

INTERNATIONAL BLACK SEA UNIVERSITY
FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND HUMANITIES

**THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION,
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING, ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURES IN
ENGLISH**

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INTRODUCTION

The Faculty of Education and Humanities, the host of the conference, is greeting the participants and the attendants of the IV International Research Conference on Education, English Language Teaching, English Language and Literatures in English.

About the Faculty

- ▶ Faculty of Humanities – opened in 2005/2006, has already had 4 graduations, with almost 100% students employed, some working at very prestigious jobs
- ▶ Faculty of Education – opened in 2009/2010, will have the first graduation this summer
- ▶ Merged in September 2013
- ▶ The faculty has the following accredited programs, all delivered in English: 2 BA (American Studies and English Philology), 7 MA (American Studies, US Foreign Affairs. Turkish Language and Literature, Methods of Teaching English Language, English Philology, Education Management, Higher Education Administration) and 2 Doctorate Programs (American Studies; Education Sciences)
- ▶ The faculty publishes 2 scientific journals (each, 2 issues per year). We invite you to send your research articles to the journals of Humanities and Education (find on University web-site)!
- ▶ The faculty holds three conferences per year: Students' conference – in March
- ▶ Conference on American Studies – in autumn, normally in November
- ▶ Conference on Education – in spring, normally in April
- ▶ WE INVITE YOU TO PARTICIPATE IN THEM!!!

MAHATMA TEMPUS project

The Faculty is participating in the Tempus project MAHATMA – Leaders in Higher Education Management530311-TEMPUS-1-2012-1-AM-TEMPUS-JPCR (2012-400).

- ▶ Grant holder: Armenian State Pedagogical University
- ▶ Goal: MAHATMA'S wider objective is to promote transformation of higher education management in Armenia and Georgia through the introduction of a new Master's programme and professional development courses (PDCs) in higher education management. The specific objectives evolve around the enhancement of the institutional capacity to implement the new Master's programme /PDCs (teaching and learning and management of the programme; as well as the promotion of a change dialogue between the education stakeholders through establishment of a Professional Association of Educationalists leading to system transformation activities.
- ▶ A three-year project: November 2012- November 2015
- ▶ Participants are 8 universities and other educational organizations from 7 countries (Armenia, Georgia, UK, Germany, Italy, France, and Czech Republic.
- ▶ We have developed and now are piloting a new MA Program
- ▶ We took part in training for academic personnel in Paris, France, on contemporary methods of teaching and education management
- ▶ We took part in training for administrative staff in Palermo, Italy, on administrative issues of developing a new MA program
- ▶ Based on the received training and the materials both offered by the EU partners and developed by ourselves, we held in-house trainings for IBSU academic and administrative personnel
- ▶ We had two visits from Armenian and EU partners for project monitoring and are going to host one more at our university
- ▶ The project enabled us to purchase books and equipment for the students of the program
- ▶ The MA program in Higher Education Administration was accredited in February.

- In October 2 MA students will go to Bath Spa University (UK), and 3 students – to ASUE (Armenian State University of Economics)

The project is very inspiring for both the staff involved and the students, as it has permitted us to improve the material base for the education, develop our professional skills, to improve the quality of education, and to develop contacts with our colleagues both from Georgia and the EU.

WHAT SHOULD WE LEARN FROM INTEGRATED LESSONS?

Maya Abdelani

Telavi Iakob Gogebashvili State University, Georgia

Abstract

The paper deals with the effectiveness of school teachers' development. From September, 2014 each school teacher in Georgia will be involved in teacher development scheme that enquires gaining certain credits for receiving categories. That means that teachers' practical work is given a priority. To stimulate the professional and career advancement, educators should increase their credits with purposeful activities, such as conducting integrated lessons, creating recourses and materials and so on. That is why some Telavi¹ schools have already started designing integrated lessons and carrying out observation. Self-assessment and peer-assessment would be gathered and later analyzed. In this way it is possible to find out, if the teachers' professional level has really changed.

Key words: teacher development, teacher qualification, teacher certification

Nowadays teachers' professional development became essential at public schools in our country. In 2011, special teachers' development scheme was published which contained teachers' involvement in the scheme, categories and credits (კახიშვილი, 2013). It was the first draft, not a completed version yet. Later, at the beginning of 2014 another draft was published where the actions with the credits and the categories have been defined. The last draft contains four categories of teachers' rank: the highest - mentors, the first – teacher-researchers, the second - excellent and the third - practitioners. According to Kakha Jgenti - Teachers' Professional Development Programs coordinator, from September, 2014 all teachers would be involved in this scheme based on their education: the third category (practitioner) would be given to all active teachers, the second - to certified ones, and first category -to teachers with a Ph.D. degree in the specific subject. At the moment there will not be any teacher-mentors, as educators should gain this category by credits.

Later, teachers' professional standard would be rated according to the learning environment, educational process and teachers' development. In order to keep up with the professional and career advancement requirements a teacher must undertake several activities

¹ town in Georgia

out of the listed to gain the rate. Teachers should gain number of credits for acquiring each category. Each category has the certain time limit for gaining credits.

Conducting an integrated lesson is among activities listed in the scheme. That is why our public school educators have decided to design lessons first with the school subject departments and later conduct and film them for better assessment and observation.

This is the first public school observation carried out by Telavi Public School # 3 conducted by the school department of foreign languages.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this action study was conducting an integrated lesson at a public school. Since March, 2013 most of the certified teachers have been involved in the special program of Teacher's House that aims gaining credits by designing purposeful activities at school. Although the draft has not been accepted as a law yet, teachers have been informed that conducting an integrated lesson is included in this program. It is worth mentioning that not only certified teachers got interested in this activity, but also non-certified educators. The differences, while conducting lessons, were teachers' working experiences and qualifications. As an integrated lesson was quite new for most of us, both the administration and the foreign language department at school decided to carry out the first observation and later to add the results to our further researches. This way of studying was interesting from the professional point of view, as by means of self- and peer-observation/assessment we could monitor our expectations and professional development, because later we are supposed to send the reports to experts, who will give recommendations for the future. In this paper we have gathered the first results of observation, which was conducted during the second semester at Telavi Public School #3, in 2013-14.

Method

As we have already mentioned, our school teachers have started conducting integrated lessons at school. For each teacher a special questionnaire was prepared which included two main items: the first was evaluating their lessons and the other involved their comments - what they liked and what they would try to change in the future. The observers had their special assessment forms and assessed the lesson according to the activities, strategies and teaching environment. The administration form was for evaluating the lesson

and the special questionnaire - for teachers' development. We mainly focused on teachers' questionnaire where educators had to mention their qualification and working experience, as well as their comments. 7 teachers have conducted their lessons so far, four of them were certified and others – non-certified with different qualification and working experience.

The first part was evaluating the whole lesson, as it has already been mentioned. It consisted of four options: very good, good, average, and other. Five of them have graded their own lessons as good, one very good, and one average. As for the comments, most of the certified teachers have written that they liked students' active involvement, moreover, all students were involved, even the learners with a low level of English skills. On the other hand, non-certified educators liked the collaboration with other teachers, as the lessons were planned like "a sandwich".

The main focus was on certified teachers' subject as they were the initiators and they have been working with other educators on designing lesson plans for several weeks. Co-teachers felt very nervous while planning, later they became even impatient as they wanted to conduct the lesson as quickly as possible. During the lesson their behavior was the same. Even though their part lasted for 15-20 minutes they just stood in front of the class and just transferred the information to the students. This means the lesson was rather teacher-centered then student-centered. However, they assessed their own lessons as "good", even one of them "very good".

| Teachers | Grading lessons | Changes needed |
|----------|-----------------|---|
| 1. | Good | Simplify the used language |
| 2. | Good | Students' individual active involvement |
| 3. | Good | Nothing |
| 4. | Very good | Change teaching style |
| 5. | Good | Be active and flexible |
| 6. | Average | Be careful while planning |

| | | |
|----|------|---------------------------------|
| 7. | Good | Give much space to the students |
|----|------|---------------------------------|

Certified teachers' parts were really effective as they used lots of strategies and activities and the students were inspired and actively involved in the learning process. Thus, non-certified teachers could easily see the difference between teacher- and student-centered lessons and were stimulated to hold lessons like their more qualified colleagues.

After each lesson we had oral interviews with students asking for their opinions. Most of them found the lesson interesting and enjoyable. Also they had their suggestions due to the done activities; such as they would rather be actively involved in the whole process, including with noncertified teachers.

Conclusion

This observation has revealed that even students have noticed the necessity of changes in most non-certified teachers' lessons. What is more, teachers became a bit more active and patient with designing lesson plans. Though the certification was based on theoretical knowledge, practical experience is beneficial for professional development, so the experience was beneficial both for certified teachers, who were applying the acquired theoretical knowledge in practice, and non-certified teachers, who could learn from them in a practical way. By means of the Professional Development Scheme 80% is given to teachers' performance at school, as they are automatically involved in the scheme, and they should gain categories based on their activities at school. This was the first observation and from September, 2014 we are planning to go on and based on the further assessments to assess the level of our teachers' development.

Reference:

კახიშვილი, ნ. (2013, 10.22). მასწავლებელთა შეფასების ახალი სქემა. Retrieved April 11, 2014 from <http://www.netgazeti.ge/GE/105/News/24664/>

THE ROLE OF SYMBOLS IN HEMINGWAY'S "SNOWS OF KILIMAMJARO"

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Abstract

The paper views the role of symbols in Hemingway's short story "The Snows of Kilimanjaro". Hemingway uses symbolism in his works to explore the disillusionment and the determination of individuals against the background of a merciless environment. "The Snows of Kilimanjaro" is rich with symbols which are strong and meaningful. As death is the main theme here, it is shown largely through symbolism. The white mysterious mountain of Kilimanjaro is one of the symbols. The natives call the mountain "The House of God", so it will become the final resting place for Harry. The frozen leopard is a symbol of the entrance to heaven. The hyena in the story is always associated with Harry's death. It is a symbol of the psychological death that has occurred because of his inability to act decisively for himself. The physical death is simply the last step in this process.

Keywords: symbolism, symbol, death, life, disillusionment, heaven, hell, hyena

Introduction

Ernest Hemingway is one of the greatest writers of the twentieth century. He occupies an important place among the representatives of 'the Lost Generation', along with Faulkner, Fitzgerald, John Dos Passos and Sinclair Lewis. The aim of these writers was to show the losses caused by the First World War in the social, moral and psychological spheres of human life.

Describing 'the Lost Generation', Cowley writes: "it was lost, first of all, because it was uprooted, schooled away and almost wrenched away from its attachment to any region or tradition, [...] because its training had prepared it for another world than existed after the war, [...]. It was lost because it tried to live in exile.[...], because it accepted no older guides to conduct and because it had formed a false picture of society and the writer's place in it" (Cowley, 1969: p.9).

The new writers formed a 'literary generation' that "belonged to a period of transition from values already fixed to values that had to be created"(ibid.: p.10).

Hemingway has agreed to the longings and frustrations typical of these writers, but his work is distinctly different from theirs in its philosophy of life. His works should be read

and interpreted in the light of his famous “iceberg theory” also known as “theory of omission”.

Baker mentions that, as a writer of short stories, Hemingway learned “how to get the most from the least, how to prune language and avoid waste motion, how to multiply intensities, and how to tell nothing but the truth in a way that allowed for telling more than the truth” (Baker, 1972, p. 117). Furthermore, Baker explains that in the writing style of the ‘iceberg theory’ the hard facts float above water, while the supporting structure, complete with symbolism, operates out-of-sight (ibid.).

Works of literature lead us to see deeply into and beyond things through the use of symbols which are usually objects, characters or even actions. The characteristics of a symbol are usually related to the abstractions it represents. An idea related to an area of major concern in the work can also be a symbol.

A literary symbol as an object, character or action that is both part of the story in a literary work, can be seen, touched, smelled, heard, tasted, encountered, or experienced by people in the story, poem or play, suggesting abstract meaning beyond itself. The image and meaning of a symbol conveys far more than mere words (Velea, n.d. p. 3).

Ernest Hemingway proves this by his effective use of symbolism in his works to explore the disillusionment and the determination of individuals against the background of a merciless environment.

Speaking about the use of symbolism in his work, and particularly in “*The Old Man and the Sea*”, he explained: “No good book has ever been written that has in it symbols arrived at beforehand and stuck in... I tried to make a real old man, a real boy, a real sea, a real fish and real sharks. But if I made them good and true enough they would mean many things” (Wikipedia. (n.d.)).

As death is the main theme in Ernest Hemingway’s writings, it is often shown through symbols. The idea of death lies behind all of the characters’ actions in Hemingway’s short stories. This view involves Hemingway’s concept that “when you are dead, you are dead” (Carrey, 1968, p. 32). There is nothing more. If a man cannot accept a life or reward after death, the emphasis must then be on obtaining, doing or performing something in this

particular life. If death ends all activity, if death ends all knowledge and consciousness, man must seek his reward here, now, immediately. Consequently, the man in Hemingway's stories exists in a large part for the gratification of his sensual desires, he will devote himself to all types of physical pleasures, because these are the rewards of this life.

Symbols in "The Snows of Kilimanjaro"

The story is rich in symbolism. The major character - Harry, a writer - and his wife Helen are on safari in Africa. They encounter a problem when their truck temporarily breaks down due to a burned-out bearing. Harry decides to take photos of a herd of waterbuck while waiting for assistance and unfortunately is scratched by a thorn. As a result, gangrene develops in his right leg and Harry is dying of it. While they are waiting for a rescue plane from Nairobi that he believes will not arrive on time, Harry spends his time drinking and insulting Helen. Harry reviews his life, realizing that he wasted his talent through procrastination and luxury from a marriage to a wealthy woman that he does not love. Most of the story consists of Harry's self-critical ruminations on how he has not fulfilled his potential as a writer, instead choosing to make his living by marrying rich women. Harry has a series of delirious memory-dreams in which he recalls the adventures of his youth. At his last moment of consciousness, Harry seems peaceful, but he subsequently has a dream that he is rescued and flies to the top of Mt. Kilimanjaro; these desirable series of events evaporate as shortly afterwards he is found dead on the cot where he has been lying all day.

Unfortunately, Harry 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.

The symbols in "The Snows of Kilimanjaro" are strong and meaningful. Death is shown largely through symbolism. The white, mysterious mountain of Kilimanjaro is one of the symbols. From the very beginning, the reader is told that the natives 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. It is cold, but beautiful, so, compared to the death symbols such as gangrene, hyenas and "the huge, filthy birds [with] their naked heads", which definitely deal with hell, it is death as peaceful eternity, the best thing the writer can dream of now. 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” (ibid.). 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 Harry’s 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” (ibid.). 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” (ibid.). Of course this condemnation of himself must be taken both literally and figuratively, since his body and soul are rotting. So, maybe the rot (death as decay) coming from his leg symbolizes the very moral decay that led him here. In fact, the very idea that he does not suffer this slow death may be a figurative way of saying that everything good in Harry had already been dead. He gets almost dispassionate 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" (ibid.).

Hemingway uses two different animals to symbolize the type of a person Harry wishes he were and the type of a person he has actually become. The leopard is seen only in the epigraph at the opening of the story, but its presence is extremely important to the rest of the story. Hemingway uses the leopard to represent what Harry would like to be, someone with strength, courage and passion. The reader is told the legend of the leopard carcass found at the top of Kilimanjaro and it is a mystery why it went there. The leopard, as Wright (2001) argues, was seeking the summit, known as "The House of God". In this story the leopard symbolizes qualities such as grace, speed, strength, courage and dignity. The leopard pounces with purpose, with lightning speed, and with accuracy. Hemingway uses the hyena to symbolize Harry because like the hyena he is a lazy scavenger that takes the easy road in life. He lives by rich women and has been too lazy to follow his dream of being a Writer:

"He had destroyed his talent by not using it, by betrayals of himself and what he believed in by drinking so much that he blunted the edge of his perceptions, by laziness, by sloth, and by snobbery, by pride and by prejudice, by hook and by crook"(Hemingway, n.d.).

This symbol also demonstrates in the story the theme of living without passion. The mountain represents the afterlife, a place of inspiration that Harry can go, to achieve the characteristics of the leopard. Through his delirious visions, the reader finds out that Harry could never be associated with the qualities of the leopard. Harry has never been able to exercise his talent, because he was too afraid to try. He realizes that, if he died, he "would not have to fail at trying to write them either" (ibid.), and therefore does not fight against death. "He merely awaits death," as Wright (2001) argues, "expecting to gain from it the spiritual enlightenment that others must work hard for."

This quality of laziness can be seen in his vision of his trip to Kilimanjaro, to the "House of God." Unlike the leopard, who made the hard and tiring climb in search of the mountain's summit, Harry takes a helicopter ride to the top. The hyena that circles his campsite is waiting for him to die. He has lived off the riches of his wife, calling his love for

her “the lie he made his bread and butter by” (Hemingway, n.d.). Harry lies crippled on a cot while his real world in which he picks up the leftovers of others, just as the hyenas live off the leftovers of the better hunters. The hyena in the story is always associated with Harry’s death. When Harry faces the realization of his death, it comes “with a rush; not as a rush of water nor of wind; but of a sudden evil-smelling emptiness and the odd thing was that the hyena slipped lightly along the edge of it” (ibid.), and the death actually occurs, it is the hyena that announces it with “a strange, human, almost crying sound” (ibid.). The hyena is associated with Harry’s psychological state. As Wright (2001) states, it is “a symbol of the psychological death that has occurred because of his inability to act decisively for himself”. The physical death is simply the last step in this process. The two animals represent conflicting personality traits. Harry, in the end, dies as he lives, as a hyena scavenging the leopard’s leftovers on his path to Kilimanjaro.

Conclusion

As we can see symbols play a great role in the transmittance of the writer’s idea. Symbolism in literature is one of the many tools that a writer employs in order not only to generate interest to his work, but also to create another level of meaning. Symbols make prose and poetry more enchanting to read. They give us a reason to find insights in a writer’s way of thinking and to try to understand why the writer uses this or that symbol in his work.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF MODERN EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING AT TECHNICAL UNIVERSITIES

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Abstract

Due to the latest changes in educational system in Russian Federation the necessity to work out and implement new approaches to foreign language teaching evolves. This research is devoted to one of the most actual issues – the development and introduction of new educational technologies into foreign language training system in technical universities which is determined by the new federal state standards.

Key words: distance learning technologies in education, foreign language teaching in technical university, two-leveled system of education

In modern society modernization of the educational system has become a predominating idea and a leading problem of educational policy of the Russian Federation. Scientists consider modernization of education as a complex and comprehensive updating of all links of educational system and all spheres of educational activity according to requirements of modern life, at preservation and multiplication of the best traditions of domestic education. Thus, the focus here is put on the role of education at the present stage of Russian social development which is caused by the idea of transition to the democratic and constitutional state. In other words, it is caused by the transition to the modern market economy, accompanied by the need to follow world tendencies of economic and social development. Regarding this, the introduction of adequate educational standards at which the content of education would conform to the highest international standards is one of the priority tasks either of any higher education institution, or the state as a whole.

The actuality of this topic provides a high interest for development and implementation of new educational technologies promoting the realization of training of a qualified specialist. Under this notion we mean the expert of a relevant level and the received specialty profile, competitive in the world labor market; the specialist using masterfully his/her professional skills received in the university, capable to work effectively at the level

of the international standards, is ready for a continuous professional growth, social and professional mobility.

According to the participants of the Bologna Process, this aim can be achieved by the creation of the united educational space which means «transparency» of the higher educational system due to wide spreading of the similar educational cycles (a bachelor degree – a magistracy). The example of cardinal changes in Russian educational system (in view of the Bologna Process) is the transition of higher educational institutions into two-leveled system of the higher education (a bachelor degree is the first level, a magistracy or specialist training is the second one) which involves changing of the state educational standards and programs, including in technical higher educational institutions. So, there is the necessity of transition from the knowledge-based approach to the developing one, which is indicated in the Russian Federal program of education development. That is connected with education reforming, its turn to being student-based (About ..., 2012).

The existence of new federal state standards of the higher education, a new competence-based approach in teaching promotes the need of new educational and methodological complexes of disciplines development - EMCD.

The main objective of EMCD is to provide the student with a complete set of educational and methodical materials for independent studying of the discipline. At the same time, besides the direct teaching of students, the teacher's functions are: consulting services, the current and total assessment of knowledge, and motivation to self-study (Sadovkasova, 2003).

Being the model description of a pedagogical system, EMCD acts as the tool of system and methodological provision of educational process on the discipline, its preliminary design. This is its main function. Besides, EMCD unites various didactic tutorials in a whole, subordinating them to the teaching and education purposes, and not only fixes, but also covers the requirements to the content of the studied discipline, skills of graduates, contained in the educational standard and by that promotes its realization. EMCD serves the accumulation of new knowledge, innovative ideas and development, stimulates the development of creative potential of teachers.

However, the EMCD functions will not be accomplished and its mission will not be fully reached, if this complex represents only gathered components (the textbook, a grant, a

practical work, the anthology, etc.), if they are not interconnected by the unique conceptual approach.

EMCD is developed by the teacher (or a group of teachers), dealing with the discipline in direct accordance with the characteristics reflected in the curriculum (the name, labor input, terms, study forms, types of control actions, etc.).

The content and labor input to the discipline varies depending on the requirements of the standard on the specialty/the direction, aims of the educational program and the curriculum. The content of the working program corresponds to the requirements of federal state educational standards of higher professional education (FSES HPE) to an obligatory minimum of the content of discipline and reflects all didactic units rearranged in the FSES of the specialty/the direction. Their logic and order of representation can vary.

The content of programs has to rely on modern achievements of science, educational practice and realize the author's approach to the object of studying (About ..., 2012).

However, it should be noted that such transition to new standards involves a considerable change of the content of discipline as well; an invariable reduction of in-class work, in particular. The problem is the question of time deficiency, intended for formation of adequate knowledge, skills and abilities in the course of foreign language teaching in a technical university. The logical way out from this current situation is an accent shift from classroom work to independent work.

In these circumstances, the use of distance educational technologies – DET - can become a way of optimization of foreign language teaching in a technical university, and the process of the correct organization of students' self-study is a prerequisite of the successful achievement of educational objectives. Under DET we mean the educational technologies realized generally with the help of information and telecommunication technologies at mediated (at distance) or not completely mediated interaction of a teacher and a student. It is obvious that the basis of educational process is done in this case by purposeful and controlled hard self-study of the student.

As practical foreign language skills become today one of the conditions of the specialist professional competence, there is a necessity to search ways of teaching optimization.

The analysis of objective conditions showed that in the system of distance learning the most effective model of self-work including foreign language teaching is formed.

Nowadays there are a lot of debates about distance learning - DL, especially about its place in the education system. The absence of the unique concept, the lack of practical experience leads to absolutely opposite views on DL. However, the modern level of information and communication technology development brings DL to an absolutely new level of quality, which lets us speak about its new form, integrating the earlier existing systems of full-time and part-time teaching. Besides, DET fully realizes the state program of the education informatization, the purpose of which consists in «training of students for full and effective participation in household, public and professional areas of activity in the conditions of information society» (Talysina, 1977: 92). The legislative base of education informatization are the normative documents of the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation (The federal program of a development of education (2000); the Federal target program «The development of the unique educational information environment» (2001-2005); The concept of modernization of Russian education for the period till 2010; the federal target program of the development of education (2006-2010); State educational standards of higher education). In these documents the social importance of full mastering of information technologies on all education levels is emphasized. Distance learning with its support on new information and pedagogical technologies becomes especially actual as it can react most flexibly and adequately to the requirements of our society.

Thus, we come to the conclusion that the special range of researches in the field of foreign language teaching techniques in a technical university belongs to a problem of creation of relevant manuals, meeting the basic needs and purposes of today. Such an interest in the problem of high-quality formation of educational and methodological provision of foreign language teaching, especially with the help of DET, is triggered by an aspiration to improvement of modern specialists' training quality. It is no coincidence, therefore, that while reorganizing the higher education system, the problem of creation of the modern and more perfect didactic materials based on new information technologies, is among the primary targets.

At the present level the quality of student training in the conditions of domestic educational system, modernization causes the necessity of searching for new approaches to

the organization of the educational process. One of them is connected with education informatization. Nowadays, the education system informatization enters a new level, as the problem of effective electronic educational technologies usage – EET - for projecting of the educational process and the interaction of all subjects of this process is being solved. With the use and creation of EET which allow managing and control of students' self-study at an essentially new organizational level, the prospects of the development of various teaching technologies are connected.

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ETHICAL AND SPIRITUAL ASPECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE: ON THE EXAMPLE OF IBSU

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Abstract

Organization culture, primarily understood as a set of values, principles, norms, rules, feelings, and behavioral regularities shared by its members, symbolizes the personality of the organization which is created by the founders and preserved by the managers and staff members. University culture management has become one of the dominant issues today. It is understood as a philosophy of how to achieve the organization goals, and seeks the best ways for human resource administration and client satisfaction. University culture management is successful if the staff perceives and shares the dominant values and feels comfortable in an overall atmosphere expressed by the physical arrangement of the organization and staff interaction inside the institution and outside it. The paper tries to highlight the essence of organization culture and demonstrate the value of its ethical and spiritual aspects on the example of the International Black Sea University. According to international parameters, the University could be characterized as a small-size organization with a dominant culture which is understood and similarly described by its staff members ultimately leading to a high organization performance. The current organizational culture problems facing managers is creating an ethical culture focused on the means how to achieve the goal. The culture supporting high ethical standards is characterized by openness, integrity, accountability and a strong sense of purpose which is supposed to have a powerful and positive influence on employee behavior. How the workplace spiritual culture is created that advocates diversity and how the employees learn this culture at IBSU? The spirituality of the workplace is reflected in many aspects of the University life: it is demonstrated in the University effort to make the work performed by its staff more meaningful, to support more communication, promote trust and openness, focus on individual development, empower and extend tolerance towards its employees.

Key words: organizational culture, values, principles, norms, rules, feelings, behavior, philosophy, ethical issues of culture, organization goals

Introduction

Organization culture, primarily understood as a set of values, principals, norms, rules, feelings, and behavioral regularities shared by its members, symbolizes the personality of the organization which was created by the founders and is supported by the managers and staff members. University culture management has become one of the dominant issues today. It is understood as a philosophy how to achieve the organization goals, and it seeks the best ways for human resource administration and client satisfaction. University culture management is

successful in case the staff perceives and shares the dominant values, and feels comfortable in an overall atmosphere expressed by physical arrangement of the organization and staff interaction inside the institute and outside it.

The present paper tries to highlight the essence of organization culture and demonstrate the value of its ethical and spiritual aspects on the example of International Black Sea University (IBSU).

University culture is an internal dominant philosophy which creates its “face” and “personality”. Today the most renowned universities both in Europe and America are extensively recognized due to their spirituality and ethical culture which distinguishes each university from others.

How is the culture created? First and foremost it is the founders who create the basis of the culture defining the aims and goals of the organization and establishing dominant values, norms and regulations. Later, those principles are being implemented by the managers and shared by the staff members. The university management plays an important role in this process, but as one of the theories suggests, its role is not omnipotent (Robbins & Coulter, p.58), rather it is restricted by internal and external constraints. Once the organization culture is deeply enrooted, it appears as an internal restraint for the managers to carry out some of the decisions opposing the existing culture. So, from this point of view, the established culture appears like a “shield” for the organization workforce strengthening the feeling that decisions which do not fit into the organization culture will not be carried out.

According to Robbins & Coulter (2007), the definition of the culture implies three important things. First, culture is *a perception*. Individuals perceive the organization culture on the basis of what they see, hear, or experience within the organization. Second, even though individuals may have different backgrounds or responsibilities, they tend to describe the organization’s culture in similar terms; that is the *shared aspect* of culture. Finally, organizational culture is descriptive. It is concerned with *how members perceive* the organization, not with whether they like it. Culture is usually *described* by the employees rather than evaluated.

Culture perception undergoes a few stages. *Individual perception* of the culture is the recognition of the philosophy laid down by the founders; next step is a *collective acknowledgment* of the values which is demonstrated in interpersonal relationships. At this level the culture is shared and described by the staff members in a likewise way. The next phase is *communicating the culture* by both – the staff and the clients - who start sharing their individual perception and experience *with the outer world*, thus creating the unique image of the organization for a wider community. Each of the above-mentioned phases should be planned in detail, so that the end result does not divert from the initial plan. When interviewing Black Sea University academic staff members, we observed significant similarities as they were giving a detailed description of the organization culture. This testifies that the culture has been positively observed and shared by the employees. IBSU also has found its niche and established the image of a successful university not only in Georgia, but also on international level. A vivid manifestation of this is the students who apply from different countries and who identify its organizational culture in a likewise positive way.

Based on some personal observations, IBSU can be characterized as an average size organization with its *culture type ranging from moderate to strong*. What are some characteristics of a strong culture?

First, the traditional values laid in the foundation of the organization are strongly supported. Promotion of friendship and cooperation between two nations - Georgia and Turkey, as well as with international community has been one of the primary aims of the University since the opening of the university. Also its goal is to ensure a high quality of education, to promote democratic principles of equity, integrity and equality. IBSU culture is to be understood within the context of social systems theory, and more specifically open-systems theory, being characterized by inputs, a transition process, outputs, external environments, and feedback (Lunenberg and Ornstein, 2008: p.60). The University has been supposed to implement European standards of administration and management culture, implement all changes demanded by Bologna process. The University has been faithful to this policy till present. Second, the management implements the beliefs, ideologies and feelings that are widely shared by the staff, and common behavioral regularities are being developed. In the strong culture, the employees know their roles and functions, so they can

respond quickly to the emerged problems. The IBSU staff members possess a strong feeling of responsibility with which they fulfill their tasks, at the same time sharing dominant values, norms and philosophy of the organization. Third, the employees are more committed to the goals, so the University is characterized by high organizational performance. Typical for the strong culture is also a low staff / student turn-over. IBSU staff members, as well as students and graduate are considered family members and there is a mutual trust and devotedness between the students, workforce and top management.

Another problem the article (Lunenberg and Ornstein, 2008) addressed is *how an organization culture continues*. The practice shows that the University culture is maintained as long as it proves to be successful and responds effectively to the current challenges. For example, one of the core principles laid in the foundation of IBSU, what has become a part of its culture, was the establishment of close cooperation between Georgia and Turkey, as well as with Black Sea region countries, sharing values, experience and achievements in different fields of science. University has been implementing this policy rather successfully for twenty years already. For example, Turkish students study basic Georgian language, and Georgian students study Turkish, which raises the interest towards the countries' culture and traditions. A holistic approach to the University values is evident at all levels, it is supported by the University management by regularly offering to the staff and the students an opportunity to participate in international forums and exchange programs; inviting professors from overseas universities and sponsoring international journals' publication; also by organizing cultural programs, including country visits, concerts and exhibitions.

Employee selection principles also play a vital role in sustainability of the organization culture. New candidates during job interviews should demonstrate personal qualities and attitudes which fit perfectly into the University dominant culture. From this point of view, it is quite understandable why the preference is given to the job applicants who have been involved with the organization as former students, trainers, or employees. This indicates to the fact that they find the organization climate rather comfortable for them, and view it as the fertile soil for their future career development.

The ultimate goal of any higher education institution is to earn high reputation to stay competitive while export market of higher education is growing rapidly and the state funding

is decreasing. The enrolment growth in higher education institutions has reached the milestone of 120 million worldwide, and is still accelerating (Fullan & Scott, 2009:13). The dramatic rise in higher education enrollment rates has increased the pressure on funding for higher education, especially from state sources. This process is clearly seen in Georgia where the state funding is decreasing, and more and more people find it difficult to cover university fees; no doubt it has a negative affect on private universities' financial sustainability. This situation activates universities to diversify and offer to the client original products.

There is a suggestion that international student market will continue to grow at about 6% per annum into the foreseeable future. For example, in 1989-2007, the enrollment of international students at the US universities either onshore or offshore via an in-country partner or at a satellite campus has increased from 4,6 - to 14,5 US \$ billion, and in United Kingdom from 2,2 – 2,0 US \$ billion (Fullan & Scott, 2009:14). The same propensity is observed regarding other countries, such as Canada, Australia, New Zealand. A new feature observed in the last two decades is the tendency, as domestic fees escalate, for students from highly developed countries to choose to take all or part of their degrees overseas (ibid:15). A good example of this process is IBSU, as the number of students applying for all three level programs is increasing annually. To guarantee a stable increase of international students' enrollment, IBSU should be focused on teaching-learning quality improvement and monitoring, should increase access and attainment to all regardless race, age, ethnicities and socioeconomic backgrounds, and create an ethical climate and consumer-oriented organization culture. The University culture management is likely to be sustainable in case it succeeds creating ethical, creative and innovative culture nurturing workplace spirituality.

Ethical aspect of the University culture

Ethics in the culture deals with *means*, that is *how* goals are achieved as well as with *outcomes*, or *what* is achieved. Ethical attitude is closely connected with the *workplace spirituality* understood as implementing a sense of purpose through meaningful work that takes place in the context of community (Robbins & Coulter, 2007:71). Contemporary lifestyle which offers many hardships, fears and stresses alongside with positive changes, demands a shift in the focus of values directed towards ethical and spiritual aspects of culture. In this accelerated rhythm of life, it is a responsibility of the organization to support its

workforce overcome a sense of emptiness and frustration giving to the job they fulfill a due appreciation on local and environmental levels.

What are some of the approaches the International Black Sea University exploits to create ethical environment and enhance spirituality? We suggest some management strategies which are considered to be instrumental in setting up a student-centered organization culture saturated with the spirit of morality, equity and individuality.

- a. *Empowering employees.* IBSU employees are motivated to be involved in the making up and fulfilment of long-term goals and feel they are active participants of achieved success. A shared decision-making process demands their active participation in on-going processes and makes their work more meaningful. Academic boards operating at different levels involve the staff into day-to-day problem solving process. Another example of empowerment is IBSU reward policy, when employees are awarded for their distinguished work. The University also renders different free services to their employees, such as language and computer training courses, supports their travelling for scientific purposes, and sponsors publishing staff members' intellectual product, such as text-books, articles, surveys, reviews, and teaching manuals.
- b. *Academic freedom* is one of the core values. Unethical involvement of the administration into how the desired goals are achieved may de-motivate lecturers spiritually. Though today the higher education institutions tend more to be considered as income- generating ventures, they differ significantly in terms of specificity of its human resources. In fact, creating the high reputation of the university is predominantly credited to its academic staff excellence; but the professors prove to be successful, providing the university management creates proper ethical and cultural environment, which in turn is to be shared and approved by them. Thus, management of ethical issues in universities bears some individuality considering intellectual and spiritual abilities of the teachers and how they can influence the students' behavior.
- c. *Trust and Openness* have always been an indivisible part of the University ethical and spiritual climate. Each employee feels that both management and colleagues appreciate open and sincere attitude including sound criticism.

- d. *Sharing happiness and hardships of the employees.*** The IBSU management renders a sincere sympathy and unconditional material assistance to its employees in critical situations and whenever they need it. The family-type culture creates a spiritual climate and establishes the principle that the organization is also looking out for its employees, as much as they are devoted to the aims and goals of the University.

To create a *customer-responsive culture* is absolutely crucial for educational institutions. Unlike other types of organizations and businesses, universities face far greater challenges in terms of client satisfaction. It has the closest and inter-dependable relationships with its clients – students. Each party bears its share of responsibilities stipulated in the university charter and in the contract between the University and a student. A customer-responsive culture means being focused on students' satisfaction, replying effectively to their demands dictated by the time and circumstances. How to achieve this end? Are universities able to offer to their clients the environment where they could feel that the customer-focused vision is dominant? We shall try to discuss the extent to which IBSU is likely to be considered a customer-responsive culture based on the six characteristics offered by Robbins and Coulter.

First is the *type of employees* themselves. The IBSU staff is very friendly, communicative and helpful. Administration's responses to the clients' enquiries are clear and comprehensive, full of understanding and sympathy. Besides, even the IBSU top executives are easily accessible and responsive to the students' needs. The students do not feel a strong hierarchy; rather, most of the issues are addressed by the Faculty Board which seeks every possibility to find a reasonable solution to the student's problem.

Second, unlike the service-oriented organizations, IBSU operates based on rigid rules and regulations, so it cannot always meet the fast-changing customer-service requirements. On the other hand, the University almost always seeks for a *student-friendly solution* which is well appreciated by customers. Good examples are: flexible payment scheme, excuse exams, and every single case based on student's application letter which is discussed separately by the administration and the Board.

Third and fourth principles deal with the employees who are encouraged to be *good listeners* and to do what is necessary for the students' success. The faculty assistants are particularly dutiful, and at the same time show a caring attitude towards their clients. That

does not mean that they take initiatives to trigger some unruly action. Rather, they give to the students necessary additional notices and scrupulously follow their achievements and failures.

Fifth is role clarity. Not only do the employees follow their clearly specified job description, but also they willingly help their co-workers in case it is needed, acting based on one-team principle which creates a perception of student-oriented culture.

Finally, it is staff and administration willingness to make their students happy. Students' claims concerning their teachers, programs, teaching methods, attitudes, as well as technical and environmental problems are always considered with care and discreet by the IBSU administration.

Conclusions

The culture management of the International Black Sea University is based on free communication, staff encouragement, transparency, integrity, creativity and diversity. It can be characterized as spiritual organization because it gives to its employees the opportunity for spiritual development. Spirituality is often wrongly understood as imposing some religious attitudes, instead, it should be perceived as an inspiration which motivates the staff members to work with enthusiasm, see the meaning in what they create and build high self-esteem.

Diversity in terms of academic programs, staff and students is a necessary foundation for the further innovations which continually take place in a university domain. The dominant culture, the face of the university which is most commonly recognized, should be maintained; but the paradox is that it can only be made sustainable through permanent innovations. The strategy for innovation includes: employees' involvement in the University change and success, freedom of the teachers to plan their courses and choose proper approaches to teaching-learning process. Innovations are most likely to emerge when the management creates an atmosphere of trust, support and respect, when the employees are encouraged to take risks, have debates and resolve the conflicts.

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PECULIARITIES OF THE CLASSROOM DISCOURSE WITHIN THE SCOPE OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

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Abstract

Classroom discourse unfolds the peculiar nature of the interaction within the educational setting and highlights the multiple aspects of the discourse sustaining the overall pedagogic goal. The paper is intended to shed light on these peculiarities and draw attention to the role of the teacher during the interaction. It untangles the issue within three dimensions. Firstly, the discussion is centered over the role of the teacher, be it a model of the correct utterances, a supporter of individual learning contributions, or a source of linguistic input providing additional information. Furthermore, structure of the classroom discourse is scrutinized by contrasting the peculiarities of the traditional and non-traditional classroom and exploring the benefits and limitations of both. Lastly, the article provides an insight regarding the teacher-student interaction in the classroom by differentiating between the peculiarities of the teacher fronted, facilitator oriented and learner oriented modes.

Key words: classroom discourse, classroom interaction, discourse participant, discourse environment, teacher talk, second / foreign language acquisition,

Educational literature suggests abundance of evidence regarding the specificities of the classroom discourse. Scholars argue that classroom interaction highlights the insights into the class-based learning. Walsh (2006) maintains that classroom is a complex and dynamic environment where each of the classroom discourse participant brings in diversified social contexts. Therefore, the overall goal of the classroom discourse is to find common grounds for complex relationship between teacher talk, classroom interaction, and learning opportunities. He highlights that linguistic forms used for the purpose of communication are often “simultaneously the aim of the lesson and the means of achieving those aims” (Walsh, 2006: 5).

Obviously, the key participants of the classroom discourse are a teacher and a student, who, though having different social backgrounds, co-construct context in order to achieve the major learning objective (Cazden, 2001). Therefore, it is essential for the teacher to

understand interactional processes in order to facilitate learning opportunities and prevent students from misunderstanding of the goal of learning. The quality of the interaction in the classroom is largely determined by teachers' face-to-face communication with the learners. Therefore, managing the interaction is largely sustained by the teacher through turn-taking sequences that occur during face-to-face interaction. While talking about the teacher's responsibility in managing the interaction, Walsh clearly refers to the multiple roles a teacher assumes during the interaction process. These roles will be following, but not limited to acting as a model by correcting errands and modeling the right utterances, acting as a supporter by reinforcing the individual learner's contribution and extending it to the whole group, and the last, but not the least, acting as a "source of linguistic input" (Walsh, 2006: 35) by providing additional information to the learners. Lampert (1990:101) interestingly articulates the way he teaches mathematics, as follows: "Sometimes, I straightforward told students At other times, I modeled the roles that I wanted them to be able to take.... And at other times, I did mathematics with them, just as a dance instructor dances with a learner so that the learner will know what it feels like....".

Various approaches to the analysis of the classroom discourse enable teachers to acknowledge his/her important role in facilitating a smooth flow of information and the application of the language patterns in various settings. Two main approaches to the analysis of the classroom discourse is the system-based and ad hoc approaches. Among system-based instruments, Walsh (2006) means a pre-determined system which is used in the classroom context. Such pre-determined systems could be the one suggested by Bellack et al. (1966: 33), identifying the pedagogical moves, such as, "structure, solicit, respond and react". Another system-based observation is provided by Flanders (1970) under the name *Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC)*. According to this model, the key outlined stages are teacher's talk, pupil's talk, and silence. Teacher's talk is comprised of: accepting feelings, praising or encouraging, accepting or using ideas of pupils, asking questions, lecturing, giving direction, criticizing or using authority. Pupil's talk encompasses response and initiation, while silence involves a short period of confusion or a deliberate pause enabling participants to comprehend the received information and prepare the response. Compared to the system-based approach, the ad hoc approach to the interaction analysis is a more flexible instrument which is tailored around the specific classroom problem and thus is a problem-

oriented approach (Walsh, 2006). The ad hoc analysis is usually conducted by an outside practitioner or a colleague in order to address a specific pedagogic issue. Considering the issue-based nature of the ad hoc interaction analysis, it equips the participants with the sense of ownership over the process and results. The advantage of ad hoc approaches is that they permit a finer understanding of a specific feature of the discourse.

It will not be an exaggeration to note that interaction between a teacher and a student constitutes a major factor for fostering a favorable learning environment. Therefore, scientists, researching teacher-student interaction within the classroom context, differentiate between different lesson structures, each of them stating the prevalence on one particular structure of another. For instance, Mehan points out three major components of the lesson: an opening phase, when participants formally declare their intention for teaching and learning; a business phase, when the actual learning process occurs through transmission of information; and a closing phase, when participants recap on the learning process (Mehan, 1979). Although each of the above-mentioned stages of the classroom discourse could be broken down in several stages, each of them subject to the scrutiny, the most important for the purpose of the present paper would be the middle layer of the process, or the business phase. Sinclair and Coulthard interestingly named the process as “IRF” (1975). IRF or Initiation, Responding and Follow-up, is a three-step process through which a teacher elicits information from the students and achieves the ultimate goal of teaching (Sinclair, 1985). This three-step process within a “business process” may take up different forms preferred by various scholars. For instance, Lemke suggests that one particular pattern encountered most frequently is called a “Triadic Dialogue”, also known as teacher-led, three-part sequence of Initiation – Response- Evaluation (IRE) (Lemke, 1990).

Literature suggests controversial findings about the usage of IRE/IRF in classroom interaction. Despite the diversity of opinions regarding the advantages and disadvantages, all agree that teachers play the role of an expert, whose primary task is to elicit information from the students, check the mastery of the material and build on the existing knowledge. Obviously, in an IRE/IRF pattern, it is a teacher who decides the pace of the interaction by deciding who will participate, who takes turn, and whether their contributions are worth. The limitation of students’ opportunities to talk and try their ideas has been identified as one of

the major drawbacks of a Triadic Dialogue (Hall, 2002). Among other disadvantages of Triadic Dialogues the fact has also been named that it more often facilitates teacher control of the interaction rather than student learning of the content of the lesson (Cazden, 2001). Barnes (Barnes, 1976) also proposes that IRE sequence does not allow for complex ways of communication between the teacher and the student and that the teacher does most of the talking, commenting or elaborating, while the students are limited to brief responses to the teacher's questions. Despite these arguments, the ubiquity of the IRE pattern has been commonly acknowledged in second and foreign language classrooms. It is the pattern that is most commonly used in the classroom interaction. Thus, a Triadic Dialogue allows teachers to test or check students' grasp of the material and permits the teacher to get engaged in a form of co-construction of knowledge.

In contrast to traditional lessons, Cazden also discusses a new movement advocated in the teaching process since the 1990s and refers to such classes as "discourse-intensive" or "non-traditional" lessons. For illustrating the contrast, Cazden selects examples from the math classes, as he believes that the current trend to changing the pattern has been mostly visible and powerful in this subject area (Cazden, 2001). Contrary to the IRE/IRF sequence, non-traditional classes turn to be a more dynamic and essential medium for accomplishing fundamental communication goals. Lampert interestingly points out that "classroom should be "mathematical communities" rather than collection of individual learners (Lampert, 1990: 81)."

Considering the above-said, the non-traditional approach to the teaching encourages students more participation in the process, referring to other students' answers, and more listening from the side of the teacher. The teacher does not stop the discussion when the correct answer has been voiced, nor evaluates the response, but rather facilitates further discussion by involving more students in the argument. The key distinctive feature of a non-traditional lesson is that a teacher does not give out ready-made answers or ways of computations, he/she rather calls the students to think of their own methods for dealing with the problems or talking their way through the issues.

Lee and Ng (2010) distinguish three type of teacher interaction strategy: teacher-fronted, facilitator-oriented, and learner-oriented. The teacher-fronted strategy is the controlled

device by a teacher to ensure the free and efficient flow of information. Obviously the characteristic features of such classroom would be the teacher dominated interaction, teacher-fronted activities, the IRF pattern usage, more teacher talking time, etc. The facilitator-oriented strategy is a device used by a teacher to support more interaction in the classroom through referential questions, personalizing the topics, elaboration, using backchannels to stimulate the participants, etc. Although the teacher still uses the traditional IRF methodology, he/she encourages more student participation through which she/he elicits the required knowledge or information. As a result, the participants are more motivated and empowered to take initiative for learning. A learner-oriented strategy is a completely different device from those described above. The method envisages minimum intervention of a teacher and full opportunities for learners to participate. The teacher allows students to discuss tasks and questions with each other and assumes more the role of an observer (Lee & Ng, 2010). Under this strategy, interaction is learner-initiated, leaving them the floor to choose the topics, initiate turn-taking, and deal with obstacles. Although the latter strategy motivates students to engage in the learning process, the method entices threats worth considering. Johnson, for instance, suggests that student-student interaction may cause more humble students stay quiet, fearing to look unknowledgeable in front of peers or it could fossilize errors (Johnson, 1992).

Considering the above-said we may assume that correctly and purposefully selected discourse or classroom interaction is crucial for attaining the pedagogic goal the teacher sets during the teaching process. It could be also concluded that interaction patterns will change according to the pedagogic goals and classroom focus. Teacher's discourse or interaction surely has an impact on the learning process as getting teachers to relate their use of language to pedagogic goals and examining the interactional features will result in greater depth of understanding. Additionally, we could safely conclude that not only learners will be the primary beneficiaries of the wisely selected teacher talk or language use through different modes or strategies. The motivated class and participatory students will support teachers' development as professionals. Interaction with the involved students is probably one of the key characteristics and the influential factor for teachers' development. The above-stated assumption can be based on the argument that participating students return feedback to the

teachers regarding their techniques, mastery, and patterns which could be a subject for reflection by a teacher.

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PRINCIPAL ASPECTS OF FORMULATING STRATEGIC PLANS FOR DEVELOPING STUDY PROCESS IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

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Abstract

This paper is connected with theoretical issues of formulation strategic development plan for higher education institutions. The research takes account the experience of US Universities regarding formulation of strategic plan. Also approaches to university management are discussed. In the paper a typical structure of a strategic plan for higher education institution's development is described. Authors' vision about the approaches to strategic planning is discussed. The paper answers the following questions: why a long-term plan is important even in a relatively unstable situation; how SWOT analysis must be carried out; who takes part in preparation of university's strategic development plan and so on. Preparation of universities' strategic development plan requires deep analyses of the inside and outside environment. It is obvious that each university has its own specifications, but any university's long-term development depends on how university's strategies are purposeful and how realistic are the plans for achievement of the formulated goals. The higher education institutions, which are oriented to long-term results, in spite of property form, are successful only if they are adapted to market requirements. Permanent innovations and ability for adaptation with market requirements must be the bases for any university's strategic development.

Key words: strategic plans, higher education institutions, SWOT analysis, quality improvement, financial and material support

Institution management is known to be a complex concept comprising multiple trends such as human resources, structures, various methods, short and long-term goals, decisions, motivation and controlling issues. In our paper we are focused on discussing the topic of the strategic plan design for high education institutions based on the market leading firms' experience. The aim of our work is to make the issues of university development strategy plan more actual and observe our views in regard to the university strategic management.

Firstly we should take into consideration the fact that a university plan for strategic development differs from the ordinary strategic plan (Bain, 2004). The experience has proved the tough competition among the universities i.e. high education institutions use the methods (marketing, product and service diversification, building new markets, price discrimination, etc) characteristic for the market leading firms. Various forms of competition among the universities in Georgia are obvious nowadays, which can be considered as a useful phenomenon for the society from the quality and price viewpoint. Simultaneously, while discussing competitiveness among the educational institutions, all universities, including the educational system in Georgia, should be discussed as one of the competitive segment along the regional section (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Turkey, Iran, etc.).

Numerous developed countries of the world share strategy-based management experiences. During our visit to the USA we were able to get introduced with the strategic plans and the specific ways of their development of various universities. We also had a chance to meet the developers who contributed much in the strategy planning processes (Coffey, Cook, C.W. and Hunsaker, 1994).

It is worth mentioning that the strategic plans of the American universities are accessible for anyone and even the financial section of the plan is uploaded on the university websites. Despite certain common approaches, the structure and methodology of designing the strategic plan of various universities differ. There are the differences among the strategic planning processes and its constituents. On the bases of our American experience we have outlined the general structure of the strategic plan for the university development:

- The brief history of the Higher Education Institution;
- The mission of the Higher Education Institution;
- The values of the Higher Education Institution;
- The goals and trends of the strategic development in the education institution;
- SWOT analysis of the education institution;
- Expense analysis for achieving strategic goals in the education institution;
- Expected outcomes of the strategy realization;
- The following steps for designing the strategic plan: the action plans of structural units and the operative plans.

For illustrating the goals and certain actions/steps we suggest the general sample in which we have foreseen the reality in Georgia; typical general goals and trends common for the High Education Institutions in Georgia. In our opinion, the strategic plan for developing the Education Institutions in the country should be based on four strategic trends:

1. Quality Improvement

- Teaching quality: recruiting students of high intellectual potential; raising the level of teaching and the developing competitiveness amongst the students; developing the knowledge of foreign language; evaluating professors/lecturers; launching the flexible payment policy; raising academic freedom in professors; developing corporate culture.
- Quality of Scientific Research: creating appropriate environment for the research activities; effective usage of the university appliances; cooperation with local and international research groups; super quality service for stimulating research activities.
- Increasing the quality of students' experience: creating the society for protecting university traditions; increasing the ethic norms in students; chances for becoming more intellectuals and developing the independent decision-making skills, etc.

2. Broadening Connections

- Relations with alumni; Data Centre renovation; informing alumnus and supporting them with corresponding consultations.
- Internationalization: supporting the exchange programs for students and lecturers; recruiting/inviting foreign professors and students; creating environment for international cooperation; providing accommodation for the foreign students and professors; distributing information about various study courses and international conferences.

3. Financial and Material Support

- Infrastructure: providing programs with the corresponding equipment; improvement of the university construction; delay monitoring in technical service and its minimization; enlargement of the university space for implementing entertaining programs; investing in equipment for conducting experiments in the laboratories and classes; modernizing the university library; providing it with necessary books and journals for easy access from the scholars and students' side.

- Financial stability: management of the funds' budget; implementation of the budget model for distributing expenses; privileges for the staff; public utilities; compensations; salaries; library development; providing private and state financing for realizing one's goals; creating financial base for private investors, organizations and regional funds; promoting funds for scholarships.

4. **Management Improvement**

- Informational technologies: the university is obliged to create a solid ground for IT infrastructure; The University should guarantee the easy access to the computer services for students. It should encourage students and personnel to use IT technologies during their studies and scientific researches.
- Administration: incensement of administration effectiveness; creation the transparent system for information exchange; effective usage of human resources; improvement of financial and accountancy system; restructuring processes for increasing administration effectiveness.
- Students' activities: creating the high quality education environment; developing the unique culture and principal values of the university; optimization of the student governance.
- Faculty and the personnel: recruitment of the qualified personnel for increasing the number of entrants; encouragement of the professional development in the faculty personnel; development of cultural competences; recruitment of the high-potential personnel; revealing the leadership skills on the faculty and their development; implementing/launching leadership development programs.

The above-mentioned sample is nominal. The goals and tasks are supposed to be modified or changed according to the requirements of any higher education institution. We should also add the fact that unless the goals are transformed into the tasks for certain managers, it will remain only beautiful words having short-term effects on the society and will even become an adverse publicity for the institution in the near future. Accordingly, the reasons should be defined based on real indicators. Managers reach their goals in case they are measurable otherwise the management will become extremely hard to be achieved.

Who is supposed to design the strategic plan?

It is quite an essential and problematic issue. In the post-communist space, under the influence of the socialist past, certain state institutions considered to be the modifiers of defining strategies for higher education institutions. In reality the state institutions should be considered as outward factors defining only the general direction. In our opinion, every structural unit should be involved in designing the strategic plan for institution development, though the final decision should be taken by the high-ranked managers only. They should outline certain strategic views and design the final variant of the strategic plan (Freire, 1997).

Course of Action for Structural Units

University development strategic plan unites multiple plans of the institutional units. Based on the strategic ones, new operative plans are built and worked out by the administrative and other heads. The goal of the management is to transfer a university development strategic plan into the concrete actions (Gipps, 1995). The ways for achieving the strategic plan are itemized in the operative plans. Expected outcomes as well as concrete people and structural units, responsible for realizing the certain tasks, should be indicated in the operative plan. For transparency and control the following order should be kept in: goals; action tasks; expected outcomes; a responsible person for execution; period of execution. The rate and effectiveness of the operative plan determine actuality for achieving certain goals depicted in the university development strategic plan (Fink, 2003).

Strategic purpose is crucial for education institutions which are obliged to have a self-assessment of purposefulness by the periodic control. Thus they will be able to define the correct development of their long-term strategic plans. Such kind of control will give opportunities to higher education institutions to evaluate their concentration on effective achieving those goals.

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LIFELONG LEARNING AND ITS IMPLICATIONS ON SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN GEORGIA

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Abstract

The paper addresses the implementation of Lifelong Learning (LLL) in Georgia utilizing the triadic concept of Aspin et al (2012). In addition, K. Evans' (2003) multi-layered approach was used to evaluate Lifelong Learning, through international LLL policies present in Georgia, their implementation and the ways in which they are experienced by Georgian citizens. The paper tries to answer the following question: What is the relationship, if any, between lifelong learning and social and economic development? The paper begins with a discussion of lifelong learning as it is employed internationally in Europe. After addressing its scope and whether LLL has any influence on social and/or economic development and the nature of the said influence, LLL from a Georgian perspective is analyzed. LLL policies, their implementation, existing and possible barriers to implementation and the experiences of LLL participants is being assessed. A study was conducted collecting and analyzing data from research publications, reports and other materials concerning lifelong learning in Georgia. It was concluded that in some respects, the foundation has already been laid: relevant policies and funding regulations already exist, and a number of programs have been implemented. However, the study identifies the problems and complications. The main concern at this moment is ensuring that planning is being done for the long term with all three LLL aspects being considered.

Key words: lifelong learning, extramural education, knowledge-based economy, adult education, civic education, vocation education

Introduction

Georgia is a country located in the Caucasus region, on the crossroads of Europe and Asia. Its neighbouring countries are Turkey, Armenia, Azerbaijan and Russia. Georgia is a small country with population just under 5 million.

A sort of Lifelong Learning (LLL) has practiced in Georgia since the fourth century, starting with studying at the School of Rhetoric. Adult education continued mainly in churches and cathedrals in the following centuries. In the XIX century, it was predominantly

concerned with the improvement of the general education school (Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, 2008).

At the dawn of the Soviet era, the predominant focus of lifelong learning was combating illiteracy among the population of labourers in the Soviet republics. “Evening schools” as an alternative to secondary schools were introduced for those who were already employed, but needed to complete their education; extramural education (“non-attending sections”) served the same purpose for higher education. Evening schools meant that the students could attend classes in the evening, while the extramural education implied that contact hours with the professors were minimized to exam period intensive classes.

After the illiteracy problem was resolved, the aims of adult education changed to include raising the qualification of workers through professional training courses. The trainings, like almost all important activities in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), were centrally planned. The (public) organizations were given a right to select the participants from their employees. Most of these courses were conducted in different republics of the USSR. However, the trainings served the goal of professional development and did not present an aid for gaining competitive advantage over others, as people were generally provided with a “permanent job” following university graduation. Another prominent use for adult education was as political propaganda for the masses (Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, 2008).

In 1991, the collapse of the 70 years of state monopoly over political, economic, and social structures that followed the dismantling of the Soviet Union left its former members, including Georgia, in a dire condition. The transformation period was marked with difficulties. During the 1990s, a major economic decline, shrinking government budgets, widespread poverty, and prevalent shortcomings of civil society resulted in the destruction of every structure put in place by the USSR. When the governments and the non-profit section realized the need for LLL in the early 2000s, they had to rebuild the system almost from the scratch, since any and all previous structures, whether they had been effective or not, had been destroyed and few if any new ones were created.

Structural changes to the national economy, together with technological and occupational changes, had created a growing need for professionals with “new” or “updated” knowledge, mostly in the sphere of humanities and social sciences. Therefore, there was an

initial necessity for short-term professional training programs for adults who had received their education and training and who were prepared for the Command Economy (Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, 2008).

Significant reforms in education started in 2004. They were intended to purge the country of its Soviet and Post-Soviet influences and encourage the integration to European Higher Education Area. Accordingly, a new structural model for the system was created. It aimed to increase the autonomy of the institutions, create a competitive environment based on the principle of fairness and, through these changes, improve the quality of educational services and give rise to the development of a knowledge-based economy. The government's long-term goal was to create a system which would ensure maximum participation of all citizens in the process of education, the integration of ethnic minorities into society through the teaching of state language and civic values-oriented educational programs.

The aim of this paper is a threefold analysis of Lifelong Learning, through international LLL policies present in Georgia, their implementation and the ways in which they are experienced by Georgian citizens. The paper will try to answer the following question: What is the relationship, if any, between lifelong learning and social and economic development?

The research method used is document analysis. A study was conducted collecting and analyzing data from research publications, reports and other materials concerning lifelong learning in Georgia. The limitations of the study were the lack of reliable data (occasionally biased or outdated information). The lack of time resulting in an inability to use other methods of research in order to double-check the existing information or get primary data. The dynamics of system reform presented another problem: at the moment the education system in Georgia is in a process of transition, so the data change daily. Apart from these, a new strategy has been developed by the Adult Education Association of Georgia (AEAG) in 2013, but has not been made public yet. The new strategy may include recommendations proposed by this paper.

Theoretical framework

The idea of wide necessity of Lifelong Learning emerged in the 1970s. Even though the international [United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)] and

regional (Council of Europe and European Community) organizations used different labels, the idea behind them was the same – learning should not be confined to a person’s youth. Nowadays the term *Lifelong Learning* has established itself in the world, but its definition, organization and conceptualization are different.

Chairman of the International Commission on the Development of Education at UNESCO, Edgar Faure, in his 1972 report made a radical analysis and criticized the existing ‘front-end’ model of education. In addition, in the scope of changes advocated, he formulated “the philosophical–political concept of a humanistic, democratic and emancipatory system of learning opportunities for everybody, independent of class, race or financial means, and independent of the age of the learner” (Schuetze and Casey, 2006, p. 290). Starting with this document, the idea of Lifelong Learning became a priority for international organizations and agencies, such as OECD, APEC and the European Union (Aspin, Chapman, Evans, & Bagnall, 2012).

If learning is to encompass the whole lifespan, Schuetze and Casey affirm, then everything about the organisation, regulation and, most importantly, financing of the education system should be changed (Schuetze and Casey, 2006). In other words, such a system requires coordination of policies, procedures and standards between different governmental bodies, as the activities are not solely the responsibility of the ministers of education.

Thus, the European Union with its Lisbon Strategy (2000-2010) set a twofold goal of a “competitive and knowledge-based economy ... with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion” (Directorate-General for Internal Policies, 2010, p. 11). However, Aspin et al (2012) offered a triadic concept of lifelong learning, according to which the three different purposes of lifelong learning are:

- Economic progress and workforce development;
- Personal development and fulfilment;
- Social inclusiveness.

The effects of Lifelong Learning on both national economic competitiveness and social cohesion were analysed by Andy Green (Green, 2006). He argues that the role of Lifelong Learning in the development of different types of knowledge economy/society varies. Different lifelong Learning systems produce different types of skill distribution and

socialisation, which affect employment rates, productivity, income distribution and social cohesion either directly or indirectly.

This research paper is based on the views brought forth by Aspin et al. (2012) and will determine the state of these factors in Georgia.

To conduct an in-depth policy analysis, a multi-layer approach will be used. This method, developed by K. Evans will make it possible to discuss policies on different levels: espousment, enactment and experience (Evans, 2003, p. 419):

| <i>Policy levels</i> | <i>Framework Issues</i> | <i>Matches</i> |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Policy as espoused | Concepts Structures | Nation as context Labour markets |
| Policy as enacted | Institutions | 'Career trajectories' |
| Policy as experienced | Actors | Individuals/groups |

Figure 1. Layered Approach to Comparative Analysis. Source: (Evans, 2003, p. 419)

The approach commences with the enacted policies, describing what was done, when and with what stated purpose. The next step is assessing policy on the implementation and individual experience levels. This will be done through the triadic concept of lifelong learning.

Lifelong Learning policies in Georgia

To evaluate lifelong learning policies, we begin by analysing its overall goals and broad aims.

The idea of lifelong learning is integrated into several government documents. Namely, the Government Program of Georgia and Basic Data and Directions of the government of Georgia. In addition, it is strengthened by the framework legislation, regulating the educational system of Georgia, where the importance of social inclusion and civil integration is highly emphasized (Antadze, Bakradze, Bregvadze, Darchia, & Glonti, 2009). According to the 2004 individual action plan put forth by the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, which addresses the harmonization of Georgian legislation with that of the European Union, “the recently popular strategy in Western Europe – Lifelong Learning should be implemented in Georgia, thus providing individuals with a possibility to become

competitive users of new technologies, simplify social relations, create equal opportunities and improve quality of life” (Antadze, Bakradze, Bregvadze, Darchia, & Glonti, 2009, p. 4). The concept of lifelong learning is further explored in the Georgian Law on Vocational Education, according to which, vocational education must meet the Professional and educational requirements of all interested persons, promote their Professional development and social protection (Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, 2010), thus creating the learning opportunities for those interested.

To further ensure a smooth introduction of lifelong learning in Georgia, Adult Education Strategy was established in 2009 in cooperation with Adult Education Association of Georgia. According to it, the purpose of adult education is twofold and includes (Antadze, Bakradze, Bregvadze, Darchia, & Glonti, 2009, p. 38):

- “Adult education with the compensatory function to better adapt to the new environment and raise competition at the labour market;
- Adult civic education for sustainable development, civic peace and integration, preventing conflicts and settling them peacefully, encouraging active citizenship”.

In order to ascertain government priorities, the 2010-2013 Basic Data and Direction document from the Georgian Government was analyzed. The document in the context of adult education shows that the government recognizes the role of lifelong learning in solving the social problems (including employment) that various underprivileged groups face (Government of Georgia, 2010).

Literacy issues are not the main focus for Georgian lifelong learning policies, since the country’s literacy rate, as shown in the Adult Education Strategy, is 100%, and it has a traditional and comprehensive school system. In addition, Education for All Development Index in Georgia is as high as 0.983 (UNESCO, 2010). Therefore, adult education mostly refers to the education of individuals who have reached adulthood, but have already undergone basic education. Also, naturally, the Adult Education Strategy of Georgia does not include pre-school and basic education. In this paper lifelong learning and adult education will be used interchangeably.

Despite Georgia’s efforts during the past decade and the significant amount of improvements put in place, problems with LLL policies persist.

The role of lifelong learning in the Georgian education system is still unclear. Even though adult education has its own strategy, lifelong learning policy is subsumed under higher education policies. However, there is a separate law on vocational education, and lifelong learning is not shown on the description of Georgian education system.

Policies are characterized by short-termism, or the tendency to focus on what is earliest to change and/or run as a crash program. This approach is used to get short-term results as soon as possible and, thereby, influence voters. However, short-termism often fails to achieve intended results and causes resources to be wasted in vain. Moreover, it is not mentioned how to monitor the progress in any policy document. No follow-up research has been planned to determine whether the program has reached its goals.

As professional development programs in Georgia are not controlled by a specific independent government body, education quality is often low. Consequently, it should come as no surprise that Georgian citizens, disregarding their financial standing, do not wish to invest in low-quality and/or low-prestige programmes.

There is lack of clear objectives, a need for assessment, indicators or benchmarks in the strategy. The programs do not identify the bodies responsible for enforcing the laws. They do not include any specific steps, activities or measurement indicators to be implemented. They have no timetable or financial plan. No serious market analysis has been conducted to determine the conditions these policies have to face. The strategy is essentially a brief history of LLL in general accompanied by an expression of desire to implement it in Georgia.

Despite the weaknesses and confusions of current policies, there is no doubt that steps are being taken toward improvement and progress. While the legislature may have some significant problems, a large part of it is functional, which is undoubtedly beneficial to the implementation of LLL and the subsequent economic development. For example, educational institutions are required to indicate the learning outcomes in the programs which inform employers about the knowledge, skills and competences of the qualification holder. However, the absence of certain policies creates difficulties, such as the recognition of prior learning except on the first three levels of the vocational education (Georgian Law "On Vocational Education", 2010). In general terms, there is a foundation for superior legislative policies, but the latter can only be attained through refining the already existing regulations and creating new ones whenever necessary.

Another important aspect of lifelong learning is its effect on social development in Georgia.

As mentioned above, during the Soviet era, state ideology presented a heavy influence on social life through political violence and the enforced values were not accepted voluntarily, but through necessity. Therefore, after the collapse of the regime, society found itself without shared values and experienced an ideological disintegration. Apart from that, years of totalitarian state discipline resulted in the loss of skills for voluntary labour co-operation and lack of development of the concept of "working for the common good". Thus, there are considerable intergenerational disturbances regarding social responsibility between the generations raised during and after the Soviet era.

Adult education is considered by the strategy as a significant factor in developing and implementing democratic values in society. An educated citizen, who clearly understands his/her rights and responsibilities, is the foundation of a civil society. Therefore, civic education should have a place in Georgia's total education system. The Law on "General Education" espouses this opinion, stating that civic education is an important element of the National Curriculum (Georgian Law on "General Education", 2005; "National Curriculum of Georgia", 2011). Since the nature of general education in Georgia is socially oriented, and aims to "educate a Georgian citizen and prepare them for professional and social life", civic education as a discipline was developed to fulfil this aim by promoting the preparation of an informed, active and responsible citizen at all levels of general education (Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, 2005). It is a crucial component in developing students' civic competences and establishing civic culture in the community itself. These inclusions will ensure that the next generation of Georgian citizens is prepared to live and prosper in the new democratic society, whereas a large part of the previous generations did not receive this type of education in a formal environment and shares (at least partially) the Soviet ideology.

Since gaining independence, Georgia has taken many successful steps toward developing a civil society. Nodia (2005) in his paper evaluates the development of civic sector. Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) operating in Georgia, proving to be consistent advocates of democratic values and human rights, have accumulated a degree of moral capital within a certain segment of society. A network of CSOs, active throughout Georgia, has become a platform for the dissemination and protection of liberal values. This would not have

been possible without the relevant legislative framework of the country. At the same time, the development of civil society in Georgia has been associated with deep-rooted problems and difficulties. First of all, the civil society sector has failed to provide a platform for a wide public participation. It is not adequately “embedded” in the society. Genuinely membership-based associations are very few. As a rule, organizations have a limited number of paid positions. The majority of developed organizations are located in Tbilisi, the capital of Georgia, whereas outside Tbilisi civil activity remains less developed despite the targeted actions by donors. The majority of the population has only a vague understanding of the essence of CSO activities. It has also generally failed to prove financially sustainable. The sector has been financed and thus shaped by western donors, which means it is financially dependent on them (Nodia, 2005).

The third aim of adult education, as proposed by Aspin et al. (2012) is supporting individual development. This side of adult education is totally unexplored by Georgian legislation. The Georgian government recognizes only the twofold goal, which is not enough, since a successful system should be able to satisfy individual educational requirements that are not directly connected with employment and serve other interests related to personal self-realization.

Implementation of Lifelong Learning policies

At present, adult education is mainly provided by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) or employers interested in developing the qualifications of their employees (Antadze, Bakradze, Bregvadze, Darchia, & Glonti, 2009). Training programmes offered by them have the additional advantage of ensuring a better adaptation to the new environment and raising competition in the labour market (computer courses, entrepreneurship and small business courses, courses for ethnic minorities to learn the state language, etc.) (Antadze, Bakradze, Bregvadze, Darchia, & Glonti, 2009). Although, there are a number of adult education opportunities provided by the state.

Patterns of lifelong learning reflect the current situation in the country (UNESCO, 2010). This is the main reason why Georgian governmental entities and NGOs focus predominantly on work-related programs. However, their efforts often prove to be sporadic, incoherent and fragmented. They have no clear vision of long-term outcomes. There are wide

gaps between policy, implementation and experience. Thus the policies are found to have no concrete impact on economic development. A high level of unemployment continues to be one of the most important challenges faced by the Georgian government. According to the National Statistics Office of Georgia, unemployment rate in 2012 was 15.0%.

| | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 |
|---|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Active population (labor force), thousand persons | 2023.9 | 2021.8 | 1965.3 | 1917.8 | 1991.8 | 1944.9 | 1959.3 | 2029.1 |
| Employed, thousand persons | 1744.6 | 1747.3 | 1704.3 | 1601.9 | 1656.1 | 1628.1 | 1664.2 | 1724.0 |
| Unemployed, thousand persons | 279.3 | 274.5 | 261.0 | 315.8 | 335.6 | 316.9 | 295.1 | 305.1 |
| Unemployment rate, percentage | 13.8 | 13.6 | 13.3 | 16.5 | 16.9 | 16.3 | 15.1 | 15.0 |

Figure 2. Employment Statistics. Source: <http://geostat.ge>

Various studies have shown that this is mainly caused by the lack of human resources fulfilling the needs of the labor market. This problem persists, even though, lifelong learning programs are meant to help alleviate it. The fact that the unemployment rate has risen slightly since the introduction of the lifelong learning programs and the initiation of education reform might be attributed to the failure of the previously existing employment related programs. It can also be explained by investors pulling out soon after the Russia-Georgia 2008 war. In addition, it has been several years since the introduction of the programs, and their effects might not have manifested yet.

The inconsistencies concerning the financing of these programs also present an issue. They arise mostly from the fact that acquisition of financing and creation of initiatives often occur simultaneously, thereby negating any interest in long-term results in favor of securing funding. This accounts for their sporadic nature (Lutsevych, 2013).

The majority of those excluded from lifelong learning opportunities often belong to already marginalised sections of the population (such as people living in rural areas, people with special needs, IDPs, and prison inmates).

As most of the organizations working in the field of lifelong learning are based in Tbilisi, marginization intensifies. A profit-driven framework for adult education provision

will inevitably reinforce their exclusion. Therefore, civic and state programs should consider equity issues, currently totally neglected by the policies.

In order to further facilitate the implementation of lifelong learning, a government program for the financing of vocational education was introduced in 2010. The Georgian Law „On Vocational Education” (2010) determines the conditions for conducting professional education in Georgia, the types of vocational education, steps and funding principles. Vocational education is funded by the state. The competent authorities fund vocational educational programs using the per capita financing principle of ‘money follows the student’ (Glonti, 2007).

Based on the National Report, the Global Report on Adult Learning and Education (GRALE) shows the types of education provision in Georgia (UNESCO Institute of Lifelong Learning, 2009):

- Literacy;
- Vocational training
- Knowledge generation (ICT, second language)
- Civic Education

As the main requirements for Georgian job vacancies are knowledge of the English language and ICT, the government financed courses (outsourced to private providers) in the two subjects for the unemployed. These knowledge generating programs are hardly ever thorough enough to ensure employment for professionals if they undergo one such training course. An individual with no knowledge of English cannot attain a level of proficiency sufficient for a job position in one semester. The same can be said for ICT courses.

The Organical Law of Georgia on Local Self-Governance and Governance (2005) made self-governing units responsible for investment promotion and facilitation of municipal employment programs. In this context, adult education should be considered as a complement to investment promotion and municipal programs of employment.

To make the educational programs more relevant to market demand, the law on accreditation demands that educational institutions include the stakeholders in the curriculum development process. The employers are even participating in the drafting of the vocational standards (led by the government).

Civic organizations offer trainings to the interested society with the purpose of adult civic education for sustainable development, civic peace and integration, preventing conflicts and settling them peacefully, encouraging active citizenship (topics: democracy, tolerance, inter-ethnic relations, active citizenship, gender, environment protection, healthy lifestyle, etc.).

Taking into account the difficult socio-economic situation in Georgia today, it is quite understandable that the development of democratic values may not be the main driving force of involving citizens in adult education. The top priorities, as research proves, are still employment and career advancement. However, civic sector development should be more stimulated, as they can play a crucial role in social inclusion.

Despite the previous efforts, coordination of policy and action within government and between government and stakeholders has yet been rather ineffective. Even the most effective programs were created through the central government's sole initiative. This shows that the "command and control" model of organisation and governance remains predominant, undermining local autonomy and flexibility and lowering civil society participation.

Lifelong Learning on the experiential level

Equally important is the investigation of learners', teachers' and other stakeholders' experiences with lifelong learning. Although there are some studies which show the data for a specific time period, program or a region, overall reliable statistics concerning involvement in adult education in Georgia is not available.

The rate of participation in Lifelong Learning programs is very low. According to a study conducted in 2005, 74% of adult respondents at 25 years of age noted that in recent years they have not undergone through professional development. 6% of respondents indicated that they had taken a short-term vocational training and qualification-upgrading courses, 21% systematically get acquainted with special literature, 10% try to deepen their knowledge through self-instruction, while 1% were involved in the awarding of academic degree programs. All in all, only 6% of adults in Georgia are involved in educational activities, whereas in developed European countries this number reaches 60% (Antadze, Bakradze, Bregvadze, Darchia, & Glonti, 2009).

Similarly interesting is another study, in which respondents in the 18-70 age group were interviewed. According to this survey, in 2004, academic or other educational / vocational programs were attended by 10% of respondents. In 2005, the rate was 5% in Tbilisi and Shida Kartli (one of Georgia's regions). In 2004, 2.4% of respondents attended various professional training programs (Bakradze & Glonti, 2006).

Darchia (2009) identified lack of resources - qualified teachers, facilities and teaching aids, as another key issue in the context of LLL experience. The lack of professionalism and training opportunities for educators and the inadequate learning environment in terms of equipment, materials and curricula, has shown to have a detrimental impact on teacher/student commitment and quality of Lifelong Learning provision.

Higher education is much more prestigious among learners and employers than vocational training. One survey conducted in 2010 provided an aggregated overview of VET supply and processes for labour market matching. In this particular project, special attention was given to the demand for human capital in specific sectors, like tourism, apparel, ICT and food processing. The study showed that companies in these sectors have difficulties finding qualified employees. Only half of them had succeeded in finding suitable candidates within the 12-month period prior to the survey. In all of the sectors, having a higher education in any field and work experience is much more valued than vocational training (Pilot Survey of Labour Market Needs in Georgia (Tourism, Apparel, ICT, Food Processing), 2010).

Another program aimed at social integration financed by the government is the educational program in Georgian Language - especially developed for people whose mother language is Azerbaijani, Armenian, Abkhazian and Ossetian. The program provides them with the opportunity to improve their skills and knowledge (writing, reading, listening, and speaking) in the Georgian language in order to be able to continue their studies to the first level of higher education in Georgia. The program facilitates their integration into society and raises their chances of employment (Georgian Law on Higher Education, 2004).

Sometimes marginalization intensifies. According to some studies, there is a relatively low involvement in adult education programs of the following groups: elderly people, persons with disabilities and rural residents, the gender differences are negligible in this respect. Young people are more interested and involved in education than the

elderly. According to 2005 data, the average age of people who receive any type of education is 26 years (minimum 19, maximum 76).

The reason for not engaging in adult education is stated to be age. According to 2005 data, adult education is more accessible for people living in the capital of Georgia. One of the reasons is the abundance of educational institutions in the capital, as well as the high cost of living and teaching. The majority of the short-term vocational training, skills development and training programs are being held in the capital city (88%), and only a small part - in other large cities (12%).

It would be useful to have some information concerning participants' experiences with LLL programs.

As for the experience with civic education programs, a research conducted in secondary schools in 2010 shows that the majority of pupils have positive experience with a course in civic education. They think that it is necessary to be taught at school. Other respondents also believe that a course in civic education contributes to the development of the pupils into active citizens. A significant majority of pupils consider the course interesting, while half of them are satisfied with the quality of teaching. However, most of the pupils could not evaluate the effectiveness of the course, as it is a new addition to the curriculum (Georgian Evaluation Association, 2010).

For teachers the governmental agency has developed a teachers' guide to teaching civic education, which helps them prepare for teachers' licensing exams in the course.

In terms of higher education, a non-profit organization - the International Foundation for Electoral Systems - in collaboration with Georgian and international professors and experts, developed within the democracy promotion program, a civic education course entitled "Democracy and Citizenship" (with an accompanying course-book) as part of its effort to promote civic education and engagement in Georgia. In 2012, the course was piloted in six HEIs in Georgia. Following the positive feedback from participant university professors and students on the first pilot phase, 8 other HEIs offered the course as well (International Foundation for Electoral Systems, 2014).

Conclusions

The paper addressed the implementation of LLL in Georgia utilizing the threefold view of Aspin et al (2012). In addition, K. Evans' multi-layered approach was used to evaluate how the LLL policy is espoused, enacted and experienced.

Taking into account the Soviet Union's legacy in Georgia, the country is in good condition in terms of lifelong learning. There are political forces supporting the implementation of policies and regulations utilized by international organizations and developed countries. In some respects, the foundation has already been laid: relevant policies, funding regulations already exist and a number of programs have been implemented. However, there is a considerable number of problems and complications. The main concern at this moment is ensuring that planning is being done for the long term with all three LLL aspects being considered.

The approach that the purpose of Lifelong Learning adopted in Georgia is highly job-related and economy-driven. The policies and priorities determined by the Georgian governmental bodies are narrowing and limiting the understanding of the nature and purpose of Lifelong Learning. In addition, they completely neglect Aspin's (Aspin et al., 2012) third purpose of Lifelong Learning for personal fulfilment despite its crucial role in LLL and the fact that tripartite alliances between the state, civil society and enterprises are recommended for economic and social development. In addition, existing LLL policies lack consistency and have a detrimentally sporadic nature. The implementation of programs is often put on hold, sometimes indefinitely.

A focus on employment programs by both the government and the population is understandable, considering today's high unemployment rates, but ignoring the need for a civic society will hinder development in this aspect and prevent stakeholders from forming channels they can use to attain sustainability.

The programs implemented sometimes do not reach out to and provide for the learning requirements of people from all groups and strata of society. They should not be limited to large cities and towns, but instead should address the needs of those who live far away from these places. The provision of lifelong learning pathways and avenues of advancement cannot be restricted to those who happen to have the means of securing entry to it.

A key problem is attributing any changes in outcomes to changes in policy or spending. One of the causes is simply time. While some policies (such as changes to benefit rates) have almost instant effects on some outcomes (such as incomes), others (such as changes to the National Curriculum) may not only take longer to enact but have their full effect on outcomes many years later, during the term of office of another government.

Today the government plays an important role in determining the priorities and directions of Lifelong Learning policies and programs. By the time Georgia becomes more developed, Lifelong Learning will cover a great range of purposes and programs. In addition, it will delegate more to the local authorities.

And, most importantly, analyses from prominent researchers have proved that LLL has a significant impact on a country's economic and social development. But, unfortunately, an analysis of LLL conditions in Georgia has yet failed to show tangible results. The cause for lack of results could be that we are still at the early stages of program implementation, or complications already discussed in this paper are preventing the programs from working properly. A detailed research of these factors would be beneficial for the development of LLL in Georgia.

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DIFFERENTIATED TEACHING METHODS USED BY TEACHERS IN INCLUSIVE CLASSROOMS IN GEORGIA

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Abstract

The school shall provide education for all students, regardless of their different capabilities. The school is facing some difficulties, which are caused by students' diversity and their differing needs. Those teachers who use differentiated teaching methods meet the diverse academic needs of all students. Perception of diversity increases the likelihood of effective teaching and allows the teacher to plan with different approaches: what the students should learn, how to learn, and how to express what they have learned and understood. The study aimed to investigate whether teachers possess the knowledge of differentiated teaching methods, which strategies they use and how often; also to identify the factors that helps or hinders teachers to use differentiated teaching methods. To carry out the survey, quantitative research method was used. A special questionnaire was developed, which consisted of 8 questions. The questionnaire was sent to public and private school teachers, by using probabilistic sampling. The analysis was made about the level of knowledge and the frequency of the use of differentiated teaching strategies. Research has shown that teachers are familiar with some strategies, which could be used for differentiation instruction, but it does not guarantee that they use it. Teachers are not confident in their abilities. The difficulties are related to the lack of resources and time that are reflected on teachers' willingness to implement the differentiated teaching strategies. Teachers who are familiar with the different strategies, more often use strategies that are simple and fast to implement. More complex strategies that require a lot of time for planning and implementing are more rarely used, even by those teachers who reported that they were well aware of various strategies. In order that the students have equal opportunities for high quality education, teachers need professional development trainings, for better studying the instruction strategies and additional time to plan and implement differentiated teaching, which will enable them to respond to different needs of each student. It can be concluded that if teachers have the knowledge, time, and resources, they will be able to implement differentiated teaching in class.

Key words: differentiated instruction, teaching methods, diverse academic needs

Introduction

The schools are facing difficulties, which are caused by students' diversity and their different needs. The school has to provide education for all students regardless of their

abilities. Teachers who use differentiated instruction methods can better meet the diverse academic needs of all students. Differentiated instruction brings benefits for students with special needs, because it creates an environment where differences are not only accepted, but also appreciated. The differentiated approach supports inclusive education system where all students should have equal educational opportunities, be involved in the general educational institutions and study along with the rest of the students.

The study aims to investigate if the teachers are familiar with the differentiated instruction strategies, which strategies do students use and how often and also to identify the factors that help or hinder them from using these strategies.

Tomilson (Tomlinson & Eidson, 2003) states that differentiated instruction is an instruction method that, through teaching and management strategies, enables teachers to assess each student's level of readiness, understand their interests and learning style. Perception of diversity increases the likelihood of effective teaching and allows the teacher to plan with different approaches: what the students should learn, how to learn, and how to express what they have learned and understood.

When the teacher considers the student's interests, it means that the students are given an opportunity to learn through the material they are more interested in. The teacher who uses different learning styles takes into account the students' visual, auditory and kinesthetic advantages (Tomlinson & Eidson, 2003).

Tomilson (Tomlinson & Eidson, 2003) also states, that teachers must consider four basic elements, which can distinguish students' teaching: content, process, product and learning environment. Content means what students should study and the materials and teaching strategies by which this teaching is achieved. Process involves a series of activities, by which the teacher intends to provide students with the essential ideas and information. Product consists of the alternative ways by which students demonstrate their knowledge. Learning environment means the classroom and how it is organized to respond to students' diverse needs.

Content

The content of the program consists of facts, concepts, attitudes or basic principles (Tomlinson & Allan, 2000). The content is also understood as what the students should know, understand and be able to do as a result of learning (Tomlinson & Eidson, 2003).

Teachers can only determine the method of content delivery, what the students should know, understand and be able to do, when they know their own students. Teachers who use differentiated instruction understand that the main goal is to give the students an opportunity to study on their relevant individual level. The difference in achieving the goal depends on how children master the content. Tomilson and Eidson also note that some of the students need teachers' strong support, while others may work independently in a more difficult format (Tomlinson & Eidson, 2003).

Process

Tomilson and Eidson (Tomlinson & Eidson, 2003) defined the process as a set of activities that teachers have worked out to enable students understand and master the basic ideas and information. It is important for the activity to be focused on the learning objectives. Students should be able to think critically and not just get the information. An activity is valuable only if it attracts and maintains students' interest. Tomilson and Eidson (2003) distinguished some ways of the process differentiation, which is based on students' readiness. The examples include the use of tiered assignment, giving detailed and specific directions, slowing down or speeding up the students' work, and the use of different criteria for evaluating the success, which is based on the requirements of the whole class as well as on the needs of the individual student's readiness. Process differentiation is also possible, engaging students in interest based working or discussion groups.

Product

The product consists of verbal or material objects, or activities by which the students demonstrate what they have learned. Heacox (2002) declares that the product is the outcome of learning. The product may consist of alternate ways or activities, which the students use to present their knowledge. Teachers can differentiate the product. Teachers may engage students in projects in order to enable them to demonstrate their strengths or, on the contrary, to remedy their weaknesses. As well as the content and process, the assignments of the

product should be focused on learning objectives. The teacher should provide product differentiation strategies, which correspond to students' level of readiness. One of the strategies is to use tiered assignments. The teacher can encourage students to demonstrate the critical ideas about the topics about which they have specific interests. Finally, the teacher can differentiate the product by visual, auditory, and kinesthetic products in order to adjust to the students' learning style, which will enable them to better demonstrate what they already know.

Learning Environment

The classroom environment should be organized in such a way, so as to respond to students' diverse academic needs. The flexible environment is a feature of differentiated instruction. Teachers need to develop rules and procedures, which will have an impact on the learning environment. Creation of a flexible classroom is teachers' responsibility, but children also need to be involved in the decision-making process, in order to establish a practical learning environment (Tomlinson & Strickland, 2005). When teachers create a differentiated teaching class, they might move the furniture in order to give students individual, small group or the whole group work assignments.

Advantages of differentiated instruction

There are significant studies that prove the advantages of using differentiated instruction methods in elementary and secondary schools (Hilyard, 2004). Such empirical studies give us valuable information about the level of knowledge that teachers and administrators have or should have, in order to differentiate instruction in elementary classrooms. Hilyard (2004) evaluated 238 elementary school teachers in order to find out how they understood and used differentiated instruction in the classrooms. The study aimed to answer the following questions: 1) What is the level of teachers' understanding of differentiated instruction 2) What is the level of the differentiated instruction used in the classroom, and 3) Is there any difference between the knowledge and the quality of application of differentiated instruction among novice (1 to 5 years of experience) and

experienced (6 or more years of experience) teachers. Hilyard (2004) collected data through the questionnaires, interviews and observations and concluded that there was no significant difference between the new and experienced teachers, according to the use or the knowledge of the differentiated instruction. However, differences were observed in differentiated instruction strategies. Hilyard found that, despite the fact that teachers play a major role in the use of differentiated instruction, it is not less important for the school administrators to know the essence of the differentiated instruction in order to provide training for teachers, which will improve their work practice.

These empirical studies are mostly positive in assessment of the differentiated instruction, but also notes that school leaders, administrators and teachers need additional trainings in order to get more information about differentiated instruction. The researchers Demos and Foshay (2009) assume that teachers who use the differentiation instruction understand that all students are unique and have different learning styles and advantages. They plan instruction taking into account the lesson, assignment and evaluation, and adapting the content to every student's needs. These researchers concluded that the differentiated instruction benefits all students, regardless of their skills, learning styles, interests, or cultural and language differences.

Based on the research results, the researchers McQuarrie and McRae (2010) declare that offering the best educational opportunities to all students, from primary school to high school, requires time, training, pre-planning and the teachers' responsibility. In the studies that aimed at the practical implementation of differentiated instruction, Valiande, Kyriakides and Koutselini (2011) researched:

- 1) the effect of differentiated instruction on students' achievements in a mixed ability classes, and
- 2) the quality and efficiency of differentiated instruction. These researchers, based on the results and strong evidences, support differentiation theory, its basic principles and confirm its effectiveness in mixed ability classes.

Differentiation improves students' learning outcomes. Understanding the needs of each student is essential for effective teaching. Differentiated instruction allows the students to study in accordance with their skills (Valli & Buese, 2007). They achieve academic success and feel more confident (Lopez & Schroeder, 2008).

Students with special needs, who are studying by an individual curriculum, have content, teaching methods and assessment systems adjusted to them. Their curriculum is differentiated. For those students, who have learning difficulties it is possible to differentiate the learning process by giving questions during the discussion, which is based on actual knowledge, instead of analysis, evaluation and synthesis. It makes them more confident in themselves. Also hyperactive students with attention deficit are allowed to sit as they wish and are given more time to respond to questions. It is possible to differentiate the product for students with learning difficulties, by written tests, short tests or by giving extra time on tests (Norlund, 2003). In teachers' studies, which were conducted by Allison and Rehm, effective strategies for teaching multicultural and multilingual students were identified. The teachers said that visual materials were the most effective teaching strategies; peer tutoring was marked as the second most effective strategy, cooperative groups - the third and alternative forms of evaluation as the fourth best teaching strategy (Allison & Rehm, 2007).

Differentiated instruction also benefits the talents and students with special gifts. When these students study again what they already know, their motivation is reduced (Norlund, 2003). The teachers should give them more challenging, possibly individual assignments, which may include the problematic situations and instruction should be done at a more rapid pace (Adams & Pierce, 2004). It is good to use independent learning and learning contracts. However, this does not mean to plan a different lesson for them. These students will perform the same task, but independently (Norlund, 2003).

Evaluation strategies

Teachers may evaluate students with various evaluation forms and procedures. Teachers should incorporate a variety of teaching strategies, in order to adjust to the students' learning styles, interests and readiness levels.

Researchers have created specific strategies for teachers to use when making differentiation of instruction: 1) learning contracts, 2) tiered assignments, 3) independent study projects, 4) curriculum compacting, 5) flexible groups 6) varying questions, 7) peer tutoring 8) learning profiles and styles, 9) assessment of students' interests, 10) and the acceleration or deceleration Gregory & Chapman, 2007; Heacox, 2002).

Learning contracts are written agreements between teachers and students on how to plan and perform the task. Tiered assignments consist of different tasks that are given to different students at the same time, cover the same issues, but vary by the level of difficulty. An independent research project is a strategy that provides students with the opportunity to investigate a topic of their interest or a problem, resulting in the product that shows the students' skills and knowledge about this problem or issue.

Curriculum compacting is a strategy that is implemented by testing the students before the assignments and then eliminating weaknesses in the area of competence. A flexible group is a strategy where a group of students are given the opportunity to fulfill specific assignments or tasks. The group varies depending on what the students need, taking into account their skills, interests and level of readiness. Varying questions is a strategy when the teacher asks different types of questions during the discussion or test, which are based on students' readiness level.

Peer tutoring is a process where students who have mastered the material can teach those students who need extra support. This strategy is very useful for the students who teach because they reinforce their knowledge, while those students, who are taught, benefit by learning from peers.

Learning profile/style belongs to the early identification strategy where students and/or their parents help teachers in identifying their preferred learning style at the beginning of the academic year. Assessment of students' interests is a strategy where the teacher often uses surveys to identify the students' interests, and then uses these interests in the curriculum development. Finally, the acceleration/deceleration strategy is one way by which teachers make the differentiation. Students who have a higher level of competence within the curriculum study at a faster pace. Those students who need the extra support may require more time and activities adjusted to them for decelerating the race of the teaching, in order to achieve success (Heacox, 2002).

Differentiated instruction strategies are hard to be implemented if teachers are not properly trained, or given enough time to study it (Servilio, 2009). According to Rock and his colleagues, the reasons why teachers do not use differentiated instruction is that they are not well trained in the methods, often have a large amount of work to perform and a big responsibility (Rock, Gregg, Ellis, & Gable, 2008).

Also according to VanSciver (2005), there are several factors that hinder the implementation of differentiated instruction. These are: time, resources and complexity.

Research Methodology

The study was conducted by quantitative research methods. A special questionnaire was developed, which examined the extent to which the teachers possess and use differentiated instruction methods. The study also aimed to identify teachers' needs, in order that the school administration officials plan professional development trainings for them. The questionnaire had to reveal the factors that help or hinder teachers in using the differentiated instruction.

The study had to answer the following research questions:

1. How familiar the teachers are with the strategies that can be used in the process of differentiating the instruction?
2. What factors contribute to the implementation of the differentiated instruction?
3. Which factors prevent the teachers from implementing the differentiated instruction?
4. In which subjects are differentiated instruction methods used?

The questionnaire was sent to 97 teachers from the public and private schools. The first 2 questions were demographic. 75% of respondents were women and 25% - men. Out of these 45% had 0-4 years of teaching experience, 25% - 5-9 years of experience, 15% - 10-19 years, and 15% - over 20 years of experience.

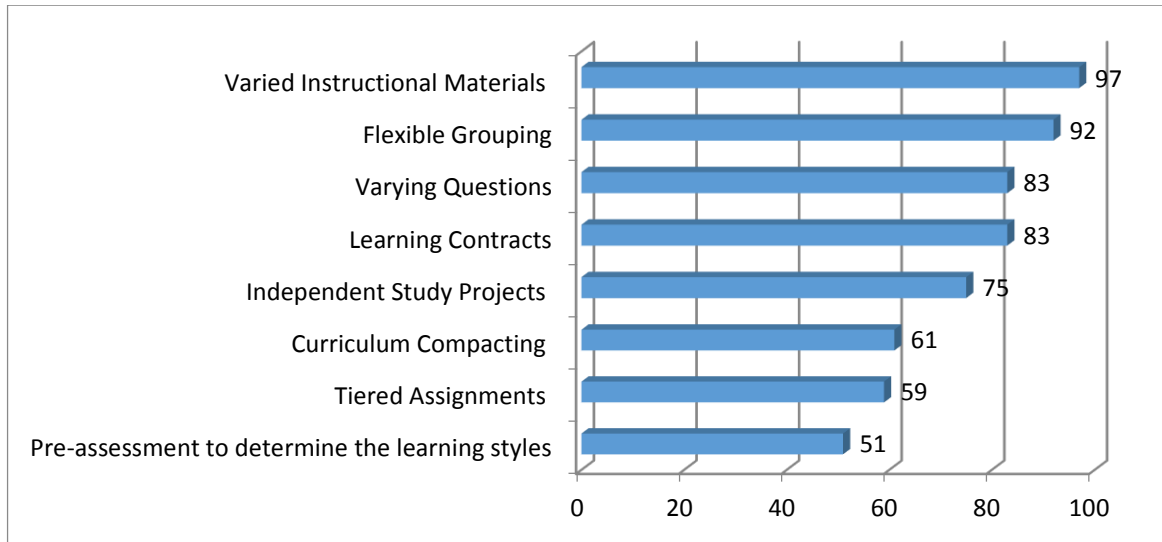
The rest of the questions aimed to find out if teachers implement differentiated teaching in class. In the questionnaire there were also given the following questions: which differentiated teaching strategies teachers know and how often do they use them, also two questions about the factors that help or hinder the application of differentiated instruction strategies. The questionnaire also aimed to find out what resources teachers were willing to use in order to deepen their knowledge on differentiated instruction. The respondents answered eight questions in total.

Results

The study showed that the majority of the teachers surveyed were familiar with the differentiated teaching techniques. 78% indicated that they knew them, and 22% gave a negative answer.

Teachers had to give answers to the question: how familiar they are with the strategies, according to 8 strategies: learning contracts, tiered assignments, independent study projects, curriculum compacting, flexible grouping, varying questions, varied instructional materials, and pre-assessment to determine the learning styles. The survey revealed that the majority of the teachers are familiar with a large part of strategies. From the presented 8 strategies the teachers are most aware of varied instructional materials (97% of teachers) and flexible groups (92% of teachers). 83 percent of teachers are familiar with the learning contracts and varying questions (the results shown in graph #1). The lowest percentage got tiered assignments, pre-assessment to determine the learning styles and curriculum compacting.

The next question was about the frequency of the application of these strategies. The responses included the options: always (every day), frequently (weekly), occasionally (every month) and never. The most common strategies, used by teachers on a daily or weekly basis, were: varying questions, flexible groups and varied instructional materials. While the least used strategies included: curriculum compacting, independent research projects and learning contracts (see Graph # 2).



Graph №1. How familiar teachers are with the differentiated instruction and management strategies

| | always (daily) | frequently(every week) | seldom (every month) | never |
|---|-------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|-------|
| Varied Instructional Materials | 54 | 25 | 14 | 7 |
| Flexible Grouping | 45 | 24 | 20 | 11 |
| Varying Questions | 40 | 30 | 17 | 13 |
| Curriculum Compacting | 1 | 19 | 27 | 53 |
| Learning Contracts | 10 | 10 | 36 | 44 |
| Independent Study Projects | 7 | 22 | 29 | 42 |
| Tiered Assignments | 10 | 31 | 26 | 33 |
| Pre-assessment to determine the learning styles | 12 | 29 | 36 | 23 |

Graph №2. How frequently teachers use differentiated instruction strategies

97% of teachers are familiar with the strategy of using varied instructional materials. 54% of respondents use it on a daily basis, and 25 percent weekly. We can assume that teachers use this strategy because it is quickly and easily implemented. Another strategy that showed opposite results was curriculum compacting. 61% of respondents reported that they knew about it, but 53% said that they have never used it in the class. So, we can also assume

from this, that since this strategy requires a long period for planning, the teachers do not have enough time and resources to implement it.

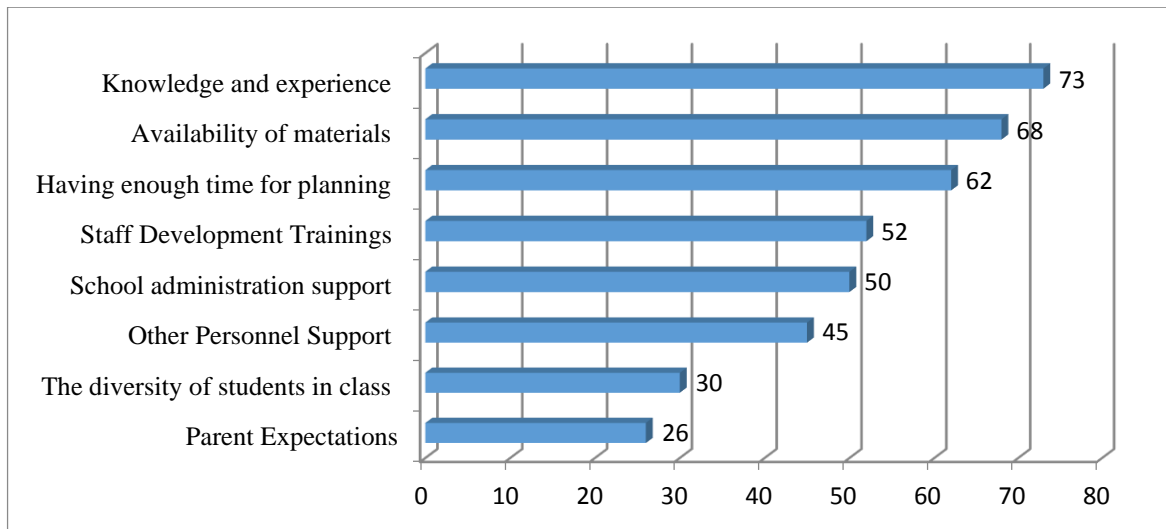
The strategy analysis showed that there is no (or insignificant) positive correlation between teachers' knowledge of strategies and the frequency of its use. The teachers who claim that they know the strategies do not always use it. For example, the majority of teachers interviewed - 83% - knew about the learning contracts, but 44% said that they have never used it.

The research has revealed that the use of differentiated instruction differed according to the subjects. Most often teachers used the differentiated instruction methods in Georgian language and math. 83 percent of Georgian language teachers use differentiated instruction strategies on a daily or weekly basis. 81% of math teachers differentiate instruction, out of which 78% on a daily or weekly basis. This may deal with either teachers of these subjects being better informed or the skill nature of the subjects.

Another area, in which the teachers were surveyed, was how important they think it is to use differentiated instruction in lesson planning, student assessment, and in conducting lessons. The answers were given by Likert scale: very important, important and unimportant. 86% of respondents said that it is very important in lessons delivery. 80 % declared it was very important in assessment and the 71 percent considered it very important in lesson planning.

There can be many factors that may promote or hinder teachers in implementing differentiated instruction in the classroom. Eight options were given to the questions that dealt with factors which prevent or contribute to the use of the differentiated instruction: the school administration support, parental expectations, a diversity of students in class, support by other personnel, availability of materials, knowledge and experience, having enough time for planning and trainings.

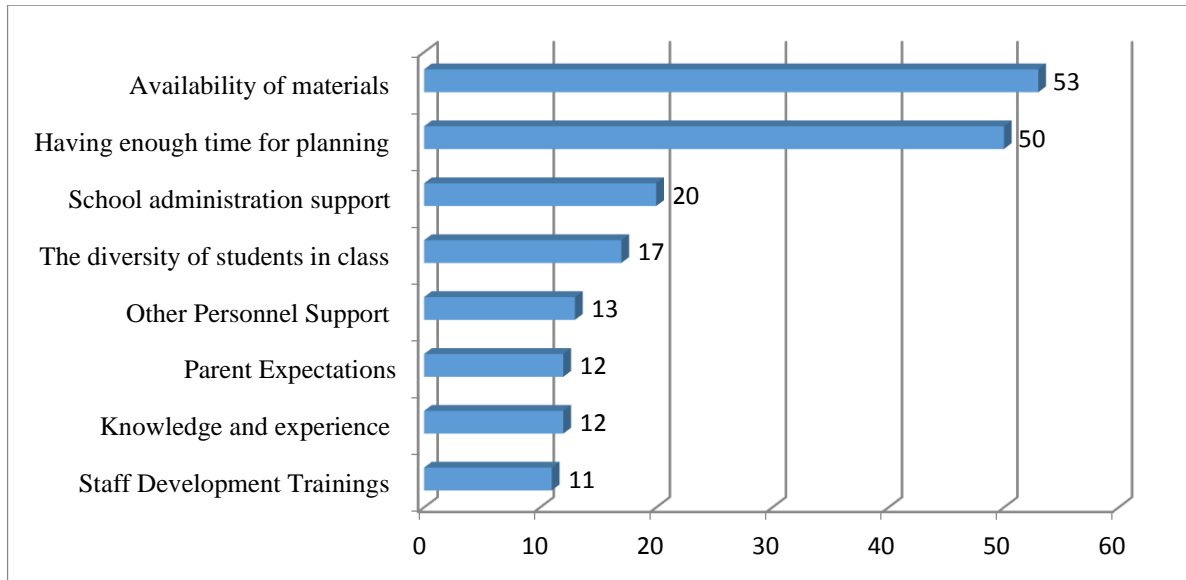
73% of teachers believe that knowledge and experience are the most important factors that contribute to the implementation of differentiated teaching. The second biggest factor that helps teachers is the access to the learning materials as considered by 68% of teachers and the next most important factor, that was assumed by 62% of teachers, is having sufficient time for planning. The least important factor was parents' expectations, which was considered by only 26 percent of teachers (see graph # 3).



Graph №3. Factors that help teachers in differentiating instruction

In order that the respondents choose the answer the about the factors which hinder the use of differentiated instruction, the same 8 factors were suggested to them. As the most important factor that prevents the implementation of differentiated instruction was named the access to educational materials, as declared by 53% of teachers. The second factor is the lack of sufficient time for planning, which 50% of teachers mentioned and the least important factor is the staff development trainings, which only 11 percent of teachers considered (graph #4).

Most of the teachers declare that the knowledge and experience contributes as well as its lack prevents the implementation of differentiated instruction. The second most important factor that helps and also hinders is the access to educational materials, and the following most important factor is the sufficient planning time. Parental expectations were named as the least important factor.



Graph №4 Factors that hinder teachers to differentiate instruction

Finally, I wondered what resources teachers would like to use in order to enrich their knowledge in differentiated instruction. 90 percent of teachers surveyed said that they would like to participate in professional development trainings. 65 percent would like to have reading material: books or magazines and 55 percent of the teachers - the video materials. According to these data, we can assume that teachers are willing to participate in various professional development activities in order to increase and improve their knowledge in differentiated instruction.

Analysis of Results

The results of the first question revealed that the majority of teachers are familiar with different strategies that can be used for differentiating the instruction. It can be concluded that teachers are more likely to use those strategies, that are simple and easily implemented and less time consuming in sense of preparation (for example flexible groups, varying questions). More complex strategies that are time-consuming in sense of planning and implementation are more rarely used, even by those teachers who said that they knew about them well.

To ensure the equal opportunities for students in receiving a high quality education, there is a need for allocating additional time for teachers, in order to plan and implement differentiated instruction by which they will meet the diverse needs of every student. For example, teachers who are differentiating instruction must consider curriculum compacting, which might be essential for students with special needs.

By comparing the variables, which was related to the knowledge of the strategies and the frequency of its use, there was not found a significant correlation. Teachers may be familiar with some specific strategies, but they are not confident in their own ability or do not have enough knowledge to use it. The study also showed that teachers may know strategies well but it does not mean that they will use it. Lack of resources may hinder its implementation. Teachers need professional development trainings in order to be better prepared in the strategies for implementing differentiated instruction.

The respondents who mostly differentiated instruction were teachers of the Georgian language and mathematics. One reason of this may be that more time is devoted to these subjects in school on a daily basis, than to other subjects. Another reason may be that teachers, who teach the same children on a daily basis, are more familiar with each student's needs and therefore differentiate the instruction.

The study identified three main factors that teachers consider supporters for differentiated instruction. These includes: knowledge and experience, availability of resources and the sufficient time for planning. The obstacles that were mostly named include the lack of time and unavailability of corresponding educational resources.

Availability of the resources and having enough time for planning helps as well as its lack prevents the implementation of differentiated instruction. It can be concluded that if teachers had had the knowledge, time and resources they would have been able to implement differentiated instruction in class.

Finally, the study revealed that teachers demonstrate willingness to participate in various professional development activities in order to broaden their knowledge.

Recommendations

The school must create an environment where students' diversity is appreciated and every student has an opportunity to study according to their interests and learning style, which will give them the possibility to become self-confident, motivated people.

Teachers should be given time to work collaboratively with other teachers in order to develop differentiated instruction methods for their students. One of the most important factors is the team-work. This can occur between teachers, between students in the class or between the teacher and the students.

Teachers must match the lessons, which they plan, to the readiness level of students and their understanding. When the teacher takes into account the different levels of students' background, it becomes easier for the students to succeed.

Differentiated instruction should be carried out immediately, as soon as the students enter the school, and it should be used throughout the whole period of student teaching. Some of the differentiated instruction strategies make it possible to be used in any class: for example, learning contracts – an agreement between teachers and students, where there is some freedom in the execution and planning of assignments, varying questions - different types of questions - a strategy in which the teacher gives the students different types of questions during the discussion or tests, which is based on students' readiness level, interest and learning style.

Teachers need a variety of professional development trainings related to the use of differentiated instruction. The research has revealed that teachers have the desire of training. School principals and education specialists should provide support for a teacher, which means allocating time required for planning, providing study materials and giving the possibility for professional growth. This will give teachers the opportunity to become more prepared for the implementation of these strategies.

Conclusion

The aim of this study was to examine how familiar teachers are with the differentiated instruction in order to use it in class. Many novice teachers find it difficult to implement differentiated instruction. Studying the effective use of new strategies requires a lot of time and motivation. One important discovery that was made is the correlation between the

knowledge of the strategies and the frequency of their use. If teachers are aware of certain strategies, but the strategies are difficult in sense of implementation, teachers are reluctant to use them.

This study also aimed to identify factors that help or prevent the implementation of differentiated instruction. The availability of adequate educational resources and having enough time for planning helps as well as its lack prevents the implementation of differentiated instruction. The results showed that teachers need professional development trainings, in order to eliminate hindrances and to be able to use them on a daily basis, and in all subjects.

Teachers who are differentiating the instruction understand that flexible teaching is necessary in order that the curriculum work in an academically diverse class. If teachers differentiate instruction, they will realistically consider giving the opportunity to their students' to learn on individual levels, based on their needs. The implementation of differentiated instruction on all levels of teaching requires a lot of time and constant work from the teachers' side. Teachers should consider the interest, learning style and readiness level of their students, when planning the educational process. Teachers are required to change attitudes from the teacher-centered to the student-centered approach. Also they should use methods that will enable students to learn according to their interests, which in turn will increase their knowledge and involvement in the class.

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INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

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Abstract

Implementing cultural strategy in the EFL classrooms has been recently considered as a significant aspect for involving students in a wider version of language learning appropriately. Teaching about culture in the EFL classroom makes a useful contribution to understanding the term and clarifies about how to reflect it on the expected outcomes and teach it successfully. In today's world the students know the rules of language, but they often do not know appropriately how to apply the knowledge in the target culture. The paper provides information about the materials and teaching strategies that teachers should use to address culture in their EFL classes.

Key words: activity, culture, strategies, teaching

Introduction

Linguists and anthropologists have long recognized that the forms and uses of a given language reflect the cultural values of the society in which the language is spoken. Linguistic competence alone is not enough for learners of a language to be competent in that language. Language learners need to be aware, for example, of the culturally appropriate ways to address people, express gratitude, make requests, and agree or disagree with someone. They should know that behaviors and intonation patterns that are appropriate in their own speech community may be perceived differently by members of the target language speech community. They have to understand that, in order for communication to be successful, language use must be associated with other culturally appropriate behaviors.

In many regards, culture is taught implicitly, imbedded in the linguistic forms that students are learning. To make students aware of the cultural features reflected in the language, teachers can make those cultural features an explicit topic of discussion in relation

to the linguistic forms being studied. English language teachers could help students understand socially appropriate communication, such as making requests that show respect. Students will master a language only when they learn both its linguistic and cultural norms.

Cultural information should be presented in a nonjudgmental fashion, in a way that does not place value or judgment on distinctions between the students' native culture and the culture explored in the classroom. Kramsch (1993) describes the "third culture" of the language classroom - a neutral space that learners can create and use to explore and reflect on their own and the target culture and language.

Some teachers and researchers have found it effective to present students with objects or ideas that are specific to the culture of study but are unfamiliar to the students. The students are given clues or background information about the objects and ideas so that they can incorporate the new information into their own worldview. An example might be a cooking utensil. Students would be told that the object is somehow used for cooking, then they would either research or be informed about how the utensil is used. This could lead into related discussion about foods eaten in the target culture, the geography, growing seasons, and so forth. The students act as anthropologists, exploring and understanding the target culture in relation to their own. In this manner, students achieve a level of empathy, appreciating that the way people do things in their culture has its own coherence. Besides, they are fulfilling authentic activities, instead of boring drills, and motivation is increased.

It is also important to help students understand that cultures are not monolithic. A variety of successful behaviors are possible for any type of interaction in any particular culture. Teachers must allow students to observe and explore cultural interactions from their own perspectives to enable them to find their own voices in the second/foreign language speech community.

Cultural activities and objectives should be carefully organized and incorporated into lesson plans to enrich and inform the teaching content. Some useful ideas for presenting culture in the classroom are presented in the article.

The choice of methodology and factors influencing it

Different approaches to the teaching of culture as well as activities and techniques associated with them have been suggested by several scholars. However, it is equally important to remember that the choice depends on several factors, the most important being

- the situation in which language is taught;
- learners' age and command of a foreign language;
- the teacher.

Stern (1992) distinguishes between *three situations* in which the teaching of cultural aspects can take place:

1. Culture is taught in language courses, where students are physically and often psychologically removed from the reality of the second culture. In this case culture teaching provides background and context and helps the learners visualize the reality.
2. Culture is taught in a situation, which prepares students for a visit or work in a new environment. Even though students are physically far away from the culture, they are psychologically better prepared and also more motivated to learn.
3. Culture is taught in the cultural setting. In this case, students need more help to come to terms with the foreign environment to avoid cultural misunderstandings. Brown (2000) considers this situation the best for language and culture teaching.

Each situation determines the aims of teaching culture and the range of topics being considered to be taught. When the main aim is to provide cultural knowledge, as it is often the case in the first situation, the most suitable activities might be, for example, watching videos and films (followed by further discussion focused on culture), reading and discussing library and newspaper texts. In the case of the second and third situation, learners need various skills of cultural practices. These can be best developed, for example, through role plays, dialogs and drama.

Secondly, one has to bear in mind *students' age, maturity, command of language and educational level*. Byram (1997: 55-56) emphasises that "teaching and learning aims which include 'understanding', 'tolerance', 'empathy' and related notions presuppose a

psychological readiness in learners which may be age-dependent, may be influenced by social factors, may be furthered or even inhibited by exposure to a foreign culture and language.”

And finally, the choice of an approach and method often depends on *teachers* and their preferences as well as the level of preparation. Teachers have to be prepared to deal with students learning facts or opinions that may conflict with their own or what they regard as natural. Byram (1997a: 62) states that “the teacher should be aware of the nature of the challenges to learners’ understanding of their culture and identity.”

Other qualifications include teachers’ attitudes, knowledge, and skills. Among other things, it is stressed that if teachers want to educate learners towards intercultural learning, they have to be intercultural learners themselves. In order to achieve best outcomes all the factors have to be considered.

Techniques and Activities for Teaching Culture

There is a great variety of techniques and activities developed for integrating culture in language teaching. Different scholars group them according to different principles. Stern (1992) writes about *techniques* of culture teaching and presents them in eight groups according to, what he calls, different *approaches*. The latter includes:

- creating an authentic classroom environment (techniques include, for example, displays and exhibitions of realia);
- providing cultural information (for example, culture aside, culture capsule, and culture cluster);
- cultural problem solving (for example, culture assimilator);
- behavioral and affective aspects (for example, drama and mini drama);
- cognitive approaches (for example, student research);
- the role of literature and humanities (for example, literary readings and watching films);

- real-life exposure to the target culture (for example, visits to the class by native speakers, pen-pals and visits to other countries);
- making use of cultural community resources (for example, when a foreign language learning takes place in the target-language community, the everyday environment can be used as a resource);

Hughes' (1986) list of techniques for teaching cultural awareness includes eight "vehicles" which he considers the most practical. Chastein (1988) entitles the chapter where he describes methods of teaching culture *Modes of Presenting Culture*, using the term *approach* and *technique* interchangeably. He makes a distinction between the in-class and out-of-class situations.

The following list of techniques and activities is compiled from various sources and are mostly meant to be used in the classroom. The sources given in brackets are not the only ones that mention a particular technique. The techniques are not grouped and the original terminology has been used. Traditional teaching methods like lectures and seminars are not mentioned because of their universal nature.

Creating an authentic environment. Although listed under techniques by Chastein (1988) and Stern (1992), this might rather be called a setting for more memorable learning. Displays, posters, bulletin boards, maps and realia can create a visual and tangible presence of the other culture. Students can also make *culture wallcharts* (Tomalin & Stempleski, 1993). Hughes (1994) calls this technique the *culture inland*.

The culture aside (Stern, 1992; Chastein, 1988) is an item of cultural information offered by the teacher when it arises in the text. It is often an unplanned, brief comment concerning culture. Its advantage is that it helps to create a cultural content for language items as well as helps learners to make mental associations similar to those that native speakers can make. The disadvantage is that the cultural information presented to students is likely to be unordered, non-systematic and incomplete.

The slice-of-life technique (Chastein, 1988; Stern, 1992) is a technique when the teacher chooses a small segment of life from the other culture and usually presents it to learners at the beginning of the class. This short input could be, for example, a song related

to the topic or a recording of a news item. The advantage of the technique is that it both catches learners' attention and arouses their interest. It does not take up much of the class time. According to Chastain (1988: 308-315): "The point is made with a minimum of comment and a maximum of dispatch".

The culture assimilator (Chastein, 1988; Seelye, 1993; Stern, 1992; Tomalin & Stempleski, 1993) is a brief description of a critical incident of a cross-cultural interaction that may be misinterpreted by students. Cultural assimilators were originally designed for preparing Peace Corp volunteers for life in a foreign environment (Stern, 1992). After reading the description of the incident, students are presented with four possible explanations, from which they are asked to select the correct one. Finally, students are given feedback why one explanation is right and others wrong in a certain cultural context. Teachers can find numerous culture assimilators from *Cultural Awareness* by Tomalin & Stempleski (1993). Culture assimilators have several advantages over presenting cultural information through textbooks. According to Seelye (1993), students enjoy reading and this information involves the learner with a cross-cultural problem. He also claims that cultural assimilators have been more effective in controlled experiments. Chastein (1988) sees the main advantage of this type of activity as helping to create an insight into and tolerance of cultural diversity. On the other hand, it takes much time to prepare and requires "a high degree of familiarity with the culture" (ibid.: 308-315)

The culture capsule (Chastein, 1988; Stern, 1992; Seelye, 1993) is a brief description of one aspect of the other culture followed by a discussion of the contrasts between the learners' and other cultures. Differently from the culture assimilator, where the learners read the description, in this technique teacher presents the information orally. It is also possible that students prepare a culture capsule at home and present it during a class time. The oral presentation is often combined with realia and visuals, as well as with a set of questions to stimulate a discussion. One capsule should not take up more than ten minutes. The main advantage of using a culture capsule is its "compactness and practical, manageable quality" (Stern, 1992: 224). Another advantage is that learners become involved in the discussion and can consider the basic characteristics of their own culture (Chastein, 1988).

The culture cluster (Chastein, 1988; Stern, 1992; Seelye, 1993) is a combination of conceptually related culture capsules. Two or more capsules together can form a cluster. A cluster should be concluded by some sort of activity, for example, a dramatization or a role-play. Parts of a culture cluster can be presented in succeeding lessons. In the final lesson an activity is carried out where the set of capsules is integrated into a single sequence. Meade & Morrain (cited in Chastein, 1988) give an example of a French country wedding, which is divided into four capsules: (1) the civil ceremony, (2) the religious ceremony, (3) the wedding banquet, (4) acting out a country wedding. Teachers can develop culture clusters themselves. To start with, they should think (Seelye, 1993) and then work backwards to identify three or four components it contains. The advantage of a culture cluster according to Stern (1992: 226) is that besides introducing different aspects of culture it “lends itself well to behavioral training”.

The audio-moto unit (Chastein, 1988; Stern, 1992) is considered to be an extension of the Total Physical Response method. It was first developed to provide practical listening comprehension and to enliven the listening situation with humour. The teacher gives students a set of commands to which students respond by acting them out. The commands are arranged in an order that will cause students to learn a new cultural experience by performing it. Audio-motor units give knowledge and practice with correct behaviour but they do not necessarily promote either understanding or empathy.

The micrologue (Chastein, 1988) is a technique where culture is made the focus of language learning. The teacher chooses a cultural passage that can be read out in class. Students listen, answer the questions, give an oral summary, and finally, write the material as a dictation. According to Chastein, the advantage of this technique is that the teacher does not need to have any special expertise and it takes only a small amount of time.

The cultoon (Chastein, 1988) is a technique which is like a culture assimilator. The teacher gives students a cartoon strips (usually four pictures) where some understanding occurs. The situations are also described verbally by the teacher or by students who read the accompanying written descriptions. Students may be asked if they think the reactions of the characters in the cartoons seem appropriate or not and try to arrive at the correct interpretation. Cultoons generally promote understanding of cultural facts and some

understanding, but they do not usually give real understanding of emotions involved in cultural misunderstandings.

Self-awareness techniques (Chastein, 1988) serves an aim to raise students' consciousness of basic beliefs that govern their values, attitudes and actions. Teachers may use sensitivity exercises, self-assessment questionnaires, problem-solving and checklists of value orientations. Chastein claims that the way people use the second language to express themselves reflects the way they organise reality and teachers can explore the language and culture connections that occur in class.

The quiz (Cullen, 2000) can be used to test the materials that the teacher has previously taught, but it is also useful in learning new information. Cullen stresses that it is not important whether the students get the right answer or not but, by predicting, they will become more interested in finding it out. The right answers can be given by the teacher, through reading, listening, or a video, after which extra information can be provided. Quizzes are high-interest activity that keeps students involved.

The drama (dramatisation) (Stern, 1992; Flemming, 1998) has been widely used in teaching culture and is considered useful for clarifying cross-cultural misunderstandings. Byram and Flemming (1998: 144) claim that when drama is taught properly it is "an ideal context for exploration of cultural values, both one's own and other people's". Drama involves learners in a role-play and simulation as well as encourages them to position themselves in the role of a member of the other culture. Dramatisation makes cultural differences vivid and memorable as drama reflects reality. According to Flemming (1998), one important ingredient for a successful drama is the tension. Therefore, he suggests that for dramatisation such situations should be chosen where the tension derives from the different interpretations of the situation. On the other hand, drama takes quite a lot of time to prepare and requires great willingness from the students to participate.

The minidrama/miniskit (Chastein, 1988; Stern, 1992; Seelye, 1993) was first developed by social scientists for cross-cultural education. Minidrama is a series of skits or scenes (usually from three to five) of everyday life that illustrate culturally significant behaviour. Often the scenes contain examples of miscommunication. The skit is read, viewed on a video or acted out. Each skit is followed by a discussion. Seelye (1993:171) stresses that

the teacher has to “establish a non-judgemental atmosphere” during the discussion. Using the “right” questions is also important for the teachers. Open-ended questions should rather be used than yes/no questions. For example, *What are your impressions for the scene?* should be preferred to the question *Is there a conflict in the scene?* Teachers can lead the discussion further using “neutral probes” like *I see*, *Very interesting*, and *Go on*. (ibid.:162) The main aim of a minidrama is to present a problem- situation as well as to promote knowledge and understanding. Mini-dramas work best if they deal with highly emotional issues.

Critical incidents/Problem solving (Chastein, 1988; Stern, 1992) are sometimes identified by culture assimilators, but there are a couple of differences between the two activities. Critical incidents are descriptions of incidents or situations which demand that a participant makes some kind of decision. Most of the situations could happen to any individual and they do not require intercultural interaction as culture assimilators do. Students usually read the incident independently and make individual decisions. Then they are put into small groups to discuss their findings. Next, a classroom discussion follows where students try to give reasons behind the decisions. Finally, students are given the opportunity to see how their decisions and reasoning compare and contrast with the decisions and reasoning of native members of the target culture. As individual critical incidents do not require much time, Stern (1992) suggests the teacher to present more than one critical incident at a time. They can find critical incidents or problems from advice columns in newspapers or magazines together with information about what native speakers would do and why.

After solving critical incidents students will get emotionally involved in the cultural issue. Discussions about what native speakers would do also promote intellectual understanding of the issues and give learners basic knowledge about the target culture.

Student research (Stern, 1992; Seelye, 1993; Cullen, 2000) is considered one of the most powerful tools that can be used with more advanced students because it combines their interests with the classroom activities. For a start, the teacher might ask learners to search the Internet or library and find information on any aspect of the target culture that interests them. In the following class, learners explain to their groupmates what they have found out and answer any questions about it. This can lead to a poster sessions or longer projects. For some learners, it can lead to a long-term interest in the target culture, for example, writing a course

paper. Research techniques enable learners to find out things for themselves and “approach a new society with an open mind” (Stern, 1992: 229). Seelye (1993: 162) adds that research skills are the ones that stay with a student after he/she leaves the educational institution. Also, he claims that they are easy to develop as there are “so many founts of knowledge subject to rational inquiry.” His ‘founts’ include books, newspapers, magazines, other printed materials, films, recordings, pictures, other people, and personal experience.

The Webquest is an inquiry-oriented activity in which most or all of the information used by learners is drawn from the Internet. According to March (1998), Webquests were designed to use learners’ time well, to focus on using information rather than looking for it, and to support learners’ thinking at the levels of analysis, synthesis and evaluation. The strategy was developed in 1995 by Bernie Dodge from San Diego State University to help teachers integrate the power of the World Wide Web with student learning. A traditional Webquest consists of the following parts: *the introduction, task, process/steps, resources, evaluation/assessment, and conclusion or reflection*. The *introduction* introduces students to the task and captures their attention. The *task* is a description of what learners are to accomplish by the end of the Webquest. The *process* part includes several *steps* through which students locate, synthesise and analyse information to complete the task. The steps support student learning and may use questions and suggest research strategies. *Resources* may be both web-based and print-based but the majority of the resources are usually found on the Internet. Each Webquest has an assessment *tool* that sets the criteria for the achievement of the outcomes. These tools are known as rubrics. *Conclusion/reflection* of the Webquest provides an opportunity for students to apply the knowledge they have gained from the task to a new situation. The advantage of using Webquest is that it saves the teachers’ time and that it helps learners to find material from the huge range of topics.

The CultureQuest is another web-based activity. It involves students in inquiry-based classroom projects, the aim of which is to explore other peoples and cultures. It seeks to promote better understanding and appreciation of other cultures, strengthen inquiry, research and literary skills and provide students with technology skills. The result of a completed CultureQuest is a website.

The CultureQuest has three bigger parts, which in turn are divided into steps. The parts include planning the CultureQuest, implementing it and lastly evaluating it. When planning the CultureQuest, its creators suggest to consider the following: the choice of a country (or an aspect of culture), resources and developing the goals. The implementation stage includes, among other things, writing to students from the target country or culture, obtaining the core information and, finally, creating a website. To assess the project, teachers and students can adapt the criteria suggested by the creators. The authors claim that the basic values of the CultureQuest are that it is learner-centred, constructivist, project-based and authentic (CultureQuest n.d.).

The given list of methods and techniques does not pretend to be exhaustive. Which method or technique to use depends on many factors. Teachers might find it worthwhile to consider Brown's checklist for culturally appropriate techniques. Brown (2000: 202) suggests that when choosing an appropriate technique the teacher should consider the following:

- Does the technique recognise the value and belief systems that are presumed to be part of the culture(s) of students?
- Does the technique refrain from any demeaning stereotypes of any culture, including the culture(s) of students?
- Does the technique refrain from any possible devaluing of students' native languages?
- Does the technique recognise varying willingness of students to participate openly due to factors of collectivism/individualism and power distance?
- If the technique requires students to go beyond the comfort zone of uncertainty avoidance in their culture(s), does it do it emphatically and tactfully?
- Is the technique sensitive to the perceived roles of males and females in the culture(s) of students?
- Does the technique sufficiently connect specific language features (e.g. grammatical categories, lexicon, discourse) to cultural ways of thinking, feeling and acting?
- Does the technique in some ways draw on the potentially rich background experiences of students, including their experiences in other cultures?

To sum up, a great variety of techniques, ranging from short activities to more time-consuming student research and internet-based activities, allow teachers to bring some element of culture into almost every language class. Using them effectively requires that teachers set clear aims as well as consider what to teach to who and when. If teachers constantly monitor their classes and adjust to what they do, there is a really good chance that the methods and techniques they use will be best (Harmer, 2001).

Conclusion

The idea of teaching culture-sensitive second/foreign language teaching is nothing new. In many cases, teaching about culture has meant focusing a few lessons on holidays, customary clothing, folk songs, and food. While these topics may be useful, without a broader context or frame they offer little in the way of enriching linguistic or social insight - especially if the goal of language instruction is to enable students to function effectively in another language and society. Understanding the cultural context of day-to-day conversational conventions such as greetings, farewells, forms of address, thanking, making requests, and giving or receiving compliments means more than just being able to produce grammatical sentences. It means knowing what is appropriate to say to whom, and in what situations, and it means understanding the beliefs and values represented by the various forms and usages of the language.

Culture must be fully incorporated as a vital component of language learning. Foreign language teachers should identify key cultural items in every aspect of the language that they teach. Student can be successful in speaking a foreign language only if cultural issues are an inherent part of the curriculum.

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COPING WITH SPEAKING ANXIETY WITH APPLICATION OF TECHNICAL DEVICES

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Abstract

The paper deals with the problem of speaking anxiety among foreign language learners. Specifically, the objectives of the study were to find out the factors that language anxiety can possibly stem from as well as investigate students' anxiety level towards speaking a foreign language and provide with theoretical definitions and information about software helping to cope with speaking anxiety symptoms.

Keywords: speaking anxiety, fear, hesitancy, CALL, SAM (Self-help Anxiety Management), educational software

There is a famous Czech proverb saying “As many languages you know, as many times you are a human being”. The reality of today's life totally proves this. No matter whether are you a teacher, a businessman, a programmer, a historian, or a representative of any other field, knowing a foreign language is more than crucial nowadays. Thus, it is a big problem if psychological aspects of your character, like fear of failure or anxiety to speak, stay in the way between you and the application of foreign language. Therefore, this problem definitely should be paid attention to. If we look at anxiety from medical perspective, like most diseases, it can be treated. But first the disease itself and factors causing it should be analyzed.

Gloss phobia or speech anxiety is a very specific form of stage fright or speech anxiety which is the fear of speaking in public. According to Freud (1933:81), anxiety is “an

unpleasant affective state or condition similar to dread or nervousness, with physiological and behavioral manifestations” and “anxiety (or dread) itself needs no description”.

Public speaking anxiety (the so-called stage fright) is very common among university students as well as the general population. It is a feeling of panic accompanied with physical reactions such as increased heart and breathing rates, increased adrenaline, over-rapid reactions, and a tension in the shoulder and neck area.

“Speaking in the foreign language is often cited by students as their most anxiety producing experience” (Young, 1990: 539) and also “difficulty in speaking in class is probably the most frequently cited concern of the anxious foreign language students” (Horwitz et al., 1986:126).

Researchers have been unable to draw a clear picture of how anxiety affects language learning and performance, although Horwitz provides some information about students commenting on their fears and feelings: “I just know I have some kind of disability: I can’t learn a foreign language no matter how hard I try” (Horwitz et al., 1986: 125) and also “I think my English level is not so good, so I am shy to talk English...I hate English very much because I think English is quite difficult to learn...” (Tsui, 1996: 145). These are statements familiar to many foreign language students and teachers.

A student who believes that one must never say anything in English until it can be said correctly will probably avoid speaking most of the time, either at a language class, or in real life, while dealing with foreigners. Indeed, some learners prefer to keep quiet during an English lesson, because they are reluctant to speak in English. Anxious learners tend to think about negative evaluations from other people (their peers, first of all) and the situation becomes worse if they cannot control their anxiety.

In order to fight and overcome speaking anxiety one should try to find the reason for him/her feeling uncomfortable speaking foreign language. Even though the causes of any phobia are sometimes rather individual, several commonly named speaking anxiety reasons should be mentioned.

1) Fear of making mistakes and apprehension about others’ evaluation

Even if teachers do not correct students' errors, they particularly adults, find it difficult to endure a perceived high degree of inaccuracy in their speech. Resulting from a fear of negative evaluation, the apprehensive students either try to escape or "end up being quiet and reticent, contrary to their initial intention to participate" (Ohata, 2005: 135, Jones, 2004:31).

2) Strict and formal classroom environment

Students may feel stressed inside the formal environment of classroom as it involves the presence of a teacher. This may lead to making such mistakes that would not be made in the context of informal environment.

3) Cultural differences

The difference of cultures between that of the learners and the target language appear to be an important anxiety-producing factor.

4) Social status and self-identity

In accordance with the research on classroom interaction by Pica (1987), the study found that the unequal status between students and teachers can also be a source of anxiety for students. Speaking in a foreign language was found to be disturbing because of the fear that it might lead to the loss of one's positive self-image or self-identity. One of the participants of Ohata's research, Rardin, stated: "If I learn another language, I will somehow lose myself; as I know myself to be, will cease to exist" (Ohata, 2005:149).

5) Pressure by parents and teachers to get good grades at school in foreign language

6) Lack of preparation or confidence in students' ability to learn a foreign language

Several ways to reduce speaking anxiety are provided. They are as following:

- 1) Examine the thoughts that cause the fear. Recognize that the fears are unfounded and unwarranted, think positive. It is also important to realize that perfection is an impossible goal and that is not a requisite for success.
- 2) Learn how to relax. The more one relaxes, the more anxiety dissipates. Before class or during class, take long, slow breaths, hold it for four or five seconds and release it slowly.
- 3) Think through the ideas and know what you want to say beforehand.

- 4) Try to become familiar with your audience.
- 5) Get to know your teacher better.

But in 21st century these are not the only ways to cope with speaking anxiety. Multimedia has been widely and creatively utilized in the language learning context in various ways. The design features of multimedia CALL (computer-assisted language learning) has been shown to offer very good conditions for second language learning. With dimensions of multiple media, learner control and interactivity (Pusack and Otto, 1997), multimedia environments provide a more communicative, powerful, supportive, non-threatening and low-anxiety language learning experience because “the control and manipulation of meaningful information is passed into the hands of the learner” (Brett, 1997: 50).

Providing learners with particular learning environments that are supportive and motivating with clear task orientation has the potential to reduce foreign language anxiety, and in turn to increase the possibility of improving achievement.

Generally, psychologists suggest their patients to carry with them in a pocket some item that they are very familiar to, so that when they get in a very unfamiliar place or have a fear/panic attack they can look at it, touch it and it will serve as a calming medicine. This is especially effective for tactile learners.

Pros and Cons of using Multimedia in EFL/ESL Classrooms

Pros

- **Contemporary and motivating:** Nowadays almost every student is more or less using technology devices like mobile phones, laptops or tablets. Therefore, it is doubtless that usage of technology devices in ESL/EFL classroom is a big plus.
- **Raising self-confidence:** it will attract the interest of a lot of students, who will feel confident using those gadgets from their daily life. And confidence will decrease the feeling of anxiety.
- **Fast and informative:** technological devices are effective tools for acquiring knowledge because they give an opportunity to retrieve all types of information easier and faster than ever before.

- **Authentic:** come from life, language is the real language used by people for practical purposes

Cons

- **Problems for teacher:** technical skills (for older teachers), necessity to prepare and organize, lack of knowledge on effective CALL methods, high level of language skills. Using multimedia in ESL/EFL classrooms will most probably meet a very positive reaction from students, thus in case to maintain the interest and enthusiasm of students, teacher should reconsider her/his syllabus and make usage of technology devices regular. This may not be acceptable for every teacher or lecturer and therefore it is a disadvantage of technological gadgets.
- **Dissatisfaction of students:** Some students, mostly females, may think it too “technical” and superficial.
- **Lack of communication:** if wrongly used, face-to-face communication is (almost) totally substituted by dealing with technologies. Human face of education may be lost.
- **Disciplinary problems:** discipline level may decrease as students might have a tendency to chat with one another, which will lead to lack of concentration.

In conclusion, the advantages discussed concerning computer technology in the classroom outweigh the disadvantages. Computer technology is a positive supplement to bridge the gap between education and the technological world in which we live. Computer-assisted technologies in schools offer students greater access to information, an eager motivation to learn, a jump-start on marketable job skills and an enhanced quality of class work (Kathleen Patrice Gulley, 2003).

Several multimedia devices helping to cope with anxiety and learn foreign language will be discussed below.

SAM, which stands for **Self-help Anxiety Management** (SAM App, n.d.) is believed to be one of the first apps of its kind developed by a university for use by students. It is a psycho-educational tool that runs on smartphones and tablets to help users understand and manage their anxiety. It incorporates a range of self-help activities that are available 24/7 on

the users' device. SAM is based on knowledge of how the mind generates anxiety and draws on established methods of psychological self-help for reducing anxiety. SAM will help you to understand what causes your anxiety, monitor your anxious thoughts and behavior over time and manage your anxiety through self-help exercises and private reflection. It has a lot of positive feedbacks and suggestions to try out for anxious people.

Tell Me More (Tellmemore, 2013) is a software program helping to learn a foreign language and cope with speaking anxiety. It offers three CD-ROMs with instructional material, a headset with a microphone and 750 hours of instruction. The program uses speech recognition as a central teaching tool. For example, in one section the user listens to questions and must speak answers to continue. Students who are anxious to speak will get more practice and will gain much confidence. There is also a sentence pronunciation section. You can practice speaking sentences and compare the results against native speakers, and the program highlights mispronounced words. And in a section of phonetic exercises, the program demonstrates how to pronounce sounds by using 3-D animations of lip and mouth movements and analyzes your pronunciation.

Speech Recognition Program (Rosettastone, 2010) from Rosetta Stones provides software that identifies the words student is pronouncing and 100 times per second the speech recognition engine compares student's voice to data from millions of native speaker samples — to give you the most accurate feedback possible. A student can even take a look at how his/her pronunciation has improved with each try.

Public Speaking Virtual Reality Software Built for Oculus Rift (Oculusvr, 2014) Invented by a VR enthusiast named Palmer Luckey, the Oculus Rift is a set of virtual-reality goggles that will work with your computer or mobile device. Recently written software program for Oculus Rift glasses allows you to virtually stand in front of the audience and practice your speech before the lesson/conference/interview, which will decrease your anxiety.

In order to judge the effectiveness of these applications, it will be better to look through the feedback of users that downloaded and used it.

SAM:

S1: “Life Changing- This app is truly the best app I've ever downloaded. Its techniques are very helpful and work very well. You could even save them in case you want to try them. What I like best about this app is the “Social Cloud”. The other users on the Social Cloud are very sympathetic and understanding. They got me through so much. Get this app. Now.” (Self-help, Jan. 2014)

S2: “I love it!!! – Up until now I've literally had no idea where to start with my anxiety. This app has saved me during two panic attacks already and during several situations in which I was beginning to get too stressed out and revved up. Thank you.” (Self-help, Feb. 2014)

Tell Me More:

S1: This software is really amazing. I love the way it helps with the pronunciation. I just got it and have spent the past 3 hours on it and it light years ahead of any other software I tried.

S2: I have had this program for 2 months, and I am thrilled with the program. The dynamic mode forces me to work on the areas that I am weak in, and the entire program is incredibly flexible to your learning needs. I have recommended the program to friends who want to visit a foreign country and who want to read and write in a foreign language. I did extensive research before I bought this program, comparing Tell Me More, Rosetta Stone, and Fluenz, and Tell Me More seemed to be far above these other programs. So far, I am not disappointed.

Speech Recognition Program:

S1: Well, this product is fabulous, you have a lot of fun while learning and the material is presented in a very thorough manner with plenty of visuals, audio, and aids.

S2: I recommend this product to anyone who wants to brush up on their Spanish or learn it as a totally new language.

Conclusion

The purpose of the paper was to show that it is very effective to use technology devices in ESL/EFL classrooms in general and to fight anxiety, in particular. Technology devices indeed help to cope with speaking anxiety. The above-mentioned four applications are just examples of software that can be used in order to decrease phobias dealing with

speaking in front of public. Those customers feedback, who have tried this software, are mostly positive, which means that it is highly recommended and very effective. Literature on the issue also confirms it, as well as tries to analyze the reasons causing speaking anxiety and offer suggestions on how to overcome fear or panic attacks.

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LANGUAGE IS NOT ONLY WORDS

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Abstract

At the linguistic level social interaction between people is carried out in the form of utterances. Linguistic utterances may use verbal (by words), paraverbal (intonation, rhythm, pause) and non-verbal (gestures, mimics, body movements) means. Researchers have established that 35% of information is conveyed by means of language in the communication process. Ter-Minasova (2008) provides the following data obtained as a result of studies conducted by British psychologists. According to these data, communication consists of: 7% - verbal means, i.e. words. 38% - phonetics of the speech (intonation, tone, timbre, topics, i.e. concept of so-called above-segment level); 55% - non-verbal means (mimics, gestures, body movements, eyes, smile etc.). It appears that during oral and visual communication, direct contacts, only 7% of communication is attributed to words, i.e. what we say and 93% is how we talk.

Key words: emotions, gestures, mimics, smileys, Internet.

Introduction

Information which is for some reasons difficult or inconvenient to express by words is conveyed by non-verbal means. Therefore it may be asserted that non-verbal behavior is not less important than the uttered words. For example, emotional gestures are very diverse. When surprised, people throw up their hands; when expecting something pleasant – they rub hands. Astonishment or doubt is expressed by shrugging shoulders. Insistence of the question is often accompanied by the gesture: palm of the hand half-bent in the elbow is raised up and directed at the interlocutor (at the level of the chest).

The so-called somatic language belongs to non-verbal communication means: language of gestures, poses, mimics, facial expressions, which also serves as a means of conveying information.

Language of gestures is definitely universal only in the part of descriptive gestures (lighting matches, shaving, etc.), however, to a large extent, "gesture communication is a

national phenomenon just like verbal languages" (Veregashyn and Kostomarov, 1983, 43). This is facilitated by the double nature of somatic language: on the one hand, biological, inherent -unintentional, involuntary signs (paling of face, dilation of pupils, distortion of lips) - and on the other hand, social, acquired by people in the process of socialization - intentional, voluntary signs: scratching one's head (contemplating a problem); can't take one's eyes off; rubbing hands (with pleasure or malevolence); punching one's chest (proving one's case). This double nature of non-verbal communication explains the existence of universal signs understandable by anybody as well as specific signals used within the framework of one culture only.

Gestures expressing consent and dissent and gestures accepted as symbols during greeting, saying goodbye, addressing and other communicative acts defined by etiquette play an important role in the system of communication means. For example, we are used to accepting that a simple bow is a sign of "yes" or an agreement. But in Turkey, Greece, Bulgaria and India this behavior has an opposite meaning. When expressing a consent during a conversation a Turkish, Greek, Bulgarian and Indian will shake the head a little from side to side, which in our non-verbal language is associated with the denial. For these people the disagreement, however, is expressed by a short and quick upward movement of the head. This movement is accompanied by a sound "tsk" (Список..., 2010).

Darwin considered certain facial expressions as universal for all human cultures, and according to him, it is mimics all over the world which expresses six universal emotions similarly (happiness, sorrow, surprise, fear, disgust and anger). Recently, this theory has been refuted by scientists of the University of Glasgow, according to whom, representatives of different cultures often differently express their emotions by means of mimics. Some mimics is as culture-linked, as gestures. Mimics must be closely interconnected with gestures, i.e. must be "vivid", i.e. changing in the process of speech in interaction with the audience. Only if a teacher has a command of his speech, accompanies it with appropriate gestures and facial mimics, if s/he "commands his body", the verbal and psychological victory over listeners, success for cultivation of one's abilities, recognition for difficult work will be guaranteed to him.

For example, Europeans express their emotions and interpret emotions of others by movement of lips, while Asians do this by movement of eyes. And how are emotions expressed in writing? This information is necessary when sending somebody a personal message on Skype, "Odnoklassniki" or when using text chat, for example, on Facebook. It turns out that representatives of various cultures express their emotions by means of smileys in different ways and these differences are primarily based on mimic differences, for example, smileys used by Europeans imitate movement of lips, while smileys used by Asians imitate movement of eyes.

How were smileys created? Who invented them?

So, which punctuation marks do we have to express emotions? Only interrogative (?) and exclamatory (!) marks. These marks cannot convey human emotions with all of their diversity. Smileys are much more perfect.

As early as in 1969 Vladimir Nabokov mentioned in one of his interviews that it was worth creating a special punctuation mark for graphic expression of emotions. "If often comes to my mind that some typographic sign meaning a smile – some scrawl or fallen bracket should be created by which I would be able to accompany the answer to your question" (Набоков, 1969: 260).

However, the first smiley in the currently known form was offered by Scott Fahlman (scholar, Medina, Ohio) on September 19, 1982 in texting: "I propose that the following character sequence for joke markers: :-)" (Houston, 2013)

Since then the cheerful Fahlman gave many interviews, sadder each year. I have selected the most interesting expressions of the professor about its creation.

"My colleagues conducted a research in 2009 about how "smileys" are used by audiences of various age groups. Currently, a thesis is being written on this topic. So, it was found out that children and young people between 14-18 years old use the "smileys" more rarely, than adults between 30-35 years old. Further the frequency of usage is reduced again. Apparently, these are kidults".

Evolution of a smiley is rather interesting. They began to use it as a universal, but not mandatory typographic character of emotion. Afterwards it was transformed into a funny marker and it became a kind of marketing tool, which allows to better convey one's idea. Now it is a separate „language“. There are already hundreds of smiley-like symbols. I have seen people communicating only by means of smileys. **To some extent, we have invented a new international language".**

"Sometimes it is frightful to think about the future of "smiley". There are 2 options. First, it will gradually die, failing to compete with other visual images. As I can see, images are beginning to dominate in the Internet. Why do we need a schematic emotional icon, if the same emotions can be conveyed in a more vivid, intensive and complicated way by means of Photoshop or generator of funny images? The other option is that it will become a basis of a new Internet-language not having any national differences. It already claims to do this, but **enthusiasts are required which are able to isolate some linguistic systems of out of this chaos.** In general, it is difficult for me to talk about the future without understating the present. I have been afraid of "smileys" recently. I look at it in the letter and sometimes it seems to me that it is going to eat me. Maybe I am just giving an interview very often".

We might just as well pay attention to these differences next time when we send somebody a personal message or communicate by chat.

Commonly known smiles are graphic images as well as animation objects by means of which network users are able to share their emotions with their companions, without need to use a set of long explanatory text. Of course, it is not so easy to "create" an emotional face using elementary punctuation marks, brackets and other special characters by oneself, but the readymade face will look very interesting. Along with joy, a face can express your sorrow, tiredness, excitement, or tacitly and colorfully demonstrate your attitude to the side of the dialogue. Also, joyful Russian "koloboks" are universally used in the network to wish a Happy New Year, Easter, 8th of March, as well as many other holidays and significant dates. Of course, a lot can be expressed by words, but so often only words are not enough and long wishes on the postcard get you drowsy by the end of reading them as you forget the place from where you started. Nothing makes the person celebrating his birthday happier than a distinguished birthday image on his/her page, opalescent in all colors of the rainbow and

presenting all the warmth the congratulator put into this message.

Conclusion

Emotions are necessary for communication. But verbal expressions are often too long and dull, while on the Internet we cannot express them by means of mimics, gestures, etc. For that we have smileys. By means of them we can express genuine emotions as well as try to mislead the interlocutor. However, we think that it is much harder to mislead.

The main function of human emotions is that owing to emotions we better understand each other, can judge the state of each other without using speech and better think about joint activities and communication. For example, it is remarkable that people belonging to various cultures are able to correctly perceive and evaluate expressions of human face, define emotional states such as joy, anger, sorrow, fear, disgust, and surprise according to the facial expression. This particularly concerns those nations which had never had any contacts with each other. We might just as well pay attention to these differences next time when we send somebody a personal message or communicate by chat.

Smile more frequently, I wish you a nice evening!

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WHERE DOES THE ROAD TO STANDARDIZATION TAKE EDUCATION?

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Abstract

Nowadays, when student and workforce mobility has become a reality, the issue of standardization in education is definitely important. Unless schools and universities within a country as well as between countries find a common language concerning what, how much and how to teach and assess, the process of communication between schools, universities and especially countries will be hindered. The answer of European countries to this challenge was the Bologna Process. Notwithstanding the obvious necessity, the process of standardization, including the Bologna Process, very often meets resistance. The paper analyzes the reasons of resistance and offers some outcomes. A small scale research (questionnaire) is offered. The conclusion made in the paper is the road to standardization may improve education or make it a horror, depending on who and how carries it out.

Key words: standardization in education, student mobility, cooperation in education, top-down standardization, bottom-up standardization, creativity in education

Introduction

Standards have existed since the beginning of recorded history. Some, for instance, were created by royal decrees. King Henry I of England standardized length measurement in as early as 1120 by introducing the *ell*, which was the equivalent of his arm's length. In the nineteenth century, with the advent of Industrial Revolution, the increased demand to transport goods led to the need of standardization of requirements to railway. Step by step the standards were covering new areas of life. The development of science and technology was tightly linked with the issues of safety, which, in turn, were connected standardization (American National Standards Institute, n.d.)

The issue of standardization in education is neither as new as it may seem to some of us. In his article concerning globalization and education, Watras (2010) views the contribution of two great philosophers and educationalists of the beginning of the XX century, John Dewey's and William Torrey Harris, to the study of this issue. As representatives of Progressivist philosophy, they both underlined the importance of standards in education. They believed that regular arrangements, supervised instruction, standardized textbooks, and the

collection of statistics would aid the development of the country. They expressed the idea that, with the help of standardization (i.e. equal opportunities of education for everybody) Americans turned away from the individualism of capitalists, abolitionists, and slaveholders to embrace the ideas of democracy that well founded social institutions advanced human rights.

Good or evil?

Nowadays, when student and workforce mobility has become a reality, the issue of standardization in education is especially important. Like people speaking different languages and even dialects have problems understanding each other, if schools and universities within a country as well as between countries do not find a common language concerning what, how much and how to teach and assess, the process of communication between schools, universities and especially countries will be problematic. On Euronews (2013), for example, there was information which shocked me. I knew well that Germany is organized along federal lines, meaning each region treats education in a slightly different way, but it was too unexpected to hear that Patricia Gasper, a teacher who qualified in the state of Brandenburg in the North East of Germany, after moving to Munich, which is in the Bavaria region, found her degree was not recognized. She was fighting for two years to get her degree at least partly acknowledged. Georgia, for example, does not recognize the majority of MA diplomas obtained in the UK, as the duration of Master studies there is normally 1 year (instead of 2 years or at least a year and a half in Georgia, according to the Bologna Process requirements). Meanwhile, the quality of at least leading British universities is obvious. And such cases are thousands all over the world. Therefore the necessity of standardization is obvious.

The answer of European countries to this challenge was the Bologna Process. As the main objective of the Bologna Process since its inception in 1999, the EHEA was meant to ensure more comparable, compatible and coherent systems of higher education in Europe. Correspondingly, according to the Bologna Declaration (The European Higher Education Area, 1999), the objectives of the process are:

- Adoption of a system of **easily readable and comparable degrees**, also through the implementation of the Diploma Supplement

- Adoption of a system essentially based on **two main cycles**, undergraduate and graduate
- Establishment of a **system of credits** - such as in the ECTS system
- Promotion of **mobility**

The need to understand each other, to cooperate with each other is a very natural and positive need in any sphere, including education, so standardization should be welcome. However, it very often meets resistance. Let us view some opinions.

According to Burke and Marshall (2010, p. 1): “centralized standard-setting will likely result in the standardization of mediocrity rather than establishing standards of excellence”.

Ramsey (2009, p.9) thinks that:

Standardization and centralization provide an illusion of predictable outcomes and of equity. Districts hold each school to the same standards and have traditionally provided each school with the same resources to achieve those standards. In the four districts, the “college-ready” goal sets a common outcome but the “each student” goal challenges the traditional methods of achieving that outcome. Each student cannot be reached without differentiating instruction to meet students’ specific learning needs in the classroom, differentiating support for their teachers’ ability to understand and challenge them, and differentiating resources for their schools so teachers have what they need to meet these goals.

Hughes (2004, p. 44) states:

With these same forces now leaping into the regulation of teacher education, we threaten to further cement a very narrow perception of what constitutes education. The question that we must ask as teachers of teachers is whether or not any standards allow us broadly to define the ways in which we meet the needs of our communities, or whether standards represent an unnecessary and ineffective narrowing of our mission.

So, we can see that standardization is often viewed as dangerous and even harmful due to various reasons:

- people’s general resistance to any change
- too much paper work and red tape behind it
- the top-down character of standardization, the centralized approach to working out and controlling the standards

- the contradictions between an individualized approach to each student and standardization
- the decrease of teacher role and responsibility
- the restrictions on creativity

Quality of teaching deals with providing the high standards. In many western countries the information about the quality of education in universities is assessed by several (in the UK, for instance, 4) respectable and trustworthy organizations, which are really independent from the government, and just published. Once granted by the Ministry of Education, degree-awarding powers and university title cannot be easily removed. But, if the quality of teaching is low in some university and it becomes publicly known, the market does the business and the university simply has to shut down. There does exist a state Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education, but its goal is “advice, guidance and support to help UK universities, colleges and other institutions provide the best possible student experience of higher education.” They “also advise the government on decisions about institutions newly applying for the power to awards degrees and bear the title 'university'” (QAA, n.d.).

If you ask me, there can be no system of education, if we do not agree on certain things, i.e., standards. But this does not mean all students, teachers, schools and universities are going to become like twins, exact copies of each other. Good or evil, globalization and, correspondingly, standardization, are the reality we live in and we have to cope with them. The problem, to my mind, is who carries it out and how.

- The main thing is to standardize basic things in *practice*, and not only *on paper*, which very often is the case.
- A too rigorous, *letter-to-letter implementation* (which is, unfortunately, too often the case, as ‘experts’ who do not understand the essence emphasize papers) of standards instead of flexibility is generally the reason of irritation connected with standardization.
- Standardization should be a **bottom-up process** (initiatives of teachers and schools/universities have to be the basis, not those of bureaucrats), or at least a mixture of bottom up and top-down (ministry instructions and requirements, which should

take into consideration the teachers', schools' and universities' peculiarities). Academic *qualification of decision-makers* should be high enough, to enable them to make fair decisions.

- When, as the practice in the majority of cases is, the Ministry of Education or some other centralized organ makes up the standards, only pretending to have listened to the schools and universities (and probably even without pretending), and then sends 'experts' to check schools and universities, we need a guarantee that the *people who make up and control the fulfillment of the standards do not have a lower qualification than the people whose work they are assessing*.
- Again, if the fulfillment of standards is rigorously controlled in a top-down way, these *standards have to be at least clear* and detailed enough, so that no place is left to subjectivity. Unfortunately, too often, experienced and recognized professors have to obey the, softly saying, specific interpretation of some law issues by official 'experts'.
- If, due to standardization, all schools and universities will teach the same things in the same way (this is what rigorous implementers of standardization require), the main postulates of market economy – variety, choice and competition – will not work.
- Educators' profession is very creative. Education is not a factory, and the "quality sign" in education is different from industry. In industry products are good if they are same. In education we deal with people who simply cannot be same. *Standardization in education should leave enough place for variety and creativity*, which, unfortunately, seldom, if at all happens.

Method

In a blitz research held with the help of my Facebook page and Survey Monkey software (you can see the questionnaire on the following link: <https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/LGZLKSX>, I asked the following questions:

- 1) Are you an administrator, a teacher or a student?
- 2) Does the phrase "standardization of education" cause positive or negative emotions in you (you can also answer "I don't know")?
- 3) Why?

The first two questions had to be answered, the third was optional. Participation was, of course, voluntary. It is interesting that some respondents asked me to put on Facebook the results, because they thought the problem was really interesting. The questions were on the Facebook and Survey Monkey for almost three months. The received results are:

Number of participants: 57

Administrators: 5 - 8.88% administrators

Teachers: 29 – 50.88%

Students: 26 – 45.61%

Positive emotions – 32 - 56.14 %

Negative emotions -15 – 26.32 %

Not sure – 10 – 17.54%

Below find the answers given to the “why” question:

Why positive opinion:

- To enable innovations
- To enable assessment, comparison, and development
- Challenging
- Permits to control quality
- I like changes, in my opinion, it should improve the process of teaching as well as studying process.
- To meet the standards does not mean to make it under pressure.
- To my mind it's about improving education.
- Standardization is needed to provide feedback, to reveal how students are progressing and to make improvement in schooling.
- Standardization makes the education system more stable.
- For practitioners standardization is essential to achieve the better results at the end, as well it helps you to make your job easier and more effective.

Why negative opinion:

- Teachers shouldn't work standardly, there are wide range of methods used with students
- Education concerns individual students and standards shouldn't be applied with individuals.
- Education should enables to have more skills
- Standardization means that every student should learn the same things in the same way. In my opinion everyone should have their own teaching and learning methods, to make their subjects much more interesting and fun.
- Education cannot be standardized. It should allow a lot of different improvisations
- Standards are far from choices, they are close to limitations ... if there is no alternative, there is no progress, progress is essential to reach the very goal of what education serves i.e. having free individuals able to reveal their potential fully. We are different and INDIVIDUAL, not standardized ...
- I am against everything that is standardized. People are diverse, so should be education. Education will never be standardized in my understanding. It differs from culture to culture, from a lecturer to lecturer and from environment to environment. The word standardization is negative for me. It reminds me of robots, of something that has no allowance to improvise and be creative. Education is a multidimensional process.
- If the center and goal of education is student learning how it can be standardized? How each student's interests, abilities, skills, knowledge can fit that standardization? Standardization of education can be "profitable" only for teachers, it could be easily implemented, make "educators" and policymakers happy, but has nothing to do with learners. So if education is not for learner, but for teacher, it is wasting of time and will yield no fruits....

Why not sure:

- Standardization shouldn't be too rigorous
- You can't have rules for everything and answers to all questions that may arise

- It depends on subject, depends on students and environment. It is possible to standardize some aspects of education, so that the country or administrators can save some money to invest them in other non-standardizable areas of education. It just needs to be done very carefully with thorough planning. For example, we can't expect the same level of English language mastery in urban and rural areas, or in high and low socio-economic environments. It will require different approaches, different support to achieve the same results in two contrasting surroundings.
- It depends on what do government/officials mean by 'standardization'
- On the one hand, not all students have the same ability or possibilities, one student is good in one area, another - in a different area, in this case standardization is not good, but, on the other hand, standardization makes students learn broad, not only specific issues.
- Standardization allows to provide an equal level of education to graduates of educational institutions. But at the same time standardization shouldn't limit diversification and competitiveness.

Discussion

What is interesting is that, though the majority of respondents characterized standardization of education positively, few enough of them took the trouble to answer the “why” question (or, probably, they had nothing to say?), also their answers are short, superficial, and simply reproduce standard phrases one regularly hears on TV. On the other hand, the majority of negatively and hesitatingly inclined respondents gave interesting, various and detailed answers. This is an evidence of really big problems with standardization.

Limitations

I absolutely realize that the number of respondents was too limited to make any far-going conclusions. The majority of respondents were Georgians (I do not have very many international friends on the Facebook), so the answers might be different in other countries. However, I believe, the research provides enough soil for those who carry out education reform to do it in a more humanistic and useful way.

Conclusions

The received results mean that in general the attitude towards standardization is positive. However, if we sum up the negative and “not sure” answers, it means that almost half of respondents either do not like it or hesitate about the attitude.

Thus, standardization in education is the demand of the time, it permits the education all over the world:

- to be comparable and thus supports student and academics mobility,
- to be on a high enough level, and not just in elite countries and universities
- to satisfy the social demands

On the other hand, if we want standardization to provide a high level of education and a variety of skills needed by both employees and employers, it has to

- concern only basic issues, without the agreement upon which it is impossible to provide mobility, and be flexible concerning details
- be carried out by real ‘peers’ - professionals of high qualification and not simply by people of position and/or ‘experts’ who attended a few trainings
- be very clear, to provide objective assessment
- concern first of all work and not papers

If we do not take these recommendations into consideration, we will not have any more Newtons, Einsteins, Da Vincis, etc. The road to standardization will really lead to the better quality of education only if the road has a relevant quality and direction.

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EXERCISES FOR TEACHING SUFFIXATION TO UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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Abstract

One of the most efficient ways to fast and easily enrich students' vocabulary is to pay more attention to teaching suffixation. However, quite few authors have researched the perspectives of teaching suffixation. To teach suffixation, we need a system of various and effective exercises, which is able to lead to enrichment of students' vocabulary. On the one hand, the exercises may start as rather formal and later become more contextual and communicative. On the other hand, it is necessary to clearly differentiate the goals of teaching derivation via suffixation for acquisition of receptive and productive vocabulary. Some examples of exercises are offered in the paper.

Key words: suffix, suffixation, derivation, productive vocabulary, receptive vocabulary, teaching suffixation

Introduction: Literature review

The transition from intermediate to advanced level of language skills, so necessary for university students, is impossible without a really rich vocabulary. One of the most efficient ways to fast and easily enrich students' vocabulary is to pay more attention to teaching suffixation. Dale (1972) speaks about the possibility to increase not only students', but also teacher's vocabulary stock by dozens of times via effective teaching of prefixes and suffixes.

However, quite few authors have researched the perspectives of teaching suffixation. There are relatively more practical suggestions dealing with it. Find below the few publications on the issue we could find in ERIC. Boon (1978) offers an exercise in which students have to define whether adding the suffix just changes the grammatical category (part of speech) or the meaning of the word. Maring and Furman (1985) recommend that students

develop their own suffix “dictionaries” and highlight derived words and their suffixes in the course book. They recommend the following suffix “dictionary” format:

suffix – meaning, example given by the teacher, examples given by the student (Maring and Furman, 1985, p. 3).

Chanko (2005) offers some original games to teach derivation (both suffixal and prefixal): wall-of-words construction site, find a partner – form a word, and spin-a-word game. All these games in different formats (applying cuisinière roads, paper slips, a table game with chips like in casino) match the root word with suffixes, to form derivative words.

Elliott, Formhals and Wheat (2002) held a research on the improvement of vocabulary acquisition in which, among other things, much attention was paid to working on suffixes (during a teacher-directed activity, students used dictionaries to locate words containing the chosen prefix, suffix, or root word and then discussed the meaning of the word as it related to that particular root or affix). The research showed that the quality of students’ language skills increased due to the treatment recommended by them.

The system of exercises for teaching suffixation to students not majoring in English

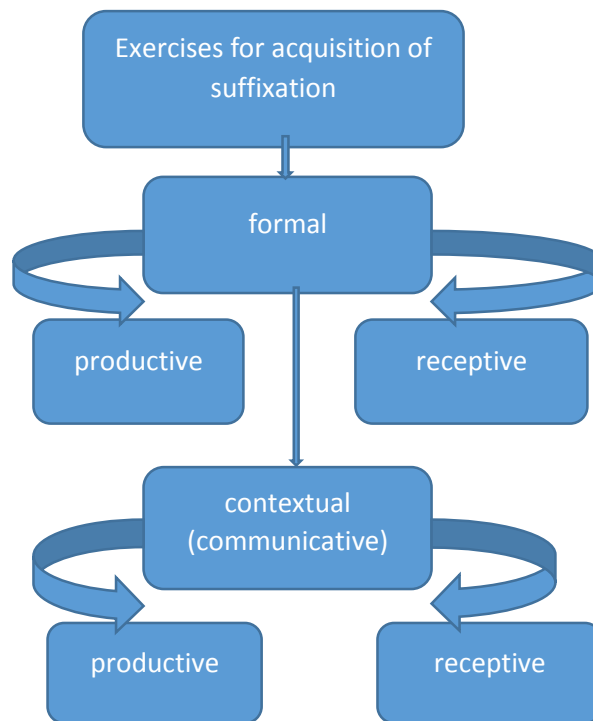
To teach suffixation, we need a system of various and effective exercises, which is able to lead to enrichment of students’ vocabulary. On the one hand, the exercises may start as rather formal and later become more contextual and communicative. On the other hand, it is necessary to clearly differentiate the goals of teaching derivation via suffixation for acquisition of receptive and productive vocabulary. For receptive goals students have to understand the meaning of derived words, while for productive goals students have to be able to form “new” words via the application of the known models. These words are new (unfamiliar) for them, students even are not 100% sure these words exist, but they venture to form them for communicative purposes. For receptive vocabulary there are no limitations: the word exists and students just decode it. Thus this type of exercises can be applied to any derived words.

As for productive exercises, we should make them up very carefully, not to provoke students to form non-existing words (even productive suffixes in reality are not applied to any roots). If in fiction productive word-derivation models may trigger creation of neologisms by

any writer, in non-fiction, especially in scientific style, new words may be created only in connection with arising new phenomena (e.g., inventions). Students should not “invent” non-existing words. Thus, in teaching, especially ESP students or students, not majoring in linguistics, we can recommend to use only or mostly receptive exercises for decoding of meaning of derived words.

We analyzed some ESP course books regarding vocabulary exercises and found that most of them contain word-production and not word-decoding exercises. This may lead students to the risky illusion that derivation according to the suggested models is absolutely unlimited. On the other hand, decoding of derived words is (except false cognates) absolutely safe. However, this type of exercises is almost not offered in language textbooks.

The system that we offer looks as follows:



Productive exercises for words derived with the help of productive suffixes

Form nouns (or other parts of speech) from the given verbs (or other parts of speech).

- Form nouns from the given adjectives with the given suffix.

- Adjectives in L2 are given in the left column. Translations into L1 of derived nouns are given in the right column. Find the matching pairs and name the English equivalents of the offered L1 words.
- Produce adverbs with the help of the suffix –ly from the given adjectives; translate them into L1 (the suffixes and the parts of speech may vary).
- Give examples of the words formed according to the offered derivation model.
- Fill in the gaps with nouns (adjectives, etc.), derived from the verbs (another part of speech) given in brackets (in the box).
- Make up words according to the given model and then make up sentences with them.
- Listen to (read) a dialog. One of the speakers is trying to find the correct word. Help him / her.

Besides the drawbacks mentioned earlier, exercises 1-5 are very formal, mechanical, so, though productive by format, they are not very beneficial for teaching productive skills (i.e., speaking and writing). However, if held as games, like in Chanko (2005), they may be quite enjoyable. The 6-8th exercises are more communicative and may be often used with ESP students. The last exercise is communicative, as it has features of authentic situations.

Receptive exercises for decoding the meaning of derived vocabulary

- Name the L2 equivalents, containing the suffix of the given L1 words.
- Define the part of speech according to the suffix. Define the meaning of the derived word (the meaning of the root word is provided).
- Name the suffixes with the help of which the given words were formed.
- Define the meaning of (or translate) the given derived words with the help of the table of suffixes.
- Based on several examples of words derived with the same suffix, define the model and the typical meaning of such words.
- With the help of a dictionary find as many derivatives of the same word as you can. Compare the meanings of the root and derived words. Did only the part of speech change?

- Define the difference between two derivatives from the same root which are the same part of speech.
- Name the root words of the given derived words. Define their meaning (the meaning of the derived words is given).
- Find as many adjectives in the given text as you can. Explain what makes you think they are adjectives.
- Define the meaning of the italicized words in collocations, while doing so take into consideration the meaning of the other word. Translate the collocation into L1.
- Translate the given L2 sentences into L1. Pay attention to the suffixes in L1.
- Find adverbs with the suffix –ly in the text. Name the corresponding adjectives.
- Find in the text derivatives of the given root word. Say, how suffixes changed its meaning.
- Find in the text derives words with synonymous (antonymous) suffixes.
- Find all derived words in the text. Group them according to derivation models and name these models.
- Read / Listen to a text. Write down the unfamiliar vocabulary. Work in small groups or pairs, helping each other to elicit the meaning of the words.

All these exercises can be used to teach ESP students. But, as exercise 1-8 are rather formal (they deal with isolated words), their value for communication is not very high, so their number should not be too big. The exercises 9-15 are contextual: collocation, sentence and text-based, so they are more appropriate to form communicative skills and can be recommended for wide application.

Below find an example of exercises for the suffix -er. It does not mean that all these tasks have to be fulfilled, especially in one lesson. We just provide a choice, to make your teaching more various.

Exercises for acquisition of the suffix –“er”

1. Define the meaning of the following words. What is in common between their meanings? Does this come from the roots or from the suffix?

2. Name the verbs from which the following nouns have been derived. What do the given instruments (people) do?
3. Some verbs are given. Find in the dictionary their derivatives ending in “-er/or”. Translate them into L1. Pay attention to the suffixes used in L1.
4. Define the given derivatives. Group them according to their meanings.
5. Name which instruments (professions / occupations) fulfill these actions (check your answers with a dictionary).
6. Give examples of words formed according to the following models:
 - N (tool) = V (typical action) + er
 - N (profession) = V (typical action) + er
 - N (temporary occupation) = V (action fulfilled) + er
7. Find in the text words with –“er” suffix. What parts of speech are these words? Divide them according to their meaning into two groups. What general meaning do the words in the first group have? In the second group?
8. Find in the text all words meaning tools (people of different professions/temporary or constant occupations). Which suffixes helped to form this meaning? If there is more than one suffix, can we speak about synonymous suffixes? Name the models of the derived nouns standing for instruments (professions).
9. Fill in the gaps (in the isolated sentences or text) with corresponding words from the brackets / box.

Conclusion

Thus, as it has been shown, we can make the ESP student’s receptive vocabulary practically limitless, it will grow by times if we regularly apply various, mostly receptive, relevant exercises, as described above. The variety of the exercises is essential for student motivation as well as for creating strong and flexible skills. The systematic character of these exercises will guarantee that the decoding skills become automatic and be effectively used for communication.

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WHY WE DO NOT TEACH COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGIES?

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Abstract

The paper looks at the concept of strategic competence and reviews communication strategies that have been studied in linguistics for many years now. It touches upon the question of teachability of communication strategies and identifies the ones that need to be focused on in language teaching. An attempt is made to analyze several course-books used in ELT in Georgia from the point of view of how much attention is allocated to teaching strategies such as circumlocution, approximation, appeals for help and clarification requests. The paper emphasizes the clear need for introducing this aspect into foreign language instruction if our aim is to increase learners' overall competence and autonomy.

Key words: Communication strategies, communication strategy training, EFL.

Introduction

Understanding of the concept of strategic competence, one of the important aspects of communicative competence has undergone serious changes. According to the initial model suggested by Canale and Swain, it is “made up of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence” (1980, p.30). This interpretation of communication strategies (CS) has proved controversial. Canale himself revised his interpretation of it and added a new dimension i.e. “to enhance the effectiveness of communication” (Canale, 1983, p.10). Thus, he believes that communication strategies are activated not only if a speaker encounters obstacles in actual communication (e.g. inability to recall a word), but also for making communication more effective. At present the majority of

linguists views this concept in a much broader light than is implied in the initial definition. We use CS whether ‘problems’, in their narrow sense, exist or not. However, it is due to this initial problem-orientedness that communication strategies have generally been studied as part of interlanguage, a language of second or foreign language learners. It is obvious that language learners experience more difficulties in communicating meaning than native speakers due to limited mastery of the target language. Consequently, there are more overt cases of using communication strategies (defined in terms of problem-orientedness) that can be studied and classified.

From the outset, the number and variety of questions connected with CSs were simply overwhelming: what they are, how they are acquired, should they be taught, what the similarities and differences are between CSs in the L1 and L2, how the study of CSs interrelates with different approaches and theories in linguistics and language teaching. The question of how CS are taught as part of foreign or second language teaching, and in fact whether they are taught at all, is the focus of our study.

Communication Strategies Classified

In the process of research into strategic competence several interesting taxonomies of communication strategies have been developed. One criterion these taxonomies are often based on is the amount of risk involved and thus CSs can be subdivided into what Corder (1983) calls “*risk avoidance*” and “*risk-running*” strategies. The former in Corder’s classification are message adjustment strategies, including topic avoidance, message abandonment and message reduction. These can easily be ordered according to the risk factor involved. Risk-running strategies, according to Corder, have to do with message adjustment (e.g. language switch as one of the forms of borrowing, paraphrase, circumlocution, paralinguistic devices, etc.).

A similar criterion seems to be at work in the taxonomy suggested by Faerch and Kasper (1983). They claim that when speakers predict potential problems in the process of communication, they have two options open to them: avoidance behaviour and achievement behaviour. The former clearly aims to avoid a risk of failure if communication is attempted,

whereas the latter involves using risk-running techniques. Thus, here the CSs are grouped as *reduction strategies* and *achievement strategies*. Reduction strategies are further subdivided into formal and functional reduction strategies, the latter containing CSs of topic avoidance, message abandonment and meaning replacement, strategies we have already encountered as Corder's message adjustment strategies.

Not all the researchers build their classifications on the achievement/ avoidance contrast or risk factor. Bialystok, for example, bases her taxonomy on the source of information for CS and thus distinguishes between L1-based and L2-based strategies (Bialystok, 1990). Khanji (1996) attempts to reorganize CSs on the basis of Vygotskian psycholinguistics and the concept of control. Bongaerts and Poulishse (1989) suggest a taxonomy consisting of two main strategies: conceptual (consisting of holistic and analytic CSs) and linguistic (comprising morphological creativity and strategy of transfer). According to their claim, unlike many others, this taxonomy reflects the differences in the process of referential communication and not more superficial features. However, our focus at present being issues involved in building language learners' repertoire of CSs, we will not concentrate on psycholinguistic and cognitive processes underlying their use.

Probably the most exhaustive list of CSs is provided in Dorney and Scott's (1997) classification which in fact summarizes many preceding taxonomies and very importantly, focuses on what is called 'interactional strategies', which is only briefly mentioned in the taxonomies mentioned above. This group includes resource-deficit related strategies, own-performance problem related strategies, other performance problem strategies and processing time pressure related communicative strategies (see table 1).

The main criterion for classification used here is the type of the existing problem: resource deficit (i.e. insufficient mastery of the language), a perceived problem in speaker's performance or in the interlocutor's performance, and finally insufficient processing time. Although there is no explicit risk-avoidance/reduction vs. risk running/achievement distinction here, many of direct strategies can easily be identified as one or the other whereas all interactional CSs would clearly be described as belonging to the second group. For our purposes it is obvious that risk-running or achievement strategies are of particular importance

as these are the CSs whose use needs to be encouraged as leading to improved communication and possibly even learning.

Table 1. Taxonomy of Communication Strategies

| | Resource-deficit related strategies | Own- performance problem related strategies | Other- performance problem related strategies | Processing time pressure related communicative strategies |
|---------------|--|--|--|--|
| Direct | message abandonment, message reduction, message replacement, circumlocution, approximation, Use of all- purpose words, word-coinage, restructuring literal translation, foreignizing, code switching use of similar sounding words, mumbling, omission, retrieval | Self-rephrasing Self-repair | Other-repair | |

| | | | | |
|----------------------|------------------|---|---|-------------------------------|
| Interactional | Appeals for help | Comprehension check Own-accuracy check | Asking for repetition, Asking for clarification, Asking for confirmation, Guessing, Expressing non-understanding, Interpretive summary, Responses | |
| Indirect | | Verbal strategy markers | Feigning understanding | Use of fillers Repetitions |

(Dorney and Scott, 1997: 197)

Communication strategies and language teaching

The close link between strategic competence and language learning has always attracted researchers' attention. This particularly concerns relationship between CSs and learning strategies. Faerch and Kasper (1983: 53-54) speak about the "potential learning effect" of achievement strategies. Corder (1983) discusses the difficulty of separating learning strategy of language transfer from CS of borrowing the only distinguishing feature being whether the item is a regular characteristic of the learner's interlanguage or not. In later years these two have often been studied in combination. In fact, Williams (2006) discusses CSs as a subcategory of learning strategies and Kongsom (2009) claims that learning strategies are crucial for the development of strategic competence.

Another issue that is extensively discussed is the question of teachability of CSs. Obviously, strategic competence develops in the speaker's L1 and is transferable to L2. Therefore, it is often said that there is no reason for strategy training, a position succinctly

expressed by Kellerman “Teach the learners language and let the strategies look after themselves” (Kellerman, 1991, p. 158).

However, the arguments in support of the view in favour of teaching CSs can be summarized as follows:

- Unfortunately, not all students have effective CSs in L1, in this case there is nothing or very little to transfer to L2.
- CSs are used automatically in L1. Thus, even assuming that they are transferrable, there is a need to raise learners’ awareness and improve their conscious control of their own strategy use (Willems, 1987).
- Considering the fact that a lot of language teaching at present is done based on the communicative approach which emphasizes the importance of communicative tasks, it is natural that a considerable part of interaction in the language classroom is not pre-planned and the language used is unpredictable to a certain degree. This type of activities ensures that students encounter unfamiliar language in class more frequently, and performance problems are more likely to occur than with more traditional teaching methodologies. As a result, the need for CS use is greater and opportunities for practice are more frequent (Yule and Tarone, 1997).
- There is some research evidence supporting the view that CS training increases students’ confidence and sense of security, at the same time encouraging them to search for alternative means of expression in cases when without such training they would have given up (Kongsom, 2009, p. 38).

Based on these arguments we believe it is advisable to make communication strategy training part of all language teaching courses, in particular where it concerns oral skills. After looking through several most popular English language course-books used nowadays in Georgia we came to the conclusion that there is very little overt CS training done in any of them. The only examples found are

- Relative clauses, e.g. It is a thing which ...
- Paraphrasing tasks (mainly in Cambridge certificate preparation courses)

- Practising the use of general nouns, e.g. vehicle, creature, tool etc. (FCE Gold 2008) (strangely, removed from later editions)
- Speaking database in Laser B1+, B2

Although our research does not claim to be exhaustive, it is clear that very little attention is given to CS training at present. However, we believe that this is the area that cannot be ignored, if our aim is to prepare students for real life communication needs.

Suggestions for CS training

Having looked at various classifications of communication strategies we have identified those achievement/risk-running CSs that are oriented towards encouraging language use, taking initiative and dealing with challenges in communication through activation of existing language competence. The following are the strategies we believe are most relevant from this point of view and need to be included in language teaching programmes:

- **Circumlocution** (paraphrase) – exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action via size, colour, material, shape, constituents, parts, function
 - *E.g. ‘melt’ - it becomes water*
 - *‘Pet’ – a dog or a cat to stay with, some kinds of animal*
- **Approximation** - using a single alternative lexical item
 - *E.g. plate-bowl, ship –sailing boat*
- **Use of all-purpose words** - extending a general, “empty” lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking (*thing, stuff, make, do, also thingie, what-do-you-call-it*)
 - *E.g. I can’t ... can’t work until I repair my ... thing.*
- **Appeal for help** - Turning to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question
 - *E.g. It’s a ’s a kind of old clock so when it strucks er... I don’t know, one, two, or three ‘clock then a bird is coming out. What’s the name?*
- **Asking for repetition** - Requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly.

- *E.g. Sorry, I didn't hear/catch/get/understand*
- **Asking for clarification** - Requesting explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure.
 - *E.g. What do you mean?*
 - *You saw what? Also 'question repeats' -echoing a word or a structure with a question intonation.*
- **Asking for confirmation** - Requesting confirmation that one heard or understood
 - *E.g. Repeating the trigger in a 'question repeat' or asking a full question, such as You said...? You mean...? Do you mean...?*
- **Use of fillers** - using gambits to fill pauses and to gain time in order to maintain discourse at times of difficulty.
 - *E.g. well, you know; actually; okay; this is rather difficult to explain; well, actually, it's a good question.*

Conclusion

Although communication strategies have been studied and analyzed for decades, the findings of this research have not yet found their way into language teaching. There is a wealth of information on various kinds of strategies, but no course-books in our experience use this information for the benefit of language learners and their communicative competence in a foreign language. Activities developing learners' awareness of their own CSs and their ability to use CSs in a foreign language effectively will not only help them solve immediate problems in communication, but also create additional learning opportunities in the classroom. The fact that we do not focus on communication strategies in EFL appears to be a regrettable waste of an excellent opportunity for developing learners' communicative competence, increasing their self-confidence and equipping them better for unpredictability of real-life communication in a foreign language.

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CRUCIAL FACTORS FOR EFFICIENT LEADERSHIP in HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

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Abstract

In this modern and competitive world, educational institutions are in constant competition with each other using the most innovative methods and techniques to their knowledge striving to acquit themselves among the others. There is no doubt that efficient leadership will and is playing the key role in this arduous task of climbing up the ladder of success. This paper attempts to point out some features that would help future (or better: present) leaders.

Key words: leadership, educational leadership, higher education

Introduction

Education is going through radical changes throughout the world in all aspects. It is not surprising any more that some systems follow a fashion-like approach, introducing a ‘new’ system every now and then that was introduced decades or centuries ago. That may be why we feel rather uncomfortable when we are striving to emphasize the importance of critical thinking, group work, and problem solving, all of which date back to the times of Socrates.

When it comes to educational leadership, however, this may not be the case. “The ocean of leadership literature—both general and educational—abounds with models and theories of leadership” (Simkins, 2005, p. 9). Compounded with truly modern innovations, despite all the ups and downs in due course, educational leadership comes up against novel ideas and theories which will drastically change the way we look into and deal with education in the 21st century. The future of education will most probably not constructed using the same ‘building blocks’ we use today, therefore, proper leadership is supposed to take us to that future with ease.

Crucial Factors

The role and the leadership style of educational leaders in higher education institutions are changing. The following factors will reflect some of the significant issues that should be stressed for efficient leadership.

Stable Development

Lifelong learning, which constitutes a major part of the European Union's educational policy, accentuates the prominence of continuous development that every institution needs to ponder upon. Depending on the cultural and social systems they are in, educational institutions may face sporadic developmental periods, which in turn, only provides short-term progress and saves the day, and consequently leads to the end of a possibly once-well-performing organization.

The need for incessant development is obvious. Leaders who take this factor into account and redefine roles and tasks in their organizations should be able to cause their institutions to take strides towards positive growth. Therefore, while leaders make sure that their HEIs offer well-founded programs for development, they themselves need to go through some management courses regularly to catch up with the current trends.

Although HEIs within the same region may seem to be rivals, it should be to their benefit to get together occasionally to discuss new trends, and how to help each other to change for better together. Organizing joint programs, research, projects, and certification courses are some of the ways to collaborate for developing together.

Total Quality Management

We have witnessed several changes in the required qualifications of a typical leader of a HEI that might be originating from the recent adoption of business-like approaches in managing educational institutions. Some universities are now managed by 'CEO's, rather than the typical 'prominent professor'. Even if the professor is still in charge, he/she is forced to look into the issue of quality management in the modern sense.

Augmented by the technology, reputed HEIs have started to pay more attention to the collection of data in order to reflect on the future plans. Furthermore, as the new educational leadership approach encompasses more parts of the society with an increase in the number of stakeholders, it has become essential to look at education as an open system where all the related components are in constant interaction with each other. Systems thinking is a discipline for seeing wholes (Senge, 2006, p. 68).

Total Quality Management (TQM) gains importance in realizing such an approach, as it may shed a great portion of light onto the final 'product' that is related to many layers of the society. It would definitely help the HEIs to understand the whole system they are operating on. Working towards this direction, they may opt for attaining a kind of TQM certification or they would coin a name for the system that they have uniquely developed for themselves. In both cases, it is a 'win-win' situation for them.

When it comes to reality, it will be the daunting task of the leadership to initiate the process of change, make people believe the fact that 'TQM is something good for them', and take measure for long-standing culture of quality within the institution.

The leaders, on the other hand, who manage to let the request of change come from 'within' will stand a better chance to sustain a long-term quality culture.

Participative Leadership

We might be making a mistake if we underestimate the role of a leader in any kind of institution, let alone an educational one. Although the definition of leadership is inclining towards democratic / participative style, it is definitely the leader with all his/her talents, skills, competences, and traits, who will take up the major role of leading the change towards a more participative style leadership. Senge (Senge, 2006, p. 219) mentions three dimensions of team learning, which are thinking insightfully about complex issues, innovative and coordinated action, and interactions among all the teams. It is hence the leader who will be responsible for creating the atmosphere necessary for team work which is an indispensable part of modern leadership.

While forming the team: job descriptions, regulations and guidelines, related tools, clear tasks and aims, and more importantly the team-work-culture are essential for efficiency. Therefore, the leader will need to make sure that the abovementioned items are ready to govern a team.

The disadvantage of relying on the team work, though, may be the mere fact that when the time comes for the need to change the whole or part of management, the principle team will need to be changed along with the leader. Team building, just like capacity building, may take a great deal of time, and therefore it turns out to be a very delicate issue to consider such a change.

That might be why in some institutions people are asked to consider training at least one more person for their positions during their tenure at an institution. Only the people who see their interest in the interest of their institutions will be able to honor this task.

Communicating the Vision – The Power of Words

With the advancement of mass communication tools and devices, words have gained more importance than ever in ‘manipulating’ people into a desired action. Given that the Arab Spring, for instance, started on a chain of ‘tweet’s, we may not overlook the power of present communication styles in leadership.

“Vision is usually communicated most effectively when many different vehicles are used: large group meetings, memos, newspapers, posters, informal one-on-one talks.” (Kotter, 1996, p. 93) The technology, however, has brought along some problems of attention deficiency as well. It is now not much possible to make people memorize slightly longer texts, nor ask to concentrate on an issue for more than their shortened attention span. That is why statements that are of vital importance associated with the institution’s vision should now be shorter and more striking. It is worthwhile stating the famous phone company Nokia’s® vision here at this stage: ‘connecting people.’

The leader’s role in communicating the vision is delicate. Too much emphasis will cause the vision to lose its revitalizing effect; and highlighting it less can cause people to lose track of what they are working for. Consequently, the leader will need to keep the vision in agenda

approaching to it at various ways, paraphrasing it, hinting it, and therefore maybe not necessarily saying the original statement all the time.

Reflection

Reflection on the educational process and the desired outcomes are one of the imperative sides of effective leadership in higher education. Reflection can be expressed in terms of TQM through which the leadership has the chance to discuss the details, problems, and ways of betterment of each process at a specific unit within the organization. The more data that can be taken out of the established system, the more succinct decisions will be made.

The leadership decides on the period(s) that such data will be collected from all the units through Strategic Planning Offices, Quality Management Commission, or equivalent units. To avoid extra work, the interval can be set as one year in HEIs, however, the leadership may ask for gathering of and discussing on data in less than a year depending on the circumstances that directly affect the institution. The leadership will need to take precautions to maintain data quality as well by assigning adequate amount of resources.

Moral Issues

The higher education institutions are highly affected by moral issues more than ever. Numerous social factors may have played important roles in the relative erosion of morality at HEIs. Therefore, ethics is standing as a unnerving issue awaiting the leaders to deal with. The leaders will need to bring a more complex solution to the problem beyond purely sketching out what is good and what is bad. They may need to set up new units that will exclusively look into this issue to be able to track down to the source of possibly very multifaceted problems.

There is no doubt that without keeping in touch with the other stakeholders, the leadership cannot address the problem alone. Therefore, it could be wise to form a committee of 'wise' people for drawing the road map.

CVLS

Following the idea behind CVT (continuously variable transmission) utilized in cars, CVLS (Continuously variable leadership style) might be a good idea to be adopted by the HEIs of the 21st century. An educational leadership can be counted as successful as long as it keeps the educational process free of defects originating from lack of control at key points that affect the ‘production’ of efficient instruction. As long as the leadership system is designed to allow detection of such defects, the leading team will be able to ‘shift’ back and forth from various leadership styles that would address the solution of that particular problem. Then it would ‘shift’ back into the initial and ideal leadership style that balances the performance and the input.

Conclusion

“Leadership can be understood as a process of influence based on clear values and beliefs and leading to a ‘vision’ for the school” (Bush, 2007, p. 403). In the modern sense an efficient leader looks more like a ‘matryoshka’ who must be able to address complicated issues using his/her natural talent and acquired skills. The local and institutional values play a great role in the whole practice. It is now recognizable that producing a leader is not a single-sided process. Such a ‘production’ will require necessary environment to be set-up and a social consensus on how to manage HEIs in order to bring about the right type of instruction for the future of our societies.

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THE OPTIMAL AGE FOR LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Abstract

The paper deals with the optimal age of foreign language learning. The idea that children are better foreign language learners than adults comes from the Critical Period Hypothesis, which proposes that the earlier a learner is exposed to the target-language, the more chances of acquiring a native-like competence he/she will have. However, the assumption that “the earlier is the better” cannot be taken as absolute, since there are many variables that may influence FL acquisition. The paper contains research about the topic that well proved our research hypothesis. As a conclusion we can state that English language learning is possible at every age but those who begin learning in early school days have higher results and study with less effort. In early years children’s creative minds easily and quickly acquire a foreign language. Learners in older age are able to integrate their new language input with their already substantial learning experience, but need a longer time and many efforts for foreign language acquisition as their mind is already loaded with native language information.

Key words: optimal age for learning a foreign language, Critical Period Hypothesis

The Optimal Age for learning a Foreign Language

Language skills deal with the human capacity for acquiring and using complex systems of communication. Through language we communicate with each other, transfer and receive various information. Meanwhile, if a person, besides a native language, is able to speak foreign languages, it means that s/he has got a certain wealth. We all know that a foreign language is a language not spoken in the native country of the person referred to.

It is a well-known fact that in the modern civilized world a foreign language, mainly the English language, plays a crucial role in people’s life. An increased need for knowing the

English language is intensively recognized as the knowledge of English has become extremely valuable and important worldwide.

Currently children begin to study the English language from the first form together with other subjects. It is also very common to find parents looking for English schools for their children at a very young age. They usually comment on the importance of studying a foreign language (FL) in childhood, so that their children can acquire the target language faster and achieve a native-like performance. However, we could question if this is really the case, that is, if the child earlier starts learning a foreign language, whether he/she will really become a better speaker of it.

The idea that children are better second/foreign language learners than adults comes from the Critical Period Hypothesis, which proposes that the earlier a learner is exposed to the target-language, the more chances of acquiring a native-like competence he/she will have (Johnstone, 2002).

The assumption that “the earlier is the better” cannot be taken as absolute, since there are many variables that may influence FL acquisition. However, it is a fact that it is easier for children and teenagers to learn things in general, both for cognitive reasons compromised by age and for the fact that the earlier the acquisition begins, the more input the learner will receive. As there is no consensus on the effects of the critical period, it is adequate to conclude that it is better to start learning the target language early because children are ‘open’ to learning new information, as long as learning is seen as a continuous process.

The most significant reason why children are assumed to be more proficient at language learning is because they are more proficient at mimicking native pronunciation (Oyama, 1976). Further, the amount of vocabulary necessary for a child to be proficient in a FL is less extensive than what is necessary for an adult to be considered competent in vocabulary. Indeed several scholars have written about the “myth” of the “earlier the better” principle in FL learning. Researchers have shown that it is important to develop a child’s first language literacy before introducing a second language. Research has also shown that older children and adults who learn through ample classroom and study time, mixing practice and communication with such direct instruction measure up almost as well as early learners, their only disadvantage having somewhat less native-like pronunciation. The greatest challenge to

older adult language learning is skepticism; both teachers and learners alike are influenced by the idea that language learning is easier for younger children. However, as stated earlier, adults have a greater array of techniques at their disposal to augment their language learning capabilities, and may in fact have an easier time than children learning second languages. Especially in the areas of vocabulary and language structure, adults are actually better language learners than children; because they are able to integrate their new language input with their already substantial learning experience. They can use memory tricks such as mnemonic devices to sustain newly gained information.

Studying a foreign language is quite a complex process. It involves lots of components like skills of reading and writing, pronunciation, spelling, morphology and syntax of the target language. Adopting all the above mentioned skills depends on the age of language learners. Studying English as a foreign language requires comparison of target materials and aspects with the native language. It is a well stated fact that foreign language acquisition is successful when we make comparisons between the content of target and mother language. Language learners, who start foreign language learning early, tend to better memorize “new language” than older age learners as the mind of young learners more easily creates those associations with the help of which they connect new material with the native language. Reproduction skills in early age level are more developed, which helps learners to adopt the foreign language more effectively. English language pronunciation skills are better and easier with the children than of older age learners, whose pronunciation is quite different because it is long time they have acquired and used their native pronunciation skills (the articulation apparatus has become rigid). Many scientists say that if a child begins to study a foreign language at the early age, his/her pronunciation will more like the native one and be more natural (they are better imitators and if they have good models – teachers and recordings – their native-like pronunciation skills form easily). If a language learner begins to learn a foreign language above the age of 12, s/he will hardly be able to reach perfect pronunciation skills (Dominguez & Pessoa, 2005).

Emotional conditions and interests are key factors for early age language learning while conscious goals take the first place for older age language learners. Uznadze states that learning is a completely independent behavior, when a person’s interest plays the fundamental role (Uznadze, 1940). According to Clark (2006), children at their 5-6 years

have amazing competences of language learning. But we should keep in mind that children study better with the help of social interactions. Foreign language acquisition is a creative process for kids and they need a rich language environment for this. Dominguez & Pessoa declare that children should start learning a foreign language at the age of 5 as they are honored with the skills that help them create a vast vocabulary.

The question when is the optimal age for learners to start to learn a foreign language is quite debatable. There are many researches that state that older and younger language learners differ considerably (Carbo & Dunn, 1986; Clark, 2006; Dominguez & Pessoa, 2005). The following specific characteristics of older learners are revealed:

- they already possess certain life experience that they can use;
- they have certain expectations from the learning process and most of them tend to have their own approach towards learning;
- they tend to have more discipline than young foreign language learners;
- as older learners possess certain expertise, the teacher has to be more responsible to use various activities not to be boring;
- compared to children, they have a deeper consciousness for which reason they study the language and what they are willing to do after completing the learning.

As we have seen, all the above mentioned opinions do not mean that older age language learners have not got competences to acquire a foreign language. We should keep in mind that older age learners are already mentally well developed and have good opportunities of language acquisition. They can well concentrate their attention on the materials that serve their future objectives. They have well analyzed the reasons of studying. It is a fact that every person has language learning skills in every age. The important thing is to have a suitable language environment and motivation.

When dealing with the age peculiarities of learners we should remember Gardner's Multiple Intelligence Theory" (Gardner, 1993). Howard Gardner worked out this theory in 1983. According to it each person is honored with different intelligences and we should select the teaching materials providing existing intelligence quality and type in each person. These

intelligences can be mathematical-logical, linguistic, space, musical, kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalistic. We should also remember that, in spite of age, learners also have different learning styles that make them study a foreign language differently. Carbo says that only 20-30% of language learners remember the material that they listened, 40% better remember visually seen material, lots of people prefer to learn according to the written text, others, especially kids tend to combine the above-mentioned approaches to learn better (Carbo, 1986).

We may think that older age language learners are already so developed that they cannot have difficulties in foreign language learning. However, there exist various factors that create barriers for them in learning. They can be critical towards teaching methods. The already received experience may negatively and/or positively make them deal with approaches of teachers that they use in the classroom. If in previous years they had failure or were criticized too much while learning, this fear may even affect today's learning success.

We can say that an individual learning style and age factor are quite important factors for teachers to choose the teaching style and strategies. So the teacher's role is very responsible and complex, they should always keep in mind the age and learning style of his/her learners, which is quite a difficult task. There exist different means to simplify these tasks, teachers should use questionnaires and interviews to easily investigate foreign language learners' peculiarities and to make teaching suitable and learning successful and rewarding.

Though we concluded that learning a foreign language requires less effort in early age, we wanted to find out whether if it is really so in our reality (or whether Georgian students share this opinion). We conducted a research to investigate when the optimal age of learning a foreign language is.

Our research hypothesis was the following: "If a person begins to learn a foreign language at an early age, than the quality and level of the acquired foreign language will be higher and more successful".

We made up the following questionnaire to conduct our research. We chose 70 volunteers (students) who already have certain knowledge in the English language.

Questionnaire

We will only take several minutes of your time to fill the questionnaire. We want you to know that the **Questionnaire is voluntary and anonymous.**

1. Your age_____
2. The level of your knowledge in the English language. Please mark one option or write on the spare line.

Basic ☐

Beginner ☐

Pre- intermediate ☐

Intermediate ☐

Fluent ☐

3. At what age did you start to study a foreign language?_____

4. How long have you been studying a foreign language?_____

5. If you began learning a foreign language at an early age (from primary forms) what difficulties did you have in acquiring a new language?

6. If you began later (state the age), what difficulties did you have?

7. In your opinion, when is the best age for foreign language learning?_____

Thanks for participation.

After counting the answers we found out the following tendencies:

- 25 participants who began learning English at the age of 7-9 responded that learning the English language was enjoyable, they did not have any serious difficulties at all. At present their English is fluent.
- 14- started at the university at the age of 19-20, they found that pronouncing new English words was difficult at first and reading did not correspond to the written text, like in Georgian. Their level is pre-intermediate now.
- 31 participants started after graduating from the university for the job purposes and found that pronunciation, reading, and writing was too difficult. They had to spend many efforts, but still were not very successful. Today they can speak at the basic level with difficulty.

As a conclusion we can say that English language learning is possible at every age, but those who begin learning in early school days has higher results and study easier. We suggest the optimal age of starting to learn a foreign language is from 7-9. At an early age children' creative minds easily and quickly acquire a foreign language. Learners at older age are able to integrate their new language input with their already substantial learning experience, but they need a longer time for foreign language acquisition and many efforts, as their mind is already too loaded with native language information. However, with adequate teaching and learning strategies they can achieve quite good results, except pronunciation.

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PERSPECTIVES FOR DEVELOPING BUSINESS COMMUNICATION SKILLS IN ENGLISH CLASSES

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Abstract

In today's interconnected world, various business companies and institutions are no longer as tied to geographic boundaries as they once were. As a professional, one needs to master business English to succeed because English has become the lingua franca which automatically includes business community worldwide. Modern business communication is more of a dialogue than a one-way information push from management to customers and employees and is characterized by various features. Consequently business communication is based on facts rather than theories. And what is most important, business communication is much more error-free. Business writers use "plain English" words, limit jargon and acronyms and avoid clichés. To achieve our goals effectively in modern business world, it is crucial to master the Business English and the corresponding communication skills. The paper covers the ways and perspectives for developing business communication skills in English classes.

Key words: business communication,

In Modern life business communication is not only a one-way information transfer from one side to another, i.e. from the management to customers and employees, but also quite effective communication skills, including listening, asking questions, encouraging discussion and incorporating customer and employee feedback where possible. Besides, nowadays companies and institutions are no longer as tied to geographic boundaries as they once were. Having acquired the status of Lingua Franca, English remains the international language of trade, finance, law and diplomacy. It is also the language of choice for international team collaboration. As a professional, one needs to master business English to

succeed. Nobody wants to be left out of an important meeting, passed over for a promotion, or stymied in negotiations because of poor English. English is indeed for international communication, top management meetings and negotiations. Some companies are even moving towards English as their corporate language. Banks call it the language of the financial world.

From the linguistic view point business communication is fact-based, easy-to-read and error free. It is not advisable for the business documents to contain assumptions, emotions or guesses. Moreover, the language used for business communication should be “plain”. The document designer should avoid the use of jargons and clichés, as the document itself has an official colouring.

Much information has been elaborated for developing effective communication skills which are advisable to be implemented while studying at the university. Hofstrand gives some important suggestions for improving business communication skills:

- **“Give your attention** - When someone starts to talk to you, stop what you are doing and thinking. Face the person and devote your whole attention to what and how it is being said.
- **Listen, not just hear** - One of the keys to good communication is the willingness to listen for meaning in what the other person says and not just for the words. Watch facial expressions and body language.
- **Don't let your mind wander** - While the person is talking, do not think about your answer or response. Listen until the person is finished, then decide what you are going to say.
- **Check for accuracy** - When the person is finished talking, paraphrase back to the person what was said to you. If you heard right, then respond to that statement or question.
- **Be aware of other's needs** - You need to be aware of the needs of the other business associates. Each person has different needs that should be considered and respected. Although each of us has differing needs, all of us have a need for trust, responsibility, praise, security, sense of belonging, and recognition.

- **Ask, don't tell** - demonstrate equality - Do this by asking for advice or asking a person to do something. This shows you respect the other person as a peer or equal. Telling often implies a superior/subordinate relationship, such as boss vs. employee.
- **Offer advice, don't give advice** - Learn to offer in-sights, advice, and expertise without being forceful. It is wrong to say “this is how you should handle it” or “this is what you should do.” It is better to say “what do you think about this way,” or “I suggest we....” However, sometimes it is not appropriate to even soft-pedal advice. You should offer it only if asked for.
- **Develop trust** - Trust is the product of open and honest communications. So it is important that good communication channels exist. Also, trust is an essential ingredient of teamwork. If trust exists among business associates, teamwork and cooperation are much easier to achieve.
- **Develop comfortable relations** - Tension and stress are normal in any relationship. However, the level of tension and stress can be reduced in businesses that develop teamwork and trust through open and honest communication.
- **Become genuinely interested in others** - All of us have a need to feel important and be understood. One of the ways we feel important is if others are interested in us. So talk in terms of the other persons’ interests and try to understand another point of view. If we expect others to understand us, we must first understand them.
- **Keep a sense of humor** - Laugh at the goofy things that happen. Laugh off little annoyances. Smile at every opportunity. Seeing the humor in a situation can often defuse it. “ (Hofstrand, 2009)

As we have already mentioned above, these communication skills are important to be implemented in practice or mastered while studying at the university. Many teaching methods have been elaborated for developing business communication skills in language classes. Effective communication considers: listening, speaking, writing and interpreting. It is advisable to begin every lesson with brainstorming, making students answer the questions that lead them to responses, including all the skills mentioned above.

Listening is considered to be one of the most important skills while developing effective business communication skills. Teachers should assist their students to become

better active listeners, resulting in higher levels of comprehension and understanding of customer needs. It is of great importance to develop the skill of paraphrasing. Students should manage to paraphrase what they have heard (in order to interpret) and give proper responses. They can develop their listening skills through various business activities, for example, receiving and answering phone calls, imitating business meetings and business discussions, organizing imitation interviews, etc.

It's obvious that listening activities are linked to speaking activities, which implies simultaneously developing verbal / oral communication elements. Being able to communicate orally is an essential skill required in business and in most careers. When one is speaking, there are several elements that should be taken into consideration, such as:

- Presenting organized ideas
- Speaking clearly
- Communicating appropriately to listeners/customers based on the situations
- Participating in conversations, both formal and informal

Foreign language classes (both General and ESP) should aim the development of listening and speaking skills development which will automatically help (but will not suffice) to develop effective business communication skills. In language classes, students should practice to master business language by memorizing field-related phrases and terminology. When a person has got a big amount of field-related language items, s/he can easily find just the right one in any situation. The speaker should not overuse the same words and do his/her best to avoid the usage of slang and jargon.

Besides, language teachers should also teach their students to use their speaking rate and voice volume in an appropriate way. Pronunciation plays an important role in communication, as it defines the correctness of understanding. Consequently, students should learn to pronounce words correctly in order not to cause misunderstanding in their interlocutors in the future. Proper grammar is also advisable to be taken into consideration. On the other hand, they are free from using complex grammar constructions.

Specialists suggest the corresponding standard stages in conversation which are important to be implemented in language classes while mastering business communication skills. The stages are the following:

- “ Introductions
- Warm-up or small talk
- Core conversation
- Wrap-up summary of decisions
- Exit with small talk “ (Profit Curriculum)

During the verbal communication the comprehension of the idea implies not only the correctly verbally formulated ideas but the jesters and mimes as well i.e. messages without words. Types of non-verbal communication skills are:

- “ Your stance – present yourself as a person who knows – stand tall;
- How you sit – calmly and with a posture of interest;
- Facial expressions – show interest and enthusiasm;
- Eye contact – depending on culture, maintain eye contact; never wink or roll eyes;
- Gesturing and fidgeting – shows disinterest; wait to pack up until meeting is done;
- Nodding – lets your customer know you understand.” (Profit Curriculum)

As far as the communication doesn't concern only verbal interaction but the written communication (correspondence) as well, language should be focused on teaching and developing speaking and writing skills in the frameworks of constructing proper business communication skills. Linguistically and methodologically it is a diverse process including not only psychological aspects in case of oral business communication but the proper writing has a main purpose, it must be clear and professional, whether it is formal or informal. Business writing that a student might do includes the following ones:

- “ Business plan
- Simple proposals and requests for qualifications
- Resumes

- Description of services
- Contracts for services
- Thank you notes
- Emails
- Reports and report summaries
- Invoices
- Business correspondence / letters “(Profit Curriculum, n.d.)

Throughout the scientific materials proposed we find some important items concerning “Email Culture”, as the modern business world is based on emailing. There are some important regulations to be followed if we want to make our business communication successful, during which we are advised to respond the mail immediately even if we are planning to send a longer response later. We are also advised to keep our e-mails short and to the point. But we must always remember that e-mail is not an alternative when a phone call or face-to-face exchanging is needed.

For developing “e-mail culture” teachers can use e-mailing system as one of the principal teaching strategies while collaborating with students. From this view point the contemporary teacher is free in accepting students’ tasks via mail and sending them some important teaching materials.

So, for building effective business communication it is vital to possess both English language and communication skills. To achieve success one should master all the above-mentioned strategies and techniques, that business English communication requires. More and more language learning centers offer learners to develop these indispensable skills all over the world in order to meet business needs.

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RATIONALES FOR USING THE INTERNET IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Abstract

Learning a new language opens doors to new cultures and even new ways of thinking. The Internet has made the task a bit more approachable. Introduction of the Internet speeds up the usage of new technologies even more and reconsiders the social role of educational institutions. In spite of the fact that the Internet has been used for education purposes for the past decades, its usage still does not suffice. The Internet helps the teacher with the educational process, presents new possibilities of creative work and a two-way communication. Furthermore, it presents teachers with a challenge to provide an active participation of all students.

Key words: on-line education, Internet-relevant literature, Internet pedagogy, electronic discourse, learner-learner and learner-teacher interactions

The Internet is constantly growing in popularity and availability. Many people use the Internet daily, sometimes without even being aware of the fact. As noted by Warschauer (2000), the Internet has been reshaping many aspects of society such as on-line education, advertising, marketing and sales.

There seems to be disagreement in the literature regarding the effectiveness of the Internet. Some contemporary Internet related literature appears to be advancing the claim that Internet-use is advantageous for learning. There is, however, a growing research consensus that appears somewhat skeptical about Internet classroom usage. Warchauer (2003.) holds the belief that there has certainly been no shortage of bold claims about how computers will revolutionise the classroom, transforming the teacher from the stereotypic *cliché*, ‘sage on the stage’ to the new and equally hackneyed ‘guide on the side’. A lot of Internet-relevant literature also asserts that there is lack of sound Internet pedagogy, without which the efficiency of the Internet applications is low. Wood (1999) deems that a lot of pedagogical books, articles, and ‘exhortations’ about the educational significance of the Internet often

turn out to be little more than lengthy lists of Web page addresses (URLs). He argues that what is often missing from the ocean of Internet materials for educational purposes is any clear identification of the new pedagogical opportunities that the Internet offers.

There are several possible reasons for using the Internet in language teaching.

- One rationale is found in the belief that the linguistic nature of online communication is desirable for promoting language learning. It has been found, for example, that electronic discourse tends to be lexically and syntactically more complex than oral discourse and features a broad range of linguistic functions beneficial for language learning.
- Another possible reason for using the Internet is that it creates optimal conditions for learning to write, since it provides an authentic audience for written communication.
- A third possible reason is that it can increase students' motivation.
- A fourth possible reason is the belief that learning computer skills is essential to students' future success; this reason suggests that it is not only a matter of using the Internet to learn English but also of learning English to be able to function well on the Internet.

Students think computers can help them learn better, faster, write more creatively and more independently. Communicating with others could enhance motivation and personal power, overcome isolation and make communication less threatening.

Godwin-Jones (2003) and Salaberry (2001) argue that the Internet offers the potential for a huge increase in learner-learner and learner-teacher interactions.

The web pages that offer different activities for students are considered to be very valuable as a source for different:

- grammar exercises
- reading comprehension exercises
- writing of abstracts and letters
- solving puzzles
- vocabulary learning through recipes, fashion and sport articles

- information on studying abroad
- searching for jobs or for a certain product
- translation between languages and many more

According to Luan et al. (2005), teachers and students who use the Internet are not bound by traditional modes of learning; their interactions with one another are immediate, prompt and widely shared.

The collaborative nature of learning is increasingly important in education and the Internet provides rich opportunities for interaction with other people, reciprocal exchanges of support and ideas, joint work on the development of performances and products, and co-construction of understandings through comparing alternative ideas and interpretations (Lock & Redmond, 2006). On-line collaboration can enhance learners' understanding and keep students more engaged, help develop critical thinking skills by exposing individuals to different perspectives and provide a fertile environment for interactivity through games and quizzes (Bork, 2001).

The Internet is a massive source of authentic materials. According to Bell (2005), on-line newspapers and podcasts are culturally richer than regular materials, more likely to reflect the complexities of real-life language and potentially more interesting for learners.

Internet communication allows us to communicate with people all over the world, synchronously using text and audio chat programmes or asynchronously using e-mail, discussion boards, and blogs (Shetzer & Warschauer, 2000). The archived format allows us to record, reflect on, and refine our previous words as well as those we communicate with, thereby enhancing the accuracy and intelligibility of written and spoken communication (Greenfield, 2003, Jepson, 2005).

Finally, the Internet is a strong catalyst for educational innovation. Coppola (2004) argues that technology is vital to the educational reform process.

Since there are so many ways to integrate the Internet into classroom instruction, it is important for the teacher to clarify his or her goals. If, for example, one of the teacher's goals is to teach students new computer skills, the teacher may want to choose Internet applications which will be most useful to them outside the classroom, with activities structured so that

students steadily gain mastery of more skills. If the immediate goal is to create a certain kind of linguistic environment for students, once again, the teacher should consider what types of language experiences would be beneficial and structure computer activities accordingly. If the goal is to teach writing, Internet activities should be structured so that they steadily bring about an increase in the types of writing processes and relationships essential to becoming a better writer.

It is highly likely that things will get better; technology use will improve as technological innovations worldwide are made. As our understanding of how to use the Internet gets better, and more research findings are disseminated, the way we use it will improve.

Internet and Web provide new forms of communication and thus bring many possibilities, but also make their demands for permanent education, usage in classroom, cultural spreading, scientific education and economic development. The new technology has to be seen as a possibility of a new kind of communication and as a help to a teacher whose role stays irreplaceable.

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PROVERBS AND THEIR USE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING MATERIALS

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Abstract

When second language learners are talking to native speakers, they sometimes do not hear local proverbs, because native speakers may purposefully avoid using proverbs in order not to create misunderstanding and not to make the second language learner confused. As native speakers do not help foreign language learners very much in this respect, teachers will need to design materials that deal with various aspects of English proverbs because proverb teaching will automatically develop learners' communicative and language competence, make students' language skills more authentic. A lesson plan for intermediate level students, described in the paper, was designed in order to promote proverb knowledge in English language teaching classes.

Key words: proverbs, foreign language teaching, culture, speaking skills

Introduction

Native speakers mostly tend to use simple, concrete, everyday vocabulary when they address the second language learner. That seemingly positive attitude of the native speaker unfortunately cannot help the second language learner understand and learn more about the culture and the proverbs of that nation.

However, if a language teacher does not design a systematic plan, or give special attention to teaching proverbs to foreign language learners, and if foreign language teachers also avoid using or handling these cultural expressions, students cannot learn and use them appropriately.

English teachers may have problems with the textbooks they are using in classes due to the lack of exercises dealing with proverbs, so there is a need for teachers to create activities to teach various language skills. If proverbs chosen by teachers to be used in classes are frequently used ones with less difficult vocabulary, then proverbs gets more attention than the units in them.

As a Turkish language lecturer in Georgia for 5 years, I have different activity series while teaching Turkish to Turkish minor program students whose major is English in

Samtskhe-Javakheti State University. I adopted one activity and designed a similar lesson plan for intermediate level students in order to promote proverb knowledge in English language teaching classes (Haspinar, 2012, 2013, 2014).

Sample Exercise

The aim of the activity was to let the students talk about “money” and learn vocabulary about “money”. Here are the steps:

Vocabulary teaching

Step 1 was grouping the following words together under two different titles; someone who has money and who does not have money. The students were allowed to use their dictionaries:

| | | | |
|-----------|----------|-------|------------|
| needy | affluent | broke | rich |
| penniless | wealthy | poor | prosperous |

Here are the results:

Someone who has money:

1. wealthy
2. rich
3. prosperous
4. affluent

Someone who does not have money:

5. needy
6. penniless
7. broke
8. poor

Speaking activity

As the next step 2, we asked the following questions to our students in order to discuss the topic “Money”.

1. Is it easier for a poor person to become rich or for a rich person to become richer?
2. Can everyone be rich?
3. How do you feel when your friend asks you for money?
4. Which is more important, love or money?
5. Do you think money can buy everything?
6. Do you sometimes have problems with someone because of money?
7. Is it easy to earn money?
8. Can someone be rich just by working?

Step 3 was completing the following proverbs by using one word from the table below. On this stage the students were not allowed to use their dictionaries. The proverbs were considered as answers to the questions above.

| | | | |
|------|-------|------|---------|
| grow | evil | love | free |
| fool | money | lend | wealthy |

- a. Money makes
- b.your money and lose your friend.
- c.does much, money does everything.
- d. Early to bed and early to rise makes a man healthy,, and wise.
- e. Money doesn't..... on trees
- f. Money is the root of all
- g. The best things in life are
- h. A and his money are soon parted.

Reading Activity:

The last step was completing the dialogues with the right proverbs above:

Dialogue 1:

Jo: OK, kids. We are here for a whole week so you can reset your watches to 'expedition time'

Kid: What's that?

Jo: It's where you get up with the sun, and go to bed with the sun, and walk all day in between.

Kid: But I never get up till 8 o'clock.

Jo: I know, that's why we call it expedition time, set your watch now so that at 5am, it will tell you it is 8 am and you can get up.

Kid: OMG! That's horrible.

Jo: I know, but you will get used to it. And it means that if anything goes wrong on your walk you will have time to sort it out – before it gets dark. We will be able to get home on the early train. That's much cheaper. You know.....(**Early to bed and early to rise makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise**)

Conclusion

If the proverbs are used in the right place, they will be more helpful. Proverbs teach lessons or provide certain instructions on what should be done and what should not be done and they also gain the status of arguments.

A good language teacher should teach proverbs in a communicative and meaningful way together with the culture of the target language in order to foster the pragmatic competence in it. By doing so, the teacher not only helps the student understand the culture, but also supports the application of the proverb in the following years because the more frequently a proverb is heard, the more easily it will be retained and recalled in the future.

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USING WEBQUEST TO SUPPORT LEARNING WITH TECHNOLOGIES

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Abstract

The paper is dedicated to a new application of contemporary educational technologies and should be interesting for both researchers and practicing teachers. A Web Quest is an inquiry oriented activity in which some or all of the information that learners interact with comes from resources on the Internet. This activity is effective, as using technologies in the learning/teaching process is motivating for students. Besides, WebQuest lets students experience the success of technologies in the classroom. WebQuest activities permit students to develop writing, speaking, group working, communicative and presentation making skills.

Key words: technology, webQuest, English Language skills, teaching/ learning process

In the 21st century, technology is more and more becoming integrated in our society. Dramatic advances in computers, Internet resources and in digital memory have pushed educators to understanding and using these technologies in the classroom (Motteram, 2013). The main aim of my paper is to emphasize and support learning the English Language with technologies by means of using WebQuest.

A Web Quest is an inquiry oriented activity in which some or all of the information that learners interact with comes from resources on the Internet. WebQuests are designed to use learners' time well, to focus on using information rather than looking for it, and to support learners' thinking at the levels of analysis, synthesis and evaluation (Dodge, 1995). WebQuests are mini-projects in which a larger percentage of input and material is supplied from the Internet (Dudeney & Hooskly, 2007).

I organized WebQuest in a private school for 4th grade students. The theme was jobs and professions, as well as the present simple. So it included two aspects of English Language skills: vocabulary and grammar.

The organization of Webquest had the following stages:

1. I gave the students some idea about the webquest and stimulated them to think about the topic.
2. Students were supposed to find information about jobs and professions, then divide into groups and present their information about different jobs.
3. Students were supposed to follow instructions and hold some activities about the particular topic.
4. Students had to describe the jobs in different professions/occupations and speak about their parents' professions.

After finishing the WebQuest activities students were given a questionnaire to measure their level of interaction with WebQuest, its design and students' academic development. As a result, all students agreed that they want to have lessons using modern technologies and internet networks.

In conclusion I have to figure out several points. First of all, from my point of view, using technologies in the learning/teaching process is motivating for students. Secondly, WebQuest was the best way of experiencing the success of technologies in the classroom. Finally, I have to mentioned, that WebQuest activities developed writing, speaking, group working, communicative and presentation making skills for the students. I as a teacher recommend to the teachers to use Informational Technologies and try WebQuest as a technological tool to support learning and teaching of English Language.

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LINGUISTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF AFRICAN-AMERICAN ENGLISH

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Abstract

The issue of the legitimacy of African-American English– AAE - is one of the urgent matters in linguistic circles. This paper presents a brief overview of AAE. African tribes brought their culture and traditions to America. African-American English is a part of their heritage. Although the African-American English does not count a long history of existence, the issue of its origin and development is still controversial and unclear. The specific linguistic characteristics of AAE are presented in this article, with the examples of lexical, phonological, grammatical features. Linguistic variation within AAE is also described in the paper.

Key words: linguistics, African-American English, morphology, lexical, origin, creole hypothesis, dialect hypothesis

Introduction

African-American English is a variant of English spoken mostly by black people in the United States of America. But this does not mean that only black Americans speak this variety of English, it is widely used in music, literature, even some white people speak African-American English and some people use only some features of this variant, for example, vocabulary, so it is also difficult to define who actually speaks it.

A wide variety of terms have been used to describe English spoken by African-Americans in the United States, such as; Ebonics, Black English, and African American Vernacular English. African American English (AAE).

The origin of African -American English still remains controversial for many linguists. Walt Wolfram (2008) and Labov (1982) believe that this language comes from the roots of African tribes and it was developed parallel to slave trade. The debate over the origin and evolution of the language is common in language history, but the history of racial relations in American society deserves a special attention. African tribes spoke many languages, such as Mandinka, Mende and Gola. As for English, the involuntary immigrants from Africa to North America began to study the language in the plantations.

Because of the history of slavery and racial issues, AAE is still a politically sensitive subject in the United States. There are two theories about the origin of AAE: the *dialect hypothesis* and the *creole hypothesis*. According to the dialect hypothesis, slaves learned English “wrong” when they arrived to the new world and according to the creole hypothesis, English was mixed with many West-African languages to create a pidgin, which was then learned as a first language by the next generations. Later it became creole.

The creole and the dialectologist hypothesis do not exclude each other: there may have been a (British) dialect influence on a prior creolized variety.

Like all languages and dialects, African American English follows a system of language patterns. Many of the patterns in AAE are the same as in other American English dialects, but AAE also uses patterns that make it distinct. It includes grammatical, lexical and phonological characteristics. Like any other linguistic system, AAE embraces regional and ethnological variations.

Grammatical, phonological and lexical features of African-American English.

African-American English grammatical features are well studied, because they are unique to the language, so it is in the interest of linguistics. Grammatical features are more visible and conspicuous than phonological features. It is important to remember that despite their uniqueness it is not a degraded form of English.

Here are some grammatical characteristics of AAE:

1. The copula BE may be used to mark habitual action. Uninflected *be is* is used to indicate a habitual, punctual or durative events. Standard English uses an adverb of time to indicate this. “Habitual” is sometimes thought of as an aspectual characteristic similar to progressive tense (*I am going; I had been going*)

He talks nonstop as *He be talking all the time*

2. The copula may be deleted; AAE has a frequent absence of *are* and some absence of *is*- both when the copula is acting as a main verb (*he ___ nice*) and when it is acting as a particle (auxiliary verb) (*she ___ going to the store*).

She is funny as *She funny*

3. Past tense for past participle: *I had went to the market*(for “I had gone to the market”)
4. Past participle for past tense: *I gone to the market*(for “I went to the market”)

Some linguists claim that the true simple past tense marker in AAE is “had” – in other words, “had” plus any form of the verb (even “I had go to the market”) is the same as the simple past tense. In other words, tense is marked through the use of a separate “word” (verbal particle). Though there is disagreement about this among linguists (Green; 2002), it is the case that the various past-tense and past-participle forms are often used differently in AAE than in Standard English.

5. *done* may be used to mark distant past tense

He failed out ages ago as He done failed out

6. double modals may be used

I could have done that as I might could have done that

7. Negative concord/multiple negation or “double negatives” –it reflects the fact that multiple negation is a required (not optional) agreement pattern.

He doesn't see anything as He don't see nothing

8. Irregular verbs may be regularized when put in the past tense (may be a type of hyper-correction).

E.g., “I knowed him well; I gived him a turkey every year”

9. Stressed BIN may be used to mark the completion of an action.

I finished long ago as I BIN finished my homework

10. the use of *steady* and *come* to mark habitual action

He is always talking as He steady talking

11. existential *it* and *dey* are used to mark something that exists

There is a dog in here as it's a dog in here

12. inversion of subject and auxiliary is not obligatory in questions

Is he behind me? As He is behind me?

The dispute of origin and development of the African - American English which has become the issue among scholars, can be resolved with the study of phonetics and morphology. Phonetic and phonological changes are the richest sources of information; it may shed light on the many issues of African - American English. Vowel and consonant agreement, pronunciation techniques, Reduction of consonant clusters, mutation and so on can give us the answers to all the important matters in African - American English

research .The following examples show the differences of African - American English and standard English (SE) phonetics.

Consonant variation

| | |
|---|---|
| ask/aks alternation | I aks him a question |
| ing/in alternation | He's runnin' fast |
| /ɾ/ vocalization or deletion | occurs in words such as in <i>four, father, car</i> |
| /l/ vocalization or deletion | occurs in words such as <i>school, cool, people</i> |
| final consonant reduction in clusters | <i>find</i> as <i>fine</i> ; <i>hand</i> , as <i>han</i> |
| single final consonant absence | <i>five</i> and <i>fine</i> s <i>fie</i> |
| final consonants can be devoiced | <i>bad</i> as <i>bat</i> |
| initial /th/ as [d];final /th/ as [d,t,s,z,f,v] | <i>they</i> as <i>day</i> ; <i>with</i> as <i>whiff</i> , and <i>with</i> as <i>wit</i> |
| /s/ as [d] before /n/ | <i>Isn't</i> as <i>idn't</i> ; <i>wasn't</i> as <i>wadn't</i> |
| glide [j] as consonant | <i>computer</i> as <i>compooter</i> ; <i>Houston</i> as <i>Hooston</i> |
| /t/ as/k/ in a <i>str-</i> cluster | <i>stream</i> as <i>scream</i> |
| Syllable stress can shift | <i>POlice</i> , <i>Umbrella</i> |

Vowel variation

pen-pin merger before nasal consonants *pen* as *pin*, *ten* as *tin*
 /iy//i/, /ey/ /e/ merge before /l/ *feel* and *fill*; *fail* and *fell* rhyme
 diphthongs as monophthongs *oil* and *all*; *time* and *Tom* may rime
 /er/ as /ur/ word finally occurs in words such as *hair*, *care*, and *there*

In African-American English the stress change is a common phenomenon, for example: **police**, **guitar** and **Detroit** are pronounced with initial stress instead of ultimate stress.

The lexical and semantic study of African-American English should give us information about issues such as words and phrases and language variations. As Green (2002) says, vocabulary is the repository for words and phrases in a language system, and semantics refers to the ways in which sounds and meanings are related. In African-American English vocabulary, expressions and words here are unique supplies, which not only African-Americans, but many teenagers or adults use in America.

When we talk about the lexical features of AAE, we can divide its vocabulary into three parts:

1. African origin words
2. Slang
3. Standard English words used with a different meaning

African slaves brought their culture and language to America and some African words became the part of American English (Dillard, J.L. 1975):

banana - West African, possibly Wolof banana.

hip - from Wolof hipi and hepikat, one with eyes open.

jazz - from West African languages (Mandinka jasi, Temne yas).

Slang is very popular in American culture. Not only African-Americans, but also white people use it in everyday speech. Here are some examples of popular slang terms:

whutchu knock down? = what did you buy?

Marga — extremely skinny

Moist — no ratings, silly, naff

There are also some words in African-American English, which are used in both AAE and SE, but they have different meaning in Black English.

| AAE | SE |
|------------|-----------|
| The can | Jail |
| Smoke | Weed |

Conclusion

Thus, African-American English is systematic and well organized variant/dialect of language. Some linguists even view it as a language (Green; 2002). African-American English has rich grammatical, phonological and lexical features. It is widely used in literature and it is one of the well-studied variants/dialects in linguistics.

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LOCAL GOVERNANCE AND THE ROLE OF UNIVERSITIES

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Abstract

The paper discusses the effectiveness of local government and identifies the problems to be solved, which can result in the further development of the system. Within the framework of this research the problems of inter-municipal cooperation as well as opportunities and obstacles of the direct participation of citizens in local self-governance have been unveiled. The paper proposes, within the frameworks of cooperation with universities, to involve master students of related disciplines in the process of ensuring the publicity of the budget of Yerevan. In this regard, the parties that will participate in the project were identified.

Key words: local governance, budget publicity, inter-municipal cooperation, participation.

Introduction

The efficiency of public administration is largely conditioned by the optimal division of powers and functions between the branches of power, which will enable to provide some appropriate mechanisms for checks and balances between them. At the same time, the efficiency of state government and local government is affected by extremely dynamic and mutually interrelated factors of internal and external environments, such as economic situation, political stability, or international relations. In these circumstances it becomes necessary to monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of the public administration and local government, and, if necessary, to implement reforms of the system. The distribution and redistribution of incomes within public administration system is an important issue to achieve a normally acting system of local government, in which case all the local government bodies could be financially and professionally capable to execute their functions efficiently.

Current Developments in Armenia

Local government is one of the integral components of the public administration. Various subjects should play a role in local self-government bodies' capacity building. The state (central) government bodies have a primary and a crucial role in this process. Through

the decentralization of power and by making it closer to people the state must ensure the appropriate capacities for the utilization of that power. Financial and human resources of most municipalities do not allow them to implement public services which are vested in them. There is a need for inter-municipal cooperation concerning water and power supply, scavenging, waste disposal, tax collection for local budgets and other matters. Such cooperation is also important in terms of the increase in management efficiency as separate municipalities simply can't solve administrative problems that arise in their territories. The reason is that they do not have any experience and, besides that, they do not have enough financial resources to invite highly qualified specialists. Although the Law on Local Self-government in the Republic of Armenia (2004) defines that municipalities can form inter-municipal unions for joint solution of problems and for cutting down expenses, not a single case of formation of any union has been fixed yet. Thereupon two main obstacles on the way of formation and operation of inter-municipal unions can be noted: lack of financial resources and shortcoming of legislation. Inter-municipal unions should also serve as a directory for further administrative-territorial reforms, which in our opinion will bring to the administrative extension of municipalities as a final result. Despite the fact that the Government has taken formal note of the Concept Paper on Establishment of Inter-community Unions and Consolidation of Communities, it has not been finalized or adopted yet. Communities, as units of local government, continue to remain extremely small and weak in capacities. No essential changes have been done in the direction of developing inter-community cooperation. No inter-municipal unions have been created so far. The autonomy of communities and their financial independence continues to be at very low levels, whilst the property extremely insufficient. Although the legislation foresees the opportunity of sharing taxes between state and local budgets, no shared revenues were made available to the community budgets so far. Armenia has not recorded any serious progress towards development of local democracy. Despite the existence and availability of all methods and ways by the law, budget publicity is still not provided at the necessary level in our country. In many cases, the relevant requirements of the law are simply not met, and even in the case of meeting the requirements residents often demonstrate apparent indifference. Some significant part of the population is not even aware of the publications of draft budget in press media or budget directories and brochures, containing statistical and graphical information.

This indifference and unawareness serves as a reason for the council meetings to be held mostly closed despite the fact that the community council meetings should be public by the law. Speaking of citizens' participation in the community management, it should be noted that the legal basis for this process is quite strong in the Republic of Armenia. This fact is natural, because the idea of local self-government itself reflects the closeness of population to the management and their direct participation in the formation of governing bodies and decision-making processes (Almond and Verba, 1989). In this regard, local elections and referenda are the brightest reflection of this phenomenon. And it is quite logical that a number of legal documents contain various provisions related to these processes. Particularly, in the Constitution of RA it is clearly stated that the members of community can directly participate in the management of community affairs to resolve the issues of local importance through local referendum (Constitution, 2005, article 107). Similar provisions can also be met in the European Charter on Local Self-Government, in which the following idea is fixed: residents' participation in public affairs management should be considered as an important point in the list of democratic principles in all member states of the Council of Europe. This series of legal norms refer both to the formation of governing bodies, as well as to the participation of residents in decision-making processes that are being implemented by already elected governing bodies. But, unlike the first part, which is quite thoroughly regulated by legislation, the framework of residents' participation in the decision-making process is more extensive, and there is an absence of clarity in that issue.

For the urban areas, in particular for the city of Yerevan, it is necessary to develop some new mechanisms which will ensure the active participation of community residents in the development and discussion processes of the local budget. Being focused on the fact that here the main difficulty is the limited municipality staff and the inability to have individual meetings with all the community's residents, we stress the importance of finding new sectors and parties, which may be involved in this process. In general, a very important aspect of effective management at any level is to find the interested stakeholders, who are ready to work together to achieve the objectives. In other words, we need to search for the common field of interests, which will enable the parties to cooperate with each other and will provide some specific gains for each of them. In this sense, we believe that the cooperation between Yerevan City Hall and universities, on behalf of the Master's students in corresponding

specializations, may be quite effective. This refers to those Master's students, whose profession is related to the public administration, finance, as well as other professions, directly adjacent to local self-government. Moreover, this kind of high-quality graduate programs is offered by a list of universities in Yerevan, including Armenian State University of Economics, Yerevan State University, American University of Armenia, etc.

And why have we chosen specifically Master's students for this cooperation? We have already made a reference to this question by presenting the general purpose that can be crucial for selecting the right direction. However, only the general approach cannot give us the final understanding on the reason of this particular choice. For this reason we should bring a more detailed explanation. MA students are people who already have some knowledge, skills and ability in their particular field of study by having already received a bachelor's degree and consequently they meet our above mentioned competence requirement. At the same time, it will be possible with their intervention to ensure direct contact with residents, because, as already noted, only the municipality staff is very limited to resolve this problem.

In our opinion, the Master's students desire and willingness to work and provide output is a real resource that can be used efficiently or vice versa, overlooked and spent uselessly. This phenomenon can be compared to river water flowing: it flows without our intervention, providing certain mechanical energy. With this it gives us an opportunity to make use of mechanical energy and convert it electrical energy by getting some positive results. And even when we do not make use of this opportunity, the water, anyway, continues to flow. In this comparison, the Master's students, with their willingness to do a practical work, are alike the flowing water.

It is obvious that for any work done financial compensation can play a significant role, that is why as a first source of Master's students motivation, we have considered the material compensation. However, we think that the application of this tool may be much more effective if it is done in the form of competition. This will give an opportunity to ensure a healthy rivalry among the Master's students, which, apparently, will have a positive impact on the quality of their work. Let's say the City Hall provides material awards to the top 10 works, for example, 500,000 AMD for first place, 250,000 AMD for the second, 100,000 AMD for the third, and so on. Of course, these sums may be changed and adjusted by certain

amounts in the process of implementation, however, we believe that these are the amounts that, on the one hand can be considered as quite significant sum of money for the Master's students, and indeed push them to effective work, while, on the other hand are insignificant cost for about 70 billion city budget.

In addition to the financial remuneration, it is very important to consider the application another motivational method, which, in our opinion, would be particularly effective for Master's degree students. The winning participants may be offered privileges for getting jobs at the City Hall after completing their MA course. It is clear that a student that has effectively done this kind of work and has also a master's degree in corresponding specialization is almost fully prepared in terms of his knowledge and skills for a job at the City Hall. Despite all of this, we believe that the Master's students may put particular significance on non-material forms of stimulation. For this we need the personal initiative of the mayor and deputy mayors, who can provide certificates on their behalf to all participants, organize fourchettes by inviting students and in a pleasant atmosphere discuss professional issues with them, etc.

Conclusion

It is to be noted that in the proposed collaboration in Armenia it is possible only for the city of Yerevan because the higher education institutions are concentrated there and, of course, the vast majority of students studying in universities, as well. In this regard the given project of cooperation between the City Hall and the universities is consistent with the modern approach that besides struggling against the unacceptable level of urbanization, it is necessary to take advantage of the benefits that are offered by the urbanization, and use them for the development of the city. And if we previously could only meet various publications on combating urbanization, then currently the whole the world tries to answer the question how we can benefit from this process, as it is anyways inevitable.

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PRACTICE AND MALPRACTICE OF TEACHING LISTENING AT GEORGIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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Abstract

The paper deals with researching how appropriately one of the language skills – listening – is taught by EFL teachers at Georgian secondary schools. The issue is urgent as the above-mentioned skill has acquired an unprecedented for our country importance recently, since this year on the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia intends to test listening in foreign languages alongside other language skills and linguistic competences at the unified admission exams. The study conducted by means of qualitative and quantitative research methods is based on literature review, testing of pupils, classroom observation, survey of teacher, etc. The survey of EFL secondary school teachers in Georgia revealed a more optimistic and positive picture than the testing of pupils in listening comprehension. The paper mainly focuses on understanding what led the respondents to failures and deficiencies in developing this highly communicative skill essential for proper interaction and vitally important in case of English as a lingua franca of the modern global village. A brief flashback to the TEFL history in Georgia is presented so as to diachronically see the problem existing in the present.

Key words: teaching listening, secondary schools, TEFL

Introduction

Listening is one of the most important language skills. For FL learners, a proper development of listening skills becomes crucial, as it facilitates successful communication in real life outside the classroom. “Listening is the most common communicative activity in daily life: “we can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write.” It is a basic survival skill and is necessary for establishing relationships, survival, growth, knowledge, entertainment, and so many other things. Effective listening skills can mean good or poor grades, success or failure, loneliness or relationships.” (Humanities..., 2011:70)

English as a global language presents the greatest challenge to learners and teachers alike as it is the most diversified modern language comprising innumerable varieties. Secondary schools are the most important institutions where this skill alongside other language skills starts developing either properly or improperly.

The aim of the research is to study how listening as one of the language skills is taught at secondary schools in Georgia, what activities and what listening materials EFL teachers use, and with what frequency for the purpose of developing the above-mentioned skill. The research planned and implemented as one consisting of both quantitative and qualitative methods had to reveal to what degree appropriately the receptive skill is taught at secondary schools. The study is based on a survey of teachers, testing of pupils, on self and classroom observation, talks with both EFL instructors and learners.

The Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia has introduced a renewed format of testing all foreign languages at the unified entry exam this year. Assessing the level of listening comprehension of all prospective students becomes an essential part of the exam. As people responsible for administering the process assert, this year a listening test will be simple and not as complicated as next year's and years after. The justification is that listening occupies a significant part in the national curriculum and is amply represented in the accredited textbooks, so that testing it will make the test more balanced (საბლევები ერთიან ეროვნულ გამოცდებში, 2013).

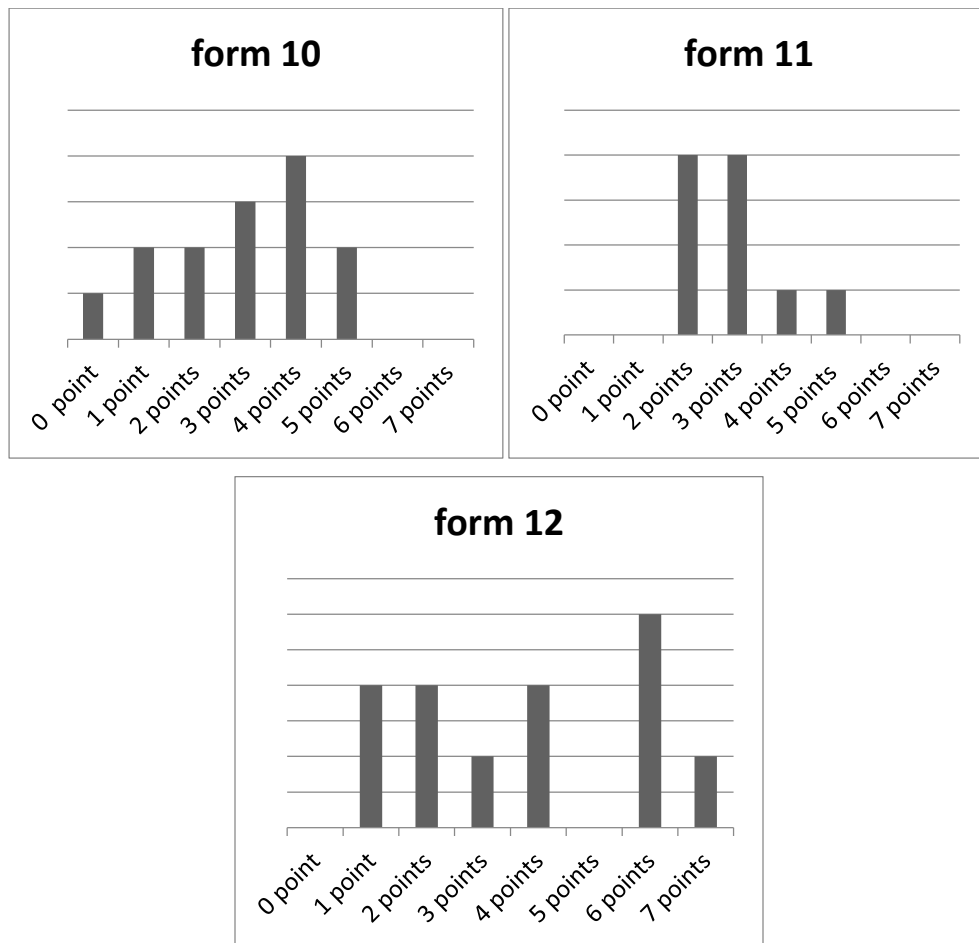
How much vital listening as a receptive skill obligatory for successful communication is was fully understood by the educational authorities some years ago. Under the aegis of the project "Teach and Learn with Georgia" thousands of native English teachers arrived in the country. The purpose of the project was to enhance among secondary school pupils speaking and listening skills in English as a foreign language, supposedly seen as being most deteriorated by EFL teachers and researchers of the field. Such a problematic situation was emphasized as a logical result of inadequate teaching and learning practices.

"The Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia together with TPDC has designed Teach and Learn with Georgia to:

- Recruit native English speakers to co-teach in Georgian public schools
- Promote English language education across Georgia
- Implement new teaching methodologies focusing on listening and speaking skills
- Track progress and tackle challenges in the Georgian education system
- Provide an opportunity for Georgian communities to share their values and engage in a cultural exchange with people from all over the world." (Teach and Learn, 2013:6)

In order to understand what level of listening skills secondary schoolchildren have in Georgia we tested 35 pupils at a state secondary school. Pupils of upper forms (10th, 11th, 12th) were given the easiest part of a PET listening test. The maximum number of points was 7. Only one pupil was able to reach that margin, 6 points were gathered by 3 pupils, 5 points by 3 pupils, 4 points by 7 learners, 2 and 3 points by 8 pupils separately, 1 point by 4 pupils and one learner ‘managed’ to get no point at all. What is evident is that pupils’ level of listening comprehension improves to some degree from form to form (see charts below), but the situation leaves much to be desired.

Charts 1-3: Students’ grades in listening



Private secondary schools definitely have better facilities than state ones, in general and for teaching listening in foreign languages, in particular; higher percentage of their pupils travel and have language courses in English-speaking countries, administration and

instructors of these institutions are conscious of customers' (parents') demands and are obliged to satisfy them by guaranteeing high quality of teaching. Consequently, private school pupils demonstrate a better overall communicative competence in English - be it listening or speaking skills.

Our results indicate that teaching listening at secondary schools in Georgia definitely has some (if not many) minuses.

There are several explanations of failures experienced in teaching listening at secondary schools in Georgia. For several decades before the advent of communicative language teaching, the grammar –translation method left little room, if any, for listening activities. This skill was appropriately taught only by very enthusiastic and highly competent foreign language teachers. In general practice listening activities were limited to listening to children's rhymes or separate words; connected authentic speech at higher level was less available to secondary school learners. And the common misconception that listening will take care of itself (which normally happens with native language learners and sometimes happens to second language learners, due to environment of the corresponding language) greatly hindered the development of the skill among FL learners. Later, when FLT became more communication-oriented (mostly at the level of preaching, less of teaching) listening and speaking were more prioritized. Nevertheless, traditions of the past left their unfavorable trace. It is necessary to note that, though officially the teaching methods shifted to communicative in the late 1970s, many foreign language teachers in Georgia till today are still incompetent in communication themselves and choose to teach by a mixture of grammar-translation and communicative methods.

The survey conducted in order to study non-native English teachers in Georgia in which I participated, revealed that most (16 out of 35 surveyed) non-native EFL teachers see listening as their weak point. Here lies one more explanation why teachers shun listening activities in the classroom. Instructors often naturally avoid those aspects of any subject they feel insecure about. On the other hand, teachers repeat the way of teaching and learning they were imposed upon when being learners often mistakenly taking it for granted. Thus, if they were not taught listening properly with all the procedures, methods and techniques involved, without improvement of their own listening skills and special trainings in teaching these skills, they will be unable to appropriately teach it.

EFL teachers, both less and more experienced do not undergo a sufficient amount of training, hence, their expertise in teaching listening, in planning and implementing relevant activities is often low. However, it more often concerns older teachers who are unskilled to use modern technologies in the classroom and thus are reluctant to utilize them.

At secondary schools in Georgia both teachers and pupils have been greatly university entry exam-oriented for many years. And as listening has never before been one of the components of foreign language exams, this skill was not regarded as worth much time and effort and teachers quite consciously avoided such complicated activities as teaching listening though the national curriculum did mention its development. Thus, more importance has been attached to skills tested at the above-mentioned exams.

Teachers rely on the fact that pupils from an early age listen to / watch cartoons, movies, different TV programs in English. It is viewed as a sort of extensive listening practice, but without proper guidance and as a logical result, without the proper development of the skill. What is noticeable is that such a random, chaotic exposure to various authentic materials leads to the haphazard development of listening comprehension among young learners. More than that, they concentrate mostly on the image and not on the audible text. Hence, a great potential of extensive (home) listening is not used appropriately, only very few enthusiastic teachers use such perfect recourses for developing listening comprehension as different internet sites, e.g., BBC learning English, etc.

At secondary schools where native English-speaking teachers teach English alongside their non-native peers, at least some authentic listening practice is guaranteed for pupils as they are exposed to natural English speech - be it formal or informal, correct or incorrect. Therefore, learners of native English-speaking teachers have a better-developed listening skill in English.

The survey conducted among 20 EFL secondary school teachers - both in the capital and in the regions of Georgia offers a more optimistic picture. The majority of teachers represented mostly state secondary schools, only 6 of them were from private ones. All the instructors claimed they do plan and implement listening activities. Such a unanimous answer, however, may fall under suspicion. Teachers may be wary not to undermine their and their schools' reputation by giving a negative response to this question. Moreover, these teacher answers contradict those of pupils of both private and state secondary schools - EFL learners when

asked about listening practices of recordings either deny having any or say seldom witness such activities. Again all teachers state they organize listening activities according to the textbooks and find these listening exercises and tasks varied and altogether good. They enable teachers to properly practice pronunciation, predict and overcome most difficult aspects of it. These exercises make it easier to do reading exercises as well. However, when it comes to the frequency of listening activities, 4 of them say they make students listen to English speech recorded at every lesson, most of them – 13 - do so every week, 3 even less often. According to the teachers' observation, their speech – the English they address pupils with - already serves as listening practice and is very productive for learners. However, if we compare how many hours per day a child spends listening in the mother tongue to develop a fluency in this skill, the input they have at school is close to zero.

Most secondary school EFL teachers (15) assert that pupils understand their fluent speech, far fewer (5) think that learners either do not understand their fluent speech or have some difficulties when trying to do so. Unfortunately, normally, in most cases, when students do not understand, the teacher or some of their peers (even if the teacher stops them from doing so) simply translates into mother-tongue what they have heard.

The same number (15) of EFL instructors has observed pupils comprehend native English speech, while the rest think they have difficulties in this respect. 17 teachers out of those surveyed consider secondary school learners to be more skilled at native formal speech than at informal. Only 3 EFL teachers have noticed that learners are good at comprehending authentic informal conversations.

What secondary school teachers are unanimous about is that learners reveal interest towards listening activities at a lesson. It mostly concerns younger learners who are greatly amused to listen to entertaining listening materials. With years pupils are more reluctant to listen in the classroom, mainly due to incorrectly planned teaching tasks, e.g., teachers still use “fractured”, separate word or separate sentence listening, stopping recording and asking pupils to repeat, also repeat the recordings, which is the relic of older times mostly used for developing pronunciation.

The teachers who participated in the survey demonstrated their awareness and ability of using technical means for teaching listening, among the most frequently named was the following equipment - CD players, notebooks, PCs. However, the fact that teachers mostly

follow textbook listening materials indicates that they do not use their initiative, creativity and enthusiasm in choosing more motivating recording for learners. EFL teachers from state schools see as one of the obstacles the lack of modern equipment for listening, especially of language laboratories.

Conclusions

Listening as a language skill has acquired a great importance in foreign language teaching in Georgia, as assessing it is becoming an essential part of the national unified exam. On the other hand, the awareness of how essential it is for communication is rather high.

Pupils at secondary schools in Georgia demonstrate deficient skills and habits of listening comprehension in foreign languages. This unfavorable trend is caused by minuses existing when teaching FLs. Although teachers claim they teach listening systematically, most of them lack trainings, special knowledge about how to plan and implement listening activities.

Successful practices, though they cannot outweigh failures, are still evident in this respect. After the brief study of the issue quite an ambivalent situation is revealed and prevalence of either pluses or minuses in teaching listening comprehension at secondary schools is greatly teacher-dependent. As one of the opportunities of improvement of listening skills can be named native English (or corresponding language)-native speaker teachers, talking to them in both formal (classroom) and informal environment.

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HENRY DAVIS THOREAU: TRANSCENDENTALISM

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Abstract

In this paper I investigated H.David Thoreau who united the spirit and physical body of human in the wild nature; the considerations of moral values of human beings have been accentuated. At the same time, in Europe and especially in the U.S.A, during the second half of the 19th century, the significance of nature was emphasized to modernize the people who were deviated from reality and fell into the claws of materialism and capitalism. Analyzing Thoreau's youth and later to learn the reasons of his coming to Walden Pond and alienation, to use Transcendentalism as the basis will be an appropriate approach.

Key Words: Henry David Thoreau, Transcendentalism, 19th century American writers, materialism, alienation

Introduction

The aim of this article is to emphasize H.D. Thoreau and the Transcendentalism in the 19th century, what transcendentalist writers think about life, nature and why he had written 'Walden'. Henry David Thoreau was born in Concord in 1817, a small village near Boston where many popular Transcendentalist writers (R.W.Emerson and N.Hauthorn among them) organized an artists' village. After he had completed his primary and secondary education there, he enrolled Harvard university, from which he successfully graduated. He worked as a teacher for a few years. Later he travelled to different cities. But he generally preferred to stay in his homeland. He thought to set up a business and be beneficial to his own people.

Goal of research

The moral and spiritual values of mankind were largely extinct with the destruction of nature by industrialization, according to Thoreau. The objective of this study is to provide a unification of human nature in order to regain the universal values by giving real merit to it.

Another objective is also to emphasize the meaning of life in the nature, Thoreau's frustration due to his problems and his endeavours for the solutions of these problems. Transcendentalist thought and academic knowledge of Thoreau prompted him to love nature and see in this love the solution of all problems.

Biography

I will try to analyze Thoreau's family life and his youth in order to understand the reasons of his coming to the Walden Pond and to explain his alienation from society.

Thoreau's grandfather was a very wealthy, but his father lost the wealth inherited from his father, so H.D. Thoreau eventually received a pencil production atelier. His father, John Thoreau, was French by origin and a calm, non-sociable man. Emerson (1965) describes Thoreau's father as polite and calm. Contrary to him, Thoreau's mother, nee Cynthia Dunbar, was Scottish by origin and very sociable and active. She was also intelligent and read various books. For a woman in those times, she was liberal and dealt with housework and shopping by herself, despite her high social standing and prestige. She was very demanding, both from her husband and sons. Mrs. Thoreau had a great impact on Henry David. She wanted him to resemble her own father, but the boy was calm like his father.

His father liked to read classics. After reading, he gave them to Henry David to read. But his mother's influence upon David caused that father and son could not understand each other.

Thoreau began writing at a young age, in a college in Concord with his experience called "The Sea Son". Afterwards he met Emerson, the Chairman of Transcendental Club, who had a great influence on his life and was accepted as a mentor and whom he loved as much as his own elder brother. Emerson published Thoreau in his Transcendental journal, and stimulated him to write.

Some time he kept a diary. Later he and his brother, John, decided to found a private college in Concord Academy which was abandoned by the time and they were able to succeed. There were a lot of students who wanted to learn there. But, unfortunately, he was disappointed about the school after his brother's death.

Unfortunately, his elder brother John, who received a razor wound while shaving, became infected with tetanus and died young. His unexpected death saddens Thoreau very deeply. After that he always had a feeling of insecurity. Many of his biographers think that the most important reason for Thoreau to go to live at Walden was John's death, and that by going there, he tried to relieve his pain. Emerson (1965, p.76) wrote: "He felt himself like under a heavy burdersome".

A basic mistrust is to be left alone. And this feeling disturbed him all the time. Physically, Thoreau feels a desire to live in nature in order to ensure security and to lick his wounds.

One day H.D. Thoreau wrote "A Week on the Concord and Marrimack Rivers" – the narrative of a boat trip from Concord, Massachusetts to Concord, New Hampshire and back that he had taken with his beloved brother John in 1939 who had died before Thoreau wrote the book. After his brother's death, Thoreau stayed in a cottage he built himself near the Walden Pond for two years.

Later he met many famous authors. He agreed with them about some subjects, and argued on other subjects. He could not, for instance, tolerate America becoming an industrial society, inventions of which destroyed the existing agricultural society and nature. He discusses these topics in many of his writings. He believed that industrialization damages nature, and life has proved that he was right.

It is possible to see the effects of his personal experiences in all Thoreau's work. He witnessed the conditions of society he lived in and he felt the pain due to the changes that were going on. He wrote great literary works that reflect the problems of his time and the future. On the 6th of May 1862, he died of tuberculosis, which he got in childhood as a result of chill.

Life at Walden Pond

Walden Pond is a beautiful lake in Concord, Massachusetts. A famous example of a kettle hole, it was formed by retreating glaciers 10,000-12,000 years ago. This special place, still so pure and natural, 'smelling' of the past, was an ideal refuge for a person like Thoreau. He lived on the northern shore of the pond for two years starting with the summer of 1845.

His account of the experience was recorded in “*Walden, or, Life in the Woods*”, and it made the place famous. The land where Thoreau’s cottage stood, was owned by his elder friend and mentor R.W. Emerson, who let Thoreau use it. Townsfolk called Thoreau a hermit. But in fact Thoreau did not live like a hermit. He had many visitors, especially his friends. The thing is that the changes which were occurring in cities – the development of individualism and materialism – bored him. So one day he left Concord, and decided to settle at Walden Pond. By this he also escaped his family’s (mother’s and sister’s) and society pressure, the pressure of people who did not understand him, and an effort to find his own identity. “My desire is to know what I lived and how I will live from now on” (Thoreau, 1965, p. 128).

Thoreau is aware of the peace of nature, which means more for him than the comfort that city life could offer. He sometimes goes and comes to town:

“To hear some news which spread from newspaper to newspaper or between each other, are constantly being in everyday or every other day, I went on a walk to village. While I was going to see birds, because of any one of several causes, I went on village to see men and children. Instead of wind blow among pines, I heard noise which made by carts”. (Thoreau, 1965, p.172)

At Walden he gained useful experiences, learning to view nature as a part of human and vice versa. Without nature, it is difficult for anybody and any animate (animals, birds, plants) to continue their existence. Since he could not tolerate the problems of American Society, he could benefit from the major values in his cottage at the Walden Pond. Thoreau contemplated about nature and its impact on an author’s achievements. He later wrote of that time that he had three chairs in his home – one for solitude, two - for friendship, and three – for society.

As spring began, the valley, the trees, all of these were wrapped in different colors. Snowdrops appearing, snow melted; all of these were becoming a different source of cheerfulness. Thoreau with his own hands was growing potatoes and corns in the field. The view was a special pleasure for him. By summer he was reaping and discovering with pleasure of eating and tasting the crops that he grew himself. In autumn the preparations for winter began. The leaves shed on the earth one by one by cold winds. Dark clouds appearing in the sky and rains were an occasion which made him stay in his cottage. When Thoreau woke up in the morning, he was watching ducks and other birds coming to the lake, also

hunters coming to hunt the birds. The view was delightful. The hunters would visit his cottage as a shelter and speak to him.

In some evenings Thoreau would not go to his cottage. He tells it was wonderful to sit outside and watch the lake and the sinking moon.

I went to the woods, because I wished to live deliberately, to front only the essential facts of life, and see if I could not learn what it had to teach, and not, when I come to die, discover that I had not lived. I did not want to live what was not life, living is so dear, nor did I wish to practice resignation, unless it was quite necessary. I wanted to live deep and suck out all the marrow of life, to live so sturdily and Spartan-like as to put to rout all that was not life, to cut a broad swath and shave close, to drive life into a corner, and reduce it to its lowest terms, and, if it proved to be mean, why then to get the whole and genuine meanness of it, and publish its meanness to the world; or if it were sublime, to know it by experience, and be able to give a true account of it in my next excursion. (Thoreau, 1965)

Thoreau not only gives beautiful descriptions of nature, he also uses nature as a metaphor for human spiritual growth. His descriptions of parts of the day and seasons of the year are related to the stages of human life. This is in correspondence with the Transcendental doctrine of nature as a vehicle of self-reliance.

The impact of his family life on his thoughts

Thoreau, inhibitory from his family and society, finds only one solution to move away from town, not only to get out of a tight spot but also to be in search of a new identity in a feeling of lowly for retiring into his shell. It is not an assessment for an escape, but it is resentment for society's strict rules. "In one way, his adventure is an attempt to get rid of restricting for assure of conscience that his family and culture try to impose on him" (Lebeaux, 1977, p.47.).

This restrict has an attitude against strict rules that were followed by his family and the local culture. His family is religious, but he did not have any communion. And so, he is known as atheist.

He did not preach any religion or religious order, instead, he believes in that everything is a fact of nature. But it would be wrong to call him an atheist. Like many Romantics, including Transcendentalists, he is in search of a relationship between God and Nature. That search

finds one answer in Transcendentalism. By listening to the voice of conscience, it is possible to realize the meaning of the universe. This meaning is some for everyone, because of the entire universe is shared by only one soul.

A human decides only himself what it is true and how it needs to be treated. So, a human is a sacrament. Because of this a person relies on self.

“The moral valves of the matter which Thoreau tries to promulgate in Walden forms trust which Emerson describes as” (Emerson, 1965, p.67). Thoreau suggests that people rely on their own knowledge and have the courage of convictions to provide that trust, which is known as the power of spiritual.

Thoreau’s taking notice of moral values is not a religious belief. It is to defend him against the harms coming from others. For this, it is necessary to live a unique, secure and plain life. Thoreau as a child was seeking for peace which he could not find, as his mother did not tell him it was in the nature.

Returning to nature means returning to his mother’s breast. Withdrawing from nature means going back in childhood years to compensate his loses. He expresses in Walden that he lives alone and becomes peaceful:” some of my happy times during the spring and autumn were raining days that didn’t allow me to go out. (Thoreau, 1965, p.134)

His brother John reminded of nature to Thoreau - nature’s purity, its productivity and its ability to attract attention impressed John and him as well. When John was alive, Thoreau felt safer, more confident and brave and also even more independent from the control and pressure of his mother and sister. He began to search solutions to save himself from the dilemma. He need to meet someone who would protect and understand him, and would help him find his identity. That person was Ralph Waldo Emerson. In the days of old, he used to be a Unitarian priest and in 1835 he settled in Concord with his wife. After resigning from priesthood, he travelled in Europe in which he met some famous writers some of them were Coleridge and Wordsworth. Emerson published “Nature” which is one of the earliest works of Transcendentalism in 1836. So Concord town became a center of Transcendentalism. Emerson met Margaret Fuller and Alcott in that time. Both writers affected him and Thoreau (Curry, 1981).

Transcendentalism

Transcendentalism is an American literary, political, and philosophical movement of the early 19th century, centered on Ralph Waldo Emerson. Other important Transcendentalists were Henry David Thoreau, Margaret Fuller, Amos Bronson Alcott, Frederick Henry Hedge, and Theodore Parker. Stimulated by English and German Romanticism, the Biblical criticism of Herder and Schleiermacher, and the skepticism of the German philosopher Hume, Transcendentalists operated with the sense that a new era was at hand. The most trustful way to reach the real is using the feelings. Apart from observation an importance should be given.

Transcendentalism appeared in America in the 1830s. The basic idea is the unity of human soul. It is the using of man's free will and implementing it in his life that Thoreau believed in.

The purpose of Transcendentalism is to resist the materialistic life which came to America with industrialization. Especially it is the struggle against the profit that for people became the reason of existence. No relations would be established between the people of the time without mutual profit. Thoreau, as a true Transcendentalist, could not accept it. To Thoreau nature, not profit, is the central value. He describes the beauty of nature like that:

When you look from this point, human discovers his own personality. Walden and White Pond lakes are the enlightened and great crystal lakes. They are quite clear that they are priceless in any marked and any place. Their waters are pure and clear. Dirtiness cannot be found. They are more beautiful than our life. We never heard anything worse about them. (Thoreau, 1965, p.113)

Here, it is impossible not to agree with Thoreau's speeches. There is nothing as wonderful in the world as untouched nature.

American Transcendentalism affected European Romanticism, especially German Romanticism and philosophy. Some of the most important subjects of Transcendentalism, besides nature, are rules of democracy (we are equal in front of nature), such humanity's customs and traditions and life styles which did not divert from the natural ones.

Thoreau, who joined the transcendental club at the end of 1837. Though he generally was not too sociable, he liked to listen to its members' speeches and sometimes to share his own thoughts with them.

The relationship between soul and human is essential in the philosophy of Transcendentalism. This soul tries to understand nature and world. When people are born, they are unaware, knows nothing, but ready to understand and perceive everything. Their souls then get the idea of Transcendentalism - the idea that there is the same soul in people, plants and animals. This idea is expressed in Thoreau's "*Walden*" in the part "*The Bean Field*": "I spending all morning and evening, I observe I have been them because it is my daily work. My assistants are snow slip and rainfall which sprinkle this drug soil..." (Thoreau, 1965).

According to Transcendentalists, humans can be idealists and materialists. While idealists interest in consciousness, materialists interest in experience. Sagacity is important for idealists, whereas materialists focus on event, willpower. Transcendentalists, emphasizing human soul, are, naturally, idealists.

Transcendentalists are against the philosophy of John Locke's materialism. Moreover, they become against the fast-developing economy in America, with its bourgeois materialism, the morality of human trade, fast urbanization, and industrialization, which was destroying the agricultural society and nature.

Correspondingly, we can see some coincidence and much difference between Locke's 'Civil government' and Thoreau's "Civil Disobedience". Locke says that humans are born in freedom and he thinks that it is no possible to live under domination. He says: "Is human being under the rule of nature? What does he/she expect from it? " Thoreau also believes that humans are free, but for him it is nature that humans should admire and follow.

With the industry appearing, the tension between the social classes is inevitable. On the one side are the owner of fabrics, on the other side – the workers. The conflict between them is natural. But, according to Transcendentalists, in agricultural society it is not natural to have these kinds of conflicts. This is quite an idealistic viewpoint, but this is what Transcendentalists were – great idealists.

Civilizations

In the times, when Transcendentalism appeared, people did everything for being rich and 'civilized'. According to some European researchers there existed some civilizations already early in history, but the first 'real' civilization movement evolved after the 18th century in the West. Although English historian Arnold Toynbee, counted as much as 27 civilizations, generally the West is seen in a high level according to the perfections and development. But this theory is completely relative because since the humankind began to live together and settled life. It has become a civilization to some extent.

As the Turkish poet, Fazil (1933) stressed, civilization is the inevitable result of living together. The settled life begins very early, not as late as historians try to prove. Different civilizations, based on either polytheism or monotheism developed in different geographical regions. There are a lot of materials in the world to live together and get along with each other. The meaning of 'civilization' as the 'technical', materialistic society was totally unacceptable for Transcendentalists.

Thoreau and his visitors

There are many famous people and authors, as well as common people among those who visited Thoreau in his cottage at the Walden Lake: Nathaniel Hawthorn, Bronson Alcott, students with their teachers, hunters, and many others. He told his visitors how he arranged his things, how he built his cottage and baked his bread. As crowded groups sometimes came, and he, as I have already mentioned, had only three chairs, he naturally met them standing, which he did not mind.

People of different social standing were among his visitors, little children and wise old people, also poor and rich people. How can we say that Thoreau was a hermit, if he had so many visitors?! He thought that people coming from dispensary who were virtuous were and more intelligent than the 'selected people' in town. He told his visitors that he liked their society very much and naturally he tried to tell them he was not a hermit. Analyzing the life he led, it was clear that being a hermit and living alone is not the same. According to Thoreau,

people who could not feel the love for nature, the free life, the responsibility of society for the world were indeed hermits.

Thoreau is a neat and honest American. It is possible to understand from his works that he does not hate social life, he simply likes nature, and he is really a nature-man, an idealist.

Some people may view Thoreau as crazy, but, in my opinion, if we take a look at today's Western civilization, which is a natural continuation of what Thoreau viewed as improper, with the life style of Western metropolis which many people are madly fond of, and compare it with the natural and spiritual life that Thoreau led at Walden, it becomes clear who is insane. Thoreau escaped from the society and settlement, he went to Walden for living in his own self-respect, saving himself from the society which was so far from nature.

When considering today's environmental problems, wasn't Thoreau right? Did he take refuge in nature to escape from life? Or did he struggle by his writings that nature is preserved?! He was not planning to spend the rest of his life at Walden. But if life in large cities turned out to be so far from nature, he was ready to spend his entire life near the Lake Walden and never return.

He shared his thoughts with his friends and people who were ready to listen and read. He told them that a person is happier at Walden Lake, in unity with nature. So, he was not an escapist. He made his effort for self-discovery. Thoreau's thoughts about the necessity to protect and not to damage nature are the only way for happiness are especially true today.

Conclusion

Thoreau made a great contribution to American Literature and life. In the nineteenth century he witnessed the transformation which was going on in American society. While science and industrialization were developing quickly, making the life of the body more comfortable, the relations among people declined, corruption grew, and chaos increased, the life of the soul suffered a lot.

Under the influence of puritanism the spiritual idea was too often associated with strict rules. For Thoreau, spiritual life was in the unity with nature. The relations with nature could help people gain an identity. Humans with this sort of idealism were able to discover

people's inner world. A person gained a sense of virtues. And this glorified the human and helped to do useful work.

Thoreau preferred a plain living; writing his works, he aimed to be beneficial for society and he reached this target. He was always in searching. Thoreau was known as a great lecturer. Many people started to live more consciously, after attending his lectures and reading his books.

In "*Civil Disobedience*", the importance of resistance against organization, institution and government was emphasized clearly. Thoreau and his admirers, even there were bad sides of life, emphasized that a person always could find happiness by himself. People should be governed by nature, not by other people. According to him, the riches of the person is his/her inner world, which means much more than the riches of the external world.

Henry David Thoreau's writings are in some respects especially important today, when 'civilization' has gone so far that we need to think about preserving nature on our planet.

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THE DESIGN OF MEDIA ADVERTISEMENTS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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Abstract

The paper views the structure and some linguistic features of media advertisements. The emphasis is laid especially on those parts of speech and grammatical markers that carry significance. One of the main features of advertisements is their persuasive character, their attempt to win new converts to a good, service or idea. Such key elements of advertisement as the headline, the visual, subheads, body copy, slogans, logos and signature are viewed, with their verbal and non-verbal components.

Key words: advertisement, adjectives, verbs, the headline, the visual, subheads, body copy, slogans, logos and signature, persuasive character of advertisement

Advertising, the most visible service industry in the last one hundred years, is one of the most complex and challenging phenomena. Every time we open a newspaper, turn on the TV, switch on the Internet or walk down the street, we are confronted – some would say assaulted, and we shall see why-, by advertisements.

The **aim** of this paper is to analyze the structure of print advertisements and their design. We also focus on the language used by advertisers in order to fulfill their goals. The emphasis is laid especially on those parts of speech and grammatical markers that carry significance.

One of the main features of advertisements is their **persuasive character**, their attempt to win new converts to a good, service or idea. The whole aim of advertising is to get us to register their communication either for purposes of immediate action or to make us more favourably disposed in general terms to the advertised product. But increasingly, written advertisements have to compete with each other and with all kinds of other texts in our richly literate culture.

Bovée & Arens (1992, 291) consider that the key elements of a written advertisement are the following:

- The headline
- The visual
- Subheads
- Body copy
- Slogans
- Logos
- Signature

Many advertisers consider the **headline** as the most important element in a print advertisement. This term refers to the words in the leading position of the advertisement – the words that will be read first or that are positioned to draw the most attention. Therefore, headlines are usually set in larger type than other portions of the advertisement.

Ideally, headlines should present the complete selling idea. Nike accomplishes this in its beautiful magazine and outdoor advertisements with nothing more than the visual of a runner, the logo and the headline “Just do it.” It creates a mood, suggests the image and asks for the sale, all at once.

Subheads are little headlines that usually appear in a smaller type size than the headline and which are almost invariably larger than the body copy or text type size. Their purpose is to transmit key sale points and to reinforce the headline and advertisement theme.

The body copy or the text is set in smaller type than headlines or subheads and it is their logical continuation. The text should explain how the product or service being advertised satisfies the consumer’s need and it may concentrate on one or several benefits as they relate specifically to the target audience.

Slogans are successful headlines, which, through continuous use, become standard statements not only in advertising but also for the public.

Bové & Arens (1992, 308) consider that slogans have two basic functions: “to provide continuity for a campaign” and “to reduce a key theme or idea to a brief, memorable positioning statement.”

Effective slogans are short, simple, easy to repeat and helpful in differentiating the product from its competitors.

Here are some famous slogans:

| | |
|--|-------------------|
| <i>“If anyone can, Canon can”</i> | (Canon Cameras) |
| <i>“Think different”</i> | (Apple Computers) |
| <i>“Because you’re worth it...”</i> | (L’Oréal) |
| <i>“Just do it”</i> | (Nike) |
| <i>“You deserve a break today”</i> | (McDonald’s) |

Other elements of a written advertisement are the logotypes (**logos**) and **signature cuts**, which are special designs of the advertiser’s company name or product name. They appear in all company advertisements and are like trademarks because they give the product individuality and provide quick recognition.

The language of advertisements

Language has a powerful influence over people and their behaviour. This is especially true in the field of advertising where the choice of language to convey specific messages with the intention of influencing people is vitally important.

While analyzing the advertisements we found out that the adjectives play a vital role in it. The most common adjectives used in an advertising media are the following in order of frequency:

| | |
|-------------------------|---------------|
| <i>New</i> | <i>real</i> |
| <i>Crisp</i> | <i>full</i> |
| <i>good/better/best</i> | <i>easy</i> |
| <i>fine</i> | <i>sure</i> |
| <i>free</i> | <i>bright</i> |
| <i>big</i> | <i>clean</i> |

| | |
|------------------|------------------|
| <i>fresh</i> | <i>extra</i> |
| <i>great</i> | <i>wonderful</i> |
| <i>delicious</i> | <i>safe</i> |
| <i>rich</i> | <i>special</i> |

Among these adjectives, *good* and *new* are over twice as popular as any other adjective.

Examples:

| | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------|
| "More of a good thing" | (Honda Accord) |
| "McCafe at your new coffee house" | (McCafe) |
| "The new fast food" | |

"*Delicious*", "*crisp*", "*fresh*" and "*rich*" are used in food advertising, while "*fresh*" and "*clean*" are the favourite words in toothpaste advertisements (the latter also applies to many types of cleaning products: detergents, soaps, shampoos, etc).

| | |
|--|--------------------|
| "Drink Coca-Cola delicious and refreshing" | (Coca-Cola) |
| "Get fresh with Crest" | (Crest) toothpaste |
| "Tide gets clothes cleaner than any soap" | (Tide) |
| "You can clean without phosphates" | (L.O.C.) |

"*Safe*" and "*sure*" are used in connection with products to do with hygiene, good and wonderful are more common than nice and marvellous.

| | |
|--|--------------------|
| "In this case: Spit. makes sure to spit" | (Crest) toothpaste |
|--|--------------------|

Sometimes comparatives and superlatives are used in advertisements.

Some famous slogans that use comparatives are the following:

| |
|-----------------------------------|
| "Things go better with Coke" |
| "Persil washes whiter than white" |

Here are some words that occur frequently as the basis for comparison in advertisements (Goddard, A. 1998,104): "*newer*", "*crunchier*", "*better*", "*crispier*", "*healthier*", "*nicer*", "*more satisfying*", "*less fattening*", "*smoother*", "*tastier*".

| | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|
| "Taller, stronger, sharper." | (Horlicks) soft drink |
| "Last longer, much longer" | (Duracell) |

| | |
|---|---------------------|
| “Open deposit and Get much more” | (Bank Republic) |
| “The most stable and reliable investment” | (TBC) |
| “The best Indian Restaurant in Tbilisi” | (Indian restaurant) |
| “ Communication just got sweater” | (M&M) |
| “ The HOTTEST thing on the streets” | (Audi) |

Another characteristic of the language of advertisement is **deviation**. Cook (1992, 139) distinguishes two forms of deviation: external deviation (deviation from an external norm) and internal deviation (deviation from a pattern established within the text). The former is represented by words formed by compounding (“*oatgoodness*”, “*fairlyliquid*”), affixation (“*provodkative*”, “*cookability*”), clipping and blending (“*liquidarnosc*”, “*telecom*”, “*mucron*”), function conversion (“*A Kwik-Fit Fitter*”, “*B&Q it*”).

Besides the adjectives, **verbs** also play an important role in the language of advertising. Among the most common verbs used for this purpose there are: “*be*”, “*make*”, “*get*”, “*give*”, “*have*”, “*see*”, “*buy*”, “*come*”, “*go*”, “*know*”, “*keep*”, “*look*”, “*need*”, “*love*”, “*use*”, “*feel*”, “*like*”, “*choose*”, “*take*”, “*start*”, “*taste*”.

Most verbs in advertisement appear at/in simple present tense.

| | |
|--|---------------------|
| “ <i>With a resale value of 99.43%, this is a true economy car</i> ” | (Porsche) |
| “ <i>Timberland. Because the earth is two-thirds water</i> ” | (Timberland shoes) |
| “It is a new day for cream cheese lovers.” | (cheese) |
| “ Buy 1 Get 1 free.” | (Newport medium) |
| “ Buy her a Diamond and receive a free rifle or gun | (Dunkin’s Diamonds) |
| “ Keep Australia beautiful” | (Lo Carb Chocolate) |
| “ <i>For a better start of life, start Cola earlier.</i> ” | (Coca-cola) |
| “ <i>Love your lips</i> ” | (Lancome) |
| “ <i>All you need is love and cupcakes</i> ” | (Cupcakes) |

To sum up, I tried to analyze the nature of the advertisements. We spoke about its peculiarities and characteristic features - the figured out the key elements of the written advertisements. They are: the headline, the visual, Subheads, Body copy, Slogans, Logos, and the Signature. It must be underlined that among parts of speech adjectives play a vital role in the advertisements, which makes advertisements a wonderful (easily memorized) resource of teaching vocabulary, especially adjectives.

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HOW TO USE TEACHING TIME EFFECTIVELY

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Abstract

Teaching takes time. And in school, as elsewhere, there is never enough of it. Like any executive responsible for the efforts of others, teachers will find that managing time — teachers' and the students' — is one of the biggest challenges. Of all the teacher's roles, one of the least discussed is timekeeper. But if the teacher does not take the role of timekeeper, it is left undone. All class periods are bound by both a starting time and a stopping time, and within that framework a teacher needs to introduce an idea, encourage and allow for student learning in a variety of ways, and bring everything together in a way that helps students want to change for the better. Since we are bound by time, we should make time our friend instead of our enemy. Many teachers working in proficiency- orientated institutions, whether they work in national, local teaching contexts or global ones, find themselves confronted with a heavily loaded curriculum, often split into language and separate skills, and a very limited time frame to work within. This dilemma often leads teachers to what seems to be an inescapably hasty, and more often than not, overloaded delivery of the requisite language patterns, skills and strategies. As a result, not only do students suffer from inability to absorb information and lack of sufficient consolidation time, but also conscientious teachers worry about the quality of teaching and learning that is going on under such a stress. What is more, in the majority of cases, teachers often rightly feel that they are ineffective in affecting major changes in the syllabus. Optimizing learning strategies is considered at the 'before teaching', 'while teaching' and 'between teaching' stages, covering areas from planning and preparation to fostering learner autonomy.

Key words: strategies, delegating tasks, communicative competencies, the flow channel, prioritizing, time management

Introduction

Teaching is a time-consuming occupation, and one in which both learner achievement and job satisfaction are proportional to time and effort expended, yet one of the commonest complaints heard from teachers is 'I haven't got time'. In certain countries, cultures and education systems, however, this complaint is not directed towards extra duties, marking, running extra-curricular activities or coaching a school team, but merely towards classroom time in relation to content and materials to be taught.

These cultures and systems are often those with a tradition of rote learning and an emphasis on linguistic competence, and despite the communicative nature of globally designed materials, syllabuses are often structural in design, overloaded, proficiency orientated and set to meet only the examination target. In such teaching contexts, the common teacher's complaint is extended to 'I haven't got time to practice the language', or 'I haven't got time for the speaking activities'. Cardinal sins are committed; language is not presented in context, production is minimal, mechanical exercises prevail, listening texts are ignored, and there is little or no pronunciation practice. Lessons tend to consist of explanations, copious examples and repetitive decontextualized guided practice activities designed for individual learners to complete and teachers to check as rapidly as possible. The solution to an error is seen as further practice rather than re - teaching. Time is seen as wasted in setting up communicative activities, and problems are compounded by an attitude to error manifest by yet more worksheets.

Working within such constraints, teachers are forced to misuse well designed course materials, and revert to the 'chalk and talk' techniques by which they were probably taught themselves, however contemporary their training may have been. Most of these teachers are fully aware, however, that 'more of the same' is not the answer, that language learning is a bridge to life outside and after the classroom, and that there is an achievable balance between the linguistic and communicative competencies.

Time management

Time management is the thread running through almost all aspects of teaching — organizing the day, organizing the classroom, deciding how long and how often to teach various subjects, recording student progress, or keeping time-consuming behavior problems to a minimum. Students only have so much time in your classroom.

Effective use of school time begins with efficient classroom organization and management — and vice versa. Much of the essentials of classroom life involve time management in some way: paring down paperwork; planning; establishing routines that eliminate wasted time and confusion; using learning centers, independent assignments, and

seatwork to give you time to work with small groups; and creating classroom environments that allow students and activities to move smoothly from one activity to the next.

Increasing Teaching Time

You may have less time to teach than you think. Lunch, recess, breaks, down-time between lessons and activities, moving from one classroom to another, interruptions, and other periods of non-instructional time account for at least 27 percent of an elementary school day. In many classrooms, that figure climbs beyond 40 percent. Incredible as those statistics may sound, they have been confirmed by separate studies at the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, and the former Institute for Research on Teaching at Michigan State University (Indiana Wesley University, 2014 a).

Sure, lunch, recess, and restroom breaks are important, but too much teaching time can be lost to inefficiency. Add to that the time that slips away when students stare out the window or are otherwise disengaged during instruction, and you get the point.

Here are some ways beginner teachers and veterans alike can substantially increase teaching time:

- **Find out which aspects of school time you can control.** In some schools, teachers discover they can change the scheduling of class periods, pull-out programs, extracurricular activities planning time, and outside interruptions. Ask your principal to help you control time-wasters such as unexpected visitors and frequent intercom announcements.
- **Schedule solid blocks of teaching time for each day.** You might hang a "Do Not Disturb" sign outside your door during those times. Also, secure your principal's help in scheduling pull-out programs around those blocks and ask parents not to schedule medical or dental appointments then.
- **Plan for smooth transitions between lessons and always try to have materials ready for each lesson or activity.**
- **Assign homework to extend practice time.** Homework should allow students to practice skills they have already learned.

- **Consider how and when you schedule restroom breaks for maximum efficiency.**
- **Improve student attendance.** Attendance has a big effect on teaching and learning time. Impress upon parents the importance of good attendance and teach an actual lesson on how it hurts to miss school. "At the end of each day, I try to tell kids what we will be doing the next day," notes first-grade teacher Susie Davis. "I emphasize the kinds of activities they look forward to, such as hands-on activities. This seems to encourage attendance." (Indiana Wesley University, 2014 b).

Delegating Tasks

Good classroom managers know how to delegate. Aides, volunteers, and students can handle many classroom tasks and save you enormous amounts of time. Learn to use these valuable helpers.

If you are one of the lucky ones assigned a full- or part-time aide, draw on that person's special strengths and abilities. Aides can work with small groups or tutor individuals. They can make instructional games and resources, keep bulletin boards current, monitor seatwork and learning centers, read stories to the class, and assist you in testing. They can also help with clerical and housekeeping in the classroom duties (those the children can't do for themselves). And their assistance with field trips, special programs, and class parties is invaluable. Help your aide become increasingly responsible and involved in the classroom. Unfortunately, this recommendation is not for Georgia, as in Georgia teachers do not have assistants. However, delegating some tasks like collecting and handing out the exercise-books and other educational materials as well as helping other students in written individual work, oral/written pair and small group work will help the teacher to kill two rabbits: on the one hand, s/he will use kinesthetic learners' energy for peaceful purposes (instead of them deranging classes), on the other hand, save her/his own time. Besides, asking more successful students to be teacher's assistant will motivate them, as it will increase their self-worth and help them not to be bores with tasks which are easy for them.

Volunteers are another valuable asset. Volunteers generally can do anything that aides do — with your supervision and guidance, of course. Volunteer programs not only give teachers much-deserved help, they can also improve home-school relations

Strategies for efficient time management

There are, however, strategies that teachers can adopt to create time for more meaningful classroom activities, whilst maintaining a manageable pace of learning, beginning with a number of questions, fundamental to planning and preparation:

- How much can be done well in the time available?
- What can be left out?
- What can be amalgamated?
- What can be done beforehand?
- What can be done later?
- What they can do themselves?
- What is left?
- What is the logical order?
- Who is going to do what?
- How can it be made interesting, motivating and relevant?

The answers to these questions provide a basic sensibility in the overloaded teacher's decision making process, and lead to further decisions involving choice, integration and prioritization, and a reappraisal of factors, such as responsibility, motivation and autonomy. There are many strategies that ultimately lead to time-saving and efficiency, some of which are used regularly by discerning teachers and some of which are used occasionally. However, the collective use of time and resource management strategies is rare. Individual strategies include:

- Providing incentives

- Giving encouragement
- Training the learners
- Providing self-access facilities
- Peer teaching
- Achieving flow
- Avoiding overload
- Using project work
- Prioritizing
- Establishing ground rules
- Providing study skills
- Sharing the workload
- Sustaining motivation
- Using different frameworks
- Giving homework
- Minimizing
- Offering rewards
- Being prepared
- Encouraging autonomy
- Sharing responsibilities

- Maintaining interest
- Integrating language and skills
- Providing pre- and post- tasks
- Using technology

Broadly, these strategies may be categorized according to their chronological place in the teaching and learning process: before-teaching, while-teaching and between/after-teaching.

Before-teaching

Interest, motivation and flow

Teachers tend to complain that their students seem unmotivated and this affects their own motivation and performance in the classroom. There are two questions, which such teachers might ask:

1. Might it not be the other way round?
2. Would you like to be a learner in your own class?

Few learners, particularly in examination-orientated institutions, are able to fully motivate themselves, and it is one of the teacher's roles to provide that motivation, even before teaching starts, by clearly defining the goals and how they are going to be achieved. However, in order to create a positive learning environment; intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation is what is required. Hence, typical motivational tactics such as reward, punishment and stimulation are unlikely to meet with success, whereas the promotion of interest, curiosity, novelty and enjoyment are more likely to promote a better long-term classroom atmosphere through individual and group intrinsic motivation. In this sense, the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is akin to the difference between process and product. Although, for example, reading because there are reading questions on the final examination is a powerful short-term motivator, reading for pleasure is a long-term

activity which will promote the gradual development of reading sub-skills and an important life-skill. There are three agents which teachers need to provide to establish intrinsic motivation: time, choice and positive feedback. Without these, learners are unable to achieve their goals, are not part of the decision-making process, and are likely to become demotivated. Added to these are the concepts of optimum task-challenge and flow. Optimum task-challenge is to do with achievability, manageability or 'do ability'. Tasks, which are too difficult, are inevitably demotivating, while tasks which are too easy, such as mechanical worksheet exercises, offer no challenge. The task, which, although it may appear difficult, is actually manageable, leads to a sense of accomplishment and increased intrinsic motivation. In the development of reading and listening skills, learners are often discouraged by the apparent difficulty of a text, but pleasantly surprised to find that they can manage the task which is set. Hence the importance of the text-task relationship. Tasks which provide no challenge or which are unachievable from the outset both lead to apathy. In the former case, they also lead to boredom, and in the latter, to anxiety. Somewhere between these two extremes lies the 'flow channel'.

The Flow Channel

Flow is a concept borrowed from psychology, particularly the work of Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1990). The concept describes a mental state of operation in which the person is fully immersed in what he or she is doing, characterized by a feeling of energy and focus, full involvement, and success in the process (rather than the product) of the activity.

Csikszentmihalyi identifies nine components of flow, not all of which are required at one time for flow to be experienced:

1. *Clear goals* (expectations and rules are discernible)
2. *Concentrating and focusing* (a high degree of concentration on a limited field of attention)
3. *A loss of the feeling of self-consciousness* (as a result of focus, action and achievement)
4. *Distorted sense of time* (Time seems to pass quickly)

5. *Direct and immediate feedback* (successes and failures in the course of the activity are apparent, so that adjustments can be made as needed).
6. *Balance between ability level and challenge* (the activity is neither too easy nor too difficult).
7. *A sense of personal control* (by the learner over the activity).
8. *The activity is intrinsically rewarding* (the doing of the task is enjoyable)
9. *A non-threatening, non-disturbing environment*

The communicative classroom already involves some of these considerations, which are also indicators of good teaching, while the more abstract components of flow, such as alleviating self-consciousness and turning control over to the learners, are often deliberately overlooked by teachers. These components may appear unachievable or threatening to the teacher's authority, or the teacher may be unaware of how to implement these strategies. Teachers and learners sense when flow has been achieved, leaving the classroom with a positive feeling and thinking that the lesson

Challenge

Teachers might profitably reflect on what the characteristics of those lessons were. Spending time before and after the lesson on reflecting about its advantages and disadvantages saves the time during the lesson.

Establishing responsibilities

The notion of personal control as one of the components of flow might more readily be stated as learner involvement, not only in an activity, but also in the management and decision making processes of the classroom. This process is a step towards learner autonomy and responsibility and a workload which is more evenly distributed between teacher and learners. Learner involvement is a gradual process and involves negotiation, learner self-confidence and willingness from the teacher to release control.

Prioritizing

All teachers working in proficiency orientated institutions work within the constraints of a syllabus and a limited time frame. At the same time, the syllabus is often overloaded and based on a global-design course-book and a variety of supplementary materials. The assumption, then, is that learners all require the same input and all teachers adhere closely to the syllabus. Most teachers working under these circumstances will also tell you that they have not got time to do everything, cannot do things ‘properly’ and have to miss things out. There are a number of considerations here: syllabus design, choice of materials, timing and selection. Given that the syllabus and materials are often imposed, the teacher’s responsibility is to make informed decisions about how much time to devote to specific types of content and activities. Most multi-layered course-books are based on an integrated syllabus, which provides a balanced diet of language input and skills development. This is appropriate on a global scale, as are the materials, tasks and exercises included in each unit of the book. However, neither the balance of input nor the materials and tasks may be suited to any particular individual or learning group. The other negating factor is that under time limitations, teachers tend to omit content which is easy to cut out or difficult to manage, notwithstanding the needs of the learners. Again, ‘chalk and talk’ presentations and mechanical exercises tend to be favored over communicative activities which demand higher levels of organization and classroom management whilst appearing to be more time consuming. The consequences are that lessons are exercises in time-filling rather than constructive use of time and, as we have already seen, lacking in the characteristics which produce motivation and flow.

Prioritizing is the key to time and content management. It relies on one of the basic principles of informed eclecticism; that the teacher should know what the learners want and need. Once this has been established, decisions can be made about the balance of language and skills content, receptive and productive skills, time devoted to practice, and the most efficient way of presenting language. This does not mean ‘missing out’ chunks of content from the syllabus, merely adjusting the balance to suit the state of learning of the group at any one time. There are other simple tactics: shifting mechanical exercises out of classroom time, setting extensive tasks for homework, utilizing self-access facilities where available

and adapting materials. Prioritizing is an integral part of the long and short-term planning processes, often the key to effective teaching and while- time consuming in themselves, enormously time and effort saving in the long run.

While teaching

Integration

Most syllabuses purport to provide a balance of language and skills, the bias being a product of the nature and purpose of the course, be it general English or ESP or EAP, where certain skills may be emphasized. Most course-books also claim to provide such a balance. Nevertheless, many institutions insist on supplementing the course book with other substantial materials, so that learners may end up with a course-book, a reading book, a writing book, a grammar practice book and several volumes of photocopied practice materials from various sources. Such is the sheer volume, in terms of quantity, time and expense, of the learner's task. More is not always better in terms of learning, and one wonders if the relationship between learning and materials, in the same way as profits and investment, responds to the economic laws of diminishing marginal utility. It may well be the case that useful material from one book is abandoned in order to make time for materials from another book designed for similar though slightly more specific purposes.

There is, of course, a balance of language and skills work here, and if one looks closely, a variety of activities to practice the language and the skills, and enough variety of interaction patterns to satisfy the demands of the communicative classroom. There is also enough material here, bearing in mind the possibilities of prioritizing and adapting, for several hours of constructive classroom teaching and learning (Darn & Aslan 2006).

The main advantage of using a single course-book with an integrated syllabus is that English is seen, by both learners and teachers, as a single subject and taught as a whole rather than a number of separate parts, thus avoiding oft-heard remarks such as 'I'm a writing teacher' and 'I like my grammar lessons, but I don't like my listening and video lessons'.

Teaching or testing

An interesting project for teachers is to write down, over the course of a week, a month or a term, all the activities that they ask learners to do in class, and how much time is spent on each of them. The second stage is to categorize the activities into those which increase the knowledge and skills of the learners, and those which effectively test their existing knowledge. Add up the time spent on the latter, add the time spent on teaching and preparing specifically for tests, administering tests, marking and giving feedback on tests, plus the 'dead' time before and after tests when learners refuse to do anything. The result is a phenomenal amount of time spent on test-related activities, syllabuses which turn into examination preparation and the waste of a huge amount of time to practice communication, which is the goal of FL teaching.

Learner Training

According to Hedge (1993), a set of strategies designed to raise learners' awareness of what is involved in the process of learning a second language, which encourage learners to become more involved in and responsible for their own learning, and which help learners to develop and strengthen their strategies for language learning.

Learner training plays a huge role in both the development of learners' study skills and the development of learner autonomy. Learning a language is an ongoing process which stops neither at the classroom door nor at the end of school-based education. If one of a teacher's aims is to prepare learners for lifelong learning, then learner training must be an integral part of any syllabus.

Learner training is best started from the outset, but for learners who have already been exposed to traditional teacher-centered and rote learning systems, the process starts later and consists of deconditioning and retraining. Learner training is essential for many reasons, some of which are to overcome obstacles to good learning:

- Constraints on time (and often money)
- The sheer enormity of the language learning task

- The ‘unteachability’ of many aspects of the language
- Learning despite bad teaching
- Replacing bad habits with good ones
- Learner training is **not** about responding simplistically to the question ‘What can I do to improve my English?’ Although good advice, obvious tips such as
- Watch programs in English on TV
- Listen to English songs
- Read English books
- Find an English e-pal
- Find exercises on the Internet
- Keep a diary in English are not enough.

Learner training is about helping learners to systematically plan, monitor, and evaluate their own learning activities. It consists of two major areas: psychological preparation and methodological preparation. Psychological preparation is concerned with understanding the learning process, awareness of teacher and learner roles and responsibilities and confidence building. Methodological preparation is concerned with the acquisition of study skills, strategies for learning and techniques for self-evaluation.

Between-teaching pre- and post- tasks

An important part of prioritizing is deciding which tasks and activities need to be done and monitored in the classroom and which can comfortably be done at home or in a self-access facility. This, together with the obvious need for continuity and preparation by the learner as well as the teacher, and the optimum use of classroom time, makes what is done before and after class as important as what is done in the classroom itself (as the latter

depends on the former two). Before a class, both the learners and the teacher need to prepare. For this to happen, learners need to know the structure of the syllabus and what is going to happen in the next lesson, most of which they can glean from their sourcebook. One effective way of winding up a lesson is to provide both a summary and an introduction to the next class and to tell the learners what they need to do in terms of preparation. Preparation is a valid alternative to retrospective homework and may involve fairly simple tasks such as familiarization with the forthcoming unit, using a dictionary to find the meanings of new words in the next reading passage, or using the Internet to find some background information about a new theme. Often the last of these is the most productive, since it reduces the amount of time the teacher needs to spend on setting the scene, providing context, or adding global and cultural knowledge to a topic. Learners with computer access find these tasks stimulating, quick and easy to accomplish, and less arduous than searching for information in paper-based sources. Such an approach involves seeing lessons as a continuum rather than discreet units and requires at least medium-term planning from the teacher.

There is a distinction to be made between post-lesson tasks and homework. Homework is traditionally seen as practicing what has been learned in the classroom and giving extensive tasks for which there is no classroom time. There is nothing wrong with using homework to reinforce knowledge or to make time for extensive reading, but post-lesson activities are better seen as a means of extending knowledge and involving learners in choices about their own learning. One useful tactic is to provide learners with a menu of tasks, most of which have to be completed over a period of time. Project work is also a meaningful activity, which can be spread over a series of lessons or even a term. Technology is again of use in that learners can follow links to extend their knowledge of topics that interest them, the initial link being supplied by the teacher or any member of the class.

The primary value of project and Web-based work is that it extends not only the knowledge of language, but also the knowledge of content, and in schools and universities there is much to be said for the content and language integrated learning approach.

Autonomy

If some of our aims are to prepare learners for life outside the classroom, to make

them aware of their responsibilities for their own learning, and to train them in how to learn, the final product is likely to be, or at least resemble, the autonomous learner.

The autonomous learner takes a (pro-) active role in the learning process, generating ideas and availing himself of learning opportunities, rather than simply reacting to various stimuli of the teacher (Boud, 1988; Kohonen, 1992; Knowles, 1975).

Teachers have a crucial role to play in launching learners into self-access and in lending them a regular helping hand to stay afloat (Sheerin, 1997, as cited in Benson and Voller, 1997).

There are two popular misconceptions amongst teachers about learner autonomy. The first is that it is synonymous with developing study skills and telling the learners what they can do outside the classroom to improve their teaching. The second is that it is a dangerous and subversive activity which leads to loss of teacher authority and classroom anarchy. The reality is that learner autonomy is a realistic long-term goal, is an educationally sound concept and is beneficial to both learners and teachers. Interestingly, research shows that because autonomy is a bi-lateral process, learner autonomy fosters teacher autonomy and vice-versa.

It is useful to make an analogy between autonomy and the student-centered classroom. In the student-centered classroom, the focus is on the learners rather than the teachers, and the teacher is a monitor, a facilitator and an evaluator, not a mere knowledge and skill transmitter, as in teacher-centered education. For the autonomous learner, the focus is on the self, whether inside or outside the classroom, and learning processes are self-actuated, facilitated, monitored and evaluated. The autonomous learner has mastered a number of crucial abilities which were previously the province of the teacher:

- a) *directed attention*, when deciding in advance to concentrate on general aspects of a task
- b) *selective attention*, paying attention to specific aspects of a task
- c) *self-monitoring*, checking one's performance as one speaks, reads, listens etc.
- d) *self-evaluation*, appraising one's performance in relation to one's own standards

e) *self-reporting, talking* or writing about their learning experiences in semi structured interviews, questionnaires, diaries etc.

f) *self-reinforcement*, rewarding oneself for success.

A teacher is one who makes herself progressively unnecessary.

(Caruthers, cited in Chang, 2006)

Final Comments on Time Management

Remember that teachers and students do not expect teachers to be the absolute master of the material they teach, especially in the first semester. They expect teachers to be prepared, organized, relatively energetic, and helpful. However, teachers do not have to spend countless hours studying until they have an exhaustive command of the course material. While it is important to prepare thoroughly for each lesson, over-preparation is counter-productive and extremely time consuming.

That said, do not stint on reflecting upon your teaching experiences — it can actually save you some time. According to a study by Robert Boice (1991) entitled “*Quick Starters: Faculty who Succeed*,” spending time reflecting on and talking with other teachers about teaching eventually decreases, rather than increases, the amount of time spent on teaching. So, try meeting regularly with other colleagues to discuss teaching issues, and participate in pedagogical workshops and other teaching-related forums. The minimal time teachers devote to these activities will help them become a more effective and efficient teacher, and free up time for other aspects of their academic and personal life. The first couple of semesters can be overwhelming and take up considerable time. Rest assured that teaching becomes much more manageable and enjoyable with experience.

Conclusion

This paper has been a synthesis of more than twenty strategies listed in the introduction which, individually and collectively lead to time-saving and increase teaching efficiency. In the same way that teachers operate under the constraints of time and an

overload of content, researchers in the field of education have to make decisions regarding choice, prioritizing, amalgamating and omitting for the sake of space and time. It is, however, worth reflecting on all those strategies, and others, and to begin to make decisions about which strategies to adopt in order to optimize teaching and learning in any given context.

‘There is more to life than simply increasing its speed’ (Ghandi, n.d.).

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**THE SOUND AND THE FURY BY WILLIAM FAULKNER – A STORY OF
DECLINE OF UPPER-CLASS SOUTHERN FAMILIES**

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Abstract

William Faulkner's *The Sound and The Fury* is a complicated story of tragedy, lies, and destruction. The whole Compson family is filled with negativity and bad decisions. The corruption of morals of this once great Southern family is most evident in the acts of their children. What is common to all Compson brothers is the fact that each of them had a certain kind of obsession with their sister Candace (Caddy) who can be considered a central character of the novel and as well as the person who gave this family its final blow.

Key words: William Faulkner, South, decline, stream of consciousness, corruption of values

“The Sound and the Fury” is a novel written by a celebrated American novelist William Faulkner. The novel was first published in 1929 and was soon recognized as one of the greatest Southern novels ever written. Praised for its complexity and subtlety, the novel challenges the reader until the last page with its stream of consciousness narratives which require a significant amount of attention from the reader, given the fact that Faulkner changes both the narrative and the style of writing with each chapter (Gubeladze, 2007). The title and some of the imagery in the novel derive from a soliloquy by the title character in Shakespeare’s tragedy *Macbeth*. In Act 5, Scene 5, following the death of his wife, and as he begins to realize his dire situation, *Macbeth* speaks his “tomorrow” soliloquy:

*Tomorrow and tomorrow and tomorrow,
Creeps in this petty pace from day to day
To the last syllable of recorded time,
And all our yesterdays have lighted fools
The way to dusty death. Out, out, brief candle!
Life's but a walking shadow, a poor player
That struts and frets his hour upon the stage
And then is heard no more: it is a tale
Told by an idiot, full of **sound and fury**,
Signifying nothing.*

Immediately obvious is the notion of a "tale told by an idiot", in this case Benjy, whose view of the Compsons' story opens the novel. The idea can be extended also to Quentin and Jason, whose narratives display their own varieties of idiocy. More to the point, the novel recounts the decline and death of a traditional upper-class Southern family, "the way to dusty death". The last line of the soliloquy is, perhaps, the most meaningful. Faulkner said in his speech while being awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature that people must write about things that come from the heart, "universal truths". Otherwise they signify nothing.

Through the narratives of three characters: a mentally disabled Benjamin, his eldest brother Quentin III and their cold-hearted brother Jason, Faulkner tells the story of the tragic decline of the Compson family in a town of Jefferson in the northern Mississippi. Each of these characters, in their own special way, describes the final stages of the downfall of their once wealthy and acknowledged family which started after the Civil war and with the beginning of the Reconstruction. The fourth chapter is written in the narrative voice of the author himself, but the main focus is put on Dilsey, a black woman who raised all the Compson children practically on her own and serves as the central moral figure of the novel until it reaches its defeating end. The corruption of morals of this once great Southern family is most evident in the acts of their children.

According to Churchwell (2012, 4th par.), "Benjy doesn't understand what is happening around him, and so cannot narrate the events he sees; Faulkner forces the reader to work out what is happening (and when) from the clues he drops. It is a kind of detective fiction, the kind that drives some readers crazy: but it also is a *reductio ad absurdum* of the act of reading itself. All reading requires the reader to infer meaning: the first chapter of *The Sound and the Fury* turns inference into an extreme sport. It moves through as many as 14 different moments across a 30-year period in Benjy's memory, often without any overt signal to the reader that a shift in time has just occurred".

What is common to all Compson's brothers is the fact that each of them had a certain kind of obsession with their sister Candace (Caddy) who can be considered a central character of the novel, as well as the person who gave this family its final blow.

Although the object of obsession for the main characters and the focus of the novel, Caddy Compson remains conspicuously absent throughout the text. The catalyst for many life-changing events in the lives of her brothers, Caddy never receives the opportunity to tell

her story. Instead, the reader is left with biased depictions of Caddy by her siblings - Benjy, Quentin, and Jason.

Caddy exists in different-colored filters: in our earliest view of Caddy, we see her at the branch as a rather daring young girl. She is not concerned with appearance; instead, she searches for the truth and reality of any situation. It is Caddy who climbs the tree to see exactly what is happening at her grandmother's funeral.

Caddy represents the absent mother to Benjy. Even in the early scenes, Mr. Compson asks Caddy to look after Benjy, because Mrs. Compson is sick. As a consequence, Benjy develops a strong love and need for Caddy. Although Benjamin was mentally retarded with no perception whatsoever, he was still able to feel love and affection towards others, especially Caddy. "She smelled like trees", he said, where trees signified her purity and virginity. She replaces the love that is denied him by his own mother. Whenever Mrs. Compson tries to correct Benjy, it is only Caddy who can quiet Benjy. Caddy, at a very early age, has to perform the functions of a mother.

As Caddy grows older, she sees the world through the neurotic whining of mother and the weakness and cynicism of her father. She feels the need to reject this artificial world and look for some way to reject everything concerned with the Compsons. Caddy does not enjoy her relationships with men and tells Quentin that "when they touched me, I died." Her relationships are deliberate forms of rejection of the Compson world. When Quentin offers suicide or incest to her, Caddy is willing to do either of these, because either act would be a strong act of rejection. She believes that there is a curse on the entire Compson family, and, therefore, she is willing to attempt any violation of order (even incest or suicide) to escape from the horror of the Compson world. Her acts are performed in an attempt to assert her own individuality against a mother and father who have essentially rejected her or have, in some way, failed her. She has seen through the false concept of honor and the superficiality of the entire so-called aristocratic world. She becomes the complete realist, someone who simply cannot tolerate the hypocrisy and artificiality and false pride of the Compsons; therefore, she turns to unorthodox behavior in an attempt to assert her own independence.

Faulkner imbeds this message more deeply into the text through his symbolization of Caddy as the changes taking place in the Deep South after the Civil War. Caddy's brothers

cannot view her objectively because they each reacted to the changes differently, as illustrated through their varied viewpoints. Quentin idealistically wants to protect Old Southern virtue by guarding Caddy's virginity. Caddy's pregnancy leaves Quentin emotionally shattered. He attempts to claim false responsibility for the pregnancy, lying to his father that he and Caddy have committed incest. His obsession with incest is interesting, because incest would be a total derailment of Southern morals, yet Quentin is obviously bent on upholding Southern nobility by any means necessary. Jason blames the changes in the South (i.e. Caddy's newfangled notions of womanhood and independence) for all of his troubles. Benjy clings to his early memories of Caddy and the South and refuses to acknowledge the new reality that the Compsons find themselves in.

Interestingly, Faulkner has said that the character of Caddy was his "heart's darling"—her character inspired him to write the novel. Faulkner harnesses the brothers' memories of their sister, using a single symbolic moment to forecast the decline of the once prominent Compson family and to examine the deterioration of the Southern aristocratic class since the Civil War. The Civil War and Reconstruction devastated many of once-great Southern families economically, socially, and psychologically. Faulkner contends that in the process the Compsons and other similar Southern families lost touch with the reality of the world around them and became lost in a haze of self-absorption. We see this corruption running rampant in the Compson family. This conflict is manifest in Caddy's promiscuity, her out-of-wedlock pregnancy, her short marriage, and the ensuing setbacks and deaths that her family members suffer. The Compsons' corruption of Southern values results in a household that is completely devoid of love, the force that once held the family together. Both parents are distant and ineffective. Caddy, the only child who shows an ability to love, is eventually disowned. Though Quentin loves Caddy, his love is neurotic, obsessive, and overprotective. None of the men experience any true romantic love, and are thus unable to marry and carry on the family name. As the Compsons belong to declined aristocracy, *The Sound and the Fury* portrays their inevitable demise. The members of the family fade away because they lead their lives according to outdated Southern aristocratic traditions that are incompatible with the more modern, more integrated South of the early twentieth century. The Compsons are guilty of living in the past and, like many Southern aristocratic families, they pay the ultimate price of seeing their legacy gradually dissolved by the onset of modernity.

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**DEALING WITH THE PROBLEMS OF GEORGIAN STUDENTS
STUDYING MAJOR SUBJECTS IN ENGLISH AT UNIVERSITIES**

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Abstract

It is not a secret that studying numerous subjects of universities' curriculum is a significant predicament for non-native speakers. Only the knowledge of general English acquired at schools cannot be sufficient for this purpose. Lecturers should seek some means of alleviating this hard task for the sake of their students. From my experience of teaching the English language at universities, I assume that it is highly beneficial to use certain existing efficient textbooks (such as *Outcomes*, *Grammar in Context*, and *Destination B2, C1 and C2; 1100 Words You Need to Know*, *Hot Words for the SAT*), which will prepare students for the next step. This will lay a good basis to overcome the difficulties characteristic for non-native speakers to attain a close to native level and to comprehend the authentic texts in order to obtain information from them.

Key words: studying various subjects in English at universities, lack of vocabulary, comprehension of authentic texts

Introduction

Nowadays most of youngsters try hard to learn the English language, not only to pass the admission exams (which is a tough task or they are aware of the importance of this language in their future lives), but also for these young people the knowledge of English is a modern deed to yearn for. Among other reasons, why so, they may prefer watching different programs in English on the Internet rather than watching them with their parents or grandparents either in Georgian or Russian.

With the help of this new technology it is not so difficult for teenagers and young people in their 20s to comprehend the language, which is not the case with the middle-aged or old people. Therefore, it is not very difficult to communicate with the help of this language even if they decide to learn it from scratch. But unfortunately, only these skills (speaking and

listening) are not enough to study various subjects in English at universities. The existing school textbooks do not have and cannot be loaded with enough material to be sufficient for acquiring the adequate level of the language to be taught subjects in English at a higher institution. Therefore, universities which offer their students to study subjects in English according to their curriculum should themselves create the basis to tackle with this issue. In other words, they need to choose the books which will enable their students to overcome the difficulties concerning this problem.

Problem statement

But what is the main problem for students who are going to study different subjects in English at universities? – Grammar? Spelling? Vocabulary? Or the comprehension of authentic texts burdened with long, complicated sentences?

To answer this question will be easy if we know what American students who aspire to continue studying at universities should know before taking ACT (a standardized college entrance examination – originally, American College Test) and also what foreign students who decide to study at American universities should know before they take SAT (a set of standardized college entrance examinations – originally, Scholastic Aptitude Test).

Suggestions

These are a number of words and idioms which could be found in two books: *1100 Words You Need to Know* (Bromberg and Gordon, 2008) and *Hot Words for the SAT* (Carnevale, 2010). It is true that there may be really 1100 words for native speakers to know from the former book before entering universities, but for either Georgian or other non-native English speaker students, there may be twenty or even thirty times more unknown words and expressions. But how does the actual SAT differ from Georgian students' national or university entrance exams, based on the content of the twelve-year schooling which is more or less standard in nearly all countries. So what or where is the problem for Georgian students after they enter universities and decide studying subjects in English? Of course, the lack of sufficient vocabulary and enough practice to understand authentic texts.

Thus, why not to use the above-mentioned books, after students cover some other useful textbooks, like *Outcomes* (Dellar and Walkley, 2012; Maris, 2010), *Grammar in Context* (Vince, 2012), and *Destination B2, C1 and C2* (Mann and Taylore-Knowles 2013)?

With *1100 Words You Need to Know* and *Hot Words for the SAT* students will become better prepared for their goal to overcome the difficulties concerning vocabulary and comprehend authentic texts, if they choose to study in English and not lag behind their peers who decide to study subjects in Georgian. *1100 Words You Need to Know* is a perfect book not only for preparing for SAT, ACT, and other tests, but also for further studying and improving students' grades as they will get the most out of their reading. *Hot Words for the SAT* will enable students to build their word power, understand usages and variations, and enrich their spoken and written vocabulary. So these books will help students a lot to learn subjects from university curriculum and not to struggle with the language used in those various textbooks. In this way, learning university subjects will become much easier to deal with and the students will not waste their time or energy for struggling with the language at the same time. In addition, they will not become demotivated, but will be filled with self-esteem.

Now, I would like to share a few ideas concerning *Outcomes* (Dellar and Walkley, 2012; Maris, 2010), *Grammar in Context: Advanced* (Vince, 2012), *Destination B2: Grammar & Vocabulary* (Mann and Taylore-Knowles, 2013), and *Destination C1/C2: Grammar & Vocabulary* (Mann and Taylore-Knowles, 2013).

Outcomes is a completely new general English textbook in which natural, real-world grammar and vocabulary help students to succeed in social, professional and academic settings; its goals are the focus of communication activities where students learn and practice the language they need to have conversations in English. With its every lesson of every unit this textbook provides students with a sense of achievement as they progress through the course. Besides, *Outcomes: Student's Book* includes a grammar reference section with activities for all grammar points, writing lessons which cover social, academic and professional writing needs, reviews to revise language and skills, developing patterns to get students to notice common patterns in language and to use them correctly, and native English speaker sections to develop students' ability to express themselves naturally and clearly. In

addition, the vocabulary builder booklet brings together key vocabulary, collocations and expressions, and provides extra practice. Therefore, *Outcomes* (despite some technical mistakes in Teacher's book that should not be difficult to solve for lecturers who have a high level of English skills) is one of the most useful textbooks in terms of understanding the true nature of the real language itself, as this textbook gives students a fascinating combination of practical, everyday vocabulary and its usage with the proper level of grammatical nuances, including interesting texts and various exercises. During my practice of teaching I have encountered with lots of various textbooks, but after I have been introduced to this book, I can assure everyone that this is the best one I have come across during my experience.

The intention of *Grammar in Context: Advanced* (Vince, 2012) in general is that the language should have a familiar context and the learners should have a real motive to use language for. It consists of a number of diverse topics in various fields of knowledge, which comprises of social studies, history, science, geography, computing, and the arts. These topics, which are covered in exercises, will facilitate to build students' vocabulary in useful areas. The youngsters will be engrossed in this book, as it will enable them to get acquainted with multiple facets of nature that they will achieve with the help of the English language. It is not news for experienced teachers that where there is fun there is always a great success.

Destination B2 and *Destination C1/C2* (Mann and Taylore-Knowles, 2013) give opportunity to master vocabulary and grammar on upper-intermediate and advanced levels respectively. The introductions of these books tell us that in each grammar unit, the topic vocabulary focus of the following unit is used as a context for presentation and text-based exercises; the vocabulary units cover their topics appropriate to their levels and consist of six sections: two topic vocabulary sections, phrasal verbs, phrases, patterns and collocations, idioms, and word formation. And also the grammar focus of the preceding unit is consolidated within these exercises. Consequently, one should not doubt the tangible effect of these books which can be described as valuable and practical means of helping students to achieve their goals. That is why I have not missed the opportunity of using this chance and have amazing effects with my students.

Research methodology

I conducted a small-scale satisfaction research among my students whom I teach with the above-mentioned books. The questionnaire asked them to assess the statements concerning the books in a 5-point scale.

Results

| | Question 1 The books I studied with contain interesting and useful exercises | Question 2 The content of each unit strengthens the material studied in previous units | Question 3 My vocabulary skills have really improved after studying Outcomes, Grammar in Context, Destination B2, C1/C2, SAT and 1100 words | Question 4 With the help of these books, it is much easier to comprehend authentic texts | Question 5 Now I am better prepared to continue independently further development in my major by means of other sources (while studying at university) | Question 6 I feel satisfaction to have enough knowledge to delve into depths of my preferable field of study and be aware of its insights (after university) | mean |
|------------|---|---|--|---|---|---|------|
| Group 3A | | | | | | | |
| student 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| student 2 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4.8 |
| student 3 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| student 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4.8 |
| student 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| student 6 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4.8 |
| student 7 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| student 8 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| student 9 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| student 10 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4.8 |
| student 11 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| Group 3C | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|---------------|-----|-----|---|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| student 12 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4.7 |
| student 13 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 3 | 3 | 4.2 |
| student 14 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 3 | 4.3 |
| student 15 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4.7 |
| student 16 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 3 | 4.5 |
| student 17 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4.8 |
| student 18 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4.7 |
| student 19 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4.5 |
| mean | 4.9 | 4.8 | 5 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 4.4 | 4.8 |

I have been teaching two groups (3A and 3C) with the above mentioned books. In group 3A there are eleven students and in group 3B – eight students. The difference between the first eleven students and the second eight students is that I have been teaching the first group (3A) for five semesters and the latter for only three semesters, so I have spent with them fewer hours than with the first one. The overall result of this questionnaire is positive and encouraging, but the last two questions require special attention.

We can see that, except two cases the assessment is 4 or five. Item 3 “My vocabulary skills have really improved after studying Outcomes, Grammar in Context, Destination B2, C1/C2, SAT and 1100 words” was given top assessment by all students, which means that the books are especially effective from this point of view. Item 6 “I feel satisfaction to have enough knowledge to delve into depths of my preferable field of study and be aware of its insights (after university), however, got the lowest assessment – 4.4, which means that from authenticity of tasks viewpoint the books, generally good enough, still can be improved.

Lower points by the students from group 3C, is most probably caused by fewer hours spent studying these books. This research has supported my intuition about the problem concerning

our students (all educated people need to express their thoughts or ideas with high, elaborated level of the language which is impossible with the limited vocabulary) and the efficient textbooks to try to solve this problem.

Conclusion

Only with the contribution of such really efficient books the teaching of major courses will obtain some meaning, as without enforcing the real, general knowledge of the language, the special words and expressions will hover for some time in the sky and then disappear from the scene altogether. Therefore, I do believe that teaching only the narrow technical terminology for this or that discipline will make no good, as the students will not be able to use them, which will cause afterwards their disappearance from students' memory. Thus, I strongly give credence to the fact that these additional textbooks are useful as they will help students to overcome the difficulties of the language which will get closer to that of native speakers' that is required for comprehension of the authentic textbooks taught at universities and also for expression of their minds self-confidently and with ease, which will make them grateful. Without this ability students will feel dissatisfaction that will not incur a high opinion about their universities and thus these students will not advocate for their universities' good names among their friends, relatives, or acquaintances.

Moreover, only in this case, it will not be meaningless to supply students with proper sources and email addresses to continue additional studying in the fields of their choices and conduct useful research in the spheres of their preferences. Otherwise, I mean, if we do not evolve our students' attainable targets, the sources found on these sites will overwhelm them and eventually, turn out for these students to be a waste of time. Nowadays, lecturers or teachers should consider this instance as unacceptable for our age, which, fortunately, gives everyone an unlimited access to the accumulated knowledge of the whole world. Therefore, it would be a malpractice or even an error to teach only terminology and field texts to university students, they also need dealing with academic vocabulary and texts, as well as authentic communicative tasks.

Mastering high (native-like) levels of language skills is rather time-consuming, but rewarding at the same time, as it will enable students to live up to their expectations and rise to the challenges of the different hard tasks of their lives after they graduate universities.

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Appendix:

Questionnaire

Please tick the adequate for you answer.

| | I totally disagree (1) | I rather disagree than agree (2) | I do not have a clear opinion (3) | I rather agree than disagree (4) | I totally agree (5) |
|---|------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------|
| Question 1: The books I studied with contain interesting and useful exercises | | | | | |
| Question 2: The content of each unit strengthens the material studied in previous units | | | | | |
| Question 3: My vocabulary skills have really improved after studying Outcomes, Grammar in Context, Destination B2, C1/C2, SAT and 1100 words | | | | | |
| Question 4: With the help of these books, it is much easier to comprehend authentic texts | | | | | |
| Question 5: Now I am better prepared to continue independently further development in my major by means of other sources (while studying at university) | | | | | |
| Question 6: I feel satisfaction to have enough knowledge to delve into depths of my preferable field of study and be aware of its insights (after university) | | | | | |

EDUCATION, LABOR MARKET AND INNOVATION: CONNECTIONS AND SOCIAL-ECONOMIC OUTCOMES OF EDUCATION

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Abstract

The theory of endogenous growth stresses the crucial role of education in economic growth. The outcomes of education cover a large number of spheres and the impact of education can be both direct and indirect. The value chain starting from primary education and ending with R&D, providing professionals for the labor market reveals economic and social outcomes of education, which is the main objective of the paper. Statistical analysis has been conducted on the example of twelve high-income countries to explain the interdependence of education and R&D and the correlation of R&D and unemployment rate. The results reveal the high impact of expenditure of R&D on unemployment rate in high-income countries. The social outcome of education refers to the development of social capital, the views and values of an individual, the wage differences of more skilled workers, etc. The volume of the impact on government policy and the economic environment, which may result to a large variety of results, is a matter of wider analysis.

Key Words: education, research and development, unemployment, endogenous growth, social-economic outcome.

Introduction

Economic growth lies on the education, research and development and innovation and they all lie on the same value chain. Observations show that education and R&D can have various effects on economic growth, depending on its structure, internal and external factors. However, the general trend states the positive impact of innovation on economic growth in the long run. Beside the economic growth, education and innovation refer to social effects as well.

The increase in quantity and quality of resources are the two primary methods of achieving economic goals and they both apply to expanding production capabilities. In economic theory natural resources, capital and labor usually refer to the factors of quantitative or extensive increase in economic growth, while education and technology are the factors of qualitative or intensive growth. And the crucial fact is that in case of intensive

growth education has links to nearly all factors, becoming the root of the value chain, which includes primary, secondary and tertiary education, R&D, labor market and results in economic growth and these factors are also linked with each other. One of the specific features of this value chain is that the results of R&D can be divided into two parts: the generated new scientific knowledge and the goods, capital, etc. that can be commercialized.

Many theorists during the mid-20th century propounded the idea of exogenous economic growth, which is the result of endogenous factors: human capital and innovations, where knowledge holds the primary role. By approaching the problem of economic growth from different points of view, modeling and conducting cross-country regression Kenneth Arrow (1962), Paul Romer (1986), Robert Lucas (1988) proved the conception that investment in human capital has a spillover effect and is the “engine” of economic growth.

To provide a basic idea of education and labor market connections and the social-economic effects of education, previous observations and their implications are discussed firstly. Then the results of the analysis of data regarding unemployment rate, public expenditure on education and R&D on the example of twelve high-income countries will be illustrated and will lead to respective conclusions that can be found in the end of the paper.

The Impact of Education and R&D on Unemployment: Social and economic outcomes

The social and economic consequences of education and labor market are investigated by many researchers and they apply to various aspects. Before the mid-20th century only exogenous factors (labor and static technology) were considered as the basis of economic growth. Domar (1946) states that the productivity of labor is not a function of technological progress abstractly, but the technological progress embodied in capital goods and the amount of capital goods in general is (Domar, 1946: 138). However, further investigations of theorists proved the crucial role of endogenous factors (human capital and innovation) on economic growth and a range of observations lie on the basis of the theory of endogenous economic growth. Romer (1990) found out that there is a connection between basic literacy and the growth of per capita income by modeling with three factors: physical skills, educational skills and scientific talent. The innovation-based theory was initiated by Romer (1990), who assumed that aggregate productivity is an increasing function of the degree of

product variety. Thus, by creating new products, innovation results in the growth of productivity.

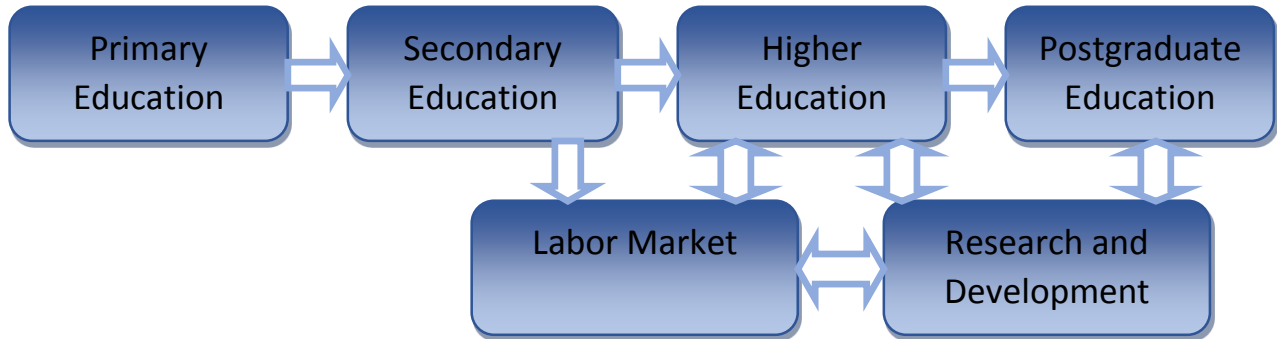
Later the observations of Baumol (1986, 1990) displayed the key role of talented people in innovations and development of scientific knowledge providing historical examples.

Barro and Sala-i-Martin (1995) showed that the average growth rate of GDP per capita correlates positively with acquiring education and life expectancy, which means that the more people attain education, the more is the GDP per capita. D. Romer (2012) underlines the important role of many types of knowledge in economic growth by giving an example of what would eventually happen one hundred years ago, if there were a halt to basic scientific progress.

Therefore, the accumulation of knowledge and knowledge-driven activities like R&D, innovation is considered as a primary source of economic growth. The relationship between innovation and employment is complex, because many of the results of innovative activities come to replace the manual job that people were engaged in and it was their main function as employees. In this context, many jobs just become meaningless and it seems that innovation results in unemployment in the short-run. But what happens in the long-run? Actually the result of the innovation becomes the qualitative development and creation of new vacancies closer related to the research and innovation skills and the demand of the employers related to the skills of their potential workers shift. These shifts can be clearly seen when one examines the job requirements in ten-year periods. As the demand for the skills of professionals change, it signals the education system, which is more conservative and reacts more slowly, to make relevant changes to correspond the "supply" of professionals to the labor market demand. And in this track of development innovation creates a demand for higher qualified jobs and they come to replace the ones that were left out of labor market as a result. The complementary of investments in innovation and the demand for professionals (Acemoglu 1997; 1998) are considered as the determinant factor for labor market-innovation relationship. As in the context of labor-market-innovation relationship, education can be viewed as an investment to develop skilled professionals for the future economy. Let us discuss the values chain which starts from primary education and ends up with economic

growth (the picture represents the general value chain and in particular cases depending on the structure of economy the connections may vary).

Picture 1. Value Chain Education-R&D-Labor Market



Though primary education has no direct impact on labor market or R&D nowadays, it is the basis of the value chain and its results impact the results of further stages. A direct impact on labor market starts from secondary education and the importance of the effect rises as one moves from secondary education to next phases of education. The interdependence of higher education, labor market and R&D is also displayed in the picture. Higher education “provides” professionals for labor market and for the sectors which are engaged in R&D, and they also impact higher education by signaling on the development trends, which later results to changes in education programs. The interdependence of postgraduate education and R&D is also due to the results of researches in postgraduate level and the signals of the demanded directions of research. Postgraduate education is connected to labor market, too, but it is mediated by R&D, as research is the typical point to postgraduate education.

Educational attainment is strongly linked to average earnings. On average, across OECD countries, graduates of tertiary education earn 55% more than upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary graduates. The earnings premium for tertiary education is substantial in most countries, and exceeds 50% in 17 out of 32 countries. At the other end of the education scale, people who have not completed upper secondary education earn 23% less than those with an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education (OECD, 2007).

In table 1 the descriptive statistics of public expenditure on education as percent in GDP, expenditure on R&D as percent in GDP and unemployment rate are displayed for

twelve countries covering the period of 2001-2010. All analysed twelve countries are high-income countries according to World Bank. A high-income economy is defined by the World Bank as a country with a gross national income per capita above US\$12,615.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics

| N | Countries | Mean | | | Standard Deviation | | | Median | | |
|----|----------------|---|--|-----------------------------------|---|--|-----------------------------------|---|--|-----------------------------------|
| | | Public Expenditure on Education as % in GDP (2001-2010) | Expenditure on R&D as % in GDP (2001-2010) | Unemployment rate (%) (2001-2010) | Public Expenditure on Education as % in GDP (2001-2010) | Expenditure on R&D as % in GDP (2001-2010) | Unemployment rate (%) (2001-2010) | Public Expenditure on Education as % in GDP (2001-2010) | Expenditure on R&D as % in GDP (2001-2010) | Unemployment rate (%) (2001-2010) |
| 1 | Czech Republic | 4,17 | 1,35 | 7,20 | 0,17 | 0,16 | 1,26 | 4,17 | 1,38 | 7,30 |
| 2 | Finland | 6,33 | 3,55 | 8,16 | 0,31 | 0,22 | 0,97 | 6,26 | 3,47 | 8,40 |
| 3 | France | 5,72 | 2,17 | 8,66 | 0,14 | 0,07 | 0,58 | 5,65 | 2,17 | 8,57 |
| 4 | Germany | 4,70 | 2,59 | 8,83 | 0,22 | 0,13 | 1,37 | 4,66 | 2,54 | 8,60 |
| 5 | Hong Kong | 3,94 | 0,71 | 5,45 | 0,43 | 0,09 | 1,43 | 3,96 | 0,74 | 5,15 |
| 6 | Israel | 6,24 | 4,50 | 8,56 | 0,46 | 0,19 | 1,65 | 6,11 | 4,50 | 8,70 |
| 7 | Japan | 3,56 | 3,27 | 4,67 | 0,11 | 0,15 | 0,54 | 3,58 | 3,28 | 4,85 |
| 8 | Netherlands | 5,47 | 1,87 | 3,54 | 0,29 | 0,06 | 0,89 | 5,46 | 1,88 | 3,50 |
| 9 | Poland | 5,25 | 0,60 | 14,27 | 0,18 | 0,06 | 5,18 | 5,29 | 0,57 | 15,75 |
| 10 | Portugal | 5,22 | 1,06 | 7,32 | 0,21 | 0,38 | 1,98 | 5,18 | 0,88 | 7,60 |
| 11 | UK | 5,41 | 1,77 | 5,61 | 0,41 | 0,05 | 1,19 | 5,40 | 1,77 | 5,25 |
| 12 | USA | 5,55 | 2,71 | 6,19 | 0,14 | 0,13 | 1,82 | 5,56 | 2,69 | 5,75 |

(The World Bank. Data, 2014)

As it is shown in the descriptive statistics, the mean and median of the distribution are very close, and the standard deviation is not high in public expenditure on education and expenditure on R&D. In case of unemployment rate Poland has a high standard deviation, however, the mean and median are not of great difference. If the mean and median of a distribution are equal, then the data are distributed in a symmetric way, which is the normal distribution. In case of this analysis, table 1 displays the case, where in some cases the mean

is equal to median, which is the normal distribution (such as the data of public expenditure on education in Czech Republic), the mean is a little greater than median (such as the data of expenditure on R&D in Finland), or the mean is a little less than median (such as the data of unemployment rate in Japan) and negative or positive skew occurs. This skew does not affect much on the normal distribution of the data, as the differences of the mean and median are very low.

It is also important to notice that public expenditure on education and expenditure on R&D are shown in percent of GDP of respective countries and the low percent does not necessarily imply lower expenditures, as the GDP may be high and the smaller percent of a high GDP may be greater than the percent of a lower GDP. However, the aim of the analysis is to show the connections of Education, R&D and unemployment rate and all the data are in percent.

Table 2. Correlation between Expenditure on Education-Expenditure on R&D-Unemployment Rate

| N | Countries | Correlation between Expenditure on Education and Expenditure on R&D | Correlation between Expenditure on Education and Unemployment Rate | Correlation between Expenditure on R&D and Unemployment Rate |
|----|----------------|---|--|--|
| 1 | Czech Republic | 0,2720 | 0,3322 | -0,5192 |
| 2 | Finland | 0,7318 | 0,3828 | -0,3086 |
| 3 | France | 0,4928 | 0,5495 | 0,5137 |
| 4 | Germany | 0,7341 | -0,6093 | -0,6371 |
| 5 | Hong Kong | -0,0526 | 0,7637 | -0,3799 |
| 6 | Israel | -0,2106 | 0,8592 | -0,5509 |
| 7 | Japan | -0,5574 | 0,7643 | -0,8232 |
| 8 | Netherlands | -0,3843 | 0,5778 | 0,2049 |
| 9 | Poland | -0,3630 | 0,8826 | -0,5833 |
| 10 | Portugal | -0,2034 | -0,1130 | 0,7988 |
| 11 | UK | 0,1421 | 0,7391 | 0,6738 |
| 12 | USA | -0,0965 | 0,0141 | 0,6482 |

(I used the data of The World Bank. Data, 2014, to make the calculations in this and further tables)

In table 2 the correlation between expenditure on education, expenditure on R&D and unemployment rate are calculated. In most cases the expenditure on education and the expenditure on R&D are negatively correlated and in the case of expenditure on education and unemployment rate are positively correlated (though in both cases the correlation coefficient is not high), which is the result of conservative nature of education and incapability to react to changes quickly.

The correlation of R&D and unemployment rate is negative at most, which means that with the increase in expenditure on R&D the unemployment rate decreases and vice versa. The innovation-based growth theory developed by Aghion and Howitt (1998) and Grossman and Helpman (1991) can explain the negative correlation. While the R&D expenditures trend grows, the unemployment rate falls.

To reveal the implications and interrelations of education, R&D and labor market, a model is elaborated according to the data represented above.

$$U_R = A + B_1 \times E_{ED} + B_2 \times E_{R\&D} \quad (1)$$

In the equation above U_R is the unemployment rate (the dependent variable), E_{ED} is the expenditure on education and $E_{R\&D}$ is the expenditure on R&D. A is the intercept of the model, B_1 and B_2 are the coefficients of expenditure on education and expenditure on R&D, respectively. In table 3 the calculated values of A , B_1 and B_2 for the twelve high-income countries are represented.

As shown in the table, the coefficients of $E_{R\&D}$ are mostly negative, which means that expenditure in R&D has positive impact on labor market and reduces unemployment rate. Obviously the coefficient of expenditure on education is mainly positive, as did not have negative correlation with unemployment rate and actually doesn't have direct impact of unemployment rate or longer time is needed to measure its impact on unemployment rate. Though the coefficient for education expenditure is positive, the impact of expenditure on R&D is higher and it covers the impact of expenditure on education.

The standard error is mainly low, besides Germany and USA, which is an indicator of an efficient model. Another indicator, R squared is near 1 in most cases, and shows the

part of the dependent variable that is described by independent variables (the closer to 1, the better).

Table 3. Regression model for Unemployment Rate, Expenditure on Education and Expenditure on R&D

| N | Countries | Intercept (A) | Coefficient of E_{ED} (B_1) | Coefficient of $E_{R\&D}$ (B_2) | Standard Error | R Squared | P Value |
|----|----------------|---------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------|-----------|-----------|
| 1 | Czech Republic | -1.217 | 3.695 | -5.319 | 0.998 | 0.5116 | 0.0814 |
| 2 | Finland | 2.2600 | 4.1071 | -5.6540 | 0.3597 | 0.8927 | 0.0004045 |
| 3 | France | -7.054 | 1.666 | 2.849 | 0.5159 | 0.3799 | 0.1878 |
| 4 | Germany | 29.075 | -1.922 | -4.328 | 1.153 | 0.4493 | 0.1239 |
| 5 | Hong Kong | -0.3605 | 2.5002 | -5.6901 | 0.891 | 0.699 | 0.01496 |
| 6 | Israel | 6.6109 | 2.7724 | -3.4055 | 0.6422 | 0.8815 | 0.0005728 |
| 7 | Japan | 3.379 | 2.260 | -2.066 | 0.2626 | 0.813 | 0.002828 |
| 8 | Netherlands | -24.3980 | 2.4086 | 7.9003 | 0.6803 | 0.5478 | 0.06219 |
| 9 | Poland | -88.641 | 22.460 | -24.980 | 2.21 | 0.8586 | 0.001064 |
| 10 | Portugal | 0.3097 | 0.4901 | 4.1880 | 1.349 | 0.6407 | 0.0278 |
| 11 | UK | -31.4859 | 1.8976 | 15.1797 | 0.4748 | 0.8764 | 0.0006636 |
| 12 | USA | -25.251 | 1.010 | 9.544 | 1.565 | 0.4261 | 0.1432 |

The P value, which shows whether the results are statistically significant or not, exhibits a very strong significance for five countries (Finland, Israel, Japan, Poland, and UK), as the value is below 0,01, a strong significance for two countries (Hong Kong and Portugal), as the value is between 0,01 and 0,05, a low significance for two countries (Czech Republic and Netherlands) as the P value is between 0,05 and 0,1 and no significance for three countries (France, Germany, and the USA), as the value is above 0,1.

Another model with one dependent variable provides an additional proof for the impact of expenditure on R&D on unemployment rate (table 4).

$$U_R = A + B_1 \times E_{ED} \quad (2)$$

In table 4 seven countries have a negative value for B_2 which means that expenditure on R&D reduces unemployment rate. The comparison of table 3 and table 4 reveals, that in

5 cases the impact of expenditure on R&D is stronger, when the impact of expenditure on education is also considered. The P value displays statistically significant results in case of seven countries, however, the R squared is lower than in table 3, and that is quite natural, as two variables can describe the model better than one variable.

Table 4. Regression model for Unemployment Rate and Expenditure on R&D

| N | Countries | Intercept | Coefficient of E _{R&D} (B ₂) | Standard Error | R Squared | P Value |
|----|----------------|-----------|--|-------------------|-----------|----------|
| 1 | Czech Republic | 12.668 | -4.196 | 1.142 | 0.2696 | 0.124 |
| 2 | Finland | 13.051 | -1.377 | 0.9772 | 0.09523 | 0.3856 |
| 3 | France | -1.242 | 4.562 | 0.5258 | 0.2638 | 0.1289 |
| 4 | Germany | 26.186 | -6.698 | 1.12 | 0.4059 | 0.04758 |
| 5 | Hong Kong | 9.944 | -6.346 | 1.405 | 0.1444 | 0.2788 |
| 6 | Israel | 30.390 | -4.846 | 1.456 | 0.3035 | 0.09885 |
| 7 | Japan | 14.3317 | -2.9520 | 0.3225 | 0.6776 | 0.003435 |
| 8 | Netherlands | -2.498 | 3.231 | 0.9262 | 0.04198 | 0.5702 |
| 9 | Poland | 43.06 | -48.11 | 4.465 | 0.3402 | 0.07671 |
| 10 | Portugal | 2.928 | 4.134 | 1.266 | 0.6382 | 0.005575 |
| 11 | UK | -25.541 | 17.619 | 0.9336 | 0.454 | 0.03267 |
| 12 | USA | -19.352 | 9.436 | 1.471 | 0.4202 | 0.04266 |

The main implication of the tables 3 and 4 is that for high-income countries expenditure and investments in R&D can reduce the unemployment rate. The mechanisms and the dimension of impact depend on the structure of economy and the economic policy of the country which demands a wider research.

Regarding the social outcome of education, Dewey (1916) states that society in his time still was far from realizing the whole potential of education, which is the key of the youth development and future generations, as well. Today's economic analyses from the developed and developing countries show that investing in the earliest years of life leads to some of the highest rates of returns to families, societies and countries – one of the most cost-efficient investments in creating a strong foundation for human capital (Rebello and Goksel, 2014).

The possible social and economic impacts of education are listed below, though they do not end up with the following:

- Increasing income
- Promoting girls' and women's rights
- Reducing poverty
- Boosting economic growth
- Fostering peace, etc.

The theories on the social and economic impact are well-grounded, however, the economic structure of each country should be considered to make sound policy decisions. The value of education is sometimes considered as investment. But while the human capital theory links education to economic outcomes and offers a framework for scientific investigation and policy analysis, there is to date no widely accepted framework linking education to social outcomes. Social outcomes are acknowledged in the literature on human capital and, in some cases, are quantified. Modeling provides a better understanding of the relationship of education and social and economic development. The links between education and personal, social and economic development need to be perceived better and conveyed to policy makers and the wider public (OECD, 2001a).

The international exchange of technical information contributes to the growth in every country. Researchers gain insights by reading foreign journals and by interacting with their counterparts in international forums. The knowledge they acquire by these means raises the productivity in the research lab. With greater international transmission of knowledge capital, the cost of research is smaller in every location. In this way globalization also strengthens the impact of education.

Other OECD analysis addresses the impact of rising educational levels on national GDP (OECD, 2001b) and on individuals' economic and career success (OECD, 2006). Education has also an impact on personal lives of employees, citizens or family members. Education systems aim in part to enable people to lead healthy lives, and to play an active part in civic and social life. Education by itself cannot solve social-economic issues, however, it is one of the most important elements for public welfare. Even the best education systems cannot provide economic growth, if the government policy and the economic environment does not support the growth. The policies, that consider the educational dimension in background, have a better opportunity to success. An example is the improvement of personal health, where public understanding of what constitutes a healthy lifestyle and the

development of people's competence to adjust their behavior accordingly are important components of a successful policy.

Another example relates to poverty (OECD, 2007). Analysis of social impact of education also reveals the complex interdependence of education and poverty. The complexity is due to the number of variables as well as the impact of external factors, such as culture, ethnology, etc. Education impacts demography, too. An obvious example is the impact of demography: ageing populations make more demands on healthcare and social services, so that education faces a potential squeeze in the face of shifting political priorities (OECD, 2007).

Education is mainly "responsible" for developing the values, outlook and behavior of an individual. So, social capital is also the result of education. Yet education has little to do with gender gaps, as women earn less on average in spite of their educational performance and attainment.

The developments in relation to diversity and migration, global warming, health risks and opportunities as people live longer, the changes in governance at the local and international level as well as a greater uncertainty about the future, the increase of the importance of the social role of education (OECD, 2007). The impact of education cannot be just the increase in income. Its effects can be both direct and indirect and one of the indirect effects was discussed above. It is crucial for policy makers to assess the outcomes of education, the social and economic effects and consider it in connection with all other factors of economic growth.

Conclusion

The engine of economic growth is not only the labor by itself and accumulation of capital, but also the quality of labor, the knowledge and the innovation. The positive impact of R&D on economic growth has been proved by many theorists. In this paper twelve results of high-income countries were analyzed which bring us to the following conclusions:

1. In high-income countries the expenditure on R&D has a negative correlation with unemployment rate in the long run.
2. The impact of education on unemployment rate is indirect or takes more than ten years to reflect the effects of investment in education.

Actually education has an indirect effect on unemployment rate, as education is on the base of the value chain and prepares professionals for labor market and R&D activities and the impact of R&D on unemployment rate is high.

The social outcomes of education are preparing individuals for the society and for labor market, developing their views and values, contributing to the development of human capital (education has a key role in this case), reducing poverty, fostering peace, etc.

The impact of education is not just the increase of income, but it has direct and indirect impacts on many spheres of economy and factors of economic growth as well. The effect can differ in volume and in content in different countries depending on their economic environment and policy. The latter is a matter of wide investigations and it is crucial for policy makers to analyze and find out the factors of economic growth that are strongly correlated with education and design the policy based on it.

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SECONDARY EDUCATION REFORMS IN THE REPUBLIC OF ARMENIA

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Abstract

The number of reforms that have been implemented in the field of secondary education in recent years is great, all of which are aimed to enhance and increase the quality and productivity of education and to develop a modern secondary education system, which will match with national and international development trends. The high school system and its further improvement is a great part of these reforms. In this research secondary education reforms and high school system problems have been discussed.

Key words: secondary education reforms, high school, sustainable educational system

Series of reforms in education have been implemented in recent years in the Republic of Armenia, all of which were aimed to improve the quality and efficiency of secondary education, as well as to make these reforms in correspondence with national and international trends of education system developments.

For developing and creating sustainable educational system in Armenia, since 2006-2007 academic year, according to the state secondary education standards of the Republic of Armenia, a 12-year secondary education is being implemented by the following levels.

1. primary school – 4 years (grades 1 to 4),
2. middle school (lower secondary) – 5 years (grades 5 to 9),
3. high school (upper secondary) - 3 years (grades 10 to 12).

A 12-year secondary education was needed due to a number of problems; particularly some of the subjects and the materials were too large, there was a great student work-load and non-compliance with the current requirements of the educational programs and more.

Secondary education goals are set for each of these three levels. Being free of charge, not all the levels of secondary education are compulsory - education in high school is not compulsory (The Law of RA on Education, adopted on 14 April, 1999, article 18, 7).

Now a huge part of the secondary education reforms are dedicated to the high school level modification (since 2008), which was due to the existing problems in high schools till 2008, particularly:

- the curricula were not flexible, they did not allow learners to fully satisfy their interests and make choices according to their preferences and needs,
- knowledge and skills necessary for university entrance were in non-compliance with school education,
- professional qualifications of teachers in high schools were not enough to ensure a quality education for high secondary schools. Middle and high school teachers were basically the same people. The qualification requirements for primary and high school teachers were the same. The high school teachers did not always have high professional qualifications.
- Some of the schools did not have enough pupils to have all the directions of study, but meanwhile, almost all the pupils were eager to continue their study in universities or vocational higher education institutions, therefore the school curriculum should allow students to get professional knowledge according to their preferences so they could continue the study process. This problem has been partly solved by ‘specialized’ (magnet) schools, but they did not manage to meet the demand.
- At all the levels of secondary education funding per student was the same. But the higher education level is, more funds are required.
- In high school, more than any other school levels, corruption risks were high.
- Most of the high schools were not implementing streaming study: economic, legal, art, military, sports and other streams of study (Strategic Plan of the Creation of High Schools System”, 2008, Protocol Session Decision N12 of the Government of RA).

Thus, it is clear that the mission of high schools was not initial vocational education and vocational guidance.

These problems were partially solved by separate high school system design. A system of separate high schools in the pilot phase of the preparatory works started on April 1, 2008 from a pre-selected 30 high schools, and began operation on September 1, 2008. The transition to the three-year high school and 12-year secondary education is presented in Table 1 made up by me.

Table 1. The transition to a three-year high school and to 12-year secondary education

| The actual duration of study Years of study | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|--|---|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---|----|----|----|----|
| 1999-2000 (10 years) | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000-2001 (10 years) | 1 | 2 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2001-2002 (11 years) | 1 | 2 | 3 | | | | | | | | | |
| 2002-2003 (11 years) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | | | | | | | | |
| 2003-2004 (11 years) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | | | | | |
| 2004-2005 (11 years) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | | | | | | |
| 2005-2006 (11 years) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | | | | |
| 2006-2007 Big group (11 years) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | | | | |
| 2006-2007 Small group (12 years) | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2007-2008 re-numbering | 1 | 3 2 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | | | |
| 2008-2009 | 1 | 2 | 4 3 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | | |
| 2009-2010 3-year high school | | 2 | 3 | 5 4 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | | |
| 2010-2011 no graduation | | | 3 | 4 | 6 5 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | | |
| 2011-2012 | | | | 4 | 5 | 7 6 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | |
| 2012-2013 | | | | | 5 | 6 | 8 7 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|--|--|--|--|--|---|---|--------|---------|----------|----------|----|
| 2013-2014 | | | | | | 6 | 7 | 9 8 | 10 | 11 | 12 | |
| 2014-2015 | | | | | | | 7 | 8 | 10 9 | 11 | 12 | |
| 2015-2016 | | | | | | | | 8 | 9 | 11 10 | 12 | |
| 2016-2017 | | | | | | | | | 9 | 10 | 12 11 | |
| 2017-2018 | | | | | | | | | | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| 2018-2019 | | | | | | | | | | | 11 | 12 |
| 2019-2020 | | | | | | | | | | | | 12 |

As you can see from the table, the shift to 12-year secondary education began in 2006-2007 academic year with the pre-selected small group. For this implementation classes were re-numbered – each class one class higher. The transition to a three-year high school was conducted from 2009-2010 academic year.

The establishment of a separate high school stage has a number of advantages and gives opportunities:

1. to concentrate the available resources and manage them more efficiently, which in turn allows:
 - to use differentiated approach to wage rates in high schools compared to primary school (at least 20% higher),
 - enough funding for high school activities.
 - to create resource centers (libraries, laboratories, etc.) in order to provide a high quality education in high schools.
2. to have qualified teachers/personnel, because a limited number of high schools gives an opportunity to train and organize professional development of teachers more effectively.
3. to create a streaming according to preferred direction for learners/pupils, to make educational programs more flexible, thus making it possible to respond to learners' learning preferences.
4. to promote links between high schools and higher educational institutions.

The high school system involving the 10-12 grades was established on the basis of the existing public schools, which were chosen by geographic location and the school building conditions, school equipment availability, by teachers' qualifications, involvement in school reform processes, successes and new initiatives, etc. In addition to this, the Government is now encouraging the establishment of private high schools, the programs and curricula of which have been approved by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Armenia.

Being in the process of development and improvement, the high school system has a number of problems today, including the most important – pupils' gross enrollment index (see Table 2).

Table 2. Pupils' gross enrollment index in the Republic of Armenia (%)

| Academic year | Total | Level of education | | |
|---------------|-------|--------------------|--------|------|
| | | primary | middle | high |
| 2008/2009 | 90.8 | 93.5 | 95.5 | 81.9 |
| 2009/2010 | 90.2 | 96.1 | 92.1 | 83.9 |
| 2010/2011 | 90.1 | 96.8 | 91.6 | 84.4 |
| 2011/2012 | 86.3 | 99.0 | 91.8 | 72.8 |
| 2012/2013 | 89.2 | 95.2 | 94.8 | 74.1 |

(The sources: Social Situation of the Republic of Armenia in 2008, pub: 01 September 2009, Social Situation of the Republic of Armenia in 2009, pub: 13 October 2010, Social Situation of the Republic of Armenia in 2010, pub: 04 October 2011, Social Situation of the Republic of Armenia in 2011, pub: 02 August 2012, Social Situation of the Republic of Armenia in 2012, pub: 15 August 2013)

According to the table data from 2008/2009 academic year to the 2012/2013 academic year the gross enrollment ratio in secondary education in Armenia decreased from 90.8% to 89.2% and the same in high school –from 81.9% decreased to 74.1%. In middle school the enrollment in 2012/2013 academic year was 94.8%, while in high school gross enrollment rate is much lower, 74.1%. Of course, at first glance, low rates concern, but we have to take into account the fact that approximately 10% of middle school alumni, continue their study

in the initial and continuing vocational educational institutions, in other words, the low level of involvement in high school is not necessarily an evidence of interrupting the study process. The gross enrollment ratio in high schools is set by the 2011-2015 State Program of Education Development of RA to be 95% until 2015 (Law of RA on Endorsement of 2011-2015 State Program of Education Development of RA, 2011: article 82).

The above problems, as well as the 12-year secondary education and a separate high school system identified for improvement in several areas in 2011-2015 State Program of Education Development of the Republic of Armenia (Law of RA on Endorsement of 2011-2015 State Program of Education Development of RA, 2011, article 82):

- Provide designing of new education curricula and publication of textbooks.
- Establish monitoring and continuous improvement mechanisms for subject standards and curricula.
- Introduce learners' multifactor assessment forms and methods for knowledge, skills and abilities assessment.
- Improve school graduation and university entrance exams unified system.
- Provide trainings for teachers.
- Provide streaming training in compliance with learners' preferences and needs.
- Create modern libraries (resource centers) with the necessary furniture, equipment and electronic books.
- Have a high school education in various streams for educational complexes.

Conclusion

Secondary education sector has been undergoing major reforms by now and the process of transformation is not yet complete. Still there should be done other reforms as well, especially in management direction, so that all the aspects of secondary education can be reviewed and developed. In my opinion, further improvement and development of secondary education in the Republic of Armenia will significantly affect on learners'

professional education, knowledge, abilities and skills for independent life and, ultimately, on the quality of education.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES IN MULTICULTURAL ACADEMIC SETTINGS

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Abstract

In the twenty first century education faces a complex array of alternatives concerning what it might become. The primary question that must be faced by all leaders in the field of curriculum is what the role of education in multicultural academic settings is and what the purpose of academic institutions is as it relates to the changing society. Curriculum in general is reviewed as a body of knowledge to be transmitted and as a process of an attempt to achieve certain product in students. The paper is going to emphasize the importance of extracurricular activities for academic success and integration in a multicultural academic environment. In order to support the view point expressed throughout the article I conducted a mini research at the International Black Sea University and presented the attitudes of the students of English Philology program at the faculty of Education and Humanities, concerning the role of extracurricular activities at IBSU in creating a multicultural academic environment.

Key words: extracurricular activities, multicultural academic settings

Introduction

Living in a global economy where the economic health of a nation depends on the educational health of academic institutions, one of the large concerns of the country remains a competitive workforce (Eisner, 1995).

Due to the student population and society changes, revised goals and objectives of educational institutions, significance of certain subjects, new evaluation systems, new teaching materials and methods, and world trends such as globalization, the curriculum is being continuously modified.

Recently, educational institutions worldwide have emphasized a broad mission: the development of the 'whole student' (State University.com, n.d.). Researches highlight the importance of extracurricular activities in fulfilling this mission, especially in multicultural settings.

The focal point of extracurricular activities is the individual student level, the institutional level, and the broader community level. These activities balance the academic curriculum and increase the student's educational experience (State University.com, n.d.).

Extracurricular activities are provided by academic institutions to give students opportunities to learn and develop outside of the typical classroom setting. These experiences help students develop self-confidence in a safe, encouraging environment. Extracurricular activities are essential for any student, especially to those who live and/or study in multicultural settings.

Such activities focus on increasing awareness and understanding of various cultures and ethnic and racial backgrounds. Many schools sponsor festivals, concerts, lectures, and discussions that promote multicultural awareness on campus in which students may participate. In addition, involvement in these activities may be an important step toward a positive racial and ethnic identity development.

Participation in any of extracurricular activities develops students' self-respect, self-esteem, and self-confidence, which encourages them to accomplish successfully their academic and social goals. The experience of success provides the students with a high spirit and they are ready to learn everything they are given. They become more energetic and inspired by the adrenaline obtained and it helps them to study.

Such activities are beneficial for students in terms of helping them to get acquainted with time management. By attending sport clubs, volunteer work, and music lessons students develop social, emotional, and healthy behavior. Extracurricular activities, whether they include joining a sports team, working on a student newspaper or becoming active in a student botany club, all offer students a chance to hone the soft skills that employers look for in potential employees. These skills include leadership, decision making, relationship building, communicating with others, organization, responsibility, problem solving, team work, independence and maturity. These are skills that are best learned by doing, and students who were active in extracurricular activities can demonstrate that they had a chance to practice all of these and more on a regular basis.

Team work in contemporary society which is a global village is difficult to imagine without some multicultural basis, that is why multicultural events that are part of extracurricular work are so important.

Extracurricular activities create the environment which is usually quite nurturing and supportive as students are there through choice and not through law or need. Certain subjects may involve challenges and teamwork all of which go toward building students' character and making them stronger (CVTips, n.d.).

Extracurricular activities are an effective way to network and meet other people with whom students can study. It teaches students to work in teams and work cooperatively, to obtain skills that will help them be successful in school and attain jobs in the future. Such activities help students to understand that work requires a great degree of honesty, integrity and responsibility which all together benefit for their future carrier (Hollrah, n.d.).

Context

The International Black Sea University represents a good example of multicultural academic institutions; it actively practices extracurricular activities that are in compliance with the university mission and the academic curriculum. The International Black Sea University was founded in April 28, 1995, with the joint efforts of Turkish organizations and firms, like Chaglar Educational Institutions and Mars, and the Georgian Ministry of Education and the Government of Dusheti². The primary goal of the University is to enhance peace and dialogue between the youth of Turkey, Georgia and other nations of the world, to train qualified work force and to accomplish a broad mission of worldwide educational institutions: the creation of the 'whole student.' The students at this university are from about 15 different countries. Such a multicultural environment enables the students to improve understanding and toleration of different cultures, which, simultaneously, helps them to integrate in globalized world. The great importance is given to extracurricular activities as to the tool, linking academic knowledge with practical experience, which leads to a better understanding of their own abilities, talents, and career goals. In addition, students' involvement in extracurricular activities positively impacts students, motivates them, helps them feel at home at the university, and promotes the attainment of educational goals. The university practices extracurricular activities like sport, music, and national and international dance clubs. Sport clubs give the chance to students to become the part of a team with the result of increased motivation and attainment of team work skills. Students involved in music

² a town in Georgia

and dance activities are often better adjusted, have an increased academic performance, and think more creatively.

The university holds the annual charity event in which students' participation is very active. They organize exhibition-fairs of hand-made crafts, souvenirs, home-made international cuisine and the earned money, as well as presents are given to orphanages, old folk's houses and charity organizations.

In the multicultural dialog at our university the major role is obtained by the cultural exchange programs and social activities. The university provides regular trips, some trainings for students in different parts of Turkey and Georgia. Students visit different cities with summer educational programs and accommodate in local families with the aim of becoming well- acquainted with different traditions, which later is reflected positively in relations with their group-mates. Social activities, like excursions, contests, etc., bring together not only students from the same departments, but involve all the students and academic personnel of the university.

Method

To show the attitudes of the students of international Black Sea University, I held a mini- research (questionnaire survey) among the students of the Faculty of Education and Humanities, the English Philology Bachelor program. The goal of this mini-research was to depict the multicultural academic environment at IBSU and its influence on student's educational process. The research also aimed to identify students' preferences about the academic environment at the university and their attitudes towards the importance of extracurricular activities in educational success.

The instrument of my mini-research was the questionnaire which was composed on the bases of the methods of data collection taking into consideration the main 15 principles of questionnaire construction. The questionnaire items matched my research objectives. I did my best to make questions clear, precise, and relatively short. Piloting questionnaires is vital for the project success, as otherwise they do not come out fully-fledged. The informal piloting with my colleagues tested the questionnaires for reliability, validity and errors. Through piloting I made sure that there were no ambiguous, double-barreled or leading questions and that the posed questions adequately addressed research objectives and no mistakes were left

unnoticed. The questionnaires were distributed among 51 students of the International Black Sea University, the Faculty of Humanities, the English Philology BA program.

Types of questions mainly are close-ended. A ten-point rating scale was used for gathering attitudinal information. The response choices had an equal number of negative and positive options with an exception of the neutral mid-point. The scale is rated from very low (1) to very high (10), the neutral mid-point on the scale is number 5.

The questionnaire consisted of 7 questions. The first two questions are general questions to identify the academic year of the student at the university and the type (mono-cultural or multicultural) of high school they graduated from. The other four questions aimed to illustrate the core issues of the mini research.

The participants of the research were students of different academic years. The first question revealed that the questionnaires were completed by 19 sophomore, 19 junior and 13 senior students of the English Philology program.

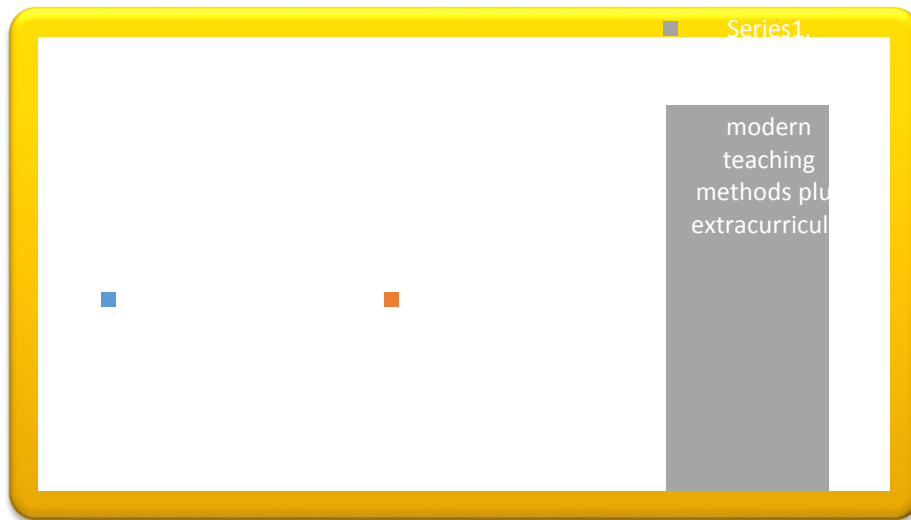
The responses to the second question showed that 44 students (86%) were graduates of mono-cultural high schools, while 7 students (14%) - of multicultural high schools. The evidence proves that most of the students have not had any experience in obtaining education in multicultural settings and the university was their first case in such an environment.

Figure 1.1. Response Statistics of Question 2



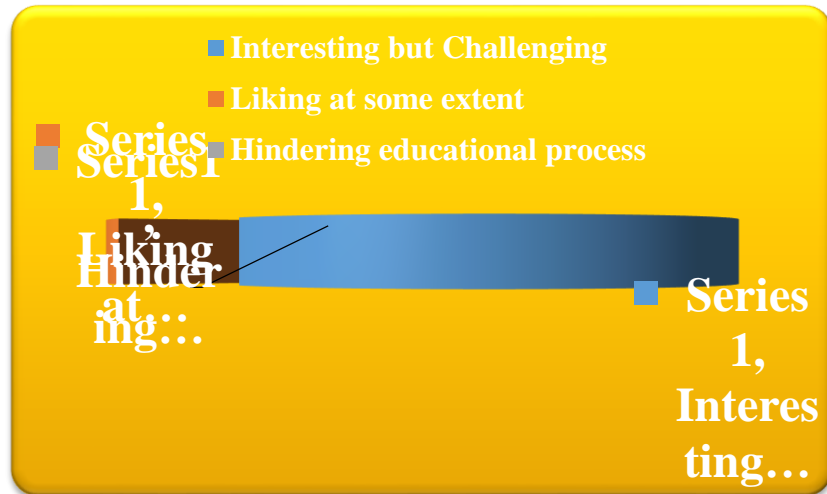
To depict the awareness of the students about academic environment at IBSU (to what degree it is multicultural), they were asked the following question: What kind of academic environment do you have at International Black Sea University from the point of view of variety of cultures? Respondents appeared fully introduced to the multicultural academic environment at IBSU.

Figure 1.2. Response Statistics of Question 3: Multicultural academic environment at IBSU



The following question – “How do you assess IBSU multicultural academic environment for your educational process?” aimed to elicit participants’ attitudes. The results revealed that 67% finds it interesting, but challenging, 21% like it to some extent, 12% think that such an academic environment hinders their educational process. These results shed the light to the general information of the participants. As question two has revealed, most of the respondents were graduates of mono-cultural high schools. Even though they study at multicultural university and are fully surrounded with an appropriate academic environment for their success, presumably, some of them still are influenced by mono-cultural high school settings and cannot fully succeed in their education at the university.

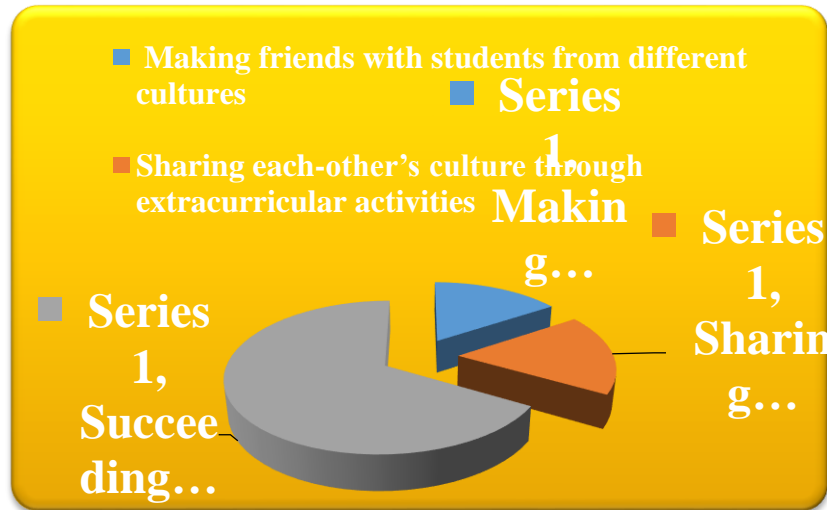
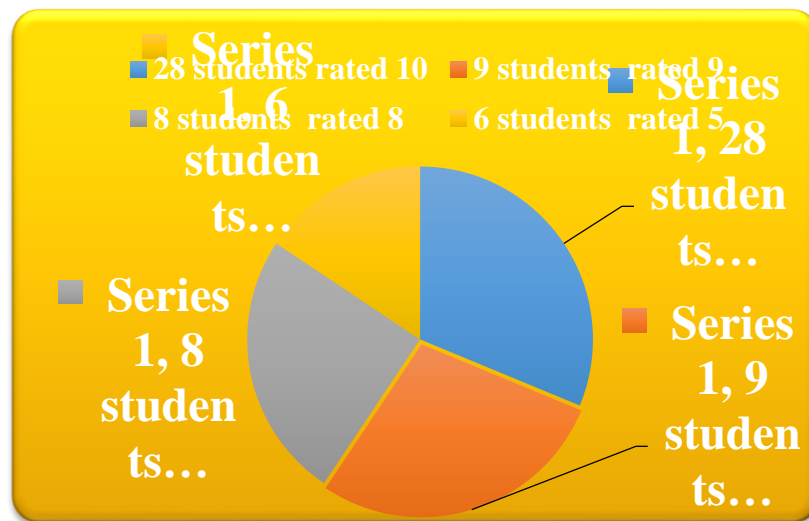
Figure 1.3. Response Statistics of Question 4: IBSU Multicultural academic environment’s impact on students’ educational process



When posed with the question – “What do you like most about the multicultural academic environment at the International Black Sea University?” - 67% of participants responded that they like succeeding in educational process through modern teaching styles and extracurricular activities. 17% are mostly satisfied with sharing each-other’s culture through extracurricular activities and 16 % -mostly appreciate making friends with students from different cultures (figure 1.4).

As the curriculum plays an essential role in the educational process and the knowledge-based approach - on appropriate and high-standard schooling, it helps students to integrate in multicultural environment and succeed in academic achievements. I considered it vital to elicit the respondents’ viewpoints concerning the role of extracurricular activities in integration and academic success at the International Black Sea University. The respondents were given the following question to answer – “In addition to modern teaching methods, to what extent do extracurricular activities help you to integrate in IBSU multicultural environment and succeed in educational process?”

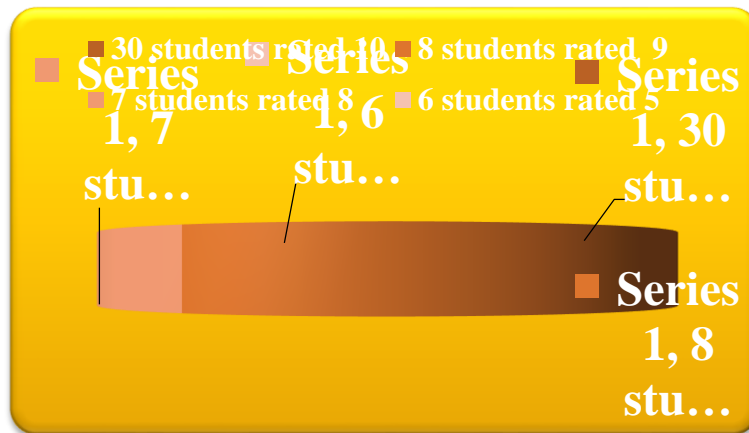
A numerical scale was provided to indicate the extent of this process. 31% of participants selected number 10 on the numerical scale of 10 as the highest average of positive answers and number 5 was the indicator of the neutral scale selected by 16% of respondents. The majority of the students (totally 84%) highly assessed the the role of extracurricular activities in integration and academic success at International Black Sea University (with 8 to10 points).

Figure 1.4. Response Statistics of Question 5: Major aspects of multicultural education**Figure 1.5. Response Statistics of Question 6: The respondents' attitude towards the extracurricular events at the university**

The following question aimed to elicit to which extent International Black Sea University students would recommend other international universities to integrate extracurricular activities in their multicultural academic environment. They were provided again with the 10-points numerical scale to indicate the extent of recommendation. The

respondents revealed their recommendation by selecting mostly high figures on the scale. Totally 84% answered they would highly recommend extracurricular activities as the part of multicultural academic environment. And 16% provided a neutral answer. It is worth mentioning, that, though some students still are under the influence of mono-cultural high school settings and believe that their success in the educational process is to some degree hindered by multicultural environment, they still recommend extracurricular activities in multicultural academic settings. This evidence gives us the right to conclude that those students, somehow, might still develop a more positive attitude towards extracurricular activities in the future and consider it as the tool to attain academic success.

Figure 1.6. Response Statistics of Question 7



Conclusion

The analysis of literature as well as the results of the mini-survey support the idea concerning the importance of extracurricular activities in multicultural academic settings. But it is also essential that the extracurricular activities are not too abundant and thus do not interfere with students' academic process. Besides, lecturers should be also involved in the activities and contribute to giving the desirable directions to them. They should also check from time to time if their students actively involved in extracurricular activities do not do it at the expense of the quality of learning. Moreover, extracurricular activities can and should support the curriculum by providing corresponding experiences and broadening the basic knowledge to be acquired at academic institutions.

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TEACHER PREPARATION PROCESS FOR AN ENGLISH LESSON IN PRIMARY SCHOOL

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Abstract

The paper is dedicated to teacher preparation for an English lesson in the primary school, which is shown as a multi-step and complex procedure. In order to implement the teaching-educational process successfully, a teacher must regularly enrich her/his knowledge in linguistics, psychology, psycholinguistics, didactics, contemporary educational technologies, and foreign languages teaching methods. Such stages as analyzing the previous lesson, setting the goals and the ways to achieve them, developing activities, analyzing and modifying, if needed, the materials offered by the textbook, finding or making adequate visual aids, choosing and checking the technology, etc. are discussed.

Key words: teacher preparation for the lesson, teaching English in primary school, lesson planning, learner age peculiarities, games

Some people, even including specialists, believe that teaching English (or another foreign language) at primary school is easy: just show some objects and tell their names and teach a couple of poems and songs – this is all. However, nobody, luckily imagines that being kids' doctor is easier than to cure older patients. In reality teaching primary school children is also not less responsible or easier than teaching older learners, and it demands a serious preparation. During the teacher preparation process, a teacher must take into consideration the requirements of the modern lesson.

- It is vital to consider the age and individual peculiarities of learners while preparing the presentation of the material and organizing the material implementation. The activities must correspond to the natural activities of the particular age group (namely, an appropriate part of the lesson shall be allocated for the games), and the visual

materials should be applied extensively considering the learners' perception characteristics.

- A foreign language lesson must be active and communicative; for this purpose, a friendly psychological atmosphere should be created, the communicative type of activities should be applied and the learners should be encouraged to communicate in the target language.
- The lesson shall combine the practical, educational, development, and teaching goals.
- The lesson shall develop the language and speaking skills (develop the phonetic, lexical and grammatical components through listening, speaking, reading and writing).
- Technical and traditional teaching means and the major supplementary aids should be used rationally.

In order to implement the teaching-educational process successfully, a teacher must regularly enrich her/his knowledge in linguistics, psychology, psycholinguistics, didactics, contemporary educational technologies, and foreign languages teaching methods. The teacher should get acquainted with the learners' personal profiles, registers, learners' parents, the programs in other subjects, etc. It is essential that the teacher be well aware of the requirements of the foreign language program and teaching methodology.

There are some important points for teachers to plan and apply the process of learning-teaching effectively. These can be summarized as follows: developing and applying the student-centered activities which consider the method of association in lessons and care about the student's interests, needs and motivation and offer technology effectively and support cooperation (Bukova-Güzel, A. & Alkan, H., 2005; Kiroğlu, K., 2006; Pesen, C., 2005).

After conducting the preliminary preparation, the teacher must start preparing for the lesson itself. She/he must analyze all her/his previous lessons, identify the problems encountered during the classes and think of possible solutions in order to consider them during the preparation process of the next lesson and try not to make the same strategic

mistakes again. Analyzing the learners' mistakes enables a teacher to focus on the issues characterizing a particular class and a learner.

During planning a new lesson, firstly, the teacher should identify the practical aim of the lesson that is expressed in the skills to develop, topic of the lesson and leading activities.

The second stage of lesson planning is the analysis of the learning material and tasks given in the course book, identification of anticipated problems and coming up with the possible solutions. The same material (e.g., by using the visuals and synonyms) can be explained differently and the same exercise can be held in a modified way (e.g., as a game or a traditional exercise) considering the group composition and some other aspects (e.g., which lesson is English on that day; what was the previous lesson and which will be the next). If the previous lesson was sports there is no need to hold games requiring much movement, and, vice versa, if the previous lesson was a math test, this will certainly be a good idea. On the other hand, if this is the first class during the day, students will need warm-up activities, charging them with energy, but if it is the last lesson, students would like better some table games.

The sequence of the activities and time management during the lesson is crucial since it reveals the principle of sequence and availability and the priority tasks of the lesson. If the principle "from easy to difficult" is disrupted in the course book (unfortunately it is quite frequent), the teacher should change the tasks' sequence and must not follow blindly the order which the course book proposes. The teacher, on the one hand, should have the at-hand supply of some additional activities and supplementary material linked with the material under study that she/he will use if the compulsory material has been completed too quickly. On the other hand, the teacher must know which activities and exercises, if not fulfilled at the lesson, will affect the lesson goal, if the time budget is not sufficient (in order not to omit them, but to drop out something less important).

The last, but not the least stage of lesson planning (as the English saying goes) is selection of the teaching means (e.g. putting the new vocabulary on the board or a poster, using realia, pictures and video materials as visual aids, etc.). A modern teacher is quite indulged in this respect, as she/he has a variety of authentic materials at her disposal:

apart from the British Council library in Tbilisi available for all the English teachers, in several Georgian cities there are libraries founded by the British and the Americans, as well as language centers and resource centers which take pride in a variety of materials and abundance. A teacher-student cooperation in creating the learning materials is remarkable as well.

Writing a lesson plan by a teacher is one of the most important moments of the lesson planning process. Moreover, the modern teaching methodology books suggest producing a detailed analysis of each lesson.

For inexperienced teachers (who do not have at least 2-3 year teaching experience in a particular classroom), a lesson plan should be detailed, while for experienced teachers writing a formal lesson plan often is not necessary, it is just sufficient for them to think of the major stages of the lesson. There are different formal schemata of the lesson plan. For example:

- lesson goal
- topic of the lesson
- new vocabulary and / or grammar
- reading/listening text(texts);
- tasks to be done, role plays to be created,
- educational technologies involved (e.g., slide show or Smart Board applied)
- time “budget” (considering the modern requirements, the time allocated for teacher talking and learners’ talking time, for the benefit of the latter),
- the lesson structure (organizational stage, checking the homework, explaining new material, revision of the learned material)
- homework

Although for experienced teachers such formality is probably an excess, it still has a significant positive effect, in particular, the plan simplifies the assessment of the conducted lesson and makes it easy to adjust the further work.

The particular lesson shall not be considered as an isolated unit. While preparing the lesson, a teacher must remember that a lesson is a part of the foreign language teaching

system, therefore, the interconnection between the skills and the material learned at the previous lessons shall be provided.

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WHY WE NEED TO EMPLOY CONTEMPORARY ALTERNATIVES IN ELT INSTEAD OF TRADITIONAL COURSE-BOOKS

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Abstract

The role of course-books has been questioned by modern-day learners thereby that is step by step going to be a major issue for the field of ELT. This paper emphasizes the role of course-books in detail in terms of their methodology and content. The paper also reviews the course-book selection criteria to determine their role. Within this vein, a qualitative study, based on interviews with 60 Turkish intensive English Program students, reveals the need of alternatives to traditional textbooks.

Key Words: alternative teaching, course-books, course-book evaluation, ELT textbooks

Introduction

Course-books have been an indispensable part of language education with the innumerable ELT preparatory classes at universities, private schools, and state schools. Consequently, in both teaching and learning encounters, course-books have been used by teachers and students. The course-book is still there, but its future with the developments in technology and differences in student and teacher autonomy have started to challenge the educational procedure. It is significant to have a look at course-books and check whether they are adequate in terms of methodology and content.

Cunningworth (1995:7) states the roles of course-books as a resource, a source of activities, a reference source, a syllabus, a resource for self-access-work and a support for less experienced teachers. Teachers basically prefer to use course-books since it is hard to develop their own materials, as that process is time-consuming. Teachers may not have the qualification or creativity to do so, either. Since teachers have limited time, textbooks decrease lesson preparation time and provide concrete samples and actives. But this option neglects the below issues which were stated by Inal (2006:19-29):

a) Students have little or no role or involvement in book selection process.

- b) Curricula do not meet the language learners' practical needs in the classroom.
- c) Teachers are not properly trained on how to choose, adapt, evaluate and use their textbooks.

These three cases reveal the problem of course-books' selection. Hartley (1994:163) addresses 3 aspects to be considered:

- a) Does the book meet the teaching objectives?
- b) Is there sufficient depth and width of material?
- c) Will it need to be supplemented?

Garinger (2001) also gives the same factors under two categories, first one is practical considerations:

- a) availability and value
- b) layout/physical characteristics
- c) Cultural component

The second category is language-related considerations:

- a) skills
- b) language
- c) exercises
- d) user definition.

Finally, Harmer states the questions to consider in Table 1.

Table 1. Criteria of textbook selection

| Area | Questions to consider |
|-----------------|--|
| 1- Price | How expensive is the textbook? Can students afford it? Will they have to buy an accompanying workbook? Can they afford both? What about the teacher, can he or she pay for the teacher's book and tapes? |

| | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| 2- Availability | Is the course available? Are all its components (student's book, teacher's book, workbook, etc.) in the shops now? What about the next level (for the next term/semester)? Has it been published? Is it available? What about tapes, videos, etc.? |
| 3- Layout and Design | Is the book attractive? Does the teacher feel comfortable with it? Do the students like it? How user-friendly is the design? Does it get in the way of what the book is trying to do or does it enhance it? |
| 4- Methodology | What kind of teaching and learning does the book promote? Can teachers and students build appropriate ESA (engagement, study and activation) sequences from it? Is there a good balance between Study and Activation? |
| 5- Skills | Does the book cover the four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) adequately? Is there a decent balance between the skills? Are there opportunities for both Study and Activation in the skills work? Is the language of the reading and listening texts appropriate? Are the speaking and writing tasks likely to engage the student's interest? |
| 6- Syllabus | Is the syllabus of the book appropriate for your students? Does it cover the language points you would expect? Are they in the right order? Do the reading and listening texts increase in difficulty as the book progresses? |
| 7- Topic | Does the book contain a variety of topics? Are they likely to engage the student's interest? Does the teacher respond to them well? Are they culturally appropriate for the students? Are they too adult or too childish? |
| 8- Stereotyping | Does the book represent people and situations in a fair and equal way? Are various categories of people treated equally? Is there a stereotyping of certain nationalities? Does the book display conscious or unconscious racism or sexism? |
| 9- Teacher's Guide | Is there a good teacher's guide? Is it easy to use? Does it have all the answers teacher might need? Does it offer alternatives to lesson |

procedures? Does it contain a statement of intention which the teacher and students feel happy with?

Harmer, J. (1998). How to teach English. Essex, Addison Wesley Longman: 118-119)

Since there are many and different items to monitor in each checklist, it becomes too complicated for teachers. Moreover, Cunningsworth (1984: 6) indicates that “No course book will be totally suited to a particular teaching situation. The teacher will have to find his own way of using it and adapting it if necessary. So we should not be looking for the perfect course book which meets all our requirements, but rather for the best possible fit between what the course book offers and what we as teachers and students need,”

Despite the fact that there is a great number of studies on course-book evaluation, only a few papers focus on teacher and student autonomy and these two's correlations.

Selecting course-books is generally entrusted to teachers and head of the language departments. Teachers naturally tend to use the book they like (Davies & Pearse, 2000:135). It is teacher who decides what students will most probably need and like. But s/he may not know well enough his/her (potential) students.

Method

Purpose of the Study

This paper emphasizes the role of course-books in terms of their methodology and content. The paper also reviews the course-book selection criteria. The primary aim of this study is to examine young adult learners' opinions about the course-books they are taught with. Students' oral responses were collected for the following questions:

- 1) What course-books have you been exposed to throughout your foreign language education? Did you like them?
- 2) What are the pros and cons of these books?
- 3) What do you think about current books?
- 4) Compare and contrast them with your old course-books.
- 5) What do you think about course-books with extra materials (CDs, interactive materials, etc.)?

- 6) In your opinion, what instruments should be used for education - with course-books or without course-books?

Participants and Instrument

The purpose of this study is to reveal role of course-books in contemporary foreign language context. In order to gather the data about students' conceptions on the question: 'Skills for Success Listening and Speaking' and 'question: Skills for Success Reading and writing', student interviews were held by researcher. A total of 60 participants, 40 A2 level students and 20 B1 level students took part in the study. Among the participants, 42 were males and the remaining 18 were females and also they were between 18-25 years old. The students who took part in this study were all Intensive English Program students studying at International Black Sea University.

Discussion and conclusion

The analysis of the oral responses showed that students have used on average 10 books for language education. Learners (68%) clearly expressed that books in general have more cons than pros. On the other hand, students' answers revealed that the majority of the students (72%) did not like the books which they have used, and they found them boring and teacher-centered. They clearly pointed out that they do not want to read from course-books and fulfill the exercises from these course-books. Additionally, they did not want to open their course-books when they went home since they found the book stifling.

Many students (63%) also indicate that the given units from time to time contain not up-to-date topics. Many students expressed desire to use contemporary reading and listening materials from the Internet. They want to practice learned language in real-life context. They would like to communicate people from various countries with the help of the language they acquire. They would like to use Internet (chat, blogs, Skype) for that.

The findings of this paper are stimulating for education officials and teachers who think they know what is best and useful for their students to become more student-centered. The students in this study were between 18-24 years old, and it can be assumed that at this age they are conscious, mature and rational enough to decide on what is appropriate for their personal development and identity.

Even when the learners are the target group for the course-book selected, the possibility for students to make some choices of reading/listening texts, speaking/writing topics, activities would make them much more motivated to learn. Research showed that there is a great need for course-book alternatives in language classrooms. Really communicative and integrated materials are needed. Student responses and global developments reveal the need of digital solutions instead of or at least added to traditional course-books.

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THE INFLUENCE OF EDUCATIONAL REFORMS ON THE INTERNATIONAL TRENDS OF STUDENTS' MOBILITY

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Abstract

This paper will examine the current trends within international student mobility, focusing on the forecasts for future growth and the development of the international trade in education in the framework of higher educational reforms. Since the late 1990s, cooperation among European countries has substantially intensified undertaking similar higher education reforms. As a result, it is supposed within the framework of Bologna Process, that restructuring of the higher education system into the new Bachelor-Master system and various accompanying measures should help to increase worldwide student mobility. The aim of the paper is to enable greater understanding of the social, economic and political effects of student mobility for both donor and recipient countries.

Key words: internationalization of higher education, knowledge, Bologna Process, student mobility, outbound (outgoing) mobility, inbound (ingoing) mobility, higher education institutions

Introduction

In statistical studies the internationalization of higher education is often linked to the development of academic mobility as a reflection of exporting educational services.

There used to be two major zones in worldwide higher education and science: North America, and Western Europe and the United Kingdom. After 1970 Japan was added as the outrider. Now there are three such zones. After the 1970s, the higher education was widespread throughout the world. In 2009 the total amount of higher education student worldwide reached to about 165 million, which is the five-fold of the 1970s and the three-fold of the 1980s indicators (Chien and Kot, 2012).

Growth trends are also noticeable in the case of cross-border higher education, which is characterized by the movements of people (students, professors, scholars, researchers,

experts and consultants), programs (training, educational programs and qualifications) beyond national borders.

Educational reforms and student mobility

In the globalizing world the search for new knowledge ideally is not limited by borders and universities are more international in scope than most other organizations.

The Knowledge Economy means that an effective higher education system is integral to the success of a country's economy, as knowledge is an essential resource providing countries with competitive advantage and a means for economic advancement. The attention of governments has, therefore, focused on the potential economic value of higher education not just in terms of educating their own populations, but also as a resource, to be traded on the world market for profit (Fernandes, 2005). Both governments of donor and recipient countries and individual higher education institutions are interested in this, as the export and import of higher education services has a significant impact on the economic growth both in exporting (donor) and importing (recipient) countries.

There are a variety of motivations for donor countries and the individual students studying abroad. Anyway, the major factor for individual students is the perceived value of the foreign degree and related career advancement. The competitive advantage of the Western education system is the learner-centered style of teaching (instead of traditional teacher-centered learning).

Mobile students are certainly divided into three different groups:

- ✓ Mobile students from low-income and middle-income countries moving mostly for degree-study to an economically advanced or high-income country and a matured higher education system.
- ✓ Mobile students from economically advanced or high-income countries moving for degree study to another economically advanced country.
- ✓ Temporarily mobile students within economically and academically advanced countries.

In general, mobility from economically and academically less favored countries to economically and academically more favored countries, or the so-called "Vertical mobility",

is undertaken mostly for the whole degree programs, mostly in fields of study which as a rule lead to a relatively higher income for graduates. Many vertically mobile students aim to get employed in the host country of study or in another economically advanced country, but often this tends to be deplored by their country of origin as “brain drain”.

As for the degree-mobile students within economically advanced countries, the percentage of these students is higher among doctoral and master students. In many instances, students go to another country being attracted by the academic reputation of the host institution. In contrast, quite a number of studies have been undertaken about temporary mobility within Europe. For instance, the ERASMUS program is known as the world-largest program for the support of temporary student mobility.

Traditionally, international statistics have provided information about foreign students and study abroad; these data do not reflect the real volume of the student mobility, are weak approximations for student mobility because a substantial proportion of foreign students in various European countries have not been mobile for the purpose of study, but rather had already lived and been educated in the country of study. In reverse, some students have lived and learned in another country prior to study and moved to the country of their citizenship for the purpose of study. At the same time, the available international statistics do not offer any distinction between “degree-mobile” or “diploma-mobile” students (those intending to study a whole study program abroad) and “temporarily mobile”, “short-term mobile” or “credit-mobile” students (those intending to study abroad for one semester or for a somewhat longer time-span within a study program) (Teichler, 2012).

In 2009, when the ministers in charge of higher education formulated in the Leuven Communiqué that an intra-European student mobility quota of 20% should be reached by 2020, they did not provide any definition of the quota. But obviously, they envisaged that in the minority of cases students would spend the whole program and in the majority of cases one or more short periods of one or two semesters during the overall course of their study. Therefore, it can be difficult to establish whether the event of temporary mobility during the course of study has increased in the Bologna Process (The Bologna Process 2020, 2009).

According to an overview on recent graduate surveys in ten European countries, clearly more than 20% of students in the Netherlands and in Austria spend at least a semester of

study in another country. In Germany, 16% of the graduates from bachelor programmes, 17% from master programmes and 19% of single-cycle programmes at universities have studied at least a semester in another country (Schomburg and Teichler, 2011).

According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics data, in 2010 the 3,572,840 students received their education in abroad (Global Education Digest, 2012), the number of outbound mobile students by the regions of origin, as well as their global distribution by the centers of gravity are represented in the charts 1 and 2.

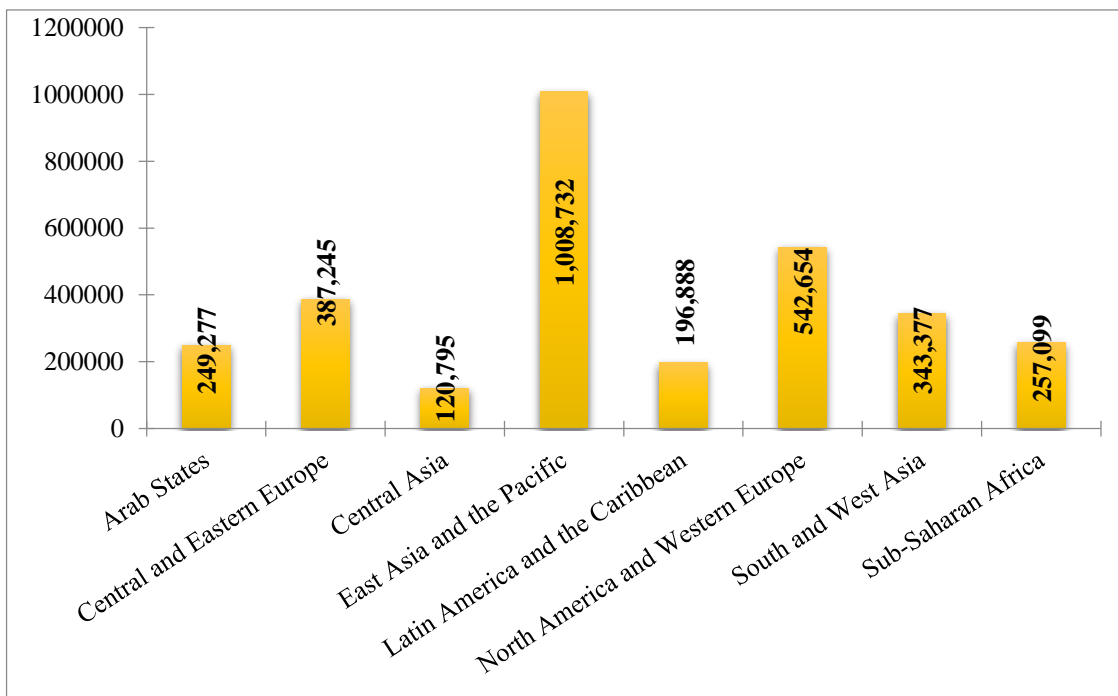


Chart 1.

Internationally mobile students by region of origin

(Global Education Digest, 2012: 132-135)

Countries of East Asia and the Pacific distinguish with the largest number of outgoing mobile students in the world (see Chart 1.). More than 28.2% of students traveling around the world come from the mentioned region, while around 58% (or 2,060,749 students) of ingoing mobile students prefer to study in the educational institutions of North America and Western Europe (see Chart 2). At the same time, educational institutions of the South and West Asia are less attractive for foreign students.

So, it is possible to make reasonable conclusions regarding the competitiveness of educational systems in individual regions and countries, based on the study of the international flows of educational services.

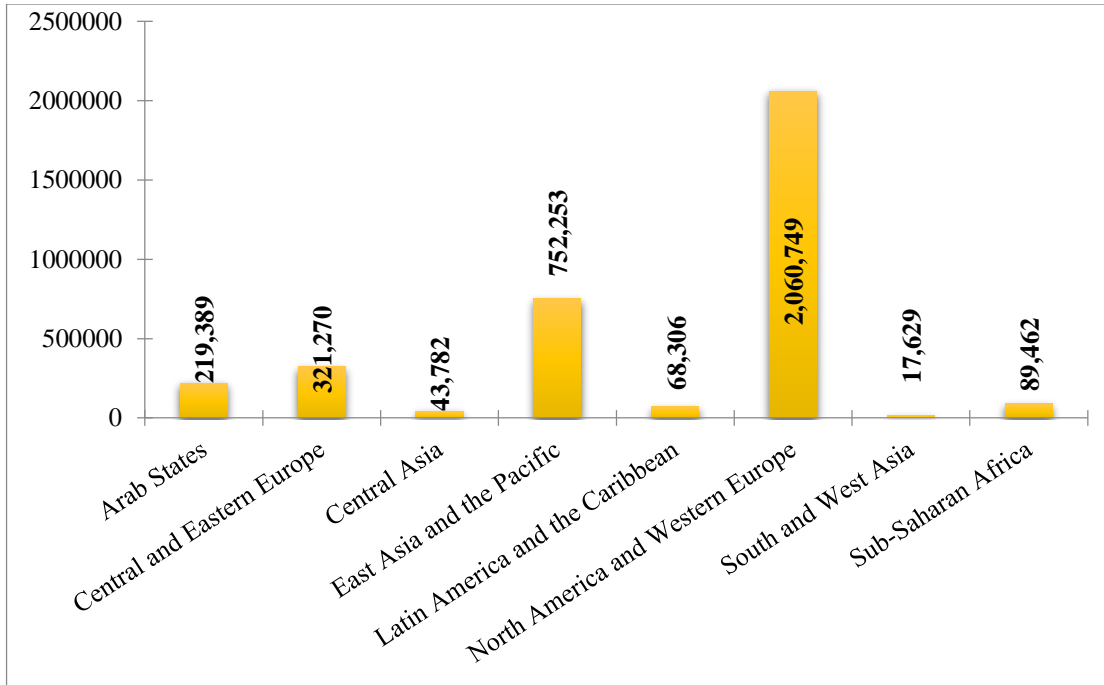


Chart 2.

Internationally mobile students by host region

(Global Education Digest, 2012: 132-135)

Almost 57.7 percent (or 2 million) of the world's more than 3.5 million students studying abroad for higher education are enrolled in leading universities of North America and Western Europe. Naturally, this region is distinguished by a higher coefficient of inbound mobility: inbound mobility coefficient is 5.6 % in North America and Western Europe, in the case when the global average rate of the inbound mobility coefficient is equal to 2 %. In the Republic of Armenia the inbound mobility coefficient is 2.6%, which exceeds the world average.

Inbound mobility ratio shows the total number of foreign students studying in higher education institutions in this country in the total number of higher education students, expressed as percentage.

According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, the number of internationally mobile

students worldwide amounted to \$ 1.1 million in 1980. That number was growing at pace, reaching 1.3 million in 1990, while in 2009 the number of internationally mobile students worldwide tripled, exceeding the threshold of 3.4 million (Chien and Kot, 2012.)

According to some projections, by 2020, the total number of mobile students will reach to 8 million (Altbach, 2006) and this figure may even be underestimated, because it covers only the number of foreign students studying in institutions and does not include other forms of students mobility, such as, short-term exchange programs.

Conclusion

Obviously, study abroad is still viewed as an exceptional period of rich experience which might be as well helpful for career enhancement in the various countries in Central and Eastern Europe as well as some South-Eastern European countries. Therefore, according to the statistical data reviewed, the aim recently formulated within the Bologna Process that 20% of students should spend all or a period of study in a foreign country, seems to be already realized in some Western European countries and is likely to be achieved in some other countries in the near future.

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CONCEPTUALIZING ENTREPRENEURIAL UNIVERSITIES FROM THE GEORGIAN PERSPECTIVE – LEGAL FRAMEWORK AND ITS IMPLICATIONS

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Since Adam Smith's 'invisible hand' saw light as a market self-regulatory framework, the theory has gained momentum to breed market-oriented approaches embracing not only business and production, but also almost all major fields of service provision within public and private sector. What it means for the field of education, and higher education in particular, is that market-driven policies are extensively employed by the governments to deal with issues in education provision. Educational institutions have to operate as revenue-seeking companies to survive on the market. This tendency has actually been shaping universities into entrepreneurial institutions in recent couple of decades, and through policy borrowing and landing process business-like principles have been introduced into the Georgian context as well. This research intends to look at the Georgian educational legislation in order to reflect on the legal framework which regulates the performance of Georgian higher educational institutions on the education market.

Key words: entrepreneurial university, legal framework, education market, higher education institutions, measurable learning outcomes, knowledge-based society

Introduction

Since Adam Smith's 'invisible hand' saw light as a market self-regulatory framework, the theory has gained momentum to breed market-oriented approaches embracing not only business and production, but also almost all major fields of service provision within public and private sector. What it means for the field of education, and higher education in particular, as this research is an attempt to investigate trends and tendencies in higher education, is that market-driven policies are extensively employed by the governments to deal with issues in education provision. Educational institutions have to operate as revenue-seeking companies to survive on the market. This tendency has actually been shaping universities into entrepreneurial institutions in recent couple of decades, and through a policy borrowing and landing process business-like principles

have been introduced into the Georgian context as well. This research intends to look at the Georgian educational legislation in order to reflect on the legal framework which regulates the performance of Georgian higher educational institutions on the education market. It will reflect both on private and state higher education institutions as they both have to operate in centrally-determined education legislation. What is meant by centrally-determined legal framework is Georgian Law on Higher Education (2004) enacted by the Parliament of Georgia and an array of regulations coming from the Ministry of Education of Georgia.

The Concept of Entrepreneurial Universities

Globalisation is often painted in different shades – a tendency bringing new opportunities to different nations through increased ease of communication, or evil, advantaging some, especially, bigger states and disadvantaging others, particularly, smaller nations. However, the argument is not about pros and cons of globalisation, but what changes it has brought to the states throughout the globe, and how different nations have to react to these changes. What is typically new is that there is increasing demand on building up knowledge-based economies, be it a developed or developing state. Accordingly, the new era, as Stensaker and Benner (2013) define, resulted in repositioning the university right to the core of public interest giving it key role to play in shaping and sustaining national interests of the states. “Global social change, economic volatility, environmental challenges and an evolving international knowledge-based economy require creative, innovative, entrepreneurial solutions” (Meyers & Pruthi, 2011, p. 349). Furthermore, it has become truism to claim that through knowledge-based economy paradigm special emphasis is placed upon universities and their new entrepreneurial role, the latter determining certain directions, courses of action or particular endeavours for higher educational institutions – strong direct connection to businesses and manufactures, orientation at labour market and the necessity to be a generator of ideas and new knowledge which are sure to be easily transformed into profitable business projects or products.

In different contexts entrepreneurial could be defined differently and may encompass activities such as licensing specialized activities, setting up links with businesses, providing tailored programmes to business sector, etc. Still for many it remains a buzz word aiming to

mean something very specific, practical or technical, but meaning nothing valuable. What could be said with confidence is that, as Meyers and Pruthi (p. 349) define, “several international governmental and private agencies in developed countries have created roadmaps and outlined strategies and action items to create more entrepreneurial universities”. Though this statement refers to only developed states, the necessity to be competitive and grab a piece from ‘global cake’ (my emphasis) is nonetheless, if not more, important for developing states. “One of the most accentuated recent trends in the so-called knowledge economy is that the university is being repositioned as a source of national and regional competitive advantage” (Styhre & Lind, 2010, p. 909). The competition is strong at all levels – regional, national, and international. Although some seem to be above the competition, for example, Oxford, Cambridge, Yale, Harvard, and some other western universities, still they should be ready for growing competition from the universities in now fastest-growing economies, such as, China and India whose role and prominence for the years to come cannot be underestimated.

... while we are talking about diploma supplements and Erasmus programs and whether or not believe in quality assurance, China and India are going to come and take our lunch.

(Gourley, 2007 as cited in Fullan & Scott, 2009, p.2)

Increased competition at regional, national and international levels necessitates the need for universities to seek innovative approaches in leadership and management, especially in diversification of income and transformation of the whole teaching and learning process to meet the new demands of the time. As mentioned above, many governments worldwide have chosen to employ a new mode of university governance – a business-like management structure which aims at intensifying connection with non-academic organisations, especially businesses or industries. This tendency has created a completely new type of relationship between the state, universities and industry, which is described as ‘Triple Helix’ model (Gibb, Haskins, & Robertson, 2013). What this model reflects is complexity of relationships which presently exist between the central state, higher educational institutions and industries. Strangely enough, though the central governments, and this is a general tendency observed worldwide, try to cut down on funds transferred to educational institutions from the central budget on the one hand, and grant more autonomy to universities and colleges on the other

hand, they (central governments) make efforts to put pressure on educational institutions in terms of performance and outcome – outcome meaning more highly qualified graduates with higher rate of employability, more research projects, more links with industries and accordingly, more chances for income diversification, more activities on regional, national and international levels.

Leading writers on this theme [change in organisation and governance structures of universities] have effectively made recommendations as to how to redesign institutions entrepreneurially, but without full exploration of the entrepreneurial organisation concept.

(Gibb, Haskins, & Robertson, 2013, p. 11)

Gibb et al. correctly note that, though the concept of entrepreneurial universities has been present almost in every context worldwide, still there seems to be a lack of understanding of the notion. This can be particularly true of the countries like Georgia which saw themselves being exposed quite unexpectedly to completely new modes, for example, market-based economy and business-like transaction of the public sector services, such as health, education, etc.. For Georgia, for example, after the fall of the Soviet Union there was a transition stage, which I would rather call a stagnation period that deteriorated all the existing systems, be it health service, education or any other public sector, leaving the state with no fit systems. Later on, establishing connections with the outer world (the countries previously completely isolated from the states within the Soviet influence) brought along many aspects of Western-type regulation and governance modes, many of them still presenting a terra nova, and new approaches in the field of education undoubtedly have presented dilemmas which call for actions. Thus, the argument here is that the concept of entrepreneurial universities is not completely well-defined and needs more reflection. Accordingly, to summarise the arguments presented in the section and to boost the understanding of the concept of ‘entrepreneurial universities’ I will try to reflect on the definition of the word ‘entrepreneurial’ on the one hand, and the essence of ‘entrepreneurial universities’ on the other.

“Entrepreneurship is the process of creating customer-defined value by innovating and exploiting resources beyond our control” (Meyers & Pruthi, 2011, p. 350). This definition puts emphasis on customer-oriented nature of many aspects of business operations. What

could it mean in the context of governance in modern universities? This tendency is defined by the money-follows-the-student policy, which is the framework determined by many central governments, and which encourages competition between educational institutions. The rationale behind the introduction of this particular policy is to increase choice of educational services for parents and students and through strong competition to improve the quality of education and education provision. The definition also puts emphasis on the notion of value; however, in the field of education, it actually is a source of constant debate whose or which values a university should serve – values serving as realization of public good or values determined by the drive for more revenue generation and measured in terms of financial efficiency.

“Academic entrepreneurship refers to the variety of ways in which academics go beyond the production of potentially useful knowledge” (Meyers & Pruthi, 2011, p. 350). This definition vividly shows that in the twenty-first century a university cannot and should not be viewed as the establishment for knowledge generation only, but rather in a much broader sense to grasp many other aspects which this paper touched upon earlier. This definition is in line with knowledge-economy discourse and the approach which views a university through an entrepreneurial lens. I will not embark on the discussion what the concept ‘potentially useful knowledge’ can mean, as this is very subjective, and may easily provide enough food for thought for another article. However, to what attention should be paid is the word ‘production’ which might readily suggest that the production of knowledge is much like the production of cars, clothes, food, etc. As an educator, I would advocate the terms ‘nurture’, ‘generate’ or ‘create’, however, ‘production’ duly depicts the demand on modern universities not only to create scholarly knowledge and expertise, but also to produce replicable, measurable outcomes and skills preferably observable in every single graduate ‘produced’ by the institution. It should be noted here that this pressure on replicable, measurable outcomes is created, on the one hand, by the state, and on the other hand, by an ever-increasing emphasis on standardization of education, the latter serving as a guarantee for quality. It is interesting to observe what the terms scholarly, school, or university means. The very concept of *Skhole* (in Greek) and *Scolium* (in Latin) means literally the ‘absence of, or freedom from work’ (Bourdieu, 2000). What the statement does is that it presents the etymology of the word rather than highlight the traditional understanding of the notion of

‘university’ or scholarly activities in general. In spite of myriad definitions of entrepreneurial universities, some core characteristics common to all of them might be the elements listed by Meyers and Pruthi (2011, p. 350):

1. Top-down vision, strategy and leadership
2. Clearly defined entrepreneurship learning objectives that drive the curriculum
3. Robust internal and external networks
4. Culture of innovation
5. Experiential learning and knowledge transfer opportunities

The paper will employ this list of entrepreneurial university characteristics to reflect on the legal framework in which Georgian higher educational institutions have to operate. The paper will provide content analysis of some articles from two documents: a) Georgian Law on Higher Education (2004), and b) Georgian Law on Legal Entity of Public Law (1999). The list of university characteristics provided above will serve as the framework for discussion.

Entrepreneurial universities in the Georgian legislation

Formal higher education in Georgia has centuries’ history (medieval academies), although the first formal university (Ivane Javakhishvili State University) was established almost a century ago, and other universities with nearly the same long-standing traditions, such as Kutaisi Akaki Tsereteli State University, Batumi Shota Rustaveli State University, etc. followed soon after, and they have been providing educational programmes in different fields ever since. However, new demands place new requirements, and the Georgian universities have to react to new challenges. In order to observe how entrepreneurial demands either overtly or covertly are reflected in the law, this piece of research will look at some articles noticeable for the values of entrepreneurial university discourse.

Georgian Law on Higher Education (2004), article 3 highlights the goals of higher education. Content analysis of the discourse would identify certain values embedded in it. Promotion and development of Georgian and global cultural values are emphasized in the given article. In addition, the necessity of meeting individual needs is given special attention. This is in line with the definition of entrepreneurship provided above which assigns much

importance to customer-defined values and needs. The necessity for credibility of the Georgian qualification on regional, national and global level is also singled out in the given paper. The language of this legal document is also characterized by the concepts developed through knowledge-based and entrepreneurial university discourses highlighting the importance of making the Georgian university graduates credible on global labour market. The same law states the necessity of training educators and research personnel to generate new knowledge which in turn will contribute to sustaining credibility of Georgian higher educational institutions. The list of entrepreneurial university discourse concepts would not be complete without quality assurance, accreditation and quality management, which are also present in the given article. My intention is not to provide thorough discourse analysis of the whole legal document, but observe some extracts to seek evidence whether new trends, attitudes and approaches in the field of education worldwide have entered the Georgian context at legal stratum through concepts. Thus article 3 of the Georgian Law on Higher Education is a clear evidence that they have, at least at discourse level. This article alone covers almost all characteristics of new entrepreneurial universities listed above (the list that has been identified above at the framework for reflections).

Article 6 is nonetheless important as it directly places Georgian higher education institutions in the business-like context by establishing educational institutions as a legal entity of public law. To have a complete idea what it all means, Georgian Law on Legal Entity of Public Law should be consulted. Article 2, section 1 of the Georgian Law on Legal Entity of Public Law defines that legal entity of public law under the state control independently carries out political, state, social, educational, cultural and other types of public activities. This section presents the most contradictory issue embedded in a broader knowledge-based economy policy and entrepreneurial discourse in particular, and it has been widely disputed among Western scholars. On the one hand, the state devolves power and authority to individual institutions which have the right to determine their own goals, objectives, approaches, courses of actions, values, etc.; however, all the initiatives should fit into the centrally determined state policy. Contradiction is visible when many governments try to employ the law as a straitjacket for universities rather than a framework through which educators need to negotiate their scholarly or leadership and governance activities.

Article 9 of the Law on Legal Entity of the Public Law (1999) includes what might become the biggest contradiction of the whole concept of entrepreneurial university. The article states that if a legal entity of public law appeals to entrepreneurial activities, the corresponding state governing body carries an obligation to state the necessity to reorganize or abolish the legal entity of public law. This paper is a good example and a resource for the state to keep higher educational institutions strictly within academic context so that they refrain from engaging in purely profit-oriented activities ignoring their educational values and goals. However, it can be the biggest contradiction and a threat. Universities are obliged to seek diversified sources of income, and they have to connect with industries and businesses. The law should objectively and precisely draw the lines of demarcation between ‘entrepreneurial activities’ and activities which are intended to bring necessary funds for universities.

Final Reflections

This article presents an attempt to have a conceptual analysis of the Georgian higher education legislation and notions embedded in the law. Through reflection over the concept of entrepreneurial universities it has been observed that universities have to operate in a typically new environment in the twenty-first century when scarce direct funding from the central governments, increased competition for students, as well as academic personnel, create conditions for higher educational institutions in which they have to appeal to entrepreneurial approaches and strategies as solutions to the dilemmas which were not previously present in the field of education. Georgia is not an exception in this respect, and the new demands of the time are reflected in the Georgian educational legislation – customer-oriented (learner-oriented) academic and management approaches, emphasis on standardization and quality, necessity for being innovative in order to create sellable scholarly knowledge which could be easily transformed into successful business-industry projects, etc. However, contradictions, which could be read between the lines in the Western educational policies, could also be observed in the Georgian Law on Higher Education, which once again makes the following argument solid – educators should more intensely be involved in policy- and decision-making processes as, at the end of the day, it is educators who put all the bits and pieces together to make state policies work effectively in practice.

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TEACHING ENGLISH THROUGH LITERATURE

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Abstract

Taking advantage of literature to teach English to EFL learners is a good way to abandon the reference grammar books that many teachers have to use. Reading stories may be considered a good way to practice and improve grammar and vocabulary. But it is not sufficient to develop English skills. Using literature is also an interesting way to approach teaching foreign students about English-speaking culture and the history of English-speaking countries. Choosing useful and appropriate texts is one of the most important steps to using literature in the EFL classroom. The text should be quite appropriate for the students' level of English. Many literature lessons use various books which are regarded as graded readers. Those books are adapted for lower-level English learners. Students need support dealing with the vocabulary and grammar. The content of the text should be appropriate for the students' age and cultural background. Young learners may have trouble understanding texts that deal with issues of other cultures. Certain topics which involve politics, religion, foreign affairs, etc. may be challenging for some students and they may not be able to concentrate on the subject.

Key words: language skills, literature,

Teaching reading through literature

It is a commonly accepted fact by many language teachers that one must have some knowledge of the literature of a language in order to be considered to truly know that language. Using literature to teach reading is the most important application of literature for language teaching. Students read a text and then study the grammar and vocabulary they face in it. They can practice reading comprehension skills by answering questions about the text as well. Using literature, a literary text is an interesting way to practice reading and to develop strategies like skimming and scanning. Thus, short stories are considered quite beneficial in:

- helping teachers first to acquaint themselves with language use in order to develop their own competence and understand language as a social phenomenon.
- transforming the classrooms into real practice stage of communicative language.
- helping teachers to consider language as entailing social acceptability. In this way, they can look at classroom language as carrying resemblance with the real-life (authentic) language. Due to this communication will be raised to the level of a social responsibility.
- developing the intellectual ability of the students and exposing them to a variety of linguistic and literary expressions and communicative functions of language.
- contextualizing the foreign language to help the student to acquire grammar implicitly.
- incorporating linguistic competence into communicative competence by putting foreign language into use in different social situations.

Literature is intellectually a great stimulating source, because a book allows a reader to imagine various types of worlds they are not familiar with. This may be done through the use of descriptive language. In order to understand this issue, the foreign language learners will create their own vision of what the writer is saying. In this context, the reader becomes a performer or an actor in a communicative event as they read.

Using literature, compared to a communicative textbook, changes the learning approach from learning grammar into learning creative thinking. Conversational English programs tend to provide lessons that focus on formulas used in contextual situations. So, there is little permit for independent thought and adaptation of language by naturally speaking. In contrast, literature-based programs focus on personal interpretation of the language, so students begin to experiment with the language and incorporate this into their everyday speech and vocabulary. This experimentation can be especially helpful to the students for use in different subjects such as science.

The three main approaches to using Literature in a language classroom according to Carter and Long (1991) are:

1. **Cultural model**, based on the notion that literature is the expression of:

- * Socio-cultural attitudes
- * Aspirations of individual societies.
- * Mythic and universal values.

Text is regarded as finished product. Associated with teacher-centered approach

2. Language model

Literature is taught for the promotion of:

- * Vocabulary
- * Structure
- * Language manipulation

Puts students in touch with the subtle and varied creative uses of language. Emphasizes language observation. Applies student-centered methodology.

3. Personal growth model

- Concerned more with students':

- * Maturity as individuals
- * Progress as individuals through reading

'Literature for life' approach. Promotes individual evaluation and judgment. Involves learner-centered approach.

Teaching English through drama texts

Language learning through drama/theatre texts has benefits it can bring to the language learning. According to Collie and Slater (1987), the positive contributions that language learning through literature could make is that literary texts constitute valuable authentic material, because it exposes the learner to different types of language use in real life, not just for teaching/learning purposes.

Maley and Duff (1978) and Wessels (1987) have pointed to the valuable uses of drama in language teaching. Drama can help the teacher to achieve authenticity in a foreign language class in several ways. It most probably overcomes the students' resistance to learning the new language: a) by making the learning of a new language an enjoyable experience, b) by setting realistic targets for the students to aim for, c) by creative 'slowing down' of real experience, d) by linking the language-learning experience with the student's own experience of life. And drama can create a need to learn the language in students: a) by the use of 'creative tension' (situations requiring urgent solutions); b) by putting more responsibility on the learner, as opposed to the teacher' (Wessels, 1987: 53-54).

Drama provides cultural and language enhancement by revealing insights into the target culture and presenting language contexts that make items memorable by placing them in an authentic social and physical context.

Foreign language teachers may have their students become personally active and involved in class by allowing them to read and add some characterisation to a drama / theatre text (Vygotsky, 1987).

One of the deficits in the use of literary texts such as novels and poems is that many of them contain language forms that learners of a language find difficult to understand. This could be overcome by simplifying them leading to criticism that the texts became pale imitations of the original writing. Drama texts help to address the need for texts for worthwhile reading in which suitable materials can be accessed.

The learner is faced with several levels of achievement and ability that the teacher can use as a basis for designing multi-level activities for students. Those are; a) Identifying the story, characters, plot (achievable at beginner level). b) Understanding the work in relation to its socio-cultural and historical-political context. c) Giving a personal / creative response (e.g. enacting the text). d) Answering the question: "does it work as literature?" (Extended critical analysis of text).

Teaching writing through literature

Literature can also be used for writing tasks. Students may read a literary text then write about it. There are some certain types of writing such as cause and effect, process analysis, opinion essays, descriptive essays or book reports. Creative writing homework assignments are also alternative. Students can read about a particular part of a text and write about their predictions of what comes next, or they can write dialogues in which they imagine themselves interacting with a character in the story.

Teaching literature as a basis for teaching writing in foreign language writing affords a paradigm for teaching structure and meaning. An English department would put equal emphasis upon composition, language, literature, and reading. Scholars argue that

teaching how to write while confronting literary text would bring together the technical skills of composition, the cultural knowledge within the linguistic form, and the cultural content literature offers. Recent research supports this argument. Sharing first drafts and using summaries as focusing exercises encourage the habit of frequent writing of the students. Literacy depends on specific, finite, sometimes superficial and sophisticated knowledge.

Teaching listening and speaking through literature

Literature can also be used for listening and speaking tasks. A teacher can read loud excerpts of literary texts for dictation activities. In accordance with the speakers' level of English, a teacher may read a literary text loud as a creative activity.

A variety of speaking activities can also arise from literature. EFL classes can make students discuss the books they read before, share their opinions and help each other understand the texts further. Students can practice pronunciation by reading aloud or being corrected by the peers and/or teacher.

Teaching vocabulary with literature

Teaching foreign language students word choice through literature is one of the most demanding tasks. University libraries provide a rich source for help with various literary texts including vocabulary and different word types such as onomatopoeia and alliteration. When teaching with literature, students are encouraged to not only learn literature lessons, but to learn to enjoy reading as well.

Using literary books that have vocabulary is a great way to build student vocabulary. This will not only help students as they learn to read, but will enable them to perform better on standardized tests. Many schools require teachers to read aloud to their students for this reason.

Teaching vocabulary and adjectives by using literary books is a good way. For instance, literary short stories which use many repetition of appropriate contextual

vocabulary are quite easy for the students to follow. Students love the story and imagine with it, the teacher can expand on the themes in the book by dressing up and even decorating the classroom.

The Fancy Nancy Series by O'Connor (2005) are literary books that provide a great way to teach students new vocabulary words. The "fancy" words are always followed by a definition. These fancy words provide a discussion opportunity for the students and encouragement for them to use some fancy words in their own writing as well.

In order to teach different word types to students, some of the favorite children's books should be taken into consideration. For example, adverbs and adjectives can be taught with *Alexander and the Wind-Up Mouse* by Leo Lionni (Knopf Books for Young Readers, 2006). Similes can be taught by means of *Owl Moon* by Jane Yolen (Philomel, 1987). In order to teach students alliteration, *Emily's Magical Journey with Toothena the Tooth Fairy* by Coramarie Clark (Strategix Ltd., 2007) can be used and *Officer Buckle and Gloria*, written by Peggy Rathmann (Putnam Juvenile, 1995) is a good way to teach students about Onomatopoeia. The traditional classroom curriculum should be enriched with the use of children's books.

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GENDER ROLE IN REFLECTIVE TEACHING METHODS IN MUSLIM COUNTRIES

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study was to determine which reflective teaching methods are applicable for teachers in Muslim countries concerning the gender issue. It is a qualitative and quantitative research paper. Teachers from different Muslim countries have been questioned through the close-ended survey and interviewed with open-ended questions. The collected data can be interesting for teachers and administration of schools which try to implement the reflective practice at their schools, or the non-Muslim teachers who are planning to work in Islamic societies and who look for the professional growth. The results reveal interesting facts related to female and male teachers' perceptions about reflective teaching.

Key words: gender, reflection, teaching, education, peer observation, collaborative group work, education in Muslim countries, students' feedback.

Introduction

Gender roles give a subject for debates in many different sources involving films, books, journals, and scientific studies; however, the aspect of gender in reflective teaching methods has not yet been sufficiently examined and evaluated. They also differ from culture to culture.

According to The World Bank research, in 2011-2012 almost in the majority of countries the percentage of female primary school teachers is very high. For example, in Azerbaijan 89-90% of primary school teachers are women; Indonesia - 60-64%; Kuwait - 90-91%; Morocco - 52-54%; Egypt - 53%; Saudi Arabia - 50-51%; France - 83%; Denmark - 64%; Germany – 86%; Georgia – 86%; etc. (The World Bank, 2014).

The United Nations has its own census of measuring the number of female and male teachers updated in 2013. And it shows that, except a few countries, females prevail in the teaching career at primary section, but their number in other sections such as secondary and tertiary decreases.

Table 1 shows the picture of teaching staff in some countries of Africa, North and South America, Asia, and Europe. Statistics was held by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), based on the information provided by

national Governments. It is also interesting to look through the statistics of only Muslim countries. The **Table 2** clarifies the general picture of education sphere in Islamic countries. From these two tables it can be concluded that in all countries whether the majority of population is Muslim or not the female staff exceeds in Primary level of education.

Table 1. Female teaching staff worldwide

| Country 2011-2012 | Women- teachers in Primary Education (%) | Women- teachers in Secondary Education (%) | Women- teachers in Tertiary Education (%) |
|----------------------|--|--|---|
| USA | 87 | 61 | 47 |
| Saudi Arabia | 50 | 52 | 38 |
| Peru | 66 | 44 | 44 |
| Chile | 78 | 62 | 41 |
| Brazil | 90 | 66 | 45 |
| China | 58 | 49 | 45 |
| Mongolia | 96 | 73 | 57 |
| Spain | 75 | 55 | 40 |
| Sweden | 82 | 59 | 43 |
| Latvia | 93 | 82 | 59 |
| France | 83 | 59 | 39 |
| Ethiopia | 37 | 26 | 9 |
| Niger | 46 | 21 | 12 |

(United Nations Statistics Division, 2012)

Table 2. Percentage of female teachers in Muslim countries

| Country | Women teachers in Primary Education (year- %) | | Womae teachers in Secondary Education (year - %) | | Women teachers in Tertiary Education (year - %) | |
|-------------|---|----|--|-----|---|----|
| Afghanistan | 2010 | 31 | 2007 | 28 | 2009 | 16 |
| Algeria | 2010 | 53 | 2004 | 49 | 2010 | 38 |
| Bahrain | 2002 | 76 | 2002 | 54 | 2010 | 33 |
| Iran | 2009 | 57 | ... | ... | 2010 | 22 |
| Iraq | 2007 | 69 | 2007 | 55 | 2005 | 35 |
| Jordan | 2003 | 64 | 2003 | 58 | 2010 | 25 |
| Kuwait | 2010 | 90 | 2010 | 55 | 2004 | 27 |
| Mauritania | 2010 | 36 | 2007 | 10 | 2010 | 7 |
| Morocco | 2011 | 51 | 2004 | 33 | 2009 | 17 |

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|------|----|------|----|------|----|
| Oman | 2003 | 62 | 2003 | 52 | 2010 | 37 |
| Pakistan | 2010 | 48 | 2004 | 51 | 2008 | 37 |
| Qatar | 2010 | 89 | 2010 | 55 | 2010 | 38 |
| Tajikistan | 2010 | 64 | 2010 | 59 | 2010 | 34 |
| United Arab Emirates | | | 2010 | 65 | | |
| Emirates | 2010 | 86 | | | 2009 | 31 |
| Uzbekistan | 2011 | 87 | 2011 | 62 | 2011 | 38 |
| Yemen | 2010 | 25 | 2003 | 21 | 2007 | 17 |

(United Nations Statistics Division, 2012)

According to general western viewpoints, Muslims have the patriarchal gender system. But it should be noted that religion is not the only expression and carrier of patriarchal culture in Muslim or any other communities. Moghadam (2004) tells that the patriarchal gender system was basically correlated with provincial regions in Asia and North Africa. Aside from religion, patriarchal system is identified by early marriage, baby boy preference, rules of behavior for female population, etc. (Moghadam, 1992)

The Islamic scholar Yusuf Al-Qaradawy (2012) writes that, according to Qur'an, the woman's primary and the most important work is to bring up the new generation. But it should not be understood in the way that females are not allowed to work outside of their homes. If we focus on the statement that rearing new generations is the most important job for women, then it naturally concludes that teaching and working at school is one of the most appropriate things that can a woman do in her career life.

Qur'an says that a woman's job must be away from moral and ethical corruption in community and should not include such activities which influence on her religion, behavior, etc. Also it is said that a woman's visual aspect, style and tone of speaking should go hand in hand with Islamic rules. It means holding back her glimpses in relation to any man, wearing proper Islamic clothes, keeping away from men, avoiding provocative moving style (The Noble Qur'an: Surah 24-33).

People regardless their gender should be aware of equal working opportunities. A patriarchal system should not be involved in educational system. But at the same time some moral, ethical and religious codes should be followed in order not to violate the rights of both female and male employees. Deriving from all above-mentioned, teachers working in Islamic

societies should consider religious demands and prohibitions while adopting reflective teaching methods.

According to Dewey (1933) reflection is a kind of lived experience that makes the educators to switch from one experience to another. With the help of reflection teachers may develop a deeper understanding of relation and links between prior and present experiences. Reflection is a tool used for persistent learning and it assures the development of an individual person and the society, too. Dewey (1933) tells the readers that reflection is a steady, precise, organized way of cognition which has origins in scientific investigation. The reflective process should take place in community; there should be cooperation with other people. In order to engage in reflective process educators need to know how important it is for individual and intellectually development.

There are several methods of reflective teaching which are used in order to maintain the answers to questions “what” and “why”. Questions “what and why” provide teachers with specific power over teaching strategies. This results in the rise of independence and authority in the performance of teachers. With the help of questioning, teachers start to regulate and stimulate improvement of regular classroom life. These methods are:

- Observation (Peer/Self);
- Written description of experiences: Journal writing;
- Video-audio recording;
- Collaborative group work;
- Students’ feedback.

A classroom observation is the goal-directed evaluation of teaching and/or learning events with help of the regular practice of data collection and investigation (Bailey, 2001). Also classroom observation was determined as a process by which the observer attends one or more classroom sessions, records the practitioner’s teaching process and student behavior, and then the observer gets together with the teacher to talk over the observations. From this point of view, it is a collaborative process. Both the practitioner, who is under the observation, and the observer have important roles before, during, and after the observation. Cooperating at each stage of the operation can assist to arrange comfort for both participants so that each gets the profit from the experience.

According to Richards and Lockhart (1994), a journal is a chance for educators to apply the writing skills in order to outline and discover their teaching strategies and approaches. Journal writing has different patterns: personal journal writing and collaborative journal writing. Writing for personal purposes gives a chance to teachers to make a typical evaluation of what they are doing during the sessions. They are able to inspect to what range their theories about their own teaching are reflected in their exact teaching process. A group of educators can also cooperate in keeping journal writing. Brock, Ju and Wong (1991) suggest that collaborative journal writing can bring benefits to teachers' development as with the help of it awareness of the teaching process arises and supports teachers to analyze those practices more intensely.

A collaborative approach to keeping a reflective diary is particularly helpful in action research where a group of people are researching their practice together (Bold, 2012:88).

Pak (1985) suggests the reflective practitioners recording the sessions during one or two week and then selecting the one for accurate analysis. Ayers (2003) mentioned that teachers have to be self-critical in order to prevent the loss of ability for professional development. Video recordings can be helpful in demonstrating features to a teacher of his own behavior as well as the verbal communication. Audio recordings may be helpful for regarding the features of teacher talk.

There is a widely spread idea that individual work is not as fruitful as group-work. In collaborative groups teachers meet and discuss fresh ideas, problematic issues, etc. Group atmosphere seems to be safe and teachers participate in such exercises, as working together on curriculum and resources, lesson plans, etc. According to Lieberman and Grolnick (1998) collaborative group work gives a chance to confirm both knowledge and investigation.

This research investigated teachers' perceptions of female and male colleagues' participation in reflective teaching methods discussed above, as I believe that being aware of teachers' attitude concerning the gender issue can help in advancement professional growth projects.

Method

This research paper collected both qualitative and quantitative data. The qualitative information was gained by the interview and quantitative one - by the questionnaire.

Interview provides a valuable ground for deeper discussions and descriptions (Glesne, 2006). With help of an interview the interviewees gave me a chance to discuss their experiences. The questionnaire used closed-ended questions. The majority of respondents to the survey were Egyptian teachers (125 female and 25 male). Also some teachers from Turkey (10 female and 8 male) and from Yemen (4 female) took the part in the survey. All respondents were asked to fill in a short questionnaire, and some of them (6 out of 172), at random, but upon their consent participated in the interview.

The participants from Turkey and Yemen received through e-mail the electronic questionnaire. The Egyptian teachers got a paper-based questionnaire.

In order to provide valid and reliable information and to prevent the researcher's bias the number of interviewed teachers was equally divided according to the gender – 3 female and 3 male teachers.

The questionnaire with closed-ended questions contained biographical questions about the age and teaching experience. Also in this survey respondents were asked about preferences and applied forms for reflective teaching.

In the interview the respondents were asked open-ended questions where they had to explain which method(s) of reflection they prefer and why. As I was staying in Egypt, I held it in person with teachers from Egypt, and had to use Skype for interviews of participants from other countries.

Results

Question 1: Age group

The total number of respondents was 172. Fifty percent of survey participants belonged to the first age group (20-30), 44%- to the second age group (30-40), and 6% -to the third one (40-more).

Question 2: What is your teaching Experience?

If we look at the results of the first question, it is only natural that the majority of the respondents had less than 10 years of teaching experience. Teachers who belonged to the

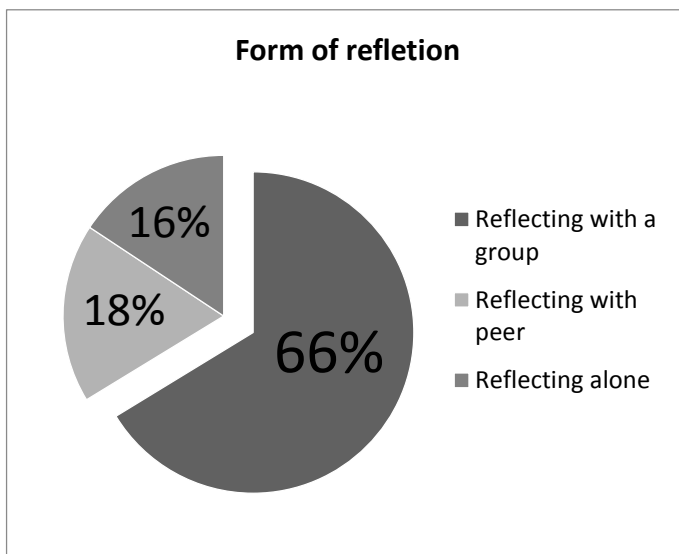
second and third age groups indicated that they have more than 10 years of teaching experience.

Question 3: What form of reflecting is more preferable for you?

Chart 1 shows the results of the 3rd question of the survey.

114 teachers (91 female and 23 male) chose reflecting in a group for reflection. 31 (23 female and 8 male) respondents circled the peer work. And 27 teachers (20 female and 7 male) specified that they prefer to work alone.

Chart 1. *What form of reflecting is more preferable for you?*



Question 4: Which method of reflective teaching do you apply?

The 3rd question gives an obvious picture of what teachers prefer and the 4th question proved that the most useful and applied method of reflective teaching is collaborative group work. 114 out of 172 teachers circled group work. The next popular method, such as students' feedback took the second place in teachers' choice (40 teachers chose the answer). The rest participants apply observation and journal writing methods. It should be mentioned that just 3 out of 172 teachers apply journal writing in their teaching experience. Nobody chose video/audio recording.

From this survey it can be concluded that the most preferable and used method of reflection is collaboration with colleagues in a group atmosphere. There is no difference in the answers of teachers belonging to different age groups and whose experience is more or less than 10. Religion does not consider age or experience. Females and males follow the

moral and religious codes in their jobs. Both genders avoid peer work, because there is possibility to stay alone with a representative of the opposite gender for discussions, which is not appropriate behavior according to Islamic preaches.

The goal of the interview was to find out some details concerning the data gained from the questionnaire. 6 interviewees (3 female and 3 male) from Egypt, Turkey, and Yemen explained their perceptions and aspirations.

The interview included two questions:

- a) Which method of reflection do you accept?
- b) Why do you appreciate it?

Two Egyptian teachers, one female and one male noted that they prefer working with colleagues in a cooperative atmosphere. Both of them mentioned that if the administration will insist on peer work, then they will demand to work with teachers of the same gender, woman-to-woman and man-to-man. But it is interesting to listen to opposite gender's ideas, because sometimes men and women have different points of view on distinct issues. And it is preferable to work in a group and listen to both parties' arguments to find the best solutions for the problematic issues. Sally, an English language and Social Studies' teacher working at Salahaldin International School, (Cairo, Egypt) answered that she prefers to work with colleagues because with help of cooperation teachers gain more information, share the experience. Individual work is not as fruitful as group work, in her opinion. Peer work is also one of valuable methods of reflection, but some circumstances do not allow teachers to work in this way. Sally clarified her opinion about peer work. According to her, without any doubts, it is very interesting to share the ideas and communicate with both female and male teachers. But it is not acceptable to stay alone and talk over the problematic issues with male peer(s). Even the school's staff rooms are separate for female and male staff members. So in order to prevent awkward situations it is better to work in a group where both female and male teachers will have equal opportunities and openly participate in debates. Sally also commented about student's feedback. She mentioned it as one of her favorite ways of reflection. According to her, a teacher is working not only for the salary or for professional growth, but for the sake of the students. That is why, if an educator seeks for successful results, he/she should adjust to the needs of the learners.

The Turkish respondents, Nese and Yalcin expressed the same ideas. Yalcin, a primary school teacher in Manisa, Turkey, mentioned journal writing. According to him journal writing can be used as a collaborative diary and an electronic version of it can be created, to simplify the procedure. An electronic version of peer work prevents peers representing different gender from face-to-face communication, but helps in co-operative work. With the help of the Internet it is easy to send and receive comments about specific issues. Yalcin mentioned that writing takes a lot of time. That is why, if it is possible to avoid journal writing, group work is preferable for him. Group is the place where a person can hear about a variety of teaching approaches, what works well and what or not. Face-to-face communication gives an opportunity to get the instant messages from the colleagues.

Nese, the science teacher from Kirsehir, Turkey, said that for her peer work is not acceptable, because there is the great possibility that the peer can be from the opposite gender. Students' feedback should be taken into account and discussed in a group of co-operative teachers.

Analogous comments have been received from the teachers working in Yemen. Merve, the Turkish language teacher at Turkish International School in Yemen mentioned that both genders need encouragement while working in single-gender classes. She pointed out that a teacher is not just a person who transfers knowledge to learners, but teacher is someone who has to deal with students' psychology. Sometimes when a male teacher (especially a novice one) enters single-gender classes and has to deal with female students only, he will need a support from female teachers in order to work fruitfully. That is why it is good to reflect with a group of peers where he will get the help and resolution for the problems. According to Merve, sitting alone with a man is not an appropriate form for reflection, taking into consideration the religious background.

Conclusion

An examination of the obtained data propose the subsequent conclusions concerning teachers' understanding of correlation of religion and working reflectively:

- a) Group work is the most preferable and used method in teaching experience regarding both religious and non-religious concerns. Group work helps teachers in revision and reflection of teaching experience. Educators who teach one and the same courses may come together routinely and review the strategies, plans,

techniques and teaching resources. With the help of the group work the violation of women's rights according to the Islamic propositions can be avoided.

- b) Peer work may be used in Islamic culture if the peer teachers represent the same gender.

Despite the fact that much can be gained from peer communication, because of a friendlier atmosphere, Muslim teachers try to prevent the usage of this method because there is a great chance of having face-to-face interaction with the opposite gender teachers. However, this problem can be overcome, if Internet is used as a means of peer communication, so that face-to face communication is avoided.

- c) Students' feedback is an effective tool for gathering information about the students' satisfaction and needs, which later will be discussed and analyzed in a collaborative group, however, not as effective as working in teacher groups. Students play the role of a friend who criticizes or praises teacher's work.
- d) Finally the research concluded that teachers who work in Muslim countries have to follow the Islamic codes of behavior. Both genders, female and male try to grow professionally and consider the gender role in their reflective practice, taking the religious rules into consideration.

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NATIVE SPEAKER NOT INCLUDED: STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVE L2 ENGLISH USE IN GEORGIAN CLASSROOMS

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Abstract

This round table discussion, moderated by a native English speaker with two years' experience co-teaching English in Georgia, will raise questions about the most efficient use of native and non-native teachers and proper expectations for L2 language learners. Based on the research of Vivian Cook, questions for discussion will advance the argument that L2 language learners should be seen as multi-competent language learners in their own right, not deficient replicas of native speakers. Later questions will encourage participants to consider how English can be effectively taught in Georgian classrooms using L2 rather than native English speech as a model.

Key words: English native speaker teacher, English non-native speaker teacher, multi-competent language learners/users, language teacher as a model, teaching and communication strategies

In the last decade, the number of native English-speaking teachers and teaching assistants in Georgia has increased dramatically. This is partially due to the efforts of major English-speaking nations. Both the United States and the United Kingdom have established programs sending native speakers to Georgia on a regular basis. The British Council has opened English language and resource centers in Tbilisi and other large cities. In 2001, the United States began sending Peace Corps volunteers to teach English in Georgia. Some years later, the U.S. embassy in Tbilisi brought the Fulbright English Teaching Assistant program to Georgia. But the appearance of native English-speaking teachers in Georgia has not been a project of the Anglosphere alone. In 2010, the Georgian government welcomed the first cohort of native English speakers with the home-grown Teach and Learn with

Georgia program. This has led to an increased demand not only for English language instruction, but also instruction from a native speaker.

Native speakers bring a number of well-established advantages to the classroom. The presence of a native speaker often motivates English language learners to develop their English skills, especially when the native speaker does not speak the local language. Regional and national dialects aside, native English speakers can provide excellent models of common pronunciation. Native speakers offer detailed knowledge of colloquial and phrasal language, and native speakers raised in foreign education systems bring new or novel methodologies and techniques into the English language classroom.

But native speakers are not an English teaching panacea. Quite often, native-speaker teachers and teaching assistants are not professionally trained educators. Never having consciously “learned” their own language as an adult, monolingual native speakers are often less knowledgeable of the mechanics of their language than non-native speakers. Native speakers are thus most useful when working in tandem with a local English teacher, combining their respective skills into a potent pedagogical package.

However, the popularity of native speakers has reduced the credibility of L2 speakers as English teachers in the minds of some students. This is a counterproductive phenomenon. An L2 learner is not and never will be a native speaker, but native speakers are not the only model of legitimate English language use. A language learner may over a number of years achieve high levels of proficiency, including native-like fluency. But given the often assumed superiority of instruction from a native speaker, some students fail to seek assistance from a competent L2 speaker in favor of instruction from an untrained native speaker, missing the great potential value of a skilled L2 English speaker. This tendency to view native speakers as intrinsically “better” than non-native speakers not only dissuades students from taking an L2 teacher seriously, but it also sets language learners up for failure by setting an unattainable goal.

The crux of Vivian Cook’s 1999 article in *TESOL Quarterly*, “*Going Beyond the Native Speaker in Language Teaching*,” is the assertion that non-native speakers should be viewed as legitimate speakers in their own right, not deficient imitations of native speakers. This is particularly true with English, a global lingua franca spoken on every continent in a

variety of dialects. On a daily basis, English is used for personal and professional purposes just as often by non-native speakers as native speakers. Thus when teaching, it is important to provide not only models of native speech, but models of skilled L2 use as well — a more realistic and achievable goal for English language learners. Thus dividing teaching duties between native and non-native speakers along traditional lines—native speakers working with students on communicative skills and pronunciation, non-native speakers working with students on grammar and technical aspects—may not be the best way to utilize native and L2 teachers in a language classroom. Rather than treating native speech as the only proper model of English language use, skilled L2 users should be treated as legitimate English language speakers in their own right. The use of non-native internationally accepted English speech may even be a more valuable classroom asset, for it sets a more attainable standard than that provided by native speech.

Georgian English teachers cannot wave a magic wand and eliminate students' bias toward native speakers. However, they can make steps toward eliminating that bias by employing teaching and communicative strategies that emphasize skilled L2 English speech as an appropriate goal. In practice, this means not falling in to the trap of relying exclusively on the native-speaker teacher or teaching assistant for communicative exercises. Native speakers are not the only legitimate models of English language use, and over-reliance on native speakers for English modeling can obscure the distinctive nature of effective L2 speech. By including more examples of effective L2 English use in the classroom, Georgian teachers can increase students' self-efficacy by redefining non-native speakers not as failed replicas of native speakers, but as multi-competent language users.

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HOW TO FACILITATE THE ENGLISH AS A SECOND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING PROCESS VIA THE FRENCH LANGUAGE FOR GEORGIAN LEARNERS

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Abstract

The paper proposes the case for studying English via the French language in the Georgian speaking environment as a component of the English language aptitude or vice versa. Our research outlines the results of a survey which was carried out to identify Georgian learners' motivation and attitudes towards learning the English language. There is no ready-made recipe for studying process; there is no magic formula for learning how to speak English. However, we try to give some techniques which will make the English language study more efficient and thus help the Georgian learners to study English more quickly via the French language. Meanwhile, as an organizer of learning, a teacher should pay more attention to make comparison of the French and English grammar rules or of any linguistic notion that can stimulate Georgian learners to study effectively.

Key words: second foreign language, motivation, language comparison, false & true cognates, effective study

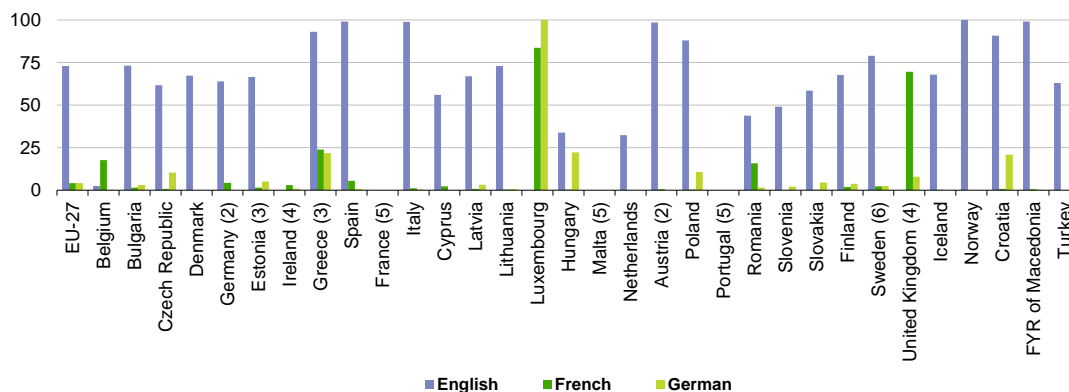
According to the reality, nowadays, when we live in a century of communication and we have to contact a lot of people for personal or professional interests, due to the facts that the borders are widely open, people have a possibility to study abroad and the relations with foreign countries are easier, the demand on studying a foreign language simultaneously increases. However, mastering only one foreign language skills is no longer enough and there are an ever-growing number of people who want / need to know two or even more foreign languages.

It should also be noted that in some countries it is even necessary to learn several languages, e.g., all Indian citizens should learn at least three languages – *English*, to contact the world, *Hindi*, to contact the entire India and *the regional language* of the person. In Switzerland there are four state languages: *German, French, Italian and Romansh. English*, though not an official language is often used to bridge the divides. By the contrast of

Switzerland and India, *Georgian* is the state language of Georgia and that is why Georgian learners should have a different motivation or aims in the foreign language/languages learning process.

According on the *UNESCO Institute for Statistics* (UIS), *the most popular and learnt language in the world is English*. The chart below demonstrates this data precisely.

Chart 1. Proportion of learning foreign languages



(Source: Eurostat, 2010 (online data code: educ_ilang), UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), OECD).

Unfortunately Georgia is not mentioned in this graph, but according to the reality, we say that we have the same situation – that is to say, English is the dominant language among the studies of foreign languages learnt in the country.

So, foreign language learning process for someone is a hobby and a need for another person. In recent years the number of people being proficient in English has significantly increased in Georgia. Moreover, the number of people willing to study other foreign languages like *French*, *German*, *Turkish*, etc., has also increased.

It should also be noted that *French is the second most frequently taught language in the world after English* (Shryock, 2006). The French language is quite popular in Georgia too.

However, our goal is not to show the statistics estimating the most frequently taught languages in the world, but how to make the second foreign language study process easier,

especially, if it belongs to the same language family. In particular, we discuss *how the French language skills can promote studying process of English or vice versa (both belonging to the Indo-European family)*.

Initially, it should be noted that all three languages of our students (Georgian, English and French) have a long history of language and development. Throughout the history of their linguistic development we learn that the Georgian language belongs to *the Kartvelian Languages*, also known as *South Caucasian languages*; while English is a *West Germanic language*, related closely to *the North Germanic Languages*. In a variety of mutually intelligible dialects it has become *the Lingua Franca* in many regions of the world, and is *the international language of business, technology, and science*. English is an official language of Canada, the European Union, the UK and many Commonwealth countries, Australia, New Zealand, and many world organizations, such as the UN. The United States do not have an “official language”; however, English is the de facto applied language (Pimsleur method, 2014).

As for the French language it is *a Romance language* spoken by about 265 million people in France, Belgium, Luxembourg, Canada, Switzerland, Italy, the USA, Lebanon, French Guiana, north, west and central Africa, Madagascar, a number of islands in the Indian Ocean, Haiti and other Caribbean islands, Indochina, New Caledonia, the New Hebrides and the French Pacific Territories (Ager, n.d.).

For Georgian learners the study process of the English or the French language is quite complicated. When Georgian learners of French or English begin to study these languages it is clear for them that the study process should be hard for them. At the beginning they see the big difference between the alphabets of these three languages. The Georgian alphabet is considered to be unique in the world. It is *the only language in the Iberian - Caucasian language family, which has its own ancient writing*. And its alphabet is *one of only 14 alphabets in the world* (Ruhlen, M. (1987). A Guide to the World's Languages, Vol. 1: Classification. Stanford: Stanford University Press).

Table 1. The Georgian alphabet:

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ა | ბ | გ | დ | ე | ვ | ზ | თ | ი | კ | ლ | მ | ნ |
| ო | პ | ჟ | რ | ს | ტ | ყ | ფ | ქ | ც | ძ | წ | ხ |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Ⴀ | Ⴁ | Ⴂ | Ⴃ | Ⴄ | Ⴄ | Ⴆ | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|

Table 2. **The French and English alphabet:**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I | J | K | L | M |
| a | b | c | d | e | f | g | h | i | j | k | l | m |
| N | O | P | Q | R | S | T | U | V | W | X | Y | Z |
| n | o | p | q | r | s | t | u | v | w | x | y | z |

The tables 1 and 2 show that the French and the English alphabets are identical (special signs called accents are additionally used in French) and for the learners of English who already know the French language the process of studying English would be facilitated.

As for some characteristics of the Georgian language, for example, its verbal aspect system is comparable to those of *Slavic languages*, but basically Georgian grammar is significantly different from *the Indo-European languages* and has many distinct features, such as *ergativity, verbs with multi-personality and the verb system*. That is why studying the first foreign language grammar is rather complicated for Georgian learners (Boeder, 2005).

When Georgian learners already know some of the European languages, mastering another European language is much simpler and even enjoyable. Besides common L3 and L2 rules existing in the target languages, learners' own experience, interests and skills are also important and should be taken into consideration. As each of us is responsible for his/her own model of the universe, it affects our interpretation of situations and ways of seeing, as well as objectives and approaches.

The importance of the individual approaches should be considered while we are teaching foreign languages. So, students' individual characteristics should be taken into the account in the process of foreign language/languages teaching.

Our aim is to draw attention to such issues which will make the studying process really easier for Georgian learners whose L2 is French and L3 – English or vice versa. Those who want to be able to learn English through French will need to take the time to learn English grammar. Georgian learners, having certain knowledge in any of *the European*

languages (French/English), will need to be introduced the basic concept of grammar for easier acquisition.

Of course we do not pretend to have a ready-made recipe for studying process, there is no magic formula for learning how to speak English - it requires time, energy, and patience. However, we try to offer some techniques which will make *the English language study more efficient* and thus help the Georgian learners *study English more quickly*.

There are a few quirks, but fortunately *the French grammar rules do not differ from English in any truly dramatic way*. Here are *some similarities between the English and French grammars*:

- In French a simple sentence is still in *subject-verb-object* order (the subject of the sentence followed by the action, followed by what the person/thing the action is done *to*, if any).
- French uses articles before nouns (the/a) just like English does.
- In French we can ask questions using the inverted *verb-subject* order, though, just like in English, we can also raise our pitch at the end of a sentence to indicate a question as well.

All the basic sentence elements, including *adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, exclamations*, exist in French in much the same way they do in English.

However, here are the most important differences in the French grammar compared to the English one that the learner you should be aware of.

It should be also important for Georgian learners to know the general important differences in *the French and English languages* given below:

- *Adjectives (usually) go after the noun, not before*. So, it's a green car in English, but *une voiture verte* in French. The only exception is a handful of very common adjectives, such as *bon, nouveau, or grand*.
- *Nouns have gender and are singular or plural*, which alters the adjectives and articles that describe them. As in the example above, *voiture* is feminine, so it gets the feminine indefinite article (*une* instead of *un*) and the feminine version of *vert*, *verte*. If you were describing *deux voitures*, the adjectives would be *bonnes* or *vertes* or *grandes*.

Table 3. Major differences in French grammar and English grammar:

| <i>Verbs</i> | | | <i>Nouns & Adjectives</i> |
|--|--|---|---|
| | | | |
| <i>More Past Tenses</i> | <i>Distinct Future Tense</i> | <i>Reflexive Verbs</i> | <i>Gender of Nouns</i> |
| <p><i>Imparfait</i></p> <p>For events that occurred repeatedly or to “set the scene”</p> | <p>In English, we use auxiliary verbs to refer to a future action. Example: “He will leave”.</p> | <p>In English, most of the time, when someone is doing something to himself, you do not have to use a reflexive pronoun. Example: “I brush my teeth”.</p> | <p>In English, nouns do not have grammatical category of gender. Also, adjectives do not get a different ending for plural nouns.</p> |
| <p><i>Passé Composé</i></p> <p>For specific events, that took place at a certain time.</p> <p><i>Passé Simple</i></p> <p>For formal written writing.</p> | <p>In French, a verb phrase “will leave” is actually a separate verb from just “leave”. Example: “Il partira”.</p> | <p>In French, the reflexive pronoun is required. Example: “Je me brosse les dents (“I myself brush my teeth”).</p> | <p>In French, every noun is either masculine or feminine, and adjectives need to match the gender of the noun, as well as whether it is singular or plural.</p> |

(The French Post, n.d.)

- A plural “you” exists – *vous* – which also functions as a formal “you,” as in to someone higher than you in an organization or someone you don’t know well.
- ***French has different conjugations*** for nearly every verb tense, which means that instead of using the verb “will + verb” or “would + verb” in English, for example, to indicate that an action will be performed in the future, in French every verb has its own form to indicate this tense. So, there’s *j’irai* (I will go) and *j’irais* (I would go) and *il irait* (he would go), etc. Luckily, the verb forms are usually regular and easy to memorize.
- If we take a sentence like “I brought the books [direct object] to my friend [indirect object].” This sentence, when translated to French, is in exactly the same order. “J’ai apporté les livres à mon ami.” All is well, and shouldn’t even have to think about direct objects versus indirect. The difference comes in when you use pronouns to replace the

nouns – e.g., “I took them to him.” In that instance, the two pronouns that replace “the books” and “my friend” actually go before the verb. So, “Je les lui ai apporté”

- Recognizing verb tenses that don’t exist in English – the two biggest are the two types of basic past tense (*passé composé* versus *imparfait*) when English speakers only use one, and the *subjonctif*, which is a mood and not a tense, but since it has its own conjugation rules, the difference is essentially an academic exercise. You can get away without using the subjunctive tense yourself fairly easily (just recognize it), but you will need to learn how to use the two types of past – basically, *passé composé* is for specific, singular actions that occurred, while *imparfait* is for mood setting and on-going actions. (The French Post, n.d.)

Studying the English language, if Georgian learners already know the French language, not only makes the English language study process easier, but also *extends the knowledge of the French language by the agreement and comparison of the study material*. We know that *the two main aspects of language study are learning and practicing*, and they go hand in hand. Memorizing vocabulary words will not do you any good if we are unable to use them. So *by studying English through French meaningfully you can also practice your French and improve the French language skills as well*.

The fact that a great number of words of French origin have entered the English language in terms of learning lexical units makes the process easier. According to different sources, *nearly 30% of all English words have French origin. This fact suggests that 80,000 words should appear in this list*.

So the English of the present day is enriched by the words that have come into the language from French and have changed little in spelling or meaning. Such as:

intelligence, instinct, situation, absent, accident are identical in both languages, whilst others such as *diplomacy (diplomatie), adventure (aventure), address (adresse)* have changed but little. These are *true friends (Fr. Vrais amis)* also called *true cognates*. However, there are also a great many *false cognates (Fr. Faux amis)* that often cause problems. False cognates (Faux-amis in French) are the words which we believe to be understood as meaning; in fact they are diametrically opposite the concept expresses. For example: 1.Eng. *Actual/-current, present* Fr. *Actuel-réel*, exact (Eng. Real, exact); 2.Eng. *Cave-cellar*, Fr. *Cave-grotte, caveau* (Eng. Cave, vault); 3.Eng. *Confidence-secret*, Fr.

Confidence-confiance (Eng.confidence); 4. *Eng. Jorrney-voyage, Fr. Journée-day*; 5. *Eng. Demand-to ask for, Fr. Demander-exiger* (Eng. to require) etc. Do not also forget the words of common Indo-European (father, mother, etc.) and Latin / Old Greek origin in both languages. That constitutes more than a half of recognizable vocabulary.

Conclusion:

Because our modernity has brought such reality that foreign language learners are motivated to learn not only one foreign language, but two or even more in order to have a chance of finding jobs easily, to make their own self-fulfillment in the society and become or go on being more successful in their personal or professional life. This leads to the necessity of growing the efficiency and effectiveness of the foreign language/languages learning process.

Of course, we will not be able to fully consider the aspects of studying English from French (or vice versa) in one paper, but we tried to generate all the important aspects for increasing the motivation of Georgian learners and making the studying process easier and more interesting.

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MULTICULTURAL CURRICULA CONTENT

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Abstract

The culture-sensitive English language teaching has become the inevitable factor contributing to the success of today's diverse student population. Contemporary society knows the core role of teachers in the process of reaching every student by their knowledge, attitudes and skills needed for facilitating culture-sensitive English language teaching. There are other essential elements together with teacher pedagogical and content knowledge and developing the knowledge base about cultural diversity, that need consideration in successful English language teaching and learning process. One of the elements is the language curriculum. Integration of cultural aspects into it, enrichment with instructional materials, interesting and empowering for diverse students will make language curricula multicultural. The following article tries to answer the question: does multicultural content guarantee the success for students or does it still depend on teachers' expertise to use the culture rich content?

Key words: culture-sensitive teaching, multicultural curricula content, culture-rich

Introduction

The increasing diversity in today's classrooms brought the necessity to rethink the language curriculum from more traditional models to curricula that help all students develop knowledge, skills and values effective in the reality of the 21st century through integrating interests and experiences of diverse students and, thus, multicultural content in them.

Bank's (1998) transformative approach alters the nature of the curriculum itself by integrating multiple outlooks and prospects in the curriculum. It does not simply add, but infuses multiple views in the curriculum. Students are empowered, encouraged to think critically, 'learn to be reflective, to adopt different perspectives, and to understand how what they are taught-the knowledge that schooling offers - has been shaped historically, ethnically, culturally, and linguistically' (Jenks, et al. 2001, p. 97).

The discussions about the curriculum content, as the most essential aspect of a multicultural curriculum has been developed further by Geneva Gay (2010). 'Textbooks ...

literary and trade books, and mass media' (p. 129) are the sources of curriculum content relevant for culturally-responsive pedagogy.

Discussion

Textbooks together with workbooks and teachers' guides are the most widely used sources in language teaching, although computer-based technologies and multimedia instructional resources are being increasingly introduced.

Cortazzi and Jin (2011) state that textbook as 'an ideology' is characterized by acknowledging 'that it reflects a worldview or cultural system, a social construction that may be imposed on teachers and students and that indirectly constructs their view of a culture' (Cortazzi & Jin, 2011, p. 200). De Castell, Luke, & Luke (1989) perceive textbooks as a sort of cultural politics, as they may contain elements of social, political, cultural, and economic reality.

Textbooks have the history of long development. English language textbooks in the past had a European focus and a poor design, included no authentic materials, were author-dominated, and culturally unconscious (Risager, 1991). They were published mainly in the UK and the USA. However, today they are more market-centered, culturally-responsive, design-rich, focused on nonnative learning situations, published by local publishers and encompassing no artificial materials. The recommendation for authors is to direct their center of attention 'to deal with more authentic and substantial human experiences and contextualize specific subject matter skills in more meaningful multicultural content' (Gay, 2010, p. 133). The study *Cultural Issues in EFL/ESL Textbooks* (Tvalchrelidze, 2012) revealed that *Total English* and *New Snapshot*, very popular textbooks in Georgia, both are aimed at international target culture, in the way they include a wide variety of cultural issues in English-speaking countries as well as in other countries where English is not the first or the second language, but is used as an international language. The textbooks contain rich cultural information, but they do not contain culture-sensitive language teaching elements, such as culture-specific vocabulary, explanations or activities. To add, while textbooks show different levels of inclusion of target and international culture, the learning of culture and development of intercultural skills, the promotion of reflective use of textbooks largely depends on how they are used in the classroom, the quality of interaction between students, texts, teachers and

methodology of cultural learning. The books give ground to teachers to show their creativity and alter the materials to express culture-bound ideas, which sometimes appears difficult for teachers.

Yet another source for curriculum content is literary and trade books. Almost all teachers at some point use fiction as an additional source for their language classes. E. Kim (1976) identified the significance of incorporating ethnic literature as multicultural curriculum content. She mentions that it would help to acquire a worthy insight into cultural identity and history of ethnically diverse groups. 'It also is a powerful way to expose students to ethnic groups, cultures, and experiences different from their own to which they may not have access in their daily lives. Multicultural literature can help students cross cultural borders and improve understanding of insider and outsider perspectives on cultural, ethnic, and racial diversity' (Gay, 2010, p. 142). Teachers should thoroughly understand the cultural values embedded in the literature and transcend them to students from diverse cultures. For example, it has been proved that American culture is marked by individualist dimension, but it is interesting how this individualism, 'competition and fair play' (Valdes, 2001, p.141) is described in literature.

In today's classrooms literature is widely accepted by teachers as an influential resource for language teaching, but teachers should focus on the major function of literature use in second/foreign language classrooms, being a vehicle to transmit the culture of the people who speak the language in which it is written.

Mass media are influential sources of multicultural curriculum content. TV programs, newspapers, journals, and films pass some positive and some negative characterization of ethnic groups and people of different cultures. Students carry the effects and the information in the classroom with them.

At some time almost all ESL/EFL teachers turn to newspapers as a resource for variety and for fresh information. The newspaper is quite difficult to teach from. It is characterized by a high level of language difficulty and much cultural involvement and disruption. For these reasons students need guidance from the teacher while working on it. The recommendation for teachers is to use newspapers not only as a language teaching tool, but also for learning about the culture. For example, while reading *The horoscope*, the

questions for consideration can be ‘What is revealed about our patterns of beliefs in the supernatural? To what extent do people ascribe the day’s events to these prophecies?’ (Blatchford, 2001, p.130).

The front page of the newspaper can be the source for discussing what editors in different cultures think is catchy for people to buy it or how different cultures view crime, danger, and threat as newsworthy or not. It is significant to make students focus on how the type of writing is different or the same in their home countries. For instance, in the advertisements in some cultures it is acceptable to list phone numbers or addresses. Students need to know how people from different cultures view the anonymity in doing something, for example, complaining. Thus, there are many cultural indicators in newspapers that can be used for classroom consideration. As culture and language are inseparable, in discussing cultural themes the speaking skill is practiced and from reading newspapers different registers of English language are studied and their appropriate use for writing is facilitated.

News stories are a valuable source for vocabulary in context. Writing activities can encompass writing a letter to the editor about problems in your community or expressing disagreement about some cultural misrepresentation. An interesting activity can be to track the changes in popular culture and social history in the newspapers together with the changes in the design and the use of photos.

Conclusion

1. Based on the above consideration it is straightforward that curriculum content is an instrument for enhancing culturally-diverse students’ attitudes, capabilities and experiences. A curriculum should be meaningful for students to make it possible for them to reach the curriculum goals. Meaningfulness implies admitting rightfulness of diverse cultures’ contributions and historical heritages.
2. Leaving creation of culture-sensitive language teaching activities and culture-linked vocabulary only on teachers’ good will is not the right way to look at the issue of inclusion of culture in language teaching. Reflective use of textbooks still largely depends on how they are used in the classroom by the teachers and students.

3. Mass media are a powerful curriculum content for culturally-responsive teaching. Foreign newspapers may be just a jumble of words for students, but with teacher's help they may become a fascinating resource for culture-sensitive language learning.
4. A great effort and expertise are required from a teacher to teach about culture from literature. To transmit effectively the unspoken values embedded in the literature depends on teachers' great expertise.

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THE EFFECT OF USING METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES IN READING COMPREHENSION SKILLS

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Students with good metacognitive strategies are considered efficient in learning. The paper aims to find out what the effect of metacognitive strategies on learners is and how these strategies shape learners' ability to understand reading texts. In this regard, planning, controlling or monitoring and evaluation of learners are examined in terms of reading comprehension ability. In conclusion it is understood that metacognition deals with the ability to monitor students' own knowledge and learning processes which are believed as a significant key to learning process and outcomes.

Key words: metacognition; reading comprehension; metacognitive awareness; planning, monitoring and evaluating strategies

Introduction

Teachers can easily identify learners who are less proficient have been encountering comprehension difficulties during reading courses. Most of the learners have been trying to understand the reading text word-by-word and they have been translating each sentence into L1. These learners do not know how to learn and what to do when facing with problematic reading tasks. At this point, instructors should teach learners how to overcome this kind of comprehension difficulties before reading, while reading, and after reading.

Learners who have a wide variety of learning skills, obviously are aware of their knowledge and know when and how to apply them to any reading situations. The idea is believed that proficient learners have metacognition and significantly master and organize their own learning abilities. Moreover, they have the ability to monitor information and apply the learning strategies in order to solve the problems more easily.

Reading Comprehension

Reading is the process of constructing meaning through the dynamic interaction among the reader's existing knowledge, the information suggested by the written language,

and the context of the reading situation (Goodman, 1995). Reading comprehension is the process of understanding and constructing meaning from a piece of text. In this concept, the writer encodes thought as language and the reader decodes language to thought (Wichadee, 2011). She also highlights that a successful reader must be proficient in decoding to comprehend.

Levels of reading comprehension are classified differently. For instance, Day & Park (2005) categorize reading comprehension into six types. These include literal comprehension, reorganization, inference, prediction, evaluation, and personal response. Wichadee (2011) expresses an idea that reading comprehension may be affected by the difficulty of the text, the vocabulary used in the text, and the students' familiarity with the subject matter. Therefore, many researchers have introduced different types of models of reading to help readers understand the process of reading and how to get meaning from the written materials. As the students' problems in understanding the reading text are implemented, a variety of reading strategies has been introduced to EFL classes to develop their reading skill.

Metacognition

The notion of metacognition first was shaped in the context of information processing studies in the 1970s. The first theorist of metacognition was John Flavell who was interested in how people manage the interaction of consciousness and the cognitive process. Indeed, the term metacognition was revealed by Flavell (cited in Thamraksa, n.d.). According to Flavell, metacognition is the conscious ability to recognize people's knowledge, understand, and have control over or monitor their own learning (cited in Thamraksa, n.d.).

Metacognition is referred to the knowledge people have about their own thinking which is considered as an important key to learning and learning performance (Wichadee, 2011). According to Kuhn (2000), metacognition has two components. Firstly, the students' self-awareness of a knowledge base in which information is stored about how, when, and where to use various cognitive strategies and secondly, their self-awareness and access to strategies that direct learning.

Flavell indicates that metacognition has three variables: *person*, *task*, and *strategy*. The *person variable* is concerned with any knowledge or awareness about how learners learn and processes their cognitive activities. For example, older learners recognize their memory abilities and limitations better than younger ones (Flavell, Friedrichs, & Hoyt, 1970). The person variable also includes the ability of a learner to evaluate strengths and weaknesses in reading; in other words, a person's awareness of his/her abilities (Thamraksa, 2011).

The second variable in metacognitive knowledge is *the task variable*. It is knowledge about the nature of the task and the demands of the task. For example, one understands the level of difficulty of the task and how to meet the goal successfully (Iwai, 2011). On the other hand, Thamraksa (2011) states that the task variables refer to knowledge or all the information about the nature of a proposed task. This knowledge guides the individual in the management of a task, and provides information about the degree of success that he/she is likely to produce. As an example, you are aware that it will take you more time to write an essay on a political issue than an essay narrating your birthday party.

The strategy variable, the third variable, embodies conditional knowledge about when and where it is appropriate to use metacognitive strategies. For instance, you recognize that firstly you need to determine the main idea of the text before you can answer inference questions in a reading text (Iwai, 2011). According to Thamraksa (2011), this variable involves the strategies needed for achieving the goals. For example, a learner might know that taking notes is an effective strategy for the summarization of a passage.

Metacognitive Strategies and Reading Comprehension

Due to the fact that successful comprehension does not occur automatically, metacognition plays an important role in reading comprehension. In fact, successful comprehension depends on a directed cognitive effort, referred to as metacognitive processing. During reading, metacognitive processing is expressed through strategies and the reader must purposefully or intentionally or willfully invoke strategies (Karbalaei, 2010).

Many researchers strongly agreed that students need to receive more effective instructional practice in order to enhance their achievements. Israel (2007) strongly agrees that metacognitive strategies increase readers' meaning construction, monitoring of text and reading comprehension, and their ability to evaluate the text they are reading. At the same

time, Cubukcu (2008) specifically states metacognitive strategies led to an increase in the reading comprehension of expository texts in many different groups of learners. Readers who have good metacognitive proficiency know what to do when they do not understand because they have strategies to find out what they need to do.

Less proficient learners do not recognize the purpose of reading and tend to focus on word-by-word reading rather than reading for meaning (Thamraksa, n.d.). Also, when they fail to comprehend the text, poor readers are not as flexible as good readers in utilizing different strategies to solve the problem (Garner & Kraus, 1982). They reflect poor readers as less efficient in monitoring their understanding of the material read or are deficient in metacognitive skills.

In contrast, Pressley, Borkowski, and Schneider (1987) highlighted that good readers automatically employ metacognitive strategies to focus their attention, to derive meaning, and to make adjustments when something goes wrong. Harris et al. (1988) point out that they have a conscious awareness of their own knowledge and the conscious ability to understand, control, and manipulate their own cognitive processes. Pressley, Borkowski, and Schneider (1987) concluded that since metacognitive strategies are potentially conscious and potentially controllable, learners with good metacognition are able to monitor and direct their own learning processes quite efficiently.

Strategies specific to reading comprehension can be classified in the following three clusters of metacognition: *planning, monitoring, and evaluating strategies* (Israel, 2007; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995).

Planning strategies: Students must assume an increasing responsibility for planning and regulating their own learning. Thamraksa (n.d.) points out that teachers can teach students to set up their learning goals and make plans for learning tasks. By engaging in preparation and planning in relation to a learning goal, students can think about what they need or want to accomplish and how they intend to go about performing it. The clearer the goal is, the easier it will be for students to measure their own progress.

Planning strategies are used before reading in order to activate learners' background knowledge for the purposes of getting prepared for reading (Israel, 2007). Also, previewing a title, picture, illustration, heading, or subheading can help readers grasp the overview of the text. Learners may check whether their reading material has a certain text structure, such as

cause and effect, question and answer, and comparison and contrast. Further, setting the purpose for reading can also be categorized as in this strategy (Pressley, 2002). For example, in a reading class, students might set a goal for themselves of being able to preview the title, headings and subheadings or even illustrations and diagrams. They may then make such plans as organizing ideas, activating schema with photos or diagrams, and deciding on the strategies to make predictions before reading and to aid better comprehension (Iwai, 2011).

Monitoring strategies: When students have begun using the selected strategies, they need to ask themselves whether or not they are really using the strategies. Monitoring strategies occur during reading. Some examples of monitoring strategies are comprehension of vocabulary, self-questioning (reflecting on whether they understood what they have read so far), summarizing, and inferring the main idea of each paragraph (Israel, 2007). Readers may also identify and focus on key information or key words, including *but*, *however*, *on the other hand*, *in addition*, *also*, and *in conclusion*. Determining which part of the passage can be emphasized or ignored based on the purpose of the task is another monitoring strategy (Hudson, 2007).

Monitoring strategies help them to skim and scan the text in a clear way. Iwai (2011) states that students should be taught to monitor their use of these strategies by pausing occasionally while reading and asking themselves questions about what they are doing. In this case, students may ask whether or not they have provided the right amount of background information for their comprehension and whether the details being used are effective in achieving their purpose. For instance, in a reading lesson, students learn several strategies to read quickly for the main ideas or to underline the important word or words in the questions, and to read the text again for the details or to circle the information they need in the reading text.

Evaluating strategies are carried out after reading. Thamraksa (n.d.) highlights that these strategies help to regulate and check the outcomes of reading activities that are applied during and after the reading process. Having read a text, students question themselves about the overall concepts of the text as their cognitive goal is to comprehend the text. If they realize that they cannot answer their own questions as a result of the lack of comprehension, they decide that they must reread the material in order to be able to answer the questions

previously asked. If, after rereading the material, they can answer the questions, then they recognize that they have developed an understanding of the text.

All these processes show that they are involved in the metacognitive experiences wherein they regulate and manage their own learning through self-questioning. And this is a common metacognitive comprehension evaluating strategy to ensure whether the cognitive goal of comprehension has been achieved or not. For example, after reading a text, learners may think about how to apply what they have read to other situations. They may identify with the author, a narrator, or main character, and may have a better perspective of the situation in the book than they did at first.

Conclusion

To conclude, metacognitive reading strategies are classified into three groups of planning (pre-reading), monitoring (while-reading), and evaluating (post-reading) strategies that require readers' metacognitive processing. Metacognitive strategies allow students to understand how to apply these strategies to different learning tasks on reading. While reading, metacognitive strategies help automatically to focus learners' attention, to acquire meaning, and to make revisions when something goes wrong. Learners use different metacognitive strategies. For planning (before reading), they try to set the purpose for reading. For monitoring (during reading), they try to shape self-questioning, summarizing, and inferring the main idea of the text. And for evaluating (after reading), they try to question themselves about the overall concepts of the text as their cognitive goal is comprehension.

It is absolutely clear that unskilled readers do not succeed in choosing the proper strategy and when, where, why to apply a particular strategy. They learn how to understand a reading text by applying various strategies with different texts. What is important is that they not only gain knowledge about strategies, but also practice applying them, monitoring their reading and learning processes, and evaluating the effectiveness of different strategies for themselves in different reading situations over long periods of time.

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MECHANISMS OF ACHIEVING FOREGROUNDING EFFECT IN STYLISTICS

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Abstract

The paper deals with the concept of foregrounding in literary stylistics. Foregrounding was established in the application of linguistics to literary analysis as the mechanism by which defamiliarisation takes place. Foregrounding in language was first identified by Czech theorist Jan Mukařovsky. It refers to features of the text which in some sense “stand out” from their surroundings. The term itself is a metaphorical extension of the concept of foregrounding in the visual arts (e.g. painting and photography). Foregrounding theory suggests that in any text some sounds, words, phrases, and clauses may be so different from what surrounds them, or from some perceived “norm” in the language generally, that they are set into relief by this difference and made more prominent as a result. Foregrounding is achieved by either linguistic deviation or linguistic parallelism.

Key words: foregrounding, defamiliarisation, Russian formalism, linguistic deviation, linguistic parallelism, internal deviation, external deviation

Foregrounding

Foregrounding was established in the application of linguistics to literary analysis as the mechanism by which defamiliarisation takes place. The concept of defamiliarization (estrangement) in literature was developed by Viktor Shklovsky (1917), the representative of Russian formalism. He coined this term to mark the distinction between literary language and everyday and non-literary language. At the heart of Russian formalism was the belief that the purpose of all art was to defamiliarise the familiar that means to generate for the reader a new perspective on the topic of the piece of work under consideration. Douthwaite describes defamiliarization as “impeding normal processing by showing the world in an unusual, unexpected or abnormal manner”(2000, p. 178).

Foregrounding in language was first identified by Czech theorist Mukařovsky (1964). It refers to features of the text which in some sense “stand out” from their surroundings. The term itself is a metaphorical extension of the concept of foregrounding in the visual arts (e.g.

painting and photography). Foregrounding theory suggests that in any text some sounds, words, phrases, and clauses may be so different from what surrounds them, or from some perceived “norm” in the language generally, that they are set into relief by this difference and made more prominent as a result.

Let us view an example. In the following short extract from James Fenton’s poem “*A German Requiem*” (1980):

(1) *How conforming it is , once or twice a year,*

To get together and forget the old times.

The word ‘*forget*’ is foregrounded – it stands out as not being what we would normally expect. We expect the word “**remember**”, but not “**forget**” here. This is very unexpected, so the familiar situation (old friends meeting together and remembering old days) is made unusual, unexpected (foregrounded). We understand what the author wanted to say only if we pay attention to the title of the poem “*A German Requiem*” and if we know the fact that the poem is dedicated to post-WWII Germany.

Foregrounding of the type described in example 1, can also be found in advertisements and other kinds of non-literary writing. Let us view an example from a retirement announcement in a Huddersfield University staff newsletter:

(2) “*Stephen intends to spend more time with his wife and _____.*”

The final word has been blanked out here, and it is probably fair to say that most people, if asked would guess that the last word is likely to be “*family*” or “*children*” or such like. The reason that most people would choose a noun relating to family members to fill in the blank slot is again because of common collocational patterns. There is a restricted set of words that we would expect to follow “*wife and*”. The fact is, that the word in the original announcement was “*caravan*”. It is used for humorous effect, largely because the word “*caravan*” is not expected here and therefore foregrounded. This unusual collocation where “*caravan*” is put on a par with children and other family members, makes us think of the sort of person who would care as much for a caravan as for members of his family (depending on the cultural scheme of the reader, the word “*caravan*” may also have certain negative connotations, perhaps coming from long-remembered childhood holidays.) It turns out that the features

common to literary texts turn up just as much in non-literary texts too, though here we don't consider the literary value of such language use.

Foregrounding is achieved by either linguistic deviation or linguistic parallelism.

Linguistic deviation

Linguistic deviation is another concept arising from the Russian formalists, and poetry is the genre that most clearly exemplifies this feature, thus giving support to the notion that there is a distinct language of literature. When a writer wants to make his language creative or inventive, she/he uses a language different from the conventional and everyday language of his day. Using unconventional or unusual language, he can give his readers unexpected surprise and make a strong impression on their mind. This kind of the creative use of language is technically called a linguistic deviation by which the writer creates a language deviated from the norms of literary convention (Leech, 1969, 50).

Deviation may occur at any of the levels of linguistic structure. Here is a classic example to illustrate the general principle of deviation:

(3) “*A grief ago*” (“A grief ago”, Thomas, 2003)

In this example, the word “*grief*” is semantically deviant (unusual, unexpected) as a result of its disappointing our expectations that a countable noun related to time (e.g., week) will occur in the syntactic frame “*a... ago*” (“*grief*” being in contrast, an uncountable noun of emotion). As a result of this deviation, the title of the poem is foregrounded and consequently, we are invited to look for a significance that goes beyond surface-level understanding. Our interpretation might be to see the poem as involving the all-consuming nature of grief, to the extent that the grief we are talking about is so strong that it becomes the measure of time.

Example 3 illustrates semantic deviation, though, deviation can occur at any linguistic level. Although we tend to think of deviation as a variation from “normal” usage, which is known as **external deviation**, it is also possible for deviation to be internal to the text as opposed to external (Levin, 1965). A good example of **internal (to the text) deviation** is the poetry of the American poet E.E. Cummings. The most striking aspect of deviation in much of Cummings’s poetry is the use of lowercase (small) letters where we would normally expect

capitals. This, though, is typical of Cummings's poetry and so it is difficult to attribute any great significance to it, other than a general desire to break with normal convention. However, one of the effects of this deviation is to foreground examples where Cummings does use capitalization, such as in the line from poem "63":

(4) "*sing*) for it's *Spring*" ("63", Cummings, 1964)

As a consequence of the internal deviation we can infer that *Spring* is an important concept in the poem, since "*Spring*" is the first word we come across with initial capitalization. The only other capital letters in the poem come in the final line, where the first letter of each word is a capital, thereby foregrounding propositional content of the poem's last phrase.

Deviation, then, is a common feature of poetic style, though it is also common in other genres and text-types.

If deviation is an unexpected irregularity in language, then parallelism is, if it is possible to say so, unexpected regularity. Parallelism is defined as repetition of a grammatical pattern, while the words may be changed, e.g.: "*New roads; new ruts.*" (Chesterton, n.d.).

Parallelism

Parallelism is the other means by which foregrounding effect arises out of a repeated structure, such as in example 5:

(5) "***And*** every week ***he tipped*** up half his wage.

And what ***he didn't spend*** each week he saved.

And praised his wife for every meal she made.

And once, for laughing, ***punched*** her in the face."

("Poem", Armitage 1999:29)

As with deviation, parallelism can occur at different levels of linguistic structure. The short extract from Simon Armitage's "Poem" contains a number of examples of parallelism.

1. There is the **syntactic parallelism** of every line beginning with the conjunction “*and*”.
2. There is the **phonological parallelism** inherent in the [ϵi] sound that appears in the final word of each line.
3. There is **semantic parallelism** in the first three lines, in that each of them details positively-valued action, in comparison with negative connotations of the action described in the 4th. So the 4th line is semantically deviant.

With regard to interpreting parallel structures, G. N. Leech (1969, p. 67) explains that every instance of parallelism “sets up a relationship of equivalence between two or more elements: the elements which are singled out by the pattern as being parallel. Interpreting the parallelism involves appreciating some external connection between these elements”. We are invited to look for a connection between each of the lines that are parallel. This is easy to do for the first three lines of the stanza in the example 4; the parallelism appears to reinforce the positive evaluation of the propositional content. The forth line, though, despite being syntactically and phonetically parallel to the three preceding lines, differs greatly in semantic terms, because it contains words with pejorative connotations. Nevertheless, the parallelism invites us to see the action described in the fourth line as being somehow equivalent to those described in the first three lines. The fourth line is also foregrounded additionally because it is semantically deviant when compared to the preceding three lines.

Conclusion

As we have seen in the analyzed examples, although foregrounding is by no means absent in non-literary genres, it is nevertheless particularly prevalent in literary texts, especially poetry, and as such might be seen as the cornerstone of stylistic analysis and a key feature of a poetic style. This concerns both ways to achieve foregrounding, linguistic deviation and linguistic parallelism.

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STUDENTS' PAPERS

UTOPIAN LITERATURE

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Abstract

Utopian literature refers to literature that presents a better political or social structure than we have at present. It is usually a vehicle for the author to tell the reader that, if this structure were implemented, the current life would be better. In other words, a life, which is impossible in the real world, is perfect and everything is ideal. The name *utopia* is applied backdate to various ideal states described before More's work, most notably to that of *The Republic* of Plato. St. Augustine's *City of God* in the 5th century enunciated the theocratic ideal that dominated visionary thinking in the middle Ages. In the 18th-century Enlightenment, Jean Jacques Rousseau and others gave motive to the belief that an ideal society — a Golden Age — had existed in the primitive days of European society before the development of civilization corrupted it. The humanitarian socialists were largely displaced after the middle of the 19th century by political and economic theorists, such as Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, who preached the achievement of the ideal state through political and revolutionary action.

Keywords: Utopic literature, image, 18th century, humanitarian socialism, 19th century

Mankind since their existence has had a desire to find perfectness. If we take into account Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Needs, a person primarily tries to supply his/her basic needs to continue his/her life. Later, it is seemed to researchers that the needs and wishes of people can change in all terms and conditions. That is why mankind has been missing something for centuries. People always miss something such as happiness, wealth, immortality, peace, order and ideal society. Mankind has mostly dreamt about them and has fictionalised its own world in these dreams. While analysing the developmental process of Utopia, it will be seen that these dreams have existed and desired worlds have been

fictionalised even in the early years of humanity. However, none of these dreams and fictions had gathered under a common name till Sir Thomas More (2002) wrote his work which is named *Utopia*. After this work, the dreams which were impossible for most of people became a genre or topic which has been frequently encountered in literature.

People often encounter difficulties, some of the dramatic, which causes them to seek and plan for better life. In this regard, artists have written works, which have some utopic features, in the period between mythological ages and today. These kinds of works became important as a literary genre after Thomas More's *Utopia*.

Although the concept of utopia took the name Thomas More's book, however, before that date utopianism existed in different ways. Utopia is the expression of seeking a life which is happier and more adequate. Seeking it is related to people's expectations from primitive to modern society. Naturally, utopia develops, depending on people's expectations. Utopia gives peace as paradise as well as rears up hope; it is an old story. In times of hardship and conflict, gaining the intensity of utopia shows that the fact is a search which tries to create a new and happy world.

"*The Republic*" was written by Plato around 380 BC. This is the first known utopian work, although the term did not exist. *The Republic* is about consistency and continuity, and it studies the concept of an ideal society which is the key principle of utopian thought. As to Plato; mismatch and corruption are the main sources of problems. The ruling class determines the line for the ruled. The ruled obey the traditional life style and at the same time, ruling class aims at state's welfare. Families are not allowed to know their real children and children are not allowed to knowing their real families, because it can cause inequality. Besides, education is an obligation and a layout for the ruling class. It is important for them in order to rule well to maintain a high level of mental properties as well as physical properties. This situation provides unity. Sexual pleasure is tried to be controlled and it should be in a specific layout. Generally; while *The Republic* continues to be criticized for its traditional societal structuring, it certainly projects an initial social impulse toward a better world. *The Republic* reflects the social model of the time; it not only presents the first thorough model of a Utopian society, but it also represents some of the first materials in social education. This situation encourages people to do better for themselves and for each other. Plato's philosophy run rich

in *The Republic*, as Plato creates his society based on the idea that humanity should aspire to the ideas of justice, friendship, and morality that it discovers in this unseen realm. Plato's unseen realm is the place in which ideas are born and humans have an access to and therefore should strive to access as much as possible. Finally, still today, the work is very important because it is one of the most important resources of state philosophies in our age.

St. Augustine's *City of God* in the 5th century enunciated the theocratic ideal that dominated visionary thinking in the middle Ages.

In the 18th-century Enlightenment, Jean Jacques Rousseau and others gave motive to the belief that an ideal society — a Golden Age — had existed in the primitive days of European society before the development of civilization corrupted it. The humanitarian socialists were largely displaced after the middle of the 19th century by political and economic theorists, such as Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, who preached the achievement of the ideal state through political and revolutionary action.

It should be understood that each dream does not have to be utopian, but each utopia is a dream, that is why Thomas More applies to a deliberate play on words when he creates the meaning of the word “utopia”. He wants to emphasize on the imaginariness of Utopia. Utopia is made up of ‘outopia’, which means ‘non-place’, and ‘eutopia’ which means a ‘great place’.

There is an unavoidable problem in the study of Utopian literature, a problem which stands in the way of most critical analysis; it is a problem of defining “utopia” – a term that over time has signified an idealistic literary work concerning a socio-economic system and a political paradigm. Its use has become so prevalent in western society that it is a part of the culture's vocabulary. Since Sir Thomas More wrote *Utopia* in 1516, and since then or at least since the English translation of it (the original manuscript was in Latin) in 1551, writers have tried to build upon and improve the Utopian genre, while also riding on the success of More's immensely popular book. These same men and women who emulated *Utopia* contributed to the development of a new genre by adding their own innovations to More's perfect society. This has allowed both the style and purpose of Utopian literature to evolve throughout the centuries. Utopias are close for belief as well as utopias are far because they deal with a dream; that is why utopia reflects a contrast. Utopia is defined

as “imaginary and therefore a futile attempt to find, which still fills people with hope beside the possible, a place just beyond the borders of truth” by one of the important theorists, Krishan Kumar (1987). The realization of utopia seems impossible but the expressions seem real. Realizations of utopias seem possible because of the features of being associated with reality. Once more, Kumar says that it is not completely imaginariness and it always has aspects of reality. Utopia is nurtured by imaginariness, but it does not mean that it is absolutely impossible.

If utopia’s historical background, England, is researched, a lot of information can be acquired. In the history of England, there were a lot of conflicts between society and humanistic behaviours. Many people had materialistic mentality. That is why people searched for salvation. Salvation was about being good people, living together in peace and generally building a better society. Actually all people have their own utopias, because people always try to find happiness and perfection in all times, in England as well as in other countries.

England in the 1500s was emerging from a century of grim civil wars during which the cultural life of the country had deteriorated to a deplorable state. It was not until 1485 that the civil wars were ended by the victory of Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, at Bosworth Field, establishing the Tudor dynasty with the crowning of Henry Tudor as Henry VII. During the next 118 years under the reign of the Tudors, especially through the long reigns of Henry VIII and Elizabeth I, England attained the status of a first-rate European power and produced a flourishing culture scarcely equaled in all the history of Western civilization. One of the first signs of renewed enlightenment in England, after the rude and bloody 15th century, was the appearance of a group of “humanist” scholars that flourished at Oxford and in London in the early decades of the 16th century, notably John Colet, William Latimer, Thomas Linacre, Reginald Pole, and Thomas More — a group that Erasmus pronounced both congenial and distinguished.

The name of “humanist,” in the Renaissance, meant one who was trained in the study of Latin and Greek languages to the point of easy familiarity, who had read widely in those literatures, who had adopted the ancients’ attitude toward man on earth, and who believed that the prescription for enlightenment in modern society was to be found chiefly through the

study and imitation of those ancient classics. A serious dilemma presented itself as a result of this newfound devotion to the ancient sages because of the apparent conflict between pagan classicism and the Christian doctrine. It became a matter of deepest concern for all Renaissance thinkers to find an accommodation of the two doctrines — the philosophy of Plato and the teachings of Christ. As a result of their dual allegiance, we get the term which describes the movement, "Christian humanism." The successful adaptation of double devotion is seldom better illustrated than in the works of Thomas More, especially in *Utopia*. For these reasons, Thomas More and his work has a special importance in the utopian literature. He saw the crisis of his period. So his work is one of the most important examples of utopia, but it also shed light on that period (the book consists of two parts – criticizing the contemporary to the author England and the description of an ideal land). It is a unique work because even the name of utopia was created by Thomas More. So we can say that he is the creator of the Utopia. More offers practical solutions, and he also tries to show a way of salvation. He describes an ideal society looking like real. The people, who live in land of Utopia, always think for the benefit of the society. The concept of family, monogamy and couple loyalty are very important. There are shared areas for providing the ideal society, where individual freedom and differences are ignored. There is a strict equality and equality is everything for everybody. Finally, the idea of travel to the "New World" is an obvious theme of Utopia. We cannot travel to Utopia because it does not exist and furthermore, it is far away and the passage is dangerous. Utopia borrows the idea of the New World, but More does not argue that Utopia is actually a location somewhere in the actual New World.

The work of Thomas More is very important worldwide because More helped spread humanism and by default Reformation throughout Europe. He helped England negotiate peace during the religious conflict of Reformation and the secular government. He gave many politicians of that time the courage to stand against Henry VIII's decision to disobey the pope. He supported our times by developing a new form of literature, a new form of expression, the Utopian novel. His part in spreading of religious reform gave rise to many of the religions practiced around the world today. More made a significant impact on the world with his life and death.

Ideals have always occupied people's minds in the past. People were not able to find a common denominator for ideals until 1516. Thomas More introduced a literary form of Utopia.

George Orwell, who is one of the most important writers of the 20th century English literature, believes that to fight off utopia from human imagination is impossible. According to both the definition and the other aspects, it can be clearly seen that utopia is related with social situations and it can be evaluated that Utopia is disapproval against society and social life. There are many similarities between imagination and Utopia.

Besides, there are dystopia and anti-utopia as the kind of Utopia. Hopefully next time I get a chance to talk about these kinds. So that is all my information about Utopia. Thank you for listening

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YOUTH AND BEAUTY FROM ROBERT HERRICK'S VIEWPOINT, ACCORDING TO THE POEM: "TO THE VIRGINS, TO MAKE MUCH OF TIME"

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Abstract

The paper discusses the life and creative work of Robert Herrick and analyzes one of his poems "To the Virgins, to Make Much of Time". The clergyman and poet, Herrick is recognized as one of the most accomplished non-dramatic poets of his age. Distinguished as a lyric poet, he is well known for his style and for frequent references to lovemaking and the female body. The paper will reveal the poet's personal opinion about youth and beauty. The poem stresses the idea of marrying, while love and flesh are still young, or one may suffer in their later years alone and loveless. The poem is addressing a group of virgins to gather their rose buds while they can do it because time is quickly passing, taking youth and beauty with it. The paper concludes with a moral of the poem - take advantage of your opportunities and do not spend the rest of your life tarrying!

Key words: youth and beauty, spring, buds, metaphor

Robert Herrick is recognized as one of the most accomplished non-dramatic poets of his age. Clergyman and poet Robert Herrick was born in London, August 24, in 1592 and died (his date of death is unknown but we know the date of his burial) October 15, in 1674, aged 83. He was the seventh child of Nickolas Herrick - a wealthy goldsmith and Julian Stone Herrick. The poet was a toddler when his father, two days after making a will killed himself by jumping from the fourth-floor window of his house. His mother never married again. There is no record of Herrick attending school. He was apprenticed to his uncle as a goldsmith and his apprenticeship ended after six years. At the age of twenty two he entered St. John's College and graduated.

Over the next decade he became a disciple of Ben Jonson, about whom he wrote five poems. In 1623 he took holy orders and six years later became vicar of Dean Prior in Devonshire. During the Great Rebellion in 1647, he was removed from his positions because of his Royalist sympathies. After that he returned to London, living in Westminster and totally depending on the charity of his friends and family. He spent some time preparing his lyric poems for publication and had them printed in 1648, under the title "Hesperides" or the

“Works of both Human and Devine” of Robert Herrick, with the dedication to the Prince of Wales.

When King Charles II was restored to the throne in 1660, Herrick petitioned for his own restoration. The King felt kindly towards this genial man, who had written verses celebrating the birth of both Charles II and his brother James before the Civil War. Herrick became the vicar of Dean Prior again in summer of 1662 and lived there until his death at the ripe age of 83. He never married and many of the women he names in his poems are thought to be fictional (Moody & Lovett, 1902).

Robert Herrick was distinguished as a lyric poet. The best of his work was written in peace. He wrote over 2500 poems and he is well known for his style and for frequent references to lovemaking and female body. For example, “To Anthea” and “To the Virgins To Make Much of Time” are considered exceptional. His later poetry was more of a spiritual and philosophical nature. For instance, “To Blossoms” and “To Daffodils” are classical depictions of devoted appreciation of nature. He was influenced by classical Roman poetry and wrote on pastoral themes, dealing with English country life and village customs.

Robert Herrick published “To the Virgins, To Make Much of Time” in 1648 in a collection of his poems entitled “Hesperides” or the “Works of both Human and Devine” of Robert Herrick. From the title we can say that the speaker is addressing this poem to a group of virgins, to gather their rose buds while they can do it, because time is quickly passing. To make his view more persuasive, he provides some images from nature: flowers dying, the sun setting. The poet thinks that one’s youth is the best time in life because “youth and blood are warmer” and years after that are not so great. The speaker finishes his poem by encouraging these young virgins to make a good use of their time by getting married, before they are past their prime and lose the chance.

In the poem, Robert Herrick used a simple, four-stanza structure with both rhyme and meter. The rhyme scheme is a simple alternating pattern (ABAB CDCD EFEF GHGH) creating a musical light verse:

Gather ye rosebuds while ye **may**, (A)

Old time is still a-**flying**: (B)

And this same flower that smiles to-**day** (A)

To-morrow will be **dying**. (B)

The poem includes the repeated liberty with language in two stanzas, as the poet created contractions with “**a-flying**” “**a-getting**” adding to the fluid and melodic reading of the lines. Robert Herrick incorporated a single alliteration and near-repetition in the third stanza with the use of the words “**worse**” and “**worst**.” A similar alliterative technique appears in the fourth stanza with the line “while you **may**, go **marry**.” The “a” in a-flying does not really mean anything, it is just an older way of pronouncing a verb. “Ye” is an old word for “your” and “you.”

The poem points to spring, with the lines reading like a joyous song, but at the same time the poet seems to include an instruction or a warning. It is interesting to whom he dedicated “To the Virgins, To Make Much of Time”. The reader must wonder whether the poem is directed solely at young maidens or at a broad audience altogether. The mood of the poem is cheerful, filled with natural images. The lines point to a definite message, directly instructed to the reader, but is not dictatorial.

The poem focuses upon the idea of carpe diem. The poem stresses the idea of marriage while love and flesh are still young and one may suffer in their later years alone and loveless. Herrick believes this gift of virginity to be a great waste if not given while it is still desirable. Virginity is a gift for the simple reason that it can only be given once to one person, who, he believes, should be the husband. Therefore, he says to go out and find husbands, for youth is not perpetual and will eventually succumb to old age and loneliness. Through Herrick’s use of colorful imagery and personification, the reader detects the sense of urgency and duty for the virgins to go and marry while love is young, creating the overall idea of carpe diem.

Robert Herrick uses “The Virgins” in the poem to represent the beginning of life, or youth. The gathering of roses is a metaphor for living life to the fullest. Symbolically, the rosebud represents the youth and beauty which has yet to bloom but will age and eventually die. Like the “Virgins”, the rosebuds are fresh and youthful. However, the youth of the rose, like life, is passing quickly. The poet wrote these opening lines in order to make it clear that he is concentrating on those in the prime of their life. In the next stanza the sun is personified by showing that time is passing quickly, ultimately creating the carpe diem theme. Like the

rose, the personified sun and his progress across the sky are a metaphor for the ultimate fate of humans, death. In the third stanza, the speaker of the poem stresses that youth is the time when one's blood is "worm", desirable and passionate. The poet strongly believes this is the best time of life and people should take advantage of it.

The poet drew parallels between youth and a blooming rose, between an individual's lifespan and the daily cycle of the rising and setting of the sun. The third stanza ends with a bit of irony as he pointed out: "Being spent, the worse, and worst, Time still succeeded the former." In other words, time cannot be halted or retraced.

In the title the poet lays a clue to his intended meaning, urging the maidens to action. The lines say repeatedly with a sense of time passing too quickly, taking youth and beauty with it. That is why he offers seizing opportunities. This is almost exactly the message of the poem: take advantage of your opportunities or spend the rest of your life tarrying. We imagine the speaker as an aged man who did not gather **his** rosebuds while he could and now he is warning the virgins not to make the same mistake.

What I wish to conclude from the paper is that the theme of the poem is making much of time on earth. The main idea the writer wants to tell the readers is the following: time flies, so we should take a chance and not waste our time in hesitation. The poet urges his readers to open the door when opportunity knocks and pursue love!

Robert Herrick's "To the Virgins, To Make Much of Time" is a favorite staple for English Literature teachers, poetry lovers and springtime enthusiasts. Traditionally, the poem has also provided a persuasive argument for those making marriage proposals and other life-changing suggestions. So if someone reads this poem to you, it means that he intends to propose to you and wants' to persuade you to say I DO!

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THE DARKEST SIDES OF THE HUMAN SOUL: VILLAINS IN SHAKESPEAREAN TRAGEDIES AND IN MODERN CINEMATOGRAPHY

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Abstract

It is a well-known fact that every person has 2 sides, but I want to discuss the darkest and most evil sides of a person, which were so masterly depicted on the border of the 16-17th centuries by William Shakespeare and are still shown in contemporary cinematography. Shakespeare created a lot of fascinating characters, and some of the most fascinating are the villains. They encompass the worst of human characteristics, but their motives are often very real and surprisingly easy to relate to: jealousy, heartbreak, bitterness...all of the ugly things that bring out the worst in all of us. The same can be said about the greatest villains in movies of the 21st century. Their evil deeds are usually bred from a place of pain, frustration or, in most cases, bitter resentment. My point is that during all times, most of the villains were 'real' characters; damaged, distorted people, with a big old gripe against the world, driven by the same motives, the 7 mortal sins described in the Bible.

Key words: villains, good and evil, literature and cinematography

It is a well-known fact that every person has 2 sides. Nobody is purely kind or purely evil, but let us face it - all of us have good and wicked thoughts in our heads. Nevertheless, I would like to talk about the darkest and most evil sides of a person, which were so masterly depicted in the Renaissance Age by William Shakespeare and are still shown in our-century cinematography. Both plays and movie scripts are written with the aim to depict the good and the evil that occurs in the world, and both Shakespeare and modern movie directors show us the darkest parts of souls and people's mistakes, which are constantly repeated by people in different ways from century to century. They show them to be terrified, to probably notice the evil in our own hearts as well as around, and to start fighting it. The comparison became possible because the good and the evil are characteristic of people, whatever time and country they live in, whatever social layer they belong to. This is why in fiction and in movies you

can find such similar characters - archetypes, according to Karl Yung (), even though they were not borrowed from each other.

Shakespeare created a lot of fascinating characters, and some of the most fascinating are the villains. They encompass the worst of human characteristics, but their motives are often very real and surprisingly easy to relate to: jealousy, heartbreak, bitterness- all of the ugly things that bring out the worst in all of us. The same can be said about the greatest villains in movies of our century. Their evil deeds are usually bred from a place of pain, frustration or, in most cases, bitter resentment. According to some religions, all of human sins derive from 7 (or in some religions - 8) mortal sins. Five of these sins are connected to soul, and two of them - to body. I want to touch upon the first five, which are wrath, greed, sloth, pride, and envy, and I want to argue that the motives of the greatest Shakespearean villains, as well as the greatest movie villains of the 21st century, have their roots in these very sins.

Speaking about wrath I'd like to bring an example of Tamora from Shakespeare's tragedy "Titus Andronicus" and Magneto from "X-Men" movies. Both these antagonists became villains because, after being terribly mistreated, they became obsessed with revenge.

The second pair of villains are Macbeth ("Macbeth") and Saruman ("The Lord of the Rings"), who best fit the sin of greed (which also includes ambition and desire to possess power). They both appeared to their audience as protagonists in the beginning, but then ambition and greed led them to the wrong way as they turned to extremely evil creatures.

The next sin is envy, and here I guess the perfect pair would be Edmund ("King Lear") and Loki ("Thor"). I am amazed how much these two characters are alike as they both are sly, manipulative, ambitious and awfully envious. Edmund, as well as Loki, has a noble brother, who is loved by everyone. Thus, both antagonists hate their brothers and do everything to get rid of them.

One more important pair is connected with sloth (which also stands for depression and apathy), and includes Richard III ("Richard III") and Joker ("Batman: The Dark Knight"). In Richard's case everything is obvious as in the beginning of the play he directly states that he is going to be evil because he was born ugly, short and humpbacked. Joker,

however, is a very interesting and controversial character. Personally I think that he does not have anything to live for (as during one day he lost everything he had), and all he wants to do is to prove to himself that every person deep inside is as evil as him.

The last but not least sin is pride, and here I picked the couple Iago (“Othello”) and Lord Voldemort (“Harry Potter”). According to my way of thinking, these two are the most horrible villains of all, and they’d probably have all the seven sins in their resumés. It can be rather arguable, but still I find pride to be the main root for their villainy.

If I were asked why I have chosen the topic of villains instead of speaking about protagonists, I would say the same as many actors would respond - Villains are much more interesting than good old kind characters. If antagonists are not evil just for the sake of being evil, it means they have some history, some experience that led them to become what they actually became, and that is very interesting from the psychological point of view. As a big fan of modern cinematography and an admirer of Shakespearean works, I find it really amazing to be able to talk about my favorite characters. I am not trying to justify any of these villains, I just want to show that they were not born monsters, they had good features, but finally, due to this or that reason surrendered to the evil. I hope that after my work you will be able to view them from different sides.

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TEACHING ENGLISH WITH FILMS

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Abstract

The importance of learning the English Language has become more significant over the last decade. We are all aware that there are different new approaches in teaching English. As we live in advanced technological world, most of students tend to enjoy learning with audiovisual aids. Due to this, the teaching approach that will be discussed in my paper is one of the best approaches to implement in ESL Classrooms. If you are looking for something to motivate your students, then that something may be a film. Definitely, using film in ELL classrooms gives students a great opportunity to improve all language skills (Speaking, Listening, Writing, and Reading), as it contains authentic language and behavior. The paper views what makes films a powerful educational tool in English classes.

Key words: teaching; learners; film; visual approach; English language teaching; skills

The importance of learning the English Language has become more significant over the last decade. We are all aware that there are different new approaches in teaching English. As we live in advanced technological world, most of students tend to enjoy learning with audiovisual aids. Due to this, the teaching approach that will be discussed in my paper is one of the best approaches to implement in ESL Classrooms. If you are looking for something to motivate your students, then that something may be a film. Definitely, using film in ELL classrooms gives students a great opportunity to improve all language skills (Speaking, Listening, Writing, and Reading), as it contains authentic language and behavior. The paper views what makes films a powerful educational tool in English classes.

Using film as a tool for education has a numbers of merits. Statistics reveals that youth on average watch 25 minutes of films per day. Why not make this an enjoyable teaching/learning opportunity? Martin Bradley (2005), the author of a resource book for teachers of English as a foreign language, believes that using film as an instructional tool in ESL classes is a way to bring the outside world into our classroom. In teaching English as a second language films help trigger discussions, set up writing tasks and can be used to practice listening skills, learn vocabulary or get students used to hearing how native speakers "really" communicate. Besides, the use of film in the classroom can enhance the motivation

of the learners. Using films through specific task activities provides an ideal vehicle for active learning, as well as encouraging interaction and participation. Definitely, using film in ELL classrooms gives students a great opportunity to improve all language skills. You may ask a question, how? It is noteworthy that there are already readymade film scenes, which range from 2–5 minutes. According to Bradley (2005), each scene has been carefully chosen, researched and categorized under themes. Themes of the scenes include: Cultural differences, helping others, Teaching, Travel etc. How all these encourage us in developing certain skills? These are specific task activities, what learners can do after watching a film in order to improve a particular skill. Completing Listening-Gist to practice listening skills; to make discussions for speaking skills; to write an alternative ending/to write about what happened in the scene- for writing skills; to improve their reading skills, we can bring for them films that are adapted from novels, short stories, etc., which enhances students' interests in analyzing the written work. Studying a cinematic adaptation of a literary work will allow students to make comparison between the written original and cinematic version.

How to select film and what to consider? These are the main questions which we should bear in mind before selecting a film. If we decide to choose a film for our learners by ourselves, we have to take into consideration these following main aspects: 1) There should be chosen a film which is in proper with learners' level of language knowledge. 2) We should avoid choosing a scene which is inappropriate and offensive to their culture.

Based on my Survey results, where participated more than 50 people (including students and EL teachers), this approach should be implemented as ELT method from Elementary School and it should be used in ESL classrooms at least once a week. In addition, according to my experiment which I carried out in a private school, it turned out that fourth grade pupils benefited from film lesson. After watching a film they were split into two groups and asked to write an alternative ending of the film, as well as, to draw a picture of the scene and then to describe it. Engagement of the learners was high and the teacher found that it was productive for ELL, as they learnt new words during these activities.

To conclude, from my point of view, a crucial merit of using films for EL learners is motivation. Carme Porcel (2009), who is English language teacher, based on his experience believes that using films in ESL classrooms is really rewarding both for teachers and students.

From his point of view, for teachers, it is the perfect way to motivate their students. Porcel thinks that, when language learners feel motivated, the learning process is easier and flows smoothly. Fed up with always doing the same thing? Want a break in between units? Trying to find something different for a change? According to Porcel, the answer to all these questions is easy: we, English Language Teachers, just need to choose a film and use it as a teaching method. The implementation of this approach had a great outcome in his ESL classroom. As he concludes from his experience, this is good practice both for secondary school students and also for adult learners. Thus, this educational tool helps English language learners to enrich vocabulary, to improve oral and aural skills, moreover, it raises intercultural awareness and develops critical understanding. To my mind, implementing this approach as an instructional tool in Georgian Schools will raise productiveness and effectiveness in English language learners (if we consider that not every Georgian student has an opportunity to go abroad/to interact with native speakers in order to practice English).

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ECOCRITICISM

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Abstract

Ecocriticism is a new critical approach which is concerned with the relationship between literature and the physical environment. Ecocriticism deals with the issues of today's environmental problems and tries to put forward new attitudes to offer a solution. That is to say the principal core of this new critical approach is to examine how human interaction with the environment reflects the culture: artifacts, ecology, biology and environmental science. In addition to these, in ecocriticism there are some methods to arouse the environmental awareness in literature. The paper discusses the subjects and the methods of ecocriticism.

Key words: ecocriticism, literature, environment, environmental problems, human interaction, nature, culture, ecology, biology, environmental science

Introduction

Human beings have faced with dangerous environmental crises in their recent history. Global warming, nuclear accidents, diminishing of green areas, aridity, unplanned urbanization, extinction of animal species, melting of icebergs and environmental pollution caused by domestic and industrial wastes destroy nature day by day and all of these are the effects of human beings who think themselves the only absolute power over nature. These crises force people to take urgent and radical precautions. The truth that we cannot live in any other place except the world, is not taken into consideration by human beings. Humans are equal to all living beings in the universe in terms of having common living spaces. Humans are not only the part of the nature, but also the members of the nature.

The only and everlasting solution which may stop environmental pollution caused by humans is to raise people's consciousness and awareness of nature and to teach the accurate environmental consciousness to the present community. In recent years, statistical information about destruction of nature is being reported in mass media. But it is very obvious that information which was put forward like statistical data, mathematical templates and numbers could not strike a chord on people about environmental awareness. The main factors that have an impact on human consciousness are literary works. With a little bit of help of stories,

maybe people can understand that nature is not a limitless source which belongs to humans. In this context, the importance of literary works are extremely significant.

It should be noted that literature and environmental researches are the most successful and influential ways on the subject of raising responsible people towards nature. In the 20th century, some new terms seeking for new solution methods came out with increasing literature and environmental researches, ecocriticism is one of them. Ecocriticism is a term which has had a huge impact all over the world. Between new terms that appeared in this era, ecocriticism became the most used and adopted one. Then, what is ecocriticism?

The first usage of ecocriticism, as a new term, has been seen in the article called “*Literature and Ecology*” by William Ruckert in 1978. He defines ecocriticism as “the application of ecology and ecological concepts to the study of literature, because ecology (as a science, as a discipline, as the basis for human vision) has the greatest relevance to the present and future of the world” (Ruckert, 1996:107). In this context, the possible relation between literature and nature is examined in terms of ecological concepts.

Although William Ruckert is the first person to use the term *ecocriticism*, the most commonly usage of the term started with the book named “*Ecocriticism Reader*” by Cheryl Glotfelty who is one of the pioneer ecocritics. According to Glotfelty “Ecocriticism is the study of the relationship between literature and physical environment”(Glotfelty, 1996:18).

As it can be understood from these two definitions, nature is in the limelight of ecocriticism, therefore it has came out as a scientific and ecologic concept.

Ecocriticism which was defined in 1978, manifested itself in literary texts in the 1980s, because these years are the awakening period for environmental problems. After then, this new eco-theory was applied to the works of Henry David Thoreau , Aldo Leopold and Terry Tempest Williams. After the 1990s, ecocriticism was institutionalized through interdisciplinary works of some scientists who work in this field and with the foundation of ASLE (Association for the Study of Literature and Environment), ecocriticism obtained an institutional identity.

In brief, ecocriticism is a new critical approach which is concerned with the relationship between literature and the physical environment. As Neil Evernden (1978:93)

said “everything is connected to everything else”. In fact, that is the first law of ecology. We, humans, did not obey this law and destroyed nature carelessly. But now, because of this fault, we are facing devastating environmental problems. At this point, ecocriticism takes the lead to solve these problems by reflecting all of them in literary texts and the main purpose here is to change the readers’ attitudes towards nature, environment, environmental crises, attract people’s attention and make them think on environmental issues. That is to say, the principal core of this new critical approach is to examine how human interaction with environment reflects the cultural artifacts, ecology, biology and environmental science.

In ecocriticism there are three main methods that arouse environmental awareness in literature:

Deep Ecology

In modern societies because of the fast industrialization and technological advancement, nature is started to be ignored. Herein what deep ecology tries to prioritise is nature. The *Deep Ecology* concept was firstly used by the Norwegian philosopher Arne Naess at the “Third World Future” research conference in Bucharest in 1972. As far as Naess is concerned, the principles of Deep Ecology are combined in eight points:

1. *Inherent value*

The well-being and flourishing of human and nonhuman Life on Earth have value in themselves (synonyms: intrinsic value, inherent value). These values are independent of the usefulness of the nonhuman world for human purposes.

2. *Diversity*

Richness and diversity of life forms contribute to the realization of these values and are also values in themselves.

3. *Vital Needs*

Humans have no right to reduce this richness and diversity except to satisfy vital needs.

4. Population

The flourishing of human life and cultures is compatible with a substantial decrease of the human population. The flourishing of nonhuman life requires such a decrease.

5. Human Interference

The present human interference with the nonhuman world is excessive, and the situation is rapidly worsening.

6. Policy Change

Policies must therefore be changed. These policies affect basic economic, technological, and ideological structures. The resulting state of affairs will be deeply different from the present.

7. Quality of Life

The ideological change is mainly that of appreciating life quality (dwelling in situations of inherent value) rather than adhering to an increasingly higher standard of living. There will be a profound awareness of the difference between big and great.

8. Obligation of Action

Those who subscribe to the foregoing points have an obligation directly or indirectly to try to implement the necessary changes (Naess, 1986:24).

According to the deep ecology, the most relentless enemy of nature is anthropocentric worldview, which puts humans into the centre of the universe, as if they were the only absolute power of the world. Everything is for humans and everything must serve them, according to the purposes of human being. This idea dominates literature as well. People who think in this way mainly focus on what is beneficial for man. If man is okay, the rest can be ignored, destroyed and exploited for the sake of the human being. To give some information on the background of anthropocentric worldview, especially its relation with nature would make the understanding of ecocritics' critique of the anthropocentric worldview clear. Josep W. Meeker asserts that:

Civilization, at least in the West, has developed as a tragedy does, through the actions of pioneering leaders who break new ground and surmount huge

obstacles. Religion and philosophy have usually affirmed the pioneer's faith that only his own kind really counts, and that he has a right-perhaps even an obligation- to destroy or subjugate whatever seems to obstruct his hopes of conquest (Meeker, 1996: 162-163).

The industrial revolution and technology are the significant elements that form the anthropocentric worldview and they make the anthropocentric worldview stronger in order to abuse and destroy nature. The deep ecology concept puts forward that nature itself has value and thus it turns a blind eye to industrial development into the background which can be harmful for nature. Actually nature can renew itself in time, but humans cannot...

Ecofeminism

Ecofeminism, which was formed with the feminist movement and ecology, was firstly used in 1974 by a French theorist Françoise d'Eubonne - one of the pioneers of feminism. According to ecofeminists, there is a connection between dominance of men over women and dominance of humans over nature. In Ecofeminism, the sole responsible of the destruction of nature is the man-centred approach. The discourse that Ecofeminism produced to save the nature became a tool attacking the patriarchal structure. The exploitation of both women and nature by patriarchy is the main point of view of Ecofeminism. In this context, they have a perspective on the view that women do not have any negative effects on nature and the exploitation of nature will come to an end when the exploitation of women ends up. As a result, the opinion that sees only men as the responsible of all environmental problems, cannot be accepted.

Ecopsychology

Advancing technology, population growth, limited job opportunities make people work harder. Under these circumstances, people work constantly and stay away from nature. This situation is the reason of alienation of people towards nature and Ecopsychology view tries to overcome this alienation by pointing out that nature is the only cure for unhappiness, restlessness of people in the modern world. Ecopsychology can be clearly explained by the eight rules of Theodore Roszak (1992) who is the creator of Ecopsychology;

- *The core of the mind is the ecological unconscious. For ecopsychology, repression of the ecological unconscious is the deepest root of collusive madness in industrial society. Open access to the ecological unconscious is the path to sanity.*
- *The contents of the ecological unconscious represent, in some degree, at some level of mentality, the living record of cosmic evolution, tracing back to distant initial conditions in the history of time. Contemporary studies in the ordered complexity of nature tell us that life and mind emerge from this evolutionary tale as culminating natural systems within the unfolding sequence of physical, biological, mental, and cultural systems we know as "the universe." Ecopsychology draws upon these findings of the new cosmology, striving to make them real to experience.*
- *Just as it has been the goal of previous therapies to recover the repressed contents of the unconscious, so the goal of ecopsychology is to awaken the inherent sense of environmental reciprocity that lies within the ecological unconscious. Other therapies seek to heal the alienation between person and person, person and family, person and society. Ecopsychology seeks to heal the more fundamental alienation between the recently created urban psyche and the age-old natural environment.*
- *For ecopsychology as for other therapies, the crucial stage of development is the life of the child. The ecological unconscious is regenerated, as if it were a gift, in the newborn's enchanted sense of the world. Ecopsychology seeks to recover the child's innately animistic quality of experience in functionally "sane" adults. To do this, it turns to many sources, among them traditional healing techniques of primary people, nature mysticism as expressed in religion and art, the experience of wilderness, the insights of Deep Ecology. Thus, for example, Wordsworth's hymns to the child's love of nature are basic texts for developmental ecopsychology, a first step toward creating the ecological ego.*
- *The ecological ego matures toward a sense of ethical responsibility to the planet that is as vividly experienced as our ethical responsibility to other people. It seeks to weave that responsibility into the fabric of social relations and political decisions. Among the therapeutic projects most important to ecopsychology is the re-evaluation of certain compulsively "masculine" character traits that permeate our structures of political power and which drive us to dominate nature as if it were an alien and*

rightless realm. In this regard, ecopsychology draws significantly on the insights of ecofeminism with a view to demystifying the sexual stereotypes.

- *Whatever contributes to small scale social forms and personal empowerment nourishes the ecological ego. Whatever strives for large-scale domination and the suppression of personhood undermines the ecological ego. Ecopsychology therefore deeply questions the essential sanity of our gargantuan urban-industrial culture, whether capitalistic or collectivistic in its organization. But it does so without necessarily rejecting the technological genius of our species or some life-enhancing measure of the industrial power we have assembled. Ecopsychology is postindustrial not anti-industrial in its social orientation.*
- *Ecopsychology holds that there is a synergistic interplay between planetary and personal well-being. The term "synergy" is chosen deliberately for its traditional theological connotation, which once taught that the human and divine are cooperatively linked in the quest for salvation. The contemporary ecological translation of the term might be: the needs of the planet are the needs of the person, the rights of the person are the rights of the planet.*

This synergistic relationship between people and nature is one of the most important approaches in justifying the modern world's problem. In Roszak's point of view, the problem of alienation will come to an end thanks to reliable integrity with nature.

Conclusion

Ecocriticism is an interdisciplinary approach which deals with solutions that can help to stop the environmental problems like global warming, melting of icebergs or environmental pollutions. In order to understand these problems and raise consciousness, ecocriticism uses literature (fiction) to change people's attitudes, attract their attention by reflecting all of these problems to literary works. Ecocriticism aims to create a universal transformation which cares for our planet and this transformation can only be done via environmental awareness. These are the main purposes and ideas which ecocriticism tries to show and overcome.

I want to complete my paper with the introduction part of the novel "Gut Symmetries" by Jeanette Winterson (1997:5):

We are the beginning. We are before time. Black/white, good/evil, male/female, conscious/unconscious, Heaven/Hell, predatory/prey, we compulsively act out the drama of our beginning, when what was whole, halved, and seeks again its wholeness.

Have pity on this small blue planet searching through time and space.

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STUDENTS' ABSTRACTS

***THE GIFT OF MAGI* BY O.HENRY IN CONNECTION WITH TECHNOLOGICAL WORLD**

Mariami Akopian

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The story is about a young married couple, Mr. James Dillingham Young Jim and his wife Della, who are short of money, but desperately want to buy Christmas gifts to each other. They have only two possessions in which they take pride: Della's beautiful long, hair, flowing almost to her knees, and Jim's shiny gold watch, which had belonged to his father and grandfather. Unknown to Jim, Della sells her most valuable possession, her beautiful hair in order to buy a platinum fob chain for Jim's watch. At the same time, unknown to Della, Jim sells his most important possession, the gold watch, in order to buy an expensive comb for Della's beautiful hair. O.Henry calls Jim and Della "foolish children", but their gifts are compared with those of the Magi (allusion to the Bible, which raises the simple story to a different level), which are considered to be the wisest.

There are several themes in the story: love knows no bounds, sacrifice as proof of wisdom, wealth is not a spiritual thing, and poverty. O.Henry draws our attention to the main problem - lack of money. The setting of this short story is Christmas Eve, modest apartment in New York City. There are both external and internal conflicts in the story. Della spends the day before Christmas, frantically searching stores for Jim's present. Had she lived in modern times, she could have saved time and trouble online via the Internet. Della had no idea which store carried the platinum watch chain she sought. Today, she could use the Internet to locate the store and item. Probably, today the same presents would not have been as valuable, as they were in the less technologically developed times. However, here the sacrifice is important, so the story could have happened in our time as well.

The climax of this story is when Jim and Della find out about their tricks. The narrator tells us that it does not really matter that Jim's and Della's presents turn out to be useless. They are the wisest givers of all, the givers of love - in fact, they are the magi.

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**WISE ADVICES AND JUVENILE IMPROVIDENCE ACCORDING
TO THE POEM "WHEN I WAS ONE-AND-TWENTY" BY ALFRED
EDWARD HOUSMAN**

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The paper discusses the life and creative work of Alfred Edward Housman and analyzes one of his poems. He was an English classical scholar and celebrated poet, who was considered as one of the foremost classicists of his age and has been ranked as one of the greatest scholars of all time. He knew from the very beginning what his life's work was to be: editing - the search for truth through correcting errors in classical texts. He had been making a name in the small world of textual criticism. Housman only published two volumes of poetry during his life: "A Shropshire Led" and "Last Poems". In all of his poetry he continually returns to certain favorite themes. The predominant themes are love, grief, inevitability of death and time. In his poems time is always the enemy. Another frequent theme in his poetry is the attitude that the universe is cruel and hostile, created by a God who has abandoned it. Moreover, he usually maintains sympathy both for the youth, who is the victim of war and for the patriotic cause of the nation. The poem "When I was one-and-twenty" comes from a collection of 63 poems called "A Shropshire Led". It speaks of advice or wisdom given to a young man by an older man, most probably by his father, regarding love affairs. But it seems that he did not pay attention to it. The poet, now older, is thinking

back to those words and makes some conclusions. The poem, with its slight aura of sadness, hints that the poet may have become entangled with a lady who has played with his feelings, affections or has seriously deceived him. The poem is considered by many people as one of the most poignant love poems ever committed to paper.

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THE AMERICAN DREAM IN AMERICAN LIFE AND LITERATURE

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The goal of this paper is to define the concept of American Dream - one of the most fundamental themes in American studies. The paper looks at the development of American dream since the existence of the USA, examines Americans' attitude toward it as well as criticism. It also includes a discussion about some of the greatest American literary works on the theme. The paper encompasses some famous Americans' opinions about it.

I have chosen the topic as it is very interesting and an inseparable part of my studies as a student of the department of American studies. It is one of the most important characteristics of American society and the values they adhere. From the early childhood, watching to American movies and reading American literature, I have always wondered what that American dream meant, so I decided to learn more about it and to let other people as well get aware of this dream.

The American dream is a national ethos of the United States, which can be described as a belief in freedom which allows all the residents of the USA to achieve their goals through hard work, and which suggests that opportunity for success and prosperity are equal for every human being in America, regardless of their social class, race, ethnicity and religious background. This dream shapes all American history, as its ideology can be traced back to the flood of immigration to the USA from its early times. People from European countries would sail for months to a new land in order to read the great promise America held. For

them American dream was to begin a new life without any obstacles and to achieve success and prosperity. The declaration of independence, which includes the idea of Unalienable rights, such as Life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness” is also a basis for the American dream.

The American dream has been a theme of many literary works, movies, songs, studies, etc. I have chosen several most prominent American literary pieces to discuss: Mark Twain’s “ The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn”, Frances Scott Fitzgerald’s “The Great Gatsby”, and Arthur Miller’s “The Death of A Salesman”. In all three, unfortunately, the American dream cannot be achieved, and with the time the disappointment is becoming harsher.

The public opinion about the American dream varies greatly. For majority, it associated with opportunity, freedom, and family. According to the latest opinion poll by Yougov in 2013 (Bedard, 2014) 41% of Americans think it is impossible to achieve this dream, 38% claims it is possible and 21% is unsure.

There is also harsh criticism over this concept - some people do not believe in the existence or possibility to achieve of American dream, claiming that the structure of society in the US prevents such an idealistic goal for everyone. “The owner of this country knew the truth - it is called the American dream because you have to be asleep to believe it’ - George Carlin, American comedian.

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IMPORTANCE OF MOTHERHOOD IN THE STORY “THE MOTHER” BY PATRICK PEARSE

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The paper discusses a short story by Irish writer, Patrick Pearse “The Mother” and generally the importance of motherhood. The writing deals with protagonist, Maire, who has the ability to quieten any child, but she does not have a child even though has been married for 4 years. Since she learns the story of the blessed virgin, who walks holding her child every Christmas night, she decides to ask the virgin for the child drinking milk from her breast. The scene is quite interesting and emotional as we all know that one of the most important things in women’s lives is to be a mother, to have children and take care of them. Many women will tell you that they have always dreamed of being mothers. They can tell you how they spent all of their youth mothering dolls, other children, and pets. It is said that a mother is only as happy as her least happy child. Mothers live, breathe, and sacrifice for the well-being of children. Seeing them succeed is the best thing in the world for them, and watching them falter is gut-wrenchingly hard. The most important thing in a mother’s life is that her children are safe, healthy and happy. That is what mothers want most out of life. They will sacrifice their own needs and desires to see their children have a good life. Motherhood is a process of knowing and understanding how to cope with the need of being guides to a young individual, being the protection that an infant needs and being a mentor and a teacher that a young child requires as she/he grows older. A mother tends to both the emotional and physical needs of a child. The important thing to remember is that the love we invest in our children absolutely makes a difference, even if we do not see it re-invested at first. Children teach us the true scope of love. To be a mother means commitment and sacrifice, the greatest of commitments and sacrifices in the world. And I say this here and now that a mother and homemaker is the greatest and noblest thing that any woman can do. God could not be everywhere, and therefore he created mothers. So that he made humanity’s future to be depended on mothers, as it is said “A nation is built or destroyed on the children”.

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LEARNING OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM

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Learning inside a classroom is a tried out and tested method of schooling. However, teachers and learners have always valued the additional opportunities for learning and conducting activities outside the classroom. If planned and implemented well, learning outside the classroom can effectively contribute to pupils' personal, social and emotional development. It increases students' motivation, self-confidence and interpersonal learning.

Learning outside the classroom can be conducted in any subject, such as literature, science, history, geography, art, etc. Using this approach to teaching can give students much: real life experience, social development, motivation and interest towards the subject or field, plus they better memorize the information which they get on the emotional background (excitement, impression). Students become more independent, self-confident and eager to explore, observe, and discover by themselves. At the same time they develop their recording and analytical skills, as well as the ability of understanding in "real world" context and summarizing. Besides, such kind of activities encourage students to work cooperatively and develop relationships between each other.

Many surveys were carried out, and, based on them, we can say that learners of all ages enjoy working away from the classroom. They find it 'exciting', 'practical', 'motivating', 'refreshing', and 'fun'.

It is not easy to implement this teaching method in your curriculum. You may face lots of difficulties. It requires additional time to plan and implement out-of-classroom activities properly in the curriculum. There are some risks in out-of-class activities and it is a huge responsibility. Also, in order to organize such lessons you need the support of the school administration (equipment, finances, etc.), which cannot always be available.

With this paper we want to show you what are the values of out-of-classroom learning and give you some ideas about managing out of class activities.

Bringing the outside world in the classroom is beneficial, but real experience outside the classroom can be even more fruitful. Nevertheless, it motivates students and, as we know, motivation is a key concept in teaching-learning process.

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CREATIVITY IN THE PRIMARY CURRICULUM

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The paper is based on the research of creative teaching as a collaborative enterprise that capitalizes on the unexpected and variously involves engagement, reflection and transformation, patterned at such a rate as to invite and encourage a questioning stance and motivate self-directed learning. In a world dominated by technological innovations, creativity is a critical component. Human skills and people's powers of creativity and imagination are key resources in a knowledge-driven economy and, as social structures continue to change, the ability to live with uncertainty and deal with complexity is essential. So organizations and governments all over the world are now more concerned than ever to promote creativity. It develops the kinds of skills that young people need in a rapidly changing world and can improve their self-esteem, motivation and achievement.

As primary professionals, we need to recognize that it is our responsibility to foster the creative development of the young. In recent years, creativity has been positioned more

centrally in the curriculum; ‘creative development’ is named as an Early Learning Goal in the Early Years

Foundation Stage and a high profile afforded creativity in the primary phase where, within the personal development framework, children are expected to ‘think creatively, make connections and generate ideas’, as well as consider alternative solutions to problems.

Many teachers still feel constrained by working in a culture of accountability, and you too are no doubt already aware that the backwash of the assessment system markedly affects classroom practice. Such pressure can limit opportunities for creative endeavor and may tempt you to stay within the safe boundaries of the known. Recognizing the tension between the incessant drive for measurable standards and the development of creative teaching is a good starting point, but finding the energy and enterprise to respond flexibly to this reality is a real challenge. In order to do so, you need to be convinced that creativity has an important role to play in education, and believe that you can contribute, both personally and professionally, and promote creativity through planning and will build in choice and autonomy, relevance and purpose in engaging environments of possibility – environments both inside and outside the classroom. You may also need to widen your understanding of creativity and creative practice in order to teach creatively and teach for creativity.

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CHILDREN’S IDENTITY

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Each individual has the right to have an identity. The identity of an individual is the assertion of his or her existence in a society. It is also a matter of recognition of their individuality and what differentiates them from their peers. Moreover, the theme of identity is about children developing a positive sense of who they are and feeling that they are valued and respected as a part of family and community.

As children grow from infancy to adulthood, they are affected by the environment around them as well as the genetics they are born with. As they grow older, they change and develop in many ways. Children go through many stages of social and moral development from the time of early childhood through adolescence, and they also face many social and emotional developments.

The development has several stages. Emotional development involves children learning that emotions represent their own reactions to situations and events and that children can differ from each other in their emotional responses. Middle childhood is a period during which children learn to control and regulate their own emotional reactions, and they improve their accuracy in 'reading' the emotions of other people. Children should also develop their morality which is defined as principles of how individuals ought to treat one another, with respect to justice, others' welfare, and rights. The founder of psychoanalysis, Freud (1962) proposed the existence of a tension between the needs of society and the individual. According to him, moral development proceeds when the individual's selfish desires are repressed and replaced by the values of important socializing agents in one's life.

School and the whole educational process have a crucial impact on the formation and development of children's identity. An effective educator must be mindful of the simple fact that children go to school for a living. School is their 'job', their livelihood, and is tightly linked with their identity. The critical role that school plays in the child's social development and self-concept must be recognized. Even if a child is enjoying academic success in the classroom, his/her attitude towards school will be determined by the degree of social success that he experiences.

In my research I will show these stages in detail and explain how children understand their role in society.

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Freud, S. (1962 [1930]). *Civilization and its Discontents*. New York: Norton & Co.

HOW AND WHY TO PLAN A LESSON?

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Lesson planning is a vital component of the teaching-learning process. Proper classroom planning will keep teachers organized and on track while teaching. The better prepared the teacher is, the more likely she/he will be able to handle whatever unexpectedly happens in the lesson. So, it must be organized in a very careful way, as there are several aspects, like class profile, that teachers must take into consideration while planning. It is important that the material you are going to provide is appropriate for the level of the class to get the outcome you are waiting for. The objectives must be clear to know exactly what goals you will reach through which step or activity. Though some teachers think that preparing an individual lesson plan for each class is time consuming, my answer is that it is worth to doing. It helps you to be confident, manage time and predict the possible problems that may arise. In this case you have the solutions beforehand. So the first part of my presentation will cover all these reasons of necessity of the lesson plan. Having the passive practice at one of the Georgian private schools in a frame of Teacher Training Program, one teacher inspired me to investigate a problem of suitability of a lesson plan and a class profile. The case was that there was used one lesson plan for two different classes. Though the grade was the same, the levels of students were different and the lesson plan worked also differently for both classes. So, in the second part I will discuss my personal experience, how lesson planning helps me while having already the active practice and will answer the questions that arose while observing the same lesson with different classes. Can one lesson plan be suitable for the classes with different class profiles? What is the importance of an individual lesson plan for each classroom? And, finally, what is generally the class profile, or why it is so important while planning? These are the main questions I will provide answers for, using my personal experience and some professional literature review. The paper will be concluded with the survey results, as I am going to research the attitudes of our university lecturers, how many of them plan the classes and how helpful they find it. Do they use the general frame of planning or they have some personal, specific or original steps for it? And how much attention do they pay to the class profile? This is not a full list of the questions I will deliver

to the lecturers through the help of Survey Monkey and the final results will be presented in the paper.

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FEMINISM IN “TENDER IS THE NIGHT” BY FRANCIS SCOTT FITZGERALD

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The paper deals with the emergence of feminism and changes in the social situation in the 1920th, based on the novel by Francis Scott Fitzgerald *Tender Is The Night*. The novel focuses on male's disadvantageous position in marriage, and the why and how masculine power and authority are not further reinforced. In addition, females in novel break away from the traditional status of “the second sex” and “the other”. They take more initiative and independence, and gain more and more power in the relationship between the two sexes, instead of being passive, fragile and always needing male's protection and support, as shown in traditional novels and work of previous authors. Readers were used to see in novels how writers explain male's victory, while *Tender Is The Night* is different, it expresses male's anxiety. The reason why Francis Scott Fitzgerald decided to show in his work the females' rise was that their social status has been improved, social gender has been reconstructed, new marriage concepts have developed because of the social change, and male writers become confused and anxious because of the change of male-female relationship and the change of gender roles. During the period, when Fitzgerald composed his novel *Tender Is The Night*, American men were shocked by feminization of American culture, in every Fitzgerald's novel we observe these changes that are taking place in society. In this particular novel, female characters, both Nicole and Rosemary are serving as catalysts for Dick Diver's decline. At the same time we see, changing in gender roles, that brings this fashion on

feminism. Because Dick Diver creates the world of Divers family, he is more active in social life than Nicole, he organizes parties and decides who has a chance to become part of Diver's family world. *Tender is the Night* shows further feminist progress for American women, particularly in the character of Rosemary. On the surface, Rosemary is a temptress who "plays her game cautiously, deliberately, with Dick slowly but surely slipping into her trap". Fitzgerald stressed the importance of feminism in America: "we realize that she is a progressive woman of American society"; "forget the dirty dishes at home and weep, even within the picture one woman wept so long that she almost stole the film away from Rosemary," (Fitzgerald., 1934). Like so many other American classics, *Tender is the Night* ends with its hero in a state of limbo, unable to go backward or forward and without a coherent, viable identity. Dick Diver loses his male identity because of the new American society that brings women to the top and make America run for women. Metaphorically Dick Diver's life represents the death of pre-War American morality and honor and the emergence of the post-War decadent Jazz Age. As a young man, Dick manages to come over the violence of World War I because his status as a professional doctor and intelligent person does not allow him to look like a violent animal.

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Postgraduate Programs of Education direction at IBSU

Admission requirements:

BA / MA diploma

Unified MA national admission exam (for Georgian citizens only) – with a possibility of getting a grant

Internal tests

Knowledge of English

Skills:

Professional Communication in English

Presentation

Computer

Research

Employment

At schools, universities as teachers and administration

(especially in Chaglar network of institutions)

English Philology Master Program

List of courses:

Compulsory:

Research Skills and Academic Writing in English Philology

Applied Linguistics

Lingvostylistics

Introduction to Socio-Linguistics

Anglo-American Literary Studies 1

Anglo-American Literary Studies 2

Master Thesis

Elective (2 to be chosen):

Lexical Semantic

Lingvopragmatics

Communicative Grammar

Linguistic theories

Free / Elective (from another program): 1

English Language Teaching Master Program

List of courses:

Compulsory:

Research and Study Skills

Cultural Issues in Language Teaching

Linguistic theories

Education

Language Skills and English Language Teaching

Teaching practice at school

Master thesis

Elective (2 to be chosen):

Psycholinguistics

Theories and Methods of Second Language Acquisition

General Psychology

Sociology

Secondary Education Management

Business English

Free (from another program) / Elective: 1

Education Management Master Program

List of courses:

Compulsory:

Research and Study Skills

Education Management

Global Education

Education

Assessment in Education

Leadership in Secondary Education

Teaching practice at school

Master thesis

Elective (1 to be chosen):

History of Education

Introduction to Management

General Psychology

Sociology

Free (from another program) / Elective: 1

Higher Education Administration Master Program

List of courses:

Compulsory:

Research and Study Skills

Higher Education Administration

Quality Assurance in Higher Education

Higher Education

Leadership in Higher Education

Higher Education Law

Financial issues in education

Master thesis

Elective (3 to be chosen):

General and Higher Education Psychology

Adult Education

History of Higher Education

Assessment Methods in Higher Education

Global Education

Sociology of Education

Culture and Academic Achievements in Education Culture

Curriculum and Syllabus Development in Higher Education

Education Sciences Doctoral Program

List of courses:

Compulsory:

Advanced Research Methods

Contemporary methods of teaching

Educational Psychology

Curriculum, Syllabus and Course Design

Educational Technologies

Education Management concentration

Leadership in Higher Education

Educational philosophy and reform

Higher Education Management and Administration

ELT concentration

Sociolinguistics

Applied Linguistics

Teaching English for Specific Purposes