their responsibility to outline the time for listening practice.
- Whether the learners are going to sit for an exam or not, which consists of listening tests. If yes teacher must cover this in their plans.

Teacher's role preceding the listening – Before the lesson itself teacher should think about several steps. First of all, they have to choose appropriate listening text and check the quality of the recording since bad quality recordings can cause serious problems to the listeners. Secondly, they have to take into consideration visual support, as the visual aids are helpful for majority of the learners. Thirdly, they ought to think about special equipment, which their students will need e.g. scissors, colored pencils and so on. If the teachers decide that their students will need them it is their responsibility to tell them in advance. Lastly, teachers have to consider the listening procedure e.g. how to organize the stages, whether to use real-life recording or not and so on.

Teacher's role during the listening – At this stage teacher just makes sure that the lesson follows the

lesson plan and works mainly as a facilitator. The main aim of the teacher is to encourage their students and help them if needed. There are a various ways of creating an encouraging classroom atmosphere: Teachers should offer help if it is needed and they ought to beware of marking the listening activities. Learners ought to be encouraged to change and modify their answers and write down any helpful information they heard. It is also better to omit one or two activities than to hurry since then students will not feel stressed and under pressure. Teachers ought to support their students to cooperate with their classmates and they should include pair or group work since knowing that they can work and compare their answers with their classmates will help them to release the stress caused by listening. Teachers are supposed to give immediate feedback since the later feedback is not efficient as students do not remember what was in the listening text (Underwood, 1989:19-21).

All teachers have different approaches to their lessons but not only teachers but also students can benefit from a supportive atmosphere.

Conclusion

In the article we have outlined and summarized the teacher's role while teaching listening skill at primary level. We have touched different learning styles and strategies as they influence the whole teaching process and teachers should be aware of them. We have looked at student's learning styles and strategies; touched purposes for listening and the listening process; summarized the most common problems connected with listening; and focused on the process of listening. It was found out that first and foremost, foreign language teachers should address the emotional concerns of anxious students. Anxious students require teachers' support more than other students do. They are more sensitive and fragile to the teacher's sarcastic words or non-supportive manners. The teachers should acknowledge these feelings as legitimate and then attempt to lessen students' feelings of inadequacy, confusion, and failure by providing positive experiences to counteract the anxiety.

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WORD BORROWING AND LANGUAGE INTERRELATIONS

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Language is the most important aspect in the life of all beings. We use language to express our inner thoughts, feelings and emotions. With the help of language we learn to communicate with each other. So we can easily claim that language changes alongside with the development of the nation and the country. Gradually many new words appear in the dictionary of any language which can be caused by the creation of new lexical items or the borrowing itself. Borrowing is one of the powerful sources of language enrichment.

The goal of our research is to outline the principles and problems of borrowing in the layers of systematically different languages i.e. the English, and Georgian languages and observe some linguistic links from the view point of word borrowing in language typology.

Both languages have a long history of language creation and development. From their histories we learn that the Georgian language belongs to the Kartvelian Languages also known as South Caucasian languages; English is a West Germanic language, related closely to the North Germanic Languages.

Borrowing can be caused by various facts and motives. Linguists have observed numerous examples of borrowings in both languages. While talking about word borrowings it is important to mention the causes of this phenomenon in language generally. Some attention should be paid to the terms language **substratum** and **superstratum**. In dictionaries we read that a substratum or substrate is a language which has lower power or prestige than another, while superstratum or superstrate is a language that has higher power or prestige. It is interesting to observe the role of these two linguistic phenomena (substratum and superstratum) in the frameworks of the English and Georgian languages. Dominance of one country over another, as well as economic, political and cultural relations can serve as the main causes for borrowing words from one language to another.

In fields of higher learning, such as sciences, physical sciences, medicine, law and social sciences, English has usually borrowed words from other languages to get new words, to cover new concepts or new material or abstract phenomena (Stockwell & Minkova, 3-4). The number of loan words in the English language is indeed so high that many foreign scholars (Smith, Bradley and others) were inclined to reduce the study of the English vocabulary to a discussion of its etymology, taking for granted that the development of English was mainly due to borrowing. They seemed to be more interested in tracing the original source, form and meaning of every lexical element than in studying its present function and peculiarities (Arnold, 1973:250).

In Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy's book *An introduction to English Morphology: "Words and Their Structure"* we read the following: England was ruled for a long period after 1066 by a monarch and a nobility whose native language was a variety of French, even though this ruling group gradually switched to English for everyday purposes. French remained in use much longer as a language of law and administration, and longer still as a language of culture that every educated person was expected to learn. It is not surprising, then, that the vocabulary of English contains a higher proportion of borrowed words than in the other Germanic languages (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002:100).

From the history of England we learn that from 43 AD to late 90 AD England was a part of the Roman Empire. From the 11th century to the 14th century it was a Norman territory. Both invasions heavily influenced the English language and culture. But it was the Norman Conquest which had the greatest impact on the English language. While conquering England in 1066 William the Conqueror of Normandy destroyed all existing Anglo-Saxon institutions, including the educational system, the legal system, etc. and replaced them with the Norman system. Correspondingly, French not only became the administrative, educational and trade language but also the language of the upper class.

Thus we can see that French serves as the superstratum for the English language. In Alexandre Kimenyi's paper "*English: A French Language*," we read that the reason why the superstratum is characterized by the colonial languages is due to the fact that the conquering power always destroys the native institutions and replaces them with its own. The colonial language becomes the official language and the native elite which the conquering power needs in order to achieve its colonial goals assimilates to the conquerors' new culture. This borrowing from the superstratum continued with the Renaissance, the Enlightenment movement, the Industrial Revolution, as well as modern

science, trade and technology in which mutual borrowings continue to occur until today (Kimenyi, n.d.).

The majority of English words have been borrowed from the superstratum (high culture) such as the terminology of art, technology, science, etc. must keep two points in mind when analyzing the problem of borrowing from the French language. Firstly some borrowed words have been totally assimilated in the English language and their French roots are not easily recognizable e.g. nephew, niece, marriage, fever, pneumonia, asthma.

Secondly the recent French loan words are easily recognizable because they still have French language features such as accents, feminine gender markers, spelling, e.g. amateur, chauffeur, masseuse, etc. There are even English words which have both the masculine form and the feminine form just like in French: hero – heroine prince – princess, baron- baroness.

It is also interesting to analyze the issue of borrowing in the Georgian language and search for instances of superstratum and substratum phenomenon. Looking through Georgian vocabulary we can find many examples of borrowed words. Georgian linguists and scholars also agree that borrowing is one of the principal sources of language enrichment. The principles of borrowing date back from the early centuries of Georgian language history (V-VIII). There were diverse opinions regarding word borrowing among the Georgian scholars of that time. There was a group of scholars who supported the idea of *unnecessary purism* which advocated restrictions on entering borrowed words into the Georgian language. The obvious examples of unnecessary purism are vividly observed in the translations of the Georgian scholar Efreim Mtsiri. In his works we can observe the transformed and translated versions of the Greek words with somehow wrong and imprecise definition-translation. E.g. ანალოგია (analogy) - შეტყუებულობა (entice), ენერჯია (energy)- მოქმედება (action), თეორია (theory) - ხედვა (vision), ისტორია (history) - თხრობა (narration), მისტერია (mystery) - საიდუმლო (secret), პოლიტიკა (politics) - მოქალაქეობა (citizenship), ფანტაზია (fantasy) - ოცნება (dream), ფიზიოლოგია (physiology) - ბუნებისმეტყველება (natural sciences), etc. (ღლონ ტი , 1988:99).

The majority of Georgian scholars, however, did not approve the principles of unnecessary purism. Because of this many words have entered from other languages into the Georgian lexicon

throughout the centuries. Thus we find borrowed words from the Greek, Persian, Latin, Arabic, Russian, German, French, Italian, Spanish and English languages. The bulk of the borrowings belong to the spheres of scientific, technological, political, economic and cultural terminology. It is also worth mentioning that the borrowed words represent only a small percentage of the whole Georgian word stock. Consequently, this indicates the non-existence of superstratum over the Georgian language.

Given that our research focuses on English and French as contributors to the list of borrowed words that shape the Georgian language, we can offer the following examples:

From English - კომფორტი (Comfort) - კეთილმოწყობა; კოლეჯი (College) - სასწავლებელი; კლუბი (Club) - კულტურულ-საგანანათლებლო დაწესებულება; ნოკაუტი (Knock-out) - ძლიერი დარტყმა; გრეიფრუტი (Grapefruit)- ციტრუსოვანი ხეხილი.

From French - აკვარელი (aquarelle) - საღებავი გახსნილი წყალში; აკომპანემენტი (accompagnement) - თანმხლები; კომუნიკე (communiqué) - ოფიციალური ცნობა; კომპლიმენტი (compliment) - ქათინაური; კომპანიონი (compagnon) - თანამონაწილე; კომისიონერი (commissionaire) - შუამავალი სავაჭრო გარიგებაში; გრიპი (grippe) - ინფექციური დაავადება; ჟურნალი (Journal) - პერიოდული გამოცემა (ღლონტი, 1988).

The interrelation of the Georgian language with the other languages is mostly analyzed in the context of translation. The impact of other languages becomes obvious during the translation process which involves word borrowing, grammatical and phraseological calques. (სარჯველაძე, 1984:156).

While talking about borrowing in the English and Georgian languages, we should also mention the introduction of English and Georgian words into other languages. Because of the global influence of the U.. in international trade, technology and culture, French has a lot of American English loan-words in what is known in French as “Français” (French-English) e.g. leadership, la challenge, meeting, weekend, T-shirt, cocktail, jeans, hooligan, blog, snack-bar.

Examples of Georgian words are found in the languages of many different countries. Due to human contact, cultural and economic relations, exchange of scientific and fiction literature, translation

work, correspondence, development of trade and transportation, numerous Georgian words have penetrated other languages. Correspondingly we find Georgian words in Russian writings such as აზნაური - Geo. (азнаури – Rus.), ბატონი - Geo. (ватони – Rus.), ერისთავი - Geo. (эристави Rus.), თავადი - Geo. (таვაди – Rus.), მამასახლისი - Geo. (мамасахлиси – Rus.), ტარხუნა - Geo. (тархуна – Rus.), წიწმატი - Geo. (цицмати – Rus.), ჭიანური - Geo. (чианური – Rus.).

Thanks to open borders and free movement from one country to another, Georgia has recently been receiving a large number of tourists from abroad. While travelling in Georgia they start learning about the country by being introduced to its traditions and culture which leads to the adoption of some very specific Georgian words into their languages. Thus we can easily consider the words such as “**Tamada**” - თამადა (**toastmaster**), “**Supra**” - სუფრა (**feast**), “**Khantsi**” - ყანწი (**drinking horn**), “**Tatara**” - თათარა (**grape juice confection**), “**Khinkali**” (ხინკალი) (**dumplings**), “**churchkhela**”- ჩურჩხელა (**nuts dipped in “Tatara”**), “**Khachapuri**” - ხაჭაპური (**cheese pie**), “**Chacha**” - ჭაჭა (**grape-based alcohol**) to be international, as any foreigner having visited Georgia at least twice, is already aware of these terms.

During our research we should also focus on calques - the linguistic phenomenon which appears to be a common feature of the target languages (English, French, and Georgian). As we know a calque or loan translation is a word or phrase borrowed from another language by literal, word-for-word or root-for-root translation. We have selected a number of calques which are translated exactly the same way in the above-mentioned languages:

The ball is in your court – la balle est dans votre camp - ბურთი თქვენს კარშია(ახლა ჯერი თქვენზეა)

To give the green light – donner le feu vert – მწვანე შუქი აუნთო (ნება დართო)

Rising star – l'étoile montante – ამომავალი ვარსკვლავი

With the naked eye – à l'oeil nu – შეუიარაღებელი თვალით

Lion's share – la part du lion – ლომის წილი

Read between the lines – lire entre les lignes – ხაზებს შორის კითხვა (ქვეტექსტის გამოცნობა)

A matter of life and death – une affaire de vie ou de mort – სიკვდილ-სიცოცხლის საქმე

A ray/glimmer of hope – un rayon d’esperance – იმედის ნაპერწკალი

To rule with an iron fist – diriger avec un bras de fer – რკინის ხელით მართვა

The law of the jungle – la loi de la jungle – ჯუნგლის კანონით

To be armed to the teeth – être armé jusqu’aux dents – კბილებამდე შეიარაღება

Honeymoon – lune de miel – თაფლობისთვე

It is written black on white – c’est écrit noir sur blanc - თეთრზე შავად წერია

All roads lead to Rome – tous les chemins mènent à Rome - ყველა გზა რომზე გადის

Conclusion

Our observation has revealed the fact that languages are unable to develop without interrelation processes according to which words penetrate other languages and create a group of loan words. The above-mentioned languages (English, French, Georgian) have been accepting words from other languages since the early centuries and this process has seriously broadened the lexicon of these languages.

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E-PORTFOLIO IN EDUCATION

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Abstract

This paper provides an introduction of e-portfolios for people who are in the field of education. A student portfolio is a collection of student work developed across varied contexts over time. Technological advances have given us a possibility to make electronic portfolios. However, if they are simply software databases (storage for pictures, sound, or words) they are really not very different from a hanging file. What makes e-portfolios different from an on-paper one is that students can save their writing samples, science projects and multimedia presentations in one coherent document. Electronic portfolios are becoming a popular alternative to traditional paper-based portfolios because they offer practitioners and peers the opportunity to review, communicate and assess portfolios in an asynchronous manner. Advantages of student e-portfolios are presented.

Key words: student e-portfolio, assessment, motivation, self-esteem,

Introduction

With the advent of innovations in education, the importance of different kinds of portfolio came into prominence. In this digital age, most of our students are carrying the surrounding world, so to say, in their pockets, they have the capacity to capture the learning moment by using mobile devices and they have an opportunity to keep these files in digital media. We can also call such files as digital portfolios.

An educational portfolio is a collection of student work developed across varied contexts over time. The portfolio can advance learning by providing students and/or faculty with a way to organize, archive and display pieces of work.

Technological advances have given us a possibility to make electronic portfolios. However, if they are simply software databases (storage for pictures, sound, or words) they are really not very different from a hanging file or milk crate. Since current technology allows to capture and store information in the form of a text, graphics, sound, and video, students can save their

writing samples, solutions of mathematics problems, samples of art work, science projects and multimedia presentations in one coherent document (Lankes, 1995).

Advantages of student e-portfolios

In the past few years, there has been a sharp rise in the world-wide use of e-portfolios in higher education. Chou and Chen (2009) considered ten separate studies reporting on the use of e-portfolios in institutions across Asia, the US and Europe. Strivens (2007) reported that in the UK, more than half of the Higher Education/Further Education Institutions surveyed had one or more electronic resources that could be described as e-portfolios. In the US, the 2002 National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education Standards mandated the widespread use of e-portfolio technology across teacher education programs (Foley, 2008).

Approximately 90% of teacher preparation programs across the United States use portfolios to assess their students (Salzman, Denner, & Harris, 2002). The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) has played a large role in the rapid increase of e-portfolio use because institutions are expected to use technology to maintain their assessment systems (McPherson, 2010). Here in Georgia, this term is really new and so far has not been applied yet.

The electronic format allows faculty and other professionals to evaluate student portfolios using technology, which may include the Internet, CD-ROM, video, animation or audio. Electronic portfolios are becoming a popular alternative to traditional paper-based portfolios because they offer practitioners and peers the opportunity to review, communicate and assess portfolios in an asynchronous manner.

An e-portfolio should provide a dynamic environment for learners to document and celebrate learning they have achieved. The pedagogy of e-portfolios has been studied and reviewed by Barrett & Wilkerson (2004).

A typical e-portfolio

E-portfolio systems range from a secure file storage function within a stand-alone system, to more sophisticated web-based products, or they may be part of a VLE. Centres may also choose to develop their own system. Whichever approach is selected, centres thinking of introducing e-portfolios into their offer should consider how well the system supports the assessment process.

A typical e-portfolio may include assessment evidence in the following types of format:

- personal profile
- personal values and interests
- personal development plans
- short term goals and long-term improvement targets
- class-work notes
- homework
- assignments
- course-work outlines
- artefacts – may be discrete or packaged evidence of learning, and justification for their choice
- reflective comments
- self-assessment
- links to online resources
- embedded reference/resource material
- individual learning plans
- peer and teacher/mentor comments and reviews
- assessments
- social communication and contacts
- scanned images showing writing progression and achievement
- evidence of competencies and achievement
- education history
- resource artefacts
- recordings of language/music/speaking skills
- drama/acting evidence
- interviews and interview skills recording
- multi-media – photographs, animation, text, scanned images, video clips, audio
- comments, pod casts
- evidence of course awards and certification
- appraisal reviews
- volunteer work
- courses attended

- professional development plan, records and notes
- credits and qualifications
- presentations and papers
- work experience and unit qualifications
- work related/based assessment
- resumé/CV
- awards and certificates

The benefits and outcomes of an e-portfolio are:

- the content and nature of the e-portfolio grows over time with the age, experience and maturity of the learner
- learners develop a positive attitude to their learning through having ownership, control, and direction of the learning journey
- as a result learners are better motivated and engaged in their learning
- learners build self-esteem
- a record and celebration (journey) of learning (possibly for life)
- capturing and recording evidence of learning
- evidence of summative and formative assessment
- the opportunity for improved pedagogy – teaching and learning focused
- evidence key competencies
- personalised learning
- learners can reflect on their progress and achievements – while written reflection is encouraged, it is not the only means (audio, for example)
- an online environment provides equal opportunities for all group members to contribute
- the use of multi-media tools (camera, scanner, video camera, mini (usb) video, camera, digital USB, audio recorders, podcasts, ipod, ipad, the internet itself)
- frequent opportunities to capture students' emotions
- the approach will grow the learner's ICT and multimedia skills
- support (feedback and feed-forward) of learning
- social networking
- collaborative learning opportunities
- connectivism which is all about creating a network of connections

- multiple reviewers - peers, teacher or parents are enabled to view and comment
- comments do not have to be restricted to written expression (this ensures a feedback and feed-forward loop)
- learning is exposed to a wide audience
- educational progress is apparent to all stakeholders such as the learner, parents,
- teachers and institutional leaders
- the parents are involved and kept informed, almost on a daily basis – this can improve school-community relationships and certainly helps parents better understand their child's learning journey – a demystifying effect
- ideal approach to support student-led three-way conferencing reports
- multiple views are available of different combinations of artefacts matched to audience
- the learning experience can be enhanced through access to global multi-media resources
- presentation of learning can be done in many different ways
- portable, secure and 24/7 access
- through the web, access to world events as they are unfolding
- storage repository always available throughout the learning journey
- e-Portfolio use can provide opportunities to personalise even the most prescribed curriculum – creating e-portfolios enables learners to make their mark on the process of learning, but their approaches and needs will vary considerably.

Conclusion

E-portfolios are really motivating for our students who are often called digital citizens, they are creative and include various formats. E-portfolios can be continuous (life-long, as contemporary learning). They contribute to student self-esteem. With the help of e-portfolios student assessment becomes more transparent and open, assessment becomes really individualized and authentic, formative assessment is emphasized.

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VIRTUAL COMMUNICATION: UNIQUE OPPORTUNITY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

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Abstract

Virtual worlds are playing an increasingly important role in education, especially in language learning. Many mainstream language institutes and private language schools are now using 3D virtual environments to support language learning. Students can use virtual worlds to socialize with others and practice their language skills. Virtual worlds allow students to meet with others in a way that is more convenient than real life and perhaps less stressful for more self-conscious students. As a collaborative task this construction work can be language intensive and involve many opportunities to negotiate meaning with other students.

Keywords: virtual worlds, virtual environments, virtual communication, 3D technology, simulations, didactic process

Virtual communication becomes an integral part of the 21st century culture. So it becomes a necessity to use it in the process of education. Modern teaching with technologies opens up unprecedented opportunities for teachers and students. Virtual worlds are playing an increasingly important role in education, especially in language learning. In order to keep up with the rapidly changing reality, our attitudes towards teaching and learning need a radical transformation. The direction of its development is determined by the 3D technology, which brings incredible and unique opportunity for education. Many mainstream language institutes and private language schools are now using 3D virtual environments to support language learning.

Virtual worlds date back to the adventure games and simulations of the 1970s. The 3D world of Second Life was launched in 2003. Initially perceived as another role-playing game (RPG), it began to attract the attention of language teachers. 2005 saw the first large-scale language school, Languelab.com opened its doors in Second Life. By 2007, audio communication was integrated with Second Life. Prior to that, teachers and students used separate applications for voice chat (Erard, 2007).

The use of a 3D environment in education may change the didactic process. It is connected mainly with methods of communication, as well as existence in an environment that in many ways differs from the physical world. The users of virtual worlds are leading an alternative life online. On the basis of technology they create a new identity and in fact realize all forms of human activity (De Freitas, Rebolledo-Mendez et al., 2010). Due to their characteristic features, virtual worlds – unlike traditional e-learning – are not only meant to support the process of teaching. The point is to move the whole didactic process to the cyberspace (Swift project, 2011).

Almost all virtual world educational projects envisage a blended learning approach whereby

the language learners are exposed to a 3D virtual environment for a specific activity or time period. Such approaches may combine the use of virtual worlds with other online and offline tools, such as 2D virtual learning environments or physical classrooms. Virtual worlds such as Second Life are used for the immersive (Canfield, Douglas, 2008), collaborative and task-based, game-like (Chan, James, 2008) opportunities they offer language learners. As such, virtual world language learning can be considered to offer distinct (although combinable) learning experiences. Immersive experiences draw on the ability to be surrounded by a certain (real or fictitious) environment that can stimulate language learning (Jeffery & Collins, 2008). Almost all 3D virtual spaces are inherently social environments where language learners can meet others, either to informally practice a language or to participate in more formal classes (Johnson, Laurence, 2011). A less-developed approach to language learning in virtual worlds is that of constructing objects as part of a language learning activity (Dudeney, Gavin, 2011). There is currently little documentation of such activities.

Generally virtual worlds are relaxed environments where anyone can go to socialize. However, many businesses and countless educational institutions are using virtual worlds for private meetings, classes and public events. Virtual worlds offer us places to meet others, spaces to create our own reality and locations for us to simply exist in. Language learners can draw on these social, immersive and creative experiences to practice and improve language skills. Learners explore a virtual world's locations and communities as fieldwork for class. Learners work together within a virtual world on collaborative tasks. Learners explore themselves and their identity through their presence in a virtual world, such as through role-play. Learners construct objects within a virtual world. Learners represent activities within a virtual world to the outside world, through blogs, podcasts, presentations and videos.

A 3D virtual world looks and feels like an online computer game. However, virtual worlds such as Second Life are fundamentally different from games, because there are no specific tasks to complete and the aim is not to compete with other players. Instead, a virtual world is simply a 3D social space. It allows us to meet others around the world in an established online environment.

Virtual worlds lend themselves to location-specific and socially interactive learning opportunities. Students can visit places to see what they look like. Second Life has many islands that are replicas of real life cities. Explorative activities allow students to make the trips of their own by choosing their own locations. Students can also be invited to comment on what they see and do – perhaps considering whether they would like to visit the place in real life and in which circumstances. As the field trips are online students can look up information while they are virtually located somewhere. It is also highly flexible, because the field trip can be paused and restarted at any time (a little difficult on a real life field trip). Students can research a location and give a city tour, acting as a tour guide to others who are new to the area. This can be combined with preparatory tasks to research the location and follow up tasks to document or reflect upon the experience (with recordings, screenshots etc). Students could also give each other directions to direct one another around a location – perhaps a replica of a city.

Virtual worlds offer the possibility of exploring a 3D environment while using the conventional 2D web to research relevant web pages. This could be to understand more about a real location, or to find information to solve a puzzle or quest, or perhaps draw upon everyday information (e.g. timetables or prices) to incorporate into a 3D role play. Exit Reality takes this a

step further by allowing users to ‘surf’ websites with a 3D avatar. Although it is especially intended for creating 3D versions of Facebook pages to share with other avatars it also allows avatars to wander around conventional websites, where the images are placed in picture frames, the videos in television sets and the text in wall panels.

Students can use virtual worlds to socialize with others and practice their language skills. Students can use Second Life to interview others on a research topic of their choice. Virtual worlds allow students to meet with others in a way that is more convenient than real life and perhaps less stressful for more self-conscious students. Some topics may well be related to specific locations that can be visited in a virtual world (e.g. London or the space museum in Second Life) so that the interviewees are more likely to be interested in the topic.

Students can create their own constructions such as a homes, clothing or landscapes. As a collaborative task this construction work can be language intensive and involve many opportunities to negotiate meaning with other students.

Virtual worlds offer opportunities to stimulate the learners and to allow them to converse with others within the virtual world.

Second Life, as with many other 3D virtual environments has an internal economy based on its own currency. This allows for virtual items (land, buildings, decorations and clothing) to be exchanged and paid for, albeit at very low prices. Land in Second Life can be used in a variety of ways; in some respects the issue of land ownership plays a key role in this. Using one’s own space permits much greater control over what happens and who is present. It allows the educator to have specific (perhaps custom made) themes, activities and content. Students can also construct and modify the location if they are given the appropriate rights to change the properties of objects. Publically accessible spaces allow more social experiences than if the activity takes place on privately owned islands. However, publically held activities are less easy to control because other users can interrupt the lesson. Depending on the activity (and the nature of the disturbances), these interruptions could be drawn upon as language learning opportunities in themselves. Public and Private Combinations can be achieved by teleporting (moving) between locations (it only takes a few seconds). This allows students to meet others and expand their social activities to include those beyond their fellow students. This approach gives the students access to a wider range of environments. Specific activities can be carried out on the educator’s privately owned land.

The benefits of using 3D virtual worlds in education are the following:

- teacher may cooperate with students on less formal basis, and students can choose an individual learning program and establish cooperation with other participants
- the presence of avatars created according to individual needs
- the risks reduction associated with lack of success for the student
- activities may be conducted outside the virtual classroom, for example, in any unreal space or based on real examples
- creating many communication opportunities between the teacher and the student, both in collective and individual mode, in various forms, such as chat, message, e-mail, verbal and visual communication in real time.

Advantages of virtual teaching are:

- Distance learning: students can learn from home
- A lot of language educational applications
- More interesting learning experience
- Integration of different items into the lesson
- Possibilities of simulating real life situations
- It's not boring
- Features like note card and chat can be very helpful in organizing language lessons
- Role playing activities
- Activities include students teaching each other how to do things
- Extensive use of inventory as basis for vocabulary expansion
- All media at hand

The use of 3D technology in linguistic education offers brand new opportunities to the learners. It provides access to many tools, which are unavailable in other forms of e-learning. It also increases the engagement of users in the learning process thanks to immersion and realization of individual needs through creation of virtual identity. It is a way to motivate people of different age and different background to learn.

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THE PROVERB: BETTER LATE THAN NEVER

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ABSTRACT

Culture is an approach regarding the way of life reflected in literature, movies, fashion, songs, and numerous products of art, but also in everyday use of the particular language, e.g. common idiomatic expressions, recognised proverbs, or phrases.

Regardless of the period of time or the cultural and geographical space they live in, people reveal the same kind of emotions in certain situations, which the proverbs mostly show. In the proverbs the essence of the human experience is expressed, many of the activities are all common to the people no matter what nationality they are because birth, death, weather conditions, seasons and others are all universal phenomena which are reflected in each culture, and hence, in its proverbs.

In the modern world, certain minimum social skills that the individual has will help him to establish decent relationships with people with whom he may come across for a short while or for a long duration. He has to be a civilised citizen of his state, or his country and of the world, all at the same time playing appropriate roles in each of these contexts and he should be able to deal with the demands made on him in the public or private sector. Value education should therefore, it is pointed out, prepare an individual to meet these demands, which cannot be accomplished in the form of a few “do's and don'ts” of the traditional form is quite evident.

Key words: proverb, teaching values, culture

The Proverb: Better late than never

Culture which includes all the social practices is defined by various attitudes, customs, values and typical behaviour that are characteristic for certain members of society and which significantly differentiate these people according to their age, level and specific area of education, as well as their position in the society.

Culture is an approach regarding the way of life reflected in literature, movies, fashion, songs, and numerous products of art, but also in everyday use of the particular language, e.g. common idiomatic expressions, recognised proverbs, or phrases.

Cultural studies is an effective way of teaching a foreign language. We can not acquire a foreign language without learning its culture during the language process because language is a part of nation's culture, so language students inevitably learn something about other societies and their cultural practices after the exposure.

Proverbs are one of the core verbal systems relevant to the culture in the society and the frequency of their use also makes one of the important elements that help cultures remain longer in this modern and complex world.

Profantová (1998:306-307) states that 'the national proverbs were from the very beginning considered as a manifestation of folk philosophy, expressing the idea in a brief, terse form in a witty and poetically apt way'.

Malinauskienė (2004:4) believes that proverbs transmit cultural idiosyncrasy, national world outlook, wisdom, experience and mentality of people and, as such, they contain didactic and certain behavioural patterns.

Taylor (1994:8) believes that "A proverb is an invention of an individual who uses ideas, words and ways of speaking that are generally familiar. Because he does so, his sayings win acceptance and circulate in tradition".

Regardless of the period of time or the cultural and geographical space they live in, people reveal the same kind of emotions in certain situations, which the proverbs mostly show. In the proverbs the essence of the human experience is expressed, many of the activities are all common to the people no matter what nationality they are because birth, death, weather conditions, seasons etc. are all universal phenomena which are reflected in each culture, and hence, in its proverbs.

How proverbs help teaching values in English Classes

Teaching values, which is a wide range of activities ranging from training in physical health, mental hygiene, etiquette and manners, appropriate social behaviour, civic rights and duties to aesthetic and even religious training, has come to acquire increasing prominence in educational discussions at levels during recent times.

Because of the growing concern over the erosion of essential values and an increasing disorder in society, it has brought to focus the need for programming the curriculum carefully in order to make education a forceful tool for the cultivation of social and moral values. The ways in which students will change in their thinking, their feelings and their actions are expected to be shaped by the educative process.

Moral development of a child somehow results automatically from the social life of the school. The child as a member of the group takes the attitudes, values and general behaviour of the group and continually tries to mould himself according to the group norm. Such adjustment to life constitutes his moral development. Teaching values is a process of aiding the child in such adjustment.

Proverbs usually reveal very concisely but brilliantly the whole history of the people, their most intimate and sincere ideas of good and evil, their views on social questions, on family life, marriage and divorce, on every phase of life and on every sphere of human interest.

Proverbs are also a matter of educating the feelings and emotions. It is the 'training of the heart and logic' and consists in developing the right feelings and emotions. Like poetry, sometimes it is 'caught' rather than taught. It is essentially a matter of creating the right atmosphere, imitation and learning by example. The proverbs help for moral development which includes both thinking morally and behaving morally.

Proverbs criticize moral problems either by directing future actions or by altering a point of view towards something that has already happened. (Abrahams, 1982:121). A moral person is not only a person who does the 'right' thing but also one who does the 'right' thing for the 'right' reason. If the proverbs are used in the right place, it will be more helpful. Proverbs teach lessons or provide certain instructions on what should be done and what should not and, of course, as they are produced by someone, they also gain the status of arguments.

In the modern world, certain minimum social skills that the individual has will help him to establish decent relationship with people with whom he may come across for a short while or for a long duration. He has to be a civilised citizen one of his state, or his country and of the world, all at the same time playing appropriate roles in each of these contexts and he should be able to deal with the demands made on him in public or private sector. Value education should therefore, it is pointed out, prepare an individual to meet these demands, which cannot be accomplished in the form of a few "do's and don'ts" of the traditional form is quite evident.

The conflicts that are recognized between tradition and change can not be solved unless the value education curriculum recognizes the tensions that are brought about. If the curriculum aims at developing a critical value perspective in our pupils, it will help them to employ modern skills while renewing their commitment to fundamental traditional values.

Proverbs are applicable to a broader approach and methodology in classes. The intention of teachers to identify proverbs materials must be a habit. As there are several factors (social background, age, sex, status, material etc.) in the formation of a culture, and those are big factors for the interpretation of proverbs, in order to achieve better results in our sample lessons related to proverbs. Our methods are to the students who have at least pre-intermediate level learners in the target language because those students will easily interpret and show approaches to proverbs.

Example Values to be taught in the proverbs :

AGE AND EXPERIENCE :

Gençler bilse,yaşlılar yağabilse. (Turkish) If youth could know, if old age could do.

You can not put old heads on young shoulders. (English)

Öğrenmenin yaşı yoktur. (Turkish) There is no age limit to learning.

Never too old to learn,never too late to turn. (English)

APPEARANCE :

You can't tell a book by its cover. (English)

All that glitters is not gold. (English)

BAD FAME:

Adamın adı çıkacağına canı çıksın. (Better to die than become notorious.) (Turkish)

Give a dog a bad name and hang him. (English)

BEHAVIOUR :

A barking dog never bites. (English)

Do unto others as you would they should do unto you. (English)

When in Rome, do as the Romans do. (English)

Think first and speak afterwards. (English)

EARLINESS :

Erken kalkan yol alır,sona kalan dona kalır. (Turkish) The early bird catches the worm.

FRIENDS:

Bana arkadaşını söyle, sana kim olduğunu söyleyeyim. (Turkish) Tell me who your friend is, and I will tell you who you are.

A man is known by the company he keeps. (English)

Many hands make light work. (English)

One swallow doesn't bring the summer. (English)

Dost kara günde belli olur. (Turkish) A friend will be known on a black day.

A friend in need is a friend indeed. (English)

Bir çiçekle yaz gelmez. (Turkish) A single kind of flower is not proof that summer has arrived.

Bir elin sesi var; iki elin sesi var. (Turkish) Two hands together give a clap.

HUSBAND AND WIFE :

Better be an old man's darling, than a young man's slave. (English)

A blind man's wife needs no paint. (English)

A deaf husband and a blind wife are always a happy couple. (English)

The husband is always the last to know. (English)

IGNORANCE:

In the country of the blind, the one-eyed man is king. (English)

LOVE :

Gülü seven dikenine katlanır. (Turkish) One who loves a rose should endure its thorns.

Gönül kimi severse güzel odur. (Turkish) Beauty is in the eye of the beholder.(English)

Better to have loved and lost, than never to have loved at all. (English)

The course of true love never did run smooth. (English)

Love begets love. (English)

OPPRUNITY AND WILL :

You can take a horse to the water, but you can't make him drink. (English)

Better to live one day as a tiger than a thousand years as a sheep. (English)

Nothing venture, nothing gain. (English)

Demir tavında dövülür. (Turkish) Strike while the iron is hot.

You never know what you can do till you try. (English)

Strike while the iron is hot.(English)

Where there's a will there's a way. (English)

Every cloud has a silver lining. (English)

Don't count your chickens before they are hatched. (English)

When things are at the worst they begin to mend. (English)

Aynası (ânesi) iştir kişinin, lâfa bakılmaz. (Turkish) His work is the mirror held up to a man;
his words count for nothing.

Actions speak louder than words. (English)

PATIENCE AND ANGER :

Yangına körükle gidilmez. (Turkish) One shouldn't go to a fire with bellows.

Constant dropping wears away a stone. (English)

As fire is kindled by bellows, so is anger by words.(English)

Öfke ile kalkan zararlı oturur.(Turkish) Excess of anger is detrimental to oneself.

Anger punishes itself .(English)

Acele işe şeytan karışır.(Turkish) The satan gets involved in things hastily done.

Haste makes waste. (English)

What can't be cured must be endured. (English)

We must learn to walk before we can run. (English)

PARENTS / CHILDREN:

Armut dibine düşer. (Turkish) The pear falls straight down to the base of the tree.

Like father, like son. (English)

The apple never falls far from the tree.

The child is the father of the man.

Children are certain cares, but uncertain comforts.

WORDS:

Bıçak yarası geçer, dil yarası geçmez. (Turkish) A wound inflicted by a knife will heal; but one that words inflict (tongue inflicts) never heals.

Words cut more than swords. (English)

Söz gümüşse sükut altındır.(Turkish) Speech is silver, (but) silence is gold (golden). (English)

The frequency in the use of proverbs can be changable to people but these concise,well crafted and musical devices, for sure, help us sum up a situation in a single stroke, for they are loaded with the wisdom of the centuries. So teaching these proverbs and sayings must be done very carefully not only in Turkish,Georgian or English but in all languages.

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GENERALIZABILITY THEORY APPROACH IN THE DETECTION OF THE RATING VARIABILITY AND RELIABILITY IN ASSESSING EFL/ESL WRITING PERFORMANCE

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Abstract

In the assessment of ESL/EFL writing, although several studies have frequently used Classical Test Theory (CTT) in investigating scoring variance due to the impact of rater and writing task on essay scores, very few empirical studies have used Generalizability Theory (G-theory) in reporting any result regarding the impact rater on the variability and reliability of ESL/EFL writing scores. CTT is one of the measurement model that has been frequently used to determine reliability of behavioral measurements. However, as a more powerful technique, G-theory is able to detect several sources of measurement error simultaneously in a single analyses. This study was intended to provide an insight to the use of G-theory in EFL/ESL language performance and to introduce university professors a brief conceptual framework of G-theory through the investigation of the rating variability and reliability of EFL/ESL writing based on recent literature.

Keywords: EFL writing assessment, Generalizability Theory, Rating variability, Rating reliability

1. Introduction¹

The assessment of ESL/EFL writing performance has been regarded as challenging as numerous factors affect its reliability, validity and fairness (Breland, 1983; Huang, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2011; Huang & Foote, 2010; Huang & Han, 2013, Han, 2013). In general, three general sources contribute to the problem in error in a

¹This paper is based on Han, 2013.

writing test: students, raters, and topics (McColly, 1970). For example, raters are considered to be the central enterprise of writing assessment (Lim, 2011) as rater variation directly affects score consistency and consequently the validity of writing assessments (Bachman, 1990; Han, 2013; Huang, 2008, 2011; Huang & Foote, 2010; Huang & Han, 2013; Huot, 1990). Variation among and within raters can affect the scores assigned to a piece of writing (Bachman, 1990; Homburg, 1984; Huang, 2008, 2009, 2011; Huot, 1990). Such interrater and intrarater variations negatively affect the reliability, validity, and fairness of the judgments about a student's writing performance (Huang, 2008, 2009, 2011).

2. Reliability, Validity, and Fairness

According to Classical Test Theory (*CTT*), an examinee's observed score has two additive components: the true score that is the ideal score and the error score. (Huot, 1990). However, the true score is difficult to achieve in reality, as there is no test score which is perfectly reliable this is because every measurement situation naturally includes inconsistencies in the behavior of the test-taker, variability in the administration of the test and differences in raters' rating behaviors (Greenberg, 1992, Huang, 2009; Huang & Foote, 2010). The variance of the observed score is equal to the sum of the variances between the persons' true scores and error scores in *CTT*. (Huang, 2009; Huot, 1990).

Inter-rater reliability, should be considered as the foremost center of attention in the writing assessments (Huang & Foote, 2010; Huot, 1990). Rater reliability or consistency is important because it "indicates the precision of the rating of students' writing" (Huang, 2009, p. 3). Further, rater consistency or reliability is linked to fairness of the assessment of ESL/EFL writing (Huang, 2008, 2009, 2011; Weigle, 2002).

The study of validity has also become "one of the central enterprises in psychological, educational and language testing" (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007, p.12). because the writing score assigned by the rater(s) is vital for teachers, administrators, and researchers "...to make a defensible inference about each student's essay writing ability in general" (Sudweeks, Reeve, & Bradshaw, 2005, p. 240). Therefore, ensuring the valid rating of ESL/EFL students' essays can be considered to be of

paramount importance (Huang, 2008). Reliability is essential; however it is not sufficient if a test is not valid, that is, sufficiency depends on validity (Popham, 1981). In this sense, reliability supports validity but somehow independent of this separate and parallel quality of a test (Davies & Elder, 2005). Messick (1989, p.13) describes validity as “an integrated evaluative judgment of the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationales support the adequacy and appropriateness of inferences and actions based on test scores or other modes of assessment” (quoted in Fulcher & Davidson, 2007, p.12).

Variability in ESL/EFL students’ writing performance is natural and desirable; however, variability due to external factors (e.g., task types, rater types, scoring methods, etc.) is considered to be measurement error that can cause unreliable and invalid judgments about students’ writing performance (Huang, 2008, 2011; Huot, 2002; Shale 1996; Sudweeks, et. al, 2005). Therefore, such external variables can cause question about the validity, and fairness of the ESL/EFL writing scores assigned by the raters (Barkaoui, 2008; Connor-Linton, 1995; East, 2009; Huang, 2008, 2011; Jonnson & Svingby, 2007; Weigle, 2002).

Several studies have examined the reliability, validity, and fairness concerns about ESL/EFL writing assessments (e.g. Barkaoui, 2007; 2008; Han, 2013, Huang, 2008, 2011; Huang & Foote, 2010; Weigle, 2002). To improve the reliability and validity of EFL/ESL writing assessment, several precautions have been suggested; for example, training raters to interpret rubrics, and monitoring and evaluating the quality of raters’ rating can enhance the consistency of ESL/EFL writing scores (e.g. Barkaoui, 2007, 2008; Ebel & Frisbie, 1991; Han, 2013; Huang, 2008, 2011; Weigle, 2002).

3. A Summary of Research Methods in ESL/EFL Writing Assessments

Research on ESL/EFL writing assessments involves using various research models to define and explain factors affecting the rating process and outcomes. Basically, the methods that empirical studies have used in their investigations include (a) the quantitative methods (e.g., the CTT approach, the IRT approach, the G-theory approach, multilevel modeling, regression analysis, factor analysis) that focus on the

rating outcomes and the analysis of scores assigned to ESL/EFL papers (e.g., Bacha, 2001; Barkaoui, 2010; Carr, 2000; Huang, 2008, 2011, 2012; Huang & Foote, 2010; Gebril, 2010); (b) the qualitative methods (e.g., think-aloud protocols, interviews, questionnaires) that examine the essay rating process and rater behavior (Barkaoui, 2011; Cumming, 1990, 2001; Vaughan, 1991); and (c) the mixed-methods (both quantitative and qualitative methods) that delve into the scoring process and the factors contributing to essay scores and evaluation (e.g. Barkaoui, 2008; Han, 2013; Kobayashi, 1992).

3.1. The Quantitative Methods

Much research in ESL/EFL writing assessments examines scores assigned by markers or raters to investigate validity and reliability of tests and scores, and the validity of inferences made based on those scores. The CTT approach, the IRT approach (e.g., multi-faceted Rasch measurement), and the G-theory approach are the three theoretical frameworks that are used to address variability and reliability issues in the assessment of ESL/EFL writing (Huang, 2007).

3.1.1. The CTT Approach

Historically, researchers in the field of second language testing have employed various evaluation techniques (e.g., analysis of variance, regression analysis, factor analysis) to explore testing data (Bolus, Hinofotis, & Bailey, 1982). They have principally used CTT as the theoretical frameworks of their investigations (Brennan, 2001a, 2001b) especially in detection of rater variation in performance assessment situations (Huang, 2007).

CTT is the simplest measurement model and has been widely used to determine reliability of measurements (Bachman, 2004; Eason, 1989). CTT assumes that all measurement errors are random and reliable test scores are a reflection of the test takers' true ability and not the measurement errors (Bachman, 2004). Random measurement errors make a respondent's observed score higher or lower than his or her true score, and therefore lead to unreliable scores (Kieffer, 1998). A true score represents the actual performance of a respondent and is completely reliable; whereas

an observed score is given for the generated performance and may not be sufficiently reliable (Kieffer, 1998).

Many empirical studies have used the CTT approach to identify rating differences due to factors such as the rater or scoring methods and assess the validity and reliability of assigned scores (Bacha, 2001; Carr, 2000; Homburg, 1984; Song & Caruso, 1996).

3.1.2. The G-theory Approach

G-theory, developed by Cronbach and his colleagues (Cronbach, Gleser, Nanda, & Rajaratnam, 1972), is a statistical method used to evaluate the dependability of behavioral measurements (Webb & Shavelson, 2005). Kieffer (1998) states that the origins of G-theory go back to Hoyt (1941), Lindquist (1953), and Mitzel (1963) who realized the inadequacy of CTT in determining the reliability of performance measurement and searched for new techniques which would be more powerful and able to detect several sources of measurement error simultaneously, and the first extensive treatment of G-theory can be seen in the work of Cronbach et al. (1972). Ferrara (1993) states that the G-theory approach

“...has an important role in all forms of educational assessment, including direct writing assessments and performance assessments in other content areas. More than 20 years ago Coffman (1971) helped set the stage for the use of generalizability analyses of writing assessments when he stated that ‘there is a need for studies that control the various sources of error’ in writing assessments (p. 282)” (p.2).

The followings are some major strengths of G-theory:

1) G-theory estimates multiple sources of variability simultaneously in a single analysis whereas one source of variance separately can be estimated in a single analysis (Shavelson & Webb, 1991).

2) G-theory can estimate the magnitude of main and interaction effects of sources of variance (Shavelson & Webb, 1991).

3) G-theory enables the calculation of two different reliability coefficients related to decisions based on both the interpretation of the absolute (criterion-referenced) level of scores (Phi coefficient) and of the relative (norm-referenced)

level of scores (G coefficient) while CTT enables the calculation of the reliability coefficient for norm-referenced testing situations (Shavelson & Webb, 1991).

4) G-theory enables researchers to make decisions about how to reduce the effect of error variance on the true score (Shavelson & Webb, 1991; Güler, 2009; Swartz et al, 1999) whereas CTT can only estimate a single measurement error, such as item, time, rater, form, etc., at a time (Brennan, 2001a).

5) Alternatively *decision- (D-) studies enables* researchers to design a measurement protocol to detect the efficiency or cost effectiveness of administering a different number of items or forms on a different number of occasions (Kieffer, 1998). *Therefore*, decisions about a person on the basis of his/her test score can be made with minimum error of measurement (Huang, 2007); however, CTT can calculate and forecast the efficiency of a single source of error source (e.g. number of items for maximum reliability) using Sperman-Brown formula (Shavelson & Webb, 1991).

In conclusion, G-theory extends the usage of CTT and gives a response to the limitations of CTT, as G-theory can detect multiple sources of measurement error variance simultaneously and their interaction effects (Kieffer, 1998; Shavelson & Webb, 1991). As stated in Huang and Foote (2010), even though *CTT* and *G-theory* (Cronbach et al., 1972) both have weaknesses (Eason, 1989; Lynch & McNamara, 1998), *G-theory* is a more powerful and efficient strategy than *CTT* for the detection of rater variability (Shavelson, Baxter, & Gao, 1993). Further, there is a trend towards the use of G-theory in performance assessment, as Eason (1989) states: "...there is every possibility that reflective researchers will increasingly turn to generalizability theory as the measurement model of choice" (p. 21).

4. The Use of G-theory in ESL/EFL Performance Assessments

Several empirical studies have used G-theory to examine the reliability and validity of EFL/ESL writing scores (Huang, 2008, 2011, 2012; Huang & Foote, 2010; Gebril, 2010; Schoonen, 2005; Swartz et al., 1999). For example, Swartz et al. (1999) used *G-theory* to investigate the reliability of holistic and analytic writing scores as well as the influence of raters and the use of writing scores (absolute versus relative decisions) on the reliability of writing scores in either standardized tests or classroom-based assessments. The results showed that when the number of raters was reduced

and absolute decisions were made, the reliability coefficients for the writing scores declined. These results proved that G-theory is a powerful and flexible approach that allows multiple sources of error variance to be estimated simultaneously in order to determine the reliability of test scores.

5. Conclusion

Like for any standardized high-stake assessment contexts “it is incumbent upon a college ESL program that administers a high stakes test to investigate the performance of that assessment” (Wiseman, 2012, p.61). In the research literature on the direct assessment of ESL/EFL writing, many studies have examined the impact of tasks, essays, and rater types on the reliability and variability of essay rating and scores.

Most empirical studies that have examined the variability and reliability of ESL/EFL writing scores frequently used a single method (either quantitative or qualitative methods) in their investigations and these studies have reported mixed results regarding the impact of scoring methods on the variability and reliability of ESL/EFL writing scores.

In conclusion, G-theory extends the usage of CTT and gives a response to the limitations of CTT, as G-theory can detect multiple sources of measurement error variance simultaneously and their interaction effects (Kieffer, 1998; Shavelson & Webb, 1991). As stated in Huang and Foote (2010), even though *CTT* and *G*-theory (Cronbach et al., 1972) both have weaknesses (Eason, 1989; Lynch & McNamara, 1998), *G*-theory is a more powerful and efficient strategy than *CTT* for the detection of rater variability (Shavelson, Baxter, & Gao, 1993). Further, there is a trend towards the use of G-theory in performance assessment, as Eason (1989) states: “...there is every possibility that reflective researchers will increasingly turn to generalizability theory as the measurement model of choice” (p. 21).

Although most empirical studies have principally used CTT as the theoretical frameworks of their investigations (Brennan, 2001a, 2001b), research literature on language performance assessment has also used G-theory to examine the reliability and validity of EFL/ESL writing scores (Han, 2013; Huang, 2008, 2011, 2012; Huang & Foote, 2010; Huang & Han, 2013; Gebiril, 2010; Schoonen, 2005; Swartz et al.,

1999). G-theory is a powerful and flexible approach that allows multiple sources of error variance to be estimated simultaneously in order to determine the reliability of test scores (Swartz et al. 1999). It is recommended that further research should employ G-theory approach as a more sophisticated approach in the investigation of reliability and validity of performance assessment.

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DEVELOPING CULTURAL AWARENESS IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

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Abstract

The paper is dedicated to the role of cultural awareness in the foreign language teaching. It is shown that language and culture are really so tightly linked. When teachers introduce language teaching materials, such as books or handouts, they must understand that these will be viewed differently by students depending on their cultural views. Thus, as a teacher of language, one must be culturally aware, considerate of the students' culture, and inform students of cultural differences thus promoting understanding.

Key words: cultural awareness, language and culture, culture shock, language policy makers, plurilingualism, language curricula

If language and culture are really so tightly linked as many specialists of these areas believe, teachers must instruct their students on the cultural background of language usage. If one teaches language without teaching about the culture in which it operates, the students are learning empty or meaningless symbols or they may attach the incorrect meaning to what is being taught. The students, when using the learnt language, may use the language inappropriately or within the wrong cultural context, thus defeating the purpose of learning a language. Conflict in teaching styles also stem from the relationship between language and culture. Western English teachers who teach in some Asian countries bring along with them any or all of their teaching and learning experiences which are teacher and not student centered. The students may not know how to react to this different style of learning. Because language is so closely entwined with culture, language teachers entering a different culture must respect their cultural values. As Englebert describes: "...to teach a foreign language is also to teach a foreign culture, and it is important to be sensitive to the fact that our students, our colleges, our administrators, and, if we live abroad, our neighbours, do not share all of our cultural paradigms"(Englebert, 2004, p.37-41).

Language teachers must realize that their understanding of something is prone to interpretation. The meaning is bound in cultural context. One must not only explain the meaning of the language used, but

the cultural context in which it is placed as well. Often meanings are lost because of cultural boundaries which do not allow such ideas to persist. As Porter argues, misunderstandings between language educators often evolve because of such differing cultural roots, ideologies, and cultural boundaries which limit expression(Porter, 1987, pp. 369-385). Language teachers must remember that people from different cultures learn things in different ways. For example, in China memorization is the most pronounced way to study a language which is very unlike western ideologies where the onus is placed on free speech as a tool for utilizing and remembering vocabulary and grammar sequences (Hui, 2005, p90-109). Prodromou argues that the way we teach reflects our attitudes to society in general and the individual's place in society(Prodromou, 198, pp.73-83) .

When teachers introduce language teaching materials, such as books or handouts, they must understand that these will be viewed differently by students depending on their cultural views. For instance, westerners see books as only pages which contain facts that are open to interpretation. This view is very dissimilar to Chinese students who think that books are the personification of all wisdom, knowledge and truth (Maley, 1986, p.102-111).

One should not only compare, but contrast the cultural differences in language usage. Visualizing and understanding the differences between the two will enable the student to correctly judge the appropriate uses and causation of language idiosyncrasies. Valdes argues that not only similarities and contrasts in the native and target languages have been useful as teaching tools, but when the teacher understands cultural similarities and contrasts, and applies that knowledge to teaching practices, they too become advantageous learning tools (Valdes,1986, pp102-111).Creators of second language teaching policies must be sensitive to the local or indigenous languages not to make them seem inferior to the target language. English language teaching has become a phenomenon in Southeast Asia. Such a reality shows that our world has entered the age of globalisation of the English language, in which most observers see a tendency toward homogeneity of values and norms; others see an opportunity to rescue local identities (Stromquist & Monkman, 2000, p. 7). The implications for language policy makers are that policies must be formed which not only include but celebrate local languages. Policies must not degrade other languages by placing them on a level of lower importance. In other words, when making policies regarding language teaching, one must consider the cultural ideologies of all and every student, the teacher, as well as the culture in which the target language is being taught. Language teaching policies formed with the cultural characteristics of both teacher and student in mind will not be prone to make assumptions about the appropriateness of students' behaviour based on the policy maker's own cultural values but will increase cultural awareness. The American Council on The Teaching of Foreign Languages has expounded on the importance of combining the teaching of culture into the language

curriculum to enhance understanding and acceptance of differences between people, cultures and ideologies. One example where as policy makers did not recognize the importance of culture is outlined by Kim, in which the Korean government had consulted American ESL instructional guidelines which stated that for students to become competent in English they must speak English outside of the classroom. The government on reviewing this policy requested that all Korean English language students use English outside of the classrooms to further enhance their language competency. What they failed to consider is that while in America, English is taught as a second language and speaking English was quite acceptable in all locations, in Korea, English is taught as a foreign language and the vast majority of the Korean population do not converse with each other in English. Korean students speaking English outside of the classroom context were seen as show-offs. In a collectivistic culture, as is Korea, such displays of uniqueness are seen as a vice to be suppressed, not as a virtue (Kim, 2004, p.1-11). Thus policy makers must not rely on the cultural views and policies of others, but incorporate the cultural views of the students as well as considering the culture where the teaching is taking place. Language teachers need to be informed about various teaching interaction-based methodologies, manipulate them and develop their own teaching methods compatible with the educational context to foster interaction between students . Thus, when creating policies, one must consider the cultural meanings of teaching materials used. The materials may have a far broader meaning or encompass far more (or less) than what one has considered. For example, while teaching about English or American holidays, part of which deal with Christian religion, one should keep in mind that his/her students' religious background may be different from his/hers and they may perceive this negatively. The problem is that people have pre-existing schemata or knowledge structure in their memory of what constitutes certain ideas; e.g. an apartment, a holiday, what are breakfast items. The culturally based schemata that the students have for holidays may be considerably different than those of the teacher (or course book author). Understanding of a holiday may differ from just any day that was special, possibly where one did not have to go to school, a weekend, a birthday, or any other major happening to a day full of religious meaning (repentance, forgiving, etc.), which may not coincide in various cultures. Misunderstanding between the students and the teacher may evolve from this fact. For example, for Turkish students New Year is a day off, but they do not perceive it as a holiday, as it is not within their cultural tradition.

Thus, as a teacher of language, one must be culturally aware, considerate of the students' culture, and inform students of cultural differences thus promoting understanding. Language policy must reflect both the target language culture as well as the students', teacher's, and administrative persons' culture thus avoiding any cultural misinterpretations.

Many official educational documents have already incorporated cultural issues as part of language teaching curricula. Thus, for instance, “Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment” (“Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment” 2001, p. 4) states:

In recent years the concept of plurilingualism has grown in importance in the Council of Europe’s approach to language learning. Plurilingualism differs from multilingualism, which is the knowledge of number of languages, or the co-existence of different languages in a given society. Multilingualism may be attained by simply diversifying the languages on offer in a particular school or educational system, or by encouraging pupils to learn more than one foreign language, or reducing the dominant position of English in international communication. Beyond this, the plurilingual approach emphasizes the fact that as an individual person’s **experience of language in its cultural contexts** expands, from the language of the home to that of society at large and then to the languages of other peoples (whether learnt at school or college, or by direct experience), he or she does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact.

Among obligatory competences of language learning is sociolinguistic competence. It refers “to the sociocultural conditions of language use. Through its sensitivity to social conventions (rules of politeness, norms governing relations between generations, sexes, classes and social groups, linguistic codification of certain fundamental rituals in the functioning of community), the sociolinguistic component strictly affects all language communication between representatives of different cultures, even though participants may often be unaware of its influence” (Common., 2001, p. 13).

Most attempts to set out the aims of Foreign Language Teaching include among the goals a cultural component. But what does the concept of culture point to? Barbara J. King writes: “Many cultural anthropologists ... now urge abandonment of the culture concept because they see it as hopelessly essentialized and politicized when applied to human groups. That is, they reject the idea that discrete human groups have a distinct, bounded set of identifiable ideas, beliefs, or practices, and they worry that claims for such sets of bounded ideas, beliefs, or practices are too often made by suspect nationalist movements” (King, 2001,p.441-442).

At the very least, culture is a difficult notion to grasp - and yet many language teachers find themselves constrained to include a cultural component without ever having been offered the opportunity to thoroughly analyze what it is they are supposed to be doing. This can lead to trivialization, to exoticism, or to seeking refuge in Great Books and Great Art.

According to Mason, language teachers do not necessarily have any special insight into the cultures which the languages they teach use. Most of us, he says, have not majored in cultural anthropology (Mason, 2001,) . We can only agree with him that much of what passes for cultural insight in language courses is anecdotal, outdated and superficial. Often enough, cultural prejudices are simply reinforced. French teenagers often are given the impression that the USA is founded on Disney and the KKK - what do American adolescents learn about French culture?

How, then, a language teacher asks, should I include culture into teaching a language? There is one main answer, and all the minor answers derive from that: use authentic materials. It is difficult to escape teaching the culture if you use authentic documents. As soon as language learners come across something they do not understand – not linguistically, but from behavior viewpoint – the teacher has to explain the cultural background to provide deep understanding. Among other problems linked with teaching language & culture are:

- As there are so many historic events, geographic places, holidays and traditions, what are the criteria of their selection to make up an optimal culture-linked program?
- Many events are viewed differently, so which view(s) should we give? E.g., the glorious war between the North and the South is viewed by some people as a horrible massacre.
- Age limitations: some topics are too difficult to perceive until one is off age.
- Cultural practices can change quickly
- Language teachers and course book authors, then, should be trained in such sophisticated matters.

Some specialists of language teaching put up the following arguments against teaching culture:

- “Culture” is too vague and wide.
- There is cultural variation.
- Teaching culture will not, unfortunately, prevent racism, ethnocentrism, or all the other naughty 'isms' you can think of. This is because many cultural practices are at the least questionable ; polygamy, dog-walking without a scooper, using the klaxon in town-centres to express annoyance, impatience or high-spirits ... one could go on.

- Attitudes, typical behaviours and mentality are things too difficult to define.
- You can't "teach" it, language learners have to work it out for themselves (that's why student projects are so useful).

If we want to teach a language in a culturally-sensitive way, the culture-based topics to be included in language teaching should involve:

1. Everyday living, e.g.:
 - food and drink,
 - public holidays
 - working hours and practices
 - leisure activities (hobbies, sports, reading habits, media)
2. Living conditions, e.g.:
 - living standards (with regional, class and ethnic variations)
 - housing conditions
 - welfare arrangements
3. Interpersonal relations (including relations of power and solidarity), e.g., with respect to:
 - class structure of society and relations between classes
 - relations between sexes (gender, intimacy)
 - family structures and relations
 - relations between generations
 - relations in work situations
 - relations between public and police, officials, etc.
 - race and community relations
 - relations among political and regional groupings
4. Values, beliefs and attitudes in relation to such factors as:
 - social class
 - occupational groups (academic, management, public service, skilled and manual workforces)
 - wealth (income and inherited)
 - regional cultures
 - security
 - institutions
 - tradition and social change
 - history, especially iconic historical personages and events
 - minorities (ethnic, religious)

- national identity
 - foreign countries, states, peoples
 - politics
 - arts (music, visual arts, literature, drama, popular music and song)
 - religion
 - humor
5. Body language (posture, eye-contact, mimics, gestures). Knowledge of the conventions governing such behavior from part of the user/learner's sociocultural competence.
 6. Social conventions, e.g. with regard to giving and receiving hospitality, such as:
 - punctuality
 - presents
 - dress
 - refreshments, drinks, meals
 - behavioural and conversational conventions and taboos
 - length of stay
 - leave-taking
 7. Ritual behaviour in such areas as:
 - religious observances and rites
 - birth, marriage, death
 - audience and spectator behavior at public performances and ceremonies
 - celebrations, festivals, dances, discos, etc.

(Common, 2001, p.102-103)

According to Mason, these topics should/may include:

- heroes and famous people – it is useful to read/speak about them not only because it provides background knowledge, but also because you step by step learn to understand what is there so special about them that makes them popular in the given culture;
- history, geography
- literature, art
- gestures and their meaning
- holidays and traditions
- food and dress.

Mason's comment about the "insides" of the topic (not just about heroes, but also why these people are viewed as heroes, what values made them perceived as heroes) is essential. Generally, issues of values,

attitudes and norms of politeness are more important than factual knowledge like history and geography which is too vast to be included in any course and can be done only in a fragmentary way (Mason, 2001).

When viewing the above issues, it is essential to do cross-cultural comparisons. For example, there are tremendous differences in

the sports that we play and the way we play them

the families that we form and the ways we form them

the various ways in which we court our spouses

the friends we make and the way we make them

the tools we make and how we use them

the languages we invent and the way we speak them

the food we eat and how we eat it

the religions we form and how we practice them

the laws and customs we make and how we observe them.

Such a long list of topics, naturally, cannot be covered in a short period of time. Selection of topics, width and depth of their coverage depend on language learners' age and language level. While national curricula of teaching a particular language may mention the list of topics taught at each grade at school, "Common European Framework of Reference for Languages" (Common, 2001, p. 122) mentions at which language skill level students have to possess which cultural competences:

A1: Can establish basic social contact by using the simplest everyday polite forms of: greetings and farewells, introductions, saying please, thank you, sorry, etc.

A2: Can handle very short social exchanges, using everyday polite forms of greetings and address. Can make and respond to invitations, suggestions, apologies, etc.

Can perform and respond to basic language functions, such as information exchange and requests and express opinions and attitudes in a simple way.

Can socialize simply but effectively using the simplest common expressions and following basic routines.

B1: Can perform and respond to a wide range of language functions, using their most common exponents in a neutral register.

Is aware of the salient politeness conventions and acts appropriately.

Is aware of, and looks out for signs of the most significant differences between the customs, usages, attitudes, values and beliefs prevalent in the community concerned and those of his or her own.

B2: Can with some effort keep up with and contribute to group discussions even when speech is fast and colloquial.

Can sustain relationships with native speakers without unintentionally amusing or irritating them or requiring them to behave other than they would with a native speaker.

Can express him or herself appropriately in situations and avoid crass errors of formulation.

C1: Can recognize a wide range of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms, appreciating register shifts; may, however, need to confirm occasional details, especially if the accent is unfamiliar.

Can follow films employing a considerable degree of slang and idiomatic usage.

Can use language flexibly and effectively for social purposes, including emotional, allusive and joking usage.

C2: Has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms with awareness of connotative levels of meaning. Appreciates fully the sociolinguistic and sociocultural implications of language used by native speakers and can react accordingly.

Can mediate effectively between speakers of the target language and that of his/her community of origin taking account of sociocultural and sociolinguistic differences.

According to “Common European Framework of Reference for Languages” (Common, 2001, p. 103), intercultural awareness deals with the below issues. Knowledge, awareness and understanding of the relation (similarities and distinctive differences) between the “world of origin” and the “world of the target community” produce an intercultural awareness. It is, of course, important to note that intercultural awareness includes an awareness of regional and social diversity in both worlds. It is also enriched by awareness of a wider range of cultures than those carried by the learner’s L1 and L2. This wider

awareness helps to place both in context. In addition to objective knowledge, intercultural awareness covers an awareness from the perspective of the other, often in the form of national stereotypes.

Sociolinguistic competence deals with linguistic markers of social relations, such as:

- use and choice of greetings
- introductions
- leave-taking
- use and choice of address forms (formal/informal; polite/intentionally rude)

It also includes politeness conventions, such as:

- “positive” politeness (showing interest, sharing emotions, etc.)
- “negative” politeness (avoiding direct answers, expressing regret)
- deliberate impoliteness (expressing dislike, anger, asserting superiority)

The most obvious way to teach language in a sensitive to culture way is to provide reading and listening texts on the enumerated above topics and then to organize discussion. Correspondingly, pretty much all textbooks at secondary level and upwards now have a “cultural syllabus” and even A1 English course books make room for a ‘culture spot’ or ‘cultural corner’. But this is just on the surface. The question is, how we teach it in such a way that our students’ language skills are really culturally appropriate.

Some publications focus on classroom practice. Tomalin and Stempleski talk about culture as incorporating products such as literature, art and artifacts, ideas, such as beliefs, values, and institutions, and behaviors, such as customs, habits, dress, foods and leisure. They present a series of lesson plans that explore the relationship between the language taught in the classroom, and the products, ideas and behavior that impact upon its meaning. The cultural products, ideas and behaviors are presented primarily as a means of motivating language use (Tomalin and Stempleski, 1993, pp.80-89). A great idea, according to Mason is to organize learner projects on topics dealing with culture as he believes, culture cannot be taught and can only be learned. Students may write essays, find materials on the Internet, compile albums, carry out presentations, hold concerts, performances and competitions, work on a wall newspaper, etc. In student-centered teaching systems, a great idea is to carry out students’ needs analysis: give a questionnaire on the culture-linked topics they would like to read/listen/speak/write about (Mason, 2001).

According to Day popular culture such as music, movies, and television should be used as additional “text” in the language arts classroom to build stronger connections with traditional literature and aid in

teaching other important skills and concepts within the curriculum. The author offers advice for implementing popular culture and provides specific examples of its application in the classroom. One challenge facing many high school language arts teachers is poor student motivation and performance when it comes to the literature and composition requirements of a traditional curriculum (Day, (2006). Although many literary anthologies employed in secondary schools have added more women and minority writers along with a writing curriculum that includes more creativity and variety in forms of written expression, the average teacher still views these new resources and ideas as ancillary to formal composition and the established literary canon (Lane, 2001).The societal pressure that drives many high school language arts teachers is that they must produce capable students with proficient skills in reading, writing, speaking, listening, and thinking (Buckingham, 1992, p.8-13). They have traditionally sought to accomplish this goal by utilizing a curriculum that focuses exclusively upon literature that the typical high school student dismisses as dull and almost foreign. Students today live in a culture saturated by music, movies, television, video games, cartoons, teen magazines, and the Internet. Most have no natural interest in the works of Shakespeare, Hawthorne, or Chaucer. They may balk at the very notion of composing a five-paragraph literary analysis that must then be edited for run-on sentences. Academic activities of this kind do not stimulate today's typical high school students because these printed texts and writing tasks are so far removed from their language, experience, and culture(Hobbs,2001,pp.44-50). Even the most competent and creative efforts on the part of the language arts teacher to implement student-centered activities, stimulate prior knowledge, and promote active reading may fall short of sparking a student's genuine interest in the material.

Meeting the needs of today's students will require adjusting the traditional high school language arts curriculum and broadening perceptions of what is considered "text" as a teaching tool (Stevens, 2001, p.548-555). Instead of viewing popular culture as a distracting rival of the literary canon, language arts teachers can learn to embrace it as an invaluable resource. Popular culture can be used as a teaching tool in the same way as a novel, poem, or textbook to teach essential language arts skills and concepts (Lane, 2001). James Berlin argues, "Our historicist perspective on current English Studies hierarchies enables us to regard all manners of discourse as worthy of investigation, including film, television, video, and popular music" (Berlin, 1996,p.xvi). This shift in the paradigm of what constitutes "text" worthy of literary locus does not suggest the demise of traditional literature and composition , but instead aims to construct and sustain a more comprehensive and meaningful connection between the texts that high school students experience and the world in which they live.

Language arts education at the high school level is only just beginning to adapt to the vast multicultural and technological changes that are taking place in American society. As a result of the call for "back to

basics" education during the 1980s, language arts curricula have remained true to "obscure books and the culture of print" despite the changing face of American student populations and the multitude of available texts that surpass the printed page. Teachers have continued to employ the time-honored great works of the literary canon as the only text worthy of investigation and discovery in the process of analyzing literature (Lane, 2001 p. 2). Secondary language arts teachers have traditionally viewed popular culture as the enemy . Language arts curricula of the past have clung to printed text as the only means of educating students, but "modern literacy involves diverse combinations of reading, writing, speaking, listening, viewing, moving, thinking, and representing strategies and skills" (Pailliotet et al., 2000, p. 210). In this age of I-pods, portable DVD players, and every cable channel imaginable, the common assumption amongst most language arts teachers is that they must compete against hours of popular culture consumption on a daily basis. They feel that the value of the sound byte and notions of instant gratification dispelled by the popular culture of today create barriers to the patience and critical thinking involved in the comprehension and analysis of literature .Language arts teachers have enjoyed the use of various instructional methods as a means of building a bridge for students to better relate to reading and writing tasks. Freewriting and brainstorming have been commonly utilized in the classroom as ways of generating ideas for writing (Skinner and Policoff, 1994, p.21-24). Implementing popular culture in the classroom derives from the idea that teachers must build connections between the printed texts of the literary canon and the background knowledge of students (Flood, Heath, and Lapp, 2005). Language arts teachers must contend with the realization that their students cannot relate to the literary canon and lack the internal motivation or interest in reading and analyzing such literature (Hobbs, 2001). Popular culture offers a way for language arts teachers to bridge that gap. When utilized appropriately and consistently, popular culture becomes a powerful tool to "activate student schema, scaffold learning, engage students, and connect learning environments" (Pailliotet et al., 2000, p. 214). Implementing popular culture will enable students to better understand the historical and underlying concepts of the literature they are reading, which will foster the motivation and ability to analyze a wide variety of literary elements. The same framework applies when students are faced with developing an essay. Often times they have no idea what to write about; they lack the necessary spark to get started. Popular culture offers a valuable source of inspiration for ideas that relate to important issues of American society. When provided with a "text" that is relevant to their lives in language that is familiar, necessary writing skills like topic development and support for ideas have an open space to flourish. Hobbs recommends showing specific movie scenes in the language arts classroom to compel students to make close observation of details. This activity serves a dual purpose: first, it provides a model for the importance of including interesting detail in the writing process; second, it teaches students to look closely at the amount of detail that goes into character development, which improves their analytical skills in reading. The process of noting details in short

movie clips could also be applied to other areas of literary analysis such as setting, point of view, and tone. "From there, students can employ the same comprehension strategies using literary forms" (Hobbs, 2001, p. 46).

McParland advocates the close examination of music and song lyrics to parallel the skills required to analyze poetry. Because "poetry and song share qualities of meter and rhythm, use of metaphors, and imagery," language arts teachers can use popular music in the classroom to tap into students' interests and experiences and practice the same analytical skills required when searching for a deeper understanding of poetry (McParland, 2000, p. 30). Once students have mastered the art of analysis with popular music and developed an appreciation for it, translating the same skills in the study of poetry becomes a much easier task. Music can also establish important links to other literature. McParland writes that "musical genres can offer greater depth, meaning, and relevance to literature ... often concerning human relationships" (McParland, 2000, p.28). If used as a hook, popular music can guide students to evaluate the emotions conveyed by a variety of familiar songs and later draw parallels with literature that might otherwise be difficult to connect with an emotional level. Aiex suggests organizing brainstorming sessions for the development of writing topics around themes associated with popular movies. He also recommends television news programs as a model for persuasive writing and the need to provide adequate support and detail when developing an argument(Aiex, 1988) .

Popular culture can be used to engage students in critical thinking and writing about other media and the culture we live in. "By learning to 'read' media and popular texts, students learn about the construction of writing and how writing, consciously or unconsciously, reflects and produces specific values and points of view" (Lane, 2001). This kind of visual literacy forces students to choose their own perspective on an issue, examine relevant texts, and then produce writing that supports, scrutinizes, or expands upon those ideas . Movie clips, news programs, magazine advertisements and even music videos can be used to elicit the same kind of critical thinking that students must employ when writing a research paper or engaging in a debate. Though many students may struggle with the mechanics of writing, Jeremiah argues that rap lyrics can be used to teach various technical aspects of composition such as sentence structure and variety, verb tenses, subject-verb agreement, usage, and negation(Jeremiah, 1992, p.98-102). In addition to grammar mini-lessons, language arts teachers have the opportunity to utilize rap music during the editing stage of the writing process to make grammar instruction more interesting. Before peer editing begins, teachers can invite their students to bring in non-explicit versions of their favorite rap songs or other music to practice making corrections. It is important to realize that developing this library of resources does require a great deal of time and effort on the part of the teacher, but the amazing

results are well worth the effort. In accordance with copyright law, teachers may use materials such as DVDs, videotapes, recorded television programming, and music in the classroom for educational purposes (Davidson, 2006). Due to time constraints within the curriculum, showing only two or three scenes at most from a movie or television show will suffice, but the ultimate decision about which sections to show will depend on the instructional purpose.

1. Activity: Theme of "The American Dream" in overall preparation for reading American Literature and essay brainstorming Music: "America" by Neil Diamond
2. Activity: Puritan historical context Movie: The Scarlet Letter
3. Activity: Personal connection with "'Upon the Burning of Our House" by Anne Bradstreet Movie: Lemony Snicket's A Series of Unfortunate Events
4. Activity: Compare and contrast sermon styles with Jonathan Edwards in "Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God" Movies/Television: Footloose, Lakewood Church with Joel Osteen, The Apostle
5. Activity: Historical context of McCarthyism as it relates to The Crucible by Arthur Miller Movie: The Majestic
6. Activity: Character analysis practice for The Crucible essay Movie: The Nutty Professor
7. Activity: Write an essay comparing and contrasting any character from The Crucible with any fictional character of your choice Movie/Television: Student choice
8. Activity: American Revolution historical context for Patrick Henry's "Speech to the Virginia Convention" Movie: The Patriot
9. Activity: Demonstrate logical and emotional appeals in Patrick Henry's "Speech to the Virginia Convention" Movies: Philadelphia, A Time to Kill
10. Activity: Illustrate target audience and modes of persuasion for Advertising Project Television commercials/Magazine ads: Teacher choice
11. Activity: Illustrate characteristics of Romanticism in preparation for reading "Rip Van Winkle" by Washington Irving Movies: The Last of the Mohicans, Sleepy Hollow
12. Activity: Illustrate characteristics of Gothic Romanticism in preparation for reading "The Raven" by Edgar Allan Poe Movie: Sleepy Hollow
13. Activity: Demonstrate parody and introduce "The Raven" by Edgar Allan Poe Television: "The Simpsons"
14. Activity: Practice analyzing literary elements in poetry such as diction, tone, theme, point of view, symbolism, and irony Music: "'Another Brick in the Wall (Part 2)" by Pink Floyd

15. Activity: Illustrate non-conformity as a transcendentalist ideal in "Self-Reliance" by Ralph Waldo Emerson Movie: Dead Poet's Society
16. Activity: Illustrate civil disobedience for personal connection with "Civil Resistance to Government" by Henry David Thoreau Movies: Ali, The Rosa Parks Story
17. Activity: Demonstrate examples of satire Television: "The Simpsons" and "Family Guy"
18. Activity: Freewriting to generate writing topics Music: Instrumental mix
19. Activity: Peer editing where students bring in their own copy of school-appropriate lyrics and practice editing for grammar, usage, and punctuation before editing each other's writing Music: Student choice
20. Activity: Model for providing adequate support in persuasive writing and drawing firm conclusions Television: "Hardball"
21. Activity: Model for using vivid detail in writing Movie: The Princess Bride
22. Activity: Brainstorming and discussion for critical essay related to cultural issues Movies: Divorce Kramer vs. Kramer, Racism--Do the Right Thing, Gangs/Crime--Boyz in the Hood, Goals/Dreams--Billy Elliot, Sexuality--American Pie, Politics--Bulworth, Terrorism--The Siege, Sports--Hoosiers, Relationships--When Harry Met Sally, Teen Romance - Sixteen Candles, Peer Pressure--Heathers

Popular culture becomes a potent ally when language arts teachers are faced with the reality that many students have no interest in reading and analyzing traditional literature or producing salient and evocative writing. It also offers teachers a distinctive method to create a classroom environment with engaged students experiencing multiple modes of learning and discovering the intrinsic enjoyment of literature and composition. The goals of cultural tasks will normally involve a combination of intercultural exploration and linguistic development. E.g., finding out relationships of men and women through the given text (the task is "Read the text and pay attention to what seems unusual for you in men/women relations. Mention how it is expressed"). Another goal may be to interpret body language of communicators (this can be done on the basis of video or textual materials).

Probably, you have paid attention that most of authors we have discussed use the term (word combination) “to teach culture”, but we prefer speaking about “teaching about culture” to “teaching culture”. This is not by incident. Because of the reasons that we will show below, The subject we teach is called English (or any other second or foreign language). Language teachers’ education in most cases does not involve any (or involves too few) scientific courses dealing with culture. So language teacher’s qualification is really too low to “teach culture”. What – in our opinion – is even more important is the fact that “teaching a second/foreign culture” (probably) without a person’s will is against any legislation, against human rights. A person who learns a second/foreign language as a school/university subject just does so because it is a subject in the curriculum or because she/he would like to communicate in that language. As for assimilation / integration into another culture, most learners never conceive of such purposes. Even when language teaching starts early (at the age of 5 or 6), the child is already a carrier of her/his own culture and we have no right to impose another culture on the child. To inform him/her of another culture in order to make the teaching interesting, in order to achieve high quality of comprehension in the process of intercultural communication – yes, but to “teach another culture” to change the person’s native culture – no! We believe that the phrase “to teach culture” that appears in most publications we have viewed is just a professional jargon, for the purpose of brevity and – God save us – for the purpose of cultural harassment, if it is possible to say so. In most cases the phrase really means introducing politeness rules and explanation of connotation, dealing with the corresponding country’s history, famous people, traditions, etc., i.e. nothing harmful.

However, there are teachers (especially, native speakers of that language) and scientists who think that bringing their (as they believe, more “cultural”, more sophisticated) language to other countries is synonymous to changing the local culture (raising it to a higher level). These people think they are linguistic and cultural missionaries. Sometimes “teaching culture” this just happens in a thoughtless (and harmless enough) way, because teachers (naturally) loving the language they teach are so enthusiastic that it seems that they view the corresponding culture as something perfect, and, correspondingly, better than theirs.

It is essential that language teachers, before they “teach culture”, should be explained how to do so in a way benefiting understanding of both cultures, native and that of the second/foreign language under study, how not to hurt anybody’s feelings and thus, how to promote a better understanding between nations.

Skutnabb-Kangas writes about danger of linguistic genocide (!) through globalization and language teaching policy. He views facts of not only less developed African countries, but also of quite developed

European countries such as Sweden, whose culture is endangered because of the role that the English language has occupied in their society. He tells us about a very serious generation gap of grandparents and grandchildren who do not understand each other linguistically. Parents, wanting the benefit for their children (getting a good job or any job at all), send them to a school where education is carried out in English. As a result, all their children can do in a native tongue is just “hello-how-are-you-thank-you-type” everyday conversation. They think in English, they behave “in American” (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000).

Language has always been essential for self-determination. You are, first of all, part of culture in the language of which you speak as your first language. Language is very sensitive towards mentality. If mentality is sexist, ageist, racist, nationalistic, so is the language people speak. Making English (or any other “big” language) the language children in another country think in, we, willy-nilly, use a more psychological form of ethnical destruction, of ethnical conquering, than is invading the country and conquering it by force. But it is a way of conquering. And, we believe, language teachers should have nothing to do with it. Thus, in our opinion, we should teach about cultures, teach to notice culturally specific meanings, teach to be polite and tolerant.

By teaching about cultures we do not mean “lecturing” in a dull way about some events, places and people out students probably do not care about. We mean to apply active, interesting activities centered on being correctly understood.

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THE STYLE OF HEADLINES IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE NEWSPAPERS

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Abstract

The paper views newspaper headlines in English-language newspapers. The headlines in the English language newspapers can be very difficult to understand. One reason for this is that newspaper headlines are often written in a special style, which is very different from ordinary English. This is why it is important to teach about these peculiarities while teaching to read newspapers.

Key words: headlines, newspaper style, grammar rules in newspaper headlines

Headlines are the short titles above newspaper reports. The headlines in the English language newspapers can be very difficult to understand. One reason for this is that newspaper headlines are often written in a special style, which is very different from ordinary English. In this style there are some special rules of grammar, and words are often used in unusual ways (Swan, 1984. p.21).

Headlines are considered to have their own characteristics, written in a special kind of language with its own vocabulary and grammar. English newspaper writing style generally consists of three parts. These are: headlines, lead and body. The headline is the most interesting of them, because its grammar and usage are very characteristic. Fairclough (1995:21) states that "headlines have distinctive syntactic properties, which make them a grammatical oddity." The headline is a unique type of text. It has a range of functions that specifically dictate its shape, content and structure, and it operates within a range of restrictions that limit the freedom of the writer (Reah, 1998:13-14). It encapsulates the story, article content, in a minimum number word, attracts the reader to the story and, if it appears on the front page, attracts the reader to the paper. The style of writing headlines is largely geared to saving space and presenting information.

The goal of this article is to examine the style of the English newspaper headlines and their peculiarities as well. We aim to describe some special rules of grammar. We analysis several English newspaper headlines and found out their complexity.

Grammar rules in the newspaper headlines

- Headlines are not always complete sentences. Many headlines consist of noun phrases with no verb.

Ex: **More wage cuts**

Holiday hotel Death

Exeter man's double marriage bid

One-way visa regime with Russia

Business, elections and authorities

Chinese Labor in Georgia

Kids and Motherland

Duty Free Alliance

Fresh Diplomats with Fresh Impressions

- Headlines often contain strings of three, four or more nouns; nouns earlier in the string modify those that follow.

Ex: **Furniture factory pay cut row**

Car re-export tops Georgian export list

Headlines like these can be difficult to understand. It sometimes helps to read them backwards.

FURNITURE FACTORY PAY CUT ROW refers to a ROW (disagreement) about a CUT (reduction) in PAY AT A FACTORY that makes FURNITURE

- Headlines often leave out articles and the verb be.

Ex: Shakespeare play immoral, says headmaster.

Woman walk on moon

Readers of newspaper in general pay attention to the contents of the news, and seldom pay attention to tense in newspapers. They may not be aware that in terms of tense, newspapers are a special kind of writing (Shun, 1995:60).

- In headlines simple tenses are often used of progressive or perfect forms. The simple present is used for both present and past events. It appears to be the most widespread tense according

to its usage in headlines. The more we were looking for the new forms and structures of headlines the more it became clear that it's extremely common in headlines. It conveys much more than just one tense. For example:

Blind girl climbs Everest (...has climbed...)

Students fight for Course changes (=...are fighting...)

U.S. DOD official speaks of Defense ties with Georgia (=... has spoken)

EU calls on Russia (=...has called)

The Voucher social policy smells of politics (=... has smelt)

- The past tense or the past participle is often seen in headlines. Passive sentences are constructed in news headlines with no auxiliary verbs-just the past participle. So instead of saying, for example:

"A man is being held by the police" ,the headline would probably say "Man held by Police".

"Six killed in explosion (=...six people have been killed)"

"Israel Amazed By Declaration of Georgia's president"

"Prisoner Mortality Rate remained high in 2011"

Headlines like this are easy to misunderstand.

- As for present progressive it is used to indicate a happening in progress. It can be used also to refer to future happening anticipated in the present. In addition, the present progressive can be used, especially to talk about changes. BE is usually dropped. "In headlines present progressive is used usually to describe something that is changing or developing, but the auxiliary is/are usually left out." (Swan, 1984: 409).

Britain **getting** warmer, says scientists

Leading and Losing by Example

Hiding from the Truth

- Many headline words are used as both nouns and verbs, and nouns are often used to modify other nouns, so it is not always easy to work out the structure of a sentence. Compare:

US **cuts AID** to third world (= The US reduces its help ... CUTS is a verb, AID is a noun)

AID CUTS ROW (= There has been a disagreement about the reduction in aid. AID and CUTS are both nouns.

In newspaper and headlines the auxiliary verb such as „will\ shall“ as well as semi-auxiliary is\are going to are usually used in case of form of the future construction to express future time. But in headlines, it is a common to take the form ' to + verb' instead of 'be going to +verb' or 'will+ verb'; in other words, an auxiliary verb and the verb be is omitted. Some publications of newspapers accept the infinitive as a substitute for the future, but it is awkward (Chin & Tsou, 2008). The reason for permitting the infinitive is obvious: less space is required for ' to ' than for will/ be going. Therefore in headline infinitive is often used to express future events or plans.

Ex: **PM to visit** Australia

Hospitals to take fewer patients.

FOR is also to refer to future movements or plans

Troops FOR Glasgow? (=Are soldiers going to be sent to Glasgow?)

EU Trade Commissioner to Visit Georgia over DCFTA

Time To Air Muslim Violence Against Christians

WPP to invest in Sex Entertainment

- As for punctuations, they aren't too common in headlines. Punctuation slow readers and headlines are meant for speed reading. We almost never meet periods or full stops. A colon (:) is often used to separate the subject of a headline from what is said about it.

Strikes: pm to act

Motorway Crash: Death Toll Rises

Fantasy Baseball: Top to third Basement

Her Fathers Daughter: The Turbulent life of Lisa De Kooning

Sometimes colon is used as a space saver. For example: *Bush: read my lips*. (Bush says read my lips).

- Quotation marks (‘...’) are used to show that words were said by somebody else, and that the newspaper does not necessarily claim that they are true. Their usage is very rare and when they are met, they are always single. (‘...’) not (“...”).

Crash driver ‘Had Been Drinking’

‘Evil Dead’ Wins Box Office

Remembering Jack Pardee, One of the ‘Junction Boys’

- A question mark (?) is often used when something is not certain. However, it is said that using question marks in headlines isn't appropriate. Each headline should lead us to clarity and certainty of the fact and not to confusion.

Crises Over by September?

Who Made that Cellphone?

Drones: A Booming Business?

Tax Credits or Spending? Labels, but in Congress, Fighting Words

Shanghai on a Dime? Pretty Close.

Bits: No TV? No Subscription? No Problem?

Thus, as we have reviewed above, the headlines in the English language newspapers are very difficult to understand. The main reason for this is that they are written in a special style. In this style we figured out some special rules peculiarities of grammar. They are:

- Headlines are not always complete sentences. Many headlines consist of noun phrases with no verb.
- Headlines often contain strings of three, four or more nouns; nouns earlier in the string modify those that follow.
- Headlines often leave out articles and the verb be.
- In headlines simple tenses are often used of progressive or perfect forms.
- The past tense or the past participle is often seen in headlines. Passive sentences are constructed in news headlines with no auxiliary verbs-just the past participle.
- As for present progressive it is used to indicate a happening in progress. It can be used also to refer to future happening anticipated in the present.
- Many headline words are used as both nouns and verbs, and nouns are often used to modify other nouns.
- Some publications of newspapers accept the infinitive as a substitute for the future.
- punctuations aren't too common in headlines. Punctuation slow readers and headlines are meant for speed reading. A colon (:) is often used to separate the subject of a headline from

what is said about it. Quotation marks ('...') are used to show that words were said by somebody else.

- A question mark (?) is often used when something is not certain.

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INVOLVING ANDROID SMARTPHONES TO REDUCE EXAM ANXIETY IN SCHOOLS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Abstract

Technology has made fundamental structural changes and has achieved significant improvements and productivity in learning process. Technology increases students' engagement and motivation, accelerates learning and at the same time reduces exam anxiety. This model links teachers to their students and helps them to improve their own instruction and personalize learning. In this work, English Quiz Application has been created by using appinventor. With this app, students step through a series of English Questions, clicking a next button to proceed. Student enters an option a through d, and the quiz reports whether the response is correct or not. Application can be downloaded to any Android Smartphone for free by using the QR Code or going to the following link;

<https://sites.google.com/a/cis.ge/my-applications/my-english-quiz/ErdoganKayaEnglishQuiz.apk?attredirects=0&d=1>



Keywords: exam anxiety, technology, student interaction and satisfaction

Introduction

Are you a teacher or parent looking for ways to make learning fun and easy for your kids? If so, the Android quiz application could be the solution you seek. Taking exams should be fun, as well as serious and educational. This app not only makes exams more engaged with technology, but also encourages students to want to learn more by reducing their exam anxiety.

It is known that students exhibit different learning styles. Good instructors should assess the learning styles of their students and adapt their classroom methods for each of them and by doing so achieve significant improvements in students' outcomes. The same approach, however, does not hold true for quizzes and exams. This project describes a different approach which is designed for stressful learners to obtain better results from exams and quizzes.

This project describes how android application can be used to improve learning process plus reduce exam anxiety. The app aims to implement technology in the classroom and make exam anxiety low order. Students equipped with tablet PCs, Android devices, smart phones are fully engaged in their learning process.

Until recently the cost of mobile technology was a significant barrier to widely implementing this model. However, less expensive tablets and Android devices are now filling the market and greatly tackling the barrier. Smart phones have become very popular and are used by students to communicate continuously. However, despite their potential, computational power and ease of use they have not become commonplace in the classrooms. The project runs on any Android smart phone and lets the students take their quiz and tests in a phone instead of stressful classroom environment and pressure.

How does it work?

Android is an operating system developed by Google. Basically it was started by some other company which was taken by Google. Google improved the operating system and made it an open source platform. It was widely adapted over the world. As it is open source it is so popular amongst the smartphones. Android OS can also be used on tablet PCs.

Android is based on Linux and offers you a great deal of customization in widgets and over millions of apps. Most of them are free of cost and can be installed on your phone just by clicking on install tab of the respective app in the Google Play Store app, which comes along with the android Phone.

App Inventor lets you develop applications for Android phones using a web browser and either a connected phone or emulator. The App Inventor servers store your work and help you keep track of your projects.

You build apps by working with:

- The App Inventor Designer, where you select the components for your app.
- The App Inventor Blocks Editor, where you assemble program blocks that specify how the components should behave. You assemble programs visually, fitting pieces together like pieces of a puzzle.

Your app appears on the phone step-by-step as you add pieces to it, so you can test your work as you build. When you're done, you can package your app and produce a stand-alone application to install.

If you don't have an Android phone, you can build your apps using the Android emulator, software that runs on your computer and behaves just like the phone.

The App Inventor development environment is supported for Mac OS X, GNU/Linux, and Windows operating systems, and several popular Android phone models. Applications created with App Inventor can be installed on any Android phone.

- When the app starts, the first question appears, including its corresponding image.
- When the user clicks on the Next Button, the second question appears. When he clicks it again, the third question appears, and so on.

- When the user reaches the last question and clicks the Next Button, the first question should appear again.
- When the user answers a question, the app will report whether it is correct or not.



Conclusion

Average scores in tests and exams will be better than in the past, comparable classes and the use of a device that students use on a daily bases anyway reduced the learning curve and increased student interaction and satisfaction.

In future work, this project could be expanded to include data results received by instructor. When the instructor receives these responses instantaneously, it provides insights into student thinking and what the students do and do not know. Subsequent instruction can then repairs and refine student understanding in a very timely manner. This would create a more hands-on and real-world approach to exams than in traditional styles.

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THE ATTRIBUTES OF GOOD ENGLISH TEACHERS IN TURKISH CONTEXT

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Abstract

This paper investigated the attributes of successful EFL teachers as perceived Turkish student who were studying English. A survey developed by the researchers administrated to 89 secondary and 106 tertiary students. The purpose is to detect what special qualities English language teachers should have has and what roles they should undertake. The data indicate that to better fulfill their roles effective teachers are fair, respectful, patient, willing to teach, friendly, perfect in pronunciation, competent in English, a guide, and a stimulator. Also, students expect the teacher to be a native speaker of Turkish, but fluent in English. In addition, although most participants preferred native English teachers, those students who had had native English teachers preferred them less compared to those students who had not had native English teachers. Moreover, the participants expect their language teachers give importance to speaking, listening and reading activities, but less importance to grammar and writing.

Key words: good/effective English teachers, Turkish context, native / non-native speakers, teacher knowledge and experience

Introduction

In English language teaching and learning, some teachers are regarded as more successful than others. The reasons vary: according to Brown (2001), successful teaching depends on the teachers' language proficiency, language-teaching skills, interpersonal communication ability and personality.

Teachers of all disciplines including language teachers must take what qualities students think effective teachers should have into consideration if they are determined to meet student need and enhance student proficiency. If the teachers or instructors ignore the beliefs of students about effective teaching, then the student progress will be limited. According to Horwitz (1987), students may be deprived of confidence and interest in learning if language teachers disregard what students expect from teachers. Similarly, Schulz (1996) claimed that gap between students' and teachers' expectations can negatively affect L2 students' satisfaction with the language class and can limit L2 study.

Students' opinions and awareness of effective teaching and teaching are essential to language teaching and learning. Williams and Burden (1997) claimed that students' perceptions and beliefs were found to have the greatest influence on their achievement. Despite the importance of knowledge about student perceptions as an informant to effective lecturing and teaching, there is a lack of studies in the field of English language teaching, especially in the Turkish context. In fact, it seems to be hard to locate any research into Turkish university and secondary student perceptions of effective teachers of English as a foreign language. The present study, therefore, addresses this deficiency. In particular, the present study identifies the attributes of effective EFL teachers from the Turkish university and secondary student perspective. The outcomes of this investigation provide fresh insights into Turkish student views about effective EFL lecturing which should be particularly informative to in service and prospective teachers and lecturers working in. Additionally, the research may provide useful information for teacher trainees, teachers, and lecturers in other contexts.

A number of researchers have identified the characteristics of effective teachers of all disciplines including teaching English as a Foreign Language (Baleghizadeh, 2011; Clark, 1993; Hanushek, 1997; Hanushek & Kain not in the references, 2005; Jepsen, 2005; Marlang & Khamis, 1993; Million, 1987; Smith et al., 1994; Sisman & Acat 2003; Stronge, 2002; Wong & Wong, 1998) the domain of foreign language education. These characteristics consist of several basic constructs including personal attributes, professional knowledge, and subject matter knowledge. Studying the qualities of preferred language teachers as perceived by students is beneficial to language teachers. They can compare their attributes to those of ideal teachers perceived by language learners. Therefore, teachers can understand what their students expect from them and develop their pedagogical techniques through reflection on teaching, which will in turn enhance the complex process of teaching and learning. This study seeks to promote the research into effective teacher characteristics in Turkey and it is hoped that it will encourage researchers to explore new research avenues.

The main purpose of this study was to find out the attributes of effective English teachers (EET) in terms of characteristics of personal, professional and subject matter knowledge. Therefore, the following three research questions were addressed to guide this study:

1. What are the most preferred attributes of EET as perceived by Turkish secondary and tertiary students in Turkey?
2. Do Turkish students prefer native English teachers or Turkish English teachers?
3. Are there any differences between high school and university students' priorities in terms of personal, professional, and subject matter attributes?

Literature Review

Who is effective teacher and who is effective English teacher? To deserve to be called as an effective and prosperous teacher demands some qualifications such as proficiency in a specific field and ample knowledge of occupational education. Sisman and Acat (2003) emphasized four essential qualifications that an efficient teacher should have: adequacy of

knowledge in the field, adequacy related with formation of teaching, adequacy of general knowledge and adequacy of ethic virtues. Similarly, Baleghizadeh (2011) conducted a research to examine a competent grammar teacher and concluded some characteristics. She pointed out that an effective grammar teacher should (a) adopt new theories of grammar teaching, (b) use authentic material, graphs and charts to motivate the students, (c) give way to classroom discussions and debates on newly learned topics, (d) make sure that the students understand all of the instructions, (e) know the importance of pair work, group work and role play for teaching grammar.

Researchers consider how to be an efficient teacher from different aspects whereby they produce unlike descriptions. According to Clark (1993), “Obviously, the definition involves someone who can increase student knowledge, but it goes beyond this in defining an effective teacher (p. 10).” Vogt (1984) stated that an effective teacher is capable of instruct the learners without considering the diversity of the learners. Million (1987) claimed that effective teachers conceive of lessons and use methods of delivery that meet the students’ needs. Smith et al. (1994) put forward in a study successful teachers are good at conveying their messages orally, therefore, they encourage interaction, do not sit in one position, and diverge their paralinguistic.

The importance of having experience of teaching varies among researchers in literature. At the end of the 90’s the issue of experience of the teacher was thought to have a minimal effect on learners’ success and relatively on success of the teacher. The characteristics that form the basis for teacher compensation are at best weak predictors of a teacher’s contribution to student achievement (Hanushek, 1997). More latest assessments, conducted by multi-dimensional data frequently involving measurements over time, have supported that teacher productivity increases over the first few years of experience (Jepsen, 2005; Rivkin, Hanushek, and Kain, 2005). It may be creditable to consider that teaching is a personal endeavor that embodies a teacher’s different beliefs and assumptions about how to bring off productive and efficient teaching. Experience of a teacher constitutes for the base of teacher’s system of principles about teaching. Teachers’ views are “ideas and theories that teachers hold about teaching, language, learning and their students,” which are derived from “their experience, observations, training and other sources” and serve as “a source of reference” and “teachers’ classroom practices” (Richards & Schmidt, 2003, p. 541). According to the *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (Richards & Schmidt, 2003), teacher development can be identified as “the professional growth a teacher achieves as a result of gaining increased experience and knowledge and examining his or her teaching systematically” (p. 542).

Requirements of success in an occupation are not limited to teaching. Borghans, Weel and Weinberg (2008) put it forth that different types of jobs require different combinations of personality traits and they could associate some of these traits with prolificacy. Personal traits of teachers may affect teachers’ being successful conducting their courses. An effective teacher should not be contented with developing interpersonal relations between him/her and the learners. To consolidate learning, a teacher needs to let the learners be aware of what they learn and how they can use it in real life. Wong and Wong (1998) pointed out that an average

teacher without specific features tells and explains the subjects, but on the other hand an outstanding teacher shows the subjects to learn and vitalize awareness. Stronge (2002) and Protherough and Atkinson (1991) have shown some important personal attributes of successful English Foreign Language (EFL) teachers and according to their researches, these personal attributes are indispensable. Additionally, it is crucial to have the ability to increase the enthusiasm among students about the subject and inspire the students for their lives. There is such a misconception among people that teachers giving chances to students to attend entertaining activities and being companionable are the only keys to be an efficient teacher. The study carried out by **Batten, Marland and Khamis (1993)** indicates that students' ideas of the attribute of good teachers manifest not only being friendly and humorous, but also respecting and encouraging the students. Meanwhile, Biggs and Moore (1993) mention that the personal traits that make a great teacher harmonize being enthusiastic, encouraging, humorous, fair, flexible and organised.

As it is mentioned above, it is nearly impossible and unreliable if possible to draw a border between an average teacher and an efficient one. However, many researchers have tried to make a list of characteristics of an efficient teacher and it is still an on-going endeavour. Jacob and Lefgren (2005) made a list of items, of which evaluation is rated by principals. Their list include both teacher characteristics and inputs in the classroom atmosphere such as dedication and work ethic, organization, classroom management, providing a role model for students, positive relationships with teacher colleagues and administrators. This study also takes into consideration outputs increase student achievement, student and parent satisfaction. The features of an affective teacher from the perspectives of the learners are presented in a study conducted by Probst (2009). These features are as follows:

- Being enthusiastic about both teaching itself and teaching a specific subject
- Having prepared the course materials or proper activities before conducted the course
- Punctuality, consistency, politeness, firmness and control
- Not only doing teaching job, but also supporting learners and concerning for them
- Supplying personal help
- Being aware of individual differences among learners
- Engaging an affective delivery
- Having high expectations of class members
- Having a sense of humour, being relaxed, humble and fair
- Keeping accurate records of completed works, attendance, test results and grades
- Preventing one or two students' monopolizing or dominating the class
- Interpersonal relationship with learners
- Changing his/her posture or position in the class to draw the attention of the learners
- Using variety of learning activities, experiments and allowing for spontaneity

Specifically, teaching a language in a perfect way deserves to be one of the fields to ponder on in literature as it is not easy to create a real environment for the learners. Foreign Language teachers need to possess a broad knowledge of the language that they teach. Having

proficiency in the target language does not mean the only way to success as being an effective Foreign Language teacher requires an ability to communicate, to be taught methodology of language teaching and many others. For example, Brown (2001) claims that effective teaching tends to be imposed by the teachers' language proficiency, language-teaching skills, interpersonal communication ability and personality. He also presents a checklist of good language-teacher features in his study. Brown divides these attributes into four categories: technical knowledge, pedagogical skills, interpersonal skills and personal qualities. Some other researchers also highlight the importance of being well-informed about target language and nature of a teacher. Curtis and Cheng (2001) propose that efficient teachers own broad knowledge, notable skills and some peculiar personality features. According to Ethell and McMeniman (2000, p.88), prosperous teachers "have a larger knowledge base from which to draw" and generally "organize knowledge more efficiently in complex interconnected schemas and utilize it more effectively". Besides effective classroom teaching, successful EFL teachers take on some responsibilities such as considering learners individually, participating in staff meetings, organizing activities out of classroom, preparing materials handouts and timetables, discounting tests and examinations, and writing reports (McDonough & Shaw, 2003). According to the *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (Richards & Schmidt, 2003), teacher development may be described as "the professional growth a teacher achieves as a result of gaining increased experience and knowledge and examining his or her teaching systematically" (p. 542). It is then clear to figure out that effective teachers do not possess just requirements of the role of a teacher but they have many other features. Being an efficient EFL teacher entails more than fulfilling the role of teacher alone; at the same time it entails someone who is an organiser of different activities, an active participant in their students' development and in professional self-development, and an observer who searches for feedback and evaluates his or her own work (Harmer, 2001).

Methodology

Participants

This study followed convenient sampling method and eighty-nine of the participants in this study were from secondary schools studying English at least six hours a week and 106 freshman ELT department students who were majoring English to be English teachers. The participants in this study were selected as the only students taking English classes. A demographic questionnaire was administered to gather information about the subjects' backgrounds. Results from the questionnaires showed that most of the students had attended English classes at least six hours a week. The participants of this study ranged in ages from 14 to 29 years old with a mean of 18.49. In addition, thirty-nine of the participants reported that that had had native English teachers.

Instruments

The aim of this study was to determine what qualities do Turkish students of English want their languages teachers to have. One major instrument was used for the purpose of this study. To determine Turkish students' preferences of attributes of English teachers a survey of Good Language Teachers' Attributes with a 5-point Likert scale developed by the researchers of this study was used. The survey comprises 32 statements on qualities of preferred English language teachers (see Appendix A). Items 1-10 were intended to find out the English Language Teachers' personal, 11 to 23 professional, and 24 to 32 subject matter qualities preferred by Turkish students of English.

Data analysis

This study is a quantitative nature. The Statistical Package 18.0 was used to perform data analysis. To calculate all needed measurement in the study, descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, and one-way ANOVA analysis were run.

Results and findings

The first research question was related to the attributes Turkish students liked best. Items which are included in the questionnaire were subdivided into three: personal attributes, professional attributes, and subject matter attributes. Items 1 to 10 in the questionnaire were intended to discover how much importance do Turkish students give to their language teachers' individual, professional, or field knowledge qualities. Means, minimum and maximum scores, standard deviations of preferred category for Turkish language teachers are displayed in table 1. The following are the results of the student questionnaire describing the qualities of effective teachers. The means and standard deviations are given for each type of quality in the tables. For the purposes of clarity, the results are given as they were represented in the questionnaire under the relevant headings.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for sub-categories of qualities of language teachers

Attribute Category	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Personal	195	2,80	5,00	3,99	,42
Professional	195	3,23	5,00	4,33	,34
Subject matter	195	2,44	5,00	4,17	,48

The table shows that Turkish ELT students give priority to professional attributes of language teachers (M=4.33), followed by subject matter (M=4.17), and personal (M=3.99). This suggests that Turkish students want their language teachers to be good teachers first, good language teachers second. However they do not ignore importance on being personally good.

In addition, to find out the most and least preferred language teacher attributes, descriptive statistics of each item were computed and means and standard deviations were shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics for the items got highest and lowest scores

	Individual reading strategy	Categor y	Mean	SD
Highest scorers	They should be fair (it. 9)	Personal	4,90	,42
	They should be patient (it. 1)	Personal	4,87	,39
	They should avoid humiliating students (it. 16)	Professio nal	4,85	,55
	They should be enthusiastic (it. 8)	Personal	4,83	,66
	They should have respect for others (it. 10)	Personal	4,81	,51
	They should have good English pronunciation (it. 26)	Subject	4,80	,62
	They should create a friendly atmosphere in class(it.13)	Professio nal	4,78	,61
	They should teach enjoyable lessons (it. 20)	Professio nal	4,76	,56
	They should stimulate students (it. 17)	Professio nal	4,76	1,35
	They should consider the level of students (it. 11)	Professio nal	4,69	,76
	They should give priority to speaking activities (it. 29)	Subject	4,69	1,34
	They should have good knowledge of English (it. 23)	Subject	4,65	,86
	Lowest scorers			
They should be native speakers of English.(it 7)		Subject	2.76	1.45
They should be smart. (it. 2)		Personal	2.95	1.58
	They should speak English and ban Turkish during class.	Subject	3.01	1.40

Turkish students of English expect their teachers to be a good professional first, a nice person second and then a good English teacher. As can be seen in Table 2, among the most preferred qualities, five of them belong to professional category, four of them belong to personal category, and three of them belong to subject matter category. Turkish students consider those English teachers successful who are fair (M=4.90), patient (M=4.87), kind (M=4.85), willing to teach (M=4.83), respectful (M=4.81), have a good pronunciation

(M=4.80), are hospitable (M=4.78), encourage students (M=4.76), are conscious of the proficiency of the students (M=4.69), give importance to speaking (M=4.69), and are knowledgeable of English. Moreover, Turkish students prefer those language teachers who dress well, have good relationship with students, speak clearly, take individual differences into consideration, employ wide range of methods and techniques, and use visual and aural objects. Further, although Turkish students reported that speaking activities (M=4.69) are essential, it can be stated that they want a good balance among those of listening (M=4.57), reading (M=4.45), writing (M=4.15), and grammar (M=4.09).

Another research question was asked to detect if Turkish students prefer native English teachers to Turkish language teachers. According to descriptive statistics for item 6 and 7, Turkish students do not think it a must to have their teachers as native speakers of English (M=2.76). They seemed to be satisfied with their Turkish English teachers (M=3.76). In addition, ANOVA comparison shows that those students who had had a native English teacher reported less willingness (M=2.46) to have a native English teacher than those who had never had (M=2.84). Also, although they have reported their content with speaking activities in the target language, Turkish students do not all agree that the language teachers should speak English all the time and disallow them speak their mother language (item 22 ad 25).

The next research question intended to discover if there are any significant differences between secondary and university student preferences in terms of sub-categories of language teacher characteristics. Means of sub-divisions designated by high school and tertiary students are presented in

Table 3: Means of sub-category of teacher attributes by High school and university student

School type	Means for personal	Means for professional	Means for subject matter
High school	4.05	4.26	4.07
University	3.92	4.39	4.26

The table indicates that there are no differences in student preferences based on the categories. Both students in secondary schools and university believe that professional attributes are the essential ones for teachers to be effective followed by personal and subject matter qualities. More specifically, they all prefer their English teachers to be good instructors first, proficient in English second, and then model human beings.

Conclusion and suggestions

The aim of this study was to gather data on how Turkish students both secondary and tertiary students learning English as a foreign language identify the qualities of a successful English teacher. According to Turkish students, in order to be effective English teachers, they should;

- be fair and in equal distance to every students,
- patient enough,
- kind,
- not cause students lose face,
- enthusiastic to teach,
- respectful,
- have a native-like pronunciation,
- speak clearly,
- teach in a warm and friendly atmosphere,
- foster students,
- exploit wide range of strategies and objects,
- provide students with activities for all skills and the grammar
- be competent in English.

This study established what the students felt were the attributes of effective EFL lecturers. These findings have specific implications for existing and prospective in service and prospective EFL teachers and instructors. Fairness turned out to be the most important language teacher attribute as perceived by Turkish students. This may mean that Turkish students think that English language teachers do not give equal opportunities to carry out tasks and favor some students over the others. Care should be taken not to favor the students of high proficiency, which some respondents thought tends to occur in EFL classes. This may be conveyed by saving equal time and taking care for each student and marking and evaluating student papers objectively. Second, the present study indicates that students feel that English teachers must be good, kind, respectful, and friendly people first. This suggests that rapport is essential to build atmospheres of respect and understanding in EFL classes. By forming friendly and nice atmosphere in the language courses, English teachers will definitely minimize and the stress their students might feel. Being friendly may be conveyed by smiling, using student names, using sense of humors, making overt efforts to help and stimulate students, and checking every student comprehension. Third, language teachers use wide range of methods and techniques to meet every student's need. In this context it is interesting that they reported that language teachers should give equal importance to all skill tasks, or activities not just to grammar teaching. The reason may be that they now go abroad under the student exchange programs like ERASMUS and EVS and they need to speak to, write to, or listen to foreigners for any purposes. In situations like this, grammar and reading only will not be of any assistance. Therefore, English teachers should help their students enhance their four skills in order to meet their needs. Finally, Turkish students seemed to be happy with their Turkish English teachers. Even those students who had had English native teachers tended to be less satisfied with them, providing that Turkish English teachers speak English, to a certain extent, with good pronunciation. Therefore, language teachers should improve their speaking and pronunciation.

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Appendix A: Descriptive statistics for individual attributes

Number	Items	Category	Mean	SD
1	They should be patient.	Personal	4.87	0.39
2	They should be smart.	Personal	2.95	1.58
3	They should be young.	Personal	3.67	1.25
4	They should be punctual.	Personal	3.98	1.25
5	They should be well-dressed.	Personal	3.94	1.29
6	They should be Turkish.	Personal	3.17	1.35
7	They should be Native speakers of English.	Personal	2.76	1.45
8	They should be willing to teach.	Personal	4.83	0.66
9	They should be fair.	Personal	4.90	0.42
10	They should have respect for others.	Personal	4.81	0.51
11	They should consider the level of students.	Professional	4.69	0.76
12	They should speak clearly.	Professional	4.40	1.09

13	They should create a friendly atmosphere in class.	Professional	4.78	0.61
14	They should employ wide range methods and techniques.	Professional	4.21	1.04
15	They should consider individual differences.	Professional	4.57	0.87
16	They should avoid humiliating students.	Professional	4.85	0.55
17	They should stimulate students.	Professional	4.76	0.69
18	They should save more time to less successful students.	Professional	3.81	1.30
19	They should give the impression that they are the boss.	Professional	3.16	1.43
20	They should teach enjoyable lessons.	Professional	4.76	0.56
21	They should have a rapport with the students.	Professional	4.24	0.91
22	They should be strict during the class.	Professional	3.40	1.20
23	They should be knowledgeable in English.	Professional	4.65	0.86
24	They should speak English and ban Turkish during class.	Professional	3.01	1.40
25	They should employ Turkish as a means of instruction and English as a means of direction.	Professional	3.19	1.38
26	They should have good English pronunciation.	Professional	4.80	0.62
27	They should use visual and aural objects.	Professional	4.55	0.82
28	They should give priority to reading activities.	Professional	4.45	0.94
29	They should give priority to speaking activities.	Professional	4.69	0.68
30	They should give priority to writing activities.	Professional	4.15	1.24
31	They should give priority to listening activities	Professional	4.57	0.77
32	They should give priority to teaching grammar	Professional	4.09	1.25

STUDENTS' NEEDS ASSESSMENT FOR LESSON PLANNING

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Abstract

This article focuses on the use of a comprehensive needs assessment to improve student achievement. Higher education institutions and schools should use a comprehensive needs assessment to aid them in improving their students' achievement in this era of redesign and reform. The authors use their experience as school administrators, college professors, and district assistant team members to explain the needs assessment process.

Needs Assessment is systematic process to acquire an accurate, thorough picture of the strengths and weaknesses of a school community that can be used in response to the academic needs of all students for improving student achievement and meeting challenging academic standards. Process that collects and examines information about school wide issues and then utilizes that data to determine priority goals, to develop a plan, and to allocate funds and resources. Students, parents, teachers, administrators, and other community members should be included in gathering data.

The magic word is the word 'needs'. We can only start teaching to students when we know what their needs for the language are. This is also true of all students of course, even if the only thing we find out is that they have no specific needs. The other thing we need to know before starting is what the students want.

Key words: assessment, material selection, curriculum, survey questionnaires, interviews, informal observations, class discussions, timeline.

Introduction

Assessment of literacy needs from the learner's perspective is an important part of an instructional program. Learners come to adult English as a second language (ESL) literacy programs for diverse reasons. Although they may say they just want to "learn English," they frequently have very specific learning goals and needs: for example, to be able to read to their children, to get a job, or to become a citizen. If their needs are not met, they are more likely to drop out than to voice their dissatisfaction (Grant & Shank, 1993). The needs assessment process can be used as the basis for developing curricula and classroom practice that are responsive to these needs.

Although learner needs assessment encompasses both what learners know and can do (learner proficiencies) and what they want to learn and be able to do, this digest focuses on ways to determine what learners want or believe they need to learn. Many of the activities described can also include or lead to assessment of proficiencies, and many of the sources cited include both types of assessment - see Burt & Keenan (1995), for a discussion of assessment of what learners know.

WHAT IS NEEDS ASSESSMENT?

The word "assess" comes from the Latin term "assidere," which means to "sit beside." Process-minded and participatory-oriented adult educators "sit beside" learners to learn about their proficiencies and backgrounds, educational goals, and expected outcomes, immersing themselves in the lives and views of their students (Auerbach, 1994).

A needs assessment for use with adult learners of English is a tool that examines, from the perspective of the learner, what kinds of English, native language, and literacy skills the learner already believes he or she has; the literacy contexts in which the learner lives and works; what the learner wants and needs to know to function in those contexts; what the learner expects to gain from the instructional program; and what might need to be done in the native language or with the aid of an interpreter. The needs assessment focuses and builds on learners' accomplishments and abilities rather than on deficits, allowing learners to articulate and display what they already know and can do (Auerbach, 1994; Holt, 1994).

Needs assessment is a continual process and takes place throughout the instructional program (Burnaby, 1989), thus influencing student placement, materials selection, curriculum design, and teaching approaches. As Burnaby (1989) noted, "The curriculum

content and learning experiences to take place in class should be negotiated between learners, teacher, and coordinator at the beginning of the project and renegotiated regularly during the project" (p. 20). At the beginning of the program, needs assessment might be used to determine appropriate program types and course content; during the program, it assures that learner and program goals are being met and allows for necessary program changes; at the end of the program, it can be used for assessing progress and planning future directions for the learners and the program.

WHY IS NEEDS ASSESSMENT IMPORTANT?

A needs assessment serves a number of purposes:

- It aids administrators, teachers, and tutors with learner placement and in developing materials, curricula, skills assessments, teaching approaches, and teacher training.
- It assures a flexible, responsive curriculum rather than a fixed, linear curriculum determined ahead of time by instructors.
- It provides information to the instructor and learner about what the learner brings to the course (if done at the beginning), what has been accomplished (if done during the course), and what the learner wants and needs to know next. Factors that contribute to learner attrition in adult literacy programs include inappropriate placement and instructional materials and approaches that are not relevant to learners' needs and lives (Brod, 1995). When learners know that educators understand and want to address their needs and interests, they are motivated to continue in a program and to learn.

ASSESSMENT TOOLS

Needs assessments with ESL learners, as well as with those in adult basic education programs, can take a variety of forms, including survey questionnaires on which learners check areas of interest or need, open-ended interviews, or informal observations of performance. In order for needs assessment to be effective, tools and activities should be appropriate for the particular learner or groups of learners. For example, reading texts in English might be translated into the learners' native languages, read aloud by the teacher

or an aide (in English or the native language), or represented pictorially. Types of needs assessment tools and activities include:

Survey questionnaires. Many types of questionnaires have been designed to determine learners' literacy needs. Frequently they consist of a list of topics, skills, or language and literacy uses. The learners indicate what they already know or want to know by checking in the appropriate column or box, or they may be asked to use a scale to rank the importance of each item. For beginning learners who do not read English, pictures depicting different literacy contexts (such as using a telephone, buying groceries, driving a car, and using transportation) can be shown, and learners can mark the contexts that apply to them. For example, using transportation could be represented by pictures of a bus, a subway, and a taxi. The list of questionnaire items can be prepared ahead of time by the teacher or generated by the students themselves through class discussion.

Learner-compiled inventories of language and literacy use. A more open-ended way to get the same information that surveys offer is to have learners keep lists of ways they use language and literacy and to update them periodically (McGrail & Schwartz, 1993).

Learner interviews. Interviews with learners, either one-on-one or in small groups, in their native language or in English, can provide valuable information about what learners know, what their interests are, and the ways they use or hope to use literacy.

Review of reading materials. An instructor can spread out a range of reading materials on the table (e.g., newspapers, magazines, children's books, comics, and greeting cards, and ask learners which they would like to read and whether they would like to work in class on any of them. A similar activity can be done with different types of writing.

Class discussions. Showing pictures of adults in various contexts, the teacher can ask, "What literacy skills does this person want to develop?" and have learners generate a list. The teacher then asks, "Why do you want to develop literacy skills?" Learners might be more willing to express their desires if they move from the impersonal to the personal in this way (Auerbach, 1994).

Personal or dialogue journals. Learners' journals-where they write freely about their

activities, experiences, and plans-can be a rich source of information about their literacy needs(Peyton,1993).

Timelines. Learners can prepare their own personal timelines, in writing or pictorially, that indicate major events in their lives as well as future goals. Discussion can then focus on how progress towards those goals can be met through the class (Santopietro, 1991).

How can I design lessons that meet the needs of all my students?

While there are many different opinions and theories about lesson planning, most effective lessons contain the following components: (a) clearly stated objectives that you want students to learn; (b) an introduction to the lesson; (c) the engagement of students in learning activities designed to help them learn the desired content or skill; (d) opportunities for students to practice while you provide them with feedback on their progress; (e) a summary or closing to the lesson, and (f) assessments of what the students have learned.

Factual Information

In addition to including the key lesson components noted above, it is also important that you know the strengths your students bring to the classroom. All students can further develop their knowledge/skills/talents in certain areas. To design lessons for students, consider the specific learning needs of the students when designing instruction. Are there any pieces of the instruction that will prove problematic for some students in terms of their ability to access materials or demonstrate their knowledge? If so, can the designed instruction be altered for all children to improve access without changing the goals and objectives? For example, you may find that reducing the amount of required independent reading for all students will make the lesson more accessible for students who have specific learning disabilities and will reduce the need for additional modifications/adaptations.

If modifications/adaptations to lessons or materials do need to be made and you are working with a special education teacher, the special education teacher may be the

person who will suggest these changes to your lessons. If this is the case, adequate planning time is required so that the two of you can talk about the goals of the lessons and what might be appropriate modifications/adaptations.

Assessments may also need modifications or accommodations as a student may appear to have not learned because of the ways he or she is asked to demonstrate his or her knowledge or skill. Consulting the student's IEP will provide guidance about the design of appropriate methods for assessing a student's learning.

Differentiated Instruction is another strategy to meet the needs of diverse learners, including students who have disabilities.

What is "Differentiated Instruction" and how might it apply to the students in my classroom?

If you only use one predominant method of instruction, you may only be effective with the students who learn best with that instructional method. The achievement of other students who do not learn well through that method will likely suffer. Benjamin Bloom probably gave us the best advice when he encouraged us to increase the variability of our teaching in order to decrease the variability of student achievement and ensure that all students achieve.

Factual Information

Students are different and do not learn best in the same ways. With your learning objectives in mind, you can use what you know about how children learn and design instruction that accounts for different types of learners. This is called differentiated instruction and has been common for a number of decades in gifted and talented programs. We are now recognizing the value of adjusting both the curriculum and instructional strategies for all students. Differentiated Instruction (sometimes referred to as "DI") is an instructional concept that maximizes learning for all students - regardless of their ability. In DI, best teaching practices are used to create different pathways to learning. Unlike individualized instruction in which teaching is designed to meet the specific needs of individual students, DI is designed to meet the needs of clusters of students.

While there are several different models for differentiating instruction, there are some basic principles to keep in mind:

- Start with your learning outcomes and what you want your students to know and be able to do. Without a clear sense of what you want them to learn, it is difficult to plan effective instruction.
- Assess the students' current knowledge on the outcomes. You will likely find that different students have differing knowledge about your planned learning outcomes. Some may already have come close to mastering them while other students may need much more instruction.
- Provide instruction through a variety of instructional experiences and assignments. For example, for one group of students you might provide small group instruction while for another group of students you might approach the same learning outcomes through work on a project.
- Continually assess student learning. Don't wait until the end of a unit of instruction to determine whether or not your students understand. Constantly monitor the students' learning and make adjustments as necessary. This is known as "formative assessment" or "assessment for learning."

NEEDS ASSESSMENT IN ONE ADULT ESL PROGRAM

The Arlington Education and Employment Program (REEP) in Arlington, Virginia periodically conducts a program-wide needs assessment to determine the interests and goals of ESL learners in the community. The director and program coordinators collaborate with community agencies, schools, and employers to identify ways in which the REEP program can prepare learners for the economic, civic, and family opportunities available in the community. This information is then used for program planning purposes, such as developing courses, curricula, and materials, and preparing needs assessment tools. Learner interviews and a placement test assessing general language proficiency are used to place learners in an instructional level. Once they are in

the classroom, learners participate in a continual needs assessment process to plan what they want to learn and how they want to learn it.

In-class needs assessment is most successful when learners understand its purpose and are comfortable with each other. Because of this, the first curriculum unit in every new class is called "Getting Started" (Arlington Education and Employment Program, 1994). It enables learners to get to know one another through the needs assessment process as they acknowledge shared concerns and begin to build a community in the classroom. For several days, some class time may be spent discussing where they use English, what they do with it, what problems they have encountered, and why they feel they need to improve their language skills and knowledge. Through this process, both the learners and the teacher become aware of the goals and needs represented in the class. A variety of level-appropriate techniques, like those mentioned above, are used to come to a consensus on the class instructional plan and to develop individual learning plans. Learners select from both program-established curricular units and from their identified needs. The needs assessment process serves as both a learning and information-gathering process as learners use critical thinking, negotiation, and problem-solving skills to reach this plan.

Once the class instructional plan is selected, ways are discussed to meet individual learner needs apart from the whole class such as through small in-class focus groups, working with a volunteer, time in the program's computer learning lab, assistance obtaining self-study materials, or referral to other programs. The class plan is revisited each time a unit is completed to remind the learners where they have been and where they are going and to enable the teacher to make changes or adjustments to content or instruction as new needs are uncovered.

CONCLUSION

Needs assessment can take many forms and can be carried out at different times during the instructional process. Whatever the focus and format, the basic purpose is to determine what learners want and need to learn. When curriculum content, materials, and teaching approaches match learners' perceived and actual needs, learner motivation and success are enhanced.

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USAGE OF SELF-ASSESSMENT IN TEACHING TO RAISE THE MOTIVATION OF STUDENTS

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Abstract

Student self-assessment is very important in contemporary teaching, especially when we deal with teaching children in school. Understanding the importance of learning is a difficult process and when it comes to children and adolescents, it is hard to convince them to study. In order to keep a student motivated, we need to make sure that the learner understands the importance of teaching based on the individual needs that she or he has. Our paper proposes the wide usage of self-assessment in the process of teaching to create incentives for learning. In order to evaluate the needs of a particular learner, a teacher needs to help the learner recognize his or her own learning needs. Thus linking the teaching material and activities to the particular needs will raise the motivation of a student, making the teaching a better experience.

Our paper is a description of the difficulty of the process of self-assessment of learning needs, and the ways a teacher can help a student evaluate own needs. It reports a case study performed in two stages at primary, middle and high school level and demonstrates the outcomes received further in the teaching process.

Keywords: student-centered teaching and learning, self-assessment rubric, learning motivation, student partner

Introduction

Contemporary teaching aims to accomplish the goal of creating a knowledge-based society and Georgia being one of the reformers attempts to implement changes that drive us towards the lifelong learning. In order to have a knowledge-based society, the whole concept of knowledge has to be modified and the understanding of the goals of teaching should be analyzed.

In doing so, one needs to influence the perception of a knowledge recipient that will result in taking up more responsibility over the learning process. The process of learning should

no longer be teacher centered, when a teacher is the only one active, imposing the instructions on students, obliging them to do certain tasks because they will later on be graded for them.

Instead a more student-centered model is proposed, when student is the focus and the obtaining of the knowledge revolves around the student, making the recipient active and thus more motivated in the process of learning.

Student-centered learning has its specific features when we talk about the general education, and especially when we talk about the primary education. It is easier to raise the motivation of a student in university, even the high school because they possess some degree of knowledge intelligence and can judge what is desired in their best interests. They voluntarily sacrifice their time and do tasks that they believe will benefit them later in life. On the other hand, when we talk about a primary school student with major focus on entertainment, it becomes absolutely impossible for the teacher alone to try to keep the student motivated.

The literature proposes several tools to raise the motivation of students and among them are the student-centered rubrics that rank the highest. (James and Hearn 2008) Other more short-term motivators are setting of learning targets, student portfolios and student-led conferences.

Learning targets are very useful and are also good in short-term periods, for example at the beginning of the lesson. A teacher clearly proposes a lesson aim or aims and students agree on working towards attaining this one aim or several particular aims. This lesson aim is usually spelled out on the upper corner of the board, or on a special poster prepared by the teacher beforehand for a visual representation. Having reached an aim by the end of the lesson gives students an incentive and they fully understand the reason behind the activities performed at the lesson. Here the drawbacks may be the persuasion of students into following the tasks and the importance of the aim. So each aim has to be linked to individual needs of the members within the class.

Student-led conferences are not something of recent development. (Wiggins, Grant 1996) Old style teaching had long exercised these kinds of conferences, calling them “open lesson” when the parent, mostly the grandparent was invited to the actual lesson and monitored the material that students had mastered. This practice is very common among the primary school students and is a powerful tool for motivation. As students grow older, they are no longer

connected to their parents as close as they had been before, so they prefer not to be monitored by parents, especially in the adolescence period. So what the teacher can do is prepare a research based conference when students come up with something creative and something they would be proud of to show to parents to amaze or surprise them.

Student portfolios are vital if teacher wants to monitor the progress (Frey et al, 2012). The results of the tests, or some tasks that students have performed are kept by the teacher till the end of the study year but when each student has a portfolio the composition of which is coordinated together with a student, a student takes the responsibility to enrich the portfolio and is proud that s/he possesses many interesting things to show. This can work for all ages starting from the primary school, when students are happy to include every of their drawings in the portfolio to the high school students which start to collect their personal achievements in order to apply later to universities and other educational institutions.

The topic of our further discussion is the rubrics for student self-assessment. These rubrics are addressed for the students to evaluate their own educational needs and later on monitor the progress of learning. Giving a student an autonomy for assessing own needs involve the difficulties, namely students rarely develop any perceptible intellectual independence, there are no intellectual standards to assess their thinking with and the students are unwilling to take responsibility of learning.

Taking responsibility on one's knowledge means being accountable for the outcome, thus makes a student active and shifts the center of learning from the teacher to a student. The readiness to do so is very rare in especially the societies that are more social oriented. The ones that care more about the group they are in rather than their individual selves. So encouraging a student to individually assess his/her needs and skills may be a failure if the student is not ready to do so (Bruce, 2001). A family plays a major role in triggering responsibility at an early stage of life and later the school can take the responsibility of bringing up a generation that feels accountable for its own activities.

Usually even if a student is ready to become a partner in the teaching-learning process still there is a problem of intellectual independence. They simply are unaware of the demands and the criteria to evaluate their needs by. When they struggle with understanding what is asked

in the rubric, they simply rely on the answers given by their peers, so in this case the peer influence is still very strong and students prefer a social rather than an individual approach to filling out the rubrics of self-assessment (Saddler, Andrade 2004).

Another issue in terms of self-assessment is intellectual standards to assess the thinking of the students. Here the question arises about whether the best students should be chosen by the criteria of their high academic performance or all the students should be included. If we chose only the students with high academic performance then we will not be able to obtain the reliable information about what is it that the students actually lack. So filtering students in this case may not be a useful strategy.

Students' Self-Evaluation

Having discussed the tools for motivating students to study more, we at Georgian-American High decided that the educational programs that the schools offered should have been designed depending on the individual needs of the students. Student self-assessment was decided to be the best way to meet the students' needs ones they were tracked with the help of the students him/herself. This would give us a better insight in the particular difficulties encountered by a student and a more student-centered approach which would have been more motivating for the students.

The project involved designing the rubrics for students to assess their own learning needs and later on using these assessments to plan the program of teaching, choose the study material and the activities that would enable the teacher and the student to satisfy the particular needs. During the project we encountered problems which were mentioned above and we had to have students re-assess their needs by the help of the samples they were given when filling in the rubrics. This gave us a more realistic picture than before. After that the needs were used to design the study process for the year.

Stage 1 – Design of Self-Assessment Rubric

National Educational Plan proposed by the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia offers detailed instructions on the aims of the teaching for each individual subject. Having the ready guidelines we prepared a combination of the aims of the subject. In English language we prepared four separate rubrics of: Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening and each rubric contained ten questions. These questions were general and they were aimed at student evaluating their own knowledge and understanding of the subject.

The major problem with the results was that the reliability of the answers was under question. The reasons of this concern were: a. students did not understand some of the questions, b. they did not spend enough time in reading and realizing the questions asked, c. the students deliberately avoided the negative answers not to be seen as outcasts in the group.

Many of the students admitted that not having understood the questions they copied the answers from their friends or filled the questions automatically not giving a thorough thought to

their contents. For example, when answering a question like: “Are you able to identify the main arguments of the reader?”. Students, not being aware of the word argument itself were puzzled and could not tell a difference between examples brought by the writer of the argument s/he used. Not being able to distinguish between an example and an argument itself means that students should have circled the “No” answer but since students had higher self-esteem and evaluated their understanding higher, not admitting that they had not understood a particular question marked the “sometimes” or even “yes” answer instead.

Other group later said that they were not prepared for judging themselves, that it was the task of the teacher to do so, and were reluctant to following the instruction of the teacher. An attitude is very important especially when we talk about self-judging. No matter how ready we say we are to the process of change in education system, we are still resistant to taking the responsibility. Students still prefer teacher centered teaching and a ready-made theoretical material which they consume directly without the difficulty of analytical thinking. This is not an ultimate goal of education and what we strive to do is shift the teacher centered approach to more student based one to enable students think analytically, judge, criticize and take an ownership of their education and the process as a whole.

The third group had even a more serious problem, they resisted mentioning negative answers. To give you a better example, let me mention one question out of the rubric: “When listening to a text, are you able to identify the main idea of the text?” Many students would consider the inability to identify the main idea as a drawback or even a shame and not wanting to admit they would avoid marking the “No” answer because they did not want to be pointed out as the ones who lacked a skill. Among some it was shameful to admit that they were unable to identify the main idea, making them look impaired in front of the whole class.

Stage 2 – Samples for Specification

In order to clarify the questions in the self-assessment rubrics, we came up with a solution to offer students a sample of the activities which would ensure their understanding of the questions and test their ability to assess themselves. For each direction: Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking students were given tasks each task corresponding the question in the rubric. This would help a student test the understanding of the skill and the need.

As an example, a text was given: “Learning is more fun when we use videos in the class. We like watching them and discussing our ideas. We learn new facts, vocabulary and it is easy.” Later a multiple choice question was given: “What is the main idea of the text?” This directly corresponded to the first question on reading evaluation rubric which states: “I can identify the main idea of the text” (choose: yes, no, partly). After checking the answer to the text, each student would check the answer to the rubric and if the student had answered that s/he generally could understand the main idea of the text, but failed to answer a particular task, then the student together with the teacher changed the answer to the rubric. The same was done for the listening activity.

As for the speaking activity, a student was given a topic and the criteria for evaluation, which matched the questions in the rubric perfectly, and the teacher together with the student evaluated the speaking and eventually the rubric was reviewed. Writing topic was given to students and teacher evaluated the writing according to the criteria listed in the rubric, so once again the faults and the educational needs of the students were revealed.

The results of the sampling activity were different from the initial results and the reliability of the self-assessment was no longer under question. The second stage had significant impact on students as well. Teacher having explained all the questions in the rubrics evoked the interest in students and they were more willing to test their skills. Having seen a sample to test their abilities with made the purpose of self-evaluation clearer and thus created an incentive for the learners. The teacher encouraging students that “no” answers were nothing to be ashamed of was also a decisive factor when reviewing the answers. The fact that the self-assessment was given so much time and effort convinced many to approach the task more seriously and take the ownership of their own education process.

Stage 3 – Setting Specific Learning Goals

After students and teachers assessing the needs, the specific learning goals were designed. In doing so, a. the curricula was redesigned, b. student needs were prioritized and c. main and additional sources were arranged for the subject.

Usually what teachers at schools do is choose a main course book that is recommended or even in some cases made compulsory by the ministry of education and just follow the teachers' book that was been supplemented by the author. Teachers' books are good but they are general and can give a teacher a good start especially when a teacher is at the starting stage of career. When designing a concrete main course set the authors usually try to consider all the possible student needs and adapt the chapters accordingly, giving a variety of activities and extra tasks for the teacher to choose from. No matter how well the main course set is planned, we still need to adopt the material to a particular group of learners. In our case we had the needs that were apparent and redesigned the sequence of the topics and tasks accordingly. This required the teachers to jump from topic to a topic and rearrange the parts according to the individual needs of the students.

In some cases, specific group of needs were identified that was problematic for majority of the group so in some classes we changed the hour distribution of the course. For example one of the class revealed difficulty in writing, whereas another class in listening. So among the six total hours a week two hours were given in listening for one group and two hours writing for the second. We even had one group that had high listening skills' needs and the group was divided into two, for the teachers to work better with each student in a lesser dense class.

In cases where the main course book did not cover enough activities for particular students' needs, a teacher had possibility to prepare additional sources and offer a variety of activities for the students to choose from. Authentic material like newspaper articles, magazine publications or ongoing online debates was prepared for the students. Preparation of material that matched perfectly the need of a learner was very motivating for the teachers, because they exactly knew which student they aimed the activities at and it was more enjoyable to please them while teaching. On the other side, the students also felt motivated, because they knew that the teacher was putting a great effort in their individual development, eventually making them eager to learn better.

The rubrics later were kept by the students and a teacher and periodically reviewed together. When a certain need was met, the student or a teacher would make notes on the specific question of the rubric and both the teacher and the student were satisfied. On the contrary, if after a particular period of time a need that had to be satisfied was not, it signaled a teacher and a

student that the material or the activities provided was not successful, so something had to be changed.

Recommendations

A commitment to delivering a high quality education is a long term agreement which needs a thorough planning and involvement of all stakeholders in the process. The management commitment alone is not sufficient to success in this long process, what is needed is the detailed supervision, specific instructions and regular feedback.

Considering all the difficulties of assessing oneself, especially when we consider the age of the respondents, there are some recommendations that we as a school can give to the implementer. If we divide the process into stages, then the primary focus should be made on the preparation of the rubrics itself, the next is filling of the rubrics and then the final and very important stage is the feedback itself.

The main cornerstone of student centered learning is the partnership between the student and the teacher. In our case the understanding of the rubric is important, because if students perceive the rubrics difficult, then they are reluctant to cooperate. When preparing the questions, as we encountered several problems with the understanding of the main ideas and the requirements of particular task, we recommend that the language of the questions be reduced in the level of difficulty. If some of the students or all the students are involved in the designing process, this raises the commitment of learners, making them more motivated to cooperate.

We mentioned that usually people fear the changes because they cannot completely understand the task to be performed. Instructions are vital in order to have a more reliable data. In our case due to the lack of understanding and the wrong attitude of the students we encountered the problem of reliability of the data and what we needed to do is prepare the sample tasks which would clear out the questions asked to the students. This led to a month detail of the reports and the teaching process itself was interrupted. So the recommendation of thorough description and guidelines will save the time and at the same time guarantee the reliability of the results.

The significance of the self-assessment is in its efficient use later on as a helper in the educational process. The portfolio that students use in the educational process should include the self-assessment which is to be reviewed time to time monitoring the progress and giving concrete feedback to each individual student. As we mentioned above if a particular need is not met than the teacher together with the student should change the teaching tasks or the material in order to meet the particular need and satisfy it.

All in all, the advantages of self-assessment are what lead to enhancing the teaching. This gives us possibility to have a healthier atmosphere in the classroom. In order to have one both sides should serve as partners, motivated to overcome the difficulties associated with the process of teaching and learning. Having active students all into the study process makes the experience more pleasant and the outcomes more appealing.

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Britain IN THE EARLY AND MID-NINETEENTH – YEARS OF POWER AND DANGER

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Abstract

The history of Britain has witnessed times of competition and cooperation between the people that inhabited the various parts of the country. Britain has been shaped by centuries of conflict between its nations, state and church. The Power of Britain was increasing century by century. Despite social inequality at home and rapidly increasing industrial rivals overseas, Britain could claim to be the world's superpower during the Victorian era. This era represents its political and social unrest (Lambert, 2012). The paper aims to present the overall picture of Britain in the nineteenth century - the years of power and danger.

Key words: History of Britain, power, danger, Victorian Era, liberalism, industry, social changes, politics and reform

Introduction

Not long before the 19th century, a war of independence in U.S. deprived Britain from its most important American colonies. At the beginning of the century, the country was involved in a war with France, which threatened the country with the possible invasion by a French army. But at the end of the century, Britain controlled the biggest empire in the world (O' Driscoll, 2013).

Political strategy

Throughout the centuries the Britain's main concern was to strengthen its navy and trade routes. But later, in the 19th century, the concern moved to other aspects as well.

First of all Britain enjoyed a strong position in Europe after the defeat of Napoleon, and its ambition during the 19th century compromised two main things: a `` balance of power`` and a free market. The first would prevent any single nation from becoming too strong, and the second would give Britain a clear advantage in industrial and trade superiority (McDowall, 2010).

By encouraging the recovery of France to balance the power of Austria, supporting Turkey against Russian expansion in Mediterranean region, protecting Belgium against stronger neighbors, helping Greeks achieving their freedom from Turkish empire, supporting Italian independence against both Austrian and French interests, also succeeding in obtaining large arias in Africa by the treaty of 1890s, and in addition establishing new white colonies in Canada, Australia and New Zealand, Britain , however, succeeded in the first aim (McDowall, 2010).

To defend its second interest, Britain managed to keep its ships of its navy in almost every ocean of the world. Due to taking over and occupying a number of places during the war against Napoleon, which included Mauritius (Indian

Ocean), the Ionian Islands (the eastern Mediterranean), Sierra Leone (west Africa), Cape Colony (south Africa), Ceylon, and Singapore, this aim was also achieved (McDowall, 2010).

All the facts mentioned above mirrors, that by the end of the century Britain's empire was political rather than commercial, controlling large areas of the world, and most of the colonies established during this century were more to do with political control than with trading for profit.

Industry

Another reason that made Britain powerful and self confident lays in its industry.

In the middle nineteenth, Britain owned enough coal, iron and steel for its enormous industry. Moreover, it exported them in large quantities to other European countries. To show the world how great and powerful was Britain's industry, in 1851 Queen Victoria opened the Great Exhibition of the Industries of All Nations inside the Crystal Palace, in London (McDowall, 2010).

Besides, coal, iron and steel industry, Britain became famous for its iron ships and steam engines, cheap woolen and cotton cloth destroying the local cloth industry in India, and the Middle East. Britain's great industrial empire was supported by a strong banking system which was developed during the eighteenth century (McDowall, 2010).

One of the greatest examples of the country's industrial power was the railway system of mid-nineteenth, which was almost completed by 1870. At first time it was meant to transport goods in order to reduce the cost of the transport and its speed even made possible the delivery of fresh fish and raspberries from Scotland to London in one night. Later, in 1851, the railway companies started providing passenger trains for a fare of one penny per mile (McDowall, 2010).

It's worth mentioning, that the development of the industry had an effect on social life of the population. By 1914, the population of Britain was over 40 million. The growth of the middle class and the movement of people to the towns forced a change both in political balance and society (McDowall, 2010).

The growing towns were dominated by the railways, and this supported the creation of a nationally integrated economy (Matthew, 2009).

The social changes

Politics and government during 19th century was increasingly transferred into the hands of the middle class. However, working class still remained without a proper voice. If before the middle class represented a small class of merchants, traders and small farmers, in the 19th century it included the people who worked in church, law, medicine, the civil service, diplomatic service, army, navy, and banking (McDowall, 2010).

The emergence of railway made it possible for middle class to live in suburbs and travel into the city every day. Soon, poor people followed the middle class to the suburbs, where they lived in small houses. Many of poor women started work as ``servants`` in the houses of middle class and got involved in ``service`` rather than in farming or in the cloth industry (McDowall, 2010).

As Victorian age was a time of great social movement, it is notable that the offspring of the factory owners tend to be involved in banking and commerce rather than in industry. Some of them went into professions and received

knighthoods or became lords and joined the upper class. The middle class offspring got the advantage to be educated in fee-paying ``public schools``. These schools prepared the officers for armed forces, the colonial administration and the civil service (McDowall, 2010).

Danger at home

While Britain was strengthening its positions in the world, the domestic situation was in greater danger until 1850. After Napoleonic Wars, when the peace was reached in 1815, there was the decline on the demand on factory –made goods. Many people lost jobs; about 300,000 men from Britain’s army and navy were left jobless. The cheaper imported corn lessened the income of landowners. The cost of bread rose quickly and increased the price of almost every product. The overall situation raised the threat of riots in the country. The need to reform the law in order to improve social conditions was inevitable (McDowall, 2010).

Politics and reforms at home

England in the 1850s was increasingly urban, secular, and increasingly non-Anglican in tone. Mid-Victorian politics pointed towards Liberalism (Matthew, 2009).

In the mid-nineteenth, there was the disagreement between Tories, Whigs and radicals about the power. The Tories supported the idea that Parliament should represent the property owners. The radicals believed that Parliament represents the people. While the Whigs, who later became known as Liberals, wanted enough change to avoid revolution (McDowall, 2010).

The keynotes of mid-Victorian liberalism were represented by Individualism, self-reliance, self-respect, and the organization of voluntary and co-operative societies (Matthew, 2009).

The government was saved partly by the skill of the Prime minister of that time – Robert Peel- who believed in slow but steady changes. In 1840 he was able to improve economic conditions of the country. In 1846 he abolished the Corn Law of 1815, which kept the price of corn higher than necessary. Peel also introduces the police force in London in 1829, to cope with the crime, which was the mark of poverty that time (McDowall, 2010).

In 1865 , Due to the Reform of 1832 , which increased the number of voters in each part of Britain, ``two party`` system was introduced in the parliament. The two parties, Tory (conservative) and Liberal, developed greater party organization and order. There was also the change in political leaders, because it became possible to choose MP from commercial rather than from landowning class (McDowall, 2010).

In 1860 Jewish were treated equally as other citizens. In 1868 the trade union achieved the worker representation in Parliament. In 1870s there was the rapid decrease of wages in many factories which led to more strikes than before. The representation of trade union in Parliament led to the formation of the Labor party (McDowall, 2010).

Conclusion

All above mentioned facts give us the right to consider, that by the end of the century British Empire was political rather than commercial, controlling large areas of the world. Hereby, it’s worth mentioning that, notwithstanding the

danger of revolution in the country, for the much of the nineteenth century, Britain was the most powerful and industrialized country in Europe, and remained the envy of the world.

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HOW READERS DEFINE AND RECOGNIZE SYMBOLS IN LITERARY WORKS:

AGE EFFECT

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Abstract

Recent studies suggest that it is significant to know the conceptual framework and function of a symbol. Meanings of symbols, their layers of meaning, semantic implications, ramifications and perception change in space and time. The aim of this study was to investigate how the readers of different nationalities define symbols, identify them in literary works, and interpret them. Results suggested that age influences readers in identifying symbols. The younger readers suggest a lot of symbols. Older readers named less symbols. In addition, cultural background, gender, and age influenced symbol recognition as well.

Key words: semiotics, symbols, literature, recognition of symbols, age effect on symbol recognition, natural symbols, artificial symbols, and philosophical symbols

Introduction

Semiotics is the study of signs. "Semiotics" is concerned with everything that can be taken as a sign (Eco, 1976). It involves the study of anything which 'stands for' something else or what we refer to as 'signs' in everyday speech. Contemporary semioticians study signs as part of semiotic 'sign-systems' (Such as a medium or genre). They study how meanings are made, how reality is represented. As an approach to textual analysis, semiotics is one approach among other approaches, such as rhetorical analysis, discourse analysis and content analysis (Chandler, 2003).

Symbols in general are not semantically static. They are contextualized, historicized because their meanings, layers of meaning, semantic implications, ramifications and perception are likely to change in space and time, and from one author to another. Balla (2012) differentiates three distinctive conceptual frameworks of a symbol: idiosyncratic or private, transcendental, and holistic. Personal or private symbols, those created by the poet belong to this framework. In transcendental

framework symbols are not created but discovered and generated by Neo-Platonist tradition which considers that poetry transcends the universe of appearances and apprehends divine truth itself. Holistic framework synthesizes several approaches: quest, intuition and mysticism. Here symbols are discovered out of research, sheer intuition and mysticism/spiritualism. There are three major types of symbols: natural symbols, artificial symbols, and philosophical symbols (Balla, 2012). Natural symbols are generated from nature. Artificial symbols are those that are created conventionally by society: philosophical symbols are those that challenge our critical thinking.

Brittan (2003) claims that the authorial intentions/the idea of being is connected with the idea of perception, “There are no “given” we can rely on; and we should in fact allow for every possible interpretation in every possible context.” He states that “we have no way of being sure about authorial intentions, we can limit our possible readings and contexts to the most likely or least unlikely, as we found it sensible. There is a kind of game between text and interpreter and in which the text drops certain hints to let the interpreter know what is going on.” According to Brittan each reader will have personal variations on this state of mind, but only up to a point and only within a general context. He argued that our experience will always influence our interpretations, but the claim that we must interpret only in the context of that experience is untrue. Perception and association lead in interpretation of figurative language.

The current research

The goal of the paper was to investigate how readers recognize symbols and interpret them in literary works; if symbols help them to guess the author’s intent and hidden idea. In my research I tried to find out how different factors influence recognition and interpretation of symbols and understanding of the author’s intent. These factors were gender, nationality, age, education, occupation, and knowledge of other languages. In this paper the age factor affecting symbol recognition is discussed.

The assumption was made that age of a reader influences recognition of symbols. For this factor a research question was defined: At what age do readers recognize more symbols? According to Brittan, if our experience always influences our interpretations, then readers who are more experienced are better at recognizing and interpreting symbols and vice versa; readers who lack experience are bad at identifying and interpreting symbols. If we connect age with gained experience, then the hypothesis is that aged people are better at identifying and inferring symbol meanings than younger people. The research was aimed at comparing the answers of readers from

different age groups. The first step was to check how well readers recognize symbols, the words that stood for something else. The focus was the number of symbols named by each reader. Even though the named words might not be symbols, they were admitted as ‘symbols’ by the readers. The readers’ experience, perception, and association played role in identifying the symbols. By comparing the answers of these various age groups, it would enable me to conclude which age group is free for interpretation, has more associations and rich perception, and is better at recognizing symbols.

Participants

The method of the research was survey. An e-questionnaire form was designed and sent online to participants. 25 people participated in the survey: 20 females and 5 males: There were 16 Georgians, 9 foreigners (5 - Americans, 1 - German, 1 - Belgium, 1 - Polish, 1 - British). The participants belonged to 4 different age groups: I group (17-24) – 5 participants, II age group (25-35) - 13 participants; III group (36-49) – 3 participants, IV group (50 and more) – 4 participants. The participants were divided into different groups by an education level. 5 participants had BA degree; 10 - MA; 9- PhD.

Materials

The questionnaire consisted of three parts 1) General information about the participant, 2) The reading task, 3) Post-reading questions about symbols. In the first section readers indicated their gender, age, education, occupation the number of languages they spoke, how often they read for pleasure. For the reading task Kate Chopin’s story “A story of an hour” was chosen. In order to avoid searching it online by readers and reading reviews about the story, it was decided to remove the title and the author’s name from the text and include only the text of the story. In post reading section the readers defined the word ‘symbol’, listed the symbols they met in the text and interpreted them. At the end of questionnaire they explained how symbols helped or hampered to understand author’s intent. The results were analyzed by SPSS. Participants were grouped under the categories of education, age, gender, etc. The number of symbols listed by each participant was counted and juxtaposed with the age of participants.

Results

The answers were processed and the means of listed symbols in each group was calculated. The results showed that younger people from the age group I and II named more symbols. They tend to recognize and assume more words/things as symbols. The participants in III and IV groups listed less symbols.

Age groups	N Participants	Number of symbols/means
I group (17-24)	5	4
II group (25-35)	13	4
III group (36-45)	3	3
IV group (50-more)	4	≈3,3

The reading process during this reading task was different experience for the readers. They had to scan the text and analyze each word and sentence. They had to stop at each word and ask themselves if the word stood for something else.

The symbols identified by I and II groups are - open square; spring; joy; Goddess of Victory; elixir of life; open window; coursing blood; rain; blue sky; clouds; go to the west; Mr. Mallard; Mrs. Mallard; the closed room; the keyhole; breath; storm of grief; lines; birds' singing; heart trouble/disease; prayer; sparrow; dull stare; feverish triumph; 'free'; joy; the chair facing the window; trees; peddler; kind, tender hands; comfortable, roomy armchair; umbrella.

The symbols listed by the participants in III and IV groups – spring; cloud; rain; Goddess of Victory; a dull stare; moment of illumination; patches of blue sky; doors & windows; the tops of the trees; distant song.

Considering that older people are more experienced, the research revealed that they were more realistic and didn't look for hidden meanings. On the other hand, the first two age groups tend to look for more symbols as young people were more mystical and philosophical and made far more assumptions, which may have been caused by their inexperience. It can be concluded that the younger the readers are, the more uncertain they are in classifying symbols; thus, they assume more words/things as symbols. Younger people are free for interpretations, have more associations and

rich perception, while older people are better at recognizing symbols. However, the findings still need to be analyzed in relation with other factors, such as education level, gender, occupation, etc.

One of the limitations of the study was a small group of sample; second, even though the text did not have the title and the author's name, there is a doubt that the participants used online resources to obtain the interpretations of the symbols in the story. To remediate the limitations, the research is ongoing and it will help me to have sound findings in terms of all factors.

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ENLIGHTENMENT IN EDUCATION AND LITERATURE

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Abstract

The paper discusses issues of Enlightenment and literature. As today we speak so much of knowledge-based society, it is interesting to see the roots of this idea, which largely lie in the Enlightenment era. Advantages and limitations of this period are shown. The support of historical and literary evidence brings the author to the conclusion that education and literature were modified according to the needs of the dynamic political and economic conditions of the time.

Key words: Enlightenment, role of education, atheism, deism, pantheism and a mechanic and materialistic approach, philosophy of Enlightenment, tabula rasa, gaining knowledge through experience

As today we speak so much of knowledge-based society, it is interesting to see the roots of this idea.

‘The Enlightenment’ was an intellectual movement which originated in France and England, usually associated with the 18th century, although its roots go back much further. The participants of that historical movement believed in human reason that could be used as a weapon against ignorance, medieval superstition and tyranny; that would enlighten the compatriots to build a better world. The main source for tyranny of the period was religion (Catholic Church in France) and hereditary aristocracy dominating the society. It does not mean that the humanists wanted to get rid of religious influence; they wanted to shore up every aspect of faith with logics. But logic was not enough to defeat all the fanaticism and absurd of the period. The Enlightenment thinkers used ‘reasoning’ as a force against dogmatic Catholic Church, which was a combination of common sense and personal observation of the world with all skepticism and freedom of thought banned in the era dominated by religious fear.

The humanists, previously the followers of the Renaissance, wanted to recapture ancient Greek and Roman creativity, spirit of intellectual freedom and move beyond them (Brians, 1998). They tried to reflect the previous time where search for truth was not so restrictive.

The attribution of the word “Enlightenment” was initiated by Voltaire, as a metaphor of revealing a light, which was used as an iconography to the Encyclopaedie of D’Alembert and Diderot (What Enlightenment, 2011).

The investigation about the origination of the concept “Enlightenment” tracked me back to the philosophy of German scholar Immanuel Kant, who talked about “enlightenment” long before the actual era. The evidence comes from the question “What is Enlightenment?” printed as a competition in a Berlin Journal in 1783 and Kant’s answer which received the most attention (What Enlightenment, 2011). According to Kant, enlightenment was “a maturing of mankind in its ability to be able to think for itself”. Despite the fact it was later limited to “you can think as much as you like as long as you obey”, that was the first step into asking vital questions: why had the public received so little Enlightenment, and even so, was it really a good idea to let them have any more?

It seemed that Enlightenment was a result of a long historical process across Europe that challenged the domination of theological thinking, posed science and logic against traditional beliefs.

Later, journeys and printed academic works made it possible for the intellectuals and scholars to exchange the ideas and spread the new philosophy. The characteristics of the late Enlightenment period included atheism, deism, pantheism and a mechanic and materialistic approach to explain the natural world.

In 1951 the word Enlightenment was first used to describe a unity of historical thought in the eighteenth century, in a book translated from the 1932 German version from the posthumous Cassirer (What Enlightenment, 2011).

Broadly the term Enlightenment stands for the knowledge acquisition though awakening the ancient wisdom, broad-mindedness, posing it against ignorance and confusion of the Dark Middle Ages.

Irrespective the limits, the Enlightenment developed international standards of natural law which became attractive for oppressed people everywhere.

Enlightenment in England

The reception of Enlightenment into England was done through the cooperation between French and English philosophers, Voltaire among them. Supported by the thinkers like Scott David Hume and John Locke, Great Britain developed the Enlightenment in its own way. English Enlightenment was marked by certain openness towards change. Contrary to France, the power of church and aristocracy was gradually diminished.

Education during the Enlightenment

John Locke, an English philosopher and one of the initiators of the Enlightenment in England, is famous for his ideas about educating the youth. Being the author of several educational essays he coined the terms which are frequently used in the contemporary pedagogy. In *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding* dated back to 1690, he expressed the idea that the knowledge originates in experience, which was written against the doctrine that reasoning is innate. But prior to the experience the human mind was considered to be a ‘blank tablet’ (tabula rasa) which contradicted the idea of inborn intellect. However, John Locke believed in a varied intellectual potential.

The most part of the forthcoming educational doctrines were based on Locke’s empiricism, which meant learning through experience. The teacher provided the pupils with an example of proper thought and behavior, upbringing the child in a strict sense. The child was going through the activity later understanding the meaning of it. It was believed to cultivate rationalism and reasoning in the child to up-bring practical generation. According to Locke’s *Of the Conduct of the Understanding* it is clear that understanding comes only with careful practice (Education, 2013). This attitude was innovative not only to his time, but even later in the XX century.

The Enlightenment period marked by the strive for intellectual freedom was not more than a preparatory process; the main changes occurred no earlier than the next century, marked through the reign of Queen Victoria.

Enlightenment literature: Defoe and Swift

The great writers of the period were Daniel Defoe and Jonathan Swift. As it may seem there is nothing in common between the novels Robinson Crusoe and Gulliver's Travels, the reader should dig deeper into the details in order to find the main motives. Both authors underline the individualism of the main characters of the novels. For them individual freedom is a top priority. The values of the society shifted from the common good to the individual pursuit of happiness.

Victorian Era in England

The Victorian era generally begins in the year Victoria became Queen (1837) and lasts through her reign till 1901, though these dates are sometimes slightly modified. The Victorian age is extremely diverse and complex, marked by a rapid change and developments in almost every field. Though that time is usually associated with "prudishness" and "repression", the Era is sometimes called the Second English Renaissance (Miller, n.d.).

As Britain expanded imperial powers, the use of the English language outside Europe was increased, which in turn increased the exchange in knowledge and ideology.

The large segment of Victorian English middle-class was increasing in number and social power. The old hierarchical order was demolished and the upper class now was a combination of nobility and commercial class. The concepts of "lady" and "gentleman" have changed. Now the gentleman was someone receiving education in a liberal school.

One of the characteristics of the Victorian Age is a sense of social responsibility. The poet Matthew Arnold, for example, refused to publish his poem "Empedocles on Etna", in which the Greek philosopher throws himself into the volcano, because it was setting a bad example. (Victorian England: An Introduction, n.d.) For women the "proper behavior" was an especially vulnerable topic. The constrained character of the 19th century Britain was dictated by the ideology of separation of social spheres of life according to gender, the private sphere was assigned to women, and the business, commerce and politics to the men. The youth was educated accordingly to these two spheres.

Victorian Education

Education during the Victorian period was unequal in every aspect. Victorian middle class boys and girls did not have the opportunity of going to school. Education was only for the privileged,

but even they had limited options. Primary education for boys started at home, until they were old enough to attend a Public School. Graduating from Public Schools future governmental officials would attend Oxford, while Cambridge produced more scholars. It was never compulsory to attend school, neither legally nor socially. Ladies continued to be educated at home by governesses. Later they could attend a boarding school, but no woman could study at the university.

Victorian Literature

Literary schools flourished, the importance of literature can be easily compared to the importance of Shakespeare's plays for the Elizabethan era.

The great novelists of the time were Sir Walter Scott, Emily, Anne, and Charlotte Bronte, Anthony Trollope, William Makepeace Thackeray and, of course, Charles Dickens. The noteworthy characteristic of the period was the fight for social advancement, which was taking many forms. The drive for financial advancement is the main topic for Charles Dickens's *Great Expectations*, marriage between unequal social classes – for Charlotte Bronte's *Jane Eyre*. But the main social advancement was always intellectual and education-based.

The support of historical and literary evidence brings me to the conclusion that education was modified according to the needs of the dynamic political and economic conditions in the world. No matter what period of time, there was always a demand for well-educated youth, which was in their turn the drive force for the innovations.

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ADULT LEARNERS AND CHALLENGES IN STUDY PROCESS

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Abstract

The article deals with the problem of adult teaching foreign languages. Adults don't learn like children. Adults are more discerning in what they are willing to learn, more questioning, and more resentful of being told what to learn. They need to see more clearly how what they are being asked to learn will benefit them; for adults, learning is much more utilitarian than it is for children. If we examine personal and cognitive development and compare teaching approaches, we see that children tend to be dependent learners, whereas adults need to be independent and exercise control. Based on this topic I made a survey among different Institutes and came to an interesting conclusion, about which I'll speak at the end Adult learners need to be independent. It would be helpful if we, teachers, often use open-ended questions and provide many opportunities for dialogue among them. We must also pay attention to learners assessment. Questions, we put them and comments, we make, must be done with respect. We must avoid irritation of learners and promote their participation with encouraging words.

Key words and phrases: adult teaching foreign languages, Individuals are most effective, remember things best by seeing something, discussions, and reading aloud, responsibilities.

Introduction:

Individuals are most effective when they are taught in their personal learning style. There are several diverse views on learning styles and related literature:

- **Visual learners** are those who generally think in pictures. They often prefer to see things written down in a handout, text, on an overhead or PowerPoint slides. They remember things best by seeing something.
- **Auditory Learners** are those who generally learn best by listening. They typically like to learn through lectures, discussions, and reading aloud.

- **Kinesthetic Learners** remember best by writing or physically manipulating the information.

“Adult learn best when they are treated like adults. Mutual respect, trust, comfort, collaboration and freedom to participate should characterize their learning environment. To create an effective learning environment for our learners, we have to take into consideration the following ones:

- Adults have less time available to be engaged in learning due to their many responsibilities. The time they spend in training sessions must be viewed as a worthwhile investment.
- Pressures of normal day-to-day takes limit the adult’s attention span.
- Adults do not necessarily view the trainer as an authority figure, but rather as a resource for information.
- An adult’s willingness to learn is not related to his or her ability to learn.
- Adults do not view themselves as learners; they are parents, spouses, breadwinners, and/or professionals.
- People do things for their own reasons.“ (Kelly, 2010).

Body:

Besides choosing a variety of teaching materials and methods (taking into account differences in style, time, types and pace of learning) we should care about comfortable learning environment for our learners. Because we know that our physical state affects our capacity to learn. Physique and intelligence are related because our bodies influence how and whether we can learn. So, we have to make learning space as comfortable as possible. It is preferable that no one has to look directly into sunlight and make sure there is enough overhead lighting. If we use flip chart, we must use large letters when writing on it. I think it would be also good if we seat people so that they can see each other well. This will help participants to be engaged in discussion and learn more from each other. Hearing is also very important to make learning environment fully comfortable. We should design our space so that we can always be heard by our learners and so that they can hear each other too. If we have large class we can use microphones. As for us, teachers, we should speak in clear, loud and distinct tones.

Challenges in Study Process

Adults' emotional states are inextricably tied up in their ability to learn. To learn, an adult must be emotionally comfortable with the learning situation. In helping a person learn, the teacher must be able to help create a positive emotional climate, and the key to that state is one's *self-image*. Although most adults come to a class mentally ready to learn, at the same time they may be inhibited for learning by a poor self-image. That poor self-concept may not be correct, may not be rational, but nevertheless exists in many people. It comes from various sources. A shy person may feel unable to participate to meet the expectations of others in the class. A manager who has been turned down for several promotions may feel trapped in a dead-end job and doubt the value of learning anything. A housewife who has stayed at home with children for many years may feel she is not current or informed enough to converse on an adult level again. Someone who has been out of school for several decades may feel incapable of studying any more and may fear being left far behind the other students. The causes of a less than sensitive self-image are many. They stem from natural feelings about inadequacy and growing older and some that are induced artificially by society (Draves, 2003). To my mind it is also very important to take the following points into considerations. While entering in the new group, we must remember one proverb: "First impressions are the most lasting!" Thus, first class sessions are very important and preparation is vital. It is important to make class interesting and vivid, avoid dull presentations. Everyone knows that adults enjoy an informal, friendly, secure climate. We, teachers, need to be enthusiastic, give praise to our students and demonstrate respect towards them. As the English language learners move from the basic to intermediate to advanced levels in their language proficiency, many second- or foreign-language learners will confirm that language learning does not always follow a smooth progression. One Chinese scholar, Fan Yi, described the phenomenon in the following way: "An EFL learner of average intelligence usually does not have much difficulty in the early stage of learning. Because of curiosity and the assumption that he or she can make an immediate use of what he or she is learning to communicate with English-speaking people, the learner is highly motivated at the early stages of learning. The learner imitates, memorizes and practices all the input from the teacher and the textbook. Though mechanically to a great extent, he or she does try hard to learn. On the other hand, as all the input of the English language is absolutely new to the learner, it is stimulating and easy to remember. When stimuli are new to the learner, the learner is more motivated to learn and memorize them. So most EFL learners can have a good start in learning no matter what teaching approaches are used.

However, as the learning process goes on, the learner finds it harder and harder to take in new language data. The teacher also finds that his input, no matter how much he or she tries to make it interesting, is no longer as easily taken in by the learners as it used to be. The students are more and more discouraged by the fact that their ambition of mastering English as a means of communication turns out to be a false assumption. They find that they know a lot about the English language, but they can hardly say they know English. It is during this period of time that many EFL learners suffer great anxiety and eventually give up their efforts to learn the English language. Later on, for one reason or other, they have to start learning English again. They soon meet the same problem. As this circle rolls over again and again, they fail to be able to acquire a real competence to communicate by means of English, even if they may have studied English for more than ten years.” (Richards J.C. 2008) Inevitably, learners who have reached the upper-intermediate level will have somewhat different language use profiles and learning needs, but the following problems are often encountered:

1. **There is a gap between receptive and productive competence.** Learners may have made considerable progress in listening comprehension and reading, but still feel inadequate when it comes to speaking skills. While learners’ receptive competence continues to develop, their productive competence remains relatively static. All language users have greater receptive competence (language they can understand) than productive competence (language they can produce).
2. **Fluency may have progressed at the expense of complexity.** Learners may make primary use of lower-level grammar, as well as vocabulary and communication strategies to express their meaning and may not have acquired more sophisticated language patterns and usage characteristics of more advanced second-language users. Learners’ language may be both relatively fluent and accurate but shows little evidence of appropriate grammatical development. Complexity of learners’ language does not match their proficiency level.
3. **Learners have a limited vocabulary range.** Vocabulary development has not progressed sufficiently. Learners tend to overuse lower-level vocabulary and fail to acquire more advanced vocabulary and usage.
4. **Language production may be adequate but often lacks the characteristics of natural speech.** Learners’ English may be fluent and grammatical but sounds too formal or too bookish. Their spoken English may be accurate and fluent but not always sound natural.

Learners' spoken English lacks appropriate use of chunks and formulaic utterances. There are many factors that can contribute to the naturalness of speech. One important factor is the extent to which the learners are using what are some-times called multi-word "chunks," as well as conversational routines or fixed expressions. Random patterns of words do not occur together in speech, but often occur as multi-word chunks. These may be two-, three-, four-, five-, or even six-word chunks. For example: Do you know what I mean? At the end of the day, and all the rest of it, and all that sort of thing, I don't know what it is.

5. **There are persistent, fossilized language errors.** Errors that are typical of lower-level learners reappear in certain circumstances despite the amount of time and effort devoted to correcting them. Fossilization refers to the persistence of errors in learners' speech despite progress in other areas of language development (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). They are errors that appear to be entrenched and difficult to eradicate, despite the teacher's best efforts. Here are a few examples of fossilized errors from a fluent adult speaker of English in Hong Kong who uses English regularly and effectively, although often with a high frequency of what we might regard as basic grammatical and other errors. For example: 1. I doesn't understand what she wanted. 2. He never ask me for help. 3. Last night I watch TV till 2 a.m. 4. Just I was talking to him. 5. She say she meeting me after work. (Richards J.C. 2008).

Conclusion:

Taking all above mentioned into consideration I made a short survey based on 100 questionnaires having distributed among the adult learners from various universities of Georgia. According to this survey I can safely arrive to the conclusion that nowadays most learners (90%) prefer to study English rather than other foreign language. During the study process they (59%) prefer to concentrate on main vocabulary rather than grammar structure for constructing their ideas in a logical way. Most language learners (60%) aren't anxious while studying, but those (60%) who are, mention that the reason of their anxiety is unpreparedness for the lesson (34%) or having shyness towards the teacher (12%), colleagues and group-mates (14%). Consequently it can be said that people learn in different ways. They may have some adaptability in their learning styles, but we seem to prefer certain ways of approaching and working through learning situations. We receive and process information in different ways. We think and decide in different ways. The more sensitive we are to the variations in our students cognitive styles and to our own cognitive, learning, and teaching styles, the more effective your teaching will be.

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THE ROLE OF GRAMMAR IN EFL CLASSES

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Abstract: The role of grammar instruction in an EFL context has been for decades a major issue for students and teachers alike. The paper emphasizes the importance of grammar in teaching/learning the English language. It also deals with the difficulties the learners have during the educational process. Sometimes the difficulties are so serious they may even hinder students' learning of English grammar. In order to identify those difficulties and find ways for their solution I held a short-term research in the form of a questionnaire with the university students. The results turned out to be very interesting for EFL teaching/learning process.

Key words: EFL grammar instruction, methods, deductive and inductive approaches, difficulties.

Language is the most powerful instrument we possess to express our feelings and opinions thus the language (both spoken and written) plays a very central role in the life of humans. Instead of one language, people mostly have to master other languages nowadays in order to communicate with people from different speech communities for various purposes as the world has become really global. Teaching a foreign language is truly a challenging art. The skillful teacher must know not only how to design class activities, but also how to ensure that students undertake the thinking that leads to comprehension. While learning or acquiring a new language, it is essential to use the language accurately with correct grammar. Otherwise, communication may get hampered.

The fact, that no language could be taught and learnt without focusing its grammar directly emphasizes the importance of grammar in language. We already know that grammar has long been the centre of language teaching and learning activity. As far back as fifteenth century, the problem of teaching grammar effectively has been at the heart of most language teaching debate. For centuries language teaching has been synonymous with grammar teaching until the rise of communicative language teaching (CLT) dealt a severe blow to this approach (Thompson, 1996). The communicative approach provided language teachers with a reason to abandon grammar teaching completely. It was a blessing for the non-native teachers who felt burdened with the load of grammar teaching and for the native teachers who now had a reason for not knowing the grammar of their own language (Swan, 2006). Under the influence of

Corder (1967) and Krashen (1981) the role of grammar instruction in language teaching was minimized (as cited in Ellis, 2006). The language teachers believed that grammar should be a part of language instruction. At best, it could be tolerated as a part of home study material. However, with the recent attention being paid to focus on form movement of grammar teaching (Fotos, 1998), grammar has again become the core of a hot debate. There is no disagreement among linguists now as to the importance of grammar teaching in the language classroom (Burgess & Etherington, 2002). Nevertheless, the method of introducing and teaching grammar in the language classroom is a disputable topic. On the contrary, grammar as a set of rules for choosing words and putting words together to make sense plays a significant role in language teaching. Without grammar, language does not exist. For communicating, people need to know the language and for knowing the language, it is important to learn its rules that are grammar.

Since the necessity of teaching grammar was realized long back by the language experts, different approaches and methods have been discovered so far for teaching and learning the grammar of the target language. Among them the most popular ones were: Grammar Translation Method (GTM), Audio Lingual Method (ALM) and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).

“Grammar translation is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and tasks into and out of the target language” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p.5). Some basic principles and objectives of Grammar Translation Method (GTM) regarding grammar teaching are: in Grammar Translation Method, students are focused to learn the grammatical rules and vocabularies of the target language rather than making them able to communicate in the target language (Larsen-Freeman, 2004, p.16). In addition, students are required to develop their written grammatical knowledge but not spoken grammar. Translation is considered to be an essential part of grammar teaching in GTM thus learners’ L1 is allowed in the classroom with complete freedom.

In ALM, speech is viewed as more basic criteria than the written form. Grammar items and structural patterns are introduced to the students in the form of dialogues, which the learners learn through imitation and repetition. Learning vocabulary of the target language is kept to a minimum, as the main objective of the method is to teach the grammatical patterns and sound systems of the target language proficiency (Larsen-Freeman, 2004, p.46). Towards this objective, a teacher’s role is vital as it is him or her who is responsible for providing the students with a good model for imitation. As cited in Larsen-Freeman (2004), “The teacher is like an orchestra leader, directing and controlling the language behavior of her students,” (p.45). Additionally, accuracy of the sentence patterns and pronunciation is emphasized in this method (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p.157). The teacher controls the learners and prevents them from

doing errors. The method focuses on the notion, “Get it right from the beginning” (Lightbown and Spada, 1999, p.118). Furthermore, translation is absolutely forbidden.

“Experience is the best of all schools,” having this notion as base, Communicative Language Teaching or CLT was introduced. The main objective of CLT is to enable the students to communicate properly in the target language. The method focuses on both fluency and the accuracy of language forms. Towards the goal, errors are seen as a natural outcome. If any grammatical errors are made during an activity, the teacher tends to ignore it instead of correcting it immediately assuming that it might hamper the fluency (Larsen-Freeman, 2004).

The English teacher is often portrayed as an “unattractive grammars monger whose only pleasure in life is to point out the faults of others” (Baron, 1982, p.226). For the most part, within the classroom, any mention of grammar causes the student moments of discomfort and sometimes even terror. Many teachers have tried to make grammar teaching a non-threatening, imaginative and useful activity within the English curriculum. Still there are many types of difficulties faced by students and teachers with regard to grammar instruction in an EFL context. Identifying such difficulties and being consciously aware of them would help teachers find ways of overcoming them and provide effective grammar instruction. Sometimes the difficulties are so serious that they may hinder students’ learning of English grammar.

In teaching grammar three areas have to be considered: grammar as rules, grammar as form and grammar as resource. For many foreign language learners, learning grammar often means learning grammar rules and having an intellectual knowledge of grammar. Teachers often believe that this will provide the generative basis on which learners can build their knowledge and will be able to use the language eventually. For them, prescribed rules give a kind of security. A better approach is perhaps to see grammar as one of many resources that we have in language which helps us to communicate. We should see how grammar relates to what we want to say or write.

Since the 1970s, attention has shifted from ways of teaching grammar to ways of getting learners to communicate but grammar has been seen to be a powerful undermining and demotivating force among foreign language learners. In terms of motivation and learner success with languages, grammar has been seen to be a problem and to stand in the way of helping learners to communicate fluently. The hard fact that most teachers face is that learners often find it difficult to make flexible use of the rules of grammar taught in the classroom. They may know the rules perfectly, but are incapable of applying them in their own use of the language.

Teachers' recognition of this process as a problem for many of their students has been reported by Burgess and Etherington (2002:442). Haudeck has reported that many learners have difficulty in internalizing grammar rules, although these have been taught intensively (1996, cited in European

Commission, 2006).

Metalinguistic discussion (i.e., the use of grammatical terminology to talk about language) is seen by Stern (1992:327) as one of the characteristics of explicit grammar teaching. According to Burgess and Etherington (2002: 444), teachers believe that their students see grammatical terminology as useful and that its use does not present a particular difficulty for students.

Descriptive grammars acknowledge the fact that language is dynamic and its use is constantly changing, although not in major ways. The problem for EFL learners, however, is that there is a time-lag between the awareness of such changes and their acceptance as the proper use of the language.

As Morelli (2003:33-34) has observed, "Grammar can be taught traditionally or contextually, but student perception should be considered by teachers in the decision-making process. Students need to feel confident that educators have met their needs and educators should be willing to consider the attitudes and perceptions of students when making decisions about how to teach grammar."

Many linguists and language teachers believe that grammar is an important aspect of foreign language, namely the English acquisition (EFL); however, others believe that a foreign grammar cannot be taught explicitly.

The opponents of teaching explicit grammar maintain that this method only teaches about the language and not the actual language itself. As Omaggio (1986) stated, this method "sends a clear message that the focus of the lesson is on talking *about* the language rather than on talking *in* the language." Students learn the linguistics of the language but not how to communicate easily or effectively. They may be consciously aware of the rules and how to use them most of the time, at least in writing, but they are unable to speak with any real fluency."Use of the conscious grammar... is limited to easily learned, late-acquired rules, simple morphological additions that do not make an overwhelming contribution to communicating the speaker or writer's message."

Therefore, as Krashen (1987) maintains, it is unfair to "emphasize accuracy on communicatively unessential, late acquired items in the beginning language classes with students who are unable to understand the simplest message in the foreign language." Emphasis should be put on learning to understand and communicate effectively in the language, rather than on analyzing texts for their grammatical value or writing styles. If students are unable to say or write the simplest phrases in the target language, they should not be expected to read and analyze literature in the target language either. Yet the natural progression in foreign language education is from courses that focus on basic grammar and conversation to courses that require intellectual and sound analyses of foreign literature, although students may not even be prepared to do so in their native language. Most students do not do well in these courses because they lack a basic understanding and comprehension of the grammatical structures, as well as basic

vocabulary of the language. Requiring students to be fluent in the target language before studying texts written completely in that language would decrease frustration and dissatisfaction with those students' foreign language education.

As for writing in a foreign language, it is often easier than speaking for those who have learned grammar explicitly, yet teachers still expect students to perform perfectly in speech. There is a basic difference between *competence* and *performance* however, that teachers need to be more aware of. The conscious knowledge of a grammatical rule has no direct relationship to the speaker's ability to use it in free speech, especially not for a nervous student who is forced to speak in front of the class or who is being evaluated and judged for a grade. There are cases of students who write a foreign language with near-fluent abilities, but who also make several mistakes while speaking. Krashen (1987) attributes this to his Monitor and Input Hypotheses which state that students make corrections only when they are consciously aware of them (such as in writing) and that students should not be required to speak in the target language until they feel comfortable to do so (ie. they have acquired enough "comprehensible input"). Furthermore, Krashen's fifth hypothesis Affective-Filter claims that students who experience low anxiety and high self-confidence will have a greater success at learning a foreign language.

Foreign Language theories of grammatical acquisition are often based on simplicity and frequency of occurrence, yet "it is not at all the case that the more linguistically simple an item is, the earlier it is acquired. Some very 'simple' rules may be among the last to be acquired." An example of an apparently simple rule is the possessive -s in English. Yet in both of Larsen-Freeman's orders of acquisition the possessive remains late-acquired. In addition just because some grammatical forms occur often does not mean they will be easy to learn or teach.

Another facet of foreign language learning that needs to be addressed is the hierarchy of difficulty "by which a teacher or linguist could make a prediction of the relative difficulty of a given aspect of the target language." Two levels that present particular problems with learning foreign grammar are under differentiation and over differentiation. With under differentiation, "an item in the native language is absent in the target language." For example, the present tense has three forms in English, but sometimes only one in other languages. On the other hand, over differentiation is the opposite, i.e. an item exists in the target language but not in the native language. This hierarchy attempts to make possible the predictions of how easy or difficult it will be to learn a certain foreign language.

Yet another feature of foreign language learning that classes and textbooks seem to ignore is the importance of the knowledge of native grammar before attempting to learn a foreign grammar. If students do not know the jargon particular to grammar in their native language, they will not know the vocabulary in the target language either. Basics of the native language or of grammar in general should always

supplement and precede the explanation of foreign grammar. In addition, requisite knowledge of earlier grammatical rules needs to be reinforced.

Research

As I have mentioned above, the learners often face the difficulties while studying the English grammar. Sometimes the difficulties are quite serious, that's why I have tried to identify those problems and find ways for their solution. For that purpose I made a short-term research in the form of a questionnaire with the university students. 100 language learners, both male and female (under the age of 18-21), took part in the survey. The survey was based on the important issues which helped me in revealing the most problematic aspects (making up grammatically correct sentences; pronouncing phonetically correct sounds within the language to be studied; understanding teacher's explanation; anxiety while involving in the study process; fear of receiving poor marks in case of wrong answers) of grammar study in adult.

Results

According to the research it turned out, that the most difficult things for the students in learning English grammar are making up grammatically correct sentences (36.8%) and pronouncing phonetically correct sounds (36.8%). Both questions got the equal points. Another problematic issue stands in the fact, that 17.6 % of the students are afraid of getting poor grades in case of giving wrong answers in class, while 6% are simply shy to be involved in the lesson. It is also worth mentioning that the least difficulty the students face (2.8 %) at the English grammar lesson is the problem of understanding the explained/study material.

Conclusion

The research results made it clear that, together with the other difficulties arisen in class, especially two problematic issues (making up grammatically correct sentences; pronouncing phonetically correct sounds) need serious attention to be paid from the EFL teachers.

The results of the present research point to the following implications:

- EFL curriculum and material developers should show an understanding of learners' difficulties and provide sufficient guidance and help in the curriculum document and the teachers' book showing how the potential difficulties could be addressed in planning their classroom activities. Teachers may be given examples of mediating tasks, which would reduce the difficulties.
- As Morelli (2003: 33-34) has pointed out, students need to be taught grammar

through various methodologies and approaches to cater to their individual styles of learning, and educators should consider students' attitudes and perceptions when making decisions about how to teach grammar.

- EFL teachers would do well to understand and address their learners' concerns in planning their lessons and classroom activities, and use supplementary materials, if necessary, to help learners cope with the difficulties.

It becomes clear that one important aspect of grammar teaching is that it helps learners discover the nature of language, i.e., the language consists of predictable patterns that make what we say, read, hear and write intelligible. Without grammar, we would have only individual words or sounds, pictures and body expressions to communicate meaning. Grammar is the weaving that creates the fabric.

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ASSESSMENT OF GRAMMAR SKILLS

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Abstract

The article is dedicated to classification of grammar skill assessments. It is mentioned that the tasks to assess grammar skills (and their various components) are usually classified as a) mechanical/traditional vs. creative/contextual/authentic; b) tasks for assessment of grammatical aspects of listening, speaking, reading, writing; c) formative vs. summative assessment; d) assessment by the teacher, peer and self-assessment. A conclusion is made that, as all grammar assessment drills and activities have their advantages and disadvantages, their own functions (from memorization, automatization and accuracy to provision of communication), all of them should be combined to have grammar skills objectively and usefully assessed.

Key words: assessment, grammar skills, mechanical grammar drills, authentic grammar drills, rubrics, formative and summative assessment, peer and self-assessment

Introduction

Grammar is defined as “the way words are put together to make correct sentences” (Ur, 1996, p. 75), which is functioned as a rule to make the language output possible. Thus, the teaching of grammar is a necessary component in language teaching program and grammar itself takes the fundamental and dominant position in “accumulated entities” (Rutherford, 1987, p. 4), which help learners improve their learning from nil to certain language proficiency.

The importance of classroom assessment on student learning has widely been acknowledged (Wall, 2000). Correspondingly, is essential for both students and teacher to assess grammar skills adequately. Though contemporary communicative approach to teaching does not pay as much attention to grammar skills as some older methods, especially Grammar-Translation, did, nobody

can deny that grammar is the skeleton on which words – flesh and clothes for human thought – are bound. According to Widdowson (1990, p. 86), " . . . grammar is not a constraining imposition but a liberating force: it frees us from a dependency on context and a purely lexical categorization of reality."

Everybody today understands that today, when we mention grammar, we do not mean the ability to answer grammar rules, to conjugate verbs, do some transformation, but to form comprehensible sentences while speaking and writing as well as “fish out” the grammatical information essential for comprehension in the process of listening and reading. This is why to know where we are we need to assess grammar skills objectively and in a way related to real life needs.

Thus, the tasks to assess grammar skills (and their various components) are usually classified as

- a) Mechanical/traditional vs. creative/contextual/authentic
- b) Tasks for assessment of grammatical aspects of listening, speaking, reading, writing
- c) Formative vs. summative assessment
- d) Assessment by the teacher, peer and self-assessment

Mechanical Tests

Mechanical tests do serve one purpose: They motivate students to memorize and work out automatic reactions. Mechanical grammatical tests can therefore serve as prompts to encourage memorization of irregular forms. Because they test only memory capacity, not language ability, they are best used as quizzes and given relatively little weight in evaluating student performance and progress.

Traditional Grammar Tests

Traditional pencil-and-paper tests ask students to choose or produce a correct grammatical form. Such tests can be helpful as measures of students’ knowledge of language forms. They can also find out to that degree the formed skills are automatic (through time on task limitations). Language instructors encounter students who do well on pencil-and-paper tests of grammar and sentence structure, but make mistakes when using the same forms in oral interaction. In such

cases, the test is indicating what students know *about* the language, but is not providing an accurate measure of what they are able to actually *do* with it.

The testing of grammar is one of the mainstays of language testing. While such tests test the ability to either recognize or produce correct grammar and usage, they do not test the ability to use the language to express meaning.

However, it can be argued that a basic knowledge of grammar underlies the ability to use language to express meaning, and so grammar tests do have an important part to play in language programs.

Strong (1995) viewed the developments in educational psychology and measurement that led to the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and the test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) and the application of educational measurement terms such as validity and reliability to testing. He described the major types of grammar tests that I will show below.

Types of mechanical and traditional grammar tests

Multiple Choice Tests

Probably the most common way of testing grammatical knowledge is the multiple choice test. These tests have the advantage of being easy to grade and being able to cover a lot of grammatical points quickly.

The most common type of multiple choice grammatical item is one in which the test maker gives the testee a sentence with a blank and four or five choices of a word or phrase which completes the sentence correctly. For example,

Because my mother was sick, I _____ to go home last week.
a) had b) have c) has d) hadn't

Error Correction

Error correction items are also used for testing grammar. They are useful for future teachers, but for other students they are rather misleading, sometimes causing them memorize the wrong answer. An error correction item is one in which the testee is given a sentence with an error. Four words or phrases in the sentence marked with letters, and the testee needs to decide which of the words or phrases has the error. For example,

(a) **Most of students** (b) **believe** that they (c) **should be getting** better grades (d) **than they are**.

The teacher may also mix in some sentences that have no errors, and students are required to indicate that there is no error. In addition, the students might be required to correct the error. Errors from students' actual writing are a good source of ideas for this type of exercise.

Items to Test Knowledge of Word/Sentence Order

Other types of items can be used to test testees' knowledge of word order. The traditional way is to present the testee with four alternative word orders. For example,

I wonder how she knows _____.

- a) how it costs much.
- b) how much it costs.
- c) it costs how much.
- d) it how much costs.

Completion Items

Completion items are items in which the testees are asked to fill in blanks in sentences.

For example,

Give the book to _____ woman in the blue dress.

Transformation Items

Another type of grammar item makes use of transformations. In this type of item, testees are given a sentence and the first few words of another sentence to change the original sentence without changing the meaning. For example,

1. Jim hasn't been home in a long time.

It's been a long time _____.

2. I don't need to go to the grocery store this week.

It isn't _____.

3. It is difficult to study when it is so noisy.

Studying _____.

There are variations on this type of item in which the word which starts the transformed sentence is underlined, or the testee is given one word to use in the new sentence. For example,

I don't need to go to the grocery store this week. (necessary)

Again, this type of test is difficult to grade because the teacher has to be aware of the variety of possible answers. Another problem is that it does not in any way test the testees' knowledge of when each of the possible transformations would be most appropriate. For example, the testee might be perfectly able to transform an active sentence to a passive sentence but not know when to use passive rather than active. However, it is still sometimes a useful test of grammatical knowledge.

Opening the Brackets Items

Another type of item is one in which the testees are given a sentence and a word which they need to fit into the sentence by changing the form of the word. For example,

I have never _____ to Australia. (be)

This type of grammar test item tests students' knowledge of different word forms and how they are used in sentences.

Clause Combining Exercises

Sentence combining exercises can play a part in testing grammar as well as its more traditional use as part of composition testing and training. For example, testees might be instructed to combine the following sentences using a relative pronoun.

I met a man.

The man went to the same high school I did.

I met a man who went to the same high school I did.

While the testing of grammatical knowledge is limited (it does not necessarily indicate whether the testee can use the grammatical knowledge in a communicative situation) it is sometimes necessary and useful. When considering the testing of grammar, the teacher has to make decisions about such factors as ease of marking, the degree of control, and the degree of realism.

Authentic Assessment of grammar skills

Just as mechanical drills do not teach students the language, mechanical test questions do not assess their ability to use it in authentic ways. In order to provide authentic assessment of students' grammar proficiency, an evaluation must reflect real-life uses of grammar in context. This means that the activity must have a purpose other than assessment and require students to demonstrate their level of grammar proficiency by completing some task.

Authentic assessment is basically any type of assessment that is not paper-and-pencil type of testing. It can include projects, portfolios, or running records.

To develop authentic grammar-centered assessment activities, begin with the types of tasks that students will actually need to do using the language. Use text based tasks instead of sentence based tasks, as it usually is in mechanical and traditional grammar skill testing. Assessment can

then take the form of communicative drills and communicative activities like those used in the teaching process.

For example, writing an answer to the received letter can be used to assess student's grammar skills. We can always "program" the application of certain forms in the answer (e.g., if the letter concerns plans for summer vacations, students will have to use future tenses and/or going to. In this type of assessment, the instructor uses a checklist or rubric to evaluate the student's understanding and/or use of grammar in context. Here attention is moved from formal correctness to comprehensibility (you may assess correct forms by 2 points, wrong, but comprehensible forms by 1 point, while wrong and incomprehensible forms by zero .

Most teachers would justify the idea of not using authentic assessment more because of time constraints and subjectivity (somebody says it is comprehensible, while somebody may say that not). The trick to authentic assessment is not to take on too much at one time. One type of authentic assessment per chapter or unit is fine to begin. As long as the project sheet and rubric are kept in a safe place for retrieval, adding another the following year is simple. Eventually as more is added to your toolbox, portfolios will be available to be included as a culminating assessment. Authentic assessment is a great way for students to really showcase talents and knowledge level of the material that has been presented.

Tasks for assessment of grammatical aspects of listening, speaking, reading, writing

While grammatical task for writing (the above mechanical and traditional tests, writing essays, authentic tests like writing letters, projects, etc.) and speaking skills (student presentations, controlled dialogues with grammatical correctness/comprehensibility as one of assessment parameters in the rubric) are widely spread, tasks for grammar-oriented listening and reading are seldom applied. The majority of tasks for listening/reading comprehension are vocabulary-based. Meanwhile, we can easily introduce test items like

Choose the correct explanation:

(listened to or read text: Peter should have taken the pills)

- a) Peter took the pills
- b) Peter is regularly taking pills
- c) Peter forgot to take the pills

Formative vs summative assessment

This classification is time-based (depending on when assessment is held). Formative assessment

- Takes place on an ongoing basis as instruction is proceeding
- Rates the student in terms of functional ability to communicate, using criteria that the student has helped to identify
- Helps students recognize ways of improving their learning
- Is the approach more often taken by alternative assessment methods, however all assessments mentioned above may be used

On the other hand, summative assessment

- Takes place at the end of a predetermined period of instruction (for example, mid-term, final)
- Rates the student in relation to an external standard of correctness (how many right answers are given)
- Is the approach taken by most traditional and standardized tests (it would be more adequate if authentic assessments were used as well)

Assessment by teacher vs. Peer and Self-Assessment

Unfortunately, till today most assessment in class, including (and probably, especially) the assessment of grammar skills, as they are viewed as difficult, is done by the teacher. This is why students work out an approach that they are not responsible for their own grammar. The result is ignoring teacher feedback and finally - error fossilization. Contemporary student-centered teaching emphasizes peer and self-assessment.

One of the ways in which students internalize the characteristics of quality work is by evaluating the work of their peers. However, if they are to offer helpful feedback, students must have a clear

understanding of what they are to look for in their peers' work. The instructor must explain expectations clearly to them before they begin.

One way to make sure students understand this type of evaluation is to give students a practice session with it. The instructor provides a sample writing or speaking assignment. As a group, students determine what should be assessed and how criteria for successful completion of the communication task should be defined. Then the instructor gives students a sample completed assignment. Students assess this using the criteria they have developed, and determine how to convey feedback clearly to the fictitious student.

Students can also benefit from using rubrics or checklists to guide their assessments. At first these can be provided by the instructor; once the students have more experience, they can develop them themselves. An example of a peer editing checklist for a writing assignment is given in the popup window. Notice that the checklist asks the peer evaluator to comment primarily on the content and organization of the essay. It helps the peer evaluator focus on these areas by asking questions about specific points, such as the presence of examples to support the ideas discussed.

For peer assessment to work effectively, the learning environment in the classroom must be supportive. Students must feel comfortable and trust one another in order to provide honest and constructive feedback. Instructors who use group work and peer assessment frequently can help students develop trust by forming them into small groups early in the semester and having them work in the same groups throughout the term. This allows them to become more comfortable with each other and leads to better peer feedback.

Peer assessment in some cultures (including the Georgian one) may be perceived as offensive. To avoid this, it may be held as role play (teacher/student) with roles exchanged. Or Students should check each other's writings and then discuss the (claimed) errors. The writer has the last say. Finally joint work is submitted and assessed.

Students can become better language (including grammar) learners when they engage in deliberate thought about what they are learning and how they are learning it. In this kind of reflection, students step back from the learning process to think about their language learning

strategies and their progress as language learners. Such self-assessment encourages students to become independent learners and can increase their motivation. Grammar tasks with keys are useful for the beginning, later students should more and more often be able to self-assess with the help of grammar books.

Conclusion

As all grammar assessment drills and activities have their advantages and disadvantages, their own functions (from memorization, automatization and accuracy to provision of communication), all of them should be combined to have grammar skills objectively and usefully assessed.

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MASSIVELY MULTIPLAYER ONLINE ROLE-PLAYING GAMES' POSITIVE EFFECTS ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING PROCESS

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Abstract

In recent years, statistics indicate that video games clearly take part in people's development periods. Especially MMORPGs (Massively multiplayer online role-playing game) have great profit piece in video game industry that shows that people have spent their times in front of game screens. Thanks to this information, potential language learning via MMORPGs is a new era for language learning since learners' attentions and motivations play huge part in language learning process. This article revises the information about computer games' promoting learning atmosphere in the mean of English language learning.

Keywords: computer games; language learning; informal learning and entertainment in education

Introduction

The earliest known interactive electronic game was a missile simulator which was created by Thomas T. Goldsmith Jr. and Estle Ray Mann, nowadays this game is 65 years old and video game industry by the year 2011 made 18,6 billion revenue (2011, DFC Intelligence). Blizzard Entertainment's World of Warcraft, it is a MMORPG "Massively multiplayer online role-playing game" which is a genre of role-playing video games, debuted in 2004 and currently boasts ten million subscribers worldwide (Statista, 2013). These numbers make video games one of the most pervasive, profitable, and influential forms of entertainment in the world. According to these parameters, everybody can accept that people play around with video games and that cause controversies among different groups. Some people believe computer games are just harmful for human development especially for children, on the other hand there are also a lot of people who believe video games' positive effects on human development and learning process. In recent decades, Researchers have paid necessary attention to this issue. The potential of gaming to develop skills associated with learning has been examined in an extensive literature (Prensky, 2001, 2006). That is why; there are lots of experiments that show computer games have positive effects, especially the ones about languages come around second language acquisition (SLA). Real-time interaction in the target language is one of the main parts of psycholinguistic interactionist theory. Interactionist theory is a claim that language development occurs in the context of social interaction between the developing child and knowledgeable adults who model language usage and "scaffold" the child's attempts to master language (Wikipedia). Underlying the interactive framework there is a view of language learning as a collaborative act, that is shared by most of the

recent literature on computer Assisted language Learning or CALL, or Computer Assisted Second Language Acquisition or CASLA (Chapelle, 1994)

Table 1. Hypothesized advantages of utilizing MMORPGs in CALL

Design feature	Hypothesized advantages
<i>Network-based real-time text and voice chat</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Access to diverse groups of interlocutors, including native speakers -Multiple communication channels provide real-time feedback -Exposure to the target language -The presence of text and scrolling supports monitoring -Extensive opportunities for purposeful target language use and reuse in an authentic and engaging communicative context -Practice in the four skills -Opportunities to engage in co-construction, negotiation, and the development of communicative competence -Learner-centered interaction encourages active participation -Enhanced cross-cultural knowledge
<i>Challenging theme and goal-based interaction</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Motivation enhanced -Enjoyment -Situating learning -Community formation -Development of collaborative social relationships
<i>Personal avatars</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Enhanced immersion -Opportunities for role-play and risk-taking -Reduced inhibition and social context cues

Source: Mark Peterson (2010): *Massively multiplayer online role-playing games as arenas for second language learning, Computer Assisted Language Learning*

Computer games' positive effects on basic English language learning skills is taken into consideration under these three subjects in this paper:

a) *Improving Vocabulary knowledge via Video games*

b) *Improving Writing skills via Video games*

c) *Improving Speaking abilities via Video games*

Improving Vocabulary knowledge via Video games

Video games which are produced for the global market with the aim of huge profits have one certain quality that is language choice which surely has English option. Since English language is accepted the most common language around the world which is known and spoken by more than half of the world, the big entertainment firms even like Asian and European firms put English option to their games to be played by everyone around the world. In foreign language learning period, especially the learners who play video games select the option English. These learners are the ones who generally learn English as foreign language in their schools. Since

their mother tongue is not in the list of game languages, they generally select the option English because they have known something about this language especially vocabulary knowledge.

When looked at the broad edge, almost all video game players experience MMORPG which is a genre of role-playing video games in which a very large number of players interact with one another within a virtual game world. Players who experience MMORPGs control their characters' actions and interactions by selecting among wide variety of commands which are waiting to be learnt by players. If, for example, a player confuses "attack" and "heal," it will become quickly apparent to the player that his/her linguistic competency is lacking and the player will have to alter his/her knowledge of these words. Similar vocabulary acquisition process occurs by using menus, selecting items, or following instructions of quests in MMORPGs. Basically, from the menu screen of the game, English learning process starts for a player. Most common items of the game's menu screens are "new game, load game and exit or quit" options. When players click on new game, new campaign begins and then when they click on load game, old saved game opens and after click on exit, game closes and players return to desktop. The rationale behind these implementations is guessing from the context; the practices through those options, what that options are doing, make the learner aware about those vocabulary after seeing the consequences of clicking on those menu buttons.

MMORPGs start with character creation, This process can be accepted as a part of visual vocabulary learning, players select one type of virtual character like warrior, hunter or wizard (games utilize appearance of characters in screen). The use of visual imagery aids may provide concrete images of unfamiliar words, which support the learning process of new vocabulary (Kellogg & Howe, 1971). Human brain makes learning itself by considering their looking and differences'. The one who uses melee weapons like swords or axes is a warrior, the one who uses ranged weapons like bows or guns is a hunter and the one who uses magic is a wizard. In the end; warrior, hunter and wizard all of these vocabulary's equivalence meanings in L1 is made by brain after considering all of this experience. Every use of that screen makes its practice. Also those creation screens have hair, hair color, face, facial hair etc. each of these options change specific appearance of the character. In this vein, in game items like weapons, cloth types, places and professions... all vocabulary elements are visually practicable in video games.

Improving Writing Skills via Video Games

Some video games enable instant messaging via chat boxes in game screens like MMORPG style games. Since these games are played by high quantity of people in one realm, players need to interact with each other. This requires player negotiation and cooperation to make something together like quests and trades between the characters. That's why, the need for communication via instant messaging is an indispensable part of these games, and hereby players use English as common language to communicate due to its extensive use. Therefore, instant messaging and chatting via computer games give players unlimited access to English language. Since instant messaging and chatting enable real time interaction between people, they have common similarity with face to face

communication like participants of instant messaging and chatting negotiate meaning by modifying the input and output and responding to feedback (Toyoda & Harrison, 2002). Players who play MMORPGs experience the comprehension checks, requests, confirmation checks and use of approximation of target (English) language while writing in game chat boxes.

MMORPGs are generally objectives based games via in game quests which enable players to get higher levels. Objectives-based games entreat directed-play that mirrors more persuasive rhetorical situations because, like a writer achieving a rhetorical goal, a player must assemble resources in order to achieve certain objectives (Colby & Colby, 2008). Players are occasionally in need of guides for achievements, players who completed specific part of a game may want to write a guide for other players of same game. MMORPGs have active communities out of the game which provide opportunities for writing. For example, World of Warcraft has a lot of official and unofficial websites such as Battle-net Forums, Wowwiki and Wowhead which are allow participants to write strategy, lore, and guides for the game.

Improving Speaking Abilities via Video Games

Human is a social creature, and we cannot live alone as long as nature force us to be like Robinson Crusoe. While playing game we bring our social norms to the game environment, when players start chatting, they greet and make small talk between them including a lot of practice of daily conversations. When this happens with voice, this will be completely helpful for our speaking skill. There are times when texting is not salutary for gamers; MMORPG players and most of the players who play online games use text messaging limited amount because when the players are in action when they don't have time for texting, thereby players use voice chat to communicate while playing the game. Voice chat is made through popular third-party VOIP (Voice Over Internet Protocol) programs, some of them are TeamSpeak and Ventrillo. By the help of these programs players use to coordinate complex in-game activities such as raids in which they fight against in game creatures and player-versus-player (PVP) combat which enable fight against each other with their virtual in game characters. Online communication is potentially a transformative tool for each learner, depending on his or her own knowledge and agency, can use to construct an identity as a user of the L2 beyond the classroom (Chapelle, 2004). Thanks to video games' friendly nonthreatening atmosphere, language usage anxiety while speaking target language can be lowered and also players can eliminate their worries about doing mistake during those game sessions. It is also helpful for players that people only know each other in a virtual realm like "that player is warrior or he is wizard from our guild", which comfort players about making mistakes since there will be no harm in case of mistake. Even if they make too much mistake in target language, player will know that his/her guild friends will fix his/her mistake, this can be accepted as positive feedback for players as well.

Conclusion

Hours in front of computer screens cannot be ignored and Entertainment via computer games cannot be underestimated. When it is thought about usage proportion, video games should be accepted as out of school language acquisition tool. Beneficial effects of participation, involving collaborative dialog, negotiation, and self-repair, in MMORPGs in the mean of enhanced production of target language output and extensive practice in given three subjects; Improving Vocabulary knowledge via Video games, Improving Writing skills via Video games and Improving Speaking abilities via Video games are clear consequences of MMORPGs. Experiences from games have a clear effect on foreign language. Social, interactive and visual elements make video games important for this purpose.

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IS COCKNEY IN ITS LAST TRAIN?

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Abstract

The paper deals with the the sociolect /dialect of English – Cockney – its history and present. The Cockney is believed to be the broadest of the British accents from the point of vocabulary, rhyming slang, construction and usage. A conclusion is drawn that Cockney is still alive.

Key words: language and social class, Received Pronunciation (RP), Cockney, phonetic and grammatical peculiarities of Cockney

'This is very exciting for linguists – the language of London is changing...' This statement was made in BBC News Studio and alarmed Londoners... With the journalists in the studio Sue Fox a Socio-Linguist at the Queen Mary College, University of London was speaking.

History of Cockney

The United States do not rate accent as a determiner of social class, only regionalism is thought to be a sign of this. The word 'standard' doesn't brand American English and doesn't mean to have any 'King' or 'Queen' in its country. Things are different in England, where accent and speech is the focal way to size up a person, even more important than wealth. The language in this country has the 'Queen', which tends to insist upon the reverence for 'Standard English'. The correct mode of speech is introduced as Received Pronunciation and is profoundly appreciated by British elite and the Mass Media. In England, one accent has traditionally stood out above all others in its ability to convey associations of respectable social standing and good education. This 'prestige' accent is known as Received Pronunciation (RP).

The development of English standardization encountered **Inkhorn controversy**, which was about the use of many Latinate loan words in English. From its very beginning English Language has mirrored a myriad of accents. The heartland of this variety lies by the banks of

Thames and goes to the myth - True Cockney¹; one has to be born within hearing distance of the bells of St. Mary le Bow, Cheapside, in the City of London. During 1941-1961 years, in World War II Germans silenced these magic bells and for twenty years no 'true' cockneys lived in this area. The research indicates a noteworthy certainty that the bells would have been heard six miles to the east, five miles to the north, and three miles to the south and four miles to the west. At this cockney church service the Lord prayer is read out in cockney rhyming slang that goes to the story of pearly king and queen. According to the sources, the pearls are stemmed from London costermongers who sewed pearl buttons onto their clothing. The pearls were originally elected by costermongers to safeguard their rights from rivals. Modern pearls no longer have this role, but tend instead to devote their time to charitable activities. Today it's the colorful part of London traditions. The Chairman of Epping Forest District Council, Councilor Richard Morgan, was a guest at the Pearly King and Queen Harvest Festival held at the Guild Hall on Sunday 26 September, where he stated: 'This was a wonderful event during which I had the opportunity to meet some of the Pearls, who so proudly show off this unique and often forgotten aspect of London's heritage, pageantry and costume. I was also pleased to support the good work that this group does to benefit people across London and its surrounding areas.' But it's very rare, you will find a young pearly...

John Minshew, the first lexicographer, decoded cockney's etymology –*cock* and *egg*, meaning first a misshapen egg. Webster's News Universal Unabridged Dictionary points out a thought-provoking approach: 'London was referred to by the Normans as the 'Land of Sugar Cake, an imaginary land of idleness and luxury. A humorous appellation, the word 'Cocaigne' referred to all of London and its suburbs, and over time had a number of spellings: Cocagne, Cockayne, and in the Middle English, Cocknay and Cockney. According to Liberman, this term was used to describe a weak townsman, opposed to the stronger countryman and by the 17th century it began to mean a Londoner. (Labov, 1972) Generally, Cockney illustrates the working class accents of Londoners and leads to the foundation for British soap operas. Currently, the BBC is showing one of the most well-liked soaps 'East Enders', 'The Bill', 'Only Fools and horses', 'Steptoe and Son', 'Minder', 'Porridge', where the characters accent is suggestive in terms of language observation. The researchers from Glasgow University explored that individuals with relatively little contact with people outside Glasgow have pronunciation features found in London accents. Dick van Dyke's much-maligned efforts to imitate an east London cockney accent in Mary

¹ Camden says the Thames was once called "the Cockney".

Poppins gained him second place in the poll. Researcher Dr Jane Stuart-Smith explains: ‘It was previously considered a language myth that television has any impact on an individual's accent but our research shows that we have to treat television as a possible influence on how people speak. We show that watching even a very short clip of London-based programs caused subtle alterations to the accents of some individuals’. Cockney accents on the small screen influence teenagers in the city.

The Cockney is believed to be the broadest of the British accents from the point of vocabulary, rhyming slang, construction and usage. Cockney Rhyming slang was formulated as a means of communication between cockneys that was almost vague for outsiders. In the past, it could be used to swindle any unsuspecting tourist, as it was common in the open air market places and among taxi drivers. Rhyming Slang phrases tend to rhyme with a word and then use that expression instead of the word. Some slang expressions became so popular that it's widely used throughout the rest of Britain. For example ‘use your loaf’ is an everyday phrase for the British, but not too many people realize it is Cockney Rhyming Slang (‘loaf of bread: head’). Like ‘Wind and Kite’ meaning ‘Web site’.

‘It's the way he tell ‘em. Prime Minister (Tony Blair) wades into estuary English for O’Connor chat show’.

The Guardian, July 1998

Generally in cockney speech, the beginning of the word drops H – otel, orse, ospital and vowel sounds are often lengthened – abaaht for about. F always replaces ‘th’ at the beginning of the word- thematic becomes fematic. Glottal stop is also typical feature for mid-word consonants- ‘Clapham’ can be said as *Clam*. In Cockney, the Glottal stop is itself pronounced as *glo: aw stop*. It uses *ain’t* for *isn’t*, *am not*, *are not* and is very popular in modern British pop music. Peter Wright, a survey of English Dialects fieldworker, considers the following alteration as universal feature of Cockney – the replacement of /r/ with /w/, for example, *fwasty* instead of *frosty*. Grammatical peculiarities : *me* is used instead of *my*- ‘At’s me book you got ‘ere’. It uses *ain’t* for *isn’t*, *am not*, *are not* and is very popular in modern British pop music. Usage of double negative –‘I didn’t see nothing’. When using adverbs, *that* indicates a strong degree and *pretty* a weaker one. Most of these features have entered into south-eastern speech, giving the accent

called Estuary English.¹ In 1993 Paul Coggle in his Estuary English guidance gives graphic description to glottal ling – ‘Using the glottal stop between vowels is a bit like wearing a tattoo: whether you realize it or not, certain doors will be closed to you. (Hartley, Milroy 1994)

The research conducted by BBC voices project proves that the Cockney accent is dying out in parts of the East End. The new dialect which is the mixture of English and Bangladesh is emerging to replace Cockney in terms of vowel pronunciation – sounds closer to Received Pronunciation (Queens English). New words serve a vast majority of their speech, like “nang” which means ‘good’, ‘creps’ –trainers, ‘skets’ –slippers, etc. Meanwhile, the researchers said the traditional Cockney accent had started to shift to towns and boroughs around the capital, a process which started when many families moved out after World War II.

‘Accents are a reflection of society and as society changes so accents change,’ said one of the consultants to the project, Professor David Crystal. Mick Ord, BBC Voices project Director adds: ‘The only language that doesn’t change is a dead language. English Language is changing all the time and no more so than today with new influences and young people of many ethnic backgrounds mixing together in our inner cities.

The Cockney Diaspora has been for centuries and was particularly speeded up by the relocation of Blitzed Londoners into Essex exile. This goes back to the 1840s and 1850s with the eradication of Rookeries, knot of passionately working-class streets around St Giles-in-the-Fields. In 1842, St Giles was knocked down to make way for New Oxford Street. The life, which was ‘a notorious hotspot for thieves, beggars and prostitutes, but also the heart of cockney London, where rhyming slang was born, and home to ‘shopkeepers, lodging-house keepers, publicans, street dealers in fruit, vegetables, damaged provisions and sundries, sweeps, knife-grinders, doormat-makers, mendicants, crossing sweepers, street singers, persons who obtain a precarious subsistence and country tramps, had changed into a bright suburban future for cockneys. Demographic changes are also having a huge and increasingly documented impact on the traditional cockney accent of ‘whining vowels and ruined consonants’ (Pritchett). Due to Queen Mary College research, the cockney accent seems to be influenced by Jamaican, Indian and west African English. The difference is explained by shortening long vowels –‘face’ was ‘faice’, but now it is ‘fehsh. While cockney migration has Londonised accents in Suffolk, Wiltshire and even Liverpool, the culture of London dialect had changed over the past 50 years,

especially with being multicultural. 'People criticized cockney culture for years and said it had no color but, if it had been regarded as any stronger, the crossover into what is called multiculturalism would have been much more difficult'.- stated Michael Collins in his work 'The Likes Us'.

In summing up British culture, two significant tokens of London can be identified - The Taxis and The Cockneys. Times change, Cockneys change...but they stay! Pearly Kings and Queens stay as a symbol of Cockney London and tend to continue the Pearly tradition of fundraising and working for charity in each borough. At the language level, 'The English language is constantly evolving, the occasional 'nang' meaning good, isn't earth-shattering', Linguistics expert, Professor David Crystal said as responding to BBC Voice Project. 'Far from dying out, I think Cockney, as a result of this ethnic encounter, will be born again' (Crystal, 1987).

Cockney is in its new train on the traditional railway...

Based on the collected data, cockney still remains as a token of British Culture. In an interview with a German newspaper Welt am Sonntag (World on Sunday), Princess Michael of Kent notes that one of the Queen's best party tricks is putting on a cockney accent and confirms that the Queen is particularly good with cockney and Norfolk accents.

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THE PEDAGOGICAL UTILITY OF WIKI IN IMPROVING IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' WRITING PROFICIENCY

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Abstract

Cyber technology has penetrated most aspects of science fields because it deals with the employment of artificial devices that can improve human physical or mental abilities. Web technology is one of the branches of cyber technology which includes wikis and a lot of new applications which are gaining popularity in classrooms at all levels of education. Such technologies offer new ways of fostering community building, content creation, modification and knowledge building in the classroom. This study aimed to investigate the role of wiki on learner's academic development. To this end, 34 students were selected from one of the writing proficiency classes of Sobhesadegh institute of higher education. They were assigned into a writing proficiency intact class. Prior to conducting the target study a writing pretest was administered to ensure that the subjects in this study were at the same proficiency level in writing. Then during the experiment sessions the students were granted the opportunity to engage in a collaborative writing project in an innovative way with their peers. At the end of the treatment, a writing posttest was utilized and then we designed a questionnaire to investigate the opinions and attitudes of students about wiki. The results showed that Wiki as a collaborative learning had a significant impact on the improvement of writing proficiency. The use of wiki

facilitates group interaction and collaborative learning and improves the learning process. The findings indicated that wiki can lead to a deeper processing of the course content and can be beneficial to the students in spite of persistent technology challenges.

Key words: web technology, wikis, collaborative learning and community learning.

Introduction

Wiki is a major component of web which allow for “distributed participation and collaboration” and is the emergent generation of web tools and applications (Adie, 2006; Knobble and Lankshear, 2006). These applications allow users to upload, build, and creates content on the Web (Tomas, 2008). Web has the potential to enhance and add new collaborative dimensions to the classroom. In classrooms, students may not have time to read each other’s work; however, in collaborative online environments, they are given this opportunity to build on each other’s work (Hewitt & Scardamalia, 1998). Research, discussions, and reflections Started in the classroom can continue online. Reflecting on course content outside the classroom increases students’ understanding and retention (Ball and Washburn, 2001). As they contribute to a wiki, students are creating course resources and building course content in a shared space where they can add, delete, and revise their writing (Angstrom & Jewett, 2005; Evans, 2006;

McPherson, 2006; Parker & Chao, 2007). Further, as students write their course content, they learn the material better than if they only read the textbook (Evans, 2006).

Web technologies such as wiki, blogs and RSS feeds have been called ‘social software’ because they are perceived as being especially connected, allowing users to develop web content collaboratively and open to the public (Alexander, 2006). Social software offers a variety of unique information sharing features, acting as cognitive reflection and implication tools, and aiding the construction of meaning through the act of self design of knowledge databases (Jonassen, Peck and Wilson, 1999). It helps to realize the original vision of the Web as a space in which anyone can participate (Schaffert, Gruber, & Westenthaler, 2006). Wikis in particular actively involves learners in their own construction of knowledge (Boulos, Marimba and Wheeler, 2006).

Wikis are collaborative Web-based environments that allow multiple users to easily and quickly contribute content which are dynamic, constantly changing Web pages where readers become authors and editors. They utilize a group’s collaborative, creative energy to produce shared knowledge that benefits everyone (Knobble and Lankshear, 2006; Evans, 2006). In a collaborative online community, each student’s ideas and knowledge are available and are a resource for everyone in the class (Hewitt and Scardamalia, 1998). As students combine their research, analyze it, and come to common understandings, the cooperation between them develops (Achterman, 2006). Students discover that their collective answer is better than their individual answers and as they produce new knowledge; they are advancing the collective knowledge of the group (Evans, Grant, 2006). Working together, students generate online materials that reflect what they have learned and show connections between their prior knowledge, the Course content and their personal experiences.

During the collaborative work of creating a wiki, the users develop trust and get to know one another (Evans, 2006). Collectively the users take ownership in the project, take pride in their work, and develop an appreciation of the contributions of the other users. In classrooms, students may not have time to read and build on each other's work; however, in collaborative online environments, they are given this opportunity. (Hewitt & Scardamalia, 1998). Research, discussions, and reflections started in the classroom can continue online. Reading and reflecting on course content outside the classroom increases students' understanding and retention (Ball & Washburn, 2001). As they contribute to a wiki, students are creating course resources and building course content in a shared space where they can add, delete, and revise their writing (Engstrom & Jewett, 2005; Evans, 2006; McPherson, 2006; Parker & Chao, 2007). Further, as students write their course content, they learn the material better than if they only read the textbook (Evans, 2006). Students need to understand that the collaboratively created text is owned by all of the contributors (Botterbusch & Parker, 2008), and even though their writing is published once it appears on the wiki, it can still undergo revisions as others react and respond to the writing and make changes (Locke, 2006).

The literature reviewed indicates that when learning is centered on cooperation or collaboration individuals seek outcomes beneficial to themselves and all other group members (Johnson, D., Johnson, R. & Holubec, E., 1994; Larsen-Freeman, 2000). A similar dimension of language learning belief is applied to writing development: process approach (Thornbury, 2006). The link between the aforementioned learning beliefs and social-cultural constructs (Vygotsky, 1978) is also established. Since the idea of collaborative learning empowers our teaching context, we are interested in the creative process of the writing, which is achieved in groups.

Contemporary society is viewed as liquid modernity (Bauman, 2001) which underlines the instability of numerous conflicting relationships and moral values of our times. The metaphor of liquidity can be applied to the field of education as well, more specifically when the place or writing in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom is concerned. Contemporary theory argues that students should understand writing as a process of constant fluidity. In this sense, it is necessary to raise students' awareness on the constant change expected from their language learning skills. The answer to this intriguing position lies in a useful tool employed by Information and Communication Technology (ICT) experts called: wiki. Students profit a great deal by peer-correction and wikis enable them to do so in an exciting and stimulating environment. At first, a wiki seems similar to a blog, but it actually allows users to edit the organization of contributions in addition to the content itself. Having students freely edit any page in a website promotes cooperative learning, which allows a community of learners to be able to teach each other something in a learner-centered fashion.

The need to integrate technology to the educational field urges in our days and so does the adoption of cooperative learning strategies in order to make apprenticeship meaningful. With a view to understanding the purpose of using wikis to foster cooperation in writing, a distinction should be made between product writing and process writing. Thornbury (2006: 249) characterizes both means of writing: This approach is called a product approach to the teaching of writing, since the focus is exclusively on producing a text (the product) that reproduces the model. By contrast, a process approach argues that writers do not in fact start with a clear idea of the finished product. Rather, the text emerges out of a creative process. This process includes: planning (generating ideas, goal setting and organizing), drafting and re- drafting; reviewing, including editing and proofreading, and, finally, "publishing". Advocates of a process approach

argue for a more organic sequence of classroom activities, beginning with the brainstorming of ideas, writing preliminary drafts, comparing drafts, re-drafting, and conferencing, that are, talking through their draft with the teacher, in order to fine-tune their ideas.

Literature shows that drawing an analogy between online collaboration activity provided by wikis and the overall writing development of EFL learners needs careful scrutiny since few studies have touched upon this newly evolving learning opportunity in this field. Thus, this paper aims at articulating the relationship between collaborative learning and the employment of wikis by inquiring the relevance of using a wiki with the purpose of peer-correction and students' development of writing. With regard to the literature review, I tried to find answers to the following questions:

1. Do learners develop their writing skills if cooperative learning strategies were applied into the digital context, particularly through wikis?
2. How do learners of English evaluate the process of collaborating in the digital environment to improve their writing skills?

Methodology:

34 students were selected from one of the writing proficiency classes of Sobhesadegh institute of higher education. They were assigned into a writing proficiency intact class. Prior to conducting the target study a writing pretest was administered to ensure that the subjects in this

study were at the same proficiency level in writing. In the introductory sessions, the professor explained the project to the students and introduced the wiki as an easily accessible online environment for them to create a shared knowledge of course content. Then during the experiment sessions, all the tasks and assignments which have been slightly adapted from the students' course book, transferred to the wiki. Traditionally, students would hand in their responses on a piece of paper and the teacher would be in charge of the correction. Being the wiki as a new medium of communication, however, students were granted the opportunity to co-construct knowledge and meaning in an innovative way with their peers. Students worked with wiki during a whole semester and cope with seven district tasks. The expected outcomes include: students being more respectful to deadline, their being enthusiastic about commenting on their classmate's writings, achieve higher levels of motivation by raising their interest in writing and please digital learners. At the end of the treatment a writing posttest was utilized. The performance of the participants on the posttest revealed that *Wiki as a collaborative learning had a significant impact on the improvement of writing proficiency of students then a questionnaire was designed to investigate the opinions and attitudes of students about wiki.*

Results and discussion:

Table 1: descriptive statistics of pre-test and post-test

Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 Pretest time 1	15.7794	34	2.35630	.40410
Posttest time 2	16.6985	34	1.77928	.30514

As table1 shows the mean scores of pre-test at Time 1 were (15. 77) and the mean scores of post-test at Time 2 were (16. 69). There for, we can conclude that there was a significant increase in pre- test scores from TIME1 (prior to the treatment) to Time 2 (after the treatment).

Table 2: paired samples t-test for pre-test and post-test

Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 pretest time 1 posttest time 2	-.91912	1.39632	.23947	-1.40632	-.43192	-3.838	33	.001

To better illustrate the findings, a paired sample t-test was conducted to evaluate the difference of Iranian EFL learners on pre-test and post-test of writing proficiency. There was a significant increase in the test scores from pre-test ($M=15.7$, $SD=2.35$) to post-test ($M=16.6$, $SD=1.77$). The eta squared statistic (0.30) indicated a large effect size. The performance of students improved as the result of treatment during the term.

Conclusion:

The increasing interest in belonging to an online community is the most insightful conclusion one reaches after having carried out this study. First, findings show that learners become less dependent of the teacher and share responsibility with their peers. In this digital context, they gain higher degrees of autonomy in the sense that they have to make choices while writing and providing feedback to their peers by trying out new ways of involving with the writing process

Questionnaires were positively answered as a fundamental issue in learning was increasingly raised: motivation. From the moment students were thoroughly engrossed in contributing on the wiki, they became more responsible for their own learning. Fruitful outcomes derived from such experience: digital learners were also privileged in the process, students were punctual to the deadlines and students as a whole acquired a better command of writing strategies.

Needless to say teachers should first and foremost provide learners with various opportunities to engage learners in the learning process. Thus, wikis have proved to be a key technological-enhanced tool to include digital learners. Based on the literature review, socio-cultural constructs show that wikis favor process writing and student-student interaction in the online environment. As a teacher, I had a very positive feedback from my students in terms of level of motivation and interest. The students who used to produce well-written compositions on paper also succeeded when they posted writings on the wiki. What is more, the students with poorly developed writing skills were more aware of their mistakes because of peer-correction. Apart from gaining cognitively, learners accurately developed their social skills in the sense that they cooperated instead of competing. This is the most gratifying achievement my students had and a personal goal I was granted when I decided to embark on this fascinating digital experience. We have come to notice a rapid increase in web-based tools used with an educational purpose, mainly blogs, wikis and podcasts. However, it is part of our role as teachers to make the right use of these potential applications and consider what benefits they will bring to our students.

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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN LOCAL CAMPS

Sophio Talakhadze, IBSU, Georgia

Abstract

The paper deals with professional development programs in local camps. Professional developing programs, camp settings, school or work experience, educational activities require constant and sustained quality. This paper provides an overview of age and stage theory, missions, goals, objectives, team work/collaboration, facilitation and how these can impact professional development programs in a case of local camps, where young adults participate in.

Key words: professional development programs, age and stage theory, adult learners, teamwork, diversity, facilitation

Introduction

In education, change is inevitable. Adults and especially young adults are constantly learning, growing and adopting new content standards, and new skills. Professional developing programs, camp settings, school or work experience, educational activities require constant and sustained quality. This means utmost clarity about the organizational mission, program goals and participant objectives, educational assumption, program design, educational approaches and activities, materials and resources used, appropriate selection and training of both staff and participants and assessment of programs and experiences. All of these components are fundamental to quality educational process.

This paper will provide an overview of age and stage theory, missions, goals, objectives, team work/collaboration, facilitation and how these can impact professional development programs in a case of local camps, where young adults participate in.

Each year, school districts are challenged to deliver worthwhile professional development opportunities. With the call for achievement for all students and for leaving no child behind, it is

imperative that schools offer programs that recognize the knowledge base of teachers. Being aware of adult learning theories will aid schools in offering effective, sustainable professional development activities.

Age and Stage Theory

One theory of adult development focuses on age. This theory proved that as people aged, they did not stop learning. It recognized first and foremost the contention of lifelong learning. Learning was something that continued throughout the life cycle. The two branches of this study included the stage and age theorists. Stage theorists focused on distinct, qualitative differences in models of thinking at various points in development that were not necessarily age related. Age theorists on the other hand, were interested in determining if there were concerns, problems or tasks common to most or all adults at various times in the life cycle. Both of these theories will be discussed.

The age theorists reported age related periods of life and focused on the problems and personal issues that affected adults at certain ages. Age theorist contended that the issues adults faced changed with chronological age. Professional development programs must take into consideration the practical knowledge of the educators. These enables participants to express themselves make meaning of the act.

The stage theorists found that adults moved through various stages of development. Loevinger (1976) examined age development and described how adults passed through stages as they attempted to understand themselves. She contended that adults moved from conformity to emotional independence and then to stage where the person reconciled their inner conflicts, renounced the unattainable and cherished their own identity.

All of these theories could have an impact on professional development, perhaps to improve in the future. Through the understandings of these various stages of development and recognition their abilities, with appropriate professional development activities, could be structured and presented to increase stage growth.

Adult development and professional development

Knowles (1973) referred to the adult learner as “neglected species”. When viewing adult development and professional development he listed five key assumptions about adult learners.

- Adults were motivated to learn as they experienced needs and interests that the learning would satisfy.
- Learning for adults was lifelong
- Experience was the main resource for adult learning
- Adults had a need to be self-directed in learning and
- Individual differences among people increased with age.

Adults and especially young adults should be given latitude to form their own professional development. What interests them? What would they like to delve into more deeply? What do they feel they need to learn? Allowing them to determine what direction their professional development will take will greatly increase the success of them in their journey to be lifelong learning.

Except school activities and formal experiences young adults have a great opportunity to take part in camps, whether local or international levels, that offers them a fun and exciting experience, but there is a lot more than that, which is based on sound educational principles and objectives and peace education curriculum with the aim of to educate and inspire individuals to become active and contributing members of a peaceful society-active global citizens, to stimulate the lifelong development of amicable relationships, effective communication, co-operation and leadership skills.

Teamwork and diversity

Teams and meeting go hand in hand, and meetings are in my ways, the cornerstones of teams. Yes most would probably agree that many meetings are a waste of time; that teams are rarely operate to their full potential. The questions that naturally arise then are: how to get more out of teamwork? How to improve the creativity of teams?

One of the most widely used “methods” of increasing team effectiveness and creativity is the introduction of diversity. In practice this means forming teams with individuals from different

(cultural) backgrounds so that team becomes more “heterogeneous”. For a small local organization or institution this may include having people from different disciplinary areas, from different age groups and of different genders as members of the team. General assumption is that diversity should be favored quite simply, because it improves team creativity and performance. Team diversity is paradoxical: heterogeneous teams can create better, more innovative products/services and they can outperform homogenous teams, which tend to have more conflicts and higher personal turnover. Whether you like teamwork or not, the fact remains that ideas, concepts, and decisions develop in a collective environment, and that is what people ultimately favor. No one likes an overly decisive team leader, yet an indecisive leader isn't actually a leader at all.

Facilitation

Facilitation of group discussions is intended to enhance interactions and to ensure participation all members. Not everyone however is equally good at facilitation. It is an important skill that needs to be developed. This becomes even more apparent when we understand that a facilitator's role is to direct and track interactions fairly. Good facilitation is critical to the success of the model, the group process and the overcome. Competent facilitators may be internal or external to the group, but the choice can affect group performance and this decision must be made with care. The role of the facilitator is to:

- Provide an overview of the discussion.
- Have members introduce themselves.
- At each phase, help the participants focused on the topic at hand.
- Ensure all members have an opportunity to speak.
- Clarify comments that may be unclear.
- Clarify where the group is in their discussion.
- Summarize periodically as needed/at the end.
- Obtain the group's validation of the summaries.

In fact, group members can help or hinder the process guide aside from the ability of the facilitator. Hence, their understanding and experience in facilitated groups is a significant factor.

Study circles

Another construct that promotes participation, especially in diverse groups is study circles. Generally, these are discussion groups of about 12 people who join together to explore issues of common concern and find solutions acceptable to the entire group. Before beginning that process, however they must also develop their own norms that will guide them in their task.

The differences between debate and discussion have significant implications for group work. In study circles, people join together prepared to learn from each other. Everyone is valued and everyone is considered equally important. People seek ways to build trust and respect. Participants know that through discussion they can explore issues and find solution despite different ways of speaking and seeing the world.

Assessing participant development

There are various aspects to assessment processes, but no matter how accomplished, assessment is quite essential to quality assurance. Assessment, for example may be both short and long-term. Short term assessment is conducted within the scope of a program and occurs during as well as at the end. When conducted during the program, it yields immediate feedback that helps to effect changes in the program as needed. Assessment at the end of program on the other hand provides an evaluation of the program and also the degree to which participants attained the program objectives. For this reason staff needs to refer frequently to explicitly stated objectives that guide the monitoring of the implementation of the program as it unfolds and growth of the participants. Providing an appropriate period of time to reflect upon their experience and absorb its lessons in order to have a valid analysis.

Conclusion

Whereas responsible international, intercultural or local educational organizations play an important role in today's world. Especially camps that deliver peace education in a way that is age-appropriate, informal and experimental. Experimental learning or "learning by doing" is

simply a way of saying learning from direct experience, rather than from reading books or listening lectures. It is characteristic of all international and local camps and activities and is fun and effective. Learning by doing, combined with its focus on building friendship, achieves lasting learning outcomes that impact on participants emotionally and their everyday lives.

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THE USE OF INTERNET SOURCES AND MULTIMEDIA TOOLS IN TEFL

Ahmet Serkan Tanriöver, Murat Babyrak

Bursa Technical University, School of Foreign Languages, Bursa/TURKEY

ABSTRACT

In our modern world, no one on earth is able to resist the concept “Globalization”, which is a kind of two-faced existence (both in positive and negative terms) spreading throughout the world quite swiftly and surely by means of quite many tools, particularly the Internet and the media.

With respect to language learning, an interactive multimedia universe comes onto the stage on which the Internet plays a major role both in teaching and learning a foreign language.

Key Words: the Internet, multimedia, multimedia tools

INTRODUCTION

Thanks to its immense benefits, countless features, and easy accessibility, the Internet has become one of the most unique components of language teaching in the FL classroom. One of the most outstanding reasons of the Internet’s becoming an indispensable language teaching/learning tool is that;

- the language used in the World Wide Web is real, authentic language, not the prefabricated, artificial, instructional language used in most textbooks,
- in the World Wide Web, there are myriad sites that can be used to engage students in authentic language practice.

(Mosquera, 2001)

The web sites that EFL students can use to benefit from in order to develop the four skills provide some sort of authentic language practice such as the following;

- reading newspaper, magazines, literary works online,
- visiting websites of worldwide popular museums,
- visiting international online libraries,
- accessing online tourist information centres,
- listening to radio programs online,
- watching TV online,
- going shopping and making real commercial transactions online (e-commerce),
- surfing on social networking websites (i.e.; facebook, twitter, etc.),
- following bloggers and portals online,

- playing computer games with chat-mode online.

(Mosquera, 2001)

This wide range of possibilities brings the Internet to the stage of foreign language learning and teaching. Although it may seem challenging to use the Internet for educational purposes within the instructional settings, the Internet can be regarded as an important shift from the traditional teacher-centered classroom to a more learner-centered classroom. In this way, the Internet creates the conditions for learner autonomy where pupils will develop social skills as well as skills for learning to learn. This is particularly beneficial for geographically isolated regions, where there is little or no contact at all with the target language and its culture (Groß, Wolff, 2001).

Basic Multimedia Tools for Communicative Language Practice

Videoconferencing, Teleconferencing, Social Networking Chatrooms, E-mail

Communication on the Net is divided into two groups; synchronous (i.e., real time) or asynchronous (Schwienhorst, Klaus, 2003). Videoconferencing, teleconferencing, social networking chatrooms may be considered some examples of synchronous communication. On the other hand, a typical example of asynchronous communication is e-mail (Trinder, 2002).

In synchronous communication, the interlocutors “talk” and receive immediate response just as in a face-to-face conversation while in the other type of communication a certain time delay may be possible, in some cases it may take a day or two between the exchanges.

In most of the developing countries, the main problem with videoconferencing is that this multimedia tool appears a little bit sophisticated due to the fact that it requires special software and hardware, such as cameras, headphones, microphones, etc., which in most cases are inaccessible to both teachers and students .

Social networking chatrooms are dynamic online resources that can be used in a number of ways to promote and encourage students to interact in English with people from all over the world (Trinder, 2002).

Here’s an anecdotal example of how a social networking chatroom can be quite beneficial, influential, and remarkable in terms of teaching and/or learning a foreign language. Until several years ago, I did not know the exact reference and/or English definition of the acronym “LOL”. Those years, I consulted some dictionaries and encyclopedias but I could not reach any results. Then I had an idea: “why not enter any social networking chatroom in the Internet and ask the question there?” I succeeded! I entered in a chatroom, said hello to my friend, asked the person what that acronym was extended in English and got my answer: “laugh out loud”. This was the easiest way to reach the information that I was looking for (Mosquera, 2001).

The electronic mail is considered the simplest tool on the Internet for communication. In reality, today many EFL/ELT teachers use e-mail to provide opportunities to their students for authentic communication with pen pals around the world and for carrying out collaborative projects (Vinagre, 2005).

Other Tools and/or Resources

Search Engines

The World Wide Web may be regarded as a vast, deep, and huge ocean “in” and “on” which people can find any kind of information on any kind of subject. Foreign language students should be helped and encouraged to acquire skills to navigate this ocean to locate the information they need. In this developmental progress, foreign language teachers undertake the vital role of rescuing students from getting lost and sinking. In this respect, search engines lend a helping hand to teachers. Search engines are the radars of not only foreign language learners but also language teachers. Some of the most successful search engines are as follows;

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[3 | Yahoo! Search](#)

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(cited from <http://www.ebizmba.com/articles/search-engines>)

Search engines such as the ones given above can be exploited by quite many foreign language learners/teachers in order to find skimming and scanning exercises.

Specialized Web Sites and Authentic Material

As mentioned earlier, the Internet offers billions of authentic materials that can be used in the EFL classroom. One of the most important features of these materials is that they are up-to-date, valid, revised, and free. There are quite many specialized web sites that offer at no cost very good quality and quite many foreign language teaching and learning resources and materials for all questions concerning language. These questions range from the four

skills of reading, listening, speaking, and writing to grammar, vocabulary, phonetics, pronunciation, morphology (Tschirner, Erwin, 2001).

- <http://www.todaysmeet.com>
Today'sMeet helps you embrace the [backchannel](#) and connect with your audience in realtime. Encourage the room to use the live stream to make comments, ask questions, and use that feedback to tailor your presentation, sharpen your points, and address audience needs.
- <http://www.surveymonkey.com/>
SurveyMonkey is the world's most popular online survey tool. It's easier than ever to send free surveys, polls, questionnaires, customer feedback and market research. Plus get access to survey questions and professional templates.
- <http://www.chatzy.com/>
Chatzy is a free private chat service which you can use to communicate with people you already know or people who visits your blog or website. With Chatzy you can create a chatroom and send out email invitations very quickly and easily. No registration is required.
- <http://www.voxopop.com/>
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- <http://www.voki.com/>
Voki is an educational tool that allows users to create their very own talking character. Voki is created by [Oddcast](#) and is located in New York City. Voki characters can be customized to look like historical figures, cartoons, animals, and even yourself! Give your Voki a voice by recording with a microphone, using our dial-in number, or uploading an audio file. Voki characters can be emailed, shared on social media, and embedded on websites!
- <http://www.jing.com>
Developed by TechSmith Corporation, **Jing** is a computer software program used to share images or movies with others on the Internet. Jing has a number of possible uses, both for business collaboration and enhancing online conversations or social networking sites.
- <http://www.videograbber.net/>
Video Grabber is the best **free online video grab app** which helps you grab videos from **YouTube, vimeo, dailymotion, break** and other online video sites.

By entering video URL address and click download, videograbber.net will automatically detect and find the real video file for you, you only need to save video to your PC. So that's the process: Copy Video URL, Paste URL, Download video, easy as 1, 2, and 3.

- <https://bubbl.us/>
Bubbl.us is a mind-mapping product aimed towards literally anyone who needs help organizing their thoughts or any untidy information. Powered by Flash, Bubbl.us makes it easy for anyone to quickly start planning and sorting out their ideas through the use of linked text bubbles. Each bubble of information is connected to its preceding parent bubble and color coordinated accordingly for hierarchy sake. Using the mouse wheel or the side tool bar allows for easy zooming in and out of your mind-maps. Also added to the tool bar is workspace positioning and setup styles, however most will find that holding the left mouse button and dragging is a much more convenient way of moving around the work area.
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- <http://www.spellingcity.com/>
VocabularySpellingCity is an educational game website that helps you learn vocabulary and spelling through [25 interactive learning games and activities](#). Students can practice your spelling and vocabulary word lists using our free educational games.

Chatterbots

The software which is called as chatterbot is a virtual robot that uses Artificial Intelligence (AI) to chat and interact with people. So, we can speak with the chatterbot as if we were having a conversation with a human being. It uses all the input provided by the user in every conversation to enrich itself and to get to know how the user thinks.

With the help of that software, students can practice various language skills at the same time (e.g., writing, reading and listening), since the conversation is held via the keyboard and the chatterbot’s responses can be both written and oral.

The user can teach the chatterbot and it can teach the user, so the more one speaks with it the more interesting the interaction will become. It is a very entertaining way to

practice the foreign language, since one can ask all sorts of questions, or say anything, even insult the robot and the answers are really intelligent and, depending on what you say, you can get unexpected answers, some of which are very funny.

Here's an example of a dialogue performed via chatterbot:

User: What do you know about Bill Clinton?

Chatterbot: He's famous for his romantic Office ☺

User: I think you're a thief.

Chatterbot: I'm sure you're my colleague ☺

On the Internet, you can find quite many chatterbots which are specialized in specific topics and thus students can learn not only language but also content from them. In the web site *www.zabaware.com*, one can speak with chatterbots online or download the software free for personal use.

USING MULTIMEDIA IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

A Brief Overview Related to the Widely Accepted Web Sites and Multimedia Tools

- <http://www.lingo2word.com/>
- <http://www.lingro.com/>
- <http://www.weebly.com/>
- <http://www.storybird.com/>
- <http://www.pixorial.com/>
- <http://www.dropbox.com/>
- <http://www.wiggio.com/>
- <http://www.wallwisher.com/>

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Trinder, R. (2002). Multimedia in the Business English Classroom: The Learners' Point of View. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*. Vol. 15 (1), p. 69-84

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- <http://www.todaysmeet.com>
TodayMeet helps you embrace the backchannel and connect with your audience in realtime. Encourage the room to use the live stream to make comments, ask questions, and use that feedback to tailor your presentation, sharpen your points, and address audience needs.
- <http://www.surveymonkey.com/>
SurveyMonkey is the world's most popular online survey tool. It's easier than ever to send free surveys, polls, questionnaires, customer feedback and market research. Plus get access to survey questions and professional templates.
- <http://www.chatzy.com/>
Chatzy is a free private chat service which you can use to communicate with people you already know or people who visits your blog or website. With Chatzy

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- <http://www.jing.com>
Developed by TechSmith Corporation, **Jing** is a computer software program used to share images or movies with others on the Internet. Jing has a number of possible uses, both for business collaboration and enhancing online conversations or social networking sites.
- <http://www.videograbber.net/>
Video Grabber is the best free online video grab app which helps you grab videos from YouTube, vimeo, dailymotion, break and other online video sites. By entering video URL address and click download, videograbber.net will automatically detect and find the real video file for you, you only need to save video to your PC. So that's the process: Copy Video URL, Paste URL, Download video, easy as 1, 2, and 3.
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Wordle is a toy for generating “word clouds” from text that you provide. The clouds give greater prominence to words that appear more frequently in the source text. You can tweak your clouds with different fonts, layouts, and color schemes. The images you create with Wordle are yours to use however you like. You can print them out, or save them to the Wordle gallery to share with your friends.
- <http://www.spellingcity.com/>
VocabularySpellingCity is an educational game website that helps you learn vocabulary and spelling through 25 interactive learning games and activities. Students can practice your spelling and vocabulary word lists using our free educational games.

Chatterbots

The software which is called as chatterbot is a virtual robot that uses Artificial Intelligence (AI) to chat and interact with people. So, we can speak with the chatterbot as if we were having a conversation with a human being. It uses all the input provided by the user in every conversation to enrich itself and to get to know how the user thinks.

With the help of that software, students can practice various language skills at the same time (e.g., writing, reading and listening), since the conversation is held via the keyboard and the chatterbot’s responses can be both written and oral.

The user can teach the chatterbot and it can teach the user, so the more one speaks with it the more interesting the interaction will become. It is a very entertaining way to practice the foreign language, since one can ask all sorts of questions, or say anything, even insult the robot and the answers are really intelligent and, depending on what you say, you can get unexpected answers, some of which are very funny.

Here’s an example of a dialogue performed via chatterbot:

User: What do you know about Bill Clinton?

Chatterbot: He’s famous for his romantic Office ☺

User: I think you’re a thief.

Chatterbot: I’m sure you’re my colleague ☺

On the Internet, you can find quite many chatterbots which are specialized in specific topics and thus students can learn not only language but also content from them. In the web

site www.zabaware.com, one can speak with chatterbots online or download the software free for personal use.

USING MULTIMEDIA IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

A Brief Overview Related to the Widely Accepted Web Sites and Multimedia Tools

- <http://www.lingo2word.com/>
- <http://www.lingro.com/>
- <http://www.weebly.com/>
- <http://www.storybird.com/>
- <http://www.pixorial.com/>
- <http://www.dropbox.com/>
- <http://www.wiggio.com/>
- <http://www.wallwisher.com/>

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COMMON vs. UNIQUE IN JOSEPH CONRAD'S "HEART OF DARKNESS"

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Abstract

The paper deals with some linguistic, sociolinguistic, and theological aspects of Joseph Conrad's "Heart of Darkness". The short novel in English by the non-native author is ascribed one of the top places among the best classical works of fiction.

Since its publication the novelette has hugely influenced even the most prominent British and American writers, had an impact on Sociology as a fledgling field at that period, has caused a profound controversy among critics, linguists, theologians and human rights activists.

The novelette has been intensively scrutinized from all the angles possible. The paper aims at understanding in what respects the author follows a well-tracked path of the literary tradition and how his book differs from the rest of fiction.

Key terms: Stylistics, Sociolinguistics, Ethnography of Communication, Corpus Linguistics, Speech Act Theory

One of the first short novels in English Joseph Conrad (Józef Teodor Konrad Korzeniowski) a Pole by birth appeared on a literary stage with was "Heart of Darkness". The novelette triggered diametrically contradicting researches by linguists, sociolinguists, psychologists, theologians coveting to unveil what Conrad aimed to say.

Never fluent in spoken English Conrad – an ardent sailor and an avid reader in his youth - chanced to learn the language theoretically too late to become one of the top English writers. Nevertheless, he proved to be gigantic enough to influence even such titans as F. S. Fitzgerald, W. Faulkner, etc. (Meyers, 1990)

With the short novel Joseph Conrad embraced two dimensionally different problems: social injustice, racism, discrimination and evil nature of a human being.

The main narrator/ protagonist Charles Marlow leads us into the dark depths of Africa in search of Kurtz- one more protagonist, the best agent among "civilized" European colonists with exceptional expertise for obtaining ivory from the Black Continent. During the quest there emerges another Kurtz-notorious, greedy, blood-thirsty, savage exterminating locals for his personal and for his company's gain. The road into Congo meanders through the murkiest ends of a human heart "capable of" any devilry imaginable.

The two above profound problems of the mankind are dealt in the novel with a unique mixture of linguistic, stylistic, narrative means researchers have long attempted to decipher.

Having a sound linguistic knowledge and a sophisticated communicative competence of English at his disposal Joseph Conrad risked and ventured to experiment with them. Task number one for him was to create the atmosphere of “impenetrable darkness” (in the novelette a metaphor for a human heart full of each and every cruelty and savagery). Conrad probes to multiply or to magnify all the linguistic material available to him in English.

Reading the short novel is like going through the hurricane of words in the darkness. Moreover, no matter how many times one peruses or skims it, the dark never dissolves. “Walking in the dark” technique was later imitated by W. Faulkner; however, unlike “Heart of Darkness”, the second reading in Faulkner’s “The Sound and the Fury” clarifies the darkness.

Words whether collocated or separate play a crucial role in drawing the gloomy picture, e.g.; *sordid farce, uniform somberness, mournful and senseless delusion, devil of silence, ominous voice, desperate grief, tangled gloom, impenetrable darkness, howling sorrow, utter solitude/utter silence/utter despair, aggravated witch-dance, somber, brooding, and menacing expression, hidden evil, lurking death, aggravated murder, profound anguish, black and incomprehensible frenzy, tumultuous and mournful uproar, tremulous and prolonged wail of mournful fear, gnawing devils of hunger, gloomy, dark, slander, hate, to detest, fiend / fiendish, sinister, danger, perdition, etc..*

“Heart of Darkness” is considered to be unnecessarily and “uncomfortably wordy. Words! At times Conrad and Marlow seem to want to erect (as does a psychoanalyst’s patient) a screen of word between themselves and the horror of a half-remembered experience” (Guerard, 1980:8).

Words with negative connotations, words revolving around hyperonyms of despair, darkness, evil, murder, etc. are accumulated by the author and by repeating many of them throughout the text Conrad saturates the novelette with the above vocabulary,

Peppering a text with synonymous words results in their redundancy and is considered to be a vice of style. However, in doing so Conrad achieves an effect of climax in some episodes, entangles a reader in others.

“Heart of Darkness” is one of the first two novels studied with Corpus Linguistics methods- it means a thorough qualitative research (Stubbs, 2005). The analysis revealed the data partly solving a puzzle of the novelette. Such an analysis conducted by us as well disclosed the frequency of which words and word combinations created an enigma and the mind-grinding experience of the story:

dark-26 / darkness-25, gloom-14 / gloomy-4, appalling – 4, hate -11, monstrous-4, phantom-6, black-42, devil-18 / devilish-1 / devilry-1, mourn-5 /mournful-6, sorrow-11 / sorrowful 3, dusk 7, mist 3 /misty 7 /mistily 1, fog , etc.

Although most researches have focused on unique linguistic aspects of “Heart of Darkness” and consequently facilitated uncovering his idiolect (the language unique to an individual), clarifying and stating what variety of English he introduced to the world is still noteworthy.

A quantitative analysis conducted by means of Google Books Corpora detected that Joseph Conrad contributed the following word combinations to the language: *tepid skepticism, abominable satisfaction* (from French L’abominable satisfaction) , *vacant glassiness, howling sorrow, lugubrious drollery, unconcerned wisdom, a flavor of mortality, rioting invasion, glimpsed truth, etc.*

Oxymorons used in “Heart of Darkness” attract readers’ attention again with their originality, e.g., *inhabited devastation, rioting invasion of soundless life, Holy terror, glorious slaughter, eager fatalism, subtle horror, blind whiteness, dishonoring flourish.*

Presumably either the authorship is wholly Conrad’s or he revived them from the English classic literature of centuries ago which the above-mentioned search engine does not encompass.

Conrad skillfully uses potential of word formation- his novelette can be called one of the most negatively affixed and negatively worded short novels in the English fiction. The above-mentioned quantitative research pinpoints the trend as well. “Conrad uses a large number of words with negative prefixes <ca 200>: two per page on average. The following are the most frequent:

impossible/ity 12, uneasy/iness 8, unexpected/ness 7, impenetrable 6, inconceivable/ly 6, incredible 5, indistinct/ly 5, intolerable/ly 5, unknown 5, incomprehensible 4, inscrutable 4, unearthly 4, unsound 4.

In addition to these 200 or so words (mainly adjectives), a further 50 end in *-less* (e.g. *colourless, heartless*), and there are a further 500 occurrences of *no, not, never, nothing, nobody* and *nowhere*, plus a further 50 occurrences of *without*.

The total frequency of these negatives is over 800: around one in every 50 words of running text” (Stubbs, 2005:16).

With a high degree of dexterity the author uses conversion- forming new words without changing their initial forms. William Shakespeare commenced refining and elaborating usage of zero affixation as a lexically and structurally flexible device of expressing ideas. Some of converted derivatives in “Heart of Darkness” include:

.....after ages of good service done to the race that *peopled* its banks.....;

On silvery sand-banks hippos and alligators *sunned* themselves side by side

It was the shaft of a spear that, either thrown or *lunged* through the opening, had caught him in the side, etc.

Conrad frequents definite words so much that they can be included into his idiolect detention file; it is evident that availability of these words to the author was rather high. He adorns these words with various verbal surroundings, e.g.,

the mournful *stillness* of the grove

the high *stillness* of primeval forest

the *stillness* on the face of the immensity

stillness of life

the *stillness* of an implacable force brooding over

mysterious *stillness*

by the descent of a chill *stillness*

a pause of profound *stillness*

Any book published is a joint enterprise of publishers, authors and editors. Joseph Conrad is known to have implored his friends and editors to perfect his writings. Hence, what is available to readers in black and white is not solely one man's endeavor.

Joseph Conrad as a writer was equipped with 3 languages- English, Polish, and French. When resorting to the former for writing he was never free from the native tongue influence alongside French. Thus, he brought into *his* English structural and lexical peculiarities of two more languages.

When Conrad introduced his first novels to the literary world, he as a foreigner was received with "skepticism and irony". His language was "interpreted as an amateur's or foreigner's clumsiness" (Guerard, 1980:7). Later when greatness of the author became unanimous, the above ideas were altogether refuted.

Nevertheless, certain peculiarities of "Heart of Darkness" English regarded as unique are in fact typical for non-native English speakers and writers. Psycholinguistic researches lead scientists to the conclusions that non-natives process target languages with strikingly similar matrixes.

Hence, abundance of lists of words, of independent pronouns, of certain punctuation marks may be seen as a non-native's idiolect. On the one hand, a non-native feels comfortable with the above material; on the other hand, they serve as a sort of way out when being unable to complete a sentence.

Joseph Conrad's "Heart of Darkness" is known to be "evasive in structure" (Guerard, 1980:8).

Khalil Hassan Nofal (2013:455). names constructions quite frequently applied in the English fiction for focusing on certain words / ideas which compensate for the lack of flexibility a fixed

order of words imposes on English: passivization, clefting (or it clefting), thematization (fronting), parenthesis, front-weight, end-weight, complex noun phrases, complex sentences and hypothetical sentences.

Unique in case of “Heart of Darkness” is a noticeable exaggeration of the above features. Paradoxically enough Conrad achieves a double effect with these devices- emphasizing some word/s in a sentence while causing ambiguity. In this way Conrad brought into *his* English a looser word order typical for Polish and French and it is feasible that Conrad was “toying architecturally” with words and structures not being fully aware of the effect they produced. However, the author whose intention was to convey duality of human nature might have deliberately designed the novelette in such an elusive manner.

Conrad creates the Gordian Knots not only with syntactic structures of complete sentences, he does so with lengthy word combinations readers find difficult to cope and are at a loss with, and the fact that they are truly Conrad’s is undoubtable, e .g.,an overwhelming outbreak of a pent-up and mysterious frenzy.....,the stillness of an implacable force brooding over an inscrutable intention....

Abundance of repetition, parallelism, and dichotomy is a salient feature of Conrad’s handwriting.

- I've seen the *devil* of violence, and the *devil* of greed, and the *devil* of hot desire; but, by all the stars! These were strong, lusty, red-eyed *devils*, that swayed and drove men -- men, I tell you.
- Everything belonged to him- but that was a trifle.
- Good or evil / the diabolic love and the unearthly hate / titled – untitled/ a door opened – closed. handwriting

One more idiolectal aspect of “Heart of Darkness” is its punctuation. The novelette is “densely populated” with punctuation marks, e.g.,

- ... -65
- -- - 622
- !-159
- ?-115
- ;-229

Here again justification is twofold- the short novel is the protagonist’s narration, the narrative frame naturally requires the above marks for pauses, ellipsis, etc. On the other hand, the evasiveness of structures “Heart of Darkness” is distinguished with necessitates usage of the above material.

“Heart of Darkness” is one complete communicative situation. If applying Dell Hymes (1974: 53-62) formula SPEAKING for analyzing it, it becomes evident how thoroughly and

comprehensively the author planned to chain a reader to the novel, to enslave him/her within it. An unknown frame narrator reintroducing the main one from time to time, the latter telling his story to the other four on board of the Nellie – a British ship; diverse settings – the scene where the narration occurs, the scenes of the events taking place either in Africa or back in England and both the settings and the narrators being reshuffled artfully and occasionally - the speech situation structured in this way distracts a reader and he/she loses the tread of the story during some episodes and the atmosphere of distress, confusion and despair is created in most.

Two speech acts by Kurtz attract the most attention, one in a written form, another in a spoken one: “Exterminate all the brutes!”, “The horror! The horror!” The former is one of Kurtz’s “humane” mottos, the latter – his last words. Throughout the text the author allows the protagonist – Kurtz to utter as few words as it is possible in such a way burdening with significance the scarce words of the wicked. The two utterances “lurk in the dark” of the novel producing a profound perlocutionary effect on readers; however, the degree of indignation depends on a person’s psychological set, his/her religious, social, educational backgrounds, and their mentality. Kurtz’s final words are repeated, echoed at the end of the novel three times – in this way the author uses an XYZ rhetorical formula typical for religious and political languages. It is one of the powerful devices if achieving an emotional climax in a reader.

“The horror! The horror!”

"I thought his memory was like the other memories of the dead that accumulate in every man's life -- a vague impress on the brain of shadows that had fallen on it in their swift and final passage; but before the high and ponderous door, between the tall houses of a street as still and decorous as a well-kept alley in a cemetery, I had a vision of him on the stretcher, opening his mouth voraciously, as if to devour all the earth with all its mankind. He lived then before me; he lived as much as he had ever lived -- a shadow insatiable of splendid appearances, of frightful realities; a shadow darker than the shadow of the night, and draped nobly in the folds of a gorgeous eloquence. The Company did not pay for it. I collected it myself at a very great personal risk. I am afraid they will try to claim it as theirs though. H'm. It is a difficult case. What do you think I ought to do -- resist? Eh? I want no more than justice.' . . . He wanted no more than justice -- no more than justice. I rang the bell before a mahogany door on the first floor, and while I waited he seemed to stare at me out of the glassy panel -- stare with that wide and immense stare embracing, condemning, loathing all the universe. I seemed to hear the whispered cry, ***"The horror! The horror!"***

"She came forward, all in black, with a pale head, floating towards me in the dusk. She was in mourning. It was more than a year since his death, more than a year since the news

came; she seemed as though she would remember and mourn forever. She took both my hands in hers and murmured, 'I had heard you were coming.' I noticed she was not very young -- I mean not girlish. She had a mature capacity for fidelity, for belief, for suffering. The room seemed to have grown darker, as if all the sad light of the cloudy evening had taken refuge on her forehead. This fair hair, this pale visage, this pure brow, seemed surrounded by an ashy halo from which the dark eyes looked out at me. Their glance was guileless, profound, confident, and trustful. She carried her sorrowful head as though she were proud of that sorrow, as though she would say, 'I -- I alone know how to mourn for him as he deserves.' But while we were still shaking hands, such a look of awful desolation came upon her face that I perceived she was one of those creatures that are not the playthings of Time. For her he had died only yesterday.

"I was on the point of crying at her, 'Don't you hear them?' The dusk was repeating them in a persistent whisper all around us, in a whisper that seemed to swell menacingly like the first whisper of a rising wind.

'The horror! The horror!'

The powerful and formidable rhetoric of "Heart of Darkness" comprising elements of political and religious Englishes had a great impact on further development of Sociology- a fledgling field a century ago and decades later during the Vietnam War inspired Francis Ford Coppola to make his war epic film *Apocalypse Now*.

Researchers have drawn parallels between "Heart of Darkness" and some epic narrative works claiming Conrad follows the same frame, some have focused on Biblical references in the novel. Joseph Conrad as a religiously educated man presumably possessed a sound knowledge of psalms. Similarities between The Book of Psalms and "Heart of Darkness" both in form and in content are tangible. Analyzing these coincidences facilitates understanding socio-linguistic aspects of "Heart of Darkness". Although labeled as unnecessarily wordy the novel contains about 40 000 words only, The Book of Psalms has the same length – approximately 40 000 words (number of words differs slightly from translation to translation). Both have double narrators, with the first one unknown, introducing the main one carrying the most burden of the storytelling. King David's addressee is God, in case of "Heart of Darkness" the narration is addressed to the whole universe. In both books there is one indispensable referent- a wicked man- an enemy - condemning, reviling, unmasking whom is the thread of the two plots. All the woes of the humankind are in the psalms and in "Heart of Darkness". The novelette and the psalms lament wickedness, utmost hypocrisy of men, draw a picture of and grieve an abominable world they create, in both books there is a reference to some countries / nations conspiring to

oppress weaker ones. Both books vividly picture what awaits those cruel, greedy and evil – a shame, a wretched end, disgrace. Like “Heart of Darkness” in the psalms wicked men speak little and what they say abounds with injustice, ruthlessness, godlessness.

Consequently there are lexical coincidences between the two books, structural similarities (the psalms like “Heart of Darkness” are paragons of parallelism), and the tendency towards overusage of words is virtually impossible to ignore in both.

In conclusion it can be said that Joseph Conrad- a person with a deep knowledge of the world literature, in general, and with a profound insight into the English fiction, in particular, borrowed many traditional techniques from both, modernized drastically some ways of storytelling, experimented with the English structure and lexis, brought into the novel elements of Polish and French, added his experience as a sailor, his religious and philosophical considerations to the unique mixture of the novelette. To paraphrase an old English rhyme and to use Conrad’s favorite idiolectal “something” it may be summed up that Joseph Conrad’s “Heart of Darkness” is something new, something old, something borrowed, something dark.

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METHODS OF TEACHING IN INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

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Abstract

The work towards inclusive curriculum and pedagogy is becoming more and more relevant nowadays. Teachers have to deal with this aspect of teaching with or without the help of others. They try things out, observe its development, judge its progress, re-think and try it again in better way. Inclusive education entails many facets that contribute to its success. Namely, these aspects could be the following: vision, leadership, collaboration, knowledge, commitment, and time. The question is: what acts as a factor to favorable outcome of this program?

Key words: Inclusion, children with needs, curriculum, techniques, implementation.

Introduction

Children who have various needs may be a danger in terms how differing their needs can be: educators may forget how strongly they similar to other children. They seem to forget the fact that these children need the same education and personal development as any other normal kid. They need friends, they need interaction and they need support. They must be included in the everyday activities of the classroom. The classroom setting may be frightening as some children may have bad experience away from his or her family and it takes time for them to get used to their peers and teachers (Mind, 2005).

We must agree to one thing-that all children are unique. They are all individuals. Like adults they have strengths and weaknesses. We see their uniqueness in one of the following aspects: vision, hearing, communication, movement, perceptual-motor, social-emotional, intelligence and adaptive behavior. These children should be treated as children with diverse abilities that include both incapacities and talents (Dash, 2006).

The Definition of Inclusion

Inclusion can be defined as the fact of including somebody or something. Loreman and Harvey (2005) define it as the inclusion of children with various abilities, including both students who are revealing special talents and those who have disabilities, into the schooling aspects available in our society.

The concept of Inclusion is different from segregation. In order to understand the notion of it thoroughly these two must be defined. “Segregated education creates a permanent underclass of students and conveys a strong message to those students that they don’t measure up, fit in, or belongs. Segregationist thinking assumes that the right to belong is an earned rather than an unconditional human right” (Villa and Thousand, 2005). “Inclusive education is about embracing everyone and making a commitment to provide each student in the community, each citizen in a democracy, with an inalienable right to belong. Inclusion assumes that living and learning together benefits everyone, not just children who are labeled as having a difference (e.g. those who are gifted, are non-English proficient, or have a disability)” (Villa and Thousand, 2005).

Elements of Inclusion

School and classroom play a decisive role as a part of successful elements of inclusive education. Day to day communication, daily decisions and sometimes even minute-to-minute decisions all constitute school culture. These activities comprise a great number of people including general and special education teachers, therapists, librarians, principals, secretaries, students, etc. According to Power-DeFur and Orelove (1997) the following activities are considered to be important factors for successful inclusive education:

1. Begin with a philosophy that supports appropriate inclusive practices-a clear philosophy about the value of all students, developed by all staff and families, can serve as an important bridge builder across different groups of people, as well as an anchor during difficult periods of implementation....
2. Plan carefully and thoroughly-....school personnel who have implemented inclusive education identify the planning stage as critical to success. The planning process should include everyone. Many schools develop core planning groups or teams, who maintain contact with other school staff and families. Early planning sessions should enable teachers and others to ask questions freely in a non-threatening environment and should deal with anticipated fears about inclusion. Successful planning also involves discussion of how staff will work together....
3. Involve the principal as a change agent-....teaching staff reported that the principal was important in establishing a positive tone, in demonstrating respect for teachers as professionals, in maintaining communication, in bringing in new information, and dealing with logistical issues.

4. Involve parent-....parents bring valuable perspective and information to the table that cannot be matched. School personnel can enhance successful inclusion by communicating openly and honestly, by respecting families' cultural patterns and beliefs, and by listening carefully to their suggestions and concerns.

5. Provide necessary training and support to staff- helpful training for inclusion includes: site visits to inclusive classrooms...., situation-specific problem-solving sessions...., sessions on instructional strategies and curricular adaptations.

6. Provide structure and support for ongoing collaboration-since inclusive education is based on a unified general and special education system, success depends on the ability of various educators to work together....

(p. 8-9)

Techniques for successful implementation in Georgia

Georgian schools include the following techniques or methods for successful implementation of different facets that constitute inclusive education:

1. Administration decides on the list of students who need modified curriculum during a month from the start of school term. Every decision of school concerning each student must be substantiated by teachers and parents.

2. After providing such list, school determines the in-depth assessment of students' capacities. It is carried out by Multidisciplinary group.

3. Students with disabilities receive the supports they need to be successful in the classroom (e.g. curriculum adaptation and modification according to National Curriculum, assistive technology, adult and peer assistance).

4. The school chooses the Multidisciplinary group members which comprises teachers that initially teach those students with special needs, parent or parents, guardian or guardians, the member of school administration, psychologist, special education teacher if school employs such. The group has the head that is responsible for their activities.

5. It is recommended to name the head of the class as the manager of modified curriculum.

6. The school also decides on meetings concerning modified curriculum.

7. The meetings are held minimum twice a year to discuss the ongoing processes and assess how successful were their decisions.

8. Within two months of the start of school term the school presents modified school curriculum which includes the following aspects:

1. Additional or individual classes for students which includes time, place and duration of those classes
 2. A person who is responsible for additional or individual classes
 3. Additional technical resources such as bus service, the necessity of using computers, necessary school equipment, break time, etc
 4. A person who is responsible for additional educational materials
9. During the term school monitors the implementation of modified curriculum in order to change some aspects of it if needed.
10. In the end of the term the administration requires students' portfolios
- (Georgian-American High School Regulation, 2013)

Conclusion

Obviously, there are many other elements to fit into this list, for instance, such factors as changing tasks, and instruction to be understandable for everybody, developing strategies concerning the assessment of students' performance. But the most important issue is that teachers and staff in general must be able to resist any kinds of protest in order to follow their path and achieve their goals. Inclusive education was a challenge in many countries throughout the history and Georgia is not the exception. The government of Georgia highly supports this practice in Georgian schools and it's up to teachers and also society to create a favorable environment for children with special needs to develop and become active members of Georgian society.

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CULTURAL ISSUES ADDRESSED IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

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Abstract

The diversity of today's classrooms imposes another goal on teachers in terms of managing them in culturally competent ways. Understanding why some students sit quiet in class while others do not requires cultural intelligence, the assemble of skills , knowledge and attitude that enables teachers to work effectively in the 21st century classrooms. Ignoring diversity and addressing class from the perspective of mainstream sociocultural norms may cause conflict. This article serves as a filler of cultural gap between teachers and students. It focuses on cultural issues, challenges and tasks what teachers face while organizing and managing classrooms and the ways to avoid conflict. The article will help teachers by emphasizing several areas of importance and enabling them to create environments of cultural safety.

Key words: culture, classroom management, conflict, cultural intelligence, cultural safety, cultural awareness.

Introduction

Effective classroom management relates to teachers' actions to create positive classroom climate in which learners are valued and learning is promoted. Effective classroom management is essential for successful teaching.

There is plethora of researches revealing multiple factors influencing classroom and among them the first in the list stands culture. Culture explains why a person may behave as he or she does. The dominant attitudes, values and beliefs shape or motivate behavior.

Cultural diversity, that is so significant in today's classrooms, requires specific approaches and strategies for enacting culturally responsive classroom management. Setting classroom routines is considered relatively easy when teachers and students belong to the same cultural group. They tend to share many common conscious beliefs. Only when classrooms are represented by mixed cultural or linguistic groups the process becomes complicated.

When people from different cultures come together there is often misunderstanding and conflict. Teachers will explain the behavior of students from other cultures if they have more comprehensive understanding of those cultures and they can understand why they behave the way they do if they are consciously aware of own culture. People are usually unaware of own culture until they come across or interact with those who are culturally different. The level of awareness of teachers, their tendencies, biases, values, prejudices are crucial in leading classrooms effectively.

Theoretical background

Edward Hall, (1976) an anthropologist compares culture with iceberg. Like iceberg has visible and hidden parts, most cultural elements are invisible. The invisible parts of culture are beliefs, values, and assumptions- the reasons people behave the way they do. The visible aspects of culture are things you observe, food, clothes. The tip of the iceberg, external culture, constitutes the smallest part of beneath the water level part of iceberg, the internal culture. While people from different cultures coming together are worried about small things like saying a wrong word, the real conflict occurs at the internal level when values, thought patterns, central beliefs, perceptions and attitudes clash.

Like "Culturally responsive teaching" (Gay, 2000) and "Culturally relevant pedagogy" (Ladson-Billings, 2001) address the need for teachers to develop the knowledge, skills to teach in diverse context, culturally responsive classroom management starts with understanding everyone in the classroom and thus, developing your cultural intelligence.

Hofetede (1980) identified four dominant patterns: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-famininity. Asian cultures, for example tend to believe that power should be help by few individuals, while European-American students tend to believe that power should be distributed and that everyone has equal opportunity to possess it. Students

from large power index cultures (Hofstede, 1991) are scared to approach their instructors even for consultation and guidance. Learners intentionally participate less not to seem showy or because of being afraid of confronting with authority figures.

Learners from strong uncertainty avoidance cultures are intimidated by learning situations that are unstructured and unclear. They expect formal rules to guide their behavior. Teachers' instructional strategies matters for them greatly. Some cultures cannot tolerate with circumstances that may threaten the culture's structure and hierarchy.

Competition, autonomy, privacy, personal opinion and independence are core elements in individualistic values. Cultures subordinating the needs of the individual to the group are reflective of collectivist societies. Sharing is core value in collectivist cultures.

Students from high-context cultures and low-context cultures view the educational process differently. In high-context cultures where there is so much general understanding and shared knowledge, context clues are enough. Students from high-context cultures are too sensitive about the dress code, the way people greet or think about their families. They see the behavior of students from different culture puzzling as they don't understand the context. People in high-context cultures are cautious of change because they often have long traditions of how things are done. Learners from low-context cultures focus more on actions rather than spending time on forming relationships.

Communication with families is important issue in managing classrooms effectively and especially in organizing diverse classrooms. Culturally responsive classrooms have clear communication with families. It is necessary for teachers to understand what is their understanding of discipline, classroom rules, and aspects of culture. Parents from different culture connect with school differently and this does not mean that it is the lack of commitment to their children's education.

The development of positive classroom climate, expressing empathy and care, respecting every individual is core of the effective classroom management, especially when teachers and students come from different cultural backgrounds. A functional class must be characterized by Mutual respect between teacher and student should be a main characteristic for the multicultural classes. Covey (1989) introduces the principle of "Emotional Bank Account." This is a metaphor that

describes the amount of trust people build up in a relationship. The concept of this principle is that classroom participants are either depositing or withdrawing emotional investments from the relationships. It is obvious that withdrawal cannot happen without investment and teachers invest by satisfying students basic needs.

Conclusion

It is getting more straightforward that in the era of technological advancement and numerous knowledge or information sources around us, being a teacher is not at all easy. Increasing diversity of classrooms challenges teachers' professional skills.

To summarize the paper I would like to list what teachers should do to enact culturally responsive classroom management.

- Teachers should not see culture as limitation rather than opportunity for emancipation.
- Teachers should increase their cultural competence to be better prepared for classroom diversity.
- Teachers should become aware of their own culture, biases, limitations to create effective classrooms.
- Teachers should work on enhancing their cultural intelligence to form bases for equal participation for students.
- Teachers should establish clear expectations and rules for classroom behavior.
- Teachers should work with families.
- Teachers should develop caring, respectful relationships.

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PHATIC COMMUNICATION AND THE ROLE OF LIE

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The role of language in our life is immeasurable. Generally, linguists and language philosophers discuss language as means of sending and receiving factual information. Sociologists and sociolinguists focus on the usage of language for making social relationships. With the help of communication we establish human relationships, share our points of views, express our feelings, gain our goals, make impressions on others and build our private authority.

Linguists distinguish the following kinds of communication: factual, evaluative, gut-level, peak and phatic.

Factual communication: using events, making observations, offering knowledge to others in a manner which can be called chitchat or small talk. At business parties, we rely upon factual communication to network, to schmooze, and to work the room. Factual communication includes reporting what you've read in a textbook, what you've studied for a test, showing pictures of your children, and exchanging biographical information about yourself. Factual communication is relatively safe and most do this well.

Examples: I'm majoring in business administration.

I'm married with three children, two sons and one daughter.

Did you watch the basketball game last night?

What did we do in class last Friday?

Evaluative communication: offering opinions, ideas and judgments to others. This is risky business because the odds are that others will reciprocate with their own evaluations, which may be different from yours. When using evaluative communication, consider carefully the importance of descriptive, provisional, and responsible expressions. Strive to avoid cautionary language, sarcasm, and nonverbal put-downs (e.g., rolling your eyes in response to another's comments).

Examples: Of all my children, my daughter is the better athlete.

I thought that movie was excellent, particularly with the surprising ending.

I'm not convinced that your argument is well supported.

I agree with you!

Gut-level communication involves sharing our emotions and feelings with another. We are sharing our very essence when we allow others to know our heart. This is risky business! Societies place constraints upon the specific emotions which can be conveyed (e.g., It's good to express love; it's bad to express hatred). We also have rules about when and how feelings can be expressed ("That was the wrong time and place for arguing with your spouse.") Emotional intelligence

involves interpersonal competencies including self-awareness, self control, flexibility and empathy.

Examples: I deeply appreciate your thoughtfulness and generosity in helping me earlier.

I'm so frustrated with you!

I'm wish that I hadn't called you that name. I hope that you'll forgive me.

He called me! I'm so excited to see him again!

Peak communication: coming together with another in an extraordinary way. Two individuals who are gut leveling experience a transformation when they are sharing the exact same emotion with the same level of intensity. It's as if, for the moment, two souls merge into one. Peak communication is rare, even among close friends and family members.

Examples: I love you. I love you too.

I'm so angry with you. I'm so angry with you as well.

I'm glad that we were able to fight long enough to get this resolved. Yes, I feel exactly the same way, glad that we communicated collaboratively.

I'm scared. I'm scared too.

Phatic Communication: using conventional messages to establish rapport, to break the ice, and/or to end a conversation. You might hug, kiss, shake hands, bow, smile, make eye contact, and face one another. We exchange pleasantries by using clichés. Clichés are overused expressions that have lost their original (content) meanings and have taken on new relational meanings. We expect phatic communication at the beginning and end of every conversation, regardless of our feelings about a person.

The most common example of phatic expressions are:

Hello. How are you?

I'm fine. How are you?

Thanks for coming. Have a nice day.

You're welcome.

The scientific research of phatic communication is connected to Polish scientist Bronislaw Malinowski. The term "phatic" comes from Greek language (phatos- conversational; phanai- conversation). Malinowski defines phatic communication as a type of speech in which ties of union are created by a mere exchange of words" (Malinowski, 1923:478).

Among its most frequent manifestations, the author mentioned a plethora of formulaic expressions of greeting, questions about the interlocutors' health, well-being, family, etc., narrations about apparently irrelevant facts or comments about topics that may seem obvious or trivial, such as the weather (Malinowski, 1923: 476-479). Their *raison d'etre* is to avoid silence which can originate an unpleasant tension that may, in turn, have negative consequences for social interaction, since taciturnity is regarded in some cultures as an evident sign of hostility or bad mood. Phatic discourse also permits inconsistent, tautological, dogmatic, and other illogical devices to operate.

Peculiarities of phatic communication have not had undergone a systemic analysis in linguistics yet. Traditionally it is acknowledged that phatic utterances do not convey any important information. But the results of investigation prove that phatic utterances may serve as markers of interlocutors' education, age, and social status. Sometimes the way one person greets the other one may serve as an indication of whether the language of communication is native or foreign, whether the speaker is educated or not, whether he/she is a northerner or southerner, etc. The author's discourse can be defined as a pattern of verbal behaviour but, at the same time, it can be viewed as a verbal form of social behaviour, an instance of communicative language use, and the process of unfolding an idea into a text.

Phatic function is a communicative language function that serves for making and supporting and finishing contact.

Here are examples:

1. Making a contact: Good-morning; Hello; Hi.

2. Supporting a contact: Oh, I beg your pardon; I feel sorry.

3. Finishing a contact: Good-bye; See you soon

N. Arutyunova (1988) considers the topic of phatic communication to be everything that is important and new information. To his mind the aim of phatic communication is to entertain a listener and tell him/her about his dispositions, impressions, feelings, tastes and plans. But he also considers that even boring speakers try to speak about something unusual and exaggerate the story, as routine doesn't evoke the interest and curiosity. L/Gokhsadze and I. Demetradze do not agree with Arutyunova because according to the linguistic research phatic communication covers everyday, trivial topics. The dialogues like: "What's news?" "Nothing special." is considered to be the classical samples of phatic communication. (Gokhsadze, Demetradze, 1996: 13)

People learn rules of phatic communication gradually like the norms of behaviours. Children at their early age can't communicate with phatic expressions. They develop this skill step by step. There are two levels in phatic communication: formal and informal each having clear-cut regulatory. Native speakers switch automatically from one register to another one automatically.

Phatic communication is mainly dialogical with the exceptions of public reports, official and ceremonial speeches of politicians and civil servants.

Phatic communication is probably the only form of communication which doesn't always aim to tell the truth. For example, when a person is certain to pass away he/she is encouraged by his relatives and friends by the following phatic expressions: Don't worry, you will get over soon. The speaker knows that the listener won't recover, but he has to tell lie in order to condole and encourage the ill person. Telling the truth in such cases is not tactful. So a good interlocutor must follow the norms of social interaction even if these norms require unfaithful conversation from his side.

As Glisson (1961) says, telling lies is equally possible in all languages, but lies are different in the view of extra linguistic conditions and the frequency of its use and its eligibility is controlled by social norms.

Coleman and Cay mention three main factors for defining lies:

- a) The speaker believes that his utterance isn't true.
- b) The speaker intends to lie the listener with the given utterance.

c) The speaker's statement is false.

When all these factors act, the sentence is real lie. When one or two factors operate, the speaker tries to encourage or praise the listener and not lie him/her. During the phatic communication only **a** and **b** factors act. Such lies are called "white lies" and stress that in such cases encouraging the listener and keeping social norms is more important than telling him true information. They name 3 spheres where lie is not only acceptable but desirable. They are: politeness, entertainment (e.g. jokes) and fiction (16).

Below we will discuss the situations in which the speaker is obliged to say insincere sentences in order to make a good impression on the listener and make a positive emotional and psychological influence on him.

Greetings: To the question "How are you?" people always say "Fine, thank you." This answer is often false as there are few people who are always happy and satisfied with their lives. We keep the maxim of generosity (Leech) and give insincere, but polite answer.

When one wants to make acquaintance with someone, the following phatic expressions are used: "Excuse me, haven't we met before?" These sentences don't carry factual information. Though they aren't true, they don't irritate the listener as beyond lie there is sincere intention of making communication with an unknown person.

Gratitude: One of the most common examples of phatic communication is expressing gratitude. If a person receives a gift on his/her birthday, he/she must say thank you, even if the gift is absolutely useless for him/her. The norms of phatic communication require him to act insincerely. With the aim of pleasing the guest, we say: "How wonderful! "; "How did you know that I wanted it?"; "I have dreamed about this very book."

Apology: When one person troubles another without intention, he apologise him for it by the following phatic expressions: "Sorry!"; "I feel really sorry" etc. The answer to these apologies is fake, but polite: "It's all right!"; "Don't worry!"; "No problem".

Invitations: We invite people either sincerely or insincerely (phatic discourse). The last one is spontaneous and doesn't mean concrete time and date. "You must come over for a drink sometime"; "Why don't you come and have a cup of tea some day?" Such invitations are usually responded with answers expressing great pleasure, no matter whether the listener is going to visit the speaker or not.

It is noteworthy to mention that in case Georgian guest is offered meal he/she is certain to refuse the offer for the first time though he/she may be hungry. It's because we keep Georgian etiquette, with which the guest express his willing not to disturb the host. He only agrees to eat if host insists on it.

Compliments: One of the most important and integral part of phatic discourse is compliment. People from all over the world are pleased with compliments about their appearance and characters, their works. So, when we don't have any factual information to share, the most effective way to please the listener is telling him/her compliments. We may praise the interlocutor's wit, appearance, family, car, taste and so on. The number of compliments is huge and the use of them depends on this or that extra linguistic situation. But in most cases compliments aren't sincere. Common phatic compliments are: "You look excellent"; "It's very kind of you to help me "; "You have a very nice room"; "The food is delicious"; "You are such a good cook"; "You have such a good baby"; "That's a great idea"; "How clever of you. "These fake compliments aim to please the listeners and encourage them to do better.

So, the role of lies which harms the factual communication is very important and sometimes necessary. It creates warm and friendly atmosphere. In addition to this, lying the listener with the aim of harming him doesn't have any connection with phatic communication. Vice versa, fake phatic utterances aim to encourage, praise and entertain the listener.

The speaker gets used to fake phatic speech like speech etiquette and thus he often utters them spontaneously, without intention. As for foreign learners, they should learn all this particularly as they play no the less important role in speech.

Apart from this knowing suitable phatic expressions avoid us culture shock and the air of indifference and unfriendliness.

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SCHEMA AS A WAY OF ORGANIZING HUMAN KNOWLEDGE

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Abstract

The paper deals with schema theory and its application to cognitive stylistics. Introduced by Jean Piaget, schema theory states that all knowledge is organized in brain into units. Within these units of knowledge, or schemata, information is stored. The term schema refers to an element of background knowledge about a particular aspect of the world. We have schemas for people, objects, situations and events. The importance of schema theory to reading comprehension lies in how the readers use schemata, how the real-life schematic knowledge helps them in the interpretation of texts. Cognitive stylistics is based on the notion that readers are actively involved in the process of meaning-making. Meaning is not located solely in the formal structures of the text but is, in a sense, achieved as a result of readers utilizing aspects of their pre-existing background knowledge of the real world as they read.

Keywords: schema theory, projection, construction, background knowledge, bottom-up processing, top-down processing, maxim of quantity, frame, script, accretion, tuning, restructuring

The concept of schema (plural: schemata) has been used in cognitive stylistics, psychology and psycholinguistics to understand the interaction of key factors affecting the comprehension process. The term **schema** was introduced by Jean Piaget, a Swiss psychologist, in 1926.

Simply put, schema theory states that all knowledge is organized in brain into units. Within these units of knowledge, or schemata, information is stored. A schema, then, is a generalized description or a conceptual system for understanding knowledge - how knowledge is represented in brain and how it is used.

According to this theory, schemata represent knowledge about concepts: objects and the relationships they have with other objects, situations, events, sequences of events, actions, and sequences of actions. A simple example is the **schema for dog**. Within that schema you most likely have knowledge about dogs in general (bark, four legs, teeth, hair, tail) and probably information about specific dogs, such as collies (long hair, large, Lassie). You may also think of dogs within the greater context of animals and other living things; that is, dogs breathe, need food, and reproduce. Your knowledge of dogs might also include the fact that they are mammals and thus are warm-blooded and bear their young as opposed to laying eggs. Depending upon your personal experience, the knowledge of a dog as a pet (domesticated and loyal) or as an animal to fear (likely to bite or attack) may be a part of your schema. And so it goes with the development of a schema. Each new experience incorporates more information into one's schema.

Individuals have schemata for everything. Long before students come to school, they develop schemata (units of knowledge) about everything they experience. Schemata become theories about reality. These theories not only affect the way information is interpreted, thus affecting comprehension, but also continue to change as new information is received.

The importance of schema theory to reading comprehension lies in how the readers use schemata, how the real-life schematic knowledge helps them in the interpretation of texts.

Some researchers (e.g. Cook, 1994) has claimed that one of the distinctive features of literary works relates to the effect that they have on the perceptions of the reader. To the extent that they change the reader's "schemata"- or standard ways of understanding the world – they are more or less "literary" in effect. This viewpoint has been debated (Jeffries, 2001; Semino, 2001), but it points to one of the useful and productive features of a stylistic study, which is the ability to advance thinking about literary value as well as processes of reading and discussing meaning.

Cognitive stylistics is based on the notion that readers are actively involved in the process of meaning-making. Meaning is not located solely in the formal structures of the text but is, in a sense, achieved as a result of readers utilizing aspects of their pre-existing background knowledge of the real world as they read.

In a discussion of how readers make sense of the fictional worlds of poems Semino (1997: 125) makes a useful distinction between what she terms **projection** and **construction**. Texts project

meaning while readers construct it. That is, texts contain triggers which activate aspects of reader's background knowledge. This then allows readers to construct mental representation of the world of the text.

A useful and related notion is the psychological distinction between **bottom-up processing** and **top-down processing**. Used in relation to the text comprehension, bottom-up processing refers to the practice of inferring meaning from textual hints while the term top-down-processing describes the practice of utilizing background knowledge to aid understanding.

Bottom-up processing maps onto the notion of projection, since both refer to the means by which meanings are drawn from a text by the reader. Top-down processing maps on to the notion of construction, since both these terms refer to readers utilizing pre-existing world knowledge to make sense of what they read. In practice, reading a text involves engaging in bottom-up and top-down processing simultaneously.

The term schema refers to an element of background knowledge about a particular aspect of the world. We have schemas for people, objects, situations and events. As an example, most people will have a **job interview schema**, which they will use to help them navigate their way through such a situation. This schema may include such information as how the interview room is likely to be set out, how many people are likely to be on the interview panel, what is expected of the candidate, etc. Schemas (or schemata) also encompass linguistic behaviour. For instance, anyone with a well-developed job interview schema will be aware that it is common practice to such a situation for interviewees to **violate** the Gricean maxim of quantity (Grice, 1975: 45).

The Gricean maxim of quantity says: "Make your contribution as informative as is required. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required." But some interviewees attempt to provide as much information about themselves as is possible. Thus they flout the Maxim of Quantity and trying to show themselves in the best possible way give a great deal of unnecessary information.

We should make it clear that while *schema* is a general term for an element of background knowledge, some writers prefer alternative terms in order to mark the varied nature of schemas. Minsky (1975), for example, uses the term **frame** to describe knowledge related to visual perception (e.g. background knowledge about different kinds of buildings). Schank and Abelson

(1977) introduce the term **script**, explaining that scripts are composed of schematic information about complex sequences of events. These have various **slots** which will be filled by different elements according to the particular script. So, there may be slots for props (desks, chairs, etc.), roles (interviewer, interviewee), scenes (entering, greeting the interviewer), entry conditions (having applied for the job) and results (being offered the job, being turned down for the job). Scripts can also have different **tracks**, each of which may have different **slots**. For example, a person's job interview schema may include a "Saturday job" track, an "academic" job track and a "corporate management job" track, and each of these will vary in respect of their constituent slots. For instance, in the **props slot** for a "corporate management job" track, we are likely to expect the clothing of the interviewee to be very formal (a suit, perhaps). The equivalent slot for the "academic job" track may be filled with a different expectation – perhaps that the interviewee may be dressed more informally. With regard to the scenes slot, we might expect a restricted number for a "Saturday job" track, while the "incorporate management job" track may include many more – for example, an assessment centre scene, a team-building scene, a social event scene, etc.

The schemas are derived from our past experiences. Nevertheless, we do not have to have experienced something directly in order to build a schematic conception of it. For example, it is likely that most people have a script for a murder investigation, though only a few people will have constructed this schema from direct experience. For the majority of people such a script will have been composed from watching television police dramas and reading crime novels.

It follows too that schemas are not static. Rather they are dynamic, in the sense that they develop as a result of experience. E.g., a football supporter's FOOTBALL TEAM schema may be developed if the team acquires a new player. This kind of schema development is referred to by Rumelhart (1980) as **accretion**; that is the new information extends the schema but requires no fundamental change to it. **Tuning**, on the other hand, refers to the modification of an existing schema to take account of new experiences. E.g., floppy disks have now been replaced by hard drives as the primary means of storing electronic data, and this development will have involved a modification to the WORD-PROCESSING schema of anyone familiar with the old way of saving documents. Finally, **restructuring** refers to the generation of new schemas. New schemas may be based on pre-existing ones (a person new to flying might generate an AIRPORT schema

out of a BUS STATION schema) or may, theoretically, be induced solely through experience, though this latter type of schema creation is arguably much rarer.

Let's view an example. The following extract is from Louis de Bernières's novel *Captain Corelli's Mandolin*, set on the Greek island of Cephalonia during the Second World War. (N.B. Lemoni is a child and Corelli is an Italian army officer.):

"I saw a great big spiky rustball," Lemoni informed the captain, "and I climbed all over it."

"She says that she saw a great big spiky rustball and she climbed all over it," translated Pelagia.

"Ask her if it was on the beach," said Corelli, appealing to Pelagia.

"Was it on the beach?" she asked.

"Yes, yes, yes," said Lemoni gleefully, adding, "and I climbed on it."

Corelli knew enough Greek to recognize the word for "yes", and he stood up suddenly and then just as suddenly sat down. "Puttana" he exclaimed, taking the little girl into his arms and hugging her tightly, "she could have been killed".

Carlo put it more realistically; "She should have been killed. It's a miracle" He rolled his eyes and added, "Porco dio." (de Bernières, 1994: 260)

Many readers will easily interpret Lemoni's description of "a great big spiky rustball" as a fairly primitive description of a *mine*. Reference to the beach acts as a locale header (i.e. reference to locations where the script is likely to be activated) and confirms the likelihood that this is the case, since our schematic knowledge tells us that mines are likely to wash up on the shore during wartime. Lemoni, however, does not possess the relevant schematic knowledge and is consequently underlexicalised. This accounts for her apparent lack of concern. Corelli, on the other hand, obviously possesses the relevant background knowledge and is duly worried. Note that in this instance, we as readers may well feel closer to Corelli because we share the same schematic knowledge as this character.

Thus we can conclude that schemata theory is one of key cognitive theories that is used to explain the active role of readers in interpreting texts. While reading a text, readers are actively involved in the process of meaning-making. The reader's schemata (or background knowledge) helps him/her in text comprehension.

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