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Dear Colleagues;

Welcome to the 6th International Research Conference on Education, English Language Teaching, English Language and Literature in English - IRCEELT 2016 in Tbilisi, Georgia.

The aim of the conference is to bring together researchers, practitioners and policy makers to discuss issues, tackle real challenges, develop professionally, share opinions, find solutions and explore opportunities in the areas of education. The conference serves the purpose of promoting a tight link between theory and practice and explores different perspectives on the application of research findings into practice. There are over 130 participants, experienced and well-known teachers, professors and educators from 18 different countries, such as Georgia, Turkey, the United Kingdom, Egypt, Azerbaijan, Canada, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, Iran, Iraq, Kazakhstan, China, Oman, Jordan, Poland, Turkmenistan, Nigeria, Spain, and Russia.

The working language for the conference is English. The presented papers cover a wide range of topic:

- Education (history, philosophy, psychology, theoretical issues in education)
- Classroom management
- Education leadership, management and administration
- Methods of teaching languages (innovation and effectiveness)
- Innovations and effective practices in education and language teaching
- Computer-assisted teaching
- Anglo-American linguistics and literature
- Language and culture

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General Coordinator of IRCEELT Conferences
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KEYNOTE SPEAKERS

Prof. Dr. Deena BORAIE (The American University in Cairo, Egypt)

Title of the Talk “The shifting landscape of English as the global lingua franca”

Throughout the history of languages, lingua francas such as Greek, Arabic, Persian, French, Spanish, spread mainly due to conquest and empire and then over time fell back to being confined to their original countries. English was also spread by conquest but unlike previous lingua francas, it is no longer connected to a single country or empire. The evolution of English to become a global lingua franca is unprecedented and now it is the dominant foreign language studied and used by over a billion people worldwide. This presentation will discuss the main drivers of the global use of English as well as the changes that have occurred to English itself and in the teaching and learning of English. The presenter will also reflect on the future of English as a global lingua franca and the current trends in defining the construct of English which have implications on the linguistic landscape worldwide.

Prof. Dr. Joanne WATERHOUSE (University College London, UK)

Title of the Talk “Curriculum Leadership for 21st Century Learning”

In this keynote lecture, I will argue a case for educational leadership that focusses on curriculum innovation for contemporary learning. In the UK context, innovation is constrained by the twin pillars of autonomy and accountability. Despite a national policy drive for increased autonomy, including the concept of a local, bespoke school offer for curriculum, educational leadership practice remains focused on external audit and assessment processes. It is challenging for teachers and principals to assert a professional authority that reclaims curriculum development as a matter of professional concern. There is a need for a revitalised, contemporary discourse of curriculum leadership that enables educational organisations to develop curricula that meets the needs of learners in the 21st Century. I argue that this should include collaboration with students, a recognition of technological resources and a re-evaluation of the core purposes of education.

Prof. Dr. Natela DOGHONADZE (International Black Sea University, Georgia)

Title of the Talk “Slow Education Movement as a Student-Centered Approach”

The majority of countries nowadays follow the Western approach with standardized curricula, tests and targets to ensure uniform outcomes. However, this approach often does not let us see individual students, with their learning peculiarities and needs, it often cares more about covering the syllabi than about the mental, emotional and social development of students. On the other hand, Slow Education is an evidence-based initiative to make time in the classroom for thinking, creative teaching and learning, value development and enjoyment. Education in this way becomes less stressful and eventually more efficient. More and more countries (Portugal, UK, China, Latin American countries) are joining the movement. Interestingly, large-scale experiments show that some countries (e.g., Spain) benefit from it, while others (e.g., Japan) do not – probably it depends on the traditional life-styles and values in the given cultures. The paper will view analyze the advantages and the disadvantages of the movement and its adequacy for Georgia.
TASTE WHILE COOKING THE DISH

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ABSTRACT

The whole process of cooking deals with a number of focal factors: writing or compiling different recipes, choosing an appropriate dish for the customers in accordance to their tastes, buying a supply of the needed ingredients and providing a selection of kitchen utensils. The process tends to be quite challenging if there is no good cook with all essential skills in the kitchen. Eventually, when the cook tastes the dish in the process of cooking, there is always a promising chance to add some necessary ingredients to make it delicious until it is served at the table. The same picture with all the components could be converted to the classroom environment and compared to assessment procedures. The cook is a teacher who deals with writing lesson plans, designing appropriate activities in accordance to students’ needs and interests, providing students with all the necessary materials, resources and amenities in the classroom. Correspondingly, the cook is a teacher who forms the students’ learning strategies, enhances the quality of education and keeps their energy level very high in the process of formative assessment until they are finally evaluated through summative assessment.

Key Words: Formative assessment, educational technologies

The following table describes a figurative comparison between cooking and teaching.

<table>
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<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Cooking</th>
<th>Teaching</th>
<th>Common Features</th>
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<tr>
<td>Cook</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Planning and tailoring the process in accordance to their customers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customers</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Deserve good results</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recipes</td>
<td>Lesson Plans</td>
<td>Could be deviated in case of necessity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different Dishes</td>
<td>Different Activities</td>
<td>Customers with different tastes/ mixed ability students (with different interests/needs)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingredients</td>
<td>Resources</td>
<td>Need to be fresh</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kitchen Utensils</td>
<td>Classroom Amenities/ Educational Technologies</td>
<td>Need to be updated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooking Skills</td>
<td>Teaching Skills</td>
<td>Need to be sharpened</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasting</td>
<td>Formative Assessment</td>
<td>It is designed for improvement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating</td>
<td>Summative Assessment</td>
<td>It is the result</td>
<td></td>
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It has to be pointed out that the focus of the presented paper is to highlight the importance of planning the teaching process for improvements rather than just demonstrating the results. Assessment is an integral component of the teaching
process and entails the information that enhances instruction and promotes learning (Reynolds, Livingston & Willson, 2010). The real nature of assessment is very clearly detected in formative assessment, which enables teachers to use information on learners’ progress during a course to adapt their teaching and/or to give learners feedback on their learning. The core essence of formative assessment is in providing students with the feedback, as it is designed for learning (Angus & Watson, 2009). According to Gikandi (2010), formative assessment is a crucial element for effective learning. Teaching methods applied to contemporary classrooms tend to be assessment-centered, to provide learners with the opportunities ‘to prove their emerging abilities and receive backing to enrich their learning’ (Lemanski, 2011, p.34). Therefore, the digital natives whom we have in our classrooms really seek for innovative ways to form their world of obtaining, filtering and storing the data. The presented paper explores the current approaches to harness the power of digital formative assessment tools.

Classroom ‘Plickers’

Plickers is a powerful digital formative assessment tool, which enables teachers to save their time in the classroom and collect real-time formative assessment data without the need for student devices. They do not need to login on a computer or install the app in their smartphones, which is a great chance for the teachers to engage all the students in the learning without feeling self-conscious. The students are given a card with a unique visual code, which has four sides, each lettered A, B, C and D. The students hold the card so that the letter they choose to respond to the question is at the top of the card. The teachers use iOS or Android app on the smartphone to scan the answers and results appear live in real time on the screen (for further details, visit https://plickers.com).

Kahoot

Kahoot is also a good digital tool to assess students’ knowledge in the classroom. Unlike Plickers, Kahoot is a learning game platform, which consists of multiple-choice questions - as a quiz, discussion or survey - in any topic. It creates a friendly competitive environment. However, the application needs an Internet access, which might be a problematic issue in some cases. Students answer on their own devices, while games are displayed on a shared screen to unite the lesson – creating a ‘campfire moment’ – encouraging players to look up (for further details, visit https://getkahoot.com).

It has to be pointed out that these digital applications are only designed for formative assessment and not for the summative one, due to the fact that still there is a high probability of guessing, as there are only selected-response items. Different types of questions could be created on Formative (https://goformative.com/). With the help of this online platform, students can type, show their work with drawings or submit images. The option of constructing open-ended questions makes this digital tool different from others tools mentioned above.

A similar type of digital assessment tool is Socrative (http://www.socrative.com/). It provides the teachers with the opportunity to assess their students as learning occurs. Using real-time questioning, result aggregation and visualization, the teachers have instant insights into the levels of their students’ understanding. The application visualizes student and whole-class understanding in a moment. Student results populate the teacher’s screen as they submit answers to multiple choice, true/false, graded short answer, or open-response questions. Teachers can review student understanding in a variety of report types: whole-class overview, student-specific results, or question-by-question breakdown.
The mixture of online ingredients with different flavors employed in the classroom will definitely increase the students' motivation and energy levels.

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Links for the digital formative assessment tools:

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3. [https://getkahoot.com](https://getkahoot.com)
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THE IMPORTANCE OF NEEDS-BASED APPROACH TO BUSINESS ENGLISH CURRICULUM

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ABSTRACT
A demand for BEAC (Business English Academic Course) has been growing throughout the world and, consequently, there is an increased necessity in qualified and certified instructors who can teach the language of international communication to the communities whose number have reached approximately 2 billion. This is why considering an ever-increasing market for high quality Business English teaching, it is a necessity to consider higher qualifications, such as, higher diploma or masters-level course specifically for business English in the nearest foreseen future. The heterogeneity of the specific BE population poses difficult problems in front of the teachers and trainers of BE. The paper will discuss how to increase business English teachers’ qualification and how to help them deal with the class whose age, culture, interests and needs differ a lot.

Key words: Business English, business communication, business translation, BE teacher qualification, business terminology

INTRODUCTION
The presentation of the problem – why it is so important to select content and teaching methods of Business English (BE) academic course based on needs of the students – is dictated by my personal experience when I faced a wide range of problems while teaching Business English to different groups of students at the University and outside it. The necessity of prioritizing definite aspects of BE contents and methods of teaching evolved each time when I confronted the class, which instantly demonstrated its specific features and needs. The topic is also interesting for me because I am a Georgian teacher with a humanitarian background and teach Business English - a multi-disciplinary course to the groups of students who have different education purposes, backgrounds and levels in English language.

A demand for BEAC (Business English Academic Course) has been growing throughout the world and, consequently, there is an increased necessity in qualified and certified instructors who can teach the language of international communication to the communities whose number have reached approximately 2 billion. Daniel Castello, a Canadian teacher of Business English in his letter to Ms. Vaughan (2011), claims that business English lacks professionalism as no clearly set out qualifications or standards exist for business English practitioners. This approach is shared also by others who are either disappointed by the services they receive or the teachers who pay for their business English certificates and are not satisfied with the results. Should there be more accredited qualifications for business English teachers? Considering an ever-increasing market for high quality Business English teaching, it is a necessity to consider higher qualifications, such as, higher diploma or masters-level course specifically for business English in the nearest foreseen future.
Who are the customers of BE? Why is a demand for the BE course increasing so rapidly? The customers of BE is a wide circle of people representing different segments of population. Those who need to get knowledge and qualification in BE either for academic or employment purposes vary a lot according to their nationality, age, and level of language knowledge. The heterogeneity of the specific BE population poses difficult problems in front of the teachers and trainers of BE. Universities and colleges offer BE academic course to the students who study at business, financing and management departments. The students of Humanities and English philology study business translation to be ready for their career development in business related environment, such as interpreters, office managers, or PR specialists. Nowadays, in Georgia, like in most countries, job requirements almost always include at least minimum knowledge of business communications: written and oral. The customers’ demands in BE vary according to the job specialization and the field of the business which could be as different as: agribusiness, electrification, financing, banking, education management, trade, and many others. Some students are focused on developing one skill – such as oral communications rather than written, based on their job specificities. Therefore, their needs vary, and consequently, the teachers have to consider a wide range of interests of group members.

**BE Teacher’s qualification**

Does a teacher of BE require a particular qualification to conduct the course on the academic level? My answer is ‘yes’, because a teacher is supposed to have not only an advanced level of English, but also should possess a high awareness in business and economics to explain the meanings of business terms. Experience in teaching all three skills – reading, writing and speaking, which are normally taught by different teachers at the colleges – is also necessary, because a BE academic course normally covers: grammar material, business letter-writing and vocabulary, development of oral and written communications, presentation and negotiation skills, comprehension of the of business talks held round the negotiation tables and over the phones or through the Skype. Those skills require specific training to achieve positive results.

A teacher should be creative enough to develop an individual approach and demonstrate innovative teaching skills in order to attract and inspire the students of different ages and professions, he/she must be ready to demonstrate a flexible approach to his/her students (as the BE class is usually rather heterogeneous), as well as to teaching materials which in many cases require a profound modification to fit to the students’ need.

Normally, the teachers’ qualification fits to a particular age group which also means that the teacher possesses a certain range of teaching methods, but those who teach BE class should possess a very large scope of teaching methods, effective for different age groups of students who also have different levels of English language knowledge. Lastly, a BE teacher should read systematically some articles and other business and economy-related materials and have some working experience in a business environment, to provide content-related explanations of the terms and expressions, and to be able to direct case-based discussions, simulations and role plays in a class, which requires a great deal of imagination and close-to-reality scenarios.

So, it is possible to assert that a teacher/ trainer who conducts BE classes should combine teaching skills with a high qualification and good understanding of the field related materials. Finally, he/she should be a good psychologist to encourage and motivate the students, an excellent class manager and should possess advanced internet skills to obtain rich electronic resources and use them as an effective teaching tool.
How should a BE teacher manage it all? Teach all business content, build vocabulary, develop four verbal communication skills and business-related content: business-letter writing, press-release, meeting minutes, CV, application letter, a letter of reference?

Based on my many-year-long BE teaching experience, I have identified three different BE study courses according to their contents and purposes.

A. **A business academic course** for the college students who intend to learn business English to advance in their field of study. While working on the curriculum for such an audience, I focus on: 1. General grammar and its business-related specific aspects often accompanied by adequate translations, because many misunderstandings emerge in the result of misuse of grammar structures or patterns. The texts given in order to demonstrate particular grammar material are also business-related and the sentences in grammar exercises are certainly from the same field.

B. **Reading and vocabulary** development, which is usually content-based and represent the core of the course. The texts which I choose for this class are taken from the materials the students learn in field-related subjects, because it makes the content more necessary and appealing. On the other hand, articles from newspapers and journals should be challenging in terms of their language complexity and address to the present-day problems. As a result, the students’ vocabulary development is motivated through interesting and updated materials they are offered. By the end of the forty-five hour course, the students come up with their personal vocabulary file which contains about 1500-business and economics terms and expressions collected from different text-books, listening and writing materials.

C. **Developing writing skills** when teaching business language is a very time-consuming and complex task, because it embraces different forms of writing, such as business letter writing

D. (orders, commissions, refusals, notifications, etc.), semi-formal and informal personal e-mails, agendas, action minutes, also writing of press releases, company’s guidelines, memos, and minutes of the management committee meeting. Different kinds of reports and executive summaries are the most complicated forms of writings and the students need to have examples of each format with necessary comments and recommendations.

E. **Audio-video materials** should be rather accurately selected for comprehension development and they should vary in terms of contents and form. Besides, it is very important that the materials are presented with different accents and pronunciation peculiarities, because the students in the future will have to deal with this problem in their everyday work. The chosen video materials should help the students to be involved in live discussions. The students fill out the listening exercises and answer the questions to monitor their progress in their comprehension kills.

F. **Communication skills** development cannot be achieved separately, because all the above-mentioned aspects of Business English are to be developed simultaneously. It is highly desirable to target the study materials to the students’ particular business activity and the environment he/she works in. In the long run, it is an attainable goal, but it requires an intensive training and a wisely compiled activity file, which contains some cases and business situations to be discussed and argued in class, **near-live dialogues, recorded conversations**. The teacher needs a
high qualification and good class management skills to involve the majority of the students in different class activities, such as simulation, role play, round table disputes or imitation of the business meeting.

A general business English course (high intermediate/advanced level) for a non-business faculty students who intend to find a job in a business-related environment demands a rather different approach to make it accessible and meaningful for its customers. A teacher who starts teaching BE to the students who have a near-zero background in Business or economy faces even bigger challenges, because the students have little or no awareness of the field, they are less motivated to read field-related literature, and are reluctant to participate in the class activities on topics such as team building, the future of business, how to start a business, success in business, communication in the company, etc. Application of the case-study method with them is rather problematic, mostly because the students have no idea how to deal with the situations, or how to find solutions to different business problems (for example, case studies on: Takeovers and Mergers, Raising Finance, Crisis Management, Risk Management).

The teacher should be ready to make necessary adjustments in syllabus and curriculum in accordance with the necessities dictated by the class. Building of the vocabulary should start from very elementary words and must be given in a context with necessary synonyms and native (Georgian) equivalents. The problem is that the students do not know the meaning of the Business terms and collocations. Standard dictionary explanations are not effective, unless the students are given an extended accessible rationalization of the terms. One of the most effective ways for giving a brief information around the specific topic and of some professional terms is through computerized visions, pictures, explanations, through cartoons, brief dialogues, etc. One of the problems while teaching vocabulary is that the meaning of the commonly used word often changes in a business context and leads to even more confusion. Building personal vocabulary is rather useful since the student explains the term with some examples and gives the proper contextual definition of the term or phrase.

English to native (Georgian) translation of business texts, both oral (done in class) and written (mostly as a home assignment), encourages students to find adequate terms in their native language and overcome the confusion and embarrassment they feel in relation with the new field of study. Extensive practice in translation helps students to highlight the vocabulary and grammar difficulties and prepare them for professional activities as interpreters and office clerks.

It is advisable that the discussions, related to case studies, which deal with less specific business situations, be offered only at the end of the course when the students’ awareness is raised and the basic vocabulary is built.

The most effective approaches to BE teaching is when the class is divided into considerably smaller working groups, referred to as ‘companies’ and are given names. Each group chooses its leader – a ‘company’ ‘president/boss’ and other ‘managing directors’. Business world is the most competitive one and, consequently, in each activity, offered to the class, there should be an element of competition.

Each group acts as an independent subject and competes with the other groups. This is the main idea of the BE class. Groups earn points at each lecture for their class activities, such as presentation of the new vocabulary, oral translations, group presentations, quizzes, setting up ‘business projects/plans’ in class, and other.

An original approach to oral communication development was used recently in a BE class when two groups were communicating through telephone from different classrooms. To what extent the responses were adequate was evaluated
through decisions made by the groups, while the most important ones were written down by group members of the other group.

The same principle was applied when developing the students’ letter/e-mail writing skills. The ‘companies’ were trying to negotiate and reach consensus on different problems, such as selling and buying, prices, merger between the two companies, and commercial disputes.

During the course, students’ group presentations are very effective. It develops a number of essential skills simultaneously, such as teamwork, creative approach, independent work and communication. Since it is their individual work, students are involved with more enthusiasm and make decisions regarding the choice of the topic from the area they have not dealt with before. However, some general instructions should be given by the teacher in advance, such as presentation plan, or the problems they have to deal with in the presentation.

Creating near-to-real situations in class makes BE classes more lively and interesting. When BE study course is delivered at the company’s office, the scenarios very typical for the company’s business activity become the topic of the case-study approach. If it is a university-based course, it is possible to invite business faculty students (and possibly a professor) to the class as business rivals’ group which will be involved in the pre-planned contest.

Nowadays, one hardly imagines the class which does not heavily rely on internet resources, and a BE study course at all levels of study is not an exception. But the teachers have to be very scrupulous in choosing internet materials. Firstly, the materials used should be accessible and intelligible for the students. The business world news are rather complicated not only for students, but also for business people. The internet material should be targeted to the topic the students have been studying currently, so that they would be able to understand the words and the situation. Comprehension problem should be effectively addressed, if the teacher offers the news first with translation next to English texts, and finally only English news. To reach listening comprehension will be easier, if students first fill out some gaps in pre-printed handouts.

Business newspapers and journals contain much eye-catching information; reading and discussing the articles in class about business in their country (Georgia) is better understandable for the students and are more interesting for the students. So, in our case, it is important to offer the students local press and business news.

In many BE study courses, teaching specific aspects of English grammar is often ignored, which is a big mistake. It is necessary to focus on: passive forms, adverbs of degree, conditionals, and modal perfects, also the words which denote connections between one statement and another. The students should be given grammar exercises, based on BE situations which will help them realize the meaning and importance of correct grammar application.

CONCLUSION

A many-years-long experience of teaching BE to different target groups leads me to the following conclusion: the most instrumental role in successful completion of the course plays the students’ motivation. Top reach this, they should be assisted by a highly professional and motivated teacher. BE is a very dynamic course, therefore, the lecturer should be able to target it to the students’ needs and interests, to reflect adequately on the problems emerging during the sessions, and adjust the teaching to the students’ needs and abilities. Instant decisions are often to be made in class during the sessions, to achieve maximum concentration. My personal opinion regarding the problem whether a teacher needs to have general
knowledge in the field is positive. A BE teacher should constantly work on self-development, read additional materials and build awareness in the field. Normally teachers are qualified in teaching one or another skill, but in BE, they have to develop all four language skills and teach the course which actually requires considerable knowledge of the subject, which is beyond their field of study. These and other factors make the teaching process of BE rather complicated and stressful for teachers.

The length of the study course for BE teachers should be no less than two semesters with 45 teaching hours in each semester. The students’ overall home work load for the course is at least two times more than it is envisaged for another, e.g. English Grammar, study course. Teaching materials should be very carefully selected by the lecturer, based on the course objectives, students’ goals, by the students’ language competence and range of interest. The enlarged and modified curriculum should be also enriched by different on-line, video and printed materials from different business topics, which serve the development of four business language skills in students: reading, writing, listening and speaking. Offering a wide variety of learning materials is instrumental for building business vocabulary, which by the end of the course should encompass about 2- 2.5 thousand units, including business terms, collocations, phrases and expressions.

REFERENCES

IRANIAN LEARNERS’ L2 SELVES AND THEIR SELF-REGULATED LEARNING STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT

Dörnyei L2 motivational self-system has recently become the major impetus for the researchers to bring the self-concept to the fore and consider the two dimensions of self-images i.e., Ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self as influential determiners in L2 learners’ success. Besides, the effective use of SRL strategies cannot be ignored in easing L2 learning process. By integrating the two notions of the self along with SRL strategies, the present study investigated the relationship of ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and SRL strategies among Iranian L2 learners. To this end, multiple correlation analyses and regression analyses were implemented. The results of correlation analyses revealed that developing Iranian learners’ ideal L2 selves can be an influential motivational process on SRL strategies. Among SRL strategies components, ideal L2 self demonstrated a significant correlation, first, with motivational strategies (e.g. task value and self-efficacy) and second, with learning strategies (cognitive, metacognitive, and resource management strategies). In contrast, ought-to L2 self did not show considerable correlation with SRL strategies (motivational strategies). Regarding learning strategies components, the only small correlation was found between the ought-to L2 self and peer learning. The results of regression analyses also revealed that among motivational strategies components, task value was the strongest predictor of ideal L2 self. However, no components of learning strategies were observed as predictor/s of ideal L2 self. Finally, one-way ANOVA showed that proficiency levels were strong in showing significant differences in the mean scores of Ideal L2 self and SRL strategies.

Key words: ideal L2 self; ought-to L2 self; SRL strategies; motivational strategies; learning strategies

INTRODUCTION

A learner’s sense of self is considered to play a key role in academic achievement (Pajares and Schunk, 2005, cited in Csizér & Magid, 2014) and more importantly in language learning since ‘language, after all, belongs to a person’s whole social being; it is a part of one’s identity and is used to convey this identity to other people’ (William & Burden, 1997, p. 115, cited in Csizér & Magid, 2014). As a new area of research in second language (L2) acquisition the importance of self-concept has been emphasized among researchers since the emergence of Dörnyei L2 (2005, 2009) motivational self-system. This paradigmatic shift in L2 motivation which has been drawn on Possible selves theory (Markus & Nurius, 1986, 1987) and Higgin’s (1987) self-discrepancy theory introduces two future self-guides associated with imagined experience (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). According to Dörnyei (2009), Ideal L2 self, as the central component in Dörnyei L2 motivation model, represents an ideal image of an L2 user of whom he/she desires to be in the future. Ideal L2 self is considered as “a powerful
motivator to learn an L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves” (p. 29). The second complementary self-guide, ought-to L2 self, as a less internalized aspect of the L2 self, refers to attributes that one believes he/she ought to possess as a result of perceived duties, obligations, or responsibilities (Dörnyei, 2009). Those with a powerful ought-to L2 selves are motivated to learn an L2 because they feel that they are obliged to live up to the expectations set by their significant others (e.g., parents) (Chan, 2014).

As for motivated learners, the active use of SRL (self-regulated learning) strategies is one of their characteristics (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2008). Zimmerman & Martinez-pons (1986) define SRL strategies as ‘actions and processes directed at acquiring information or skill that involve agency, purpose, and instrumentality perceptions by learners.’ These strategies encompass methods such as ‘organizing and transforming information, self-consequating, seeking information, and rehearsing or memory aids’ (cited in Zimmerman & Martinez-pons 1986, p. 329).

Zimmerman and Schunk (2008) claimed that motivational processes are key factors playing significant roles in initiating, guiding, and sustaining SRL. The present study attempts to see if developing Iranian EFL learners’ L2 selves can be an influential motivational process in triggering the effective use of SRL strategies.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The inevitable role of motivation in L2 acquisition and its complex nature have led to abundant theoretical discussions and research. In the recent years, the notions of globalization and global English have in turn made many dramatic changes or added new dimensions in L2 motivation and other new concepts, such as language identity and self-concepts, have encouraged researchers to reconceptualize and retheorize its old notion (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2009; Ushioda, 2011, 2013).

According to Dornyei & Ushioda (2009), it is not easy to pinpoint the exact root for this paradigmatic shift in thinking. We can just look at some contributing factors and developments which have brought the notion of the self to the core of L2 motivation theorizing.

One of the most influential theoretical concepts attracting the most attention within the L2 motivation field is integrative orientation, which is defined as “reflecting a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group” (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 132, cited in Dornyei & Ushioda, 2009, p. 2). In fact, the integrative concept derived from a parallel Gardner and Lambert drew from processes of social identification which underpins first language acquisition, through which ‘the infant attempts to imitate the verbalizations of its caregivers for the reinforcing feedback which this imitation provides.’ Gardner and Lambert explained that a process similar to social identification ‘extended to a whole ethnolinguistic community’ may sustain the long-term motivation that one needs to master an L2 (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 12, cited in Dornyei & Ushioda, 2009, p. 2). Despite these attempts to conceptualize L2 motivation, the basic assumption underlying the integrative concept that L2 learners ‘must be willing to identify with members of another ethnolinguistic group and take on very subtle aspects of their behavior’ has been the issue of debates among researchers (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 135, cited in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009, p. 2).

In the recent years, the debates on integrative concept have been escalated. Some researchers have in fact raised skepticism over the concept of integrative orientation when there is no specific target reference group of speakers (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). Accordingly, Yashima (2002) broadened the concept of integrativeness to refer to what she calls international posture. She defines international posture as “interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to say
or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures” (p. 57). Challenging the concept of integrativeness, Ushioda (2011) also pointed out that the notion of integrativeness has no strong relevance to motivation in learning contexts as long as there is no exact community of a target language because of the advancing ways of communication around the globe, such as online communication networks. These debates were viewed as the starting point not to think about motivation as “an external reference group,” but “as a part of one’s internal representation of oneself” (Ushioda, 2013, p.3) - a new line of thinking that made researchers to reconceptualize L2 motivation in terms of what Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) call: “an internal process of identification within the self-concept” (p. 453), what made Dörnyei to frame a new model of L2 motivation.

What is laid at the heart of Dörnyei framework of L2 motivation is an individual’s imagination of his/her own self, what Dörnyei (2005, 2009) calls as: possible (imagined) selves. Dörnyei distinguishes two types of possible selves, which are considered as the two components of his motivational self system: ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self. According to Irie and Brewster (2013), ideal L2 self refers to “a learner’s desired L2 user attributes” that is essential in shaping a border successful future self-imagery. They define the second component, ought-to L2 self, as “an L2 user self-image that learners feel obliged to realize or to avoid becoming” (p. 110). This distinction is a backbone to a better understanding of how individuals’ visions of their selves can lead them to “acquire L2-mediated identities,” the one that can sustain motivation and leads an individual to an effective learning and the use of L2 (Yashima, 2013, p. 36).

Accordingly, the two notions of the self can be beneficial for EFL learners, especially in contexts where the minimum level of interaction exists between EFL learners and native speakers. However, this fact has incurred noticeable problems in their quest of learning a foreign language (FL). There are still some other problems that may block the making of an effective teaching atmosphere for EFL learners: the individualistic differences between learners and their different preferences on the use of SRL strategies.

Zimmerman (1986, 1989) defines SRL as being metaconitively, motivationally, and behaviorally active participants in learning process. In another words, learners try to work on their own, without the help of teachers or instructors, in order to acquire knowledge. Pintrich (2000) explains self-regulation or SRL as “an active constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning and then attempt to monitor, regulate, and control their cognition, motivation, and behavior guided and constrained by their goals and the contextual features in the environment” (p. 453). As Zimmerman and Schunk (2011) state, in SRL, learners are considered to be proactive in order to set goals and engage in a self-regulatory cycle in which motivational beliefs are viewed as an essential part.

Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986, 1988) state that the reasons for studying SRL come from research supposing that self-regulatory processes viewed as an important source of achieving differences among students. The other reason is that SRL is an effective means in order to improve achievement of students that ranges greatly in proficiency (Schunk, 1981, 1984). A large number of research in this area has shown that students who make use of self-regulatory processes experience greater academic success and motivation, possess stronger academic skills, and perform well on various types of academic tasks (Schunk & Usher, 2013; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2005; Zimmerman, 2000). According to Zimmerman (1986), what characterizes SRL is the use of specific strategies based on self-efficacy perceptions to achieve academic goals. Afflerbach, Pearson, and Paris (2008) define SRL strategies as deliberate goal-directed attempts that manage and control efforts to learn the L2. “These strategies are broad teachable actions that learners choose from among alternatives and
employ for L2 learning purposes (e.g., constructing, internalizing, storing, retrieving, and using information; completing short-term tasks; and/or developing L2 proficiency and self-efficacy in the long term)” (Oxford, 2013, p. 12). Although SRL strategies can account for self-regulated learners’ achievement, the mere knowledge of these strategies does not necessarily promise learners’ achievement. Learners need to be motivated to use these strategies (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990).

So far, a large number of studies have been done not only on L2 motivational self system but also on self-regulation and SRL strategies; however, integrating the two notions of the self along with SRL strategies is a new path recent investigation. So, the hope is that much closer and broader research in this domain can boost up L2 language pedagogy. Accordingly, the present study was an attempt to investigate the relationship between Iranian EFL learners’ L2 selves and their SRL strategies (along with its components). In this respect, the following research questions were formulated:

1. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian learners’ ideal L2 self and their SRL strategies (motivational and learning strategies)?
2. Among the components of motivational strategies, which one(s) can be predicted by Iranian learners’ ideal L2 self?
3. Among the components of learning strategies, which one(s) can be predicted by Iranian learners’ ideal L2 self?
4. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian learners’ ought-to L2 self and their SRL strategies (motivational and learning strategies)?
5. Are there any differences in the mean scores of L2 selves and SRL strategies among Iranian L2 learners with different language proficiency levels?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

To obtain homogeneous data in terms of learners’ language proficiency, Oxford Placement test (OPT) (Allen, 2004) with considerable reliability and validity measures was used among 200 Iranian EFL learners. For the main purpose of this study, a total of 121 Iranian EFL students representing several universities in Iran were selected randomly. The main reason for the choice of universities was accessibility. Based on the scoring guideline by Allen (2004), the participants divided into three levels of upper-intermediate, intermediate, and lower-intermediate. They were B.A. learners of English, majoring in English Literature and English Translation Studies, and M.A. learners of TEFL, with the mean age of 23.

**Instrumentations**

**OPT**

To ensure the participants’ homogeneity in terms of their proficiency, the OPT was employed to divide the learners into three levels of upper-intermediate, intermediate, and lower-intermediate. With the Cronbach’s alpha value of .81, OPT showed to have a very good internal consistency and was reliable. Consisting of 100 multiple-choice items, this test is supposed to evaluate the grammatical knowledge of the participants. According to the scoring guidelines by Allen (2004), 36 participants who scored above 68 out of the total possible score, were considered as upper-intermediate learners, 50 participants who scored between 49-68 were considered as intermediate learners, and 35 participants with the score
ranging between 33-49 of were labeled as lower-intermediate learners. These three levels of participants were supposed to make the sample of this study.

The English Learner Questionnaire

To determine Iranian EFL leaners' L2 selves (ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self), a large-scale attitudinal questionnaire by Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009), which is originally based on Dörnyei Hungarian study, was employed. The English Learner Questionnaire comprises 76 items. This questionnaire evaluates learners on a 6-point Likert scale (ranges from strongly agree to strongly disagree) and it takes nearly 30 minutes to be filled out. While the questionnaire contains a large number of items measuring many latent variables, the present study used two constructs with the reliability index of:

1. Ideal L2 self (α=.81): Six items were concerned with the L2-specific facet of one's ideal self.
2. Ought-to L2 self (α=.69): Six items measured the L2-specific facet of one's ought-to self.

Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)

Subsequently, in order to gather the required data to assess L2 learners’ SRL strategies, MSLQ, developed by Pintrich et al. (1991) was used. As a self-report instrument, MSLQ comprises 81 items. These items divided into two broad categories: motivation section (motivational strategies section) and learning strategies section. According to MSLQ manual, the motivation section includes 31 items assessing students’ goals and value beliefs for a course, their beliefs about their skills to succeed in a course, and their anxiety about tests in a course. The learning strategies section consists of 31 items relating to student’s use of different cognitive and metacognitive strategies. In addition, the learning strategies section comprises 19 items regarding learners’ management of different resources (Pintrich et al., 1991). Thus, MSLQ consists of 15 subscales, six within the motivation section and nine within the learning strategies section. The learners are assessed on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from not at all true of me to very true of me. The total scale has a reliability coefficient of α= 0.95 (Feiz, Hooman, & Kooshki, 2013). In the present study, the Cronbach’s Alpha was 0.93.

Procedures

Prior to the study, the OPT was administered to 200 undergraduate and M. A. students of English Translation Studies, English Literature, and TEFL and based on the associated rating scale of the OPT advanced by Allen (2004), the participants were divided into three levels of upper-intermediate, intermediate, and lower-intermediate and considered as the homogenous sample for the main purpose of the study.

In the next step, after giving a clear explanation, the participants were asked to fill out the English Learner Questionnaire in 10 minutes.

Finally, after the first questionnaire were answered, in order to evaluate the relationship between the participants’ L2 selves and their motivational and learning strategies, MSLQ was administered to the same participants. The participants were asked to fill out the second questionnaire in 20-30 minutes.

RESULTS
Correlation between the Ideal L2 Self and SRL Strategies (Motivational and Learning Strategies)

In order to examine the relationship between Iranian EFL learners’ ideal L2 self and their SRL strategies (motivational and learning strategies), the Pearson product-moment correlation was computed. The results are shown in tables 1, 2, and 3:

Table 1. Correlation Between The Ideal L2 Self And SRL Strategies (Motivational And Learning Strategies)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SRL strategies</th>
<th>Motivational Strategies</th>
<th>Learning Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ideal L2 self</td>
<td>.46** .47** .39**</td>
<td>.000 .000 .000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in table 1, in terms of the first variable, there were positive correlation between ideal L2 self and SRL strategies, in which \((r = .46)\), \(p < 0.05\). Ideal L2 self made a highly significant correlation with SLR strategies components: motivational strategies \((r = .47)\), \(p < 0.05\), and learning strategies, \((r = .39)\), \(p < 0.05\).

Table 2. Correlation Between The Ideal L2 Self And Motivational Strategies Components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Intrinsic goal</th>
<th>Extrinsic goal</th>
<th>Task value</th>
<th>Control of learning</th>
<th>Self-efficacy</th>
<th>Test orientation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>orientation</td>
<td>orientation</td>
<td>belief</td>
<td>anxiety</td>
<td>self-efficacy</td>
<td>belief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideal L2 self</td>
<td>.46** .24** .51** .30** .50** -.19*</td>
<td>.000 .008 .000 .001 .000 .036</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of motivational strategies components, as seen in table 2, there were two large positive correlations, first, with Iranian EFL learners’ ideal L2 self and task value, \((r = .51)\), \(p < 0.05\), and second, with Iranian EFL learners’ ideal L2 self and their self-efficacy, \((r = .50)\), \(p < 0.05\). Furthermore, two medium positive correlations were evident between the ideal L2 self and Iranian EFL learners’ intrinsic goal orientation, \((r = .46)\), \(p < 0.05\), as well as the ideal L2 self and EFL learners’ control of learning beliefs, \((r = .30)\), \(p < 0.05\). Also, the result of the correlation analysis showed a small positive correlation between EFL learners’ ideal L2 self and extrinsic goal orientation, \((r = .24)\), \(p < 0.05\). Moreover, a small negative correlation was evident between EFL learners ideal L2 self and their test anxiety, \((r = -.19)\), \(p < 0.05\).

Table 3. Correlation between the Ideal L2 Self and Learning Strategies Components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Rehearsal</th>
<th>Elaboration</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Critical</th>
<th>Metacognitive</th>
<th>Time/study</th>
<th>Effort</th>
<th>Peer Help</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>thinking</td>
<td>self-regulation</td>
<td>environment</td>
<td>regulation</td>
<td>learning seeking</td>
<td>management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideal L2 self</td>
<td>.20* .37** .37** .29** .38** .24** .14 .16 .20*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self</td>
<td>.025 .000 .000 .001 .000 .008 .102 .066 .026</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding learning strategies components, as seen in table 3, the ideal L2 self made three medium positive correlations: first, with metacognitive self-regulation strategy, \((r = .38)\), \(p < 0.05\), second, with organization strategy, \((r = .37)\), \(p < 0.05\), and
third, with elaboration strategy, (r=.37), p<0.05. Moreover, four small positive correlations were observed between the ideal L2 self and learning strategies: The correlation between the ideal L2 self and critical thinking was (r=.29), p<0.05; Time management showed a correlation of about (r=.24), p<0.05; The correlation between Rehearsal and the ideal L2 self was about (r=.20), p<0.05; Finally, there was the smallest correlation between the ideal L2 self and help seeking, in which (r=.20), p<0.05.

Accordingly, these results indicated that students with more vivid ideal L2 selves make better use of SRL strategies. Learners with more vivid ideal L2 selves benefit from motivational strategies more than learning strategies: They perceive course material as not only important but also interesting and they have high level of self-efficacy; They see themselves as more curious and skillful toward a learning task, and they are better at controlling their learning beliefs; They, to a lesser degree are concerned with extrinsic reasons such as grades or awards toward doing a task and they have less anxiety while they take a test.

At the second level of importance, learners with more vivid ideal L2 selves make better use of cognitive, metacognitive, and resource management strategies: They are better at metacognitive self-regulation strategies which deal with planning, monitoring, and regulating; They benefit more from organization and elaboration strategies; They have higher level of critical thinking and they are more inclined to use time/study environment management strategies as well as cognitive strategies dealing with working memory, such as rehearsal; Finally, they make better use of help seeking strategies.

**Motivational Strategies as Predictor/S Of The Ideal L2 Self**

To deal with the second research question regarding the components of motivational strategies as predictor/s of the ideal L2 self, a standard multiple regression analysis was carried out:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic goal orientation</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic goal orientation</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.52</td>
<td>.601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Value</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control of learning belief</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>.114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test anxiety</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.75</td>
<td>.455</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 4, Task value, with the largest Beta value of .51, was viewed as the strongest predictor of the ideal L2 self, meaning that EFL learners with more vivid ideal L2 selves may look for course materials that not only are interesting but also useful.
Learning Strategies as Predictor/s of The Ideal L2 Self

To answer the third research question regarding the components of learning strategies as predictor/s of the ideal L2 self, a standard multiple regression analysis was ran.

Table 5. The Amount Of Prediction Of The Ideal L2 Self And Learning Strategies Components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rehearsal</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-1.02</td>
<td>.308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elaboration</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>.207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical thinking</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>.905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive self-regulation</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>.180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>-.013</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effort regulation</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer learning</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td>.826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help seeking</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.562</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 5 displays, no components of learning strategies were viewed as predictor/s of the ideal L2 self. This finding implied that EFL learners with more vivid ideal L2 selves may not be willing in terms of learning strategies components.

Correlation Between the Ought-To L2 Self and SRL Strategies (Motivational and Learning Strategies)

Regarding the relationship between the ought to L2 self and SRL strategies (motivational and learning strategies), the Pearson product-moment correlation was run. The results are shown in tables 6, 7, and 8:

Table 6. Correlation Between the Ought-To L2 Self and SRL Strategies (Motivational and Learning Strategies)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SRL strategies</th>
<th>Motivational Strategies</th>
<th>Learning Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ought-to L2 self</td>
<td>.05 .04 .04</td>
<td>.587 .610 .631</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in table 6, opposed to the first variable, the ought-to L2 self made no significant correlation with SRL strategies.

Table 7. Correlation Between The Ought-To L2 Self And Motivational Strategies Components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Intrinsic goal</th>
<th>Extrinsic goal</th>
<th>Task value</th>
<th>Control of learning</th>
<th>Self-efficacy</th>
<th>Test anxiety</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In term of the components of motivational strategies, as seen in table 7, no significant relationship was observed.

**Table 8. Correlation Between the Ought-To L2 Self And Learning Strategies Components**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Rehearsal</th>
<th>Elaboration</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Critical thinking</th>
<th>Metacognitive</th>
<th>Time/study Effort</th>
<th>Peer Help</th>
<th>Learning seeking</th>
<th>Environment regulation</th>
<th>Management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ought-to</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 Self</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>.650</td>
<td>.680</td>
<td>.782</td>
<td>.915</td>
<td>.870</td>
<td>.987</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding learning strategies components, as table 8 depicts, the only evident relationship was a small one between the ought-to L2 self and peer learning, (r = .18), p<0.05. The results indicated that EFL learners’ ought-to selves did not have any considerable effect on SRL strategies (motivational and learning strategies). EFL learners with vivid ought-to selves were not active in terms of motivational strategies components. They were active; however to a less degree, just in terms of one of the components of learning strategies (e.g., peer learning), that is, EFL learners with stronger ought-to L2 selves are better at activities involving cooperation with instructor or other peers.

**Differences in the Mean Scores of L2 Selves and SRL Strategies**

In order to examine if there were any differences in the mean scores of L2 selves (ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self) as well as SRL strategies among three levels of L2 lower-intermediate, intermediate, and upper-intermediate learners, a one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted:

**Table 9. The Results Of One-Way Between Groups ANOVA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean difference</th>
<th>std</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lower-intermediate -Intermediate</td>
<td>-.49</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper-intermediate</td>
<td>-.89</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideal L2 self Lower-intermediate</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper-intermediate</td>
<td>-.39</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper-intermediate Lower-intermediate</td>
<td>-.89</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As table 9 depicts, there were significant differences at the p<0.05 level in the ideal L2 self and SRL strategies scores for the three levels: ideal L2 self, F (2, 118) = 9.86, p=.000, SRL strategies, F (2, 118) = 134.59, p=.000. Despite statistical differences, the actual difference in the mean score of the ideal L2 self between three levels was quite small. The effect size calculated, using eta squared, was 0.143. However, the difference in the mean score of SRL strategies between three levels was quite large (eta squared= 0.69). Regarding the first variable, post hoc comparisons using the Turkey HSD test indicated that the mean score for three levels was significantly different: level 3 (M=5.30, SD=.59), level 2 (M=4.90, SD=.79), and level 1 (M=4.41, SD=1.09). However, the mean score between three levels was not significantly different for the second variable: level 3 (M=2.91, SD=1.05), level 2 (M=2.92, SD=.89), and level 1 (M=2.98, SD=1.01). Finally, the mean score of SRL strategies for three levels differed significantly: level 3 (M=5.28, SD=.39), level 2 (M=4.34, SD=.39), and level 1 (M=3.72, SD=.41).

**DISCUSSION**

One of the important findings of the present study was that Iranian EFL university learners with more actualized image of their ideal L2 selves benefit more from SRL strategies than L2 learners with more vivid ought-to L2 selves. It can be due to
the fact that L2 university students with more mature personality and higher level of L2 competence have stronger visualization of their desired self-image. Unlike youngers who are much affected by their both L2 selves, university students as more independent learners who are less influenced by others, with higher levels of L2 motivation, attitude, and intended effort toward learning seems to be stronger in terms of their idealized self-image, which in turn triggers one of the characteristics of SRL, that is, the effective use of SRL strategies. On the contrary, the learners' obliged self-image, which is affected by external factors such as parents, peers, or environment was viewed to have no influential effect on the use of SRL strategies, that is, EFL university learners' visualization of an obliged self does not trigger SRL strategies. This finding is in line with that of Al- Shehri (2009); Csizér and Kormos, (2008, 2009); Kim (2009); Kormos, Kiddle, and Csizer (2011); Ryan (2009); Taguchi et al., (2009). They showed that the ideal L2 self have a positive influence on language learning motivation, the influential factor that can exert SRL strategies in EFL learners. Also, the finding of this study parallels that of Kormos and Csizér (2014), in which they investigated the relationship between motivational variables, self-regulatory strategies, and autonomous learning. They showed that the ideal L2 self had a strong direct relationship with motivated behavior, which in turn exerted a powerful effect on self-regulatory strategies.

Moreover, the possible association between the ideal L2 self and SRL strategies has been confirmed in several studies. Kim and Kim (2014) asserted that this association is due to the fact that the two concepts hinge on the notions of the self. Also, Borkowski and Thorpe (1941 cited in Kim and Kim, 2014) stated that possible selves are related to SRL. They explained that an essential part of SRL is goal directedness, and possible selves include goals.

As one of the findings of this study, EFL learners with stronger visualization of their ideal selves are more inclined regarding their motivational strategies. They perceive course materials as not only important but also useful, besides, they are more interested in the content area of the given course. Also, they believe more in their own capability. EFL learners with more vivid ideal L2 selves are really interested in the nature of the task itself and they seek course materials that highly challenge them, arouse their curiosity, and make them learn from, even if they don’t guarantee good grades. Besides, these learners have stronger beliefs regarding that their effort to learn will result in positive outcome. In this case, they believe that outcomes are contingent on their own effort and have nothing to do with external factors such as teacher and environment. Accordingly, if learners believe that their efforts to study make a significant difference in their learning, they will be more likely to study more strategically and effectively (Pintrich et al., 1991). Moreover, EFL learners with more vivid ideal L2 selves are, to a smaller degree, concerned to get good grades in class. It is not only the most satisfying thing for them but also is a way to show their ability to family, friends, teacher, or others. Furthermore, EFL learners with stronger visualization of a proficient L2 speaker act as less anxious learners during tests.

Taking into account the positive relationship between EFL learners’ ideal L2 self and their motivational strategies, the current study is in line with Pintrich, Marx, and Boyle (1993, cited in Eccles & Wigfield, 2002) study, in which they explained and provided evidence of how various classroom and motivational factors such as goals, achievement values, efficacy beliefs, and control of beliefs influence whether learners change their mental concepts. Also, in the other study, Khan (2015) revealed that ideal L2 self highly affects motivational level to learn English language and the formal achievements of learners in Saudi Arabia.

The other results revealed that EFL learners with more vivid ideal selves were more active in terms of not only cognitive and metacognitive strategies (e.g. metacognitive self-regulation, organization, elaboration, critical thinking, and rehearsal)
but also resource management strategies (e.g. time/study environment management and help seeking): Learners with more positive ideal L2 selves have higher tendency to engage in processes that make up metacognitive self-regulatory activities, namely, planning, monitoring, and regulating; They seek for activities such as goal setting and task analysis which help them activate relevant aspects of prior knowledge that make organizing and comprehending the material easier; They are also stronger in tracking of their attention as one reads, self-testing, and questioning which assist them in understanding the course material and integrating it with their prior knowledge; Moreover, they are more fine-tuned and have more continuous adjustment of their cognitive activities (Pintrich et al., 1991): They are more skilled at solving problem, reaching decisions, or making critical evaluations based on standards of excellence; they can use their study time more effectively and they choose more quite places for studying, where there is no visual or auditory distractions; they are extensively involved in activities dealing with simple tasks and activation of information into working memory. Finally, they are more interested in asking help from teachers or peers.

In this regard, this study parallels that of Borkowski et al. (1990) and Borkowski and Muthukrishna (1995). They emphasized the interaction of cognitive, motivational, and self-processes: knowledge of oneself which includes one's goal, possible selves, and sense of self-worth, strategy knowledge, and personal motivational states such as attributional beliefs, self-efficacy, and intrinsic motivation. All these components were assumed to affect performance. Moreover, the findings are consistent with Murray (2011) study, in which he demonstrated that awareness of the importance of employing learning strategies requires active use of imagination. In line with Murray (2011) study, in the present study, learners’ imagination of their idealized self-image led to the effective use of SRL strategies.

The other finding showed that among motivational strategies components, EFL learners who are stronger in their idealized self-image may be better at their task value, that is, the content and themes of the course play a significant role in shaping learners’ ideal L2 selves. In this regard, the more challenging contents make students more motivated in learning and they put more effort on the learning materials. In this case, more motivated learners are more prone to create a positive visualization of their ideal selves. This conclusion is a confirmation of the studies which revealed that motivated behavior and intended learning effort are strong predictors of the ideal L2 self (see Taguchi et al., 2009). Also, in line with this finding, Yashima (2009) suggested that the visions of learners as ideal L2 users can be created through educational initiatives (i.e., the themes and materials of the course).

Also, the findings revealed that among the components of learning strategies, EFL learners who are stronger in their idealized self-image may not seek for activities dealing with implementing of learning strategies. This result is contrary to that of Kim and Kim (2014). By investigating the relationship between L2 selves and self-regulatory strategies among Korean learners, they showed that ideal L2 self was a strong predictor of self-regulatory strategies. The contrary result in the case of the present study may be due to the different background of L2 learners since cultural differences can affect learners’ self-images.

Finally, the results revealed that proficiency levels were strong determiners of learners’ Ideal L2 self and their SRL strategies. EFL learners with different levels of L2 proficiency differed significantly in both their visualization of their idealized self-image and their use of SRL strategies. In line with the present study, Kim and Kim (2014) showed that proficiency level was not only influenced Korean junior high school learners’ ideal L2 self and SRL strategies, but also their ought-to L2 self. In the present study, the contrary result in the case of ought-to L2 self can be due to different background of the participants,
non-university students may have different visualization of their L2 selves in comparison to university students. However, the main difference is related to the setting of the studies: In the context of Iran, visualization of one’s desired self as a proficient L2 speaker, which helps triggering SRL strategies, is of greater importance for EFL learners than visualization of an obliged self which is actualized by external factors such as parents or peers.

At the end, it is worth mentioning that since this study is a quantitative one, the generalizability of the findings is not accurate. More studies in qualitative approach are needed to delineate more accurate picture of the issues under investigation.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Learning a second language is a difficult and challenging task for EFL learners, especially in contexts such as Iran, where there is not only a shortage of direct access to native speakers for communicating in the L2 but also access to a highly successful and proficient role models of language in classroom cannot be easily provided. Thus, in such an environment where learners lack main necessities to help them in L2 learning process, ones’ self-images come to ones’ aid. As the most important key factor in Dörnyei L2 motivational self system, the ideal L2 self is influential in creating ones’ vision of his/her own desired self of a proficient L2 speaker. Also, the other vision, ought-to L2 self is responsible for attributes that imposed to learners by external factors such as parents or peers. Besides, the role of self-regulation in learning process has been emphasized by a large number of researchers (i.e., Pintrich, 2000; Schunk, 1989, 2005, 2008; Schunk & Usher, 2013; Zimmerman, 1989, 2000; Zimmerman & Schunk, 2008, 2011). Self-regulated learners have been viewed as those who can solely rely on their own and make use of a large number of strategies in their learning process. Thus, making aware of these strategies as a matter of individual differences and using these strategies effectively can lead to ones’ success in the L2.

By integrating the two notions of the self along with SRL strategies, this study was an attempt to find the answer to the following five questions: 1) Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners’ ideal L2 self and their SRL strategies (motivational and learning strategies), 2) Among the components of motivational strategies, which one(s) can be predicted by Iranian EFL learners’ ideal L2 self, 3) Among the components of learning strategies, which one(s) can be predicted by Iranian EFL learners’ ideal L2 self, 4) Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners’ ought-to L2 self and their SRL strategies (motivational and learning strategies), 5) Are there any differences in the mean scores of L2 selves and SRL strategies among Iranian L2 lower-intermediate, intermediate, and upper-intermediate learners?

The results of the correlational analyses revealed that there was a significant relationship between the ideal L2 self and SRL strategies. The Ideal L2 self showed significant relationships with both motivational and learning strategies. In terms of motivational strategies components, two large positive correlations (between Iranian EFL learners’ ideal L2 self and their task value and self-efficacy), two medium positive correlations (between Iranian EFL learners’ ideal L2 self and their intrinsic goal orientation as well as their control of learning beliefs), a small positive correlation (between Iranian EFL learners’ ideal L2 self and their extrinsic goal orientation), and a negative correlation (between Iranian EFL learners’ ideal L2 self and their test anxiety) were observed. In terms of learning strategies components, three medium positive correlations (between Iranian EFL learners’ ideal L2 self and their metacognitive self-regulation, organization, and elaboration strategies) and four small positive correlations (between Iranian EFL learners’ ideal L2 self and their critical thinking, time management,
rehearsal, and help seeking strategies) were evident. Furthermore, the results of the standard multiple regression analyses revealed that among the components of motivational strategies, task value was the strongest predictor of the ideal L2 self. However, no components of learning strategies were observed as predictors of the ideal L2 self. Opposed to the first variable, ought-to L2 self showed no significant relationship with SRL strategies. Finally, the results of one-way between groups ANOVAs showed that there were small differences in the mean score of ideal L2 self among three levels of lower-intermediate, intermediate, and upper-intermediate. Besides, SRL strategies showed large differences in the mean score among three levels.

The following implications can be drawn from the findings of this study. Since ideal L2 self has been viewed as an influential factor which can not only predict success in L2 among EFL learners but also exert more SRL strategies in them, as Csizér & Magid (2014) stated, positive self-related beliefs are prerequisite for the use of SRL strategies, teachers must be aware to enhance learners’ vision of their ideal L2 self. Firstly, it can be done through enhancing learners’ motivation, confidence, and attitude toward learning. Enhancing the so called factors will help improve EFL learners’ L2 proficiency, which in turn enhances learners’ vision of their ideal selves.

Secondly, by helping learners to have clear and specific goals in L2, giving them higher control of learning belief by making them believe that their participation in the task given is an end all itself not a means to an end and providing course materials that not only interest and challenge them but also arouse their curiosity, L2 learners will become more motivated and put more effort in L2 learning process. This motivation and effort can lead to a positive internalization of their ideal L2 self.

According to Dörnyei (2009), novel area of motivational strategies concerns promotion of the ideal L2 self through generating a language learning vision and through imagery enhancement. In this reared, teachers must provide situations that help improve learners’ imagination. They can devise various classroom activities to train imagery skills. By helping students to generate personal visions supported by vivid images and sustaining this vision through the challenging everyday reality of language learning process, they can make the process of learning easier and more enjoyable for L2 learners.

Furthermore, promoting one’s ideal L2 self can be done through specific techniques (i.e., creative or guided imagery). Other activities, such as warmers and icebreakers as well as various communicative tasks, powerful role models, and films, can all serve as strengthening learners’ vision and creating a powerful ideal L2 self. According to Dörnyei (2009), all researchers in the area of possible/ideal selves point out that “future self-guides are only effective if they are accompanied by a set of concrete action plans. Therefore, the ideal self needs to come as a package consisting of imagery component and a repertoire of appropriate plans, scripts, and self-regulatory strategies” (p. 37).

Finally, helping students to depend on their own instead of their language teacher as their sole source of motivation make them more autonomous, which influence their future self-guides. As Csizér and Magid (2014) concluded the relevance of the ideal L2 self to autonomous behavior since positive future self-guides can promote autonomous learning behavior.

REFERENCES


FORMULAICITY ENHANCEMENT IN L2 INPUT AND LEARNERS’ DEVELOPMENT OF L2 SPEAKING PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

The study of formulaic sequence (FS) is an interesting avenue of research in applied linguistics. Lexis-based approach advocates give pride of place to teaching sequences of lexis. Recently they have suggested the possibility of FS contribution to speech proficiency development. However, due to the lack of empirical evidence, more research is needed to explore the applicability of the approach. This pretest-posttest-comparison group study examined the effect of formulaicity enhancement in L2 input on the development of Iranian EFL learners’ speaking performance. For this purpose, a number of 29 Iranian IELTS candidates participated in the study and they were assigned to two experimental and control groups. All the participants took two modified versions of IELTS speaking test twice (as the pretest and the posttest). The experimental and control groups received the same amount of instruction (over 20 hr). However, while the experimental group was instructed on formulaic sequences, the control group received instruction on traditional vocabulary/grammar dichotomy. The results indicated that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group. The study concludes that formulaicity enhancement in L2 input can be a useful contribution to improving speaking proficiency.

Key Words: Formulaic sequences (FS), Formulaicity enhancement, speaking performance

INTRODUCTION

Recently, formal linguistic (or nativist) theoretical account of grammar-based creativity, or the view of grammar as the basis of language, has undergone a substantial amount of critical attention, especially from the emergentist usage-based theories. Lewis’s (1993, 1997, 2000) lexis-based view, for example, suggests that although second or foreign language (L2) learners’ generated sentences are grammatically correct, they are judged to be unnatural or odd because they do not adhere to the formulaicity. There has been a consensus that despite the creative nature of language, native speakers and proficient language users tend to utilize particular utterances in their language production (Pawly & Syder, 1983; Lewis, 1993; Wood, 2001; Wray, 2000).

The notion lexis, which includes not only the single words but also word combinations that is stored in the mental lexicon, is thought to play a central role in language teaching and learning. Lexis, according to Lewis (1993), refers to strings of words which go together. In Lewis’s view, instead of learning abstract grammar rules and then filling the slot with words, learners’ attention should be directed to multi-word lexical items or formulaic chunks and, in turn, to creatively finding patterns and language constructions in the input. In effect, the key principle of lexical approach is the oft-cited dictum “language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar” (Lewis, 1993, p. 89). Wilkins (1992), a supporter of the lexical approach, was the first to stress the importance of the role of vocabulary in language teaching. He stated
"without grammar very little can be conceived; without vocabulary nothing can be conceived" (Wilkins, 1992, p. 11). Sinclair (1995) also agrees with Wilkins’s view and points out "A lexical mistake often causes misunderstanding, while a grammar mistake rarely does" (cited in Lewis, 1997, p. 16). Lewis’s lexically-based language teaching (LBLT) approach is based on the view that every word has its own grammar and instead of viewing language as grammar/vocabulary dichotomy, he suggests language be viewed as consisting of multi-word prefabricated chunks.

The role of these multiword prefabricated chunks has been stressed in both first and second language acquisition (SLA) research. In essence, they are believed to play a central role in language learning. The high number of different terms that have been used in the literature to describe this phenomenon of lexicalized patterns or formulaic language is an indication for the multitude of linguistic traditions that have addressed such sequences (Schauer & Adolphs, 2006). Different researchers have referred to them by many different labels including holophrases (Corder, 1973), prefabricated routines and patterns (Hakuta, 1974), lexical phrases (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992), lexicalized sentence stems (Pawly & Syder, 1983), speech formula (Peters, 1983), and formulas (Ellis, 1994). The consensus seems to be that, according to Wood (2010), formulaic sequences are multiword units of language which are stored in long-term memory as if they were single lexical units. Wray (2000) also uses the term formulaic sequences as a cover term. Schmitt and Carter (2004), too, adopt formulaic sequences as the overarching term for standardized phraseology. Similarly, in this study, formulaic sequences or (FS) is adopted as an umbrella term to include standardized multiword expressions, and therefore in the present study, the focus will be on FS. One of the most commonly cited definitions has been provided by Wray (2002, p. 9) who defines formulaic sequence as “a sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other elements” that is prefabricated which means “stored and retrieved whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by the language grammar”.

In addition to the role that formulaic sequences play in language acquisition, recent years have seen much interest in the role played by them in language production, particularly in fluent and idiomatic language use. For instance, Lewis (1997) believes that native speakers carry a pool of possibly millions of lexical chunks in their head in order to produce fluent, accurate, and meaningful language. According to Boers et al. (2006), L2 speakers may gain three benefits from mastery of formulaic sequences. First, many sequences may assist learners to sound native-like. Secondly, they can improve spoken fluency. Thirdly, the sequences, which are recalled and stored holistically, may “help speakers reach a degree of linguistic accuracy” because they constitute “zones of safety” (Boers et al., 2006, p. 247). In this respect, recent research has suggested that the acquisition and appropriate use of FS is crucial for learners to reach a higher level of oral proficiency, not only in terms of fluency, but also in terms of accuracy in the L2 (Boers et al., 2006; Granger, 1998; Pawly & Syder, 1983; Skehan, 1998; Wray, 2002).

Although the role of formulaicity in language learning in general and speaking in particular is important, students may not notice such formulaic sequences. As stated by Schmidt (2001), attended learning is far superior, and for all practical purposes, attention is necessary for all aspects of L2 learning. As Schmidt (1994) also puts it, the chances of a particular form selection by the L2 learner increases with making that target form more salient. Therefore an instructional method that emphasizes noticing of L2 formulaic sequences can help language learners add such phrases to their linguistic repertoire. Input enhancement, as an example, is defined as "the process by which language input becomes salient to learners" (Sharwood Smith, 1991, p. 118). In other words, input enhancement can be used to draw learners’ attention to the target forms by using special techniques such as, **bolding**, **italicizing**, and **CAPITALIZING**. In this study, formulaicity
enhancement in L2 input is thus a technique in which formulaic sequences are intonationally or typographically enhanced (e.g., by using the above mentioned techniques) so that learners can better notice target forms or FS.

For this purpose, the present study aims to see if formulaicity enhancement in L2 input has any significant effect on Iranian IELTS candidates’ development of L2 speaking performance.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Traditionally, language was mainly assumed as a syntactic rule-governed process with no attention to the role of lexical items (Moudraia, 2001). This refers back to the era when structural linguistics and audiolingualism were so popular. Advocates of audiolingualism believed that learners’ efforts must mainly focus on mastering language patterns. In fact, they downgraded lexicon, as the basis of language, and held the notion that once basic structures of language had been mastered, new vocabulary could also be slotted in (Nunan, 2003). Fundamentally, the standard view in the 20th century divided language into grammar and vocabulary and relied upon the following premises: master the sentence patterns, then learn so many words, and the learner will be able to slot the vocabulary in these patterns.

However, the standard view which divides language into grammar and vocabulary has met challenges by the lexical approach (Lewis, 1993, 1997). The lexical approach can be summarized in one sentence that language consists not of traditional grammar and vocabulary but often of multiword prefabricated chunks (Lewis, 1993). Language production then is not a syntactic rule-governed process but is instead the retrieval of larger phrasal units, that is, formulaic sequences or unanalyzed chunks, from memory (Lewis, 1993). According to Lewis (1993), four basic types of language chunks include:

- **Single words**: Single vocabulary items are the most familiar kinds of lexical items which construct the basic unit of the vocabulary to be acquired. Further, they contain the grammatical features such as number, person, tense, word-class, and so on. Until recently, the single words have been broadly regarded as the basic unit of meaning and the main focus in the study of L2 vocabulary learning. However, nowadays, chunks have been substituted as the building blocks of language in lexical approaches (O’Keeffe, McCarthy & Carter, 2007).

- **Polywords**: These types of language chunks are relatively short—two or three words—which may belong to any word class, and the meaning of the whole group may be immediately apparent or totally different from the component words. The examples of such category include noun phrases (e.g., taxi rank, sour milk), verb phrases (e.g., to reject a proposal, to collect stamps), adverbial phrases (e.g., by the way, the day after tomorrow), and conjunctive phrases (e.g., on the other hand, all at once; Lewis, 1993).

- **Collocations**: These types of multiword lexical phrases, according to Lewis (2000), are the most important type of language chunks. They describe the way single words can co-occur with other lexis (Lewis, 1993). Thus, the concept of collocation transfers the focus from the single words to lexical chunks of language (O’Keeffe et al., 2007). Collocations range on a spectrum from fully fixed (i.e., the expressions which resemble words and cannot be changed), through relatively fixed (i.e., the expressions which include at least one slot into which a number of different phrases can be inserted), to totally novel expressions (i.e., the expressions whose whole meanings are completely different from the sum of the meanings of their parts; Lewis, 1997). If L2 learners are ahead toward professional goals, learning the collocations of that language is above a survival level mastery of the language, because collocations permeates *the most basic, frequent words*. However one-off occurrence of a word with its
collocations in a particular text is banal. O’Keeffe et al., argue that “everyday words that are most difficult to light upon by intuition alone, computers have been very good at teasing out” (p. 59). Collocations, thus, can be usefully traced using concordance or corpus evidence. Where collocations suggest the way language is actually used, corpora is then the best resource which provides users with the combination of words in authentic (spoken and written) language use.

- **Institutionalized expressions:** These types of language chunks help language users to manage the pragmatic aspects of language interaction. Whereas words and collocations are associated with the content of what the language user expresses, institutionalized expressions deal with what the language user is doing (e.g., complaining, explaining, contradicting, confirming, etc.). Identifying these expressions in (spoken and written) language, the listeners/readers first forecast what the language user is doing and then their linguistic processing can concentrate on what is being said. These fixed items are categorized under three sub-headings of short grammaticalized utterances (e.g., *not yet*, *certainly not, just a moment, please*), sentence heads (or frames) (e.g., *sorry to interrupt, but can I just say…; I see what you mean, but it wouldn’t be better to…*) in which the first words of utterances serves a primarily pragmatic purpose, and full sentences (e.g., *in this paper, we explore…; firstly…; secondly, finally…*) which are fully institutionalized and the meaning is easily recognized. Identifying these and other types of lexical units in (written and spoken) language plays a crucial role in successful language learning and effective communication. Thus, studies based on large scale computer databases of language corpora have examined patterns of phrase and clause sequences as they appear in samples of various kinds of (spoken and written) texts (Lewis, 1993).

In general parlance, the fact that there are many terms for this language phenomenon, according to Zhao (2009), shows both the significance and the complexity of this linguistic area. Generally speaking, formulaic language is commonly defined as multi-word units that are recalled as a single item (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; Wood, 2010; Wray, 2002).

From usage-based theorists’ point of view, formulaic sequences are believed to play a significant role at language acquisition. As Dornyei (2009) explicitly explains, the starting point of language development is the acquisition of concrete linguistic items. According to him, grammatical structures do not come directly from the human genome, but are the outcome of an emergent process.

In addition to the role that formulaic sequences play at language acquisition, recent years have seen much interest in the role played by them in language production, particularly in fluent and idiomatic language use. For instance, Lewis (1997) believes that native speakers carry a pool of possibly millions of lexical chunks in their head in order to produce fluent, accurate, and meaningful language. Despite the importance of this language phenomenon, however, Peters (2012) states that formulaic sequences are often semantically transparent; therefore, without instructional intervention, L2 learners may not notice them. According to Lewis (1993, p. vi), the central theme in the lexical approach is thus “raising students’ awareness of and developing their ability to ‘chunk’ language successfully” which was considered in the current study through formulaicity enhancement in input.

The role of formulaic sequences in language acquisition and production, particularly with regard to spontaneous spoken language, according to Wood (2002), is a topic of investigation which has rich potential for our understanding of how language is produced in real time. Weinert (1995) refers to three functions of formulaic language as communicative,
learning, and production strategy. In the first sense, formulas allow L2 learners enter into communication. The second function implies that learners analyze memorized sequences and derive rules from them which they can later use productively. According to Weinert (1995), “the view of L2 formulaic language as production strategy focuses on psycholinguistic processing of language planning” (p. 184). As he further puts it, in this case, FS function is seen as allowing for fluency in production. Therefore, from the point of view of psycholinguistic function, formulaic sequences are seen as fluency devices. Subsequently, some recent research (e.g., Wood, 2010) indicates that a possible key to speech fluency lies in the mastery of formulaic sequences.

Despite the importance of the link between formulaic language and second language speech, the body of empirical research is very small at present and more empirical evidence of the effectiveness of formulaicity enhancement on L2 speaking performance is needed to explore the applicability of the approach.

**METHOD**

As many as 29 male and female IELTS candidates from an Iranian Language Academy, participated in the current quasi-experimental (control-group, pretest-posttest) study. The participants English proficiency was estimated to be of upper intermediate to advanced level and their age ranged from 19 to 24 ($M = 22$, $SD = 2.78$). All the participants had Persian as their L1. Two intact classes from the English language institution in Iran were randomly assigned into an experimental group and a control group. The experimental group contained of 14 learners and was supposed to receive formulaicity enhancement in L2 input emphasizing formulaic sequences. The second class, as the control group, contained of 15 learners and received no specific treatment and was taught through conventional methods (placebo).

The materials employed in the current study to assess the defined variables were two modified version of IELTS speaking tests used as the pretest and posttest. The pretast was also used to assess the participants' initial proficiency in speaking, and the IELTS Speaking Band Descriptors to decide on the speaking scores of the learners, and the instructional materials (e.g., formulaic sequences extracted from different IELS coursebooks) employed to implement the treatment of the study. It is worth noting here that the two versions of IELTS speaking tests used in this research were different and they were used at a two-month interval which would enable us to avoid practice effect.

As mentioned above, the first instruments used in order to assess the participants’ speaking performance, before and after the treatment, were two IELTS speaking modified version test. This tests consisted of an interview lasted between 11 and 14 minutes in three separate parts. In the first part, the participant and the researcher introduced themselves. The participants then answered general questions on familiar topics (e.g. hobbies, likes and dislikes, etc.) with a timing of four to five minutes. In the second part, the participants were given a task card with prompts and were asked to talk on a particular topic (e.g. describe a good friend). The participants had one minute to prepare and they could make notes if they wish, before speaking for between one and two minutes. This part lasted between three and four minutes. Finally, in the third part the researcher and the participants engaged in a discussion of more abstract issues (e.g. How important is friendship?) which were thematically linked to the topic in part two. The discussion lasted between four and five minutes.

The first two parts were considered as monologue and the part three was assigned as a dialogic task.
Owing to the practical constrains, the students were not randomly selected and assigned to the groups. This limitation led to applying intact classes as the experimental and control groups and as a result, a quasi-experimental method was adopted for this inquiry. Therefore, the two intact classes were randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups.

In the first step, the pretest was administered to all the participants in order to assess their initial proficiency in speaking. The participants were interviewed individually in a quiet room and the interviews were recorded on tape and then were transcribed. Then, the recordings and transcriptions were analyzed by the researcher and marks (scores) were given in a consistent manner with the IELTS scoring method applying IELTS speaking band descriptors. The participants were graded on four different criteria of fluency and coherence, lexical resource, grammatical range and accuracy, and pronunciation on a nine-band scale, accordingly, the average of these four sub-scores was considered as the overall speaking score for each participant.

Due to the fact that the assessment of learners' speaking performance cannot be fully objective, another IELTS expert (an EFL teacher with 15 years of experience in teaching TOEFL and IELTS courses), was invited to take part in the scoring procedure and was asked to decide on students' speaking scores. The elicited data sets by two different judges (the researcher and the IELTS expert) were used to calculate inter-raters reliability. According to the results, the strong correlation between two sets of speaking scores ($r=.73$, $p<.01$) indicated an acceptable degree of inter-rater agreement.

After administering the pretest, all the participants were enrolled in a two-month English language course that met two times a week for one and a half hours each session. The experimental and control groups received the same amount of class instruction (over 20 hours) and were exposed to the same authentic language input and their course material were identical. The only controlled variable was the varying emphasis given to the importance of chunk-noticing from one group to the other as the following:

In the experimental group, the participants were exposed to chunks and their attention was directed to a large number of formulaic sequences including various types of multiword units as formulaic sequences. Activities and exercises which formed part of the course materials for this group were designed to raise the participants’ phrasal awareness. In the first step, the learners initially received an introduction based on the related strategy that was scheduled for that group. Then, they were provided and familiarized with examples of the various types of FS by explaining the variety and nuance inherent in the vast array of these features. Afterwards, they were repeatedly, and under the instructor’s guidance, given textual enhancement of lexis and were asked to identify and highlight different types of FS. To make the use of FS typologically salient, different strategies such as using **bold typeface**, *italicizing* and **CAPITALIZING** were used. In the next step, a number of pre-planned FS were presented to the class using a variety of instructional materials (textual as well as audio and video).

In the control group of the study, attention was given to individual words and grammar patterns and L2 was analyzed in a more traditional way, that is, the distinction between grammar and vocabulary (to which the learners were accustomed) was upheld. Students of this group performed grammar and vocabulary activities and exercises instead of practicing pre-fabricated units.

At the end of the course (i.e., after 20 teaching hours of tuition), the posttest was administered to all the participants in order to gauge any potential change or progress in the speaking ability of EFL learners over the course of the program. The scoring method was the same as the pretest.
A one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to explore if there was any significant difference between groups in terms of speaking performance after controlling for the potential differences between them. The results of this test answered the question of the study by presenting required evidence to reject or not reject the significance of the difference between the experimental and control groups. At last, it may be worth mentioning that all the aforesaid data analysis procedures were conducted through Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software program, version 21.

RESULTS

Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics of the pretest and posttest speaking scores in both groups of the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>5.78</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>-.56</td>
<td>-.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>-.38</td>
<td>-.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>-.76</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>-.88</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 1 indicates, the minimum pretest and posttest speaking score was 3 in the control group, which was below the possible median score (4.5) and the maximum pretest and posttest scores were 6.5 and 7 respectively in the experimental group, which were above the median score (4.5) on a 9-point scale. The greatest range of pretest scores was 2 but the greatest range of posttest scores was 2.5, which showed a greater range for pretest scores. The skewness values for all data sets were between -1 and +1 indicating that the distribution of all data sets was rather symmetrical around the mean and the kurtosis values were so small, indicating that the distributions tend to be mesokurtic (i.e., normal). The pretest speaking mean scores were 5.78, and 4.36 in the experimental and control groups respectively. That is, the pretest mean score in the experimental group was greater than that of the control group. This indicated a pre-existent difference between the candidates of the two groups in terms of oral proficiency. The posttest mean scores were 6.25 and 4.50 in the experimental and control groups respectively indicating that both groups showed an increase from the pretest to posttest to some extent; however, the greater amount of improvement belonged to the experimental group. Results related to the pretest and posttest mean scores are shown graphically in Figure 1 below.
As illustrated in Figure 1, the steep increase in the mean scores (from pretest to posttest) in the experimental group in comparison with the gentle slope of the changes in the control group showed more improvement in the speaking scores of their participants after receiving the treatment.

To examine whether receiving formulaicity enhancement in L2 emphasizing formulaic sequences affected Iranian IELTS candidates’ speaking performance significantly, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to compare the posttest speaking scores in the experimental and control groups of study. However, it was extremely important first, to make sure that the data can actually be analyzed using ANCOVA by checking the main underlying assumptions. The first assumption was that the dependent variable (posttest scores) should be approximately normally distributed for each category of independent variable (group). The significance values of Kolmogorov-Smirnov as well as Shapiro-Wilk tests for both groups were found to be more than the specified level of significance (0.05), indicating the normality of the scores distribution (see Table A1 in the Appendix).

The other assumption was the homogeneity of variances. This assumption was checked using Levene's test of homogeneity of variance. The results of this test showed the homogeneity of variances in both groups of the study, \( F = 1.15, p = .29 \) (see Table A2 in the Appendix).

Moreover, before running an ANCOVA, it was important to make sure of homogeneity of the regression slopes. In order to meet this assumption, an ANCOVA was conducted to see whether there was an interaction between the treatments (lexis-based instruction and placebo) and the pretest scores. The results showed that the slope of the regression lines in both groups were approximately similar and there was not any significant interaction between the treatment in different groups and the pretest scores , \( F = 3.99, p = .05 \) (see Table A3 in the Appendix). In addition, there was a linear relationship between the dependent variable (posttest speaking scores) and the covariate (pretest speaking scores) in both groups of the study (see Figure A1 in the Appendix).

Assuming that no assumptions have been violated, a one-way ANCOVA was conducted to see whether there was any significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of the posttest speaking mean scores. It
indicates that whether there is a significant main effect for the independent variable of the study (different treatments). The error was originally set at .05 when comparing groups on the posttest speaking scores. The main ANCOVA results are reported in Table 2 below.

**Table 2. Analysis of Covariance for the Effects of the Treatment on Posttest Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>32.09^a</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16.04</td>
<td>286.87</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>9.92</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.92</td>
<td>177.33</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>7.72</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>862.00</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>33.55</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. R Squared = .90 (Adjusted R Squared = .90)

As Table 2 displays, there was a significant effect of type of treatment on posttest scores after controlling for the differences in pretest scores, \( F = 7.72, p = .01 \). Second, the effect size value, which was shown by partial eta squared value in the above table, was 0.22. This value indicates that 22.9% of the variance in the dependent variable (posttest speaking scores) was explained by the independent variable (types of treatment). In other words, the differences between the two groups’ adjusted means were significant in terms of different types of treatment. Table 3, shows the adjusted means (i.e., the mean without the effect of covariate) on the posttest scores for each of the groups.

**Table 3. Estimated Marginal (Adjusted) Means for all Groups of the Study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>5.54^a</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>5.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>5.16^a</td>
<td>.079</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 3, the participants of the experimental group (\( M = 5.54 \)) outperformed those of the control group (\( M = 5.16 \)) on the speaking posttest.

**DISCUSSION**

With regard to the conducted analysis of the data and the results thereof, the following significant findings were drawn and discussed. The results of the conducted analysis demonstrate that the difference between the two groups’ adjusted
means was significant in terms of different types of treatment. According to the results, there were significant differences between the experimental group and the control group, meaning that the experimental group of the study outperformed the control group. In other words, after controlling for the potential differences between groups (learners’ pretest scores), the speaking performance of the EFL learners who benefited from formulacicity enhancement (experimental group’s posttest scores) increased significantly compared to those in the control group who received no related treatment in this regard.

The main logic behind this finding would be attributed to the shifts that took place across the stages of language production proposed by Wood (2010). According to Wood (2010), language production involves three stages of conceptualization, formulation, and articulation. It seems that receiving lexis-based formulacicity enhancement in L2 input emphasizing formulaic sequences provided some comfort for the subjects within the demanding skill of speaking and let their minds to focus only on the effortless process of activating ready-made sentences as well as expressions and phrases instead of going through the complicated and intricate stages of conceptualization and formulation. Consequently, it may be concluded that applying the fixed multi-words stored in the subjects’ long term memory, which are retrieved automatically, rather than always constructing novel utterances on line, can be considered as a short-cut to reach the ultimate stage of articulation that may facilitate communication in turn.

In a similar vein, the significance of the findings can be hypothesized considering the Anderson (2000) and Anderson et al. (2004) ACT-R theory who proposed three stages of skill acquisition as declarative, procedural, and automatic. Producing utterances word by word relying on grammatical resources demanded a high cognitive load to memory for the learners (in the speaking pretest). By being provided with formulaic sequences or unanalyzed chunks, learners of the experimental group may represent shift from declarative stage to the second, that is, procedural stage (in the speaking posttest). In this case, they have processed the whole sentences as single items; because they did not anymore construct sentences by filling the slots in grammatical patterns with words. Given that formulaic sequences are multiword units which learners deal with cognitively as single words, it seems reasonable that knowledge of FS may be automatized which could subsequently allow it to occur fluently under the time constraints of a predesigned speaking test.

However, few research projects have investigated whether training in formulaic sequences has positive effects on oral language proficiency considering the sub skills of fluency and accuracy separately (e.g., Boers et al. 2006); there was no empirical evidence of examining the effects of such instruction on the IELTS speaking performance of L2 learners. In general, findings related to the first research question of this study corroborated the view often expressed in the literature that the use of formulaic language can enhance learners’ speaking proficiency.

Results of this study supported those of Boers et al. (2006), who conducted a small scale experiment in which a pedagogical intervention involving tasks encouraging the noticing of formulaic sequences was used. The results of their study showed that "the use of formulaic sequences . . . was shown to be especially beneficial to perceptions of learners’ fluency and range of expression" (Boers et al., 2006, p. 257).

The findings of the current study, are also in line with those of McGuire (2009) who investigated the link between instruction in formulaic sequences and speech fluency and concluded that most of the participants in the experimental group who experienced instruction in formulaic sequences, highlighting them in model listening texts, practicing their use in role plays, and being provided additional examples of useful sequences taken from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), increased their formulaic language use and fluency at the end of the treatment.
CONCLUSIONS

With the help of data analysis and discussion presented above, the study concludes that receiving formulaicity enhancement in L2 emphasizing formulaic sequences can enhance EFL learners' awareness of formulaic sequences and let them to build up a slightly larger repertoire of L2 formulaic sequences for active use. By turning this knowledge into a strategic advantage through noticing and recycling word combinations to which they had been exposed, L2 learners' speaking ability can be fostered.

The study has several implications for all EFL learners and teachers and those concerned individuals with IELTS issues (IELTS teachers as well as candidates) by providing them with an understanding of the fact that lexis-based formulaicity enhancement instruction emphasizing formulaic sequences has important influences on developing oral proficiency. The pervasive nature of formulaic language has a number of important consequences for EFL students who need to speak in a second or foreign language. Pedagogically, knowing the effect of learning such formulaic sequences is of paramount importance to English language educators in Iran and other EFL countries as they move toward learner-centered language teaching.

No research can claim to be a perfect investigation of the subject matter of its study because there are always certain limitations that may act as an obstacle in doing research and may prevent researchers from gaining their desirable aims in process of their study. This study is not an exception to this rule. Given the fact that the study examined two intact classes of EFL learners (N=29), they may not have been a true representation of the larger population of EFL learners. Further empirical studies with much larger samples are needed to produce more generalizable findings.

To conclude, this study is, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, one of the few attempts to explore the formulaicity enhancement instruction effect on the development of EFL learners' speaking performance in Iran. Thus, this study should be replicated to find out whether similar results can be obtained in Iran and other EFL contexts as well.

REFERENCES


http://digital.library.unt.edu/ark:/67531/metadc11024/m2/1/high_res_d/thesis.pdf


**APPENDIX**

**Table A1. Tests of Normality on Posttest Scores in Both Groups of the Study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnova</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic  df Sig.</td>
<td>Statistic  df Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>.186  15 .170</td>
<td>.907  15 .121</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table A2. Test of equality of variance on posttest speaking scores in both groups of the study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene’s Test</th>
<th>F df1 df2 Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.156  1 27 .292</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table A3. Analysis of Covariance on the Speaking scores for Interaction Effect**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>32.057*</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16.028</td>
<td>278.788</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>1.130</td>
<td>.298</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group * pretest scores</td>
<td>.279</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.279</td>
<td>3.995</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>.279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>1.495</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>862.000</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>33.552</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. R Squared = .955 (Adjusted R Squared = .952)

Figure A1: Relationship Between the Pretest and Posttest Scores in Both Groups of Study
INVESTIGATION OF FREQUENT COLLOCATIONAL ERRORS IN THE IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS’ WRITING PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

Most studies on learners' writings have been devoted to examining grammatical and lexical errors. There has been little research into the collocational errors learners produce when writing in their second language, despite the importance of collocations. Moreover, collocational error analysis of previous studies has addressed only a relatively limited number of collocation types. For these shortcomings this study is intended to analyze learners' writings for frequent collocational errors using Brown + BNC and Oxford Collocations Dictionary as tools for retrieving collocational information. Participants were 30 EFL learners at the advanced level of proficiency. The analysis revealed that collocations of prepositions were among the most frequent errors followed by adjective-noun, verb-noun, and quantifier-noun collocations. This study has implications for teaching and learning second language collocations and suggests that erroneous collocations deserve greater attention.

Key words: collocation, concordancing, writing

INTRODUCTION

Writing in English has always been a demanding task facing EFL learners. Training good writers in a second language presents various challenges. As far as the English writing performance of EFL learners is concerned, one of the salient problems of these learners is the application of collocations. Erroneous phrases such as powerful tea are due to lack of collocational knowledge, not poor lexical or grammatical knowledge. Crystal (1992) stated that collocations provide a major difficulty in mastering foreign languages. So to make good English and prevent the unnatural languages, EFL learners have to use the right collocation.

Collocations were chosen as special objects for scrutiny in this study because of a number of reasons. First, as linguists have shown (e.g. Hill, 2000); collocations abound in English language, recurrent combinations of words that co-occur more often than expected by chance. Second, they are probably the most common and most representatives of English multi-word expressions (Hill, 2000). Third, Zhang (1993) stated that collocation is the parameter of the EFL learners writing quality, and it provides a guideline for learners to know how far they make mistakes in collocating the word with the other words so they can do it better than before in their writing, and fourth Linguists, lexicographers, translators/interpreters and even EFL learners themselves have recognized collocation as problematic (Palmer, 1979). So EFL learners’ knowledge of collocations is an essential requirement for the overall mastery of second language (L2).

The problem of appropriate lexical choice is especially daunting for EFL learners (Mackay, 1980). Some of these co-occurrence patterns are so subtle that even advanced language users, including EFL teachers, may have problems with them (Sadeghi, 2009). It is believed that automation of collocations helps native speakers fluently express themselves since
it provides chunks of English that are ready to use. EFL learners, however, lacking this automation, may make non-native errors when producing utterances. In order to achieve native-like competence and fluency, second language learners need to be aware that an important part of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce collocations.

In line with what was mentioned above, the purpose of the study is to investigate different collocational errors made by EFL learners as they were to apply the appropriate collocations in their writing, adopting Brown + BNC (British national Corpus) as the concordancing tool and Oxford Collocations Dictionary to retrieve collocational information of different types. Concordancing software or concordancers are tools developed for conducting searches for words, or strings within a word, and then, in a matter of seconds, exhaustively listing the occurrences of that word (or string) in the electronic corpus, together with the contexts in which the words or strings occur in the source text (Chan, 2010). The study also emphasizes that the findings of the collocational errors will aid language teachers in making decisions relating to which collocations should be emphasized in language classrooms, and in what order they should be presented. So the teaching of collocations calls for more treatment.

**COLLOCATIONS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING**

Firth (1968, p. 11) contended that “you shall know a word by the company it keeps.” Firth is the most quoted scholar to claim that one knows a word by the company it keeps. He believed that we obtain the meaning of a word or a text through a mutually congruent series of levels, these levels being contexts of situation, syntax, phonology, phonetics, and collocation, implying that if a student knows the other words with which a lexical item can be used; he or she knows that word (and those with which it collocates).

The notion of collocation has achieved importance because many linguists have surmised that there are fixed forms of expression in every language that are stored in the minds or memories of native speakers as whole chunks of language forms and not as single words. These fixed expressions are used in speech and writing as such (Brashi, 2006). Among these fixed expressions are collocations. As suggested by Hill (2000), the importance of collocation is due to the fact that up to 70% of everything we say, hear, or read is to be bound in some form of fixed expression. He further notes that learners lacking collocational competence often express their ideas in longer sentences which often contain several grammatical errors.

Collocations seem to be important in learning a language because words are learned and used in context, and without knowing the proper co-text, with which a word can be used, little claim can be made to have mastered that word. Collocational knowledge is also of vital importance in second language acquisition, since Sinclair (1991) suggested that the appropriate use of collocations is now widely accepted as a prerequisite for proficient language use. It has been recognized as a crucial part of native speakers’ communicative competence (Lennon, 1996). Due to their idiosyncratic nature, word collocations account for many mistakes made by second language learners (Leed & Nakhimovsky, 1979), and as Hemchua & Schmitt (2006) noted, it probably takes a great deal of exposure to language to acquire this knowledge, and even advanced learners may take extended periods of time to master collocational appropriacy. Another reason for the importance of collocational knowledge is that the way words combine in collocations is fundamental to all language use (Hill, 2000). Hill maintains that teachers should raise their learners’ awareness of collocations and encourage their autonomy because acquiring competence in collocations is a long process. Learners should be sensitive to noticing collocations in
language. He also suggests that language learners should be presented with authentic texts such as newspaper articles, which are rich in collocations.

Writing problems involving collocations deserve much attention, as EFL learners make collocational errors in their writing and according to Nesselhauf (2003), comprehension of collocations does not normally produce problems for learners so that identifying learners' problems should be identified by analyzing their production of collocations (p. 224). Carter (1998, p. 73-74) claimed that “collocational mismatches are frequent in the language production of L2 learners since learners never encounter a word or combinations of words with sufficient frequency.” These errors can significantly alter the meaning intended. In writing teachers focus mainly on correcting grammatical mistakes, failing to notice those mistakes which are made due to a lack of collocational knowledge (Hill, 2000). Halliday and Hasan (1976) called collocation “the most problematic part of lexical cohesion” (p. 288). Collocations are very often language-specific and, therefore, will cause frequent language (production) mistakes and communication breakdown. That is, they may present a problem to the L2 learners when the native language meaning equivalent uses different collocations. There is, in fact, evidence that even native speakers have difficulty collocating certain words in increasingly formal written contexts depending on education and writing experience (Palmer, 1979).

Recent studies on collocation have exploited concordance and collocation for advising EFL learners in lexical choice. The development of computerized collection and analysis of corpora, have made researchers able to formulate theories about the extent of collocational patterning (Karoly, 2005). As Souza Hodne (2009) stated that the term collocation has only been given more attention after the development of electronic corpora in the 1960s and with it the opportunity to observe combinational patterns in the English language. Since then, research on collocations has increased substantially. Corpus linguists working with corpus tools such as British National Corpus and American National Corpus have shed light on the understanding of collocations as they suggest that collocations are best treated as part of a continuum of strength of word association (Sinclair, 2003). The collocational information is interpreted through proximity of a consistent series of collocates (Lee, 2010).

CLASSIFICATION OF COLLOCATIONS

Some researchers classified multi-word units into the following three categories (e.g. Lewis, 2000):

- **Free collocations** (also referred to as open collocations or free word combinations) consist of items used in their literal senses and freely substitutable, such as *open the gate, a nice car*. This category seems to include all possible and semantically natural combinations.

- **Restricted collocations** (also referred to as fixed combinations or collocations) usually have one item used in a non-literal sense, often a specialized, or figurative sense, and the other used in its normal meaning such as *run a company, bitterly contested*.

- **Idioms** are relatively frozen expressions, the meanings of which can barely be derived from the meanings of their constituent parts such as *sweeten the pill, kick the bucket*.

Benson and Ilson (1997) make a distinction between **grammatical collocations** and **lexical collocations**. A grammatical collocation is a phrase consisting of a dominant word (noun, adjective, verb) and a preposition or grammatical structure
such as an infinitive or clause (ibid, p. xv), in contrast, lexical collocations do not contain prepositions, infinitive or clauses. Typical lexical collocations consist of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. They designated eight main kinds of grammatical collocations and seven kinds of lexical collocations.

RESEARCH ON COLLOCATIONAL ERRORS

The difficulties that language learners are faced with and the necessity for them to acquire collocational knowledge are now being gradually recognized and paid growing attention (Aitchison, 2003). Evidence has suggested that collocational errors make up a high percentage of all errors foreign learners make. Lennon (1996) conducted a study with a group of German learners of English and came to the conclusion that there was a lack of collocational knowledge even in advanced learners, as they used high frequency verbs wrongly. Marton (1977) found that collocations did not seem to cause comprehension problems since his learners had no difficulty comprehending sentences containing collocations, but they had problems at the level of production. Another study undertaken by Yang (2002) revealed that L1 Chinese EFL learners could not judge whether English simple verb collocations were used correctly or incorrectly, and their production ability was even weaker than their judgment ability. However, there still remains a lack of detailed description of learners’ collocational Problems. Writing problems involving collocations deserve much attention, as L2 Learners make collocational errors in their writing. These errors can significantly alter the meaning intended. In writing teachers focus mainly on correcting grammatical mistakes, failing to notice those mistakes which are made due to a lack of collocational knowledge (Hill, 2000). Halliday and Hasan (1976) called collocation “the most problematic part of lexical cohesion” (p. 288). Collocations are very often language-specific and, therefore, will cause frequent language (production) mistakes and communication breakdown. That is, they may present a problem to the L2 learners when the native language meaning equivalent uses different collocations. There is, in fact, evidence that even native speakers have difficulty collocating certain words in increasingly formal written contexts depending on education and writing experience (Palmer, 1979).

However, some linguists argue that some language teachers themselves are not aware of the importance of collocations in EFL learning and, as a result, may not be drawing their learners’ attention to collocations in their teaching (Hill, 2000). That is to say that their roles are largely neglected in traditional as well as modern approaches to language teaching and learning.

AIMS OF THE STUDY

The present study aims to look deeper into the problem of collocations and conduct a comprehensive investigation of their occurrence in learners’ writings. The problem that Iranian EFL learners have with different collocations, and the fact that collocational errors have been either neglected or examined incompletely in previous collocation-related studies urged the researcher to analyze their frequency in EFL learners’ writings and also to provide pedagogical implications for EFL teachers and material developers in their efforts to help EFL learners gain a comprehensive knowledge of English collocations, and to produce better English essays. Therefore the following research question is developed:

What are the frequent collocational errors in the writing of advanced EFL learners?

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY
Zhang (1993) conducted a study to explore the possible correlations between the knowledge and use of English collocations and the quality of college freshmen’s writing. In terms of results, Zhang drew the conclusion that “collocational knowledge is a source of fluency in written communication among college freshmen”. Following this line of conclusion the problem that Iranian EFL learners have with different collocations, and the fact that collocational errors have been either neglected or examined incompletely in previous collocation-related studies, urged the researcher to look deeper into the problem of collocations and conduct a comprehensive investigation of their occurrence in learners’ writings, and also provide pedagogical implications for EFL teachers and material developers in their efforts to help EFL learners gain a comprehensive knowledge of English collocations, and to produce better English essays.

PARTICIPANTS

The participants were thirty advanced EFL learners who have been studying English for at least 6 years. The selection of these participants was based on the fact that they have a lot of writings to do each semester, so they were ready to write without preparation in advance. The sex variable was not controlled in the study as it does not seem to affect their performance to a considerable degree.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

To examine the type of collocational errors in learners’ writings and to meet the aims of the study, participants were asked to write a narrative essay of about 250-300 words, without consulting their dictionaries within one hour on a topic familiar to them, given the confirmation that writing proceeds much more easily on a topic that is familiar than one that is unfamiliar (Mccutchen, 2000). The analysis was basically based on determining whether learners produced an acceptable collocation or not. The data was collected by underlining every unnatural English collocation and then it was checked against the following references: Brown + BNC corpus and Oxford Collocations Dictionary.

DATA ANALYSIS

The present study utilized qualitative method to elicit collocational errors. It focuses on actual problems. To do this, frequent collocational errors produced in learners’ writings were collected and analyzed against Brown + BNC corpus and Oxford Collocations Dictionary.

RESULTS OF QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF COLLOCATION ERRORS

To know about the frequent collocational errors in EFL learners’ writings, the collocational errors were identified, categorized, and checked against selected concordancing software and dictionary of collocations.

Based on the analysis, four major kinds of collocational errors were identified in this study as they occurred in learners’ productions. These types include both grammatical and lexical collocations and are categorized into four categories.

GRAMMATICAL COLLOCATIONS

1. Verb-preposition

Most of the errors are of this category; verb + preposition.
Example of the data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collocation errors</th>
<th>Natural collocations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Such laws should not be imposed to people</td>
<td>Such laws should not be imposed on people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It should be conveyed people</td>
<td>It should be conveyed to people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Their rumors come to true</td>
<td>Their rumors come true</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: the result of errors of verb + preposition collocations

Collocational errors concerned with prepositions were found extensively in the sample essays. The analysis of the errors showed that learners had serious problems in the application of prepositions. Their problems are as follow:

a. the choice of inappropriate preposition (such laws should not be imposed to people, when on is the correct preposition).

b. omission of preposition in the case that it was required (it should be conveyed people while convey requires preposition to).

c. the addition of preposition when none was needed (their rumors come to true, while to needs to be omitted).

The reason behind these errors can be contributed to the influence of L1 on L2 production (this influence is evident in the first and the third examples), or the difficulty learners have with the L2 itself (evident in the second example).

LEXICAL COLLOCATIONS

1. Adjective-noun

a. Example of the data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collocation errors</th>
<th>Natural collocations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>low age</td>
<td>young age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>few wage</td>
<td>low wage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heavy machines</td>
<td>huge machines</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: the result of errors of adjective + noun collocations

The second frequent category of observed collocational errors was the error of adjective + noun collocations. This error was related to adjective choice. Learners mistakenly chose the wrong adjective on the basis of their shared meaning which leads to errors such as low ages, few wages, and heavy machines. These errors are due to the fact that collocational
differences of synonyms are not easily recognized and often fail to be acquired by EFL learners, or the false impression that certain words are always interchangeable.

2. Verb-noun

a. Example of the data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collocation errors</th>
<th>Natural collocations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Our plan is to have a trip.</td>
<td>Our plan is to take to take a trip.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many mistakes did you do?</td>
<td>How many mistakes did you make?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: the result of errors of verb + noun collocations

The third category which was frequent was the category of verb + noun. To have a trip and to do mistakes were among the errors observed in this category. Since learners resort to their L1 thinking processes and cannot deprive themselves from their L1, they make such errors in their written production. This problem can be alleviated if learners could develop their L2 thinking processes.

3. Quantifier-noun

a. Example of the data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collocation errors</th>
<th>Natural collocations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a vast number of people</td>
<td>a great number of people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A tremendous number of persons</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: the result of errors of lexical collocations

The errors of this category, vast number of people instead of great number of people are due to the intrinsic difficulty of the L2 collocations.

CONCLUSION

The data obtained from the samples show that Iranian EFL learners made up unacceptable collocations and they have an overall significant problem in producing collocations. Typical collocational errors of subjects were analyzed. Four major types of errors and the reason behind them were identified. Some errors were made, as the L1 of the learners influenced their L2 production. In other words, since they were unable to use the L2 directly, without the mediation of L1, they made such errors. Some errors were attributable to their limited collocational competence that leads them to the approximation strategy. In consequence, they used words that shared semantic meaning.
IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study suggests that investigation of collocational errors deserves much attention as one of the salient problems that EFL learners encounter in their writing is the application of collocations. Using corpora, which are now accessible online (for example, the Brown + BNC, the COBUILD Corpus), is a powerful way to gain awareness of collocations, as learners can obtain samples of authentic language.

The study also suggests that the instruction of collocations deserves much attention and learners' awareness of collocations should be raised before the writing process.

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT

This study was an attempt to find about the effect of activating multiple Persian polysemous senses on the understanding of English sentences via reading skill. An OPT was given to 82 Persian learners of English who were assigned to 2 groups of highly proficient and low proficient L2 learners. Eighty English sentences were given to the participants, and each sentence had an exchanged Persian polysemous noun or verb (e.g., He found it hard to get his “language” round these Polish names, and He could speak several “tongues.” The Persian polysemous word in the preceding sentences is زبان /zæbɑːn/. Participants were asked to decide whether the L2 word—considered as an L1 polysemous word—was an acceptable completion to a sentence. Results indicated that the low proficient participants outperformed the high proficient ones in understanding the L1 polysemous words, and the highly related L1 polysemous words made more interference in interpreting the L2 words. Results would shed light on the effect of L2 words considered as L1 polysemous words on L2 learners’ abilities of translation and interpretation of such words in L2 sentences.

Keywords: Polysemy, Reading comprehension; Ambiguity; Lexicalization

INTRODUCTION

Ambiguity is a challenging and thought-provoking phenomenon which has a very vital role in the interpretation of a language (Langaker, 1991). Every day, human beings think and use their mental lexicon to process different senses of ambiguous words (Guttler & William, 2008). Although the two fundamental features of ambiguous words are homonymy and polysemy, Hanks (2006) has found that ambiguity is mostly related to polysemy rather than homonymy due to the fact that senses of polysemy are semantically very close to one another. Kaufman (2002) goes beyond this idea and contends that knowing a language is mostly related to knowing the applications of different senses of polysemous words, rather than having the vocabulary knowledge itself.

In recent years, most studies on polysemy (e.g., Bierwische & Schreuder, 1992; Brown, 2006; Parent, 2009) have been done on L2 polysemous words, mostly on the coactivation effect of multiple senses of such words, and on the interfering role they have in L2 processing. Nevertheless, the importance of polysemous interfering role becomes more apparent when two languages are involved, in a way that one word in an L2 is monosemous, whereas it has two or more equivalences in an L1 (Williams, 2007).

The present study set out to investigate the influence that multiple senses of Persian polysemous words (here, L1) have in L2 learners’ minds when reading English texts (here, L2). The main focus was on cases where a Persian polysemous word was realized by two or more independent words in English. It also focused on the role of lexical-level translation connection and the coactivation of multiple senses of Persian polysemous senses in reading English texts. The Persian word زبان /zæbɑːn/, for example, has two equivalences of tongue and language in English. Reading the word tongue, a Persian learner
of English activates the Persian translation equivalence زبان (tongue). The word زبان in turn, activates its L1 meaning language. Therefore, this inappropriate conceptual feature provides the learner with interference in L2 semantic processing task. The results of this study may hopefully shed some light on the effect of L1 polysemous words in the interpretation of L2 sentences and might be of great importance to L2 pedagogy.

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

A number of studies (e.g., Kroll & Stewart, 1994; Rodd, Gaskell, & Wilson, 2002) have been done on the possible effects of L1 polysemous words on the interpretation of L2 sentences. The findings are not clear-cut in the sense that there are conflicting views regarding the possible influence of L1 polysemy in L2.

Given the lexicalization patterns of polysemy, two different views have been arisen. The first view by Kroll and Stewart (1994) states that different lexical patterns in languages interfere with each other in processing. According to this view, L2 words are produced and understood directly via lexical level translation connection to L1 words. In support of this view, Guttler and William (2008) investigated the effect of German polysemous words on English processing. Their result showed that when a German learner of English read the word bag whose translation in German was the polysemous word tasche with two different lexical forms of bag and pocket in English, a lexical level-link activated the German translational equivalence tasche. The word tasche, in turn, activated its L1 meaning. Then, inappropriate conceptual features associated with the concept of bag became activated. This made it hard for the German participants to distinguish between L1 and L2 lexicalization patterns leading to interference in L2 semantic processing task. Moreover, being in agreement with the theory of interference, Kang (2005) declared a directly interrelated link between the interfering effect of L1 polysemous words and L2 learners’ level of proficiency. The performance of the Japanese participants in his research showed that the more proficient an L2 learner was, the better polysemy interpreter he or she would be. Finally, in favor of the interference theory, Klepousniotou, Titone, and Romero (2008) added the overlapping senses theory in which the Italian polysemous words (in this case, L1) which included highly related senses were much more interfering in English (in this case, L2) processing than those of moderately related senses.

The second view holds that different patterns in languages are kept distinct and make no interference in processing (Rodd, Gaskell, & Wilson, 2002). Based on this view, L2 words are comprehended via concepts and L2 learners have to develop conceptual mappings from L2 words. Verifying this view, Jiang (2002) affirmed that to comprehend English words including L1 polysemous equivalences such as the Chinese word wenti with two English equivalences of problem and question, Chinese learners of English have to develop direct conceptual mappings from these forms to the conceptual level and to suppress relying on L1 translation equivalence. In addition, Tylor and Evans (2003) presented separate meaning theory of polysemy senses based on which polysemous senses are interpreted separately. According to this theory, polysemous senses are unpredictable, and they must be explicitly shown in the lexicon because they cannot be explained by a linguistic rule. Moreover, different senses have their own lexical entries and cannot predict the meaning of each other. Semantic relatedness is known to be facilitator in meaning processing. Thus, under this theory, different senses of a polysemous word do not interfere in each other’s activation.

Given the above conflicting views regarding the effect of multiple senses of L1 polysemous senses in L2 processing, it makes good sense to investigate the existence of such semantic phenomenon in the Persian language and see how
consistent the results are with the previous ones. It is hoped that conducting this research and its following results will pave the way for the related lines of inquiry in future. At the same time, the researchers hope that the findings will increase our understanding and awareness, as English teachers, of the nature of human language in general in order to help L2 learners of English to experience a much easier and smoother learning task. The study, therefore, sought answers to the following questions:

1. How does L2 proficiency relate to meaning interpretation of polysemous L1 words?
2. How does the type of polysemous L1 words (i.e., nouns vs. verbs) influence the meaning interpretation of L2 words?
3. How does the degree of relatedness of L1 polysemous nouns (i.e., high vs. moderate) influence the meaning interpretation of L2 words?
4. How does the degree of relatedness of L1 polysemous verbs (i.e., high vs. moderate) influence the meaning interpretation of L2 words?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The main participants were L2 students who had been learning English for more than 6 years in English institutes. A total number of 82 advanced learners of English including 41 females (mean age 28) and 41 males (mean age 30) were randomly selected from four language institutes, the reason of which was to have a sample which was representative of the population. Moreover, 72 Persian native speakers from Persian literature faculties were randomly selected. They were 36 females and 36 males (both above 25). In addition, a group of 23 native speakers of English (11 males and 12 females) were asked to answer the same questionnaire given to the main participants. Their answers were, then, examined in order to be compared and contrasted with those of the main Persian participants.

Materials

Two questionnaires and a test were used in this study. The first questionnaire was a Persian one and was designed for the Persian participants majoring in Persian literature to determine the relatedness of the senses of the Persian polysemous words underlined in each statement of the questionnaire. The participants answered the questionnaire according to the scale of 0 to 4: 0 (the same meaning), 1 (very similar), 3 (fairly similar), and 4 (very different). The second questionnaire was an English one, including forms A and B with 80 English statements. In form A, consisting of the first 40 statements, each statement included a verb considered as a polysemous one in Persian. And, each statement of form B, the second 40 statements, included a noun which was a polysemous one in Persian. In each form, half of the polysemous words’ senses (i.e., nouns and verbs) were highly related to each other, and half of them were moderately related to one another (see sample items in the Appendix). And, the test used in this study was the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) to determine the homogeneity of the main participants.
Procedure

At the first stage of the experiment, a questionnaire including Persian statements, each of which consisting of a pair of Persian polysemous nouns and a pair of Persian polysemous verbs, was given to the group of participants majoring in Persian Literature. They were asked to choose how related the senses of each pair of the Persian polysemous words were. Based on the result of this questionnaire, the English questionnaire which was the translation of each of the Persian statement to English was administered to the main participants.

At the second stage of the experiment, first, the main participants were tested for their homogeneity. The results showed the more or less homogeneity of the participants. What was focused was their proficiency and they were categorized into two groups of highly proficient and low proficient English learners. Also, they were given the English questionnaire. What they were asked to do was to read the statements and choose whether or not they made sense to them. All the statements included the sense of polysemous word which did not fit in the texts. And, the participants were supposed to decide whether the statements were semantically acceptable or unacceptable. Moreover, to make sure that the multiple senses of the polysemous words made interference and it was a normal and general phenomenon, the group of native speakers of English was asked to answer the same English questionnaire. The results were compared with those of the main participants.

Data Analysis

In order to test the relationship between the participants’ proficiency level and their interpretation of the polysemous words, a t test was calculated for each group of the highly proficient and the low proficient participants. The scores obtained from the two groups were compared and subjected to statistical operations. Table 1 indicates that there was a difference between the means of the two groups ($t = 8.82$, $df = 42.36$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.00$). The result of the t test shows that the $p$ value is less than $\alpha$; therefore, there was a difference between the means of the two groups and the first null hypothesis is rejected:

- Highly proficient L2 learners are not different from low-proficient L2 learners in terms of interpreting polysemous words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Polysemous Interpretation (Low Group)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20.84</td>
<td>8.42</td>
<td>8.82</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polysemous Interpretation (High Group)</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>49.00</td>
<td>15.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{p < .05}\)

In order to test the relationship between the word-type (i.e., noun vs. verb) and the polysem interpretation, a t test was calculated; the scores obtained from form A (polysemous nouns) of the English questionnaire were compared with the
scores of form B (polysemous verbs). The results from form A and form B of the questionnaire show that there was a significant difference between the interpretation of the polysemous verbs and the polysemous nouns by the nonnative participants (t = -2.42, df = 67, α = 0.05, p = 0.01). Because p value is less than α, there was a significant difference between the means of form A and form B (see Table 2); therefore, the second null hypothesis is also rejected:

- There is no difference between the effect of L1 polysemous nouns and L1 polysemous verbs on the meaning interpretation of L2 words.

**Table 2. t Test on Mean Scores of Polysemy Interpretation and Proficiency Word-Type**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Polysemy Interpretation of Verbs</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>7.70</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Form A)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polysemy Interpretation of Nouns</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>8.60</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Form B)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05

To explore the differences between the degree of relatedness of the polysemous words and the interpretation of polysemy, two t tests were calculated in order to see if there were any. The scores obtained from the four groups of the polysemous words including highly related polysemous verbs, moderately related polysemous verbs, highly-related polysemous nouns, and moderately related polysemous nouns were statistically analyzed and compared with one another. As shown in Table 3, there was no difference between the interpretation of the two groups of the highly related polysemous nouns and the moderately related polysemous nouns by the nonnative speakers (t = -0.84, df = 68, α = 0.05, p = 0.401). Because p value is more than α, there was not any significant difference between the two groups; therefore, the third null hypothesis is not rejected:

- The degree of the relatedness of L1 polysemous nouns does not have any effect on the meaning interpretation of L2 words.

**Table 3. t Test on Mean Scores of Polysemy Interpretation and Degree of Relatedness of the Nouns**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Polysemy Interpretation (Highly Related Nouns)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>8.49</td>
<td>5.09</td>
<td>-0.84</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polysemy Interpretation (Moderately Related Nouns)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>8.49</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In contrast, as Table 4 indicates, the mean scores of the two groups of the highly related and the moderately related polysemous verbs were of significant difference ($t = -3.87, df = 68, \alpha = 0.05, p = 0.00$). Because $p$ value is less than 0.05, there was a significant difference between the two groups of the highly and the moderately related polysemous verbs. Hence, the forth null hypothesis below is rejected:

- The degree of relatedness of L1 polysemous verbs does not have any effect on the meaning interpretation of L2 words.

Table 4. t Test on Mean Scores of Polysemy Interpretation and Degree of Relatedness of the Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Polysemy Interpretation (Highly Related Verbs)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.88</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polysemy Interpretation (Moderately Related Verbs)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.04</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*$p < .05$

Discussion and Conclusion

This research program investigated the effect the multiple senses of Persian polysemous words have on English interpretation using Persian speakers learning English in Iran. Two types of Persian polysemous words—nouns and verbs—along with two types of degree of relatedness—highly related and moderately related—were explored by two experimental groups of highly proficient and low proficient. The first null hypothesis was that the highly proficient L2 learners were not different from the low proficient L2 learners in terms of interpreting L1 polysemous words. The performance of the high and the low groups was statistically different, hence rejecting the first null hypothesis. Furthermore, the effect of word-type (i.e., noun vs. verb) turned out to be achieved on the L1 polysemy interpretation. Therefore, the second hypothesis of no difference was rejected. Finally, regarding the last two questions of the study, the degree of relatedness had no effect on interpreting the Persian polysemous nouns, hence failing to reject the third null hypothesis. However, it had a significant effect on interpreting the Persian polysemous verbs, so rejecting the fourth null hypothesis.

As mentioned before, reading interpretation and language proficiency are interrelated (Kang, 2005). The more proficient a reader is, the better interpreter he or she will be. This idea was rejected by the present study in which the low proficient learners outdid the highly proficient ones. The reason for such a contradiction is that the multiple senses knowledge of polysemous words appeared to be an interfering feature for reading the English sentences consisting the Persian
polysemous words because the coactivation of Persian concepts and the effective role of lexical-level translation connection in activating Persian concepts from English words made the interfering feature double.

Moreover, the findings of the present study showed that the interpretation of the Persian polysemous verbs was more interfering for the participants than the Persian polysemous nouns. This finding is obviously in agreement with the one by Kaufman (2002) who found that verbs are generally more polysemous than nouns.

In addition, Guttler and William (2008) explained that because highly related senses of a polysemous verb associate with almost the same action in an L2 learner’s mind, the two close actions bump into the L2 learner’s mind simultaneously and make interference in interpreting the accurate sense. But it is not true of the interpretation of the moderately related senses of a polysemous verb whose actions are almost different from one another. The present study confirmed these findings. When a Persian learner of English read He picked some flowers from the garden, he or she translated it to او چند شاخه گل از باغ چید/ او:ʧænd ja:`ka æz bɑ:q ʧi:d/. The Persian polysemous verb چیدن/ʧi:dan/ associated with the other sense which was cut. The coactivation of the highly related senses of pick and cut made semantic interference.

As the final note, the present researchers, considering the findings of the study, should remind L2 teachers, particularly those teaching English, to be aware of the value of correct interpretation of ambiguous polysemous words, especially L1 polysemous ones. They might use authentic written materials including L2 words whose translation into L1 has got two senses and might draw up a list of misinterpretation of L2 words considered as L1 polysemous ones and improve L2 learners’ areas of weaknesses.

REFERENCES


**APPENDIX**

**Sample Items**

**Instructions:** Please read the statements carefully to see which one makes sense meaning fully and which one does not. Please tick (✓) your answers.

- He found it hard to get his language round these polish names.
  - Acceptable □
  - Unacceptable □

- Barriers can be formed by human agency, or by the intervention of wild-life such as beavers.
  - Acceptable □
  - Unacceptable □

- I called the doorbell, but no one answered.
  - Acceptable □
  - Unacceptable □

- The little boy got on the old horse.
  - Acceptable □
  - Unacceptable □
SLOW EDUCATION MOVEMENT AS A STUDENT-CENTERED APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

The majority of countries nowadays follow the Western approach with standardized curricula, tests and targets to ensure uniform outcomes. However, this approach often does not let us see individual students, with their learning peculiarities and needs, it often cares more about covering the syllabi than about the mental, emotional and social development of students. On the other hand, Slow Education is an evidence-based initiative which started in UK in 2002. It tries to make time in the classroom for thinking, creative teaching and learning, value development and enjoyment. Education in this way becomes less stressful and eventually more efficient. More and more countries (US, Portugal, China, Latin American countries) are joining the movement. Interestingly, large-scale experiments show that some countries (e.g., Spain) benefit from it, while others (e.g., Japan) do not – probably it depends on the traditional life-styles and values in the given cultures.

The paper will analyze the advantages and the disadvantages of the movement and its adequacy for Georgia.

Key Words: Slow education, student-centered, flexible, goal of education, standard requirements, testing, curriculum, low-stress, creativity, cognitive skills

The rhythm of life is getting faster with the time going, and education does its best to catch up with that speed, to satisfy the demands of society. Students are taught more and more topics, larger volumes of information, etc. Western education has always been very much oriented on quality (which is wonderful), which, to be objective, has been expressed in numbers (which is in many cases dubious). Curricula, syllabi, credits, number of contact hours, amount of new material to be taught in a lesson and in a semester, tests to be taken by students to prove that the teacher and the school on the whole did its best to cover all the requirements – all parameters have had to be measurable and standard, to permit student mobility, initially from school to school within a country and later, with the development of globalization, from country to country. Nowadays, with globalization and standardization, education is becoming like this all over the world.

This is generally positive; as equitable education has to be based on standard requirements. This attitude ensures easy mutual understanding of educationalists all over the world, it erases the geographic and the political boarders, permitting people to learn and work all over the world. However, unless sparkled by very talented and hardworking teachers, knowing the peculiarities of their students and risking to modify the prescriptions coming from the governmental educational bodies to fit their students – their learning styles, interests, knowledge background, temperament, etc., this system of education is sort of faceless. It puts not only students, but also teachers into rather rigid frames, making them run like in a squirrel cage to catch up with requirements, which are getting harder and harder. I am sure that every teacher has been in a situation when s/he had to make the decision – to hold an exciting lesson that the students will remember for years and to fall behind the schedule due to this or to keep to the schedule, often having half of the class bored and the other half –
desperately struggling to understand the materials under study. And I am sure all students have been stressed by the approaching test, by the necessity to memorize more and more, by trying to understand and satisfy the requirements.

Ideally, the goal of education is to help people find their place under the sun, to find a job that will make them not only well-off, but also happy. In reality, contemporary education does help many graduates to find and even to maintain a job, however, it rather seldom makes people happy. People are all the time in a crazy race – to get a more and more prestigious and well-paid job, to maintain it... They are stressed and many of them become burned out. By the way, do many educators know what the word „curriculum” originally meant?! It comes from the Latin word “currere” which means “run”. Where are we running and why? Does anybody know?!

A lot of people, both teachers and students, feel nostalgic today about the education of the past, when children went to school at the age of seven or even eight, when, after five or six lessons a day, they had half a day at their disposal, to play in the yard, walk in the park, play some games, attend to sports (not for championship, but for pleasure), when at weekends families sat at dinner tables together, when parents read books to children and children listened, etc. Yes, life was to some degree was simpler then, but they fitted to it alright, and had a good time with family and friends. When I try to compare my grownup children’s knowledge to the knowledge and skills of my generation, I can say that they are more effective at using technologies, but I cannot say that they know more, or that they can more easily solve life or job problems, although they spend much more time at schools and colleges doing homework, and they work a lot overtime. In this crazy race they have become very business-minded and they have missed something very important, which is love, friendship, the luxury of human interrelationships, the luxury of feeling oneself part of nature, the ability to help each other without expecting an award for this, to be involved in some creative activities, be it a home performance or writing a book, making little or big discoveries on one’s own, etc.

According to Stanford (2012), “the pushy parent is a creature of legend. While their child is still in the womb, they get its name on the waiting list for all the “right” schools. Before their offspring can walk, it’s a carefully calibrated schedule of Suzuki violin lessons, swimming galas, Pony Club and private tutors”. Mike Greiner (cited in Stanford, 1012), a house master at Eton, states that these parents who want to provide the best affordable future to their children rather damage than enhance their children’s prospects. Greiner blames the education system rather than parents for this. Contemporary curricula, to his mind, initially meant good – to provide an equitable chance to all children for quality education, but they ended up in the education system which is “more and more industrial, mechanical, crisis-ridden and, ultimately, out of control”.

The global Slow Education movement was introduced initially in the UK and Canada in the 2010s, but then spread to many countries. A primary school following the ideas of Slow Education either does not have classrooms and just has big space in different parts of which different things are happening or does have classrooms, but children are free to move from a class to another whenever they feel like and participate in the activities they feel interested in. There are theatrical performances, sports classes, singing and dancing classes, nature experiments, cages with living creatures, etc. It is somehow like an entertaining center, but they learn a lot there. Children feel relaxed and free to choose what they like to do under a tactful guidance of a teacher, they feel curious and enjoy the process. They can ask questions, express their ideas and discuss.
After I heard the information about it on Euronews in the program Learning World (http://www.wise-qatar.org/learning-world-slow-education) and got interested, I tried to find more information on the movement, but it was difficult, because the search machine insistently offered me articles on slow learners – the term with a negative connotation that means students with certain mental retardation, with learning problems. But Slow Education is about an absolutely different, unfortunately, well forgotten now thing – about learning in order to satisfy natural curiosity, to enjoy the discoveries in the process of learning, development at a natural learning speed instead of a crazy rush for units/modules, points and credits. This kind of education, practiced in the past when children were educated in families, permitted learners to be constantly internally motivated, which is impossible in the system of education existing nowadays, even if very qualified and enthusiastic teachers do their best in the direction. This is the way my father was teaching me things about how the world is. Probably he did have in his mind a sort of a curriculum (e.g., a list of fiction books he wanted me to read), but he readily modified it, when I asked questions or when a new interesting book appeared on the horizon. I owe so much the kind of teaching he did – it gave me the ability to think, first of all, and then some concepts, ideas and facts. I do not want to say my school teachers did not teach me think – but it was done too much in a hurry and not always could reach the goal.

Maurice Holt, Emeritus Professor of Education at the University of Colorado Denver, draws parallels with the Slow Food approach, which rejects industrialized production of fast food in favour of the home-grown, home-cooked world of, for example, rural Italy. “The form of schooling espoused under the banner of standards demonstrates the same deterministic thinking that governs the production of fast food” (Holt, 2002). “If the purpose of schooling is to deliver the knowledge and skills that business needs, this approach cuts costs, standardizes resources, and reduces teacher training to a school-based process. Above all, the efficacy of the operation can be measured and the results used to control it and its functionaries - the teachers... But if schools exist to equip students with the capacity to address the unpredictable problems of adulthood and to establish themselves in a world of growing complexity, then crucial disadvantages emerge. Classroom practice becomes a boring routine, teachers feel de-skilled, and, though what is learned is measurable, its educative value is diminished” (ibid, p. 267-8).

Slow Education emphasizes on music, sport, arts and community-based projects. It is humane, student-centered, and creative. It releases education from the stress of being under-assessed or being unable to reveal one’s existing knowledge and skills. The students learn because they want to know or to be able to do things and not because they need to pass a test.

Holt’s work It’s time to start the slow school movement (2002) is a kind of declaration of the Slow Education movement. He righteously emphasizes: “We remember from our schooldays not the results of tests but those moments when a teacher’s remark suddenly created a new perception” (ibid, p. 267).

Greiner says (see Stanford, 2012): “If you reduce education to the motivation to pass exams in order to get the grades to pass more exams to get you into university, where you will get a degree which will get you a job, then you are undermining the education system.” Well, the officially recognized pedagogy and educational psychology also speak in favour of mastery goals vs. performance goals. Goal orientation theory studied in Nicholls’ (Nicholls, Patashnick, & Nolen,1985) and Dweck’s (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988) works has shown that, although there are certain contradictions in the efficiency of results, in general mastery goals more often bring students to quality knowledge than do performance goals (in a simplistic way they can be explained as the desire to pass tests). But the application of this theory in practice is too difficult, as in the
existing system of education you can hardly find a student who is not impacted by performance goals. Everybody – parents, peers, teachers, education administrators – are emphasizing tests and grades so much that even internally motivated students care about performance a lot.

Has anybody ever thought why so many great minds, including Newton and Einstein, had problems with learning at school? The answer is obvious – schools tried to treat them as “average”, while not only they were not “average”, but also no ordinary student is “average”: s/he is special in one way or another.

Slow Education movement has its own web site (http://sloweducation.co.uk). They explain that “the Slow Education movement believes in promoting deep learning in the context of a broad curriculum that recognizes the talents of all students”. They “believe that the quality of the educational engagement between teacher and learner is more important than judging student ability by standardized tests”.

I can understand very well a government paying big money to public schools – naturally, they need some objective criteria to understand whether the money really serves such goals of public education as providing law-obedient population who can do the jobs needed by the country. And tests, credits, etc. seem to be such criteria. On the other hand, these criteria are to a certain degree OK for the mass production, but they fail to diagnose creative and gifted learners and support their optimal development. By the way, my deep belief is ALL students ARE creative until parents and teachers do their “best” to strangle that creativity. Legislation of countries which give more freedom to private schools can find ways to recognize education obtained in various ways, including Slow Education. Unfortunately, it is not so everywhere. And even in those countries there is yet more practice than research dealing with the efficiency of Slow Education (although on the common sense level it looks obvious).

Let us sum up the advantages and the disadvantages of slow and fast (traditional western-type) learning.

**Table 1. Advantages and the disadvantages of slow and fast learning**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Slow Learning</th>
<th>Fast Learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advantages</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No anxiety.</td>
<td>Permits to pass tests that ensure admission to certain programs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supports and develops natural curiosity; learning is deep, as learners ask question “why?”, cognitive development is involved.</td>
<td>Government can control how effectively its money is spent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsically motivating.</td>
<td>Makes student mobility easy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treats students individually (takes into consideration their interests and comfortable speed of learning).</td>
<td>Stimulates competition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulates emotional development.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulates cooperation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is really student-centered (see above).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Is flexible.
The process of learning is enjoyable.
Students spend less time being taught and more time learning; they can speak as much as they feel like.

Disadvantages
What if a child is not internally motivated in the subject / topic / activity? Will he / she learn it at all?
Education received may not be systematic and comprehensive.
It might be costly.
It requires teachers’ high qualification and creativity; teachers for such teaching might be difficult to find.

Is stressful.
Is curriculum-centered, although declares to be student-centered.
It is difficult to make it flexible due to the emphasis on curriculum.
It seldom stimulates student creativity.

Learners simply have no time to ponder and ask questions “why” and “how?”. Unless they are very intellectual, they may try to memorize the material, instead of trying to understand it.
Needs special teacher effort to motivate students.
Is based mostly on extrinsic motivation.
Pretends to be skill-oriented, in reality is more knowledge-oriented (does not provide life skills, mostly the skills of test-taking).
Leaves little time for leisure activities.
We can see that, although the Slow Education is definitely attractive, it entails certain risks. The traditional school is also not without advantages and it fits the contemporary society, its expectations. On the other hand, there are too many disadvantages which raise the question: is it worse? Is it worse to produce stressed robots which may break down or rebel, like in science fiction movies, one day? How can we combine the advantages of both approaches? The debate is about the balance within schools between delivering good exam results and educating children who can function well not just in exams but in the challenges they will face afterwards.

Holt (2002) mentions a private school in Woodstock, N.Y. - Sudbury School - with no classrooms and no grades, based on the proposition that “there is no right way to learn, no time by which a student should have mastered a given skill” (ibid, p. 268). NuVu Studio, Cambridge, Massachusetts is a full time magnet innovation center for middle and high school students is built on the following principles (MindShift, 2014):

- **No Courses:** Instead, we have studios. Around 12 kids work closely with their 2 coaches on solving big (and small) open-ended problems.

- **No Subjects:** Instead, everything is fused together. Students find themselves moving between a studio that requires them to design a telepresence robot to another that requires them to re-imagine Boston with a cable car system.

- **No Classrooms:** Instead, we have an open space that changes all the time to adapt to the needs of every studio.

- **No One-Hour Schedule:** Instead, students spend two weeks from 9-3 solving one problem.

- **No Grades:** Instead, we have portfolios that document students’ design decisions and show their final products.

A case study of a similar school in Massachusetts found that 87% went on to higher education, which is a great result, but experimental research is needed to compare the “festina lente” (Latin for “make haste slowly”) teaching which permits learners to slow down when needed to think and do creative things to the rigorous race for knowledge. To yield reliable results, it should be held for a long period and in various countries.

Unfortunately, at the moment in the majority of countries research of slow education may involve only comparison of some additional, informal classes, as the state in countries less liberal than the US in the issues of education would not have Slow Learning programs recognized. In China, for example, there are such private schools, but the government does not recognize their certificates. The large-scale experiment held in Japanese primary schools in 2002-2003, introducing the ideas of Slow Education, was not approved by many parents and was eventually dropped. It was considered incompatible with Japanese expectations of excellence and efficiency. Students in Japan are used to working hard, even during their holidays and for six days a week. Does it prove that the ideas of Slow Education are not appropriate? Or does it only prove that they are difficult to be adopted by a workaholic nation like the Japanese who live in a very fast rhythm? By the way, the fact that in Japan they had a state experiment like this proves that something was very wrong with their contemporary school that triggered them to launch such an experiment. On the other hand, in Spain such an experiment held in several schools was very successful. It is very important to know why in one case it failed, while in another – it worked very well. Is it about national traditions and life style or is it because the educational process was organized differently? There are many questions to be answered yet.
At the moment, intuitively, it is possible to say that students of Slow Learning (especially, if it is done at primary schools) will learn more or less as much as students from fast learning schools (at least in the primary school), but they will know it better. On higher level of education, probably, only elements of Slow Education may be applied, as the danger of unsystematic knowledge at this stage is grave enough. Again intuitively, knowing Georgian culture and traditions, it is possible to guess that Slow Education or at least its elements would be efficient in Georgia. I held a small scale research to find out, whether I would find supporters to the idea of slow learning in Georgia. The questionnaire was developed on Survey Monkey platform and placed on my Facebook for distribution. The voluntary respondents had to assess in Likert scale from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree) the offered items. The positive answers are “agree” and “totally agree”, and the mean result (calculated as the number of the respondents who gave each answer multiplied by the corresponding point, then all these products were summed up and divided by the number of the respondents) for each item above three can be viewed as positive. In two weeks' time 70 respondents (41.7% of the respondents were students, 47.6%—teachers, and 10.7% were graduates working at various jobs) filled the questionnaire out. The results were as follows:

Table 2. Survey results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Likert scale/ question #</th>
<th>4 points (agree)</th>
<th>5 points (totally agree)</th>
<th>Mean result (out of 5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. At the primary school I often wanted the teacher to explain things slower and to dedicate more time to playing and practicing.</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>3.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. At the basic / middle school I often wanted the teacher to explain things slower and to dedicate more time to practicing and experimenting.</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. At the high/secondary school I often wanted the teacher to explain things slower and to dedicate more time to practicing and experimenting.</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. At the university I often wanted the teacher to explain theoretical materials slower, to show more, to give more examples and to use hands-on activities.</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I am a fast learner.</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>3.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I speak fast when answering the lesson.</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>3.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. It takes me quite a long time until I understand and memorize things well.</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I agree with the idea that the fastest is the smartest.</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I prefer pondering on one item for a long time, going deep, finding out the reasons and relationships, instead of taking part in quizzes and giving quick answers.

We can see from the table that

1. Quite many (63-75%) of the respondents often wanted to learn slower not only at primary school, but even at university (items 1-4). The mean results of these items are above 3 (3.75-3.84), which is quite high.

2. Although 49-65% of the respondents view themselves as fast learners (items 5-6) and say they don’t need much time to memorize the new material (67%, as item 7 is in reverted format), they do not believe that ‘smart learner’ is a synonym of ‘fast learner’ (only 18% of the respondents think so, the mean result is also low – 2.43 – item 8).

3. More than half of the respondents (51%, mean result – 3.24 – item 9) like to think over the material under study for some time.

Of course, this study has limitations – not so many respondents participated in it, but if we compare the results to the literature review above, it is possible to say that the research does reveal general trends. We certainly are not a very fast nation and our students would be grateful and would benefit, if the education in our country does not become slow, would at least from time to time slow down, giving them a chance to reflect over what they are learning.

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Videos on Slow education:


PHRASAL VERBS IN MONOLINGUAL & BI-LINGUAL DICTIONARIES

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ABSTRACT

The domain of this paper is lexicology and dictionaries. In particular, it investigates how monolingual English dictionaries as well as bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries treat phrasal verbs in terms of the object's position. The researcher uses the term phrasal verbs to cover both prepositional and adverbial verbs. The main objective of this paper is to examine whether monolingual English dictionaries and bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries provide Arab EFL learners with useful reference syntactic information that helps them distinguishing adverbial verbs from prepositional ones in terms of the position of the object. The data of this paper consists of two sets of phrasal verbs; adverbial and prepositional verbs. The target adverbial verbs are: get up, break down, put off, and turn down. While the target prepositional verbs are: believe in, look after, talk about, and wait for. The main source of Arab EFL learners’ errors might be the lack of adequate syntactic information about the position of the object of the target phrasal verbs in monolingual English-Arabic and bilingual English dictionaries. The paper will examine how helpful monolingual English as well as bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries are to Arab EFL learners in terms of syntactic information. To achieve the principal goals of this paper we will consult four common monolingual English dictionaries and two bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries.

The study revealed that all of the target dictionaries lack specific syntactic information concerning the object’s position—especially if the object is a pronoun—of phrasal verbs, which makes Arab EFL learners commit errors in it. Dictionary compliers have to take this in consideration. Nearly all dictionaries give the same explanation of the target phrasal verbs e.g. all monolingual English dictionaries give no specific syntactic information about the phrasal verb break down, nor do they give a single example of pronoun object. They give some examples of two-word object. Monolingual English dictionaries give more information and examples than bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries.

Key words: Phrasal verbs, adverbial verbs, prepositional verbs, dictionaries, lexicography

INTRODUCTION

The domain of this paper is lexicology and dictionaries. In particular, it investigates how monolingual English dictionaries as well as bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries treat phrasal verbs in terms of the object’s position. The researcher uses the term phrasal verbs to cover both prepositional and adverbial verbs.

Dictionaries are one, perhaps the major, reference book for foreign learners, who need to have information on the language they are learning. However, native speakers, too, may have good reasons to turn to a dictionary. Nevertheless, their needs are different. Apart from a number of more technical or 'marked' words, they can be presumed to know the language. They need to know, often, how a word is used appropriately. Therefore, there can be more specific kinds of reference works for them, such as usage guides. Seen from a sociolinguistic angle, dictionaries have, thus, a highly interesting function: they
codify a language, they define, and they tell what is correct (or at least common), even when they proclaim to merely describe.

English dictionary making (or lexicography, to use the technical term) is a hot issue. For one, English is no longer a unitary language for which one dictionary can do. There are at least British and American English. But there are other national varieties as well. The second reason is that English (within and across its varieties) is highly stratified. No speaker of English can be assumed to ‘know it all’. One needs dictionaries of slang, of colloquial English, adverbial verbs, prepositional verbs, etc. Thirdly, the number of speakers and learners of English goes into hundreds of millions. Lexicography has become a huge commercial market and, with the changes in the empirical linguistics, there are countless innovations that have been made in the last decade that improve the quality and usefulness of dictionaries.

Dictionaries, then, are an immensely important field. Compilers of dictionaries have to draw on many linguistic disciplines, such as lexicology, grammar, and adverbial and prepositional verbs.

Phrasal verbs are a specific kind of verb. The term derives from “phrase” which in traditional linguistic theory refers to the minimum unit of syntax. They differ from normal verbs in that they are constituted by two or three elements instead of just one. Many studies accounted for such distinction (cf. Palmer (1965), Bolinger (1971), Jones (1985), Stein (1991), Cowie (1991), Hart (1999).

Their register ranges from moderate formality (keep away from, look down on) to informality (hang out, pick on). The number of common verbs, prepositions, and adverbs in English is not very great. Yet, the quantity of actions, states, and events to be communicated in verb form tends toward infinite. Phrasal verbs are products of the recycling and the recombination of finite lexical elements in order to render the language infinitely wealthy and expressive. They often arise from casual uses of the language and eventually work themselves into the mainstream of language use. According to some scholars, phrasal verbs constitute a highly productive system, which is difficult to classify completely.

Phrasal verbs are morphologically complete verbs: they have an infinitive and conjugations. Morphologically they are composed of a base verb and one or more particles (adverbs or prepositions). In order to decide if a verb + preposition or verb + adverb combination is a phrasal verb or not, you can try to substitute the base verb with a synonymous single-word verb. If the sentence makes no sense, then the original is a phrasal verb. Vice-versa, if the sentence makes sense, the original is a single-word verb. These are two examples with substitution:

a. *He ran up a huge bill at the restaurant*. Phrasal verb

   *He walked up a huge bill at the restaurant*. It makes no sense = phrasal verb

b. *He ran up the hill*. Single-word verb

   *He walked up the hill*. It makes sense = single-word verb

Another way to verify the cohesion of verb and particle is to transform the active verb into passive. This time however, if the sentence makes sense, then the original is a phrasal verb. If the sentence makes no sense, the original is a single-word verb. Here is an example with transformation:

a. *Huge bill was run up at the restaurant*. It makes sense = phrasal verb.
b. *The hill was run up by him.* It doesn't make sense = single-word verb

Fortunately, it is usually easy to distinguish between phrasal verbs and single-word verbs followed by an adverbial-prepositional phrase.

**Objectives**

According to what we have stated before, the main objective of this paper is to examine whether monolingual English dictionaries and bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries provide Arab EFL learners with useful reference syntactic information that helps them distinguishing adverbial verbs from prepositional ones in terms of the position of the object, particularly it sought out to provide answers to the following question.

What syntactic information about the objects position of the target phrasal verbs is given in monolingual English dictionaries and bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries that help Arab EFL learners to correctly place it, particularly if the object is a pronoun?

**Reference Information**

Traditionally, phrasal verbs have been divided into different types. It should be immediately noted that the many names used in traditional texts to refer to these types often create confusion rather than clarity. In the following examples, I indicate with an asterisk the correct position(s) available for the direct object.

**Type 1:** Prepositional verbs (ex. to believe in *, to look after *, to talk about *, to wait for *) also called n1wwon-separable or transitive phrasal verbs. Constituted by basic verb + preposition.

**Type 2:** Adverbial verbs (ex. get up, break (*) down (*), put (*) off (*), turn (*) down (*)) also called phrasal verbs, or separable phrasal verbs. Constituted by basic verb + adverb.

**Type 3:** Adverbial-prepositional verbs (ex. get on with *, put up with *, look forward to *, run out of *) also called phrasal-prepositional verbs, or three-word verbs, sometimes grouped with type 1 as non-separable. Constituted by basic verb + preposition + adverb.

**Additional characteristics of type 1:**

a. Commonly used prepositions: in, after, about, for

b. Never occur without object (e.g. "to talk about someone/something", etc.)

c. The direct object always follows the preposition

**Additional characteristics of type 2:**

a. Commonly used adverbs: up, down, off, on

b. When the object of the verb is present, it is placed either between the basic verb and the adverb or after the entire phrasal verb (turn the light on, turn on the light)

**Additional characteristics of type 3:**

a. Basic verb + adverb + preposition (out of, up for)
b. Always take a direct object

c. Cannot be separated by the object

Confusion may arise if we note that type 1 is similar to type 2b, type 2b is similar to type 2a, but type 1 is not similar to type 2a. Also, type 1 is similar to type 3, type 1 is similar to 2b, but type 3 is not similar to type 2b! It thus becomes necessary for clarity’s sake to list all the criteria concerning phrasal verbs which can function as a basis of comparison and which can lead us to a practical scheme of classification:

1. adverb vs. preposition as particle

2. necessity of explicit direct object and rules for placement (transitivity)

3. ability to be “separated” by the object (“separability”)

4. typical-atypical behavior of “particle” (semantic normalcy of preposition or adverb)

The traditional three-fold classification scheme given above clearly utilizes the evaluation of the particle, as the exclusive tool for dividing the corpus of phrasal verbs into groups. Nevertheless, on a practical level, the “separability” of a phrasal verb, is undoubtedly its most essential characteristic in order to be used correctly, and the student must memorize not only the phrasal verb’s infinitive and its meaning but also its degree of “separability”. That is not to say that transitivity is to be overlooked. It therefore appears that a more logical classification structure and nominative strategy would lead us away from an exclusive analysis of the particle, towards a comprehensive consideration of the entire phrasal verb as the basic unit of study. Consider the following proposal for the classification of phrasal verbs:

Type 0: “intransitive” (traditionally type 2a) no direct object.

Type 1: “transitive-non-separable” (traditionally type 1) direct object always present, placed after the phrasal verb

Type 2: “transitive-separable” (traditionally type 2b) direct object always present, either separating or placed after the verb, a pronoun always separates

Type 3: “three-word” (traditionally type 3) direct object always, placed after the verb

Phrasal verbs are often listed or grouped according to a basic verb (ex. stand out, stand up, stand by *, stand up to *, stand for *). In fact, a large number of phrasal verbs are generated from a relatively small number of basic verbs. Nevertheless, the classification of phrasal verbs according to base verbs does not yield groups having similar qualities of usage or meaning. There is no way to predict how much the meaning of a simple verb changes when it becomes the base of a phrasal verb.

It seems much more interesting the idea of comparing phrasal verbs with single-word verbs having an equivalent meaning. These do not always exist, given the colloquial and idiomatic origins of many phrasal verbs. However, it can often be noted how many phrasal verbs are of Germanic origin, while their single-word equivalents are of Latin origin. More importantly, these pairs at times have no difference in meaning (go back/return, break/break down), although sometimes the phrasal verb adds additional information to the single-word verb (jump at/take, come across/find, hold out/resist).

It has been possible to analyze the individual behavior of the most common adverbial extensions, and the most frequent are: up, down, in, out, on, off.
Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985) classified phrasal verbs according to their varying degree of "idiomatic-ness", which for them is a synonym for predictability of meaning:

a. Phrasal verbs whose meaning with respect to the base verb doesn't change are non-idiomatic (ex. fall down, beat * up *, block * off *, joke around).

b. Those whose meaning changes slightly with respect to the base verb are semi-idiomatic (ex. think * up *, talk out of *, look forward to *, let * down *, hang (*) out (*)).

c. The most idiomatic are those whose meaning is most surprising (ex. brush up on *, act up, take after *, run out of *, put up with *, give (*) up (*)).

It is clear that the meaning of the particle is related to the degree of idiomaticity of phrasal verbs. Thus, in a didactic approach, close attention must be paid to the semi-idiomatic group B and the idiomatic group C. This will facilitate a comparison of the phrasal verb's meaning with that of the particle and the base verb. It has been possible to reach certain conclusions about the typical behavior of some particles. They can give a sense of:

1. a prolonged or continued action (eat away at, carry on)
2. completion (catch up, use up, give up)
3. aimless behavior (hangs around, play around)
4. resistance (hold out, hang on)

This classification scheme is by no means complete. Many other function categories of particles can certainly be identified. What distinguishes simple verbs from phrasal verbs appears to be the aspectual difference which the particle controls. Indeed these particles often indicate a telic aspect that is the transformation of an action into an accomplishment, as compared with the atelic aspect of the basic verb (imperfective action or event or state): tear up/tear; throw away/throw; carry out/carry; hold off/hold.

The differences between the (traditionally three) types of phrasal verbs are very subtle for the English language student. The use of phrasal verbs by native English speakers is governed by "ear" and not by "rule". At beginning and intermediate levels, great value should be placed on the acquisition and spontaneous use of essential phrasal verbs.

Given that semi-idiomatic phrasal verbs are not only common but also behave in very peculiar ways, it is highly necessary for beginning and intermediate students of English to dedicate a part of their study to them. A well-organized course on phrasal verbs should result in the student having:

1. An essential verbal vocabulary from the standpoint of "written" English.
2. An essential vocabulary from the standpoint of "spoken" English: generally more informal than formal, more vernacular than erudite, more "from people" than "from a book"
3. A good feel for the common semi-idiomatic qualities of the most common particles.
4. The ability to acquire, study, and understand new phrasal verbs more easily and more intuitively by elaborating on strong fundamental concepts.
METHODOLOGY

The data of this paper consists of two sets of phrasal verbs; adverbial and prepositional verbs. The target adverbial verbs are: get up, break down, put off, and turn down, while the target prepositional verbs are: believe in, look after, talk about, and wait for.

The target phrasal verbs are hypothesized as being problematic for Arab EFL learners in terms of the object’s position, especially if the object is a pronoun (Side, 1990). The majority of EFL students – according to the researcher’s observation since being a lecturer of English language for Arab EFL learners for many years – make errors in the target phrasal verbs. E.g. they might say

*I looked it after.
*I looked the boys after.

The main source of such errors might be the lack of adequate syntactic information about the position of the object of the target phrasal verbs in monolingual English-Arabic and bilingual English dictionaries. We will examine how helpful are monolingual English as well as bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries to Arab EFL learners in terms of syntactic information. To achieve the principal goals of this paper we will consult four common monolingual English dictionaries that are:

2. Collins York New English Dictionary (henceforth Collins)
4. Merriam Webster’s Colligate Dictionary (henceforth Webster)

The bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries that we will consult are:


FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Before proceeding with this analysis, it is useful to remind ourselves of the study question (section 2) which requires an answer that specifies what syntactic information about the objects position of the target phrasal verbs is given in monolingual English dictionaries and bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries that helps Arab EFL learners to correctly place it, particularly if the object is a pronoun.

Monolingual English Dictionaries


a. get up
Here’s Oxford’s entry of this adverbial verb: get sb / sth up, [a] cause to rise, to be out of bed: *Get me up at seven o’clock.* [b] arrange sb’s / sth’s appearance: *got up to look like an Arab princess. The book is well got up,* well printed and bound. Hence, get sth up, organize: *We’re getting up a party for his birthday.*

By looking at Oxford’s entry of this adverbial verb, we see that Oxford provided some examples about how to place the object e.g.

*Get me up at seven o’clock.*

*We are getting up a party for his birthday.*

These two examples show that if the object of this adverbial verb is a pronoun, it precedes the adverb. But if it is a noun it follows the adverb. This will help Arab EFL learners avoid committing errors in the position of the object. Oxford does not provide explicit syntactic information that this verb is an adverbial verb and it does not explicitly explain how to place the object.

**b. break down.**

Let us start our argument of this verb by providing Oxford’s entry of it: *break down,* [a] collapse: it is resistance will ~ down in time. *Our plans have broken down. Negotiations have broken down.* ~sth down, [a] get (a door, well, etc) down by battering it. [b] overthrow by force; suppress: ~ down all resistance / opposition. [c] divide, analyze, classify (statistical material): ~ down expenditure, give details of how money is spent. [d] change the chemical composition of: sugar and starch are broken down in the stomach.

Oxford does not provide sufficient examples that help in explaining how to place pronoun object and two-word objects. Nor does it explain syntactically where the object should be. Lack of such information may lead Arab EFL learners to assume that pronoun objects may follow the adverb as in. *He will break down it next evening.*

**c. put off**

Oxford states that: put sth off, [a] postpone: *put off a meeting; put of going to the dentist,* [b] (use of non-material things, take off being usual for clothes) get rid of *you must put off your doubts and fears,* put sb off (sth), (a) put to a later date an arrangement, etc: *We shall have to put the Smiths off till next week,* (b) make excuses and try to avoid, e.g. sth one has promised to do, a duty: *He tried to put me off with vague promises. I won’t be put off with such flimsy excuses,* won’t accept them put sb off (sth), hinder or distract him (from sth): put sb of his game, e.g. distract him when he is about to strike the ball at golf. The mere smell of garlic put him off his supper, caused him not to want supper. Put sb of his stroke, distract him; cause him to pause.

The dictionaries entry itself is a clear indication that two-word object may appear before or after the adverb as in: *We shall have to put the smith’s off until next week.*

Some examples are given where the pronoun object is placed between the adverb and the verb e.g., *He tried to put me off with vague promises.* We see that very illustrative examples are given what helps Arab EFL learners not to make errors in the object’s position. No explicit information about the position of the object is given.

**d. turn down.**
Oxford provided the following information about this phrasal verb: turn (sth) down, [a] (cause to) fold down: ~ down one's coat collar; a ~ down the bedclothes. [b] Reduce (the flame or brilliance of a gas – or oil – lamp, stove; etc) by ~ing a wheel or tap: ~ down the lamps. [c] Place (a playing card) on the table face downwards. ~sb/sth down, refuse to consider (an offer, a proposal, or the person who makes it): He tried to join the army but was ~ed down because of poor health. He asked Jane to marry him but she ~ed him down/~ed down his proposal.

We see that we have examples about where a pronoun object is placed e.g.

*She turned him down.*

and where two-word object should appear as in

*He turned down the lamp.*

but again no syntactic information is given that illustrates how to put the object, what we have is only examples which may help Arab EFL learners avoid errors and put the object in its right position. Generally, Oxford treated all adverbial verbs in this way; by giving examples and not by explicit information.

**Prepositional verbs**

**a. believe in**

Here is Oxford's entry of this verb: believe in, [a] have trust in: I~in that man, [b] feel sure of the existence of: ~in God. (c) feel sure of the value or worth of: He ~in getting plenty of exercises. He ~s in old-fashioned remedies.

By looking at oxford's entry of this prepositional verb we see that oxford provided some examples about how to correctly place the object particularly if the object is a two-word object e.g. *I believed in god.*

But no examples about where pronoun objects should be placed what might make Arab EFL Learners produce sentences like.

*He believed it in.*

In addition, no explicit syntactic information is given to illustrate how to put the object.

**b. look after**

Let us start our argument of this prepositional verb by giving oxford's entry of it: Look after sb/sth, [a] take care of; watch over; attend to: who will ~after the children while their mother is in hospital? He needs someone to ~ after him. He is well able to ~after himself / to ~ after his own interests. [b] follow with the eyes: They *looked after the train as it left the station.*

Examples about two-word object are given e.g., *They looked after the train as it left the station.*

And about pronoun object as in

*He needs someone to look after him*

What helps Arab EFL learner's avoid making errors in using them. But such dictionary entry lacks specific syntactic information about it.

**c. talk about**
Oxford provided the following explanation for this prepositional verb: Talk about sth, say things; speak to give information; discuss sth, etc: He was ~ing about a friend. What are they, ~ing about?

This entry, like all other preceding entries, lacks specific syntactic information, which might help Arab EFL learners to avoid committing errors in the position of the object. But it provided one example with 2 words object e.g.

He was talking about a friend.

But we have no examples that deal with pronoun objects, so we can say that lacking such examples may be a source of Arab EFL learners to produce sentences as

* He was talking it about.

d. wait for

Oxford has the following entry of this prepositional verb: Wait for stay where one is, delay acting, until sb or sth comes or until sth happens: ~ for me, please. How long have you been ~ing? We are ~ing for the rain to stop. We are ~ing for better weather.

Oxford does not state neither explicitly nor implicitly that the object of this prepositional verb must follow the preposition in all cases, even if the object is pronoun. However, it provided illustrative examples about where pronoun objects should go as in wait for me, please,

and about two words object. As in

We are waiting for the rain to stop

Such examples help Arab EFL learners avoid misplacing the object.

Now we will compare and contrast the given information of this dictionary on each of the target phrasal verbs. If the dictionary provided the necessary information it will have this mark ( / ) and it will be marked by (X) if it doesn’t.

Table 1. Comparison and contrast the information Oxford gives of the target phrasal verbs
Merrim Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary

Adverbial verbs

a. get up

Here is Webster’s entry for this phrasal verb: get up, 1: to make preparation for: organize (got up a party for the new comers) 2: to arrange as to external appearance 3: to acquire a knowledge of 4: to create in one self (cannot get up the courage to tell than).

By looking at Webster’s entry of this adverbial verb we see that neither it provides specific syntactic information about the position of the object, nor does it gives examples about where the pronoun object should be placed, which might make Arab EFL learners commit errors in it. They only examples given are about two-word object as in:

Cannot get up the courage to tell them

b. break down

Our discussion of this adverbial verb starts by Webster’s entry of it: break down, 1. a: to cause to fall or collapse by breaking or shattering b: to make in effective (break down legal barriers) 2. a: to divide into parts or categories b: to separate (as a chemical compound) into simpler substances c: to take a part esp. for storage or shipment and for later reassembling.

Such lexical entry does not include very illustrative examples about pronoun objects, which may tempt Arab EFL learners to produce sentences as:

*They broke down it

If only provided one examples about two word object.

Break down legal barriers.

Not this only, but it gives no specific syntactic information about the object of this adverbial verb. Including such information in the dictionary will help foreign learners of English language avoid making errors in the object’s position of the target phrasal verb.

c. put off

Webster’s states that: put off, 1: a: disconcert b: repel 2. a: to hold back to a later time b: to induce to wait (put the bill collector off) 3: to rid oneself of: take off 4: to sell or pass fraudulently.

This dictionary entry, like those preceding it, lacks specific syntactic illustration of the object’s position as well as illustrative examples about the position of the object it is a pronoun which may induce foreign learners of English to treat it as noun objects, which is wrong of course. It provided one, and only one example about two-word object, which is not enough.

d. turn down
The lexical entry of turn down in Webster appeared like this: turn down 1: to fold or double down 2: to turn (a card) face downward 3: to reduce the height or intensity of by turning a control (turn down the radio) 4: to decline to accept: reject (turned down the offer).

Analyzing this dictionary entry will provide us with the same conclusions of analyzing previous entries of this dictionary. That is lack of specific syntactic illustrations as well as examples about the position of pronoun object with poor and little examples about two-word objects.

Prepositional verbs.

a. believe in

No specific entry of believe in is there in Webster’s but under believe we find: 1. a: to have a firm religious faith b: to accept as true, genuine, or real (I deals we ~in) (~s in ghosts) 2: to have a firm conviction as to the goodness, efficacy, or ability of something (~in exercises) 3: to hold an opinion: think. (I ~ so).

Webster provided us with two examples that show us where to put noun object of such prepositional verb e.g.

He believes in ghosts

But no syntactic explanation about how to put the object of the target prepositional verbs nor does it provide illustrative examples about pronoun objects.

b. look after.

Webster provided the following information of this prepositional verb: look after: to take care of.

What we have in this lexical entry of look after is a definition only. No care is given to examples nor syntactic explanation of the correct way to put the object of this prepositional verb. The object should follow the preposition even if it is a pronoun. Arab EFL learners may say: *I looked it after. if they are not provided with sufficient illustrations.

c. talk about.

Webster does not isolate a specific lexical entry of this prepositional verb. It also does not mention, even under the verb talk, that this verb collocates with the preposition about. Nothing at all is specified about it which may be a main source of errors by foreign users of this dictionary since no syntactic information nor illustrative examples are given.

d. Wait for

Let us start by Webster’s entry of wait for: wait for. 1. a: to remain stationary in readiness or expectation (~ for a train) b: to pause for another to catch up – usu. Used with up 2 a: to look forward expectantly (just ~ing to see his rival lose) b: to hold back expectantly (~ing for a chance to strike) 3: to serve at meals – usu. Used in such phrases as wait on tables or wait on table 4.a: to be ready and a variable (slippers ~ing by the bed) b: to remain temporarily neglected or unrealized.

Some examples are provided in Webster’s entry of the prepositional verb wait for that may help Arab EFL learners correctly place 2 word objects as in:

I wait for the train to come.

But it lacks examples about pronoun object what may lead learners to say
**I wait it for.**

Such ill-formed sentences may be avoided if the dictionary includes sufficient and illustrative examples about pronoun objects and about two-word object. Supplying dictionaries with specific and illustrative explanations of the objects position of this and other phrasal verbs lend a helping hand in avoiding such errors. Generally, Webster’s lacks such integral information.

The following table (table 2) compares and contrasts what syntactic information and examples are given about the place of the object of the target phrasal verbs.

**Table 2. Comparison and contrast the information Webster’s gives of the target phrasal verbs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Target Phrasal Verbs</th>
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</table>

**Collins York new English Dictionary**

**Adverbial verbs**

a. get up

Collins gives the following entry of get up: get up, 1. to get out of bed 2. get up to, informal to be involved in: *I don’t know what those guys got up to down there.*)

Collins does not provide its users with explicit illustrations of the position of the object, which may help them avoiding errors. Nor does it give illustrative examples of the object’s position.

b. break down

Our argument of this adverbial verb starts with Collins entry of it: break down, 1. to cease to function: become ineffective. 2. to give way to strong emotion or tears. 3. to crush or destroy. 4. To have a nervous breakdown. 5. To separate into component parts, with exercises *the body breaks down fat to use as fuel*. B. to separate or cause to separate into simpler chemical elements, decompose. 7. To analyze or be subjected to analysis.
Only one example is given here about where to put the noun object of this adverbial verb

*The body breaks down fat to use as fuel*

but it’s like the previous entry in terms of pronoun object and specific syntactic information. This entry provides none of such information, which may be considered as a source of learners errors in this field.

c. put of.

Collins entry of put of is: put of, 1. to postpone: ministers have put off making a decision until next month. 2. to evade (a person) by delay: they tried to put him off, but he come anyway. 3. To cause extreme dislike in: he was put off by her appearance. 4. to cause to lose interest in: the accident put him off driving.*

Lack of explicit syntactic information about the position of the object is a main feature of this lexical entry. But it provides us with examples indicating that pronoun object should precede the adverb and noun objects may precede or follow it.

d. turn down.

Collins identified turn down as: turn down. 1. to reduce (the volume, brightness, or temperature of something), turn the heat down. 2. to reject of refuse: the invitation was turned down. 3. to fold down (sheets, etc).

Repeatedly, Collins did not provide syntactic explanation of the position of the object of prepositional and adverbial verbs. It only gives examples about two word objects as in turn the heat down.

While reading Collins entry of this adverbial verb, we have not encountered even one example that may help Arab EFL learners to correctly place the pronoun object which may lead them to misplace it.

Prepositional verbs.

a. believe in

Our argument of this prepositional verb starts with Collins entry of believe in: believe in. to be convinced of the truth or existence of: I do not believe in ghosts.

The same explanation given to the previous verb applies here. No specific syntactic information nor examples of pronoun object. One example of noun object is given that might help Arab EFL learners to avoid producing sentences as: *I believe it in.*

b. look after

Look after in Collins appeared like this: look after. To take care of.

Syntactically, this lexical entry is very poor. It provides no syntactic explanation of how to place the object. It does not tell us even by examples that pronoun and two-word object must follow the preposition and not precede it. Arab EFL learners who consult Collins for this entry may produce ill formed sentences where the object precedes the preposition.

c. Talk about

Collins did not separate a specific lexical entry for talk about, but under the verb talk it gives one examples that indicate where should two-word object come e.g.
They were talking about where they would go on holiday.

This is the only example that Collins give which may help us expecting the position of the object. No explicit syntactic information nor illustrative examples that show us where pronoun objects should be placed are stated.

d. Wait for

Similar to talk about, Collins did not state a specific entry for wait for but under wait we have examples that show where two-word object should appear e.g. The delegates have to wait for a reply. In addition, it gives example about pronoun objects e.g., I am waiting for her.

Collins gives no specific syntactic information that explicitly tells Arab EFL learners that pronoun as well as two-word object should follow the preposition.

Generally, Collins treated all the target verbs in the same way. No explicit illustrations and examples about pronoun object. It gives some examples that may help foreign consultants of Collins to state the two-word object correctly. Table three compares and contrasts what syntactic information and examples are given about the place of the object of this phrasal verb.

Table 3. Comparison and contrast the information Collins gives of the target phrasal verbs

<table>
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Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English

Adverbial verbs.

a. get up

Here is Longman’s entry of this adverbial verb: get up 1. to wake up and get out of your bed after sleeping, especially in the morning: what time did you get up this morning? 2. [To get sb up]. To make someone wake up and get out of their
bed, especially in the morning: *Get me up at seven, would you?* 3. To stand up: No, please do not get up, 4. if a wind or storm gets up, it starts and gets stronger 5. [get sth up] to organize something: *She is getting a collection up for Sue's birthday.*

By looking at Longmans entry of this adverbial verb, we see that Longman provided some examples about how to place the object e.g.

*Get me up at seven, would you?*

*She is getting a collection up for Sue's birthday.*

These two examples show that if the object of this adverbial verb is a pronoun it precedes the verb. However, if it is a noun it follows the adverb. This will help Arab EFL learners avoiding committing errors in the position of the object. Longman does not provide explicit syntactic information that this verb is an adverbial verb and it does not explicitly explain how to place the object.

b. break down.

Let us start our argument of this verb by providing Longmans entry of it: break down, 1. the failure of a system or relationship: family break down can lead to behavioral problems in children.

Longman does not provide sufficient examples that help in explaining how to place pronoun object and two word objects. Nor does it explain syntactically where the object should be. Lack of such information may lead Arab EFL learners to assume that pronoun objects may follow the adverbs as in: *We will break down it soon.*

c. put off.

Longman states that: put sth off, [a] make excuses and try to avoid, e.g. sth one has promised to do, a duty: *He tried to put her off with vague ideas. I will not be put off with such flimsy excuses; will not accept them.* Put sb off (sth), hinder or distract him (for sth): put sb of his game, e.g. *distract him when he is about to strike the ball at golf. The mere smell of garlic put him of his supper, caused him not to want supper, put sb of his stroke, distract him; cause him to pause.* [b] Postpone: put off a meeting.

The dictionaries entry itself is a clear indication that two word object may appear before or after the adverb as in: *Put of a meeting.* Some examples are given where the pronoun object is placed between the adverb and the verb e.g. *the mere smell of garlic put him of his supper.* We see that very illustrative examples are given what helps Arab EFL learners not to make errors in the objects position. No explicit syntactic information that this verb is an adverbial verb and it does not explicitly explain how to place the object.

d. turn down.

Longman provided the following information about this phrasal verb: turn down. 1. [turn sth down] to make a machine such as an oven, radio, etc produce less heat, sound etc. *can you please turn the TV down? Cannot hear myself think! 2. Turn sb/sth ... down] to refuse an offer, request, or invitation: the company turned down offers from several different law firms. Jimmy offered to marry her again, but she had already turned him down three times.*
We see that we have examples about where a pronoun object is placed e.g., *She has already turned him down.* And where two word object should appear as in *can you please turn the TV down.* Again, no syntactic information is given that illustrates how to put the object, what we have is only examples, which may help Arab EFL learners, avoid errors and put the object in its right position. Generally, Longman treated all adverbial verbs in this way, by giving examples and not by explicit information.

**Prepositional verbs.**

**a. believe in**

Here is Longman’s entry of this verb: believe in 1. to be sure that some one *ex believe in ghosts*. 2. support or approve of something because you think it is good or right: *I don’t believe in all these silly ideas: believe in doing sth. They believe in letting children make their own mistakes.* 3. believe in sb. To be confident that some one can be trusted. The people want a president they can believe in, you have got to believe in yourself”.

By looking at Longman’s entry of this prepositional verb, we see that Longman provided its users with some examples about how to correctly place the object particularly if the object is a two-word object e.g. *You have got to believe in yourself.* But no examples about where pronoun objects should be placed what might make Arab EFL learners provide sentences like: *He believed it in.* In addition, no explicit syntactic information is given to illustrate how to put the object.

**b. look after**

Let us start our argument of this prepositional verb by giving Longman’s entry of it: Look after. 1. To take care of some one by helping them, giving them what they need or keeping them safe: *Do not worry; I will look after the kids tomorrow. Suzan looked after us very well. She is an excellent cook.* Examples about two-word object are given e.g., *I will look after the kids. Suzan looked after us very well. She is an excellent cook.* What helps Arab EFL learner’s avoid making errors in using them. However, dictionary entry lacks specific syntactic information.

**c. talk about.**

Longman provided the following explanation for this prepositional verb: talk about. Say things to someone especially in a conversation. *We were talking about our childhoods and realized. We both went to the same school.*

This entry, like other preceding entries, lacks specific syntactic information that might help Arab EFL learners to avoid committing errors in the position of the object it provides one example of two-word object. *We were talking about our childhood.* But, we have no examples that deal with pronoun objects, so we can say that lacking such examples may be a source of Arab EFL learners to produce sentences as: *He was talking it about.*

**d. Wait for**

Longman has the following entry of this prepositional verb: wait for. Sth / sb. To not do something or go somewhere until something else happens. *We had to wait for the bus.*

Longman does not state neither explicitly nor implicitly that the object of this prepositional verb must follow the preposition in all cases, even if the object is a pronoun. Nevertheless, it provided no examples about where pronoun object should be placed. It provided one example of two word object, as in *we are waiting for the bus.* Such examples help Arab EFL learners
Now we will compare and contrast the given information of this dictionary on each of the target phrasal verb. Table 4 will present this.

Table 4. Comparison and contrast the information Longman gives of the target phrasal verbs

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To conclude this section we would like to make the following remarks about the target phrasal verbs:

1. All of the investigated monolingual English dictionaries lack specific syntactic information about how to put the object of the target phrasal verbs.
2. Arab EFL learners are much more likely to commit errors if the object of the target phrasal verbs particularly if the phrasal verb is an adverbial one because if the object of the prepositional verb is a pronoun, it is treated like the two word object.
3. All of the investigated monolingual English dictionaries provide more examples of two-word objects than of pronoun objects.

**Bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries**

In our treatment of how monolingual English-Arabic dictionaries dealt with the target phrasal verbs, we will not expand the discussion as in the preceding section (5.1) because after having the first look at the target dictionaries, we found that it dealt with all verbs in the same way. Therefore, we will show how they dealt with all prepositional verbs at once and the same way with all adverbial ones.

**Al-Mawrid: A modern English-Arabic dictionary**

**Adverbial verbs.**
Al-Mawrid did not provide any information neither explicitly nor implicitly nor by any example about pronoun or two-word object that pronoun object must precede the preposition while two-word object may follow or precede the particle. Consulting this dictionary by foreign learners of English maybe one source of their errors in misplacing the object.

**Prepositional verbs.**

No single example appeared in Al-Mawrid that may help Arab EFL learners use these phrasal verbs correctly and avoid producing errors as: *I believe it in.* *I believe the idea in.* The problem is exaggerated by lacking illustrative explanation of the objects position. It only provides very simple definition of one or two single words.

Table 5 below compares and contrasts the information given in Al-Mawrid about the place of the object of the target phrasal verbs.

**Table 5. Comparison and contrast the information Al-Mawrid gives of the target phrasal verbs**

<table>
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**Al-Mughni Al-Akbar**

**Adverbial verbs**

Consultants of this dictionary are not provided with explicit syntactic information nor with illustrative examples that may help them correctly place the object. They no longer will be able to distinguish the position of pronoun object and two words object.

**Prepositional verbs**

Like adverbial verbs, Al-Mughni lacks specific syntactic reference information about how to place the object of the target phrasal verbs what my tempt Arab EFL learners to treat it in the same manner as adverbial ones, particularly if the object is a pronoun.
The following table, table 6, compares and contrasts the syntactic information and the examples given to the target phrasal verbs in Al-Mughni.

**Table 6. Comparison and contrast the information Al-Mughni gives of the target phrasal verbs**

<table>
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After the previous Analysis of the amount and quality of information given in the target dictionaries, we come to the following conclusions.

1. All of the target dictionaries lack specific syntactic information concerning the object’s position of phrasal verbs, what makes Arab EFL learners commit errors in it. Dictionary compliers have to take this in consideration.

2. The majority of the target dictionaries provided more examples of two-word object over pronoun object where many learners errors occur, what dictionary compliers need to consider.

3. Nearly all dictionaries give the same explanation of the target phrasal verbs e.g. all monolingual English dictionaries gives no specific syntactic information about the phrasal verb break down, nor do they give a single example of pronoun object. They give some examples of two-word object. Regarding bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries, neither examples nor syntactic illustration are given regarding this phrasal verb.

4. Monolingual English dictionaries give more information and examples than bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries.

**CONCLUSION**

We suggest that dictionary compliers include more syntactic information, illustrations and examples about the object’s position of phrasal verbs. It will be more useful if we have more and more examples about pronoun objects. We also recommend that other research be carried out to investigate other aspects of dictionaries, as etymology, synonymy definition, etc.
REFERENCES


TEACHING ENGLISH SENTENCE PARAPHRASING THROUGH SYNTACTIC SMSS AS COMPLEMENTARY MEANS

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ABSTRACT

Since the aim of language learning is to develop communicative proficiency, using communication devices and channels in the classroom is a sensible way of exploiting opportunities for language practice. Given the importance of writing for academic purposes in university, the study set a dual goal: firstly, to analyze the outcome of applying supplementary SMS activity to teach English syntax necessary to paraphrase sentences and secondly, to clarify the medical students’ ideas about it.

A quasi-experimental, pre-test and post-test, research design was utilized to support the hypotheses of this study. Two groups (each 40 second-year students of medicine) were randomly assigned to be the experimental and the conventional group. Both groups were taught the same syllabus materials designed for English for Medical Purposes (EMP) II course in Kashan University of Medical Sciences, Iran. The former received the SMS–based supplementary contents in a scheduled pattern of delivery two times a week to strengthen their learning while the latter only was taught in a face-to-face setting. An open-ended questionnaire was used to examine students’ feedback towards their attitudes. The data were also collected and analyzed through an Attitude/Motivation questionnaire consisting of 12 Likert-scale items, pretest & posttest, paired-samples t-tests, and one way ANOWA.

The pretest and posttest data paired t-test Likert-scale items analyzed results showed that differences between the experimental and control groups were statistically significant. Students receiving the supplementary English syntax SMSs noticeably improved their sentence paraphrasing performance and received higher grades during the posttest than those in conventional group. The majority of students in this pilot project considered the educational program offered to be efficient, useful and beneficial. The data gathered revealed that mobile syntactic supplementary SMSs can be integrated into EMP II course to enable students to develop better English sentence paraphrasing skills.

Key words: Mobile SMS; Sentence Paraphrasing; Educational Tool; English for Medical Purposes

INTRODUCTION

With its widespread use and its features and functions such as mobility, reachability, localization, and personalization, mobile phone technology may lead to positive effects in learning environments. Using mobile phones in educational settings will help learners be more motivated and will make it possible to overcome the difficulties teachers experience in order to make learners start studying.

Cognitive psychologists see language learning as a psychological process through which learners construct a mental model of language system based on the interaction of cognitive knowledge and comprehensible input. Some of the technologies that are used in cognitive approaches include text-reconstruction software, concordance software, telecommunications,
and multimedia simulation software (Warschauer & Meskill, 2000). Learners should have the opportunity to interact in an authentic social context in order to have access to comprehensible input and practice communications in which they will engage in real life (Warschauer & Meskill, 2000). SMS is the media used in this approach. It is possible to focus on a limited amount of information, since too much information can be confusing and discouraging. Besides, they are encouraging to students, because they can study the lessons provided to them via SMS anytime and anywhere they prefer. What is possible through SMS is spaced presentation, which is more effective than massed presentation. According to cognitive psychologists, when two presentation of a piece of information are farther apart (spaced presentation), the learners’ performance on memory test is significantly better than when the two presentations are close together (Thornton & Houser, 2005). Thornton and Houser (2005) conducted three studies in a Japanese university. They studied the effects of SMS with three groups, teaching on paper, on the Web and via SMS, in which they concluded that the effect of the frequent study was more important than the quantity of materials presented in a lesson.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Baleghizadeh and Oladrostam (2011) during six sessions of instruction taught three grammatical categories to participants, at the end of the experiment a grammar test was administered to both groups. The result showed that the mobile phone SMS helped the experimental group to improve their grammatical accuracy and they performed better than the control group. The integration of mobile technologies into teaching and learning has been more gradual, as educators have sought to understand how best to use their tool to support various kind of learning. Moura and Carvalho (2010) claims that we can deliver several learning activities to students easily and immediately via SMS technology. Moreover, their findings show that students have a positive perception of the use of mobile phones as a learning tool. Using mobile devices for learning can assist students’ motivation, encourage a sense of responsibility, help organizational skills, act as reference tools, and help track students’ progress and assessment (Savill-Smith & Kent, 2003).

The effectiveness of using SMS-based mobile learning to support classroom teaching of English phrases to high school students in rural Nigeria was carried out by Nwoacha (2010). In order to determine if there were significant differences between students’ success rate, pretests were administered to the experimental and control groups, after both received classroom instructions from the same instructor. Subsequently, posttests were administered to both groups, after the experimental and control groups had received SMS-based instruction and extra classroom instructions, respectively. The results clearly revealed that after receiving the SMS-based instruction, the experimental group performed better than their counterparts who had received additional classroom instructions. There is considerable interest from educators and technical developers in exploiting the unique capabilities and characteristics of mobile technologies to enable new and engaging forms of learning (Naismith, 2004).

Research Question

The study sets a dual goal: firstly, do supplementary syntactic SMS activities affect students’ skill of sentence paraphrasing and secondly, what are the participants’ attitudes toward this system?

Significance of Research
While there is extensive literature on many other aspects of language learning and teaching, particularly in classroom settings, there are few researches relating to the use of mobile phones and related applications and their impact on the skills like paraphrasing English sentences process. Also, the constrained time of English, specifically, EMP classes to teach almost all language skills and sub-skills at university calls for some new complementary supporting educational means. University students’ digital technological experience leads to their dissatisfaction of the present type of education, since it cannot touch their real world. This technology needs to be activated to provide real, engaging and fruitful education. Better instructional design is needed rather than lecturing and testing education.

Despite the challenge of integrating phones into a learning environment, it has been shown that, as users become more expert at using digital interfaces, their learning styles and the way they perceive the learning material are both likely to change (Stockwell, 2010). Presenting smaller modular chunks - such as mini-essays and grammar quizzes - may be more suitable for better mobile phone learning experiences. Indeed, academics (Krashen, 1989; Rutherford, 1987) have long suggested that learning is enhanced when learnt in comprehensible, manageable pieces. With this in mind - and in order to address an absence of data on the development of paraphrasing sentence skills via mobile phones SMSs - this study is hoped to contribute to the literature in this respect.

The Effect of SMS on Writing

Despite the existence of studies focusing on aspects of MALL (Mobile Assisted Language Learning) in language teaching, the literature lacks sufficient research exploring the tendency of students for MALL and mobile learning tools such as SMS usage as supplementary material for writing classes in ELT (English Language Learning) and EMP courses. A few researchers and theoreticians have unanimous agreement that text messaging has a positive effect on students’ writing. Omede (2011) in his study to investigate the effect of applying SMS on note taking and comprehension of materials concluded that SMS as an educational tool improves students’ note-taking competence and comprehension. Therefore, recommendations were made to include the teaching and learning of strategic note taking using SMS style of writing, and that teachers should make efforts to encourage their students to write notes during lectures. Dansieh (2011) describes the effect of SMS on students’ written communication skills. He examines the possible impact of SMS on students’ writing skills, and students’ and teachers’ attitudes towards this activity. O’Conner (2005) studied the effect of teaching through SMS on students’ writing skill and the way teachers can build on students’ use of this technology. It can be helpful in improving academic performance. Venable (2012) as an English composition instructor at John Jay College incorporated SMS assignment as a complement to longer essays and papers in which students describe the essence of the chalkboard in one or two sentences. He notes that much can be said with a little and the skill that comes from practicing thoughtful, but concise writing can be applied in a variety of contexts. He observes that with large course enrollments, SMS assignments may mean more time for attention and feedback for each student’s submission. It seems that texting for class purposes is generally well received by students. Al-Qomoul (2011) examined the impact of applying English SMSs on the improvement of the first year students’ written communicative skills in Tafila Technical University. According to the findings of this study, the students improved greatly in written skills. Another study from educational researchers at Kent State University and the University of Northern Colorado, focusing specifically on the use of SMS in online courses , also found that students were positive about receiving text messages and that engaging in this type of communication in their courses was a good idea as well as a useful one (Kovalik & Hosler, 2010).
METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

Two groups (each 40 second-year students of medicine) were randomly assigned to be the experimental and the conventional group studying the same syllabus materials designed for English for Medical Purposes (EMP) II course in a 17-week semester in Kashan University of Medical Sciences, Iran.

B. Procedure

The former received supplementary SMS contents in a scheduled pattern of delivery two times a week to strengthen their learning, while the latter only was taught in a face-to-face setting. The SMSs contained a short summary of syntactic points necessary to paraphrase a sentence explained in each class for all. A 20-item test was devised as a pre-test and a post-test for eliciting the subjects’ knowledge of sentence paraphrasing. Qualitative data from an open questionnaire and a 12 Likert-scale items indicated students’ general attitudes towards receiving paraphrase syntax points via SMS.

Instruments of Study

In the present study, a questionnaire, including 12 questions, was used. The questions were to explore the attitudes of students toward the use of SMS for EMP classes. The questions were adopted from the studies of Attewell, Savill-Smith and Douch (2009) and the studies related to literature, which included the benefits and disadvantages of MALL supplementation. This questionnaire consisted of sections including the attitudes of students towards the application of SMS in EMP classes in the fields of motivation, achievement, and collaboration. To maximize the effectiveness of the study, during the procedure piloting was also an important process. Mackey and Gass (2005) express an idea that for an effective questionnaire, the questions should be answerable, reviewed by several researchers and piloting should be done among research population. In addition, Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2005) state that piloting increases the reliability, validity and practicality of the questions. An open questionnaire was also given to the students to examine their feedback concerning their ideas on applying the supplementary SMSs in EMP class. A computer programmer calculated questionnaire’s reliability. For validity, it was given to a number of professors of English language to examine them and to give comments on the questionnaire statements. Considering their comments, the questionnaire was rearranged and prepared to be employed in the student participants under investigation. To find out whether there were any significant differences before and after study, pretests and posttests were administered. Pretest and posttest questions were adopted from Wekker and Haegemen (1989).

Data Analysis

In the present study, the attitudes of the students towards using supplementary SMSs were measured by using the analysis of data elicited through the questionnaire given to the students. Benefits of using mobile phones for writing classes included motivation, achievement and competence, communication and collaboration were investigated. Drawbacks are included as technical problems, word limit and lack of social communication and collaboration. In the present study for the two questionnaires (12-item & 73-item), descriptive analysis was used. To analyze pretest and posttest data, paired t-test
was used. Finally, the Likert scale questionnaire was descriptively analyzed via SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 16.00 version to explore the attitudes of participants towards the use of SMS in writing classes. SPSS program statistics included such the base software as: Descriptive statistics: Cross tabulation, Frequencies, Descriptives, Statistics: Means, T-test, and ANOVA.

**Findings and Discussion**

To find out the impact of SMS as an instructional supplementary tool for paraphrasing English sentences and measure the attitudes of students towards this activity a questionnaire consisting 12 Likert-scale items, divided into 3 sub-categories, was administered. Tables summarize the results of SPSS analysis.

1. **Motivation**

a) Receiving supplementary SMS-based class materials increased my motivation for sentence paraphrasing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 5%</td>
<td>5 12.5%</td>
<td>3 7.5%</td>
<td>10 25%</td>
<td>20 50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b) The use of mobile phones SMSs increased my active participation both in class and outside the class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>--</td>
<td>6 15%</td>
<td>4 10%</td>
<td>5 12.5%</td>
<td>25 62.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c) The use of mobile phones during writing class was fun.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 12.5%</td>
<td>7 17.5%</td>
<td>7 17.5%</td>
<td>3 7.5%</td>
<td>18 45%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d) Mobile phone increased my interest in EMP.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 10%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>1 2.5%</td>
<td>3 7.5%</td>
<td>30 75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first question is about the role of SMS-supplementary activity in increasing motivation for sentence paraphrasing. Students mostly agree with activity’s increasing effect on paraphrasing as the percentages show. While the percentage of strongly agree for the first item is 50 %, agree has the 25 % percentage which means 75% of students considered the activity increases their motivation. Most of the students thought that SMS-supplementary materials have an increasing
impact on their motivation. The second item of motivation sub-category is related to increased active participation. As the second item shows, 75% of students stressed that active participation is increased by assisting role of SMS-supplementary activity whereas 10 of students did not admit that it has an increasing role. It is shown that the activity has an impact on increasing the students’ active participation both in class and outside the class.

The third item includes the fun that participants had when they used mobile phones during EMP class. Twenty-one of students felt that this way of learning was fun while about half (47%) of them considered total opposite. Increasing interest is stated in the fourth item. The majority of participants i.e. 82% believed that their interest was increased by this activity in EMP. These items have been picked to find out the effect of motivation on participants’ paraphrasing activity achievement. As Dörnyei (2005) states, motivation significantly affects language learning success. Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals, and neither are appropriate curricula and good teaching enough on their own to ensure student achievement. These four items show, the participants favored the messages served as learning tools. While about 78% of participants consider mobile phones increases their motivation, 21% disagrees. Therefore, there is a strong tendency towards using mobile phones for writing activities. This result is in agreement with the findings of previous studies such as Kennedy and Levy (2008), and Stockwell (2008). In addition, Jones, Edwards and Reid (2009) state that the participants who took place in their study saw SMS-based instruction as an extrinsic motivator in helping them to study. They say that when the students were asked about receiving an SMS from their professor, students thought the messages more effective and motivator to study.

2. Achievement and Competence

a) With mobile phone, I managed to reach a summary of class lessons from wherever I was.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>3.75%</td>
<td>15 37.5%</td>
<td>20 50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b) It helped me go on practicing writing when I was away from class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 10%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>3.75%</td>
<td>11 27%</td>
<td>20 50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c) SMS-based sentence paraphrasing activity improved my writing skill.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>6.15%</td>
<td>15 37.5%</td>
<td>15 37.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d) I can learn sentence syntax more independently when I use mobile phone.
The second four items indicate the descriptive analysis of achievement/competence sub-category items. The students were also given items exploring their achievement and or competence when they received complementary syntax SMSs in EMP class. The first item included the information availability. 87.5% of participants considered that they could reach information from wherever they were while two and three of them were negative and neutral respectively about this. It can be seen that via mobile phones most of the participants achieved to reach information whenever and wherever they want.

Another item under the achievement subtitle was about whether mobile phones helped their learning outside the class. 77.5% of the participants reported that they agree with this. The result indicates that the participants could go on learning even if they were away from the classroom environment. The third item was related to improving writing skill by SMS based writing activity. Thirty participants believed this supplementary activity improved their writing skill whereas 10% did not believe its impact to improve writing skill which shows that SMS based writing activity improved most of the participants’ writing skill and increased their competence. The fourth item of this sub-category is about learning English syntax more independently by using mobile phone. As the question refers to independent learning, 75% of participants agreed with it whereas 20% disagree. So, most of the participants considered it was useful for independent learning since they can study and focus on materials on their own pace out of class.

In the light of responses given to achievement and competence items, it can be inferred that there is a common view that supplementary SMS usage in EMP classes provides the students with the feeling of achievement and competence. In this sense, the messages fulfilled their function of improving ‘anytime and anywhere’ learning. While most of the participants considered that mobile phone usage increased the achievement and competence in EMP class to paraphrase sentences, the others disagreed. According to Başoğlu and Akdemir (2007), using mobile phones for class activities improves students’ achievement more than the traditional ways of teaching. However, in Stockwell’s (2007) study investigating students’ learning through either their mobile phones or personal computers indicated that mobile phones were less preferred than computers.

3. Collaboration and Communication

a) The use of mobile phones improved my class communication with my friends.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 10%</td>
<td>4 10%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>12 30%</td>
<td>18 45%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b) I enjoyed receiving class lessons to communicate with my teacher.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 2.5%</td>
<td>7 17.5%</td>
<td>5 12.5%</td>
<td>10 25%</td>
<td>17 42.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
c) Receiving group and similar materials via SMS made me feel more social.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.25%</td>
<td>14.35%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>9.225%</td>
<td>5.125%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d) SMS-based writing lessons helped me less anxious.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.15%</td>
<td>9.225%</td>
<td>25.625%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The effect of SMS-based English syntax delivery on communication and collaboration is analyzed with the last four items. The first item is related to impact of using SMS for writing activity on improved class communication with friends.

Seventy five percent of participants believed that the activity increased their class communication skill, 20% participants did not considered it affected their communication skill in a positive way. As the analysis of the first item shows, SMS-based English syntax activity affected the class communication skill in a positive way, probably because they could ask and answer questions from each other in the class. The second item takes the communication with teacher as basis. Twenty-seven students enjoyed to communicate with their teacher by texting messages for SMS-based English syntax delivery activity while just8 out of 40 participants considered that it was not a good way of communication to text messages to their teacher. As the second item shows, most of the students believed it was a useful way of learning to communicate with their teacher as an increasing effect on their communication skill. Feeling more social by the integration of mobile phone into the EMP class is focused on at the third item of collaboration and communication sub-title. It is seen that only 35% of students thought this activity made them feel more social whereas 60% of participants did not have any collaboration with others. With the percentages, it can be inferred that majority of the participants considered that to feel more social they did not need to have such a writing activity. The students usually are stressful in English classes and this causes them not to be so active in class. Having received SMS-based English syntax-based SMSs as a collection of class key point materials, students gained more self-confidence in EMP classes. It is shown in the fourth item in which 85% of students considered that these SMSs facilitated their class participation and caused them less anxious in the class activity participation. The majority (66.5%) of the students considered that SMS-based English syntax delivery usage is necessary for collaboration and communication, while the other (34%) students considered that to enhance communication and collaboration skill it was not necessary to integrate mobile phone into the writing classes. Collaboration is also stated as an important kind of learning in Al-Fahad’s (2009) study. He states that multimedia technologies such mobile phones or computers may facilitate collaborative learning. Attewell (2003) also reveals that when participants use SMS they come together to share content and messages with mobile devices and in spite of the isolationist affect mobile phones they work collaboratively. In addition, BenMoussa (2003) states that mobile applications generally improve collaboration via real-time or instant interactivity, regardless of time and location, leading to better decision making. These benefits can prove equally useful for
improving the learning environment (Motiwalla, 2007). As Franklin (2011) states, not only collaboration, but also communication skill is supplied by using mobile phones. He claims that in today’s world, the new generation believes in social networks, diversity of collaboration and mobile broadband. Besides, 90% of college population owns a mobile phone and see this phone as their single most important form of communication. They link learners in new ways to other learners and information. This constant access to information offers learners new ways learn.

An open questionnaire examines students’ feedback towards their attitudes on using mobile phones in their learning in the classroom. For reliability the questionnaire was calculated by a computer programmer. For validity, the questionnaire was given to a number of professors of English language to examine them and to give comments on the questionnaire statements.

1- **Do you find the use of SMS in the learning English syntax to paraphrase more helpful?**

In responding to this question, 70% of the students insisted that the use of SMS makes them understand syntax tasks more. They commented that such technique (SMS) make them enhance the linguistic features. However, 30% of the students believed this technique could not be so helpful in paraphrasing tasks.

2- **Do you think that the technique of using SMS helps students overcome your anxiety in class about writing, particularly at the initial stage?**

Findings of this part have indicated that 90% of the students find this technique (SMS) more enjoyable and it makes them not fearing of the linguistic features. This is because it makes the environment of the classrooms enjoyable and motivating. This technique also helps students to use English outside classroom.

3- **Which do you prefer, the use of SMS, the traditional techniques (i.e. the notebooks and in class white board tasks), or both of them?**

It is interesting to note that 81% of the participants preferred to use both SMS and white board activity in the language classroom; whereas, 19% of them preferred to use class work without SMS.

By administering the pretests and posttests and gathering the data, to find out whether there was any significant differences between pretests and posttests, paired- samples t- test was run. The results of these analyses are presented in the following tables.

**Table-1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair Experimental learners pretest</td>
<td>12.1786</td>
<td>1.82683</td>
<td>.34524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental learners posttest</td>
<td>17.3571</td>
<td>2.92137</td>
<td>.55209</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table-2

b. Paired samples Correlation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 Experimental learners pretest &amp; Experimental learners posttest</td>
<td>.383</td>
<td>.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 2 Conventional learners pretest &amp; Conventional learners posttest</td>
<td>.985</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is observed, the findings of this study suggest that experimental group is more efficient in developing the knowledge of English syntax for paraphrasing in learners in comparison to learning in conventional group i.e. students not receiving supplementary SMSs. An analysis of the result showed no significant difference between pretest and post-test in conventional group while there was a significant difference in the pretest and post-test, which signifies the effectiveness of using supplementary SMS applications in teaching and learning English sentence paraphrasing.

Conclusion and Implications

The students in the experimental group significantly outperformed the conventional/control group in the post-test. In addition, the results indicated that students have positive attitudes toward this way of learning. So, it can be considered in academic settings to help learners in enhancing their language commands and learning process. Trusting only one teaching medium can weaken learning while applying more than one media strengthens learning (Takač, 2008). The result of this study revealed that learning English syntactic structures via complementary SMSs could be a considerable and useful means in paraphrasing English sentences in EFL learners. However, effective implementation of mobile learning requires a pedagogical approach, identification of specific learning needs and goals. It is implied that SMS can be a supplementary teaching tool that offers multiple learning and instructional opportunities, for example, quizzes via SMS and marking with immediate feedback, classroom monitoring and control using SMS, a classroom response system using SMS as a tool for conducting language activities, learning projects integrated with more ‘game’ elements (Naismith et. a, 2005). Therefore, teachers can utilize SMS as a supporting educational tool and an opportunity to spend the constrained time of class to teaching all skills and sub-skills. Students receiving short complementary lessons on their mobile phones via SMS were more enthusiastic and learned more than their counterparts in conventional group learn. As truly indicated by Hayati (2009), SMS is best regarded as a “Student Motivating System,” whose mission is to encourage the students to keep in permanent
touch with the language, with the teacher and with their fellow students. To avoid students’ interference and disturbance while they are doing their afterschool activities, a delivery scheme should be activated to adapt teachers’ and students’ timetables, otherwise mobile phones will be disappointing instead of being motivating. Overall, the main inhibitors for adoption of SMS in the curricula were the technological limitations, SMS word limit and insufficient screen size to enter the SMS rather than a perception of the systems value.

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RAISING CULTURAL AWARENESS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

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ABSTRACT

It could be argued that an integral part of learning a foreign language is acquiring some familiarity with the culture associated with it. For teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), the question is, “How can we incorporate cultural knowledge and understanding within the context of our English language classes?” Simply having an acquaintance with the grammar, syntax, phonetics, and some of the social conventions associated with English will not give learners real insights into the nuances of the daily lives of the people whose language they hope to speak. Increasingly, language teachers are recognizing the need to incorporate socio-cultural factors into their classrooms; however, there is a lack of consensus on how to introduce cultural elements into the lessons. One challenge a teacher faces is what approach to take. Many EFL teachers have had no formal training in incorporating cultural elements, and there is no universally accepted set of criteria that instructors can use as a guide.

The article explores the categories suggested by the Paige (cited in Cohen et al, 2003) in culture learning in the following groups: the self as cultural; the elements of culture; intercultural phenomena (culture-general learning); particular cultures (culture-specific learning); acquiring strategies for culture learning.

By exploring these dimensions, teachers can help students connect to the target culture, raise their awareness of cultural differences, and improve their “intercultural communicative competence”.

Key words: Awareness; competence; culture; social; relationship

The Self as Cultural

All people are members of at least one culture. Whether or not we realize it, the culture we belong to affects how we think, interact, communicate, and transmit knowledge from one generation to another. The ability to ask and answer questions based on our own culture facilitates the process of making connections across cultures. We as English teachers can help students activate their “cultural antennas” by making them aware of important elements of their own culture and helping them understand how their culture has shaped them. When people think of culture, they often think of artifacts such as food, clothing, music, art, or literature. Others may associate culture with conventions such as social interaction patterns, values, ideas, and attitudes. Certainly many definitions of culture exist, and we as teachers need to define what culture is before students can engage in interactive cultural discussions. Anthropologist John H. Bodley (1994) describes culture simply as “what people think, make, and do.” Bodley sees culture as a socially transmitted set of common beliefs that include symbolic, mental, behavioral, and material aspects patterned to provide a model for behavior and create a common framework for human society. We can guide students to think about what people “think, make, and do” in their own cultures by asking them to consider questions like these:
• What behaviors reflect our culture, and how are they learned and shared?

• What important factors (social, religious, and economic) influence our culture?

• What are some important traditions that are unique to our country?

• What ideals and values bind our culture together?

• How does culture in our country function as a way for humans to live with one another?

• What symbols are prevalent in our culture?

Classroom discussions based on these considerations can foster an atmosphere that encourages EFL students to think about their own culture and make connections across cultures while studying English. To create a “sphere of interculturality” in our classrooms, we can encourage students to construct their own notions of culture instead of simply feeding them preformed information about these topics.

The Elements of Culture

Elements of culture refer to things like the beliefs, values, customs, products, and the communication styles of a given culture or society. The Standards for Foreign Language Learning (NSFLEP, 1999) provides a framework for students to integrate “the philosophical perspectives, the behavioral practices, and the products—both tangible and intangible—of a society”. This has become known as the 3P model of culture:

• Perspectives (what members of a culture think, feel, and value)

• Practices (how members communicate and interact with one another)

• Products (technology, music, art, food, literature, etc.; the things members of a group create, share, and transmit to the next generation)

While products may be easy to identify because we can often see, touch, taste, or hear them, perspectives and practices are not as easily recognized because they tend to be ingrained in a society. One makes a distinction between “formal culture” (literature, fine arts, history, etc.) and “deep culture” (patterns of social interactions, values, attitudes, etc.). Like products in the 3P model, the elements of formal culture are easily observable across cultures. However, as the label suggests, elements of deep culture are often difficult to identify, as they tend to be value-based and deeply rooted in the psyches of individuals who make up a specific culture. A tool that can help EFL students conceptualize elements of culture is Edward T. Hall’s (1976) “cultural iceberg” analogy. Hall developed the analogy to illustrate differences between what we readily see when we enter a new culture (the tip of the iceberg) and the imbedded aspects of the culture not readily visible (the submerged part of the iceberg). The products of a culture would be examples of things we can readily see - the surface culture - while cultural practices and social perspectives - the deep culture - that underlie the behavior of a specific culture are difficult to observe. Using the iceberg analogy can be a fun way for students to think about elements of culture and make distinctions between those that are visible and those that may be so ingrained that members of a culture are not aware of them. We as teachers can pass out blank iceberg templates or draw one on the board for students to copy, and ask students to work in groups or individually to list elements of culture that may be found in each of the three levels: surface culture, subsurface culture, and deep culture. Examples of surface culture elements include food, national costumes,
tradition - al music and dance, literature, and specific holidays. In the sub-surface culture section, students could list notions of courtesy, body language, gestures, touching, eye contact, personal space, facial expressions, conversational patterns, and the concept of time.

These are the behavior-based, unspoken rules of social interaction present in all cultures but perhaps not often thought about. Such rules vary widely across cultures. We can give specific examples from English-speaking cultures and contrast them with elements from the students’ own culture. For instance, a teacher in Japan may explain that while Americans value eye contact with interlocutors, it doesn’t mean that they lock eyes and stare during an entire interaction. We may also remind students that if an American guest tries to enter their house while wearing shoes, the guest is not necessarily rude, but simply unaware of an important unspoken rule in Japanese society. Unconscious values and attitudes—the deep culture—may be the most difficult elements for students to identify. These can be so far ingrained that people feel these are simply the “right” and “normal” way of doing things. While it might seem odd for American parents to share their bed with their children, many cultures around the world (among them Georgian) view this as a normal practice. Other examples of unconscious values and attitudes relate to the nature of friendships, concepts of food, notions of modesty, concepts of cleanliness, gender roles, preferences for competition and cooperation, and so on. Again, the idea is to raise awareness of cultural elements in order to uncover the unique values and beliefs that explain why people behave differently. These examples, while representing only a fraction of the elements of culture that would appear at each level, provide a starting point for students to think of their own ideas. After students have identified elements of culture from each level, they can brainstorm examples from their own culture. Teachers can refer to this exercise to contrast elements of the students’ native culture and elements of English-speaking cultures. Teachers who have spent little or no time outside their own countries might have difficulty understanding the diversity and complexity of English-speaking cultures. Fortunately, the Internet is a great source of information. Conducting searches with specific questions or phrases like “Why do Americans do the things they do?” or “the culture of English-speaking countries,” along with creative key word searches related to the target culture (e.g., symbols, values, social organization), will yield data that teachers can use to educate both themselves and their students. Books (including titles cited in this article) are also starting points for teachers who wish to build libraries to enhance their cultural expertise. And even without buying books, teachers can visit booksellers online and often find excerpts or online reviews of books relating to these themes.

It is increasingly important for EFL teachers to be cultural informants as well as language experts. Teachers’ professional development plans should include active, ongoing familiarization with the cultures associated with English speakers through individual research and collaboration with peers. Intercultural phenomena include culture shock, cultural adaptation, cultural adjustment, and the fact that people from other cultures may interpret similar situations differently. When we teach EFL, part of our job should be to prepare students for challenges they may meet when they travel or move to a country where English is spoken. The process of adapting to a new culture is called “acculturation.” Acculturation, according to Brown (1994), has four stages: (1) excitement (about being in a new country), (2) culture shock (feelings of frustration and hostility), (3) recovery (adjustment and emergent comfort in the new culture), and (4) adaption (bridging cultural barriers and accepting the new culture). Stage One can be much like the “honeymoon” phase of a relationship. All cultures have good and bad aspects. However, in a new environment, we tend to overlook the negative and see only the new, fresh, and exciting. Once the novelty fades, individuals move into Stage Two, culture shock. People may start to make unfair comparisons between their host culture and the culture of their own country. The tension of being
in an unfamiliar culture can take its toll, and people may want to withdraw. Stage Two is perhaps the most difficult stage of the acculturation process. Teachers preparing students for work, travel, or exchange programs abroad may wish to raise their students’ awareness of this phenomenon and emphasize that these stages are real; every body who enters a new culture will encounter at least some challenges. An awareness of these stages can prepare travelers to understand that feelings of frustration and hostility they may experience during Stage Two are due to difficulties they are having adjusting, not deficiencies related to the host culture. As individuals become more familiar with their new environments, they gradually move into Stage Three. They make friends, feel more comfortable using the target language, and appreciate the differences between their own culture and the new one. Ultimately, in Stage Four, the newcomer will adapt and accept the new culture. The activities presented in this article can develop self-awareness of the impact our personal perspectives have on how we view other cultures and perhaps lead to less stress in the acculturation process. If students understand and anticipate the stages of acculturation, they may be able to reduce the time they spend in the less desirable stages.

**Particular cultures**

When we define specific cultural communities, we focus on the elements of a particular culture. These elements can include history, geography, and political systems, but more importantly, an understanding of the particular characteristics of a society. Again we can look to Hall (1976) when we try to characterize ways that members of differing cultures perceive reality. The key factor is Hall’s notion of “context.” This refers to the cultural background in which communication takes place. When people from different backgrounds interact, communication can break down if they do not share similar cultural contexts. Hall’s theory of high- and low-context cultures helps us understand how characteristics of a given culture affect communication. In high-context cultures, people tend to emphasize interpersonal relationships and prefer group harmony and consensus over individual achievement. Words are less important than a speaker’s intent. People from high-context cultures generally share a high degree of commonality of knowledge and viewpoints. There is little need to spell things out, and meanings tend to be implicit or can be communicated in indirect ways. High-context cultures are typified by long-lasting social relationships, spoken agreements, and mutual trust (Guffey and Loewy, 2009).

On the other hand, low-context cultures tend to be individualistic and goal-oriented; people from low-context cultures tend to value directness with discussions resulting in actions. Interlocutors from low-context cultures are expected to be straightforward and concise, while those from high-context cultures depend less on language precision and may come across as ambiguous to people from low-context cultures. Because of these differences, interactions between members of high- and low-context cultures can cause problems. In certain situations, someone from a high-context culture may find someone from a low-context culture to be overly blunt. At the same time, people from low-context cultures may feel that high-context people are secretive or unforthcoming. Communication breakdowns can occur because people from different types of cultures may have an assumption of shared knowledge that is not there. Most native English-speaking countries are typically classified as low-context cultures, while many Asian, Middle Eastern, and Latin American cultures are classified as high-context cultures. Low-context American culture differs from high-context Japanese culture. While Americans tend to value independence, self-reliance, and equality, Japanese often prefer group harmony, collectiveness, and cooperation. In addition, Americans tend to be open and direct, while Japanese pay more attention to the context in which the communication is taking place than to the explicit message. Japanese speakers anticipate others’ needs through facial expressions, behavior, and gestures rather than verbal messages. Japanese students of English wishing to live, study, or do
business in the United States would be well served by understanding not only the language spoken by Americans but also the cultural characteristics associated with that country. For example, a Japanese speaker using his or her own cultural framework may tell an American what he or she thinks that person “wants” to hear when answering a question as opposed to a direct answer. In contrast, when an American answers a question with a “yes,” it may indicate understanding but not necessarily agreement. People from different cultures might not only communicate in different ways but also experience a situation differently. By contrasting cultural values, we can examine how to successfully negotiate these differences and consider how people from different cultural backgrounds might respond in certain situations. An interesting activity is to have students reflect on Hall’s classifications to determine whether theirs is a high- or low-context culture. Students can be challenged individually or through group work to identify aspects from high- and low-context cultures that align with their own culture and provide support for their reasoning. One way to determine whether a student’s native culture resembles a high- or low-context culture is through the following quiz. Are You from a High-Context or Low-Context Culture? Answer “Yes” or “No” to the following questions:

1. In your culture, is it okay to call your teacher or boss by his or her first name?
2. Do you feel frustrated when people do not answer your questions directly?
3. Is it important to you that many people know about your personal accomplishments?
4. Do you feel comfortable with short-term casual friendships?
5. Do you rely more on words than nonverbal means to express yourself?
6. Do you seek rational solutions to problems or personal ones?
7. Do you prefer an individual approach over group decision-making processes for learning and problem solving?
8. Are results just as important as personal relationships in terms of achieving goals?
9. Is your identity strongly defined outside of group associations (family, work, culture)?
10. Do you feel conflict is a necessary part of human relations and should not be avoided?

If students answer “yes” to six or more questions, odds are they are from a low context culture. After taking the quiz, students can use their knowledge of high- and low-context cultures to reflect on how these questions differentiate between the two and develop quizzes of their own. With their new grasp of high- and low-context cultures, students can think of scenarios where communication might break down based on cultural differences. Students can also develop presentations on how misunderstanding stemming from different cultural contexts could cause problems. In their presentations, students can include strategies to avoid potential conflict.

**Acquiring strategies for culture learning**

Strategies for culture learning include having students learn about a culture from native informants, develop their cultural observation skills, and learn about the culture through authentic materials associated with that culture. Teachers need to provide students opportunities to explore and recognize cultural differences. That means raising their awareness not only of the target culture but of their own as well. Byram (1997) suggests that people who are “interculturally competent” have a solid understanding of their own culture and how it has shaped them, and make connections between how cultural elements manifest in behaviors across cultures. According to Byram, intercultural competence includes these features:
curiosity and openness to other cultures • an understanding of social practices and products in both one’s own culture and the target culture • the ability to relate something from another culture and make it comprehensible to members of one’s own • the ability to use new knowledge of a culture in authentic situations • the ability to critically evaluate the cultural practices and products of one’s own culture and that of other countries English teachers hoping to help their students become interculturally competent can build a “culturally friendly” classroom. Strategies for doing that are described below.

Cultural collections

One way to foster curiosity and openness to English-speaking cultures is to establish a “collection” of cultural information in a variety of formats. These could include popular movies, music, literature, online sites, and everyday items like stamps, currency, toys, musical instruments, menus, travel brochures, magazines, and newspapers from English speaking countries—or from a specific country, depending on student needs and course goals. By offering students the chance to smell, touch, see, use, and listen to “real” things from a different culture, we can connect concepts beyond ideas and help students understand the realities of life in that culture. It is one thing to tell students how Halloween is celebrated in the United States—but just imagine how excited they will be to dress up in ghoulish costumes while bobbing for apples and carving jack-o-lanterns. Authentic materials are rich sources for a wide range of assignments and activities that heighten awareness of the target culture. Students can research the target culture and report to the class on specific elements or characteristics. They can ask questions and compare insights to identify cultural patterns and expand the entire class’s general understanding of the English-speaking culture. For a descriptive writing assignment, students can describe items from the collection. Or they can classify items by use, function, or criteria of their own choosing. To encourage higher order thinking, teachers can ask students how the artifacts fit into the levels of the “cultural iceberg” described earlier. Meanwhile, teachers can raise students’ awareness of their own culture by asking them to bring authentic materials to class, and then, using English, describe the items and explain how they “represent” the students’ culture. It is important to remember, however, that teachers need to identify specific goals they hope to achieve when incorporating culture into their lessons and use artifacts from their “collections” to create specific lesson plans to achieve their objectives.

Cultural observations

To help students critically evaluate the cultural practices and products of their own culture and those of another country, teachers can gather books, poetry, newspapers, magazines, radio clips, television shows, movies, video clips, or music—or have students gather them. Students can describe the behaviors and products they read about, see, or hear, then discuss differences and similarities between their own culture and the culture they are observing. Students can consider these questions when watching television shows, movies, or video clips:

• How and where do people live?

• How do people spend their time?

• How do people dress?

• What and how do people eat?

• What side of the road do people drive on? Do people seem to follow traffic rules?
• What gestures or superstitions did you notice?

• How do people greet one another? Do they hug? Shake hands?

• What is the polite thing to do in certain situations?

When using resources like the Internet, newspapers, magazines, and books, students can find answers to questions like these:

• What are some important family traditions?

• What issues are important to the people in this culture?

• What influences and shapes the way the people think and act?

• Is the educational system similar to that of your country?

• What roles do different genders and generations play in society?

• What is the health care system like?

• How and why do people celebrate certain holidays?

Teachers can ask students to work in groups to discuss elements of culture they observed and how people relate to each other in different societal roles. A follow-up step is to have students select a photo or video clip from their own culture, describe it, and explain what it shows about their culture. Students can also compare and contrast images or objects from their own culture and from the English-speaking culture and make presentations to the class on the cultural significance of both.

**Culture journals**

Keeping a “culture journal” allows students to reflect on what they experience and discuss in class. A journal can be a way for teachers and students to communicate privately, or it can be something for students to share with classmates. In the journal, students—writing in English—reflect on their cultural learning experiences and on their feelings as they become more aware of their own culture and the one being studied. Teachers should give students class time (perhaps five to ten minutes at the end of class) to reflect after they complete culturally related activities. Students can be assigned to reflect on specific classroom activities or write about out-of-class cultural insights they might have had. Over time the journal becomes a record of the students’ deepening cultural awareness and the changes in how they view themselves and other cultures. These journals need not be masterpieces of literature. The journal is meant to be a recording of thoughts, emotions, and reactions to the activities in the classroom and serve as a record of experiences that can help students reflect on their growth toward becoming interculturally competent. The strategies outlined above are by no means an exhaustive list. They are simply suggestions that teachers can adapt and expand upon to raise students’ awareness and understanding of the culture “used” in English and to help students become interculturally competent. Teachers can use these examples and similar activities to make explicit the cultural features associated with English.
CONCLUSION

Cultural learning can be difficult to address in the English language classroom. Simple mastery of the linguistic forms of a language is not enough for learners to be considered competent in the target language.

While the idea of teaching culture in the EFL classroom is not new, teachers need to go beyond introducing traditional holidays, food, and folk songs of the target culture and incorporate a framework that enables students to understand the social aspects of the culture as well. Culture study must be fully integrated into the “third culture” of the classroom. Opportunities must be created for teachers and students to examine and reflect on the target culture and that of their own country. It is hoped that the aspects of culture explored in this article will provide a starting point for teachers to create “third cultures” in their own classrooms. And it should be remembered that the concepts discussed here can be generalized to all cultures—opportunities for students to speak English may come not only with native speakers of the language but with non-native speakers of English from a variety of cultural backgrounds. Students who may never travel outside their country or even meet an English language speaker might question why they need to study culture. However, as the world becomes more interconnected, we must help our students understand that it is more important than ever for them to be able to activate their “cultural antennas” to understand not only other cultures, but their own as well. In doing so, they will be better prepared to participate more fully in the global community—of which their local community is a part. We must also stress that culture is just one of the many aspects of human behavior. We all differ from one another in a number of ways. Because of our gender, age, personality, or abilities, all human beings are unique individuals. We must be careful not to make generalizations like “He’s an American, so that’s why …”; even if students in a particular class share a culture, they can easily identify individual differences among themselves. Certainly cultural groups share common characteristics, but we need to remind students that within each group there is a wide range of individual differences. Incorporating the activities discussed in this article is a strong start to helping our students become more culturally aware.

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SEMANTIC CHANGE OF THE WORD MEANING BASED ON ADDRESSING TERMS OF SEXUAL MINORITIES

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ABSTRACT

The given paper examines semantic change of the word meaning based on addressing terms of sexual minorities. The semantic change of a word is linked to the linguistic and extralinguistic factors. As a result of a semantic change the word can gain the broadened or narrowed denotative meaning, whereas connotative meaning can be ennobled or denounced. This semantic change of a word is shown at the level of the lexical units of addressing terms for the sexual minorities. For instance, there was developed specific secondary meanings for the words “Queen”, “Queer”, “Dyke (dike)” having a negative connotation. The above-mentioned terms will be analyzed from the viewpoint of metaphorization with regards to political correctness. Semantic change of a word can carry metaphoric (based on the similarity) as well as metonymic (based on the contiguity) character. Besides the orientation, the LGBT representatives should be addressed within the scopes of political correctness.

Key words: Semantic change, sexual minorities, connotative/denotative meaning, metaphorization, lexical units, political correctness.

INTRODUCTION

Sexual minorities have always been a part of our society. They represent the group of people whose sexual orientation and identity differ from other members of society, often mentioned with the abbreviation form - LGBT. The LGBT stands for Lesbians, Gays, Bisexuals and Transgenders. They are reunited on the basis of sexual orientation or identity. Some people have negative attitudes toward them, consequently, they frequently become an object of unfair violence and discrimination including harassment, bullying or mockery usually expressed by means of politically incorrect terms.

Hence, the LGBT representatives should be addressed with Politically Correct Terms, in order to eliminate their offence and insult, reduce discrimination and create a positive environment.

Linguistic realization of political correctness has become one of the burning issues in the modern world. As it is known, political correctness implies verbal behavior that excludes any form of verbal discrimination: racial, gender, religious or political: “The principle of avoiding language and behavior that may offend particular groups of people” (Hornby, 1974). The term political correctness was coined and first used in 1793 when a judge, James Wilson, used it in the decision Chisholm v. Georgia (1793) to say it is not politically correct to speak of the United States instead of the people of the United States".
There are terms revealing too offensive and slanderous nature for the LGBT representatives. That is why defenders of the interests of this society apply politically correct terms. The widely used terms are enumerated below with word etymology (Internet Source №1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Politically Incorrect</th>
<th>Politically Correct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Faggot/ fag</strong>, – offensive term for the Gay male. The shortened form is “fag”. Supposedly, it is originated from the vulgar form of the old French, Italian and Latin languages. It represents American slang since 1921. The term “Faggot” occurred in English language in XVI c. and it presented derogatory addressing form for elder women. Hence, the addressing form of the homosexual man is originated from this word: a homosexual man is usually identified with a woman.</td>
<td><strong>Gay</strong> - The primary meaning is merry, comfort lover, dressed in colorful outfit. This term is used in respect with the homosexual man. Also, it means homosexual women (Lesbians) in some groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Homo</strong> – shortened form for the homosexual, offensive one.</td>
<td><strong>Homosexual</strong> – An individual who is only attracted to people of the same gender.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Queen</strong> – derogatory addressing form for effeminate gay man, which is not offensive in in-group communication.</td>
<td><strong>Gay</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Queer</strong> - offensive one for all the LGBT representatives in out-group communication. According to the Oxford dictionary, the primary meaning of this word is “strange”, the secondary meaning represents slang.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Trans / Tranny</strong> – shortened and offensive form for transgender.</td>
<td><strong>Transgender</strong>– An individual who has different sex from his/her biological one (man in woman’s body and vice versa)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dyke (dike)</strong> – means lesbian, the origin is vague, but for the first time it was explained in the slang dictionary of Berrey and Van den Bark’s (1942) “American Thesaurus of Slang”.</td>
<td><strong>Lesbian</strong> - a female who experiences romantic love or sexual attraction to other females. But some lesbians prefer addressing form “Gay”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“<strong>Bi</strong>” – shortend form of Bisexual, in out goup communication is offensive.</td>
<td><strong>Bisexual</strong> - romantic attraction, sexual attraction, or sexual behavior toward both males and females.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

As it is known, the word changes its meaning within the history of language development. The semantic change of the word is linked to the linguistic and extralinguistic factors modifying their structure, meaning and usage” (Ginzburg et al: 2004).
The linguistic factors of semantic word change include ellipsis, discrimination of synonyms and analogy functioning within the language system.

Extra-linguistic factors cover ideological, political, social, economic and other types of changes in the life of language community. On the basis of above mentioned factors new referents occur and are named after already existing lexical units in the language i.e. primary meaning of a word gains metaphorization.

As a result of a semantic change, the word can acquire the broadened or narrowed denotative meaning, whereas connotative meaning can be ennobled or denounced. For instance, there were specific secondary meanings for the words “Queen” and “Queer” having negative connotation.

Semantic change of a lexical unit can carry metaphoric (based on the similarity) as well as metonymic (based on the contiguity) character. G. Lakoff, mentions the following “Metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature” in his book “Metaphors We Live by” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

The secondary meanings of the lexical units “Queen” and “Queer” are gained due to the metaphorization process. Both lexical units imply homosexual man and woman in modern society. The primary meaning of the word “Gay” is merry, comfort lover, dressed in colorful outfit which was transformed into neutral term for homosexual with the help of metaphorization in the 70s of the last century. This transformation was probably provoked by the meaning itself, i.e. bliss and comfort lover, dressed in colorful outfit. Nowadays, the usage of primary meaning of this word is rarely met.

The word “Gay” with the homosexual meaning lies in the following examples, (materials retrieved on news site: BBC (Internet Source № 2):

- “The first same-sex weddings have taken place after gay marriage became legal in England and Wales at midnight”.
- “Congratulations to the gay couples who have already been married - and my best wishes to those about to be on this historic day.”.
- “This is an incredibly happy time for so many gay couples and lesbian couples who will be getting married, but it’s an incredibly proud time for our country as well, recognizing equal marriage in law”.

From this standpoint the word “Dyke (dike)” has also interesting etymology. As dictionary suggests “Dyke (dike)” is a long narrow channel dug in the earth and accordingly, it is closely related to sexual minorities due to their conditions. The term denotes the representative of sexual minorities being at the bottom of the society. When the feminist movement activated in 1960-70s, this term was used in a derogatory and offensive addressing form for the lesbians. The term “Lesbian” comes from the Greece Island “Lesbos”, where lived poet Sappho (B.C. 600), who was famous for dedicating love poems to her girlfriends (Internet source №3).

The word “Dyke (dike)” is sometimes used in everyday speech where an individual employs it in a different way without having derogatory nature.

- “How dare you think I’m straight! I’m a DYKE, you idiot!!” (Internet Source №4).
The term "Queer" is widely used from the end of the XIX century characterized by a negative connotation, however since the 1980s it has acquired a neutral meaning in in-group communication. The named term evokes clash of interests and seems extremely sensitive lexical unit since it appears to be accepted as politically correct term in in-group communication whereas offensive and politically incorrect in out-group one. In this regard the following sentence raises an interest: “So if you are straight, lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans or just plain queer because your hair on your grows in a different direction like mine does – Don’t be shy. Come out. Come out. Wherever you are. This is the beginning of the biggest party for new human and civil rights this country has ever seen (Internet Source №5)”. The sentence analysis leads us to Politically Correct terms “Straight”, “Lesbian”, “Gay”, “Bisexual”, as well as Politically Incorrect – “Trans”, “Queer”. Since these words are used by the Mumbai activist, they cannot be considered as offensive lexical units for the LGBT representatives.

The activists came out with different banners at this parade, with the following slogans:

"Being GAY is not western invention. It’s a Human reality;"

"Today, Tomorrow, Everyday! Forever I AM A PROUD GAY;"

"My mom is seeking a Husband for me, ANYONE?"

Politically correct lexical units highly appreciated by the LGBT representatives are distinct in this slogan. Terms used by the activists are Politically Correct/Incorrect ones, but owing to representing one group involving verbal units in in-group communication eradicates the possibility of using derogatory and offensive lexical units for the LGBT representatives.

CONCLUSION

As the result of the study has shown that the words “Queen”, “Queer”, “Dyke (dike)” gained specific secondary meanings through the process of metaphorization, therefore the concrete terms can acquire various connotational meaning according to the environment. While making a speech the speaker/writer involves numerous implications and recipients decode on the basis of their associative thinking. Some people are not aware of this term and perceive it in a direct way; whereas others are fully aware that it carries metaphorical meaning too. The connotation is one of the most significant thing that makes metaphorization process perceivable.

Based on the discussed examples, the same happens concerning derogatory and offensive lexical units, in out-group communication these words can be recognized as derogatory and offensive ones by the LGBT representatives however in in-group communication they can be identified as slanderous and insulting. Thus, before addressing, a speaker/writer should always keep in mind not to insult recipient’s feelings and act in a polite way that is foreseen with the norms of the Political Correctness.

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SYMBOL AS A MEANS OF REVEALING AUTHOR’S IDEA

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ABSTRACT

The paper deals with the stylistic device – symbol - as a means of revealing an author’s idea. Symbolism is the art of using an object or a word to represent an abstract idea. Writers use symbolism when they want to give more meaning and feeling to their story without directly pointing it out. This technique is often employed by short story writers as it gives them enough space to convey what they have to say using fewer words. A symbol is a person, object, action, place, or event that, in addition to its literal or denotative meaning, suggests a more complex meaning or range of meanings. Ernest Hemingway is well-known for utilizing symbolism as a technical device in his novellas and short stories. “Cat in the Rain” is the presentation of Hemingway’s philosophy of life. His use of symbols in the story is significant and these symbols give us the chance to see things with a different outlook.

Keywords: Symbolism, symbol, token, stylistic device, universal symbols, conventional symbols, denotative meaning

Literary symbolism is the use of symbols to signify an idea in a work of literature. The writer makes use of literary symbolism to pass on a much deeper meaning to the object above and beyond its primary meaning. The object can potentially convey one meaning, but on deeper side, it suggests another connotation, which is of greater importance than the former one. The surface meaning of an object is not really so important, rather; the inner meaning, which is difficult to understand, possesses a greater significance and conveys the message of the author in a most appropriate manner. Generally, a character, plot, animal and concrete objects are widely-used as symbols in a work of literature.

The word “symbol” and its paronymic derivative “symbolism” stem from the Greek “σύμβολον” (symbolon) which means: emblem, sign, token, or mark (Balla, 2012: 19).

A symbol is a person, object, action, place, or event that in addition to its literal or denotative meaning suggests a more complex meaning or range of meanings (Kirszner & Mandell, 2015: 407).

In literature the term "symbol" is applied only to a word or phrase that signifies an object or event which, in its turn, signifies something, or has a range of reference, beyond itself (Abrams & Harpham, 2014: 392). Symbols do not "stand for" any one meaning nor for anything definite – they point to a deeper meaning or hint at it.

Universal symbols (e.g. the Old Man, the Mother) are a part of human experience and they suggest much the same thing to most people. Conventional symbols are likely to suggest the same thing to most people (a rose is a symbol of love, a scull and crossbones denote poison), provided they share common cultural and social assumptions. For this reason conventional symbols are often used as a kind of shorthand in films and advertising, where they encourage automatic responses (Kirszner & Mandell, 2015: 407).
Both universal and conventional symbols can function as literary symbols, taking on additional meanings in particular works. Literary symbols may derive additional associations through their use in a particular literary work, often a character, place, action, event, or object is used to suggest multiple meanings in a particular story.

Symbols used in literary works enable writers to convey particular emotions or messages with a high degree of reliability. Thus, spring can suggest rebirth and promise; autumn - declining years and powers; summer- youth and beauty. Symbols expand the possible meanings of a story, thereby heightening interest and involving readers in active participation in the text (Kirszen & Mandell, 2015: 409). Symbols reinforce and add to the meaning or they carry the meaning (Arp & Johnson, 2006: 217).

Writers use symbolism to strengthen their writing, making it more interesting and adding a layer of deeper meaning. Symbolism not only enables a writer to say the same thing more concisely, but also allows him/her to say something more effectively. The use of symbols can be a powerful tool to invoke the imagination and emotions of the reader. The way how the symbols are used to invoke the reader’s imagination and emotions depends on his/her knowledge and understanding. Novels and short stories require input from readers. If everything is spelt out and nothing is left to the imagination, reading becomes a boring passive exercise. But if readers are required to interpret - to read between the lines and fill in the gaps - reading becomes far more active and stimulating. Symbols are messages that the author uses to communicate with the reader for a deeper understanding. Symbols in literature are sometimes a bit difficult to decode, mainly because the writer tries to make them as original as possible.

Ernest Hemingway is one of the influential American writers, and critics have long praised his “distinctively crisp, unadorned style” (Kennedy & Gioia, 2012: 167). Hemingway is well-known for utilizing symbolism as a technical device in his novellas and short stories.

Hemingway’s symbolism is evident in his short story “Cat in the Rain” which was first published in 1925 as a part of the short story collection In Our Time (Hemingway, 1925). This story is a prime example of the clean, lean writing style that he was developing in this period. Every word means something, every image is there for a reason, and each punctuation mark is important. The story is about an American couple on their vacation in Italy. In “Cat in the Rain”, Hemingway uses imagery and his subtle skill to convey to the readers the very truth of family relationship. While reading the story, the readers come to understand the symbols used in the text.

The “Cat in the Rain” beautifully brings out the sentiments of a woman through the symbolic presentation of a tiny cat out in the rain. The short story offers an effective picture of modern life in America. It suggests the trend in man-woman relationship, lack of communication between the spouses, and a woman’s sufferance because of her husband’s indifference to her needs. The story stands out among others because it reveals Hemingway’s concern for the feminine sensibility (Meshram, 2002:108-109).

The action of the story takes place in or around the couple’s hotel, which faces the sea as well as the “public garden and the war monument” (Hemingway, 2002: 158). This short story contains a great number of symbols. In a symbolic reading, the opening paragraph describes the crisis that exists in the marriage of the couple. Throughout the story it rains, leaving the couple trapped within their hotel room. “It was raining. The rain dripped from the palm trees. Water stood in pools on the gravel paths. The sea broke in a long line in the rain…” (ibid: 158). Hemingway uses rain to symbolize sadness and gloomy mood on the one hand and fertility on the other. As water is a symbol of fertility, the land can become fruitful by
water. However, water never touches the woman. She does not become wet, which means that nothing can grow from her sterile womb. Thus, Hemingway is portraying an attitude towards marriage and the conflict in the family life.

As the American wife watches the rain, she sees a cat “crouched under one of the dripping green tables.” (ibid: 158). Feeling sorry for the cat that “was trying to make herself so compact she would not be dripped on,” (ibid: 158) the American wife decides to rescue “that kitty.” “Do not get wet” (ibid.: 159), says the husband, lying on the bed and reading. But when the woman goes outside, the cat is gone.

The cat can be seen in the story as the symbol of a baby. The woman wants to protect that little cat, which stands for innocence like a baby. She does not know why she wants that cat so much. “I wanted it so much,”.... “I don’t know why I wanted it so much. I wanted that poor kitty. It isn’t any fun to be a poor kitty out in the rain”(ibid: 160).

She feels the need of motherhood. But George (the husband), however, does not need that. He does not want to have children. He treats his wife like a child. In the story, she is even sometimes referred to as “The American girl” or, simply, “the girl”. George neither understands the problem of his wife, nor pays attention to her. When she talks about letting her hair grow (to make her become more feminine), he just tells her, with disinterest: “I like it the way it is” (ibid: 160).

The sentence “...I want it to be spring and I want to brush my hair out in front of a mirror and I want a kitty and I want some new clothes” (ibid: 160) could be understood as stating the wife’s desire for a new spring in their relationship. But George completely ignores her complaints and tells her to “shut up and get something to read” (ibid: 160).

At the end of the story, the wife gets a cat, brought by the maid on request of the padrone. It is not “the kitty”. It is “a big tortoise-shell cat” (ibid:161). However, the important thing is that she finally gets something to take responsibility for.

“Cat in the Rain” (Hemingway, 2002) is the presentation of Hemingway’s philosophy of life. He believed that people were isolated, lonely and not able to establish happy relationships. His use of symbols in the story is significant and these symbols give us the chance to see things with different outlook.

Symbolism is the practice or art of using an object or a word to represent an abstract idea. Writers use symbolism when they want to give more meaning and feeling to their story without directly pointing it out. This technique is often employed by short story writers, as it gives them enough space to convey what they have to say using fewer words. Symbolism in literature evokes interest in readers as they find an opportunity to get an insight of the writer’s mind on how he views the world and how he thinks of common objects and actions, having broader implications.

Hemingway’s use of symbolism is a great contribution to the richness of his characters. It allows the reader to better understand the psychological experiences of the characters with their entourage. Without symbolic images, such as the cat in “Cat in the Rain”, the story would lose much of its brightness and clarity.

REFERENCES


THE WAYS STUDENTS’ SELF-CONCEPT INFLUENCES THEIR GOALS IN MATHEMATICS ACHIEVEMENT

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ABSTRACT

Students with higher academic self-concept are more likely to engage in challenging tasks are persistent in the face of difficulties and obstacles on their way to achievement. From this point of view the influence of academic self-concept pertaining to students’ self-evaluation of his / her ability, competence, value and limitations on their goals in mathematics achievement were considered in the present study. The purpose of this study is to explore student achievement motivation, their self-concept and how these factors impact learning goals. If students’ self-evaluation of his / her ability, competence, value and limitations in academic domains affect the goals they make to pursue further education, it is important for teachers, parents, and counsellors to understand the factors associated with academic self-concept.

Key Words: academic self-concept, mathematics self-concept, achievement goal motivation

INTRODUCTION

The attitude, feeling, and knowledge about one’s competence and appearance that is often used in conjunction with motivation to achieve setting goals is self-concept. There is considerable evidence to support the assertion that positive academic self-concept contributes to academic achievement by enhancing the motivation (Awan, Noureen, & Naz, 2011).

The notion of self-concept as an important construct in psychology, originally regarded as a unidimensional variable during the early years of study, however, it is now considered as multidimensional one (Shi, Li, & Zhang, 2008). From this point of view, the purpose of this study is to explore students’ multilevel-structured self-concept, achievement motivation, and how these factors impact on their achievement goal orientations.

Self-concept which is defined as students’ self-evaluation of his or her ability, competence, value and limitations is at the core of many psychological and educational theories. It has been the topic of numerous research projects, journal articles, and debates within the educational community, aimed at explaining learning gains and achievement-related choices (Nagy, Watt, & Eccles, 2010).

From the social perspective “I” and “me” are the words in order to describe ourselves in a society. Marsh (1990) suggested a framework to guide the analyses of self-concept which is similar to this two-sided view of self “I and me”:

- Intra-individual comparisons (internal perception), is described as a perception of one’s attitude, feeling, and knowledge about one’s talents, competence, appearance, and social acceptance (Byrne, 1986).

- Social comparisons (external perception), in which students associated their own competence, achievements, appearance, etc. with those of their classmates. A person’s self-concept is gradually formed through interpersonal interaction and one’s
experience of being evaluated in social situations to become a multidimensional, multilevel structure or system (Shi, Li, & Zhang, 2008).

The domain academic self-concept reflects students’ perceptions about themselves in a specific domain or academic achievement area and refers to the fact that learners can successfully do an academic task given at planned situations and levels. Academic self-concept in mathematics achievement represents how students perceive his / her “self (attitude, feeling, and knowledge)” to be in terms of talents, competence, appearance, and social acceptance (Byrne, 1986) as well as ability, value and limitations as mathematics learners in class contexts. Students may assess whether they are good at Mathematics according to the internal perception of reference. Typical self-concept item for Mathematics is “I am quite good at Mathematics”, ‘I usually do well in Mathematics’ or like, “I really love Mathematics”. It directly affects student’s Mathematics achievement goal orientation. Wilkins (2004:345) asserted that “based on the operative definition of mathematics and science self-concept, the statement ‘I usually do well in Mathematics (science)’ represents a substantively valid measure”.

Mathematics self-concept may have serious repercussions for students in setting achievement goals and satisfaction for the subject. According to Wigfield and Eccles’ expectancy-value theory (2000), academic self-concept is crucial to motivation and is a key determinant of task choice. If students have a low Mathematics self-concept, they may choose less difficult academic coursework, engage in less challenging tasks (performance-avoidance goal orientation and performance approach), which creates a potential loss of skills and advancement for the students. Correspondingly, domain-specific self-concept - along with other constructs, such as task values - has been found to be highly related to achievement goal theory (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

Bayrami et al. (2014) conducted a research to evaluate the relationship between Mathematics self-concept and achievement goal orientation for predicting test anxiety of high school students. Their results of research showed that there is a significant relationship between predictive variables (Mathematics self-concept, achievement goal orientation) and test anxiety in student. According to their analysis, they indicated among the studied variables, that Mathematics self-concept and mastery approach might predict test anxiety in students, because Mathematics self-concept, cognitive aspect and non-cognitive aspects can affect areas of student’s Mathematics learning. Among important cognitive factors in Mathematics, reasoning and problem-solving performance and among its emotional aspects, self-concept of students who enjoy learning (mastery orientation) rather than compete with (try to outperform) others (performance approach), shows more interest and better performance in class.

Students may have positive or negative attitudes toward Mathematics in class. Unfortunately, many of them indicate that Mathematics is one of the most difficult subjects and a small number of students perform well in it. Research on the social and pedagogical origins of this widespread Mathematical disability has focused on two dimensions of attitude: Mathematics self-concept and Mathematics anxiety (Townsend, Lai, Lavery, Sutherland, & Wilton, 1999). As we mentioned before, Mathematics self-concept refers to all the perceptions of personal ability to learn and perform tasks in Mathematics, while Mathematics anxiety is an undesirable emotional state which is associated with feelings of tension that interfere with the manipulation of numbers and the solving of Mathematical problems in a wide variety of ordinary and academic situations (Tobias, 1995). However, an acceptable amount of anxiety and fear during the exam can be useful, constructive and it can activate one’s automatic neural system, cause more consciousness to enforce one to do work. But if anxiety goes
beyond this level, it destroys the ability and causes lack of concentration (Bayrami et. al., 2014). Also Guida and Lullow (2007) define test anxiety as a type of emotional reaction to evaluation situations based on a past unpleasant experience which harms future learning. This emotional condition is one’s concern about his / her performance (low expectations about his / her ability and competence) and often associated with fear, stress, anxiety, and confusion. Mathematics test anxiety is a process which is known by student’s weak Mathematics self-concept (perception about his / her logical thinking, ability to learn and perform tasks in Mathematics) leads to a gradual and continuous loss of strength and quality of their performance before the exam. Studies frequently indicate that:

- Mastery goal orientation has a negative relation with test anxiety and the goal of avoidance performance is positively related to test anxiety. Although performance-approach goals appear to have more positive consequences on motivation and achievement than do performance-avoidance goals (Anderman & Anderman, 1999), students who are ego-involved will be seeking to perform the task to boost their own ego, for the praise that completing the task might cause a relatively high anxiety. Because completing the task confirms their own self-concept (includes one’s characteristics, strengths and weaknesses, e.g. clever, strong, funny, etc.).

- Self-conception variable is associated with reducing anxiety, stress and confusion and neural irritation (Ferla, Valcke, & Cai, 2009).

- Self-conception variable is associated with achievement goal orientation with activities such as competence value, efficacy realization, self-efficacy and improved processing level (Elliot and Moller, 2003)/

Walshaw (2007:93) has pointed out that “identity is a social construct”. Therefore, Mathematics self-concept highly depends on student’s Mathematics performance, especially in the presence of audience. If it is so, students’ self-concept can be increased or decreased through classroom activities. From the negative side it means that students’ undesirable experience, feelings and thoughts during the evaluative activities in Mathematics class might harm future learning. How can it be? Students who do Mathematics less well than their peers are most at risk for losing Mathematical self-concept. As performance-approach learners, they will start to produce negative competence beliefs such as “I accept my limitations, I am not enough capable to do this, only competent students can do it”. Progressively they can develop strategies such as not trying or procrastinating as a way to try to protect their sense of Mathematical competence. These strategies may provide some short-term benefits, but in a long period actually work against students. All these negative attitudes may let students want to avoid to show their performance (performance-avoidance approach) and not involve in activities even they are good at to some degree. In order to prevent the occurrence of this event, the classroom environment can be changed through lessening the emphasis on relative Mathematical competence. Instead a teacher can emphasize students’ effort and activity, thereby allowing more students to maintain a sense of self-concept in class. Therefore we can say that the idea that possessing performance-approach goals inspires competition and it is a kind of motivation is controversial. Learners with a performance approach can easily give up when they face difficulties, because they accept their limits and competencies and believe it is not possible to change them. On the other hand, mastery learning-oriented learners believe that ability can improve through practice. While performance-approach learners try to outperform others and are more likely to perform tasks they know they can do, task-involved learners choose challenging tasks and are more concerned with their own progress than with outperforming others. Related with this, Wang (2007) stated that the reflection of other’s assessment as a social information strongly affects students’ academic self-concept in Mathematics. As a measure of
students’ Mathematical confidence in their Mathematical abilities, it informs their opinions about not only their current tasks and class-related activities, but also their subsequent achievement goals and academic aspirations (Bayrami et al.).

CONCLUSION

In academic Mathematics, self-concept reflection of other’s assessment as a social information strongly affects students’ perceptions about their logical thinking, ability to learn and perform tasks successfully in Mathematics. Unfortunately, Mathematics classes often focus on the demonstration of relative competence (performance-oriented activities), which may increase feelings of tension that interfere with the manipulation of numbers and the solving of Mathematical problems. Therefore, teachers’ major role is organizing the classroom activities that students can learn in a task-oriented environment.

If academic self-concept of each individual in Mathematics is obtained as a result of comparison with others, then the important point is the nature of this comparison. During the lecture activities students always compare themselves to peers and try to give explanations for their successes or failures. Students’ sources of comparison are the same with the key motivational beliefs, which are ability, effort, task difficulty and luck. Every student has his / her own comparison and explanatory style. Besides, this style may change its appearance in every situation. Educators and parents have to realize that students will be better learners, if they believe that success depends on effort (mastery goals) more than on luck or ability (performance goals).

Students, before entering the school atmosphere, seem primarily concentrated on mastery goals, but at school they are surrounded by peers’ different ability and competence, so that they start to compare themselves with others and make judgment, such as viewing their successes as doing as well as or better than others. From this time they start to compare their abilities relative to others, which is not very desirable in terms of students’ self-concept and subsequent achievement goal setting. It is also important to realize that Mathematics self-concept depends on student’s Mathematics performance during the learning process and its share is more than goal orientation. A positive change in self-concept leads to a positive change in next academic achievement goal orientation.

If students’ self-evaluation of his or her ability, competence, value and limitations in academic domains affects the goal orientations they make to pursue further education, it is important for teachers, parents, and counsellors to understand the factors associated with multidimensional academic self-concept. Specifically Mathematics self-concept strongly depends on math performance during the lecture activities. Good experience in learning Mathematics can overcome unpleasant past feelings that cause Mathematics test anxiety and gradually future achievement in Mathematics can be attained.

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GETTING SMART WITH SMARTPHONES

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ABSTRACT

Using smartphones is becoming increasingly popular. Although their use by students in the class can be found disturbing both by teachers and students, we can turn them into productive and efficient learning tools. This paper focuses on possible advantages and disadvantages of using them in an ESL class in tertiary education. It also brings an overview of convenient applications and ideas how to implement them in real-life ESL teaching and learning.

Key words: smartphone, language learning applications, ESL teaching, tertiary education.

INTRODUCTION

A smartphone is a mobile phone equipped with extra capabilities, e.g. more advanced computing, features and connectivity than a traditional phone; it is a combination of a conventional phone and a personal digital assistant (Rae, 2005, p. 197). Since 2005 telephones have been enriched in many new potentialities and features, enabling social or community interaction (e.g. viral networks), mobile Internet access, watching movies, listening to various audio content, using GPS to determine or find various places, deal with user-created content, filming and recording (Kukulska-Hulme, 2010). As L. Kurtz (2012, p. 9) points out, many students have grown with these gadgets as integral parts of their lives including learning experience. O. Simion (2013, p. 169) claims it is caused by the technological development that the communication needs are changing. It gives rise to new ways of thinking and entertainment, new forms of speaking and writing, new forms of grammar and vocabularies. That is why the teachers have to learn how to cope with the challenges of today’s information society to increase efficiency of their teaching.

The mobility of smartphones and the possibility to use them independently determines them to be successful and efficient in many learning fields. They seem to be ideal to be used in language learning. As L. Kurtz (2012) observes, turning focus to independent use is important because of the change in the role of a teacher. The teacher is no longer expected to be an all-knowing expert, but is rather seen as a partner that offers guidance and support in an independent learning process. The trend of using communication technology in learning languages gave rise to a brand new field: MALL (Mobile-assisted language learning).

As Kukulska-Hulme (2005) mentions, one of the key advantages of this type of learning is that it allows more flexible arrangement than the traditional classroom environment.

Another obvious advantage is their mobility. Students can study or review the learning content any time, they are
lightweight compared to books. Many applications are really user-friendly and well-organized, engaging, highly interactive and enjoyable.

Some authors (e.g. John & Wheeler, 2009; in Kurtz, 2012) find lifelong informal learning one of the key perspectives for the future language learning. From this point of view, smartphones can be turned into valuable learning tools, approachable for any type of learner.

One of the main disadvantages, besides the obvious limitations related to their size, is that they are often distracting when used inappropriately as the students tend to use them for other than educational purposes.

Kurtz (2012, p. 21) brings an excellent summary of studies focusing on benefits and limitations of mobile phones application in language learning.

**Tab. 1 Advantages and Disadvantages of Using Mobile Phones in Learning Environment (adapted from Kurtz, 2012, p. 21)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BENEFITS</th>
<th>STUDIES</th>
<th>LIMITATIONS</th>
<th>STUDIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student enjoyment and motivation</td>
<td>Cavus &amp; Ibrahim, 2009; Rau, Gao &amp; Wu, 2006</td>
<td>Physical frailty</td>
<td>Perry, 2003; Jackson, 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-constructing learning through collaborative activities</td>
<td>Pachler, 2007; Kukulska-Hulme &amp; Shield, 2008</td>
<td>Importance of keeping batteries charged</td>
<td>Perry, 2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social interactivity</td>
<td>Naismith et al, 2004</td>
<td>Screen size</td>
<td>Thornton &amp; Houser, 2002; Cheng, Hwang, Wu, Shadiev &amp; Xie, 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context sensitivity</td>
<td>Naismith et al, 2004</td>
<td>Issues in informal teacher-learner interaction</td>
<td>Kukulska-Hulme, 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immediacy</td>
<td>Naismith et al, 2004</td>
<td>“Edutainment”</td>
<td>McNicol, 2004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Examples of the Use of Smartphones in Educational Practice**

Some educational institutions, e.g. primary schools are distributing smartphones in certain classes to raise the technical awareness in children and also use them for specific educational purposes. M. Hennessy (2015) reports 3 cases of U.S. schools that decided to allow their students using smartphones. First of all, a primary school in Cimarron Elementary School near Houston, TX, which actually gives smartphones to the pupils without any calling or texting capabilities. Using them, they can access the Internet, send e-mails, do web-searches, prepare presentations etc. This led to general improvement of math and science scores. Similar measures were taken at Mounds View High School in the Twin Cities area where the
teenagers can use tables and smartphones almost freely. Their results inspired the Minneapolis School District to apply similar measures in more schools. And finally, students at Southwest High School in North Carolina remarkably improved their test scores; the students that used smartphones in the class performed 25 percent better than classmates without smartphones on a final algebra exam.

Smartphones, however, can find their application in tertiary education, too. For example G. Stockwell (2012) instructed his Japanese university students to create mobile blogs in English. They used the university’s course management system (CMS) and an e-mail account, and published short posts in English including their daily experiences. In Japan, in particular, as in a technologically developed country, a number of similar approaches have been tested and implemented. E.g. P. Thornton and C. Houser (2005, in White & Mills, 2012, p. 3) described two similar projects conducted at Japanese universities. The first of them was called Learning on the Move, the students were required to deal with English vocabulary lessons sent to their mobiles daily. The project Vidioms applied English video classes, equally sent regularly to the students’ mobile phones. Both projects were considered successful as they reportedly increased the motivation of students involved.

We teach at the University of Žilina, Slovakia, where most core fields of study are technically-oriented, (Management Science and Informatics; Transport, Civil, Electrical and Mechanical Engineering). That is why we suppose our students would be naturally interested in various cutting-edge gadgets and will be willing to incorporate them into their learning activities.

We decided to conduct a survey to find out the attitudes of our students towards smartphones and their application in language learning. A simple survey on the sample of 76 first and second year students of the University of Žilina, (aged 18-22), showed that 89.5% of them own a smartphone and use it, whereas 34.6% of them use smartphone for language learning. The most frequently used applications included Duolingo, DIC- English-Slovak dictionary, and various other dictionaries and translators. They expressed their interest in language applications focusing on: vocabulary, practising listening skills, grammar and real-life, colloquial language. We assume that there is a space for raising their awareness of various applications and the ways of using them for self-study and in the classroom.
Best Language Learning Applications

As J. Zilber (2013) summarizes, the best applications are engaging, entertaining, highly focused and complementary to other learning. We should prefer those created by native English speakers.

Basically, when facing the decision of app selection for our students we have three possibilities (Stockwell, 2012, p. 28-29):

1. commercial applications (that mostly must be purchased);
2. tailor-made applications created by teachers themselves;
3. web applications (that operate using web browsers).

In this part we would like to provide a short list of recommendable commercial applications. This list does not aspire to be complete or comprehensive as there are hundreds if not thousands of excellent language learning applications. It just summarizes the ones the authors consider convenient for tertiary students (B2-C1 according to CEFR).

Tab.2 Review of recommendable smartphone applications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Link</th>
<th>Focus on:</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Busuu</td>
<td><a href="https://www.busuu.com/enc/mobile">https://www.busuu.com/enc/mobile</a></td>
<td>vocabulary, interactive</td>
<td>20 units free, the rest available upon purchase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tests</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SpeakingPal English Tutor</td>
<td><a href="http://speakingpal-english-tutor.soft112.com/">http://speakingpal-english-tutor.soft112.com/</a></td>
<td>communication</td>
<td>Free, entertaining and interactive, resembles real</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>video call. Series of mini lessons (about 5 minutes).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig.1 Results of the Survey Mapping the Attitudes of the Students of the University of Žilina Towards Smartphone Learning
Good Practice Activities

Some examples of convenient use of mobile phones in the class might include:

- taking notes or recording them;
- audio recording the students;
- using dictionary application to look up unknown words (to replace digital translators);
- making photos of board work or projects being worked at in the class;
- searching the Internet;
- sharing pictures or any other content saved in a smartphone;
- smartphones can also be used for describing and comparing their functions from technical point of view;
- to help students with pronunciation, we can encourage them to use a pronunciation application or they can record themselves and compare their pronunciation to the desired one, (Google voice recognition search feature can help the students to practice and evaluate their pronunciation);
- in academic English, we can use e.g. the SMSPoll application (www.smspoll.net) application to teach our students the basics of quantitative research or just let them interact with other class members;
- using QR codes the students can find relevant websites with a simple click;
- news apps are really efficient resources for tertiary students, they can read the content or watch videos, BBC, CNN and Discovery apps are highly recommendable.
The Etiquette of Using Smartphones

Letting students call or text their friends or relatives may not be advisable, but sometimes it is impossible to control all the students in the class. Some, especially adult students, may have valid reasons for using their smartphones in the class. Most important of all is to set firm guidelines for the purposes the students can be allowed to use their smartphones in the class. These should be negotiated or announced at the beginning of a course. We can also give our students tips how to download and use some educational applications and also provide them with links to blogs discussing some of them. In this way they would be exposed to natural language content, which is another benefit.

Teaching our students some etiquette rules helps to create a respectful and meaningful learning environment. It may be also seen as an advantage later in their professional life as one of the main problems of adjusting to e.g. corporate culture is that the students are not aware of generally accepted social rules on how to use mobile phones (Lagland, 2009).

The study of Tindell and Bohlander (2012; in Azad, 2013, p. 456) showed that 90% of students send text messages with personal content during their classes. This makes it one of the most frequent distractions. General perception of such attempts is that the student is not paying attention and later on he/she will be disadvantaged. It has been also confirmed by various studies. According to Pottharst (2010; in Azad, 2013, p. 457), students receiving messages during the class and answering them instantly might find it difficult to get back to the class. Apart from texting, other distractions might be involved, such as answering an unexpected phone call or browsing on Facebook.

Teachers are put into difficult situation of distinguishing whether the students use their smartphones for class purposes or they are just checking their emails or doing something else. In large classes or classrooms this becomes even more challenging. Therefore we find quite valuable to increase the students’ awareness about the policy the academic institution might have in terms of using various electronic devices. One can be surprised by the number of students who tell they did not know the school had such a policy. It is also important to offer the students understanding of the importance of being connected to family or work for emergencies. Nevertheless, the teacher should be informed if they are expecting an important call or text that would require an immediate response. As a result the student should be permitted to step out of the classroom to respond. Azad (2013, p. 461) summarizes the rules about the use of smartphones in the classroom as follows:

1. inappropriate use – texting, playing games, browsing the Web, using camera;
2. appropriate use – calendar, appointment, SMS for learning reminders;
3. ask permission for leaving class – taking emergency calls.

Teaching smartphone etiquette is something new and thus teaching it effectively gives quite a hard time to teachers. However, when students are reminded why this kind of etiquette is important and that distracting their colleagues and learning or working environment is considered impolite, they tend to follow it.

CONCLUSION
In the future we are planning to conduct further and more detailed research focused on efficiency of using smartphones in the class. The majority of our students showed significant interest in using smartphones in language learning. The preliminary research of resources confirmed that the use of smartphones for educational purposes is spreading due to the obvious advantages of these devices and can substantially enrich the way foreign languages are taught, increase student motivation and their independence.

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THE DISILLUSIONMENT AND DECLINE OF THE AMERICAN DREAM IN F. SCOTT FITZGERALD’S THE GREAT GATSBY

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ABSTRACT

The article deals with the concept of the American dream in Fitzgerald’s The Great Gatsby. The American Dream is the set of ideals for the Americans in which freedom includes the opportunity for prosperity and success. This term was coined by James Truslow Adams in his book, The Epic of America. The presence of the American Dream is particularly evident in Fitzgerald’s The Great Gatsby. Via the narrator’s relationship with high society the author shows how modern values have transformed the pure ideals of the American Dream into a scheme for materialistic power, how the world of high society lacks any sense of morals. Fitzgerald ascribes the destruction of the American Dream to wealth, privilege, and the lack of humanity that those aspects create. Money is acknowledged to be the main causer in the failure of the dream. It becomes intertwined with hope and success and replaces their positions in the American Dream with materialism. The wealth Gatsby aspires to obtain becomes the instrument of his downfall. Gatsby’s story suggests that the American Dream, imbued with empty materialism, is destined, like Gatsby, for tragedy.

Keywords: American Dream, ‘roaring twenties’, symbol, ideal, money, wealth, prosperity, success

The American Dream is the set of ideals (Democracy, Rights, Liberty, Opportunity, and Equality) for the Americans in which freedom includes the opportunity for prosperity and success. The term was coined by James Truslow Adams in his book, The Epic of America (1931), although the concept behind the term dates back to the discovery of America. Captain Edward Johnson, a Puritan who travelled from England to New England in the 1630s (after his arrival in the land that would come to be known as the United States), declared: “Oh yes! Oh yes! Oh yes! All you people of Christ that are here Oppressed, Imprisoned and scurrilously derided, gather yourselves together...... Know this is the place where the Lord will create new Heaven, and a new Earth in new Churches, and a new Commonwealth together” (Tsanoff, 2015: 57). This image of America as a ‘new Heaven, and a new Earth’ remained present in America, developing into the vision of the American Dream. Adams states that the American Dream is the ‘dream of a better, richer, and happier life for all our citizens of every rank’ (Adams, 1931: xx).

The American Dream is rooted in the Declaration of Independence, which proclaims that “all men are created equal” with the right to “Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness” (Kamp, 2009).

Through time the American Dream has come to be equated with a dream of success. Success was dependent on obtaining money and the benefits derived from money. Material possessions and a life of luxuriant ease became the symbols of
success. From these material possessions man thought that he could derive his spiritual satisfaction, rather than getting this satisfaction from a meaningful existence and hard work.

The presence of the American Dream is particularly evident in American literature. It is the focus of many American writers, F. Scott Fitzgerald among them. The problem of disillusionment and the decline of American Dream is the main theme in Fitzgerald's novel *The Great Gatsby*.

*The Great Gatsby* was written in 1925, in the midst of the ‘roaring twenties’, and depicts the decadence and rise in consumerism during an economic boom after the First World War. In the novel Fitzgerald gives a glimpse into the life of the high class through the eyes of an honest, tolerant, and inclined to reserve judgment young man named Nick Carraway. Via the narrator's relationship with high society the author shows how modern values have transformed the pure ideals of the American Dream into a scheme for materialistic power, how the world of high society lacks any sense of morals. In order to support this message, Fitzgerald presents the original aspects of the American Dream along with its modern face to show that the once unattainable dream is now lost forever to the American people.

After being educated at Yale and fighting in World War I, Nick goes to New York City to learn the bond business. He rents a house in the West Egg district of Long Island, a wealthy but unfashionable area populated by the ‘new rich’, those who have acquired their wealth recently and lack an established social position. In contrast to West Egg in the novel stands East Egg which is home to “old money,” those who possess wealth that has been inherited through several generations. Fitzgerald shows that people from the more wealthy side of town, East Egg, have more rights and are treated with more respect than those from West Egg.

Nick’s next-door neighbour in West Egg is a fabulously wealthy young man named Jay Gatsby, the major character of the novel. Fitzgerald describes Gatsby as a dream achiever, who is looking for wealth and property. Gatsby’s dream can be characterised as the American Dream of success. It is the dream of rising from rags to riches, of amassing a great fortune that will assure a life of luxuriant ease, power, and beauty in an ideal world untroubled by care and devoted to the enjoyment of everlasting pleasure with nothing to intervene between wish and fulfilment (Fahey, 1973: 70).

Gatsby lives in a huge Gothic mansion and throws extravagant parties every Saturday night, but no one knows where he comes from, what he does, or how he made his fortune. The people who attend his parties see Gatsby as a gentleman. However, his shy behaviour towards them makes them gossip about him. As he is keeping his past a secret, people connect it with criminal affairs. Nevertheless in Gatsby’s opinion gossip is better than his biggest fear coming true, not being respected by those upper class people and to being seen by them as a nobody.

As the novel progresses, Nick learns that Gatsby, whose real name is James Gatz, was born in North Dakota to an impoverished farming family. From his early youth, he despised poverty and longed for wealth and sophistication. Gatsby’s ambition and enthusiasm for the wealth and property even made him change his name James Gatz to Jay Gatsby, as the name sounded typically European and he did not want people to know that he was a newly-rich.

Gatsby’s money did not come from inheritance, as he would like people to believe, but – the author only hints - from organized crime. He has acquired his fortune through bootlegging (selling liquor illegally) and making suspicious business deals. He himself sort of admits it in his conversation with Nick, when the latter asks him about his business. ‘Oh, I’ve been
in several things,’ he corrected himself. ‘I was in the drug business and then I was in the oil business. But I’m not in either one now.’ (Fitzgerald, 2008: 97)

Though Gatsby has always wanted to be rich, his main motivation in acquiring his fortune was his love for Daisy Fay, a young woman from upper class. Gatsby met her when he was a young military officer in Louisville before leaving to fight in World War I in 1917. He immediately fell in love with Daisy’s aura of luxury, grace, and charm. He understood that he could never have her because of her belonging to other social class. He lied to her about his own background in order to convince her that he was good enough for her. Daisy promised to wait for him when Gatsby left for the war, but didn’t keep her word and married Tom Buchanan, while Gatsby was studying at Oxford after the war.

From that moment on, Gatsby dedicated himself to winning Daisy back. He tried to earn money by any means in order to get in her class, even doing illegal business. Once he reached this level of wealth, he moved close to Daisy. “Gatsby bought that house so that Daisy would be just across the bay” (ibid: 85). The only thing that really mattered to him was Daisy. Nick Carraway who happened to be Daisy’s cousin helped Gatsby reunite with Daisy. Trying to meet his beloved one, Jay threw enormous parties.

Gatsby’s desire to win Daisy’s love is his version of the old American dream: an incredible goal and a constant search for the opportunity to reach this goal. He endows Daisy with a kind of idealized perfection that she neither deserves, nor possesses. Thus, when Gatsby speaks of “her,” he is referring to something of immense symbolic importance to him - something much larger and in some ways, much more significant than anyone else who might talk about Daisy.

Daisy’s magically alluring qualities, by which she has become the symbol of Gatsby’s longing for greatness, are somehow directly connected to the sense of excitement that she imparts with the sound of her voice. Fitzgerald describes Daisy’s voice in terms of almost other-worldly enchantment: “...there was an excitement in her voice that men who had cared for her found difficult to forget: a singing compulsion, a whispered ‘Listen,’ a promise that she had done gay, exciting things just a while since and that there were gay, exciting things hovering in the next hour” (ibid: 12).

What is the magic of her voice? Gatsby’s metaphor gives us an answer: “Her voice is full of money”. (ibid: 128). Comparing Daisy’s voice to money, Gatsby utters the truth that he himself does not fully seem to understand. He makes the statement “suddenly” and without any other comment, suggesting that it is a simple statement of observation rather than some sort of intense metaphorical discovery.

Though Gatsby makes the statement, it is Nick who reveals it: “That was it. I’d never understood it before. It was full of money—that was the inexhaustible charm that rose and fell in it, the jingle of it, the cymbals’ song of it... High in a white palace the daughter, the golden girl” (ibid: 128). It means that Daisy is the symbol of wealth.

On the one hand, the sound of her voice is similar to the tinkling, musical sound of coins. On the other, she is the ideal of her class and her voice is the glittering, yet ultimately empty promise of the glory of wealth.

Gatsby’s dream is Daisy, and Daisy’s voice is money. With this revelation all of Daisy’s charm and beauty is stripped away and only money is left to be admired. We realize that Gatsby’s dream he has been pursing is not that of love but of money hidden behind a human face.

Throughout the whole novel Gatsby hopes that he will be reunited with Daisy one day. That hope keeps him going and gives him a purpose to achieve his American Dream. Fitzgerald uses the green light at end of Daisy’s dock as a symbol of
Gatsby’s hope and dreams for the future. The green light represents to Gatsby the pursuit of his dream and his drive to satisfy his desires; the revelation of this symbol is described in this statement as a loss to Gatsby. “Gatsby believed in the green light, the orgastic future that year by year recedes before us. It eluded us then, but that’s no matter - tomorrow we will run faster, stretch out our arms farther ...And one fine morning- So we beat on, boats against the current, borne back ceaselessly into the past.” (ibid: 193).

These words conclude the novel and find Nick returning to the theme of the significance of the past to dreams of the future, here represented by the green light. He focuses on the struggle of human beings to achieve their goals by both transcending and re-creating the past. Yet humans prove themselves unable to move beyond the past: in the metaphoric language used here, the current draws them backward as they row forward toward the green light. The past here functions as the source of their ideas about the future (Gatsby’s desire to re-create his time in Louisville with Daisy) and they cannot escape it as they continue to struggle to transform their dreams into reality. While they never lose their optimism (“tomorrow we will run faster, stretch out our arms farther . . .”), they expend all of their energy in pursuit of a goal that moves ever farther away. This metaphor characterizes both Gatsby’s struggle and the American dream itself. Nick’s words imply neither blind approval, nor cynical disillusionment, but rather the respectful melancholy that he ultimately brings to his study of Gatsby’s life.

The Great Gatsby is a tale that begins in a glamorous world of fame and fortune and ends in lonely death. Fitzgerald ascribes the destruction of the American Dream to wealth, privilege, and the lack of humanity that those aspects create. Money is acknowledged to be the main causer in the failure of dream. It becomes intertwined with hope and success and replaces their positions in the American Dream with materialism. The wealth Gatsby aspires to obtain becomes the instrument of his downfall. Gatsby’s story suggests that the American Dream, imbued with empty materialism, is destined, like Gatsby, for tragedy.

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ACADEMIC-PBL PRACTITIONER-LEARNER MUDDLED PBL’S EDUCATIONAL CHALLENGE

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to introduce and propose that Problem-based Learning (PBL) can be utilized, as an engaging, interdisciplinary teaching method, regardless of the learner’s level. Everyday lived experiences can be turned into PBL, by recalling and detailing. As a student-centered approach, PBL promotes student autonomy, self-direction, and a self-regulation of learning. PBL continues to challenge a system that still assumes all learners are uniform in their acquisition of educational information. However, PBL presents an infinite number of ways to learn and assess. Furthermore, too often there is little time for reflection, or it becomes a mere afterthought. PBL has reflection embedded as a key component to the overall learning experience. Discovery needs time to percolate, synthesize, and reflect on new knowledge. This paper will refer to adult learning principles, Bloom’s taxonomy, Multiple Intelligence, and Emotional Intelligence, and their importance when utilizing PBL as an educationally effective teaching methodology. The author will frame a challenging, meaningful question based on her recent lived experience as a second language learner. Project design will be preliminarily explored. PBL is authentic, research-oriented, and is comprised of real-world experiences, which enhance meaningfulness for learners. It situates learners to make sounder choices. Nevertheless, it requires teachers to take stock and reframe their current and perhaps comfortable teaching style(s). Possibly question their current conceptual frameworks. More process queries and content standards from learners will have to be addressed. Such a process can be daunting, but remember why you are considering this educational methodology, for the betterment of one of education’s number one assets, the learner. Such transformation is well worth all of the initial mixed emotions in this author’s opinion for embracing this adult learning initiative.

Key Words: Problem-based Learning, adult learning principles, emotional intelligence (EI), multiple intelligence (MI), Bloom’s taxonomy.

INTRODUCTION

Why do I have to pronounce “ce,” “jeh?” Why do I have to use rote memorizing when repeating a foreign alphabet? Why do I have to be a passive learner in my language class when I do not wish to be? Why can I not have visuals for my learning styles? Why can musical intelligence not be incorporated into my language learning, since I play five musical instruments? Why do I have to be chained to a desk, can there not be motion and movement when this adult is acquiring a new language? Why can I not be active when learning a new language? Why is the Cyrillic alphabet so difficult to understand for a native English-language person? Why can this learning not be exciting? Is there not a better way for me personally to learn the language through sounds, simulations, and pictures, anything but sitting in a classroom? These are only some of the numerous questions I have bombarded my conversational language teacher with. Why, why, why? Possibly such can be answered through Discovery-based Learning (Bruner, 1960).
I liken Discovery-based Learning to my specialty of Criminology, a discipline interested in crime, justice and punishment (Bosworth, 2011), and employment as a former Police Officer in Canada. There are many questions to be answered within this interdisciplinary field, where there is not always one solution or one best answer. Situations and cases must be researched using effective modes of communication and technology, application of knowledge, periods of on-going analysis, refinement, reflection and creativity.

The field of justice and in particular policing has undergone growing pains in the field of training and education. Policing needs to hire the best recruits, who tend to generally be action-oriented millennial, who are comfortable multitasking, savvy with technology, and are bored by the standard lecture format offered at post-secondary institutions. Problem-based Learning is one such teaching/learning method that is growing leaps and bounds, particularly in a profession that historically was deemed, antiquated, archaic, para-military and traditional. Well, maybe the time has come for all educators to take note as to what we can learn from this helping profession. How can we be engaging in the classroom? How can we bring education to life with real-world experiences? How can we create excitement that spurs on life-long learning? Hence, why I attempt to utilize a type of Discovery-based Learning known as Problem-based Learning (Finkle & Torp, 1995) to model with all of my police and non-police learners.

**Definition of Problem-Based Learning**

What is Problem-based Learning (PBL)? It is an approach for gathering information, supplementary information, providing and receiving critical feedback, researching, analyzing what may be the finest solution or solutions, revising, reflecting, and lastly presenting the results in a public manner (Cleveland & Saville, 2012). PBL is a learner-centered (instructional) approach that permits learners to conduct research, while integrating practice, theory, skills and knowledge while cultivating a doable solution.

It is based on teamwork whereby material is co-fashioned by students. However, identified aspects may be accomplished individually. Learners learn by doing! They always will! The classroom is not four walls, but literally the world. They obtain and acquire corrective habits conceptual knowledge, and context. Learners can sit, move, think, read, investigate, interact and reflect without the usual educational confines.

Historically PBL roots are associated with the writings of John Dewey (1916), but it was Henry Burrows a medical practitioner at McMaster University in Hamilton, Ontario, Canada who was instrumental in anchoring PBL as a scientific teaching method (Barrows & Tambling, 1980).

Project-based learning such as PBL requires much planning and preparation. Learners will require assistance with time management, possibly materials and resources. PBL has a process, a project design or steps consists of an Ill-Structured Problem, which is often interdisciplinary; Ideas, (brainstorming ALL possible solutions), Known Facts, (recording what is known about the problem), Learning Issues, (a guide for elaboration, exploration, investigation and research), Action Plan (respond to the original problem incorporating material learners obtained in Learning Issues) and the ever-important on-going Evaluation (from peers and facilitators). Commonly, a rubric is designed for all to stay on task. Many educators involved their learners in developing rubrics.

The facilitator does not allocate positions (note: the role as teacher is modified in this teaching methodology) but advises and guides only. This is not instruction-based, teacher-centered, but problem-based, learner-centered. As a facilitator you
will not be "sage on the stage." Active learning, and having receptive learners takes on a more meaningful role of discovery as students scrutinize the problem, research the contextual back-drop, evaluate potential solutions, develop a proposition, and create a final product. Validating student learning, and making suggestions for possible improvement will become all-important.

**Adult Learning Principles**

As educators, it is incumbent upon all of us to incorporate adult learning principles in every lesson. Adult learners obtain enjoyment in participation and the recognition of their skill-sets, lived-experiences and knowledge (positive or negative), which enriches the classroom (Brookfield, 1996). Adult learning principles provide learners with an immediate, practical, guided approach to realistic problems. In general, adult learners are action-based and prefer learning by doing and they gravitate to a non-lecture type of approach. Carr, Palmer, and Hagel (2015) recently penned, "Active learning is a very broad concept that covers or is associated with a wide variety of learning strategies." (p. 173)

PBL models adult learning principles. Not only is there retention of knowledge taking place in a myriad of ways, but also more importantly, knowledge transference is occurring individually and in the group learning process. The writer is well aware that there is a time and a place for lecturing or "lecturettes." According to Cleveland and Saville (2012) the dissemination of lecture material should be “front-end” loaded. Practitioners of PBL will confirm that organization, facilitation, and crafting a well-purposed Ill Structured Problem (ISP), takes time with the students, and cannot be rushed in the name of conforming to pre-determined standards. Also, an awareness of Bloom’s original (1956), the revised taxonomy (Atherton, 1999), and scaffolding of higher order learning are crucial in the process.

Bloom’s Taxonomy of learning behaviours (1956) and his Three Domains of Learning, commonly known to practitioners as “KSA;” Knowledge, (Cognitive)-development of intellectual skills, Skills-Psychomotor (Cognitive), and Attitude (Affective), has its place in PBL. The educational design process in PBL relies on more than remembering, (rote learning). PBL promotes elevated forms of thinking which are favourable in education, and particular life in general, such as knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation and creativity. In other words, learners will acquire and master a new skill(s) or attitude, from the simplest to the most complex difficulties. However, these categories do not necessarily have to occur in a pre-determined sequence and can be repeated according to the individual and group learners needs.

**Multiple Intelligence (Mi)**

The theory of Multiple Intelligence (MI), and its common seven intelligences, as defined by Howard Gardner, (1983) provides a conceptual framework for reflection on andragogical practices and curriculum assessments, in meeting the needs of learners. It tends to dovetail agreeably with PBL. Just as there is more than one way to understand, comprehend, analyze, develop new approaches, and come to doable solutions in PBL, students possess diverse strengths of intelligence(s) to think, remember and teach (Gardner, 2004).

I continually have this validated within my classrooms. I am sure other educators do too. Multiple Intelligence and PBL recognize that learners may not gain information in the same way. Flexible modes of education and training may be required to accommodate various learning styles. According to Gardner (1983), the seven distinct intelligences (learning
styles) include:

**Logical-Mathematical** - learners are receptive to gaming, investigative techniques, reasoning, and calculating. They tend to think more abstractly.

**Linguistic** - learners like poetry, reading and stories, and word games.

**Interpersonal** - 'street smart' learners learn best through forms of interaction, or group activities with others.

**Bodily Kinesthetic** – learners thrive on role-playing, physical activity, and learning by doing.

**Intrapersonal** – intuitive learners, tend to learn best independently or independent study, self-examination, journaling, and books.

**Musical** - learners respond to sound, lyrics, musical instruments, and the radio; and

**Visual-Spatial** – learners are sensitive regarding physical space and their environments. Map reading, drawing and constructing puzzles tend to be strength-based activities.

### Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Likewise, Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer (1993) have been the leading researchers on Emotional Intelligence (EI). In their influential article “Emotional Intelligence,” they defined emotional intelligence as, “the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (1990). They proposed a model that recognizes four (4) different factors of emotional intelligence: the perception of emotion, the ability reason using emotions, the ability to understand emotion and the ability to manage emotions. According to Mayer and Salovey (1993), the Four Branches of Emotional Intelligence are ordered from more the more elementary (expressing) to advanced (reflection) psychological processes.

Emotional Intelligence has an enormous role to play in education and problem solving in PBL methodology. Emotional Intelligence looks at ways learners reason, manage, understand, cope, express, respond and handle relationships, group interaction, as well as their own emotions. Variety is beneficial. We do not have to continue to have standardization in higher education where learners are forced to learn alike, have uniform assessment, and be placed in rigid categories. Emotional Intelligence in PBL incorporates the use of self-regulation, channeling emotions, perceiving emotion accurately whether verbal or non-verbal, and paying attention to the ways one reacts. In this way PBL is mirroring life.

### Problem-Based Learning and Journaling

Many practitioners (as do I) avail journaling as an overarching component of reflection. Frequently, as educators/practitioners, we allow little important time for reflection. Moreover, frequently done little conscious thought (Mezirow, 1997). If we are not providing such to and for ourselves, what are we doing to our learners? As practitioners of PBL we must not only guide learners through the contextual restrictions we teach them to acknowledge self-worth. It is highly recommended time be designated for reflection, and pursuits of the project-based problem. Journaling in PBL is significant, since critical reflection of ideas will be evaluated, learner(s) sharing feelings, experiences and come to an
understanding of the implications. Furthermore, incorporating learning validation, discussion, taking time to think both individually and through group reflection, as well as suggestions for modifications cannot be overlooked (O’Grady et al., 2012). Reflecting on how learners know is at the crux of problem-based learning.

**Ill-Structured Problem**

Let us revisit what was initially posed in the introduction. The writer is a second-language learner requiring an immediate attainment of simple language in order to live, communicate and have a quality of life that she desires in her new country of employment. To quote self...” Why do I have to use rote memorizing when repeating a foreign alphabet? Why do I have to be a passive learner in my language class when I do not wish to be? Why can I not have visuals for my learning styles? Why can musical intelligence not be incorporated in my language learning, since I play five musical instruments? Why do I have to sit chained to a desk, can there not be motion and movement when this adult is acquiring a new language? Why can I not be active when learning a new language? Why is the Cyrillic alphabet so difficult to understand for a native English-language person? Why can this learning not be exciting?”

The *Ill-Structured Problem* (ISP) might read as follows: A mature, female Professor has newly arrived in a foreign country, from North America for employment purposes. Isolated, with very little in the way of an ex-pat community, the Professor has a new work assignment whereby she must take two buses daily, to get back and forth from her new apartment in a new city to the university. English (which is her mother tongue) is not prevalent in her community. Furthermore, little English is spoken or understood on the bus, in grocery stores and markets, or when attempting to give instructions for a simple haircut! The Professor has decided to be proactive and hire a native language teacher for conversational classes three times per week. She is very determined to quickly have some independence through learning what she terms “initial survival skills” of the language. The private lessons are less than engaging and the Professor is starting to feel frustrated. The Professor is action-oriented, loves the outdoors, involvement in fitness and health, and has an aptitude for playing musical instruments. The Professor has voiced her concerns about the lack of learning options to the language teacher. The Professor is miserable learning by rote with little in the way of engagement.

**Implementation**

**Guided Questions**

Questions to guide the learner(s) prior to scripting ideas, known facts, learning issues, action plan and evaluation may consist of but are not only confined to:

- Think of what the teacher can do to make the Professor feel more engaged in language acquisition? What suggestions might be made?

- How can Multiple Intelligence (MI) be incorporated, since the ill-structured problem alludes to the Professor’s multiple strength-based styles?

- How might the Professor be proactive to modify second language acquisition?

- There is an immediacy element for the Professor. How does the Professor become competent in the “initial survival skills” of the language?
• How may variety be complement for the Professor’s language acquisition?

• What suggestions might be made?

• A community raises children and supports adults. Think of what expertise is available in the local and surrounding area. How might it be recognized and channeled to assist the Professor in language acquisition?

• Does the place of employment (the university have any responsibility (ies) to ensure a new foreign employee assistance in language courses?

• What might such assistance look like?

• How will the suggestions be presented?

• How can ex-pats be made to feel welcomed and comfortable with language acquisition at the university and/or in the country?

• Other matters?

Implementation

Considerations

• Are learners new to PBL? If so, introducing this inquiry-based instructional model may be required

• Decisions on group selection, and size must be determined. Preference of odd numbers and no more than five individuals per group size.

• Review of group norms, active listening, respect, and conflict management are visited and re-visited.

• Student (group) responsibility rests with discovering information. Emphasis is placed on unending discussion through the entire process.

• Emphasis on complications and expanding learning approaches

• A collective team understanding cultivates responses

• Witness how others solve the problem

• The facilitator is obligated to guide ALL groups throughout the entire PBL process. The facilitator makes inquiries, offers information and critiques as needed

• Critical reflection by learners

Implementation

Ideas, Known Facts, Learning Issues, and Action Plan

To provide the reader an introductory overview of the stages: Ideas, Known Facts, Learning Issues, and Action Plan the following is provided:

Ideas
Possible brainstorming solutions are itemized, to give the reader a preliminary awareness of the process. The suggested list might include:

- Eliminate the teaching services of the current language instructor and recruit another language instructor for improved engagement with the Professor
- Modify the current language instructors teaching style
- Continue the current language training since due to immediacy, the Professor requires “survival skills.”
- Utilize strength-based attributes of both the Professor and the current language instructor to continue with lessons
- Community language immersion
- Enlist assistance from the university – a formal, flexible language program for all foreigners
- Experiential learning, to include visitations to grocery stores, bus services, communication with visa/immigration officers
- Receive language training from a child or young person, a non-educator
- Incorporate music intelligence since the Professor plays several musical instruments
- Technology-based strategies – games/simulations
- Smart phone applications

**Known Facts**

Learners are recording what is currently known about the problem, or the background knowledge:

- Ex-pat
- Westerner
- Female
- Mother tongue – English
- New country
- New employment
- New language and currently cannot express herself
- Little ex-patriot (ex-pat) support
- Feeling isolated
- Minimal English in new community
- Hired a language instructor three times (3x) per week
• Transportation of two (2) buses to employment
• Professor wants independence
• Professor needs “survival skills”
• Frustration with rote learning
• Willingness to learn new language
• Professor is action-oriented
• Professor is miserable
• Professor voiced concerns to the language instructor

**Learning Issues**

Learners elaborate, explore, investigate and research. Possible pathways might include:

• Interview Professor and determine preferred teaching and learning style, and previous level(s) of language acquisition?
• Shadow the Professor to gain first hand understanding of challenges. Video and photograph proceedings
• Research Multiple Intelligence (MI) and Emotional Intelligence (EI): Particularly Musical Intelligence and Bodily Kinesthetic
• Language teachers preferred teaching and learning style?
• What community supports might be available?
• University visits and interviews. Does the university have a policy for language acquisition for foreign faculty? Historically, what has been done? Implications and implementations for the future?
• Review language computer technology with little translation
• Discussion with the Professor’s Embassy in new host country
• Non-educator offer language acquisition? (Student of any educational setting / or child?)
• Contact private businesses, corporations. What protocols might they have for language acquisition?
• Investigate supports on the university campus, the local schools and the immediate community
• Town Hall with community members and community leaders
• Other multimedia

**Action Plan and Public Displays**

This includes responding to the original problem. Resources are acknowledged and incorporated from the learners’ materials obtained in the Learning Issues. The approach warrants learners to conduct research, practice, theory, skills and knowledge while cultivating a doable solution(s).
Presenting the results in a public manner will be the culmination of learning, finding resources, research, collaboration, and feasible solutions. Former learners have presented both on and off the institutional campus grounds for this practitioner. Students find resources to develop background knowledge that informs their understanding, and then they collaboratively present their findings, including one or more viable solutions, to not only the class but invited guests and the public.

**Evaluation (Assessment)**

This segment of the design process is a complex procedure. Formative and summative assessments will be created to measure the student and group learning. Consideration must be given to the various levels of engagement. Groups and individuals actively engage at various levels in lone or multiple activities. Potentially a learner could be dependent on their group, and opt to generate cursory work, however, that is not this practitioners experience, when front-end loading.

- Continuous peer evaluation by the group
- Ongoing group and self-evaluation (groups and individual) conducted by the facilitator
- Journalling (Learning Reflections)
- Evaluation of the public display

**Academic/Practitioner/Learner Comment**

The writer is purposely leaving the Action Plan incomplete. Why? The writer is close to the context, possibly too close. This is extremely personal. It can be muddled! Topics must be pursued, revisited, and researched as a PBL learner. What does this learner need to learn more about to fully understand her problem? What background information is going to assist and inform towards compiling a viable, successful solution? Taking a step back provides the writer/practitioner/learner with the time to develop research questions, hypotheses and quite possibly shatter preconceived initial learning strategies within language acquisition. Adult learning principles, and the “Intelligences” must be reviewed to provide sounder choices for this learner. The learner needs to understand the implications. Designated time for critical reflection, and how she feels has ongoing implications. Learning validation and enjoyment in the ‘survival skills’ of a second language needs to be obtained.

The writer/practitioner/learners personal action plan and solution could conceivably be dissimilar than the readership. Time will tell.

**CONCLUSION**

Altering teaching practices and traditions is never comfortable, and for many quite intimidating. It engrosses students individually and collectively to different degrees, but there is engagement, which cannot always be said for the typical participation exchange. PBL as a facilitated teaching and learning strategy does not comprise of a one-learner response, whilst other learners can remain inactive or even mute.

It can further create anxious moments because in problem-based projects, learning can and is at times muddled and messy. The way it should be. This assists learners in rendering all-encompassing decisions. PBL requires more time to plan and organize yet it promotes reflection. Such participation, to succeed will not only occur within the classroom setting, but life
in general. Suitable ill-structured problems must be crafted. At times group dynamics may be less than optimal and facilitator intervention and guidance will be essential. However, what a teaching moment!

It is the hope of all of us that continue to wave the banner for PBL that we create independence, excitement, research and leadership skills, critical thinking and all the other good things that learners need to understand, acquire, and learn. Students of Problem-based Learning, with the combined effect of multiple and emotional intelligence is not producing square peg learners in round holes. In the year 2016, surely we can modify the rigidness of educational categories surrounding forced methods of uniform learning and forced methods of uniform assessment?

As a practitioner of Problem-based Learning, the writer requires further reflection and critical analysis on where this over-riding approach is anchored within the active learning domain. I still do not appreciate if PBL is the best learning strategy, however, the educational synergy, learner feedback, journaling, and responses from public scrutiny are telling. In my lived experience, PBL creates excitement that spurs on life-long learning. Therefore, this Criminologist will continue with a learning strategy that corresponds with her educational philosophy of engagement, satisfying curiosity, and providing electricity and excitement within the classroom that spurs life-long learning.

If para-military, traditionalistic organizations like policing are adopting non-uniform educational and training methods such as Problem-based Learning, cannot institutions of higher learning, be open-minded and consider being change-champions? As educators it is our responsibility to position our learners with a skill-set to make informed choices and decisions. It further requires a change in faculty whose educational philosophy is to lecture. Such will require adequate resources for informed professional development within this methodology. PBL has a ready audience in our learners, but do we a ready audience in our educators? Making our learners think, while being absorbed in a strategized curriculum based on practical ill-structured problems, seems so simple, yet why are so many educators still hesitant to embrace and engage?

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MARINERS' SUPERSTITIONS AND THEIR REFLECTION IN MARINE LITERATURE

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ABSTRACT

Sailors’ lives were full of uncertainty and danger. The weather was wild and ever-changing. The navigation equipment was bad. Besides that, human threats – enemy ships, unfriendly locals, marauding pirates, mutinous shipmates – threatened sailors’ wellbeing. Since most sailors did not have rational, scientific ways to understand life at sea, superstitions evolved instead. Over the ages, mariners have had many superstitions about the sea and their vessels. Changing the name of a ship is supposed to be bad luck. It is believed that Friday is the worst possible day to start a journey. Some words and sayings brought about bad luck on board, including “drowned”, “goodbye” and “good luck”. Sirens were mythological, often dangerous and beautiful, creatures, portrayed as femmes fatales who lured nearby sailors with their enchanting music and voices to shipwreck on the rocky coast of their island. Whistling is usually considered to be bad luck. Seabirds were thought to carry the souls of dead sailors and it is considered bad luck to kill one. These superstitions are shown in marine literature. There are a lot of examples of sailors’ superstitions in Daniel Defoe’s, Herman Melville’s, Jack London’s and others works.

Key words: Mariners, superstitions, dangerous situations, literature.

Seafaring is one of the world’s oldest occupations, so it is only natural that in times where inexplicable events have happened, superstitions have played a major role in providing reasons for their occurrence.

Sailors’ lives were full of uncertainty and danger. The weather was wild and ever-changing. Wind, waves, rain, lightning, and ice could kill a sailor or sink a ship. If navigators and their equipment failed, a ship could end up hopelessly lost in vast, uncharted oceans. Strange and often dangerous beasts lived in the water and occasionally took seamen’s lives. The ocean itself was deeper than anyone could know. Besides that, human threats – enemy ships, unfriendly locals, marauding pirates, mutinous shipmates – threatened sailors’ wellbeing.

No one likes to feel powerless or scared of the future. Since most sailors did not have rational, scientific ways to understand life at sea, superstitions evolved instead.

Over the ages, mariners have had many superstitions about the sea and their vessels. Everyone is encouraged to add to this list of the more modern superstitions and “quirks”.

In the past, some centuries ago, mariners lived in the dank, dark quarters of a sailing ship, at the mercy of capricious wind and weather, weeks from their last sighting of land. There was no marine weather forecast, no radio, and no satellite
communication; in fact, no communication with the world as you knew it for periods ranging from months to years. They were isolated from the rest of humanity. The captain was the absolute dictator; the ship was his kingdom. Small wonder that they grasped at any support they could, whether real or imaginary.

Going to sea then was chancier than going into outer space today, so a mariner’s life was rife with superstitions. Some superstitions may have had a tenuous basis in fact, but most were contrived beliefs and rituals that sailors relied upon to give them a feeling that, to some small extent, they had some control over their destiny.

For example, it is considered unlucky to begin a voyage on Friday (Odyssey Marine Exploration, n.d.). That is considered an unlucky day on land as well, probably because it was the day of the crucifixion. Many fishermen state that various ships lost at sea disembarked on a Friday. There is a tale often told, almost certainly apocryphal, about the British navy’s attempt to lay that superstition to rest. According to legend, the ship’s keel was laid on Friday, it was launched on Friday, and christened the HMS Friday. Its captain’s name was Friday, and it set sail for her maiden voyage on … you guessed it … Friday. The last time anybody ever saw it or the crew was when it disappeared over the horizon. Although the story has about as much credibility as an Internet hoax, it vividly illustrates the power of superstition.

While Friday is the worst day to begin your journey, Sunday is the best possible day to begin a voyage. This observation is due to Christ’s resurrection on a Sunday, a good omen. It has led to the adage, “Sunday sail, never fail”.

**Non-sailing days.** It was bad luck to sail on Thursdays (God of Storms, Thor’s day) or Fridays (the day Jesus was executed), the first Monday in April (the day Cain killed Abel), the second Monday in August (the day Sodom and Gomorrah were destroyed), and 31 December (the day on which Judas Iscariot hanged himself).

Many superstitions about the sea survive to this day. Curiously, they have not extended to scuba diving. Maybe it is because diving is securely grounded in fact, and it did not get started among the general populace until the mid-20th century. Rituals like spitting in a mask or backing off the valve a quarter turn are based on science and education (Dive Training, n.d.). Yet talk long enough to a diver, and something may come up that defies logic.

Changing the name of a ship is supposed to be bad luck (Boating Safety and Safe Boating Blog, 2011). Boats develop a life and mind of their own, once they are named and christened. If you do rename the boat - you absolutely must have a de-naming ceremony.

This ceremony can be performed by writing the current boat name on a piece of paper, folding the paper and placing it in a wooden box then burning the box. After, scoop up the ashes and throw them into the sea. Perhaps the most famous example was Sir Ernest Shackleton’s ship, Endurance. It was originally called Aurora, but Shackleton changed it to honor his family’s motto, “Through endurance we conquer.” In 1914 he set sail for Antarctica, intending to trek across the continent. The Endurance became trapped in the ice and was crushed.

Aside from their peels causing many comedians to trip and fall down, bananas have long been thought to bring bad luck, especially on ships (Boating Safety and Safe Boating Blog, 2011; Odyssey Marine Exploration, n.d.). At the height of the trading empire between Spain and the Caribbean in the 1700’s, most cases of disappearing ships happened to be carrying a cargo of bananas at the time.
Another theory suggests that because bananas spoiled so quickly, transporters had to get to their destination much quicker. Fisherman thus never caught anything while bananas were on board. Another danger caused by monkeys' favourite fruit fermenting so quickly, was that in the heat of the storage hull, bananas would produce deadly toxic fumes.

A final theory on the perils of bananas at sea (though there are tons) is that a species of deadly spider would hide inside banana bunches. Their lethal bite caused crewman to die suddenly, heightening the fear that banana cargo was a bad omen.

Some words and sayings brought about bad luck on board, including "drowned", "goodbye", "good luck", and "pig" were bad luck. So was swearing while fishing. A hatch or a basin placed upside down represented a sinking ship. And dropping a hatch into the hold meant even worse misfortune. (Boating Safety and Safe Boating Blog. (2011). Things to do with the land were believed to be bad luck if mentioned, such as pigs, foxes, cats, and rabbits.

Sirens were mythical, often dangerous and beautiful, creatures, portrayed as *femmes fatales* who lured nearby sailors with their enchanting music and voices to shipwreck on the rocky coast of their island. They were portrayed in both Greek and Roman mythology (Wikipedia, n.d.) as sea deities who lured mariners, and in Roman lore were daughters of Phorcys. In the *Odyssey*, the hero *Odysseus*, wishing to hear the sirens' seductive and destructive song, must protect himself and his crew by having his fellow sailors tie him to the mast and then stop their own ears with wax.

In another myth, *Hera*, queen of the gods, persuaded the Sirens to enter a singing contest with the *Muses*, which the Sirens lost; out of their anguish, writes *Stephanus of Byzantium*, the Sirens turned white and fell into the sea at *Aptera* ("featherless"), where they formed the islands in the bay that were called *Souda* (modern Lefkai).

Seabirds were thought to carry the souls of dead sailors and it is considered bad luck to kill one (Odyssey Marine Exploration, n.d.; Dive Training, n.d.). However, it is considered good luck if you see one. These are just some of many nautical superstitions. The *albatross* as a superstitious relic is referenced in Samuel Taylor Coleridge's well-known poem *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner*. It is considered very unlucky to kill an albatross; in Coleridge's poem, the narrator killed the bird and his fellow sailors eventually force him to wear the dead bird around his neck.

Eyes of the Ship (Dive Training, n.d). Most of the early ships had heads of mythological monsters or patrons carved in the bow; hence, the terms "figure head," "the heads" and the term "eyes of the ship" followed from the eyes of the figures placed there. Large "eyes" are still painted on the bows of Chinese junks.

Sailors also believe that these "eyes" help them and their ship through a storm by magically seeing the right of way. One particular Sailor's tale says that on the day before he was to sail, he bought his wife two beautiful, green emeralds for earrings. He was heartbroken when she did not like them, so instead he used them as the eyes of the female "figure head" on the bow of his ship. His wife had a change of heart that night, and unbeknownst to her husband, removed the emeralds from the wooden figure. She planned to wear them upon his return, but he never returned. One day after sailing, his ship steered right into a typhoon and sank. Some say it was because the ship could not "see", as his wife had stolen the ship's "eyes." When the wife heard the
news, she cried for days until she fell asleep. When she awoke, she was blind...and the two beautiful emeralds had disappeared.

Whistling is usually considered to be bad luck with the possible exception of the sources mentioned below (Odyssey Marine Exploration, n.d; Dive Training, n.d). It is said that to whistle is to challenge the wind itself, and that to do so will bring about a storm. Another tale is that it has been considered bad luck ever since the mutiny aboard HMS Bounty; Fletcher Christian is said to have used a whistle as the signal to begin the mutiny against Captain William Bligh.

Sailors also had a culture of items or practices that were believed to bring good luck, or trinkets to ward off bad luck or the evil eye.

While in many cultures, a black cat is considered unlucky, British and Irish sailors considered adopting a black ‘ship’s cat’ because it would bring good luck (Odyssey Marine Exploration, n.d.; Dive Training, n.d.). Cats eat rodents, which can damage ropes and stores of grain on board, and they are intelligent animals, so a high level of care was directed toward them to keep them happy. A ship’s cat would also create a sense of home and security to sailors who could be away from home for a long time.

Launching the ship by smashing a bottle of champagne on its bow has a very interesting origin (Dive Training, n.d.). The origins of the tradition go back to the time of the Vikings. When they launched a longboat, legend has it that they tied their prisoners to the skids, and the boats crushed their bodies as they slid into the water. The Greeks were also said to grease the skids with blood. Later shipbuilders, less bloodthirsty, tied red ribbons to the nails on the skids as a substitute. Wine also stood in for blood in later days. Because launching a ship was a big deal, champagne was considered more festive and prestigious.

Red heads were thought to bring bad luck to a ship if you happened to encounter one before boarding. However, if you speak to the redhead before they get the chance to speak to you, you are saved (Boating Safety and Safe Boating Blog, 2011).

Women were said to bring bad luck on board because they distracted the sailors from their sea duties (Odyssey Marine Exploration, n.d.; Boating Safety and Safe Boating Blog, 2011). This kind of behaviour angered the intemperate seas that would take their revenge out on the ship. Funny enough, naked women on board were completely welcome. That's because naked women “calmed the sea”. This is why ships' typically had a figure of a topless women perched on the bow of the ship. Her bare breasts “shamed the stormy seas into calm” and her open eyes guided the seamen to safety.

Flowers are for funerals, and therefore weren't welcomed aboard ship (Dive Training, n.d.). If somebody brought some aboard as a voyage gift, they were quickly thrown overboard. Clergy were not welcomed either, for the same connection with funerals, but they were not tossed off the ship.

If somebody died aboard ship, the body was tossed overboard with an appropriate ceremony for burial at sea (Dive Training, n.d.). Usually the sail-maker would make a shroud and sew the body in, making the last stitch through the victim's nose. This was the final assurance that they were indeed dead, assuming the needle would elicit a scream of pain from an unconscious or near-dead victim. It was considered bad luck to keep a corpse on board, and in the days before adequate
refrigeration, the reason was more than mere superstition. By the same token, an empty coffin on board meant that a member of the ship’s crew would eventually be filling it.

Sailors had a fatalistic view of drowning (Dive Training, n.d.). Most of them couldn’t swim, so even bathing in the ocean was considered a dangerous temptation of fate. The object of survival was staying out of the water, so nobody went in unnecessarily. If someone fell overboard, they might not even be thrown a rope because of the belief that their death was already preordained. “What the sea wants, the sea will have,” was a fatalistic belief. Besides, a sacrifice to the sea gods might placate them so no more of the crew would follow.

The ringing of bells is also associated with funerals, so sounds mimicking bells were thought to forecast death (Dive Training, n.d.). The ringing of a wine glass was such a sound, and had to be stopped before its reverberation ended. Ship’s bells were exempted from this superstition, because they signaled time and the changing of watch duties. But if they rang of their own accord, as in a storm, somebody was going to die.

The tides were thought to have an effect on death (Dive Training, n.d.). If someone was gravely ill or wounded, death would come on ebb tide, as though life were ebbing away.

A Jonah was a person or a ship or anything that brought bad luck (Dive Training, n.d.). The name, of course, originates from the biblical tale of Jonah, a prophet who was sent by God to the sinful city of Nineveh to try to restore order. He chickened out and boarded a ship headed in the opposite direction. A series of violent storms attacked the ship, and when the crew discovered Jonah’s deceit, they threw him overboard and he was swallowed by a “great fish,” which has come to mean a whale. The storms abated, and after a couple of days, the whale regurgitated Jonah and he was rescued. Having learned his lesson, he immediately headed for Nineveh to carry out his mission. A Jonah could be a sailor whose last ship had bad luck, an unlucky ship, or even an unlucky object like a black valise. The offending person or object would be sent off the ship at the first opportunity.

Stepping aboard a ship with your left foot first, or losing a bucket overboard, or seeing rats leaving the ship brings bad luck. It is lucky to have tattoos, to have a black cat on board, to throw a pair of old shoes overboard, and to have a child born on the ship (which conflicts with the prohibitions against women) (Dive Training, n.d.).

Davey Jones’ Locker was the mariner’s version of hell where the devil held sway among sunken ships, souls of dead sailors, and anything that fell overboard (Dive Training, n.d.). Davey’s surname is thought to be a corruption of Jonah. Fiddler’s Green, also located beneath the sea, was a sailor’s heaven where winsome, willing wenches danced to merry fiddlers’ tunes while grog and beer flowed freely from bottomless jugs.

These superstitions are shown in marine literature. There are a lot of examples of sailors’ superstitions in Daniel Defoe’s, Herman Melville’s, Jack London’s and others works. The sailors believed that if the first voyage was unlucky, they must leave sailing and change the profession. The following example proves this.

“Young man,” says he, “you ought never to go to sea any more; you ought to take this for a plain and visible token that you are not to be a seafaring man”… “as you made this voyage on trial, you see what a taste Heaven has given you of what you are to expect if you persist “ (Defoe, 2010:8).
As we see, the lore of the sea encompasses many centuries of traditions, rituals, and superstitions. Some of them seem quaint and amusing in the light of today’s technology and science. But if you’ve spent lots of time at sea, you won’t scoff at them. Instead you’ll respect the history and traditions of those that showed us the way.

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GENDER-MARKED BINOMIALS: LINGUISTIC POSTULATE AND DERIVATIONAL THINKING

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ABSTRACT

The paper is a discussion of gender-marked binomials (e.g., husband and wife) in English and Georgian with a view to a variety of possible constraints (phonemic, prosodic, semantic), accounting for their (ir) reversibility, and to biased interpretations as outcomes of what is referred to as the linguistic postulate and derivation thinking. Contrastive analyses of English and Georgian binomials will shed light on causal links between intra- and extra-linguistic interpretations of the phenomenon in point and on the possible positive impact of interference in the English of native Georgian-speakers as far as most of the Georgian gender-marked irreversible binomials are female-preferential.

Key Words: Irreversible binomials; linguistic postulate; derivational thinking.

Gender-marked binomials and derivational thinking

As far as the present paper deals with gender-marked binomials, initially I will try to define a binomial as a linguistic phenomenon. It was Yakov Malkiel (1959: 113) who introduced the term in linguistics conceiving of it as consisting of “two words pertaining to the same form-class, placed on an identical level of hierarchy, and ordinarily connected by some kind of lexical link”, adding that the sequence A+LINK+B can be “occasionally reducible to AB, a plain juxtaposition” (ibid: 134). With respect to those with fixed order they were labelled as irreversible binomials (ibid.), fixed-order coordinates (Abraham, 1950), freezes (Cooper & Ross, 1975), Siamese twins (Fowler, 2000), etc. As for the order preferences in binomials referring to gender categories (that is, in gender-marked binomials; e.g., husband and wife), various authors have dwelt upon various kinds of constraints, semantic, phonological, metric, and stylistic among them. Whatever actual constraints can be, the fact that most of the English gender-marked binomials are masculine-preferential, has caused the interpretations taking the order in question as a point of departures, as a postulate.

Below I quote some of the authors discussing the issue in point:

“The rationalization that ‘man embraces women’ is a relatively recent one in the history of our language. It was a practice that was virtually unknown in the fifteenth century. The first record we appear to have is that of a Mr Wilson in 1553 who insisted that it was more natural to place man before woman, as for example in male and female, husband and wife, brother and sister, son and daughter. Implicit in his insistence that males make precedence is the belief that ‘males come first’ in the natural order, and this is one of the first examples of a male arguing for not just male superiority of males but that this superiority should be reflected in the structure of the language” (Spender 1990: 147). Albeit it can hardly be agreed with the statement that the practice was unknown in the fifteenth century and before, Spender is absolutely right to refer to T. Wilson who worded his opinion in the following way: “Some will set the Carte before the horse, as thus, My mother...
and father are both at home, even as though the man of the house were no breaches, or that the graye mare were the better Horse. And what though he often so happeneth (God wotte more pitte) yet in speaking at the least, let us kepe the natural order, and set the man before the woman for maners sake” (Wilson, 1560: 189).

It is noteworthy that those ‘maners’ persisted through centuries: “Even in present-day English, with the exception of the common formula ladies and gentlemen, the masculine precedes the feminine when a pair of gender-marked nouns occur, for example, boys and girls, men and women, lords and ladies, husbands and wives” (Baron, 1986: 3). Some authors point to implications beyond what is found in the language: “But naming practices are social practices and symbolic of the order in which men come first, as can be seen in the conventions followed in expressions going back to Adam and Eve, such as man and woman (wife), husband and wife, boys and girls, etc. (a notable exception being ladies and gentlemen). Women are the second sex” (Romaine, 1994: 103). Awareness of the word order in question and its social implications make certain authors ponder on possible reformative activities to be implemented in English: “There are many occasions when “women and men” would be more appropriate than “men and women.” In fact, one might argue that since women are majority in this nation we should henceforth always speak of “the women and men in this nation” instead of “the men and women of this nation.” The firstness of the male has always appeared evident when male and female names are put side by side: Jack and Jill, Hansel and Gretel, Romeo and Juliet, Antony and Cleopatra, Dick and Jane, John and Marsha. As for the firstness of the female, there isn’t much more than Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs” (Bosmajian, 1995: 388–389).

The idea of a linguistic reform is based upon the assumption of masculine-preferential word orders as a manifestation of sexist bias in English. Hence, there is a new, Whorfian-like hypothesis, that of a linguistic postulate: “In English order matters. Therefore, what comes first is seen as first in the metaphorical sense – better, higher ranked. So in the phrase “men and women” women do indeed come second” (Hardman, 1999: 1). Thus, what occurs in a language is a postulate (a linguistic postulate), and this is the factor that triggers (derives) corresponding interpretations (derivational thinking). With a view to this, M. J. Hardman goes on to say: “Therefore, in the usual order, “men and women,” women not only come second but are perceived as the additional appendage of the first item, as part of the derivation that the root carries with it. In the phrase “women and men,” on the other hand, because “women” comes first, women are perceived” (ibid.).

**Gender-marked binomials in translation**

There are a number of papers addressing the problem of (ir)reversibility of constituents in binomial pairs cross-linguistically (for instance, Pordány, 1986; Khatibzadeh & Sameri, 2013; etc.). In an earlier experiment (Kikvidze, 2002), I tested the fixedness of an English gender-marked binomial by way of having it translated into Georgian; the sentence, containing the phrase "husband and wife," was translated as col-kmari (wife-husband / ‘wife and husband’) by all (more than a hundred) native Georgian-speaking subjects fluent in English. It should be noted that word order in the overwhelming majority of the Georgian gender-marked binomials (mostly occurring as dvandva compounds spelt with a hyphen which stands for the conjunction da - ‘and’) are feminine-preferential. Alongside with this drastic contrast with English, I can quote interpretations of the linguistic phenomenon in question which sound in the similar vein to those of the English binomials; in this case, Georgian authors try to find extra-linguistic explanations to the linguistic fact, thus, conforming to M. J. Hardman’s Linguistic Postulate and Derivational Thinking. The Georgian grammarian Dimitri Kipiani wrote in the later half of the 19th century: “The fact, that woman is our sweetheart, that she is a basis of our happiness in this world and is a reliable milestone of our family, is an age-long peculiarity of our way of life; this is grammatically evidenced by the following
convention: when both sexes are referred to together either in oral speech or writing, woman is referred to first by all means followed by man” (Kipiani, 1881: 28). The professional linguist, professor of the University of Saint Petersburg, David Chubinashvili always stated the same: “It should be noted that whenever masculine and feminine are conjoined, then feminine is spelt and pronounced first, followed by masculine [...] It demonstrates that woman was greatly respected in Georgia” (Chubinashvili, 1887: VI). Similar ideas occur even in some academic papers published in the 21st century. For instance, “for the course of history, in Georgia woman’s role has been rather significant. There was a permanent struggle for the survival of the nation in which women played an important role, they were involved in social institutions, they were entitled the right how to treat an enemy and a friend [...] similarly significant from the linguistic point of view are the groups of words referring to gender-marked pairs in which feminine always comes first” (Chichinadze, 2002: 225). It is the referential meanings of the components of the said compounds (Linguistic Postulate) that makes the quoted authors accommodate their extra-linguistic interpretations to what is presented in the language (Derivational Thinking).

Positive impact of interference

The American feminist author Deborah Tannen dedicated her famous book You Just Don’t Understand to her parents and wrote: “TO MY FATHER AND MOTHER” (Tannen, 1991: 7). When referring to her words, I wrote: “A Georgian author, either male or female, either feminist author or not, would have written: čems ded-mamas “to my mother and father” (Kikvidze, 1999: 145). As already noted, most (and not all) of the gender-marked binomials in Georgian are feminine-preferential such as ded-mama (mother-[and]-father), col-kmari (wife-[and]-husband), da-zma (sister-[and]-brother), gogo-bičebi (girls-[and]-boys), kal-važi (daughter-[and]-son), etc., and the order is fixed. It is due to this fixedness that native speakers of Georgian switch the order to feminine-preferential in English-Georgian translations. On the other hand, in Georgian-English translations, native speakers of Georgian do not switch the feminine-preferential order of above the gender-marked binomials; the data come from my preliminary observations of oral and written samples of the English of native speakers of Georgian:

- ded-mama > ‘mother and father’
- col-kmari > ‘wife and husband’
- da-zma > ‘sister and brother’
- gogo-bičebi > ‘girls and boys’
- kal-važi > ‘daughter and son’
- sidedr-simamri > ‘(man’s) mother-in-law and (man’s) father-in-law’
- dedamtil-mamamtili > ‘(woman’s) mother-in-law and (woman’s) father-in-law’
- dedal-mamali > ‘female and male’
- dedobil-mamobili > ‘foster mother and foster father’

Hence, it results in the English phrases, syndetic binomials, in which the order of constituents corresponds to the requirements of the anti-sexist language reform, their orders are feminine-preferential.
Concluding remark

In my opinion, the described case is one of the infrequent instances of the positive impact of mother tongue interference which should not be discouraged by teachers of English.

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ABSTRACT

Nowadays the need for chiseled graduates to merge successfully in the tough competition of survival in the global market has become evident. Consequently, a change in the trend, especially in the teaching/learning process of English language, has to undergo a transition for the betterment. Advances in information technology and new developments in learning science provide opportunities to create well-designed, learner-centered, interactive, affordable, efficient, and flexible e-learning environments. For this reason, it could be suggested that going through internet is an alternative way to study English. Web-based technologies and powerful internet connections provide various new possibilities and latest trends for teachers and learners. In every step of our lives the significance of technology is seen and enjoyed these days. Communication has never been so easy. The barrier of location for people in different parts of the world has been reduced by some of the latest technologies such as the web, internet, and mobile devices such as Personal Digital Assistant (PDA’s), i-Phone, etc. Web-based technologies and powerful internet connections provide various new possibilities for the development of educational technology. Language education does not only occur in the classroom and should not stop after the learners leave the classroom. So, technological devices should be always used by students and teachers. In order to provide an interaction between language learners and teachers or peer to peers, internet connections and mobile devices are one of the most popular and useful ways in language education.

Keywords: Learning science, e-learning environments, web-based technologies, educational technology, interaction, language education.

INTRODUCTION

Language education does not only occur in the classroom and should not stop after the learners leave the classroom. So, technological devices should always be used by students and teachers. In order to provide an interaction between language learners and teachers or peer to peers, internet connections and mobile devices are one of the most popular and useful ways in language education.

In a knowledge-based society teachers are expected to engage in a continuous professional development or the professional learning activities from the beginning to the end of their careers. As with any other profession, teachers are also expected to assume a greater responsibility for their own professional learning, continually developing their knowledge and skills.

English language teaching has undergone tremendous changes over the years. Students are burdened with studying, learning and grasping the materials, and, of course, lectures with the collection of relevant information from the prescribed texts. Many career alternatives once regarded insignificant are gaining importance at present such as communication skills,
technical skills, interpersonal skills, ICT (Information and Communication Technology) literacy, etc. (Abilasha & Ilankumaran, 2014).

LITERATURE REVIEW

In every step of our lives the significance of technology is seen and enjoyed in these days. Communication has never been so easy. The barrier of location for people in different parts of the world has been reduced by some of the latest technologies such as the web, internet, mobile devices such as Personal Digital Assistant (PDA’s), iPhone etc.

Web-based study opens up opportunities for both interdisciplinary and vertical studies. Interdisciplinary and vertical studies bring teachers and students from different fields together to observe the same phenomenon. Such crossing of institutional borders over different education levels, fields and organizations increases sharing of knowledge. The flexible organization of learning via the net diversifies the course supply in small units. Web-based course supply also gives students an opportunity to choose from a wider selection of courses, even from international markets (Forsblom & Silius, 2001).

Teaching materials can be produced and updated easily in web-based environments. The new research knowledge can be transferred quickly to teaching via the net. Web-based teaching and learning improves the quality of teaching materials provided that the designers take a great responsibility to produce high quality material in these more open environments. Network-based environments offer various ways to illustrate teaching materials by simulation, modeling and visualization. In learning it is not essential to memorize things; the ultimate objective of learning is to restructure and enhance the knowledge of a student. Therefore, learning should be closely connected to real-life situations. Lambert Gardiner (1993) argues that hypermedia-based teaching material is educationally superior, because it simulates the real-life situation and students deal with information from many sources. When planning web-based courses, teachers should consider how they could connect teaching to situations in, for example, working life.

A variety of basic language skills can be developed with the help of web-based language learning activities. It is known that there are four basic skills in English which are listening, speaking, writing, and reading. These skills can be put on the web and made interactive in a variety of ways. One of these ways is internet communication tools such as email, blogs, and chat. These tools provide integrated environment for teachers and students. Students generally feel positive about web-based learning tools, when they are:

- well-designed, easy to learn, easy to use;
- when the tool is good as support, not as a replacement of lectures;
- when the use of diverse tool features, i.e. chat, bulletin board, is relevant and tied into the specific course structure and content (Storey et al., 2002).

The development of web-based language teaching and learning activities continue to be an exciting and growing field. While computer programmers, instructional designers, and computational linguists steadily push the extremes of the field, language instructors can use the basic tools of internet. Also language teachers can create their own web-based language activities and use the communication tools. It can be said that researchers have enough research on web-based language learning, from now on, they should begin interactive language lessons and encourage teachers to create their own web-
based activities. In other words, the researchers are recommended that more researches are needed in which students can enjoy and learn language efficiently.

It is widely accepted that advances in information technology and new developments in learning science provide opportunities to create well-designed, learner-centered, interactive, affordable, efficient, and flexible e-learning environments (Khan, 2005). For this reason, it could be suggested that going through internet is an alternative way to study English. Web-based technologies and powerful internet connections provide various new possibilities and latest trends for teachers and learners.

Blended learning is the approach that is at the cutting edge in education and with a wide range of possibilities for ELT (English Language Teaching). It helps teachers optimize language learning and teaching by using ICT resources (internet, web-based tools, CD-ROMs, etc.) in combination with face-to-face sessions. E-learning that encompasses the use of technological and electronical support for educational purposes embraces blended learning.

Task-based and Situated Language Learning and Teaching are among the latest trends in ELT nowadays and utilizing these approaches in Multi-User 3D virtual environments where users can have varieties of learning experiences in life-like environments is said to change the nature of the learning experience.

E-communication has made a huge range of networking possibilities available, including special interest groups, support groups, discussion and chat rooms, etc. One effect of this has been to give us an access to the experiences of many others, and to enable us to locate and create the ‘local’ knowledge that relates to our own needs. This, in turn, has enabled us to become a bit less dependent on knowledge generated by ‘experts’ in other contexts, and on the authority of ‘the published book’. We are all able to participate in the generation of knowledge and knowledge itself becomes a process rather than a finished product.

Several approaches can be used to develop and deliver web-based learning. They can be viewed as a continuum. At one end is “pure” distance learning (in which course material, assessment, and support is all delivered online, with no face to face contact between students and teachers). At the other end is an organizational intranet, which replicates printed course materials online to support what is essentially a traditional face to face course. However, websites that are just repositories of knowledge, without links to learning, communication, and assessment activities, are not learner-centered and cannot be considered true web-based learning courses.

In reality, most web-based learning courses are a mixture of static and interactive materials, and most ensure that some individual face-to-face teaching for students is a key feature of the program.

Web-based learning in an institution is often integrated with conventional, face-to-face teaching. This is normally done via an intranet, which is usually "password protected" and accessible only to registered users. Thus it is possible to protect the intellectual property of online material and to support confidential exchange of communication between students.

The advantages of web-based learning are:

- Ability to link resources in many different formats;
- It can be an efficient way of delivering course materials;
- Resources can be made available from any location and at any time;
• Potential for widening access - for example, to part time, mature, or work-based students;
• Can encourage more independent and active learning;
• Can provide a useful source of supplementary materials to conventional programs.

The disadvantages are:
• Access to appropriate computer equipment can be a problem for students;
• Learners find it frustrating if they cannot access graphics, images, and video clips because of poor equipment;
• The necessary infrastructure must be available and affordable;
• Information can vary in quality and accuracy, so guidance and signposting is needed;
• Students can feel isolated.

When designing web-based programs (as with any learning program), the learners’ needs and experience must be taken into account. Appropriate technology and reasonable computer skills are needed to get the best out of web-based or online learning. Programs and web pages can be designed to accommodate different technical specifications and versions of software. It is frustrating for learners, however, if they are trying to work on the internet with slow access or cannot download the images and videos they need. On the other hand, web-based programs may, for example, encourage more independent and active learning and are often an efficient means of delivering course materials.

Web-based learning environments are affected by the actions of the user. Students are able to actively choose program components in whatever desired order, which develops self-directive skills (Barker & Tucker 1990; Bonk & King, 1998). According to Weston and Barker (2001), student control is especially desirable for lessons that cover a wide range of difficulty so that students can choose an appropriate difficulty level. In this case instructors must relinquish some control of students’ learning, because some students have neither the discipline nor the inclination to work independently (Weston & Barker, 2001). It should be remembered that we do not have to choose between collaborative and individualized teaching and learning methods in one separate web-based course. It is possible to use both, so that teachers and students consider which method is pedagogically appropriate in each context.

CONCLUSION

Web-based learning offers huge opportunities for learning and access to a vast amount of knowledge and information. The role of teachers is to ensure that the learning environment provided takes account of learners’ needs and ensures that they are efficiently prepared and supported. Online learning has advantages, but web-based learning should not always be viewed as the method of choice because barriers (such as inadequate equipment) can easily detract from student learning. The technology must, therefore, be applied appropriately and not used simply because it is available and new or because students and teachers have particular expectations of this means of the course delivery.

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TEACHER EDUCATION IN UKRAINE: DISCOURSES AND PRACTICE

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ABSTRACT

In the era of rapid and diverse social and global change, education takes an essential role in the development of knowledge-based society. These challenges teacher education, since a teacher plays a crucial role in the provision of quality learning for all children and young people, development the competencies necessary for lifelong learning and thus, the development of intellectual potential of the country. Having signed the Bologna declaration in 2005, Ukraine has set about a new stage of higher education modernization and the development of modern self-sufficient and holistic teacher education system. In order to integrate within the European Higher Education Area, a three-cycle tertiary education was implemented, a number of legal provisions were approved to regulate the overall process of teacher education, projects were initiated that are to promote educational and systematic innovations as well as development and implementation of various strategies, initiatives and policies aiming to fostering a clear vision of reforming trends and needs in teacher education. Moreover, actions were taken to improve the education management system, to refine the content and the quality of teacher training. In this paper, the author scrutinizes the national peculiarities of teacher education at Bachelor and Master Programs in Ukraine. Analysed are the approaches to financing, admission, content standardization in teacher training and knowledge assessment according to the Bologna Process requirements.

Key Words: Teacher education, modernization, reformation, the Bologna Process.

Overall civilization tendencies, social and economic transformations in globalized world, internationalization processes imposed new requirements and a new role for education. Therefore, governments around the world pay an increasing attention to the improvement of education at different levels. Teacher training and teacher professional development is an important prerequisite for education modernization (Sectorial Conception of Lifelong Teacher Education, 2013). The changes occur in teacher education since high expectations towards the education improvement cannot be realized without a teacher who is to have appropriate competencies to facilitate the development of students as competitive professionals and active citizens. This presumes quality and efficient teacher education (TE).

Ukrainian higher education policy is based upon the principles of democratization, humanism, international integration within the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), accessibility and succession of higher education levels, steady development of society by preparing competitive human capital and facilitating its lifelong education (The Law of Ukraine on Higher Education, 2014). The main principles of teacher education development are lifelong learning, combination of national education traditions with progressive international experience, flexibility and predictive value, innovation (Sectorial Conception of Lifelong Teacher Education, 2013).

After gaining independence in 1991, Ukraine started the development of its own education policy and higher education system as inherited from the Soviet era multilevel education system could not respond adequately to rapid global changes,
teacher and student needs. Such factors as overgrown bureaucracy, residual financing and lack of support to teachers of all levels compromised education’s contribution to society and opposed the new development plan towards democracy, knowledge and information based society (Stepko et al, 2004). During the first decade of independence, a number of initiatives have taken place in Ukrainian higher education. Among them are the following:

1. Development and implementation of laws, strategies, initiatives and policies aiming at fostering a clear vision of reforming trends and needs in teacher education (On State National Program “Education” (‘Ukraine of the XXI century’, 1993; State Program “Teacher” (1997); On National Doctrine for Education Development in Ukraine, 2002; and others);
2. Diversification of teacher education programs, university property categories (commercial, private, joint, international);
3. Establishment of qualification degrees (junior specialist, bachelor, specialist, master);
4. Adoption of learner-centered approach to education at different levels;
5. The study and the first experiments to implement the European achievements into national education strategies that reflect the European vector of higher education development.

Joining the Bologna Process in 2005 is among the main steps towards the integration within the European Higher Education Area. This opened a new stage of the modernization of teacher education in Ukraine. The need to ensure convergence with EU standards and implementation of the principles of the Bologna Process determines the direction of higher education reform in Ukraine. As mentioned in the EC Commission (2010) document Taking stock of the European Neighbourhood Policy. Implementation of the European Neighbourhood Policy in 2009. Progress Report Ukraine, for the first 5 years in the Bologna Process, Ukraine has already advanced in in the implementation of a third-cycle for doctoral programs under the Bologna Process and the European Credit Transfer System for the first and second cycles as of the academic year 2009-10. Among the main achievements that took place in Ukrainian higher education are introduction of the Bologna Process Diploma Supplement, providing for greater transparency on higher education qualifications, establishment of a Higher Education Reforms Expert Group with EU support with involvement of Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and the National Tempus Office.

Today’s system of teacher education includes pre-service and in-service teacher training, and further professional development of teachers. Primary school teachers get initial training at TE institutions of Levels I, II, III of accreditation (vocational schools and colleges). Higher educational institutions (HEIs) of Levels III and IV of accreditation (institutes, universities) carry out pre-service teacher education programs for both primary and secondary school educators. In-service TE can be implemented at In-Service Teacher Training Institutes, resulting in getting a qualifying level (called “category”).

At present, there are 40 colleges and 66 higher educational establishments (4 academies, 52 universities, 10 institutes) which offer teacher education programs (Teacher Training Higher Education Institutions: Education – Reference Book of Higher Education Institutions, 2016). Among these establishments, the most famous are Dragomanov National Pedagogical University (approximately 36,000 students), Ternopil Volodymyr Hnatiuk National University, Uman Pavlo Tychyna State Pedagogical University, South Ukrainian Ushynsky National Pedagogical University, and Kyiv Borys Hrinchenko University. Except for pre-service education, some institutions may provide in-service teacher training and further professional development.
Funding for state HEIs in charge of TE mainly comes from the state, but the Law of Ukraine on Higher Education (2014) permits other sources of finance that do not contradict the Ukrainian law. These are tuition fees, grants from national and international programs, financing from sponsors or private organizations etc. Private TE institutions are self-financed.

Management of TE in Ukraine is still centralized (mainly it is the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine) but during recent decades, the tendency towards greater HEIs autonomy can be observed. The new Law on Higher Education (2014) changed the legal status of higher educational establishments. Management of state and municipal educational institutions is based upon the principles of undivided authority and self-management that is realized by the elective academic council of a HEI. Universities got more power in: cadre issues (filling in the academic positions and other personnel, staffing table, academic workload distribution and other), finance (use of finance from tuition fees, open bank account), determining of the minimal and maximal academic staff workload and other.

Teacher education can result in obtaining Sub-bachelor (90–120 credits ECTS), Bachelor (180–240 credits ECTS) and Master (90–120 credits ECTS) degrees. After training at the Sub-bachelor level, a graduate is assigned the qualification of preschool or primary school teacher. Bachelor and Master degrees are obtained in the specialty “Sciences on Education”, “Preschool Education”, “Primary school Education”, “Secondary Education (with school subject signification)”, “Special Education”, “Physical Education and Training”, indicating type of professional activity (educator of pre-school children, primary school teacher, secondary school teacher, social pedagogue and special educator). Admission to university teacher education programs is carried out based on the results of External Independent Assessment (unified national examination, Ukr. ‘zovnishne nezalezhne otsiniuvannia’) and average mark of the Certificate of Complete General Secondary Education (Ukr. ‘atestat’) or Diploma of Sub-bachelor.

According to the Law of Ukraine on Higher Education (2014), universities are entitled to develop educational programs based on the requirements set by the Law. The main structural elements of education program are an appropriate amount of ECTS credits, list of graduate competencies, content of education presented in the form of learning outcomes, forms of assessment (attestation), external quality assurance mechanism, requirements to professional standards. These reflect new approach to teacher education – student-centered approach that rests upon competence-based education. The requirements to the content of teacher education are presented in professional standards that include Educational and Qualification Characteristics (contains the approved list of professional functions, tasks and skills, specialist’s place in economic structure of the state; definitions of professional competences) and Educational and Professional Program (indicates contents of education, volume and level of educational and professional training of specialists). Teacher education program features 3 blocks of training: disciplines in humanities and social-economic sciences, disciplines in natural sciences and fundamental training, disciplines in professional and practical training. It should be noted that beginning from 2015, the standard does not distinguish blocks of training, allocating it to HEIs. Standard only sets the division on core disciplines (75%) and electives (25%). Up to 10% of studying workload should be devoted to practical training.

One of the important directions of TE development in Ukraine is the transition to a new education paradigm – competence-based education that is seen as an alternative to more traditional knowledge-based education. The competency is a pillar of efficient teacher training. The approach implies the development of complex capacities that enable pre-service teachers to act effectively in various professional fields of activity, defines personal and professional qualities of a future teacher. In
Ukraine, the competence-based approach to teacher education is realized through active, problem-solving training. Educational programs presume gradual increase of individual work of pre-service teachers, research skills and reflection development. Not less than 10% of training time takes practice that is to develop practical skills in assessment, planning and organization of pupils’ learning. Competence-based TE entails diversification of learning forms and methods. Along with conventional lectures, seminars and individual tasks, widely used are the team-based approach and project work. To the development of the new approach also counts the use of innovative technologies such as technology of productive learning, information and modular technology, telecommunications network.

In line with the advances that took place in Ukrainian teacher education, many of the internationalization efforts such as international partnerships (institutional partnership, consortia membership, individual partnerships within and out Europe), student and staff mobility still require further development and support.

Although still much has to be done, teacher education modernization that took place in Ukraine during the last decades has already contributed to building the distinctive modern self-sufficient and holistic teacher education system.

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FACTORS OF CREATING A PROPER LANGUAGE ENVIRONMENT

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ABSTRACT

The authors share their experience and ideas of how to provide successful learning by creating a favourable working environment and friendly atmosphere in a foreign language classroom. Different activities, a proper error-correction approach and after-class events make a great deal in this process. Teaching natural language in a meaningful context is necessary to create an effective language environment. The issue is important in developing and increasing students’ motivation, especially in non-linguistic institutions of higher education, where students are usually less motivated to learn a foreign language.

Key Words: Language environment, language learning, error-correction

Foreign language teachers should all do their best to create a favorable language environment in order to make the process of learning more effective and comfortable. All the activities done in a foreign language classroom whether it is teaching grammar, or presenting new vocabulary, or developing one of the skills, should have the emphasis on the creation of the proper environment. The classroom and after-class activities should provide a simple, not scaring, not complicated and pleasant surrounding for language learning. The atmosphere should be useful not only for the teacher to introduce the target language in the context of the classroom, but also useful for the students to check their ideas about any presented material as well.

When children learn their native language, this environment is created automatically in the family. The child listens to the language used for real purposes and learns to use it for expressing its thoughts and feelings. Following these very principles should enable the teacher to facilitate the target language learning. Teachers can go ahead and plan such classroom activities that could be useful to obtain the necessary response from the learners.

There are a few more rules for successful language assimilation that the teacher should take into consideration when planning the lessons. For example, no child can be forced to talk until it is ready to talk, and error correction by parents is ineffective unless the child feels the need to correct itself. There are a lot of pauses and hesitations when a child begins to speak, but people around it still take time and listen to it and respond at the suitable level.

A child can learn a word or phrase in one context and properly use it in different situations. Thus, the focus is on meaning rather than on form. In addition, there is a real purpose for which the language is used. A child, for example, wants to express its feelings or to do or refuse to do something and from its vocabulary chooses the appropriate words and sentence
patterns, uses them and sees that such a use of language helps to achieve the desired results. This encourages the child to use the language further to satisfy its needs. Though when talking to a child directly the adults simplify the language, it hears much more and absorbs everything that it is ready to absorb and uses it in a simplified and concentrated way to convey its exact meaning.

It is obvious that a teacher is not able to do all this in the classroom, but it should be possible to create favorable conditions for language learning. Such an environment will show students a sample of the language in a meaningful context. Even in the classroom, learners benefit more from the heard language. And in this case a teacher should always mind the language s/he uses, as the learners very often produce those phrases and words which they heard occasionally, instead of the authentic target language.

One of the points how to create a good atmosphere in the classroom is dealing with mistakes. And sometimes this occurs not to be an easy task. Since the students make more and more mistakes, teachers have to specify and correct these errors, which creates conditions of stress. The students develop an anxiety about learning the new language, and it is difficult for them to start using the foreign language in some real-life situations. They feel that when they are in the classroom, they listen to a teacher who is always ready to support and correct their mistakes. But in fact, no real learning is happening in this case. The danger of over-correcting is that students will lose motivation and you may even destroy the flow of the class or the activity by butting in and correcting every single mistake. The other extreme is to let the conversation flow and not to correct any mistakes. There are times when this is appropriate but most students do want to have some of their mistakes corrected as it gives them a basis for improvement (Error Correction, n.d.). Every teacher has different views on this and different ways of correcting their students and it is a case of finding out what both you and your students feel comfortable with. Jo Buddon, a teacher and a materials writer, working for the British Council, gives some interesting ideas of how to make error-correction comfortable. You can talk to your students about error correction to find out from them how they like to be corrected.

One way to give students a choice on how much they want to be corrected in a particular class or activity is for them to make a traffic light to put on their desk. A strip of card with three circles (one red, one orange and one green) folded into a triangle with a bit of sellotape does the trick. Students point the circle towards you to indicate whether or not they want correction:

- Red = don’t correct me at all (they may have had a rough day or be tired!)
- Orange = correct things which are really important or things I should know.
- Green = correct as much as you can, please.

Before you begin an activity, bear in mind whether you are concentrating on accuracy or fluency. For a class discussion, for example, fluency would be appropriate. However if students have had time to prepare a role-play and are then going to perform it you may want to encourage accuracy. Be clear of the aims of the task and make sure students are aware of what you expect from them. Don’t present an activity as a fluency task and then pick them up on every single mistake (Error Correction, n.d.).

Another issue that needs our attention in teaching a foreign language is that students do not perceive many of the classroom activities as having any relation to real-life requirements. Many of them do all the exercises mechanically just for the exam. The challenge is to figure out what would keep them in the classroom with the full involvement. There are certain
things that teachers have to do in the classroom, but that they themselves as students may not have liked to. For example, there is no need to take teacher training programmes to understand that the long winding explanations of grammar rules make grammar a boring subject for students of any level (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994).

If the basis of the learning process is natural exposure, the process of teaching a foreign language will be successful. Whatever method is used it is important that students get exposure which introduces the language not in parts but as a whole system. Even if the native language is used for any certain purposes, the exposure of both languages should be entire. To do this the teacher can start the lesson with a story, a joke, a real life experience, an image or video based on the context. Even at the beginners’ level, it is possible to connect the material already learnt to the new one, and thus provide a better exposure. It is not compulsory for students to understand everything the teacher says. Introducing an element the teacher should not shy away from occasional use of other elements. Most often it should be noted that these random elements are unconsciously absorbed by students as something whole. For intermediate and advanced learners the activities may begin with a natural exposure which leads to discovery of usage rules by the students themselves (Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

Natural language as it is used outside the classroom in real life situations is the basic idea of how to involve students in the learning process. Teachers need to figure out how this or that element of the language is used in real life. It is better to use more authentic materials and present-day language, not just to take examples for the demonstration of a grammar rule. It will provide the appropriate exposure and help students to take part in real communication.

It is also very important to include such activities that the students enjoy and at the same time develop a desire to learn a foreign language. Language games, complex and interesting tasks and activities where students can participate without worrying about their mistakes are necessary for the learners to start the developmental process. As they are becoming more and more experienced users, they will be willing to use the new language without hesitation and be prepared to finer corrections (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). After verifying the effectiveness of all of the taken activities it is necessary to direct the students for further learning. To do this, the teacher can study a variety of sources and tell the students where they can get more information on it.

It should be noted that using different new technologies, especially the Internet, in the teaching process also creates a more comfortable atmosphere for learning a language, improves motivation to study, makes the teaching process more effective and, what is more, stresses the importance of knowing a foreign language in real life. Students have to search for some information to do some activities in the practical classes, at the same time they improve their reading skills in a foreign language and broaden their mind.

Another factor that influences on the creation of the positive environment for learning a foreign language is organising various extracurricular activities and events in a foreign language that help not only to make the process of learning more effective but also contribute to development of the students’ personalities. At our university the foreign language teachers organise a series of events, aiming at the students’ aesthetic education, improvement of their cognitive activity, development of their talents and such qualities as responsibility, smartness and self-confidence and the ability of working in a team. Traditionally, the academic year begins with the Week of the Foreign Languages, during which students take part in a cross-cultural quest, the Translator’s Day, the Round Table Meeting where students share their impressions about their studying and working in foreign countries, the contest of wall-newspapers in a foreign language and a concert where
students sing songs in foreign languages, dance and play musical instruments. The Week of the Foreign Languages creates a good language environment and inspires love for the subject. The second term traditionally starts with an electronic poster and essay competition in a foreign language. Students make posters on the suggested topic using the computer technologies. Then posters and essays are uploaded on the university website, where all the students and teachers can see and assess them. In addition, the foreign language teachers create and conduct lessons devoted to traditional foreign holidays such as St. Valentine’s Day, Halloween, Christmas and Thanksgiving Day which let students plunge into the foreign culture. All this creates a great learning environment where everyone in the classroom is fully motivated, including the teacher.

In conclusion it can be noted that a tense classroom climate can undermine learning and demotivate learners. On the other hand, learners’ motivation will reach its highest point in a safe classroom climate where they can express their opinions and use the language and feel that they will not be ridiculed.

To make the students fully involved in learning, a teacher should try to give them opportunities to learn and encourage and support their learning efforts. Moreover, being anxious or alienated students are unlikely to develop motivation to learn, that is why it is important that learning occurs within a relaxed and supportive atmosphere. Thus, the main task for any language teacher is to create a favourable language environment.

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APPLICATION OF MASS MEDIA FOR TEACHING ESP

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ABSTRACT

In teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) reading occupies a special place, as this is not only a language skill, but also the major source of professional information. Textbooks offer a sufficient number of professional texts, both created for teaching purposes, such as vocabulary and grammar acquisition, and authentic ones. But the problem even with the authentic texts is that they soon become outdated and lose their informative value. The reason is the time-consuming process of textbook design and publication. The best way to compensate this is using mass media texts available on the internet. Newspapers, scientific journals, web-sites provide a variety of authentic texts involving any professional sphere. These texts can further be used for discussion (speaking skills are developed). On the other hand, the internet also offers a lot of video materials – professionally made TV programs, you.tube videos, lesson and lecture recordings, etc. Where else you can meet with celebrities in the professional sphere, if not on the internet!? Adding mass media information will make teaching ESP attractive to students who prefer dealing with e-materials to working with a book.

Key words: mass media, ESP, authentic texts

In contemporary society the importance of teaching general English, mostly to schoolchildren, is overshadowed by the importance of teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) for undergraduate and post-graduate students as well as to professionals. If general English is something we need for everyday communication while travelling abroad or dealing with foreign visitors at home, the great role for the country’s development has the ability to do international professional communication for business.

In teaching English for Specific Purposes reading occupies a special place, as this is not only a language skill, but also the major source of professional information. Being able to read in English for a professional today is the best way to update his/her knowledge of what is going in his/her field all over the world. Textbooks do offer a sufficient number of professional texts, both created for teaching purposes, such as vocabulary and grammar acquisition, and authentic ones. However, the problem even with the authentic texts from ESP textbooks is that they soon become outdated and lose their informative value. The reason is the time-consuming process of textbook design and publication. Students can master the scientific or business style, the field terminology from such texts, but they can’t learn much professionally from them what has not already been taught to them in the major courses. The best way to compensate this is using mass media texts available on the internet. Newspapers, scientific journals, web-sites provide a variety of authentic texts involving any professional sphere. Media “inform, amuse, startle, anger, entertain, thrill, but very seldom leave anyone untouched” (Biagy, 1996). No on-paper library today can offer such a rich choice of topics for students as mass-media. You do not need to go anywhere to reach the materials – you can simply do it at a touch of computer key-board. It is easy to make the teaching student-centered, due to a variety of genres, topics, depth and language difficulty levels involved. Students can make their own presentations, hold discussions, pair and group work, based on the freshest materials found on the media. “We live in a world where
media are omnipresent. An increasing number of people spend a great deal of time watching television, reading newspapers and magazines, playing records and listening to the radio... The school and the family share the responsibility of preparing the young person living in a world of powerful images, words and sounds” (UNESCO Declaration on Media, 1982). Despite the criticism of the mass media, most thoughtful persons agree that mass media do a superior job in reporting the news and informing the public. It is our task as ESP teachers to help students understand better this information, and try to use it for education purposes (simultaneously to develop ESP skills and professional knowledge).

Numerous publications consider the use of technology and interaction in ESL/EFL context to enhance language learning (Adams, Morrison, & Reedy, 1968; Decker, 1976; Keller, 1987; Phillips, 1998; Clifford, 1998; Egan, 1999). In recent years, the use of "non-desktop" technologies such as audiovisual mass media, for example, TV is also attracting increasing interest amongst researchers in second/foreign language acquisition (Bell, 2003; Chinnery; 2005; Evans, 2006; Ishihara & Chi, 2004). In today’s audiovisually driven world, various audiovisual programs can be incorporated as authentic sources of potential language input for second language acquisition (Bahrani & Sim, 2012).

However, the application of technologies for ESP teaching has been less studied (Beach & Somerholter, 1997; Mayya, 2007). Audiovisual devices such as satellite and conventional televisions can offer easy access to authentic programs which are considered to be a rich source of language input for teaching Business English (BE). The immediacy of various audiovisual programs ensures that language learners’ exposure is up-to-date and embedded in the real world of native speakers, on the one hand, and freshest news from the business world, on the other. Business news, analytical business programs, movies and even cartoons dealing with business scenes will be very useful to develop listening comprehension, if gap-filling, true/false, and multiple choice tasks are developed by the lecturer based on them. They will make the teaching visual, motivating, even fill it with the sense of humour, which students usually value a lot. They will be used as the basis of debates and discussions, giving students the possibility to reveal their theoretical knowledge of the subject, while giving arguments to their opinions. Business TV and newspaper news stories promote critical viewing skills and media awareness.

The internet offers a lot of video materials – professionally made TV programs, you.tube videos, lesson and lecture recordings, etc. Where else you can meet with celebrities in the professional sphere, if not on the internet!? One can attend a medical operation, a trial of new high tech equipment, other important professional events without going out of a classroom. Thus, adding mass media information will make teaching ESP attractive to contemporary students who prefer dealing with e-materials to working with a book. Unfortunately, teachers often resist these innovations, as

- it requires from them to spend additional time to seek for, select and treat the selected materials (find vocabulary and terminology definitions, prepare drills and communicative exercises);
- they need to know the activities that are specifically useful for ESP teaching (such as, for instance, simulations and role plays of real law cases or business talks, etc.);
- some of them are not well aware of search machines, of how and where to look for appropriate materials;
- teachers’ access to internet and their computer skills may be inadequate.

However, the last two barriers are disappearing with time – there are fewer and fewer teachers today who do not use computers and internet in their daily life, correspondingly, they do have the basic necessary technical skills to use mass media for ESP teaching. In Mayya (2007) research three-fourths of teachers (57 or 75%) did not have any formal training in
computer usage. However, 19(25%) of the teachers had some computer experience. Today, these numbers wouldn't be so poor.

Of course, we should not lay the whole load for application of the internet and mass-media for ESP teaching. Teachers of content subjects can help ESP teachers select interesting materials. Administration should leave them more free time for developing educational materials, besides, provide a better internet access, organize workshops on computer applications for ESP teaching, etc. There are so many educational and language teaching materials on the internet, unfortunately very few are offered for teaching ESPs (except, probably, business English).

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INTRODUCING CULTURAL ELEMENTS THROUGH LANGUAGE TEACHING ACTIVITIES

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ABSTRACT

Foreign language learning is comprised of several components, including grammatical competence, communicative competence, language proficiency, as well as a change in attitudes towards one’s own or another culture. Cultural competence, i.e., the knowledge of the traditions, customs, beliefs and systems of meaning of another country, is indisputably an integral part of foreign language learning, and many teachers have seen it as their goal to incorporate the teaching of culture into the foreign language curriculum. Knowing culture of any people means to learn their language, to have good relationships with the people speaking this language, to understand them and be an active member of the globalised world. Introducing culture through language teaching activities give teachers opportunities to motivate their students, to make their lessons more productive and effective, enrich students’ vocabulary, develop different skills, feel free having communication with people of different cultures. Activities given in the paper have successfully been implemented towards the goal of introducing cultural elements in English language classes. The inseparability of culture and language while teaching is well seen in Politzer’s (1959) words: “If we teach language without teaching at the same time the culture in which it operates, we are teaching meaningless symbols or symbols to which the student attaches the wrong meaning”.

Key words: cultural competence, language, communication, teaching, learning.

INTRODUCTION

Foreign language teaching and learning consists of several components, such as: grammatical competence, communicative competence, language proficiency and cultural competence. Cultural competence, i.e. the knowledge of the traditions, customs, and beliefs of another country is indisputably an integral part of foreign language teaching and learning. Even more, a language itself is one of the important parts of culture. Because of it, many teachers have seen it as their goal to incorporate the teaching of culture into the foreign language curriculum.

So, foreign language teaching and learning involves foreign culture teaching and learning, and in one form or another, culture has been taught in the foreign language classroom for different reasons. What is debatable, though, is what is meant by the term “culture” and how it is integrated into language learning and teaching.

The aims of teaching and learning culture and a foreign language are to increase students’ motivation and interest, to develop cultural and communication competences, to enrich students’ vocabulary, to introduce the elements of different cultures, to help students to be integrated in a multicultural environment.
The teaching methodology for integral teaching of language and culture involves Verbal/Oral Method, Explanatory Method, Group Discussion / Debates, Collaborative Method, Case-study, Demonstrative Method, Problem-Based Teaching, and Role Play and Simulations.

**What is culture? Why should it be taught in a foreign language classroom?**

Before discussing the issue, we should define what is a language. According to scholars, language is one of the code systems that serves transmitting and keeping information. But as David Freeman (2004) writes, sending and receiving information is more than coding and decoding. Language knowledge is not enough for sending a piece of information. Language is more complex than just a code.

Language has always been developing and changing. It should be mentioned that communication is held not by means of a language system, but with concrete language elements. We use not the whole language as a system, but a collection of limited signs which are necessary to convey the thoughts (Skalkin, 1981).

Language is one of the most important elements of culture. “Language does not exist apart from culture, that is, from the socially inherited assemblage of practices and beliefs that determines the texture of our lives” (Sapir, 1970: 207). In a sense, it is “a key to the cultural past of a society” (Salzmann, 1998: 41).

But what is culture? Culture is an integrated system of learnt behaviour patterns that are characteristic of the members of any given society. Culture refers to the total way of life of particular groups of people. It includes everything that a group of people thinks, says, does and what constitutes its systems of attitudes and feelings. Culture is learned and transmitted from generation to generation (Kohls, 1996). Culture is the characteristics and knowledge of a particular group of people, defined by everything from language, religion, cuisine, social habits, music and arts (Zimmermann, 2015).

Just 30-40 years ago, culture was not viewed as close to language. But today they are viewed as connected with each other very firmly as learning a language cannot be separated from learning culture and vice versa (Seelye, 1974). A close connection between language and culture has been recognized since the 1960s (Sapir, 1970; Whorf, 1956).

**Information Sources**

In order to get a comprehensive picture of the target language culture from many angles, we need to present our students with different kinds of information: video, CDs, TV, internet, literature, songs, music, newspapers, students own information, interviews, readings, guest speakers, photographs, realia, anecdotes, souvenirs, surveys, illustrations, etc.

**Activity Types**

In this article attention is given to those classroom activities that serve introducing cultural elements in language teaching and learning. There are a lot of activities that help language teachers develop cultural competence and at the same time implement the aims of teaching language and culture. Here are activities used by us effectively.

1. **Quizzes**
   - Multiple Choice;
   - True/False;
Differences /Similarities across cultures (Individual, pair work or group work).

2. Compare and Discuss. The Procedure is:

- Teacher chooses appropriate texts about culture (traditions, history, habits, etc.);
- S/he divides the class into two groups (As & Bs);
- Distributes handouts to students and gives them a clear instruction;
- As read Text 1, Bs read Text 2;
- Students work in pairs (A and B); sharing the information they got from the text;
- Students return to their own groups;
- They have a discussion (Home task: To make a presentation on the given topic in different cultures).

3. Notice

Students are asked to ‘notice’ particular features of another culture while they are watching a video or reading some materials, for example: a target-culture wedding or folk dancing or costumes and note all the differences or similarities with their own culture.

4. Research

Students are asked to search the internet or library and find information on any aspect of the target-culture that interests them. In the following class, students explain to their group what they have learned and answer any questions about it (Seelye, 1993).

5. Critical Incidents

A critical incident offers students a brief story or vignette in which some type of cultural miscommunication takes place. Students read and discuss the incidents to try to understand why the miscommunication took place and how it could have been prevented (Chastain, 1988).

Steps:

- Teacher prepares copies of the critical incident;
- Teacher divides students into small group of 3-4;
- Teacher distributes handouts to the students;
- Students read them and work together to answer the questions given below the text;
- Students discuss the critical incidents.

6. A Brief Story

Teacher chooses a brief story (e.g. Mika’s Home stay in London from Select Readings by Linda Lee Erik Gunderson Oxford University Press) and asks them first to read, then to answer the questions given below the text. Group Discussion.
7. The Culture Quest

The Culture Quest is a web activity. It involves the students in an inquiry-based classroom project to explore other people and cultures. Its parts are:

- Planning;
- Implementing;
- Evaluating.

8. Non-verbal Communication

Students are shown pictures, they should say what these signs mean in different cultures.

9. KWL (What I Know; What I Want to know; What I Learnt. (Steps):

- Teacher selects a text about one’s culture (monument or city or traditions).
- Teacher asks students to tell what they know about one’s culture given in the text.
- Students write down the information in the grid.
- Teacher asks students to tell what they want to know about it.
- Students write the answers in the grid.
- Teacher gives students a text to read for checking their knowledge about the given culture.
- Teacher asks students to write down in the grid what they learnt.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grid - KWL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What I Know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Role Play

a. Round Table. (Procedure):

- Teacher selects the topic of the discussion (e.g. smoking, drinking…. among teenagers).
- Teacher asks students to choose “nationalities” and jobs (they are familiar or interested in);
- Teacher introduces students a statement; (e.g. Smoking should not be allowed in public places);
- Students play their roles and express their point of view on the statement.

b. Solve the Problem (Steps):

- Teacher divides the class into As and Bs;
As prepare a statement with a social problem (e.g. It is important to know English well if you want to get a highly paid job).

Bs judge and give them a piece of advice.

**CONCLUSION**

So, language is a social institution, both shaping and shaped by the society in which it plays an important role. We teach language to communicate. But culture is the foundation of communication. "Communication requires understanding, and understanding requires stepping into the shoes of the foreigner and sifting her cultural baggage, while always ‘putting [the target] culture in relation with one’s own’ (Kramsch, 1993: 205).

Moreover, we should be cognizant of the fact that if we teach language without teaching at the same time the culture in which it operates, we are teaching meaningless symbols or symbols to which the student attaches the wrong meaning (Politzer, 1959).

**REFERENCES**


ECHO QUESTIONS FUNCTIONING AS QUESITIVE SPEECH ACTS IN CONVERSATION

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ABSTRACT

Spoken interaction serves as an area of interest for researchers from various linguistic schools of thought. This paper focuses on echo questions, which form an integral part of conversation, and considers their pragmatic characteristics. It analyzes echo questions functioning as quesitive speech acts (asking for elaboration / clarification / repetition / confirmation / commitment, checking an inference / assumption) and outlines their felicity conditions. Taking into account the illocutionary / perlocutionary distinction, the study suggests that echo questions may achieve different degrees of success (as reflected by their answers) depending on their understanding by the interlocutor. Furthermore, the study explores contextual factors determining variation in the realization of echo questions and their answers, offering their typology.

Key Words: Echo question, answer, speech act, illocutionary force, perlocutionary effect.

Spoken interaction presents a field for research from various methodological standpoints, including conversation analysis, interactional linguistics, discourse analysis and cognitive studies (Aijmer & Stenström, 2005). Conversation analysts focus both on certain phenomena typical of spoken language (discourse markers, hedges, tags, backchannels, and ellipsis (ibid, p. 1743) and conversational organization in terms of turn-taking, adjacency pairs, sequences and preference organization (ibid, p. 1744). Discourse analysis examines "speech acts and speech act relations between utterances" (ibid, p. 1745), whereas cognitive aspects involve studying the interrelation between language and consciousness (ibid) as well as other mental processes.

This paper concentrates on echo questions, which are "very common in spoken language" (Carter & McCarthy, 2006, p. 199), examining their pragmatic characteristics, namely, functioning as a quesitive speech act (the aim of which is to "ask for new important information to bridge the information gap" (Shevchenko, 1998, p. 50). Based on the analysis of conversational discourse as represented in contemporary films and fiction, the following functions of echo questions have been identified: asking for elaboration / clarification / repetition of (some element) of the interlocutor's utterance; checking an inference / assumption; asking for confirmation; and asking for commitment. While the information gap is common to all types of echo questions functioning as quesitives, their defining features (felicity conditions) may be formulated in the following way:

- **asking for elaboration**: the speaker does not know the answer to the echo question or its details (e.g., "Had Lady Clarke always disliked her?" (Christie, 1989, p. 89), "How do you know this, Barrymore?" (Doyle, 1995, p. 780);

- **asking for clarification**: the speaker does not know the answer because s/he has misunderstood the interlocutor's utterance (e.g., "What do you mean, Mr. Clarke?" (Christie, 1989, p. 96));
- **asking for repetition:** the speaker does not know the answer because the interlocutor’s utterance has not been properly perceived due to noise, his/her hearing impairment, emotional state, etc. (e.g., “Dead? Did you say he was dead?” (Doyle, 1993, p. 7470);

- **checking an inference / assumption:** the speaker has to confirm that it is true (e.g., “Was one of them lying, do you mean?” Edmunds said bluntly. (Christie, 1942, p. 400);

- **asking for confirmation:** the speaker has some doubts about the interlocutor’s previous utterance (e.g., “That’s quite right.” “Is it? Lady Clarke told us, mademoiselle, that from her window she saw you standing on the front door step talking to a man.” (Christie, 1989, p. 980);

- **asking for commitment:** the speaker wishes that the interlocutor should commit himself/herself to a certain course of action in the future; asking for commitment is necessary for the future action by the interlocutor.

Consider fragment (1) which illustrates how echo questions function as asking for elaboration and commitment.

(1) **Blake said sharply, “Is this account of mine for publication?”** “Certainly not. It is for my eye only. To assist me to draw my own deductions.” **“And you won’t quote from it without my consent?”** “Certainly not.” (Christie, 1942, p. 87)

Asking for elaboration involves requesting some additional details of interest to the speaker while asking for commitment urges the interlocutor to refrain from a certain course of action in the future.

The question of successful performance of a speech act encompasses the levels of illocution and perlocution. While illocutionary success of a speech act means recognition of the speaker’s communicative intention by the interlocutor, a successful perlocutionary act involves some further actions on the part of the addressee or his/her change of beliefs (van Dijk, 1977, p. 198-200). Perlocution is defined “as an act of H directly resulting from H’s understanding of S’s illocutionary point as determined by the context of the utterance” (Akhimien, 2010, p. 11). Applying the illocutionary/perlocutionary distinction to the study of echo questions necessitates taking account of the next speaker’s utterance following the echo question, which demonstrates how successful the echo question was:

(2) **“Mademoiselle, in the event of Lady Clarke’s death, would you have married Sir Carmichael if he had asked you?”** The girl sprang up. **“How dare you ask me such a question? It’s – it’s insulting!”** **“Perhaps. But you have sworn to speak the truth. Eh bien – Yes or no?”** “Sir Carmichael was wonderfully kind to me. He treated me almost like a daughter. And that’s how I felt to him – just affectionate and grateful.” (Christie, 1989, p. 132)

Although Hercule Poirot recognizes the illocutionary intention of Miss Grey’s echo question (who is indignant about his previous question, its inappropriateness and his right to ask), he urges Miss Grey to give an answer, thus rendering her echo question unsuccessful as far as perlocution in concerned.

Depending on the context, **reactions to echo questions** functioning as quesitives show some variation. The **factors at play concern both the echo question (whether it takes the form of a complete utterance or is unfinished) and the way it is perceived by the interlocutor in terms of**

- **understanding/misunderstanding** the echo question (as reflected in the interlocutor’s verbal and nonverbal behaviour);
- **the degree of certainty** about the answer;
the amount of relevant information the answer contains;

- giving the answer/explaining why one's previous question/statement is appropriate;

- absence of an answer due to lack of knowledge/unwillingness to answer or claims that it is self-evident;

- presence of emotional colouring (a neutral/positive/negative reaction to the echo question) and attitude expressed towards the addressee (which may be positive, negative or not expressed).

Relevant and sufficiently informative answer to the echo question may be accompanied by a nonverbal display of misunderstanding:

(3) Lestrade looked at Holmes as if he thought he was going out of his mind. I confess that I was myself surprised both at his hilarious manner and at his rather wild observation (Doyle, 1995, p.147); (4) Sir Montague Depleach looked at him rather oddly. He said dryly... (Christie, 1942, p. 25)

Speaker's certainty about the answer may vary, ranging from the maximum degree (Are you sure? – Quite sure.) to an explicit indication of doubt:


It is worth noting that in conversational discourse the variables of the reaction to an echo question belonging to the groups listed above may be combined under the influence of contextual factors (interlocutors’ differing goals, knowledge, beliefs and social status (van Dijk,1981). For instance, in the following conversation, part of a murder investigation, communicators’ linguistic behaviour is largely determined by their roles: the detective, Hercule Poirot, is asking questions to find the perpetrator whereas Lady Angkatell, who has to answer truthfully while giving evidence, wants to protect the murderer by withholding the clues:

(6) Poirot: And why did you put it into the basket? Lucy Angkatell: Oh! I knew you were going to ask me that, Monsieur Poirot. Of course I-I must have had a reason, mustn’t I, Henry? Sir Henry Angkatell: Uh. Lucy Angkatell: I mean, there must have been some idea whirring about in my head in order to for me to have put the Mauser into the egg basket in the first place. Sir Henry Angkatell: My wife is extremely absent-minded (Buck & Langton, 2004).

Formally, Lady Angkatell gives an answer to Poirot’s elaborative echo question, but it lacks the relevant details (the reason for her conduct), stating the obvious by means of a rhetorical question. In terms of certainty, Lady Angkatell is not fully committed to the truthfulness of her answer, which is indicated by the use of a tag question appealing to her husband (thus shifting responsibility) and hedging by means of discourse markers and modals verbs. As to the emotional colouring, Lady Angkatell’s answer may be taken to express worry because of a speech disfluency (I-I) and her non-committal attitude.

The findings presented in the paper suggest that the functions of echo questions in conversation should be studied in conjunction with the reaction they invoke. Separating illocutionary and perlocutionary aspects of the quesitive speech acts performed by echo questions allows a deeper insight into their functions along several dimensions as shown by their answer: the degree of understanding of the illocutionary point/willingness to cooperate by performing further actions; speaker’s certainty about the answer to the echo question; being informative/withholding information/justifying the
appropriateness of one's previous remark; the expression of emotions and attitudes to the interlocutor (who uttered the echo question).

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PSYCHOLINGUISTIC NATURE OF READING SKILLS

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ABSTRACT

Reading is one of the most important skills in educational sphere. It is impossible to imagine academic and professional development without sufficient reading skills. Taking into consideration the amount, quality, and reliability of written information available, the role of the development of reading skills cannot be underestimated. Because of a strong correlation between reading and academic success, students with good reading skills in the first and second / foreign languages are more likely to do well in their academic development. The present paper discusses the existing models of the reading process, and suggests how the study of certain individual differences (age, background knowledge and stage of language development) can help to disclose the essential characteristics of reading skills acquisition.

Key words: Reading skills, top-down model, bottom-up model, interactive model, foreign language acquisition

INTRODUCTION

It is generally believed that reading is what readers perceive from the written form of the language, but it is a fact that while reading the same text, readers’ understanding may differ from each other. That is why the term “reading” has not been clearly defined up to date.

Descriptions of reading often highlight the fact that reading is a linguistic process and that reading has a solid foundation in the language. Perfetti (1985), for example, notes that the linguistic processes play a central role in reading comprehension. He states that the central processes of reading, in fact, the mental operations on language structures (for example, semantic, syntactic and phonological structures) start with the visual information. He adds that reading is a linguistic phenomenon, because it includes both word recognition and comprehension. Spelling (orthographic form) of a word should be linked to the phonological, morphological and semantic representations.

The fact that reading is seen as reflecting the thought processes as well as linguistic processes, became the reason why reading is often described as a psycholinguistic process (Dechant, 2013).

The Process of Reading from Psycholinguistic Perspective

According to one psycholinguistic view, reading is better understood if it is viewed in terms of the linguistic processes which are essential in the processing of print (letter, word, syntagm, clause, sentence, and text recognition and comprehension). Its rationale is bottom-up processing, as comprehension is done hierarchically, starting with the lowest level and finishing with the highest, step by step.
Another view, a variation of the first, a "psycholinguistic guessing game", was introduced by Goodman (2003), one of the well-known names associated with psycholinguistics in reading circles. He defines reading as a psycholinguistic process when a reader decodes the message which was encoded by a writer with the help of graphic symbols. According to Goodman, reading starts from the visual display of symbols as input and finishes with meaning as output. Whenever the reader meets a language element s/he cannot understand, s/he tries to guess the meaning based on the linguistic context, knowledge of collocation and grammar rules, word-building elements, as well as background knowledge (knowledge of the topic/situation and the world).

Still another view is top-down, which views reading as the process starting with background knowledge which determines the process of comprehension. Smith (2004) states that good (fluent) readers increase the use of cues contained in the semantic and syntactic language and decrease their dependence on graphic analysis, surface structure analysis, and print-to-speech processing. They work on a deep level of structure and predict as they read, trying to surface structure or focus on the most important signals as they test their predictions. In case their predictions are not confirmed, they go for more visual analysis.

This view points out that a poor (not fluent) reader, compared to a good reader, pays more attention to graphic input and less attention to the semantic and syntactic input. Poor readers very often concentrate on the pronunciation of the word so that they have little time to understand the meaning. That is why they usually fail in extraction of semantic and syntactic contextual cues important for word and meaning identification. Good readers, on the other hand, are more focused on the extraction of meanings, using both semantic and syntactic content in reading (Dechant, 2013).

Smith observes that psycholinguistics "became something of a battle cry (or term of opprobrium, depending on which side you were on)" and a rationale for a meaning or top-down emphasis (Smith, 2004, p. 233). Reality shows that all views to some degree reflect what is happening while a person is reading, and the mixture reflects some personal features of a learner (visual / auditory learning style; synthetic / analytical thinking) and the peculiarities of the text read (on a familiar or less familiar topic, simple or sophisticated linguistically and by content).

The reading phenomenon can be distinguished between the process of reading and the product of reading. The process of reading is the interaction between a reader and the writer by means of a written text, which is assisted by many procedures. Readers focus not only on decoding the marks on the page, deciding what symbols mean and how they relate to each other, but also readers think about the information delivered in the text, how it relates to other things they already know, and predict what can come next in the text. That is why to teach reading effectively, it is necessary to understand the nature of the process of reading, which can be a difficult thing to do, as it is normally silent, internal and private (Liu, 2010).

This is why assessing and checking of the product of reading is another way to examine the process of reading. Readers may be involved in very different reading processes, however, unless it is a fiction text, their final understanding is usually similar. Thus, readers may go through different ways of reaching understanding, but the matter is not how they reach it, but what understanding and meaning readers reach. In this case, the total result of reading gives the whole picture of the level of understanding, as well as the quality and effectiveness of the methods used to reach the product.

It is necessary to mention that the right understanding is a controversial issue, because understanding in many cases may be ambiguous, that is why educators should be very careful judging students' understanding. This situation can be taken
under control if the selection of the text is the teacher’s responsibility, but if students choose the text, teacher should be ready to deal with it (for example, by asking students to prove their opinion based on facts).

Today reading specialists have come to agreement that:

- reading is not a precise, exact sequential process, and does not simply involve word-by-word decoding;
- reading process is focused on meaning, where the context is an important factor;
- reading is based on language (semantic, syntactic, orthography, morphology, etc.)
- reading is more successful, if readers hypothesize, predict, confirm or disconfirm their predictions.

Consequently, there are different opinions of what processes are involved in reading a text. Researches (such as Goodman, 2003; Liu, 2010; Perfetti, 2010; Smith, 2004, etc.) discuss these processes under three basic models.

Models of Reading Process

A **bottom-up model** of the reading process is a model that focuses on the written / printed text, it starts from graphic recognition and results in understanding of meaning. In the bottom-up model the process of reading passes several steps, beginning from recognition of letters, letters to sound, sounds to words, and words to meaning (see Figure 1.)

![Diagram of Bottom-up Model of Reading Comprehension](Liu, 2010, p. 156).

This model is more concentrated on reading, than on understanding text, so may not be useful in different situations (applying reading strategies).

A **top-down model** is a reading approach that focuses on what the reader brings to the text (prior knowledge and predictions). It claims that reading is driven by meaning and proceeds from whole to the part.

According to Goodman (2003) and Smith (2004), effective reading is not the result of exact perception and interpretation of all the elements / letters in a word, but is the ability to select the fewest, most productive necessary cues. They claim that readers have a prior sense of what in the text could be more meaningful / important, based on their own experiences, level of language proficiency, and general knowledge. Readers do not limit their understanding by the symbols they see, but integrate two other important kinds of information that are available at the same time - semantic cues (meaning) and syntactic cues (grammatical / sentence sense). Thus, what readers bring to the text separately in terms of their prior
knowledge of the topic and their language knowledge, help them to predict what the next coming words will be. Readers read the text, set their own prior hypothesis about the identity of the upcoming words and use the meaning to support / confirm their prediction. If meaning is composed, readers retry the text and form a new hypothesis. Hence, readers only need to quickly sample the marks on the page to confirm word identity.

According to the top-down model (Figure 1.2), the flow of information proceeds from the top downward, so that the process of word identification is dependent on meaning first. Hence, the higher level processes, embodied in past experiences and the reader’s knowledge of the language pattern, interrelate with and direct the flow of information (as listeners may anticipate what the upcoming words of speakers might be). According to this view, Goodman (2003) identifies reading as a ‘psycholinguistic guessing game’.

Figure 2: The Top-down Model of Reading Comprehension

The top-down model concentrates on belief that good readers ignore the letter-sound correspondence when they read, because they read quickly. Thus, good readers do not engage the phonemic code into the reading process, because they read at a higher speed. However, this model is not without problems. Presenting the recent evidence, Stanovich (1980) disproves this statement. Numerous researchers claim that, instead of depending on meaning only, good readers may successfully use graphic information, especially for getting the information about the words they are not sure about. Contrary to the opinion of top-down theorists, good readers often rely on graphic information that may be more effective than trying to predict words based only on the context and structure of the language. Furthermore, the fact that good readers use contextual cues better than poor readers is not the proof of that they actually do so in reading. Good readers take advantage of context when a number of orthographic and phonemic cues is insufficient. Despite the opinion of top-down theorists, even though readers master their skills and become more efficient, they still use data-driven techniques to decode words.

It is clear that none of the described reading models (bottom-up and top-down) can completely describe what occurs during the reading process. Then Rumelhart & McClelland (1981) suggested an interactive (mixed) model of reading comprehension (Figure 1.3.), which involves both letter features / data-driven sensory information and non-sensory information.
This model is basically very simple, and it is clear that a complete model of the role of content in the perception of letters would be considerably more complex. Nevertheless, the interactive nature of the process involved gives the model remarkable power and flexibility. Yet the processes carried out by the model are clearly not beyond the capability of simple neutral circuits that we already know exist in the brain and nervous system” (Rumelhart & McClelland, 1981, pp. 58-59).

As shown in the diagram (Figure 1.3), message board / pattern synthesizer, orthographic knowledge, lexical knowledge, syntactic knowledge, and semantic knowledge come together to assist the progress of word identification (Liu, 2010).

It suggests that the message centre holds a continuously changing list of hypotheses about the input data, scans the message board for the identifying of hypotheses related to its own area of knowledge, and then assesses that hypotheses to decide whether it is confirmed or not confirmed. In this case, reading is neither bottom-up or top-bottom, but a mixture of the both models.

**CONCLUSION**

To understand reading, it is necessary to research humans’ psychology, as reading is directly connected to the brain activity. Teachers’ understanding of reading process and its nature “contributes to improvements in instructional practice and deeper knowledge of their students’ learning” (Alvermann, Unrau, & Ruddell, 2013, p. 691). Models of reading comprehension provide educators with a broader understanding of reading processes. There are sometimes difficulties in acquiring the new material and problems with reading comprehension, in this case models can help develop strategies to improve reading processes.

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ASSESSMENT CRITERIA OF INTERPRETING PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

A growing demand for training interpreters all over the world is caused by the boom of multilingual communication in different spheres of modern life. Assessment is one of the key components of any efficient training. However, interpreting assessment concepts and methods are still under-researched. In particular, interpreting assessment criteria vary greatly in different countries and even training institutions. In this respect there is no consensus on the number and list of criteria to provide complete, reliable and objective assessment of interpreting performance. The given paper analyses and contrasts current assessment criteria and procedures applied in Ukrainian and some European and Asian interpreters training practices. The author comments on the main problems connected with their uses in training and testing. The need in criteria unification on the international basis as well as their clarification and refinement to avoid ambiguity and subjectivity is grounded. Core criteria should be singled out to prevent overlapping and duplicating, clearly defined, and illustrated with the full range of examples presenting all possible points at the rating scale to promote simple assessment procedures and obtaining objective results. Some room for improvement is also seen in the clarification of assessment criteria according to the set of skills essential for a specific type of interpretation, its peculiarities and purposes. In sum, it is imperative to provide future interpreters with an agreed list of criteria to be used for self- and peer-assessment. It will guide students in their interpreting task performance and improve the efficiency of interpreter training in general, cultivating a specific sort of assessment literacy.

Key Words: Interpreting performance, assessment criterion, interpreting skills, rating scale, assessment procedure.

INTRODUCTION

With the rapid development of science, business and information technologies all over the world, there has been an increasing need in efficient written and oral multilingual communication in different spheres. This, in turn, has caused the growing demand for training skilled translators and interpreters in modern higher educational establishments. Gradually, interpreter training is taking some kind of dominating position in modern linguistic education, partially due to the recent advance of computer-based translation. Efficient interpreter training should be based on up-to-date teaching methods and techniques. Unfortunately, they are still the least elaborated not only in Ukrainian, but also in foreign interpreting practices, especially if compared to the state of foreign language teaching (Chernovaty, 2013; Wu, 2013).

In general, interpreter training is aimed at the acquisition of interpreting skills essential for the production of the interpretation both appropriate for its purposes and helpful for its end users. Assessment plays a key role in interpreter teaching process, firstly evaluating students’ learning outcomes, identifying their strengths and weaknesses and, finally, grading the quality of their interpreting performance and proficiency (Wu, 2013, p.15).
Since interpreting assessment belongs to the performance-based activities, it is one of the most difficult to carry out in a reliable and consistent way. Interpreting assessment procedures are still mainly intuitive. Therefore, they should be based on clearly determined and described assessment criteria. In turn, they should measure the constructs they are intended to measure (validity). All the raters involved into the assessment process should treat them the same way (assessment consistency). Finally, assessment criteria should be easy and practical in use, correlate with theoretical achievements of interpreting studies and provide objective results (Tsaturuva, Kashirina, 2008, p. 29). So the main problem of interpreting assessment criteria application is connected with the lack of raters’ ability to judge interpreting performance consistently and inevitable subjectivity of such judgments (Messick, 1989, p. 91). Alongside with rating scales clarification and examiners’ training, the refinement of assessment criteria is one of the possible ways to fight subjectivity and inconsistency in interpreting assessment practice. The communicative approach to testing allows considering this task from another point of view: the assessment criteria applied should reflect the consolidated provisions of professional standards (still not developed in Ukraine), experience of practical interpreters and perception of interpreter’s proficiency and aptitude by end users, colleagues—interpreters and interpreters’ trainers. There is an idea that practical interpreters are in a better position to measure the quality and assess the interpreting performance. In our opinion, the role of the first group of experts should not be underestimated in ranging the received criteria list according to their importance.

An assessment criteria list developed in such a way will provide a solid basis for teacher’s formative assessment and getting adequate feedback, promote the development of students’ peer- and self-assessment skills as the part and parcel of their future interpreting practice.

This paper attempts to overview, analyse and consolidate different views on the interpreting assessment criteria found in modern researches on the topic.

**Overview of Interpreting Assessment Criteria**

While adapting assessment criteria definition to our studies, we consider them to be qualitative and quantitative indicators of students’ interpreting performance. According to the communicative approach, interpreting is an activity based on bilingual competence and aimed at providing the end user with a target text in another language that can completely replace the original one due to appropriate grammar and word choices and message delivery in a smooth and easy-to-understand manner (Tsyhan, 2009, p. 158).

Interpreting assessment criteria can be determined in three ways: 1) on the basis of current linguistic interpreting concepts and studies with the emphasis on original language comprehension peculiarities and target language uses; 2) taking into account recent practical achievements of interpreting training methods and techniques highlighting the major interpreting skills and sub-skills being developed in training process; 3) considering the results of surveys and practical experiments carried out at the interpreting examinations and tests stressing the main aspects of interpreting performance itself. We believe that the combination of the given approaches to interpreting assessment criteria refinement can provide the development of the necessary set of tools for objective and efficient evaluation of interpreting performance as the indicator of interpreter aptitude and for monitoring interpreting training process.

Let us examine the existing interpreting assessment criteria. Having analysed the comments of professional interpreters and interpreting teachers as raters at the examination F. S. Wu identified five categories of interpreting assessment criteria
that can be applied for grading students’ interpreting performance: Presentation and Delivery, Fidelity and Completeness, Audience Point of View, Interpreting Skills and Strategies, and Foundation Abilities for Interpreting (Wu, 2013, p.24–25). Presentation and Delivery involved acoustic properties (voice); steady, stable pace of information flow; usage of fillers, and fluency. Fidelity and Completeness covered the issues of content accuracy (omissions), speaker intention reproduction (message weighing), and contextual consistency (number rendition, terminology usage). Audience Point of View was evaluated in terms of having the confidence in the speaker, receiving the speaker’s message at an acceptable level of faithfulness. This criterion determines the success of communicative interaction itself and appears to be very important as well as extremely difficult to apply in case of ordinary training or interpretation assessment. Interpreting Skills and Strategies concerned resourcefulness (the ability to use skills and strategies, such as paraphrasing, summarising, skipping, self-correction, background knowledge and anticipation) as well as multi-tasking (how an interpreter is able to manage and combine the process of perception, processing and production, which involve switching between two languages under severe stress and time pressure). Foundation Abilities for Interpreting were connected with listening comprehension skills, interpreter’s aptitude and personality. Many of the properties of these criteria permeate and as a result are difficult to separate and judge individually. This is why the criteria of Presentation & Delivery and Fidelity & Completeness were taken for the primary ones, because 86% of examiners’ decisions were made on their basis.

H. Skaaden (2013, p. 39–40) in her Norwegian interpreter aptitude studies used the following three criteria accompanied with descriptive scales to evaluate interpreters’ performance: Rendition in the other language (intact content, minor imprecisions in the rendition, severe inaccuracies in the rendition, partial loss of ideas in the rendition, complete loss of the meaning); Pronunciation (native-like, clearly perceptible accent, disturbing accent); and Grammar /Phrasing (native like, some mistakes, disturbing mistakes).

Bühler (1986, p.231–232) divided interpreting assessment criteria into two dimensions: linguistic (semantic) component of interpretation (logical cohesion, accuracy, completeness, correct use of grammar, correct use of terminology and appropriate style) and extralinguistic (pragmatic) component (native accent, pleasant voice and fluency of delivery).

G. Floros (2013, p. 150–151) in his research of interpreting assessment practices in Cyprus focused on such assessment criteria to be applied as accuracy of content (coherence and fidelity) and accuracy of form (grammar, style, and register), fluency and effectiveness. Criteria of general background knowledge (connected with the ability to acquire knowledge and information) and booth manners (specific culture of collaboration and cooperation, team work skills) are treated as important but still sporadic and difficult to be used in practice.

M. Liu (2013, p.165) selected the following criteria for interpreting assessment in Taiwan: content fidelity (accuracy) (accuracy and completeness) and output quality (delivery) (intelligibility of the message, smoothness of delivery, appropriateness of language use in the target language).

Such interpreting assessment criteria as: accuracy (speaker’s intention, logics and style of the rendition), delivery (hesitations, tempo slowdown), terms usage (appropriate choice of term equivalents), booth presence (faithfulness in interpreter’s competence and his / her involvement and interest in the discussed problem) can be singled out. The opinions of professional interpreters on this problem were studied. In this respect the criteria of analytical operations and interpreter’s professional conduct were added.
L. Tsyhan (2009, p. 159–160) on the basis of the analysis of interpreting process peculiarities determined such types of assessment criteria of interpreting performance: pragmatic (rendition of speaker’s communicative intention), linguistic (grounded usage of interpreting transformations, appropriate rendition of genre and style of the original text as well as their features, language correctness), and psychological (interpreting tempo, response velocity).

Finally, L. Chernovaty (2013) offered the system of fine points to evaluate the interpreting performance based on the classification of interpreter’s mistakes. To our mind, mistakes analysis can be a powerful training tool, but feedback in training process should be always positive, so fine scores and grades are not acceptable in this case.

CONCLUSIONS

A core of basic interpreting assessment criteria should be unambiguous. While still the main problems with assessment criteria include abundance of denominations (various terms are used for actually the same criteria), coexistence of general and technical criteria definitions (sense of each criteria is usually ambiguous and prevents clear category identification and evaluation), lack of conceptual precision (criteria overlapping and intersection, problems with separate efficient assessment), and difficulty to be used in assessment practice (criteria without obvious appearance in the interpreting product, need in finding the opportunity to apply them in assessment practice).

We should keep in mind that interpreting assessment criteria performs an important role in the shaping quality interpreting performance in all the stages of future interpreter training. They are the key tools to get end users’ estimation of the received product. Exact and clear assessment procedures to put the determined assessment criteria into effect should be suggested. Meanwhile, interpreting assessment criteria should be detailed and rated for each mode of interpreting taking into consideration their process peculiarities and end users’ purposes. Assessment criteria of interpreting performance should be refined into a broader criteria list to be used in working out training exercises or monitoring tests and linked with proper subskills and skills essential for interpreting performance. They should be adjusted for self-evaluation and peer-assessment procedures. It is imperative to provide students with the agreed-upon set of assessment criteria, shaping their assessment literacy, developing proper professional skills. Such criteria as persistency or recovery (not quitting, error management) and ability to use the assessment criteria to evaluate one’s own and colleague’s interpreting performance should be added and widely used in the training process. Presentation and delivery criteria anyway cannot be neglected in message fidelity and overall interpreting performance quality assessment.

REFERENCES


MOVING TOWARD CULTURALLY-RESPONSIVE CARING

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ABSTRACT

The process of diversification of classrooms and its accompanied challenges stay the core issue in contemporary education. Career advancements, better educational opportunities, and terrorism urge people to change countries of residence. Immigration is still the critical issue of today’s world. In order to make it possible for diverse children to achieve success in a foreign country with classmates from different educational and cultural backgrounds, a theory of culturally-responsive teaching was created. This theory hypothesizes that difference between school culture and the culture of underachieving students is the main factor in their low academic success. Consequently, the academic success of these students will increase if schools build on their cultural and language strength. One of the main supports of culturally-responsive pedagogy is caring for ethnically diverse students. The article will discuss the notion of caring in culturally-diverse teaching and will show teachers the way how to move towards it.

Key words: Culturally-responsive caring,

INTRODUCTION

In the 21st century classrooms have become very diverse, so teachers can no longer keep distance in student-teacher relationships, they should care for their students by devoting them extra time and be involved in students’ out-of-class life and. They have to promote a positive classroom climate where all students are valued and supported to succeed. The process of self-reflection, self-awareness, and self-renewal will help teachers acquire knowledge, skills, expectations and ethics inevitable for culture-sensitive teaching and will exhibit the power of caring. Caring, together with pedagogical competence, will result in high academic achievement of all students.

Culturally-responsive caring

One of the corner stones of culturally-responsive pedagogy is caring for ethnically diverse students. Webb et al. (1993) states that caring shifts “self-determination into social responsibility and uses knowledge and strategic thinking to decide how to act in the best interests of others. Caring binds individuals to their society, to their communities, and each other” (p. 33-34).

In culturally-responsive teaching the notion of caring exceeds just feelings of empathy and emotional ties. As Gay (2010: 54) mentions, it is used here as ‘caring for’ instead of ‘caring about’ students from diverse cultural, social, ethnic groups. Caring about has the emotional concern of how people are. However, caring for adds real action, measures to affect students’ well-being as people and as students. Gay (2010:54) comments: “Caring is grounded in attitudes but must
exemplify actions. In fact, attitudes without concomitant competence-producing actions constitute a form of academic neglect”.

This kind of caring is demonstrated by teachers holding high expectations for their students, positive attitudes towards them, and beliefs in their intellectual abilities. These teachers use different instructional strategies to facilitate learning, to empower students’ individual and collective learning capacity and validate students’ knowledge experiences. Gay (2010) draws attention to four themes in discussing pedagogical caring. These are: characterizing caring, preexisting teacher attitudes and expectations towards diverse students, effects of teacher expectations on instructional behaviors and students’ achievement and being more culturally competent in classroom caring.

**Characterizing caring**

Researchers make it evident that teachers who demonstrate a high level of caring succeed in students’ higher achievements than those teachers who do not. Tolerance, perseverance, credibility, emancipation, and facilitation for the learners are the core characteristics of caring interpersonal relationships. Siddle-Walker and Snarey (2004)”144-145) extend the notion of caring in education by adding two more dimensions: ethics and social justice. They write: “Teachers who seek to be caring, but refuse to care in a culturally appropriate way are still unfair. Likewise, teachers who seek to do justice, without attention to caring for the individual, are still hurtful. Overall...fairness and carefulness are each empty without the other”.

Ladson-Billings (2009) in her book: *The Dreakeepers: Successful teachers of African Americans*, brings evidence of similar caring. In one of her interviews with students, she found that the teacher the students liked listened to them, cared for them, respected them, was friendly, believed in them and persuaded them to participate. Marva Collins (1992:260-262) suggested a ‘creed of caring’ which guided her in her teaching career and showed her commitment to caring for culturally diverse students. She states:

I discourage being average. I believe all of my students can learn if I do not teach them too thoroughly that they cannot...I will teach to think for themselves...I will teach them to have the fortitude to build their own bridges...to be courageous enough not to run from everything that is difficult, but to face unflinchingly the problems of life and see them...as challenges of living. I shall encourage them to never rest on their past laurels...to [know] that excellence is a non-ending process, and that they will never arrive in the land of the done. I [believe]...my students will become like stars that will light the world with excellence, with self-determination, with pride.

**Predominant teacher attitudes, expectations and effects**

Usually teachers dominate in the classroom. They decide which student will take part in which activity, when, and how (Goodlad, 1984; Kohn, 1999; Kozol, 2007). Teachers’ attitudes and expectations are displayed in these decisions. If a teacher holds a high expectation of a particular student, s/he is advantaged and, vice versa, if a teacher’s expectation is low, the student is disadvantaged. What influences teacher expectations?

Many researchers have proved that culture is one of the main influences on teacher and student expectations (Uzunner, 2009). For example, a student from a high power distance culture, who sees a teacher as an authority figure, does not engage in interactions with the teacher, while the student’s peer from a low power distance culture is eager to participate.
Many teachers, after numerous failures to make the student active, abandon the student and his/her learning opportunities appear under question because of differences in teacher-student cultural expectations.

Over time, negative teacher assumptions may cause what Holliday (1981, 1985) calls ‘learned helplessness,’ when the student assumes to be not worthy and disengages from classroom interactions. Good and Brophy (2003:70) note that “many students in most classes are not reaching their potential because their teachers do not expect much from them and are satisfied with poor or mediocre performance when they could obtain something better”.

Among many factors influencing teacher expectations are those which are completely different from intellectual abilities. These are: gender, identity, social class, mother tongue, and even appearance of a student.

Clifford and Walster (1973) were the first who introduced the interdependence between physical attractiveness and teacher expectations. Ritts, Patterson, and Tubbs (1992) in their study describe how physical attractiveness affected students’ grades and scores. Ayto (1999: 485) defines ‘lookism’ as a ‘prejudice or discrimination on the grounds of appearance’.

Physically attractive students received higher grades, higher scores on standardized tests, and more academic assistance; they also were considered to be more friendly, attentive, popular, and outgoing, as well as better behaved. The effects were greater on social than academic skills assessments. However, distinctions among these domains of schooling are not clearly demarcated, and effects in one can easily influence the other. (Gay, 2010: 60)

How teacher expectation, influenced by many above-mentioned factors, affect students achievements is described in Rosenthal and Jacobson’s (1968) famous study Pygmalion in the Classroom. The teachers were intentionally given different IQ results for the students, when in fact the students’ IQs were identical. The teacher held high expectations for ‘high’ IQ students and consequently, they performed better in reading tests. Good and Brophy (2003) named this ‘self-fulfilling prophecy effect’ and created six steps to reach it. Gay (2010:64) lists these steps as:

1. The teacher expects specific achievement from specific students; 
2. the teacher behaves toward students according to these expectations; 
3. the teacher’s behaviors convey to the students what is expected of them and are consistent over time; 
4. students internalize teachers’ expectations, and these affect their self-concepts, achievement motivations, levels of aspiration, classroom conduct, and interactions with teachers; 
5. over time students’ behavior becomes more and more attuned to what the teacher expects, unless they engage in deliberate resistance and change strategies; and 
6. ultimately, students’ academic achievement and other outcome measures are affected.

One more factor that influences teacher expectations is his/her professional efficacy. Gay (2010:67) explains that “teaching efficacy stems from the beliefs teachers hold about their abilities to positively affect the academic achievement of particular students”.

Self-confident teachers always hold high expectations of students. They choose challenging activities, demonstrate their efforts, and are tenacious in difficult situations. They feel responsible for helping low achievers to overcome learning difficulties. Teachers with high efficacy “become engrossed in the teaching situation itself, are not easily diverted, and experience pride in their accomplishments when the work is done” (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 3). And conversely, teachers with the feeling of low efficacy are not self-confident in their ability to change achievement status for their students. They
blame students and assign their achievement problems to students’ intellectual capabilities. These teachers usually keep low expectations for students and do not feel responsible to assist them. Pang and Sablan (1998: 42) state “teacher efficacy on student achievement is a crucial component of classroom effectiveness and refers to a teacher’s belief about the power she or he has to produce an effect on students”.

**Moving towards culturally-responsive caring**

Gay (2010) believes that culturally-responsive caring cannot be obtained automatically from professional morality, but it should be intentionally refined and developed. She gives an account about engaging with culturally-responsive caring and proposes teachers three ways of moving toward it. The first is to obtain adequate knowledge base about ethnic and cultural diversity. In order to develop cultural diversity knowledge foundation, teachers have to get familiar with the contributions of diverse cultures which have become huge in number over time. This body of knowledge should be detected, studied by teachers and used in classroom. The values of ethnic diversities, such as the ways children interact with adults in teaching and learning settings, how different ethnic groups prioritize cooperative problem solving and what implications they have in the classroom environment or how gender roles are distributed in diverse cultures, should be understood and applied in the classroom instruction effectively. The second way towards caring is to raise teachers’ personal and professional self-awareness as cultural beings. Knowledge and understanding of cultural diversities is not enough for culturally-responsive teaching. Teachers have to be reflective, self-critical, and engaged with self-analyses of how they view diverse students, what their expectations for them are and how biased they are. The third way towards culturally-responsive caring is to engage themselves in a tactful dialogue about cultural diversity. Self-reflective teachers should speak with others about problems and ways of solution for these problems. They have to give detailed analysis to people who are powerful in assisting with the issues. These discussions have to be collaborating, inquiring and deeply engaging.

**CONCLUSION**

Thus, in demonstrating culturally-responsive teaching, the core features are teachers’ ability to care for students, alter students’ attitudes, assumptions, feelings of efficacy, and expectations, together with teachers’ strong awareness of cultural diversity and knowledge of pedagogical skills. Culturally-responsive pedagogy requires teachers who hold an intransigent faith in their students and put endless efforts in helping them achieve academic excellence. Culturally-responsive teachers acknowledge that pedagogical knowledge together with teachers’ ability to care is the foundation for success for ethnically diverse students.

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PAPER-BASED VS. COMPUTER-BASED TESTING IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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ABSTRACT
Theoretically a number of strategies for assessing academic progress can be defined for higher education institutions such as paper/pencil based testing, assignments, presentations, etc. There has been an increasing interest in recent years in developing and using computer-based tests rather than paper-based testing. To replace the examination process with the computer-based testing, the standards for developing computerized assessments, therefore, requires equivalent test scores to be established for the new computer-based test and the conventional paper-based test.

Key words: computer-based test, paper-based test, assessment, motivation, effect

INTRODUCTION
It is generally recognized that examinations determine the extent to which educational objectives have been achieved as well as the extent to which educational institutions have served the needs of community and society (Shah, 2002: 109). According to Rehmani (2003: 2) ‘examinations play a significant role in determining what goes on in the classroom in terms of what, and how teachers teach and students learn and can have impact on both teaching and learning’, so the term ‘test’ can be defined as an assessment to measure a test-taker’s either knowledge or skill in many diverse ways and fields.

Various strategies for assessing academic progress can be defined for higher education institutions such as paper / pencil based testing, assignments, presentations, etc. (Sim, Holifield, & Brown, 2004: 217–233). The rapid advancement of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in teaching and learning has shifted the paradigm (Uysal & Kuzu, 2009).

A computer-based assessment, also known as computer-based testing (CBT), e-exam, computerized testing and computer-administered testing, is a strategy of administering tests in which the responses are electronically recorded, assessed, or both. As the name implies, computer-based assessment makes use of a computer or an equivalent electronic device (i.e. handheld computer). Computer-based assessment enables educators and trainers to author, schedule, deliver, and report on surveys, quizzes, tests and exams (Asuni, n.d.). Paper-based test, also known as paper-pencil-based testing, is a method in which responses are given / printed on a paper.
There is a growing increase in the use of computers for assessment purposes within Higher Educational Institutions (HEIs) globally (Sim et.al, 2004: 217–233). There has been considerable research conducted into the comparability of computer-based versus paper-based testing which mainly focused on Higher Educational institutions’ students.

Studies found quite many significant differences between a computer-based and a paper-based tests. There are various benefits that computer-based testing offers rather than the traditional paper-based testing. The advantages of the computer-based testing are the following:

- **Paper-based testing requires numerous pre- and post-activities and expenses (months of work go into such tasks to create and secure paper-based tests). It can be characterized as a time-consuming and labor-intensive activity.** Computer-based testing eliminates many of the above-mentioned activities. Using technology reduces the expenses (as it does not require too much labor) and it is focused on important activities such as ensuring test validity and providing high-quality services to test-takers. So, it reduces certain costs (CBT completely eliminates the test development expenses), improves quality, increases test security and shortens timeline.

- **Computer-based testing increases the speed and accuracy of score reporting. Test-takers have opportunities to know the results immediately after completion of the test. While a paper-based test requires certain time (about 1-2 weeks) and examiners’ hard work to check, score and inform the test-takers their results. So, a computer-based test is a faster and a more controlled test revision process with shorter response time.**

- **Computer-based testing decreases the test-makers’ work, as the sample bank itself changes the variations of tests (questions, sentences, etc.) for each time, while in the paper-based test-maker forms different variations of each test.**

- **The computer format is also much more flexible than the printed page: for example, split screens could show stimuli such as a picture, as well as the possible responses. In addition, the computer format allows each examinee to work at his or her own pace much more than in the paper-based version (Kuzmina, 2010: 193).**

- **Computer-based testing is regarded to have a greater accuracy; it means that computers can combine a variety of data according to specific rules; in paper-based tests everything is different, humans are less accurate and less consistent when they attempt to do this.**

- **Computer-based testing can be characterized as the source of extensive amounts of normative data, but paper-based tests are limited. Computers can use very complex ways of combining and scoring data, whereas most humans are quite limited in these capabilities. In this case computer raises the interests of test-takers and increases the motivation that is reflected in their results at last.**

For defining the validity of computer-based testing, an experiment was carried out at Telavi State University. The duration of the experiment was one term, in which about 78 students and 12 teachers from different faculties and specialties participated. During the experiment students passed exams twice. For computer-based testing iSpringQuizMker was used.

**A brief description of iSpringQuizMaker:**

iSpring QuizMaker is a special program that is used to create interactive flash quizzes and surveys using different question types, multimedia, styles and informational slides and publish the created tests on the Web, LMS or Microsoft Word. The program is generally used by teachers of educational institutions to check students’ knowledge in different fields.
When you start iSpringQuizMaker, the Quick Start window will prompt you to choose the type of your new quiz. You can create either a new graded quiz or a survey. The program gives many variations of choice to create various tests for diverse specialities. The creation of the quiz is divided into stages: selection of test type, setting up tests’ control panel, testing and publication.

The program is appropriate for any specialty, as it enables the test maker / examiner to use a variety of tests. The test-maker can add a picture, an equation, an audio recording, a video clip and a flash movie to any question in a quiz. Exact quiz is well fitted to language classes as almost all skills (listening, reading, and writing) and language aspects (grammar, vocabulary and phonetics) can be tested with it. iSpringQuizMaker also allows to control the test duration, order and number of questions and scores the answers in quizzes. The program consists of lots of useful tools and techniques for creating an appropriate level and quality test or survey for special test-taker(s). After a successful completion of the iSpring setup, you can access the iSpring toolbar from within PowerPoint.

The survey was used in Telavi State University. A permission from the University administration was obtained. 78 second-year students and their teachers of English were suggested to take part in this survey. Some students and teachers refused to participate in it, but they did not give reasons for that. Others volunteered to participate with a great pleasure.

The survey included the following items:

1. Preferable test type;
2. Identifying the paper-based test characteristic;
3. Identifying the computer-based test characteristic;
4. Paper-based test advantages;
5. Paper-based test disadvantages;
6. Computer-based test advantages;

In the survey, we used some other items in order not to concentrate only on one of the items. The survey was held at Iakob Gogebashvili Telavi State University. Eventually, 12 university teachers of the English language and 64 second year students took part in this survey.

The results are shown in the charts and diagrams below:

Item 1: Preferable test type:
   a. Computer- based test – 78%
   b. Paper-based test – 22%
Item 2: Identifying the Paper-Based test and Computer-Based Test characteristics:

There is a diagram that shows the disadvantages and advantages of Paper-Based Testing and Computer-based Testing:

To sum up, the results of the survey revealed that Computer-based test:

- Saves time and facilitates to assess more students in a short time;
- Helps students to improve their understanding;
- Declares the results at once;
- Minimizes the assessment mistakes;
- Secures the assessment;
- Shows the student’s progress;
- Reduces cheating;
- Reduces cost;
- Increases students’ motivation and interest.
In conclusion we can say that computer-based testing is more preferable than paper-based testing or both the teachers and learners, as it is less risky and more valid. That is why it is one of the best tools of assessment.

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A CROSS-LINGUISTIC COGNITIVE ANALYSIS OF HORSE METAPHORS IN AZERBAIJANI TURKISH, FRENCH, ENGLISH AND FARSI LANGUAGES

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ABSTRACT

One of the ways to convey certain meanings related to human beings is the usage of animal metaphors in languages. This study aims at exploring proverbs to report the themes related to horse. The corpus used in the current study contains eight books on proverbs; three on Azerbaijani Turkish, one on French, one on English and three on Farsi. Totally, it contains 10425 proverbs. Conceptual Metaphor Theory and the Great Chain of Being are used as the framework to analyze the metaphors. The results show that meanings ascribed to the horse may differ from one language to another depending on the social and cultural context that the language users live in. The findings also show that the use of horse and other animals in the source domain of specific proverbs depict meanings that are related to the hierarchical order of the respective animals within the Great Chain of being.

Keyword: Metaphor; proverb; Azerbaijani Turkish; French; English; Farsi

1. INTRODUCTION

Cultures can be studied from different perspectives. For instance, McLennan (2002) considers the relationship between sociology and cultural studies. Langthaler (2002) studies how to reconstruct the structures of the cultural representation of mythical narrations in symbolic and social spaces. On the other side, Bennett (2016) proposes a continental contribution to the study of culture. Also, some other issues as multilingualism would be proposed in cultural studies as Lowe (2015) and Qu (2015). One of the most effective and integrated elements of every culture are the proverbs found in them since a proverb is believed to be a nation's cultural heritage or identity.

Proverbs are traditional sayings that offer advice or present a moral in a short and pithy manner (Speake, 2008). Proverbs play a crucial role in the folklore or literature of any region. Many themes and cultural treasures can be found in proverbs. Scholars of different majors have studied proverbs in different languages from different perspectives. This study aims to consider horse metaphors in Azerbaijani Turkish, French, English and Farsi proverbs using a cognitive approach.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of literature shows that Azerbaijani Turkish proverbs have been studied at least by scholars such as Shahiditabar and Setayesh (2015), Muhammad and Rashid (2014), Norouzzadeh Chegini (2014), Mammad (2014), Yousefi (2012), Estaji and Nakhavali (2011) and Akin (2008) among others. The mentioned works have been studied different aspects of proverbs. Shahiditabar and Setayesh (2015) consider humanity in Azerbaijani proverbs. This study shows that there are some traces
of Islamic ideology, mythological beliefs as well as cultural values in Azerbaijani proverbs. Muhammad and Rashid (2014) study metaphors in proverbs in English and Malay. This study claims that its results do not conform to the common propositions of Lakoff and Turner (1989). Norouzzadeh Chegini (2014) compares Farsi and English proverbs and declares that proverbs reflect people's mind. This study shows that the roots of proverbs are unique, namely, they express feelings like fears, hopes, etc. Mammad (2014) is a large study about Azerbaijani phraseology. It compares Azerbaijani Turkish with English, considering proverbs, wise sayings and logical expressions. It shows that phraseological units, proverbs and sayings are created as the view of the ways of folk life by folk and represented their traditions, customs and the view of morality. Mammad also considers the internal-semantic and external-semantic structure of phraseological units, proverbs and sayings. The current study also shows how to translate and apply phraseological units, proverbs and sayings. Nabifar (2013) considers proverbs from cognitive linguistics point of view. It studies Persian and English proverbs based on Lakoff and Johnson (1980) approach. Yousefi (2012) considers Kurdish and Farsi proverbs based on cultural components. He confirms that Kurdish and Farsi proverbs contain two categories of values and norms. Positive values and norms could be encouraging to truthfulness, effort, patience and tolerance, and pragmatism, while negative values could be lying, avarice, and cruelty. Estaji and Nakhavali (2011) consider Persian animal proverbs according to the semantic-cognitive frame to determine if there is semantic derogation in Persian. The study confirms that sex and semantic derogation are not found in Persian structures and proverbs as much as other languages. Akin (2008) shows that proverbs have not any binding force, it is possible to mention their leading roles. He also shows that management paradigms are dynamics that lead the business life. This study considers the relationships and the contents of the two mentioned items.

As it can be seen, little attention has been paid to animal metaphors in Azerbaijani proverbs. So, this study seeks to consider Azerbaijani proverbs from a cognitive linguistic point of view to analyze horse metaphors and compare them with other languages as French, English and Farsi.

More specifically, the current study aims at answering the following research question: What themes can be understood by the manifestation of horse features that may conceptualize human characteristics?

3. METHOD

This study is a qualitative study which aims to analyze proverbs in Azerbaijani Turkish, French, English and Farsi. The authors of the current study used Conceptual Theory (Lakoff & Johnson 1980) in order to consider the proverbs.

3.1 Corpus

The corpus of the present study contains three proverb books on Azerbaijani proverbs, one in French, and one in English and three in Farsi. The names of proverbs books and the number of proverb in each book are shown in the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Book title</th>
<th>Number of proverbs</th>
<th>Book title</th>
<th>Number of proverbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Book 1</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Book 2</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book 3</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>Book 4</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book 5</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>Book 6</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<td>Book 3</td>
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<td>Book 4</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book 5</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>Book 6</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2 Procedure

To find an answer for the posed research question, the researchers studied the proverbs meticulously and found a number of horse metaphors in the languages in question. Then, they were tallied using the Conceptual Theory (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). After counting the relevant metaphors, the researchers showed them in tables. Finally, they were discussed in full details.

4. RESULTS

The results of the present study are shown in the following:

Table 2: Some examples of horse metaphors in Azerbaijani Turkish

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proverb</th>
<th>English literal meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At arıq, yol uzaq.</td>
<td>The horse is slinky, the destination is far.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At ölər yərəq, iqid ölər ad qalar.</td>
<td>The horse dies, its saddle remains; the devotee dies, his name remains.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At ölanda itin bayramıdır.</td>
<td>If the horse dies, then it's the dog's eid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At iqidin yoldaşidir.</td>
<td>Horse is the devotee's accompany.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At minanindir, don giyanindir.</td>
<td>Horse belongs to the one who rides it; cloth belongs to the one who wears it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atdan düşüşəşayaminib.</td>
<td>He falls off the horse and gets on the donkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ata etibar yoxdur.</td>
<td>One cannot trust the horse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Some examples of horse metaphors in French

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proverb</th>
<th>English literal meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Si les souhaits étaient des chevaux, les mendiants iraient à cheval.</td>
<td>If wishes were horses, beggars would go on horseback.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Il n’est si bon cheval qui ne bronche.</td>
<td>It is not so good horse that stumbles.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ne jugez pas un cheval d’après sa selle.  
Do not judge a horse from the saddle.

Choisissez votre épouse avec l’œil du vieillard, choisissez votre cheval avec l’œil du jeune homme.  
Choose your wife with the eye of the old man; pick your horse with the eye of the young man.

La peur fait courir l’âne plus vite que le cheval.  
Fear puts the ass faster than the horse.

Le mal vient à cheval et le bonheur à pied.  
Evil comes on horseback and on foot happiness.

Quand le cheval a soif, il ne dédaigne pas l’eau trouble.  
When the horse is thirsty, he does not disdain the murky water.

Une parole sortie de la bouche, quatre chevaux la rapportent difficilement.  
A word from the mouth, the four horses easily relate.

Quand saint George va à cheval, saint Yves va à pied.  
When St. George is on horseback, St. Ivo will walk.

---

Table 4: Some examples of horse metaphors in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proverb</th>
<th>English literal meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A nod is as good as wink to a blind horse.</td>
<td>It is a good horse that never stumbles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is a good horse that never stumbles.</td>
<td>Who eats his cock alone, must saddle his horse alone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who eats his cock alone, must saddle his horse alone.</td>
<td>He that cannot beat the horse beats the saddle.</td>
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<tr>
<td>He that cannot beat the horse beats the saddle.</td>
<td>You can head a horse to water, but you cannot make him drink.</td>
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<td>If you cannot ride two horses at once, you should not be in the circus.</td>
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<td>Don’t look a gift horse in the mouth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t look a gift horse in the mouth.</td>
<td>if two ride on a horse, one must ride behind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if two ride on a horse, one must ride behind.</td>
<td>One may steal a horse, while another may not look over the hedge.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 5: Some examples of horse metaphors in Farsi

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proverb</th>
<th>English literal meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>از اسب افتادن به خر سوار شد.</td>
<td>Fall off a horse and get on a donkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>اسب خوب را یک شلاق و اسب بد را صد شلاق.</td>
<td>A good horse needs whipping once and a bad one needs it one hundred times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>از اسب افتادن از اصل که نیفتاد.</td>
<td>He fell off the horse, not his noble situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>اسب را با تازیانه تزن با تعلیم بیان.</td>
<td>Don not hit the horse but ride it thoughtfully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>اگر اسب باشد افسار پیدا می‌شود.</td>
<td>If there is any horse, its harness will be found.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results and Discussion

The analysis of proverbs in Azerbaijani Turkish, French, English and Farsi related to horse revealed that various themes that conceptualise human characteristics can be understood by the manifestation of numerous features related to the animal in question. Some themes are similar in the mentioned languages and some are in just one, two or three of the languages. Also, there are some differences in the themes related to horse in the languages that will be discussed in details in the following section. Horse in the languages in question manifest themes as:

**Horse as significant**

In the studied languages’ proverbs, horse is regarded as significant. This can be exemplified by the Azerbaijani proverb *Atdan düşüb eşşəyə minib*, (to get off a horse and ride a donkey) which refers to a condition in which a wealthy human gets poor or an upper-ranked officer becomes demoted to a lower position. This theme can be seen through the Great Chain of Being. Horse is ranked upper than donkey in the animal hierarchy. The same proverb is in Farsi as *از اسب افتادن به خر سوار شد*.

A similar reasoning can be found about cat/mouse hierarchy in Muhammad and Rashid (2014).

**Horse as powerful**

In English, horse is considered as powerful. This can be exemplified by the English proverb *He that cannot beat the horse, beats the saddle* which shows the weakness of the person who beats the saddle since he can not beat the horse. The same meaning can be found in Azerbaijani regarding donkey, not horse: *Eşşəyə gücü çatmur, palanın sökür*, He that cannot beat the donkey, he beats its saddle instead.

**Horse as determined**

Horse in a determined animal that can be seen in some proverbs in some languages. It characterises tenacity of the human. In English, this feature can be understood by *You can head a horse to water but you cannot make him drink* which shows the perseverance of this animal.

**Horse as noble**

Horse is as noble in proverbs that were studied. In Farsi, the proverb associated with this theme is *از اسب افتادن از اصل که نیفتاد* he fell off the horse, not his noble situation which means horse is belonging to the aristocracy. The same theme is in Azerbaijani *atdan düşüb, addan ki düşmayib*, he fall off the horse, not his fame.
Horse as useful

Horse in useful as far as the studied proverbs are concerned. It can be seen in a Farsi proverb, ‘کسی که اسب را بفروشد پیاده می‌ماند’, one who sells his horse will remain on foot (without any vehicle).

Horse as gift

There is a French proverb that says À cheval donné on ne regarde pas les dents (French) / la bride (Canadian), Don’t look a gift horse in the mouth. It shows an etiquette in French that gifts and donations should be perceived with promptness and cordiality, whether their value be more or less. This same proverb can be found in Azerbaijani Turkish and Farsi as well.

Horse as prestige

In Farsi, it is aid that اسب بال و پر انسان است و فرزند اقبال انسان, horse is like the wings of a human while child is his chance. This proverb shows the prestigious position of horse among other animals. In Azerbaijani Turkish, the same idea with different wording and theme can be seen as At yiqidin yoldaşdır, horse is the devotee’s accompany. In some situations, horse is compared with human. In French, people believe that choisissez votre épouse avec l’œil du vieillard, choisissez votre cheval avec l’œil du jeune homme, choose your wife with the eye of the old man; pick your horse with the eye of the young man (Proverbs, n.d.).

5. DISCUSSION

The analysis of the proverbs show that numerous themes that conceptualize human features can be understood by the manifestation of various features related to horse. Some themes are similar in the mentioned languages and some are in just one, two or three of the languages. For instance, horse conveys some human features as being significant, powerful, determined, noble, useful and prestigious. Also, there are some differences in the themes related to horse in the languages. In other words, meanings ascribed to the horse may differ from one language to another depending on the social and cultural context that the language users live in. The findings also illustrate that the use of horse and other animals (for instance: donkey) in the source domain of specific proverbs convey meanings that are related to the hierarchical order of the respective animals within the Great Chain.

REFERENCES


https://en.wikiquote.org/wiki/French_proverbs


### Tables

**Table 1: Corpus**

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turkish: Kamalin Camali/Atala Sözü/Atalar Sözü va Masallar</td>
<td>10425</td>
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<td>The horse dies, its saddle remains; the devotee dies, his name remains.</td>
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<td>At ölənda itin bayramidir.</td>
<td>If the horse dies, then it’s the dog’s eid.</td>
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<td>At iqidin yoldaşdır.</td>
<td>Horse is the devotee’s accompany.</td>
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<td>Do not judge a horse from the saddle.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Choisissez votre épouse avec l’œil du vieillard, choisissez votre cheval avec l’œil du jeune homme.</td>
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<td>La peur fait courir l’âne plus vite que le cheval.</td>
<td>Fear puts the ass faster than the horse.</td>
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<td>Le mal vient à cheval et le bonheur à pied.</td>
<td>Evil comes on horseback and on foot happiness.</td>
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</table>
Quand le cheval a soif, il ne dédaigne pas l'eau trouble.

When the horse is thirsty, he does not disdain the murky water.

Une parole sortie de la bouche, quatre chevaux la rapportent difficilement.

A word from the mouth, the four horses easily relate.

Quand saint George va à cheval, saint Yves va à pied.

When St. George is on horseback, St Ivo will walk.

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<td>A good horse needs whipping once and a bad one needs it one hundred times.</td>
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<tr>
<td>از اسب افتادن از اصل که نیفتاد.</td>
<td>He fell off the horse, not his noble situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>اسب را با نازیانه تزین با تعلیم بران.</td>
<td>Don not hit the horse but ride it thoughtfully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>اگر اسب باشد افسار پیدا می شود.</td>
<td>If there is any horse, its harness will be found.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>کسی که صاحب اسب شود پدرش را نمی شناسد.</td>
<td>One who owns a horse does not recognise his father.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>اسب بال و پر انسان است و فرزند اقبال انسان.</td>
<td>Horse is like the wings of a human while child is his chance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>نگو اسب گاز نمی گیردو خر لگد نمی زند.</td>
<td>Do not say that horse does not bit or donkey does not hit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>کسی که اسب را یافروده یاپاده می ماند.</td>
<td>One, who sells hid horse, will remain on foot.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FRAME APPROACH TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Abstract

The aim of the paper is to share the experience of introducing the frame approach to language teaching, i.e. teaching the Academic English Writing course at the university with English as the language of instruction. The frame technology applied in education is based on the theory of frames by Minsky (1974) who developed it in relation to cognitive sciences. Further on, its provisions were introduced to other fields, including language teaching. The essence of the technology is that the language is introduced as a whole in the form of the network of frames which can be easily comprehended and memorized by learners. Frame is considered to be a cognitive model of standard stereotypical situations in symbols; it can contain elements in the form of key words and slots which are permanently filled in with new information. Those frames are related to each other in such a way that in case of necessity they can be reproduced in a chain way, i.e., one frame may restore a whole network. Framing is also a way of compressing information in the form of schemes, models, algorithms, scenarios, which allows placing and keeping them in the long-term memory. The necessity to apply frame technology is stipulated by the following factors: a demand in education of high quality in the shortest possible time; an increase in the volume of information to be mastered, and a lack of innovative means and methods providing intensification of teaching process.

The aim of this study is to give an overview of the frame approach and to demonstrate its applicability to a writing course (Academic English Reading and Writing 2) taught to undergraduate students in one of Kazakhstani Universities. The course is aimed to teach research and writing skills – students undertake a research project on a topic of their own choice, do field research, collect data and analyze it to produce a sound report on their findings. The paper will cover the issues of integrating of frame supports into the course to ensure systemic thinking and academic integrity. The frame technology has been applied in all stages of the course: in the introduction of its content, in the structure of an essay and in writing its different parts, as well as in assessment of students’ performance. The present paper is focused on developing skills of writing a literature review with the application of frame technology, i.e., on developing skills related to three basic issues – working with articles, analyzing and synthesizing them for the purpose of developing writing skills. After reading and discussing the article, students are provided with the forms to perform the tasks and fill in the blanks, e.g., an Article Review form has been elaborated to assist students in comprehending the content of an article, identifying the main points and extracting information relevant to their purposes. The practical value of the approach has been estimated through the learners’ written feedback to the course. It revealed a positive impact of the frame organization of the course on students’ final output.

Key words: Frame approach, academic writing, language teaching
1. INTRODUCTION

Frame technology has been introduced to teaching quite recently but gained a great popularity in the last decades (Malinina, 2013); it was first applied in teaching the Sciences – Mathematics, Physics, Technologies (Kolodochka, 2004), Social Sciences and the Humanities – Psychology and History (Fedorova, 2008). There are also few works that focus on application of frames into teaching languages (Goryunova, 2013), i.e., Russian (Koletvinova, 2004; Latysheva, 2004) and English and Linguistics (Malinina, 2013; Sokolova & Fedorova, 2008). The scholars emphasize the productivity of the frame technology and positive results of its application in education. The aim of this study is to give an overview of the frame approach and to demonstrate its applicability to a writing course taught to undergraduate students in one of Kazakhstani Universities. The course is aimed to teach research and writing skills – students undertake a research project on a topic of their own choice, do field research, collect data and analyze it to produce a sound report on their findings. A process-approach to writing is adopted, with much attention to planning, outlining, surveying the literature, drafting, rewriting, reviewing and using feedback constructively (ARW 2 syllabus). The paper will cover the issues of integrating frame supports into the course to ensure systemic thinking and academic integrity.

2. THEORETICAL BASE

Frame is considered to be a cognitive model of standard stereotypical situations in symbols; it can contain elements in the form of key words and slots which are permanently filled in with new information. The notion of framing has been first introduced by M. Minsky (1980) who applied it in Artificial Intelligence and Psychology. According to him, human thinking is mostly based on structural database kept in people’ memory; consequently, if one faces some new information, s/he picks up from the memory a frame that resembles it somehow and introduces some changes to it to match the existing reality. The provisions of Minsky’s theory found their implication in other fields, such as Semantics and Pragmatics of Discourse (Dijk, 1977), Sociolinguistics (Goffman, 1974), Frame semantics (Fillmore, 1982), Psycholinguistics (Tarasov, 1987), etc. Dijk (1997) defines a frame ‘as a subsystem of knowledge about some phenomenon in the world … about COMPONENT states, actions or events, about NECESSARY OR PROBABLE CONDITIONS and CONSEQUENCES’ (p.135). Fillmore and Baker (2009) distinguish two types of frames: core (central concepts) and peripheral (circumstantial notions) ones; they admit, though, that there is a vague distinction between them. They also name extra-thematic elements of frames irrelevant to any description of a phenomenon, situation or lexical unit.

Ideas of frame found their way to education through the notion of acquiring new knowledge on the basis of structures in the form of pictures, graphs, algorithms, etc., which could be more easily comprehended and kept in memory. Recent studies in psycholinguistics showed that pieces of information are effectively and easily memorized if they are interrelated (Miller, Galanter, & Pribram, 1960; Simon, 1969; Hofstadter, 1980; Hunt, 1982 as cited in Nattinger, 1993). Psychologists emphasized an ability of memory to remember information organized in structures; in other words, frames in the form of schemes, models, algorithms, and scenarios could be an efficient aid for learners to acquire new material and keep it in mind by connecting it to old knowledge. Frames are linked to each other through meaning and use; a reference to one frame will bring to others. Furthermore, the higher-level slots of information are stored in the long-term memory and are recalled from time to time in relation to lower-level frames in the working memory.
In relation to language acquisition, Galperin (1965) and Talyzina (2001) suggest a theory of step-by-step formation of mental activities: introduction of the model of action – instruction; execution of the action according to the instruction; articulation of the action for its automation; compression of information and its transfer to internal speech, and automation of action and its transfer to internal plan of consciousness. Frame technology reflects a stereotypical approach to learning and organizing knowledge, to fulfillment of assignments and to formation of skills and habits. Gurina and Sokolova (2005) suggest utilizing frames-schemes, frames-scenarios as a means of knowledge presentation by visualization of teaching material into frames, and compression of information into schemes, models, algorithms-scenarios.

The necessity to apply frame technology is stipulated by the following factors: a demand in education of high quality in the shortest possible time; an increase in the volume of information to be mastered, and a lack of innovative means and methods providing intensification of teaching process (Gurina & Sokolova, 2005). Another argument for the usage of frames in the teaching / learning process is its feature of compressing. One cannot acquire all information that circulates in the world; he/she should pick the most important and relevant one. As far as frames present compressed knowledge, they are a suitable device for acquisition and storage. It should be noted that teachers not only can teach students by frames, but also they can teach students how to apply and even form them; in this case, they will arm learners with lifelong learning skills.

Frames could be of different structures – horizontal (sequence of events), vertical (slots), stereotypes and situational links, knowledge associated with frames (true by default). They have the following characteristics – a) they are organizers, e.g., if it has a horizontal structure, then it describes events arranged sequentially; b) they are hierarchical, e.g., in the vertical structure slots are distinguished by their position – lower-level slots are subordinate to ones; c) they are stereotypical and contextual; higher-level frames reveal standard knowledge about our everyday life and lower-level slots are assigned to cultural specifics; lastly, d) they are informative by default, it means that knowledge associated with frames is true by default.

The following samples of frames could be applied in language teaching (the list is not final): strategies – selection of a word, its search in memory, an ability to create new words and sentences; plans – preliminarily designed schedule of events/acts; syntactic frames – related to syntax; semantic ones – related to meaning; thematic ones – related to the theme, and frame-narrative – structure of essay.

The present paper will examine the frames as means of developing writing skills at students while attending Academic English Reading and Writing course. Harmer (2004) distinguishes two forms of writing: writing for learning (to develop grammar skills, to prepare for another activity, e.g., discussion, or to develop another basic skill, e.g., speaking) and writing for writing (e.g., to develop writing skills in different genres). The latter will be a focus of the study. As far as the course is an academic one, it deals with the issues of academic writing which has specific features as, for example, writing declarative sentences; placing the main subject at the beginning of the sentence, not using contractions, limiting the use of direct quotes, etc. (Kemp, 2007). All these and other characteristics of academic writing are considered while teaching the course, and below certain frames applied to develop students’ writing skills will be suggested.

3. METHODOLOGY

The Academic English Reading and Writing 2 (ARW 2) course is a mandatory one for bachelor students who took and successfully completed ARW 1. The ARW 2 course aims at teaching students to read and review academic articles, to select...
a topic for doing research, to hold a research project, collect reliable and relevant data and review it, and write a paper describing it. The frame technology was applied to students during Spring 2013 semester, and at the end of the course they were asked to fill in questionnaires for the purpose of receiving feedback to the course. The questionnaire consisted of seven closed-ended questions; six of them extended by additional space and provided by open-ended questions to elicit comments and receive detailed answers. On the whole, 33 students participated in the survey. Also, to find out if there was any progress/regress in the students’ performance, the results of assessment of their writing papers during midterm and final exams were considered.

4. PRACTICAL PART

The course offered to undergraduate students is an advanced level academic reading and writing course, in which they are expected to hold a research project on an academic topic of their choice. The learning objectives are as follows: to select a topic and review the related literature, to analyze and synthesize written sources, to develop a research question or a hypothesis, to design a methodology of the research and conduct interviews, observations or surveys, to analyze the collected data, and write a report on the findings by utilizing academic standards for citations and references. The report consists of an introduction, a literature review, a discussion part of the results of interviews and observations, and a conclusion. Students should also present their reports to their peers by the end of the semester.

In the course the frame technology was applied in combination with the learner-centred approach, i.e., students’ involvement into the design of course sequence and class activities, peer review and self-review were widely utilized to enhance the process of writing and increase motivation. The theme for the class research was set up by the teacher, and the students were supposed to select their own topics under its ‘umbrella’. Such kind of restrictions were imposed due to the following reasons: first, to exclude plagiarism. The ARW 2 course was delivered to about 400 students each semester; about 20 groups, each of 20 students, who study simultaneously. A vast amount of ready essays circulates around the campus and, though there is an electronic database of ARW 2 works kept by instructors which is regularly updated, there is a big possibility of using former works by students who take the course later. Second, setting up one theme for one class gives more opportunity for their working in pairs or in groups. This strategy enables students to work in teams and cope with possible difficulties in fulfilling assignments more smoothly.

First of all, students were familiarized with the structure of written paper and its volume, as a whole and its parts. Then, a step-by-step introduction of each stage of report writing and its training was assigned; on each stage the new material was introduced in the form of schemes, models and scenarios, and students were supplied with corresponding handouts.

The sequence of stages followed is given below:

1. Literature review. Students were taught how to find and evaluate the credibility of texts, to read them and summarize their content. At the initial stage, a whole class worked on one article selected by the instructor, so that students could share outcomes of their performance and assist each other in case of difficulty. The frame of article analysis was elaborated for students to familiarize them with the way articles are written. Then, they learnt how to synthesize the articles in order to develop a relevant literature review with suitable citations and relevant references.

2. Methodology. Students were taught how to design interview questions and questionnaires, and how to conduct interviews, observations and surveys.
3. Data analysis. This is the most challenging part of the course in the way that students experienced difficulties when analyzing and interpreting research findings.

4. Formatting. Lastly, students learnt how to create a coherent and cohesive text, framing it with introduction and conclusion, and producing a report on the implemented study.

This paper will focus on developing skills of writing a literature review with the application of frame technology, i.e., on developing the skills related to three basic issues – working with articles, analyzing and synthesizing them for the purpose of developing writing skills. When reading an article, students were familiarized with the structure of academic articles with outlined sections, i.e., introduction of the topic, literature published on the issue, design of an experiment, and the results. To find out the main idea of the article, a special attention of students was drawn on the article’s title, an abstract, and the conclusion. Also, an instruction was given to look at the first sentences of the paragraphs to elicit what they were about.

After reading and discussing the article, the students were provided with the Article Review form to perform the tasks and fill in the blanks: Student’s name, Title of the article, Briefly state the main idea(s) of this article, and How can you apply the ideas from this article to your research paper report, i.e., literature review, to introduce the topic of your research and give an overview of basic ideas, opinions and features (see the form in Appendix A). This form is filled in with all articles related to the project; on the whole, during the course the students needed to read five articles.

As a homework, students were offered to write a paragraph on the ideas from the article - a summary of information relevant to the student's topic. The text of the summary should have a certain structure (the topic sentence - states the purpose of the paragraph, it is a statement, an argument, or a claim; evidences to support the main idea - facts, examples, incidents, or statistics; and the concluding sentence - summarizes or re-emphasizes the main idea), the original text should be paraphrased and a reference be given to the source. Transition signal words and phrases should assist to maintain a cohesive and coherent text; students are preliminarily supplied with a list of guiding language. The ways of building up a cohesive and coherent paragraph were taught in the classroom by applying linking words and phrases. This assignment was applied to all articles read.

The following stage of working with articles was to generate the main points, found in the articles related to the topic of research, and accumulate them in one form to have a vivid picture of all ideas. Then, in the class the students were asked to fill in the Articles’ Overview form (Appendix A) based on the summaries they produced when working on each article. The form contained the following information: (1) Title of article/Chapter and Author; (2) Year of publication; (3) Name of Main Source; (4) Keywords; (5) Main points. This form was then utilized to fulfill the next assignment - to synthesize similar ideas from the articles and identify those ideas that contradict, or those that are just different from them. This task was given to students as a homework assignment: they were asked to fill in the Literature Review Grid of Common Points form (Appendix B). The first column should include the Author’s Names; blanks of the first line in the form should be filled in with the main ideas related to the project, e.g., the topic of Happiness may cover such issues as Culture, Meaning of Happiness, Types of Happiness, Social and Economic Factors, etc. Each student filled in the blanks in accordance to ideas found in academic articles and related to their project. Then, in the class the students utilized this form to build up paragraphs which synthesized common ideas of different authors into one paragraph, and then created a coherent and cohesive text with paragraphs on other issues by applying appropriate linking words and phrases. As a result, they produced a Literature Review of articles read which they then typed at home and brought to the next class for submission.
During the last lesson, the students were asked to fill in questionnaires to receive feedback to the course. It was conducted by a representative of the Office of Quality Assurance and Institutional Research; the teacher was not present, and the students did not indicate their names. The questionnaire consisted of seven response scale questions; six of them (excluding the last one) were extended to open-ended questions and provided space for writing comments. On the whole, the students gave positive feedback to the course, e.g., to Question 1 “How satisfied are you with the course?” 15 out of 33 answered “extremely satisfied”, 14 – “very satisfied” and 4 – “satisfied”. To Question 2 (Q2) “How well the course is organized”, 16 students replied “extremely well”, and 17 – “very well”. Below some comments given to Q2 are provided: “We wrote our project step-by-step”, “A well-structured, always shown ahead, followed by the slides and example”, “We didn’t have difficulties to write our paper. Everything was scheduled very well”. “Very interesting with different kind of studying. Very creative”, etc. Answers to Question 3 (“How well did the teaching meet your English learning needs?”) revealed that 15 students out of 33 replied “extremely well”, 15 – “very well”, and 3 – “well”. Question 4 “How well did the instructor respond to your questions?”: “extremely well” – 26, “very well” – 7; Question 5 “How useful were the materials used on the course?”: “extremely useful” – 16, “very useful” – 13, “useful” – 3, “moderately useful” – 1; Question 6 “Compare the course with previous courses you have studied in English. Was it better, about the same, or worse than previous courses?”: “much better” – 19, “a little better” – 9, “about the same” – 4, “little worse” -1. Lastly, to Question 7 “Would you recommend this course to other people?” 31 students replied “yes” and two of them answered “maybe”. On the whole, based on students’ comments, they appreciated the course structure and organization of lessons, a variety of activities, sufficiency of materials, and clarity of materials’ and tasks’ explanations.

5. CONCLUSION

The course of Academic English Writing 2 is a challenging one for students; it requires analytical and organizational skills of students, it refers to students’ insights and experiences in discussions of research and writing, and it encourages creativity in students for presenting multiple research and writing strategies and options. Teaching writing skills to students on the basis of different frame schemes contributes to better and clearer instructing the learners, and keeping them on track of their projects. The frame schemes also help to control the process, be persistent in academic integrity policies and make students avoid plagiarism. The students’ feedback on the course revealed a positive impact of the frame organization of the course on students’ final output; it gave a big impulse and encouraged the researchers to further develop frames for different writing activities.

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Appendix A. Template for article review

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author’ Name</th>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>Meaning of Happiness</th>
<th>Types of Happiness</th>
<th>Social &amp; Economic Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Author A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix B. Literature Review Grid of Common Points

**Research Question:** What is Happiness?

**Possible answers:** Culture, Meaning of Happiness, Types of Happiness, Social and Economic Factors, etc.

| Author A     |         |                       |                     |                           |
| Author B     |         |                       |                     |                           |
| Author C     |         |                       |                     |                           |
| Author D     |         |                       |                     |                           |
| Author E     |         |                       |                     |                           |
IMPACTS OF CYBERSPACE AND ELECTRONIC TOOLS ON BETTER LEARNING OF ESP

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ABSTRACT

With amazing speed in cyberspace, the internet, tablet, and mobile applications have been widely used in everyday life. Also, their availability in language learning and teaching has become very diverse so that their integration into traditional methods in language acquisition are significantly taken into account. We aimed to study the impacts of cyberspace tool-assisted language learning in better and more efficient learning of ESP among nursing students studying in Kashan University of Medical Sciences, Iran.

Key words: Cyberspace, mobile applications, ESP, nursing students, English language learning

1. INTRODUCTION

Cyberspace has found a significant status in everyday lives. It is used as a multiple purpose tool for various applications, ranging from information acquisition to language learning and teaching as well as daily communication.

With the skyrocket development of information communication technology (ICT), mobile phone and tablet have not only been used in communication, but also in language learning and teaching among students and teachers. Their fascinating application as well as portable tools and easy availability have increased operators tendencies toward using them willingly. The range of technologies now available can support learners and teachers in a variety of ways both inside the classroom and outside it, such as home environment and dormitory as well as while the learners are on the move about their daily lives. So, in recent years, most colleges and universities are willing to invest in electronic media for creating an autonomous electronic learning environment to help students learn foreign languages easily and efficiently. This has made a tremendous growth of ICT across the world in recent years. Many countries have invested in ICT in educational fields (Stanley, 2013).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Cyberspace tool-assisted language learning

Digital media has been used to enhance language learning for decades. Since the aim of language learning is to develop communicative proficiency, using in the classroom the communication devices and channels that already exist is a sensible way of exploiting opportunities for language practice. The ‘anywhere, anytime’ accessibility to educational contents that mobile SMSs, offer users, means that mobile learning can extend the opportunities for study outside the classroom (Asgari, 2016).

Cyberspace tool-assisted language learning refers to techniques, approaches or actions that help students in their learning process. Undoubtedly, media and communication technologies play a significant role in our daily lives. Today, wireless
technologies surround people and are increasingly becoming integrated into every waking moment and a part of individuals' lifestyle.

Nowadays, digital literacy is also particularly significant, as children are bombarded daily by an array of digital texts, and it is particularly important that they learn to understand the nuance of media types that surround them in the physical world as well as on the internet (Stanley, 2013). In addition, it is able to support a variety of learning activities and students are also ready to use it for learning (Oyelere, Suhonen, & Sutinen, 2016).

Digital literacy can encompass a variety of English learning activities as well as ESP and meet specific needs of learners. For applying and using it by students efficiently, a more specially designed English course module should be developed to enhance their medical English proficiency (Asgari, 2014).

2.2 Technology and Education

It is evident that technology has changed the world, especially the word of communication, and its impact on human's everyday and professional life as well as learning and educational systems is mounting. The social aspect of interaction of digital communication tools can lead the learners to language development. Applying them can facilitate learning and make them easier for learners to exchange their classmates' learning experiences even to students from different parts of the world, especially through telecollaboration. In fact, technology and education have a tightly intertwined future. Therefore, the increase in investment in ICT by education departments around the world has been documented (Slaouti, Onat-Stelma, & Motteram, 2013).

2.3 Mobile applications (apps)

Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) is language learning that is assisted or enhanced through the use of a handheld mobile device. MALL is a subset of both Mobile Learning (m-learning) and computer-assisted language learning (CALL). MALL has evolved to support students' language learning with the increased use of mobile technologies, such as mobile phones (cellphones).

Mobile applications are another necessary aspect of our daily lives. Smart devices (both phones and tablets) feature dedicated software applications that can be used to assist language learning. Many apps have the more specific purpose of helping to develop reading and writing (Stanley, 2013). Therefore, Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) has emerged in the modern era of education. It is one of the most interesting emerging types of technology-enhanced learning, especially now that mobile devices are carried out by more and more people every day and that the mobile phone has evolved from a simple voice device to a multimedia communication tool capable of downloading and uploading text, data, audio, and video. The spreading of mobile phones globally is an unmatched event in the history of technology (Slaouti et.al, 2013).

3. RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 Participants

In this study, 86 Iranian nursing students from Kashan University of Medical Sciences, IRAN, including 26 (30.23%) males and 60 (69.76%) females, studying ESP in the second year participated. They had their English classes in their nursing
college, where students had to follow their educational curriculum, select suitable exercises and communicate with peers and teachers through traditional methods.

3.2 Data collection and analysis

Questionnaire is one of the most common research methods. So, a questionnaire was designed to study the impacts of cyberspace tool-assisted language learning in better and more efficient understanding of ESP among nursing students studying in Kashan University of Medical Sciences. It consisted of 16 multiple choice questions in four fields including: students’ knowledge, time assigned to use media, impact of cyberspace tool-assisted language learning, and students’ desire to use them. It also involved three open-ended questions. A descriptive method was used to analyze the questions. In order to make the study accurate, before the investigation, the teacher made it clear to the participants that the questionnaire would have no influence on their academic achievement and honest responses would be very important for the study. It took the participants about 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. After the completion, the questionnaires were collected at once for data analysis.

4. DISCUSSION

Of 86 students, 80 students (68.80%) were aware of the impacts of cyberspace and electronic media. When they were asked how much time they spend using them daily, the average time was 2-3 hours per day. Concerning the impact of cyberspace and electronic media on English language learning 75 (64.5%) students agreed they have strong impacts on learning. And 82 (70%) students showed their desire toward using them provided the sufficient ground is provided by their teachers and college. Concerning their motivation in using electronic media (e.g. mobile and tablet) for doing class activities and homework as a part of ESP educational curriculum, 70 (60.2%) answered they strongly agree, given the suitable environment. For designing and implementing the curriculum, they agreed and presented their readiness because they believed it can enhance learning ESP.

5. OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES

Opportunities, tendency, and willingness are provided by teachers and students alike for applying cyberspace tool-assisted language learning for learning and better understanding ESP, but some obstacles, such as limitation of sources and financial support, make applying them difficult for both teachers and students.

6. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

From the above investigation and analysis, it is evident that there are some tendencies and willingness among nursing students in using cyberspace tool-assisted and mobile autonomous learning in ESP. However, implementing these electronic media demand some strategies. Firstly, college foreign language teachers should design a sufficient pedagogical curriculum when they are going to train learners in ESP. Then, teachers should try to know learners’ strategy use at the beginning of the course and help learners to know their strategy use and encourage them to try to use it. Third, college foreign language teachers should improve learners’ awareness of using the social/affective strategies in their reading performance. Nursing students should be encouraged to attend to various English reading and writing activities. Teachers should help them learn how to cooperate with others and become more confident. Besides, college foreign language
teachers should try to provide various reading materials and create a variety of suitable activities for students. In this way, students may improve their ESP comprehension and make a great progress as soon as possible.

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POLITICAL TERMS IN PERSIAN

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ABSTRACT

After twenty years of teaching English to students of political science and other related disciplines at IKIU and other Iranian universities, I came across widespread problems in reading and understanding the English specialized texts among Iranian university students of political science and international relations disciplines. One of the problems is the major focus on translation of the ideas and theories of English sources from either Anglo-Saxon countries or other English academic writings and thus non-English thinkers and writings are neglected. After more than 2 decades of its work, the Iranian Governmental Academy of Science and Persian Language has counted 368 political terms, which could not be translated with the help of native words, while some other academies and university faculties have found more than 1500 and even 1700 that are difficult to translate. Due to the lack of proper equivalents in Persian, a wide range of transliterations for some terms such as “hegemony”, “fraction”, “committee” and “commission” are used, which has risen another problem of reading as well as understanding the similarities and the differences between the terms. A rather more frequent problem is interpretation of some terms, such as “democracy” and “secularism” as different meanings are confusing for even academics. This essay is a report of a work with 17,000 headwords, 26,000 entries gathered from more than 120 encyclopedias and translated political or related books in Persian and tries to suggest another way to choose a better equivalent.

Key words: Politics, translation, equivalents, English, Persian

INTRODUCTION

One of the features of political science and its branches, including international relations, is its close relationship with politics and government at three - global, regional and local - levels and, more importantly, the prevalent thoughts and theories of politics. It is from this notion that the concept of international language has throughout the history come out and thus the English language is considered nowadays such a language after a long dominance of Greek, Latin, Arabic and French.

Therefore, there was always a need for translating ideas and orders and thus the language of the hegemonic politics was the most important function of transferring concepts and values and explaining views, the perfect examples of which can be seen in many written and verbal works of Cicero's translations from Greek to Latin, the descriptive history provided by Herodotus, and the Chinese translations that originated from the Buddhist sutras during the Han Dynasty.

Translation in Iran started since the Sassanid kings of Ardashir Babakan and Shahpur who sent some merchants to fetch books and articles from India and Rome for translations into Pahlavi language. It is narrated that the king Anushirvan (531-579) was acquainted with the philosophy of Plato and Aristotle and used to read their books in Pahlavi (Safa, 2010, p. 33
cited in Fouladvand, (1389 [2010]), p. 38) Translation was much favored by the Abbasid Caliphs, especially during the time of Ma’mun who developed the Beit-ol-Hekmah (House of Wisdom) by gathering all academic books from Indian, Persian, Greek and Latin languages and translating them into Arabic (Lyons, 2010).

In contemporary Iran, the translation attempt started after the Iran-Russia wars of the 19th century in which Iranians found their backwardness from the European science and technology. Soon after the Qajar dynasty and especially Naser-ol-Din Shah started sending students to European countries, employing academics for the new-built Dar-ol-Fonoun (House of Techniques) and establishing Naseri Dar-ol-Tarjomeh (House of Translation). This new wave of translation, although with many ups and downs, has continued so far with Franklin Publishing Company in Pahlavi era and a number of more governmental and non-governmental publications in the Islamic Republic.

But the problem still remains during all this long history that translation has always been prescriptive, which means that somebody tells the translators how they should translate and there seems to be no translation theory beyond all these influential works. This essay is a report of a glossary work with 17,000 headwords, 26,000 entries from more than 120 glossaries and translated Persian books in Persian language and tries to show the three difficulties that exist in translation, transliteration and interpretation of politics-related terms and to suggest a way to choose a better equivalence.

TRANSLATION

The simple definition of translation is changing the words from one language for words from another. However, it is not as simple as the work of knowing the meanings of only words as to localize an idea. A translator may have to run the process of changing something into a different language and thus has to know the meaning of the whole sentence (Merriam Webster Dictionary, n.d.). Accordingly, translation is an interdisciplinary work that needs to borrow much from the various fields of study, including comparative literature, computer science, history, linguistics, philology, philosophy, and other related fields of study, such as politics.

However, most Iranian translators do not have any such required background, thus their translations lack the needed academic qualifications. As an example, one popular translator of political texts, Alireza Tahyib (1993; 1997;1998), is an MA graduate of political science, but has either alone or with co-authors, so far translated more than 20 books where in nearly every other one he has suggested different equivalents for the term “area studies” in three of his translations. Even through all its nearly 30 years of work, the Iranian Academy of Persian Language and Literature could not solve the problem of different equivalences as it itself has not been clear in giving determinant propositions for terms such as “commission” and “analysis”. Another example is the different equivalents for the term “value” in which 23 translators adopted equivalents different from that of the Academy preference (Persian Academy, n.d.).

Although the books have been published by well-known public and private sectors, as there is no qualifications test what so ever for translators, even if there is a monitoring translator, he/she would not necessarily be a more qualified one. Either there is no reviewer to check the quality of translation or the reviewer, if any, is less qualified than the primary translator, so that an effective revision is usually less possible.
Transliteration

Transliteration is another considerable problem that ought not to be confused with translation. In contrast to translation, transliteration seeks to render the sound of one language into the script or form of another with no attendant interpretation or translation of meaning (Dictionary.com, n.d.). E.g. a spoken English dialect written using alphabetic characters or spoken represented in a signed form of Persian. There exist plenty English terms written and spoken in Persian alphabet with no equivalence for. Examples are “committee” and “conference” that are dialectic in Persian.

Interpretation

Interpretation is another important type of translation which usually describes immediate changing of source (oral or text) orally (or by sign language). Thus, it is different from written translation which is the change of source to text in a rather more time and much access resources, such as dictionaries and glossaries. In the interpretation process, where ramifications of misinterpretation may be dire, accuracy is paramount. Although translators have enough time to consider and revise each word and sentence before delivering their product to the client, the goal of interpretation is to achieve maximum accuracy at all times, thus details of the original (source) speech can be missed. In any language, including sign languages, when a word is used for which there is no exact match, expansion may be necessary in order to fully interpret the intended meaning of the word. From this expansion is that many political terms are interpreted differently from what has originally been coined or previously been translated. This is why in different speeches, the terms such as “democracy”, “nation”, “state”, “government” and “secularism” have found various and even contending meanings.

CONCLUSION

In response to this malfunctioning, the English-Persian Comparative Dictionary of Political Words and Compounds (Navazeni, 2013) has gathered around 18,000 headwords, 26,000 words and phrases with more than 34,000 references to more than 120 encyclopedias and academic translated books from English political terms, including the ones proposed by the Academy of Persian Languages and Literature. As these are alphabetically sorted, an academic translator may find different meaning propositions by famous translators, as, for example, 72 times for the term “state”, 42 times for “approach”, 40 times for “power” and 27 times for “government”, after which he/she may decide on the translation more suitable for either word-to-word or sense-to-sense translation. In this way, one may easily find the most and the least frequencies of the equivalences given and obtain the equivalent for the word “politics”, which is common among 21 out of 26 translators and for “power” what is common among 26 out of 40 ones.

REFERENCES


PEER ASSESSMENT IN LEARNING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE - MYTHS AND REALITY

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ABSTRACT

The present work concerns one of the methods of assessing EFL learners' language skills and peer assessment. Peer assessment is seen in modern methodology of foreign and second language teaching as one of the forms of assessment along with teacher and self-assessment. The positive and negative aspects of such procedures, their impact on L2 learners' progress, mood and motivation in language learning and acquisition are discussed in it. The study based on a literature review and the survey of teachers also aims to reveal how much feasible peer assessment is and what obstacles its implementation faces in EFL classrooms.

Key words: Peer assessment, EFL, self-assessment, motivation

In modern era, peer assessment has attracted the attention of many educators (Rollinson, 2005; Min, 2005; Brown, 2004; Patri, 2002), especially of second and foreign language teachers due to the fact that it gives an opportunity to learners to become more autonomous and independent during the educational process, thus making it more efficient. Although many teachers are aware of the effectiveness of this kind of assessment, most teachers use traditional assessment methods, such as testing, providing learners' with feedback, immediate correction of mistakes, etc.

According to Rollinson (2005), peer response has gained importance in both L1 and L2 writing classes because of its cognitive, affective, social and methodological advantages. Peer assessment particularly, which requires from students to write comments for their classmates, has become popular in EFL classes due to diminishing the duration of time many EFL teachers spend on checking students' written works. It also assists students to develop the ability of critical thinking by means of writing comments and revising written comments as many times as they desire (Min, 2005; Rollinson, 2005). This kind of environment enables students to develop communication among each other skills, which leads to the improvement of real communicative atmosphere. Besides, classroom skills, such as team working, social skills and collaboration strategies can be improved with the help of peer review by providing autonomous learning area for learners. This will prepare students for more independence in the workplace (Kagan, 1992). Moreover, students who are involved in the evaluation process will be more attentive to assess their own learning as they will start to think critically and the learning atmosphere will be far from traditional assessment due to the fact that the class will be student-centered.

According to Falchikov (1995), the process performed by a group of individuals in an educational setting in which they evaluate their peers with or without agreed criteria among teachers and students is defined as peer assessment. Topping (1998) described peer review as “an arrangement in which individuals consider the amount, level, value, worth, quality, or success of the products or outcomes of learning of peers of similar status” (p.250). Davies (2006) highlighted that students...
should be included in the process of peer assessment by marking and writing comments on learning outcomes of their peers and being criticized according to their judgements.

**Benefits of Peer Assessment**

Peer assessment has certain advantages which are confirmed by many researchers. For instance, Patri (2002) claims that when students are able to assess their own success and the value of their products and those of their peers, most probably they will be able to comprehend evaluation benchmark. According to Brown (2004), learners are led to decide their own fate in both self- and peer assessment, and these assessments enable them to be autonomous and motivated. It is crucial for both teachers and learners that they should be involved in the process and deal with assessment criteria, apply methods and products of evaluation and besides that, comprehend the logic lying behind assessment (Cheng and Warren, 2005). Devenney (1998) maintained that peer and teacher assessment differ in roles and functions due to the fact that while teacher assessment is a summative assessment which focuses on products of learners, peer assessment is a tool for judging the ongoing learning process. According to Patri (2002), peer assessment and assessment involvement have a vital pedagogical value. Many advocates of peer assessment support the idea that peer assessment activates student participation as it involves students during the assessment process and it enables educators to make lessons more student-centered than teacher-centered. Orsmond & Merry (1996) support the idea that most students believe that teachers' judgments are more correct than those of peers, which might be not always true. Some studies conducted in the past reveal that there was a positive correlation between teacher assessments and learner assessments (Falchikov & Goldfinch, 2000; Topping, 1996). Nilson (2003) supported the idea that peer learning and judgement are really impressive, as they improve learners' communication, critical thinking, lifelong learning and cooperative abilities. Topping (1998) maintained that peer assessment can both boost the amount of feedback and increase critical thinking.

Benefits of peer assessment are limited not solely to critical thinking, but also include lifelong learning and communicative and cooperative skills. It enhances motivation of students, as teacher responsibility is shared with them, which enables learners to participate actively in the educational process. Particularly, Sivan (2000) noted that when students are directly involved in the learning operation, their feeling of ownership and independency is enhanced. It enables learners to become active and independent (Orsmond and Merry, 1996; Sivan, 2000). Furthermore, due to enhancing the use of group projects at universities (Cheng & Warren, 2000), peer assessment is a useful tool as it gives a good opportunity to diagnose personal contributions from group outcomes (Cheng & Warren, 2000; Goldfinch, 1994; Goldfinch & Raeside, 1990; Johnston & Miles, 2014; Li, 2001). Generally, peer assessment occurs in group studies. Therefore, Brown (2004) indicated that collaborative learning is a vital proof of peer assessment and it is a great opportunity for learners. Moreover, according to Williams's (1992) study, peer and self-assessment are quite practical, attractive and enjoyable for most students. Finally, peer assessment is worth using as an efficient tool in EFL and ESL classrooms, owing to its motivating and involving power. Although there are actual difficulties to teach students how to become more autonomous and good evaluators, students will be fair and objective learners for their teachers, peers and for themselves, furthermore, they will understand the procedure.
Disadvantages of Peer Assessment

Although there are a great number of advantages of peer assessment, there are some disadvantages in it as well. In particular, it was reported that students who were asked to evaluate their peers felt uncomfortable and hesitated to assess others owing to their personal perception of inability (Cheng and Warren, 2005). According to Freeman (1995), appropriate training and practice are crucial elements to be objective. Patri (2002) supported the idea by indicating that peer assessment, training and experience are essential to carry out efficient peer evaluation. Peer assessment is time-consuming, as special training, preparation and mentoring are required (Cheng & Warren, 1997, 1999; Falchikov, 2005; Topping, 1998). Moreover, Brown (2004) emphasized that subjectivity is the main weak point of peer assessment, which must be analyzed and understood anew. Peer assessment has mainly two problems. The first trouble is that students might be too critical. As for the second one, students might be too partial towards their mates. Besides that, learners might be reluctant and anxious (at least at the beginning) to evaluate their peers (Falchikov, 2005; Topping, 1998).

There are other factors which may impact the effectiveness of peer assessment as some researchers have implied. For example, students may focus on surface errors of peer texts (Leki, 1990) instead of global criteria, such as content and organization in giving feedback to others in writing activity. Peer comments or quality of feedback are likely to be influenced by assessor students’ background knowledge and their perceptions. Mangelsdorf and Schlumberger (1992) support the idea by stating that the experience of students with English writing instruction is influenced by the perceptions of L2 student reviewers. For instance, the same authors maintained that L2 learners who are affected by the peculiarities of (previous) English writing instruction may focus on correctness in writing more than on meaning and, therefore, their feedback would be based more on form than on content. Additionally, education framework may be one of the factors which cause students to differ in peer comments. The research on L1 writing reveals that perceptions of L1 instructors might vitally and consistently influence students’ perceptions, thus peer comments also will be done in the same manner (Newkirk, 1984).

Analysis of Survey

To add more contours to the picture describing peer assessment in teaching writing in English as a foreign/second language classrooms at secondary schools, it is necessary to attentively analyze surveys of English teachers in various countries in this respect. Twenty secondary schools teachers, both public and private in the capital and in the regions of Georgia representing various nations, such as Turkish, Azeri and Georgian, were surveyed. According to the survey results, to the first question, nineteen teachers responded positively by confirming their usage of peer assessment during the lesson. Only one teacher denied using peer assessment in the class. The frequency of using peer assessment in the EFL classrooms is indicated in the survey as “sometimes” by seventeen teachers, while one teacher claimed that she/he often uses it, and one more - rarely. Moreover, there is a teacher who never uses peer assessment at all. As for the third question concerning the reaction of students towards peer assessment, 17 teachers’ observation of the class environment in this respect was positive, whilst the rest - three teachers - implied that the students reacted negatively. Learners mainly tried to defend their mates while evaluating their peers.

Fourteen teachers out of those surveyed considered that peer assessment causes conflict between students and according to three teachers, it may result in a waste of time. Furthermore, one teacher described one more problem related to the above, such as evaluating and commenting on a classmate’s performance unnecessarily rather than being fair. However, two teachers supported the opposing idea and believed that it brings about no trouble during the peer evaluation.
participant teachers agreed concerning the advantages of peer assessment. Most of them (12) assert that it enables students improve their learning skills and the others (8) mainly consider it constitutes better cooperation between students. The response to the query about the most effective assessment form in TEFL varies among the teachers. The most efficient form was immediate correction for eight teachers; peer assessment for three teachers; self-assessment and peer assessment together for three teachers; and finally, peer assessment together with immediate correction for two teachers. As for the least effective assessment method – it has a range of responses as well. While eight teachers believed that teacher’s delayed feedback has the lowest effect in evaluation, the same number of teachers claimed that immediate correction is the least efficient form for assessing pupils. Among the rest of the surveyed teachers, three of them still considered self-assessment as the least effective form and only one teacher asserted that peer assessment is the least effective form. When asked to compare which language is easier to peer-assess - spoken or written, ten teachers saw no difference between the procedures; nine teachers believe that written language is easier to evaluate for learners. Only one teacher considers that spoken language is easier in this respect. Peer assessment is more effective not only for assessing pupils, but also for assessed pupils, according to most teachers (16), while four teachers claimed that it is more effective only for assessed pupils. To sum up, it can be stated that peer assessment has definite advantages which can be efficiently applied in EFL classroom, especially for developing skills of writing in learners; as for obstacles and cons of such a form of evaluation, they can be avoided by means of careful planning of various assessment procedures by EFL teachers and preliminary work with students. The survey of language teachers indicates that the potential of peer assessment is only partially used by them and the awareness concerning the benefits of such activities must be enhanced in FL instructors.

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MODERN STYLISTICS - LESS EMPIRICAL, MORE OBJECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

The paper deals with the modern methods of stylistic analysis of literary and non-literary texts, films, and various forms of multimedia. The prevailing current trend of shifting towards more ingenious, more objective methods of interpretation and thus of better understanding of any medium of discourse is discussed in it. These include: transitivity and modality analysis, text world theory, schema theory, corpus linguistics, speech act and politeness theories, etc. Such forms of decoding literary and non-literary works enable us to avoid subjective, emotionally-colored evaluation and help detect true qualities of any work.

Key words: Stylistics, literary and non-literary texts, Pragmatics, Corpus Linguistics

Judging a literary piece of work - whether a poem, a novel or a short story - has always been and still is a subjective and emotional, controversial and yet extremely attractive matter as the medium itself is. Time as if drains off, sifts bad through good and what remains on the bookshelves is reader-worthy. However, what criteria do we apply when through decades and centuries assess and reassess authors and how can we guarantee that worthless writings of contemporaries do not occupy our time and space?

In recent years much work has been done to avoid as stylistics specialists and literary critics term it “subjective emotionalism” and “interpretative positivism or negativism” when putting a literary work to scrutiny and duly or unduly criticizing or praising its author. Thus, to arrive at more objectivity, stylistic research has transformed into a discipline balanced between qualitative and quantitative studies like other branches of linguistics proper and many fields of research, in general.

To have a clear idea which criteria are applied when endeavouring to analyze a literary work, it is noteworthy to get acquainted with prototypical features of literature as presented in “Stylistics” by Jeffries and McIntyre (2010):

- Formal distinctiveness and a focus on the language of the text (i.e. foregrounding through deviation and parallelism)
- Representational distinctiveness (defamiliarisation through foregrounding)
- Specific competence of readers in understanding the fictional world of the text
- High status in the society where it is produced and read
- A focus on the content (message) for its own sake (p.64).

The words quoted clearly indicate how much importance is attached to defamiliarization implemented by means of foregrounding, the latter, in its turn, achieved through parallelism and deviation. Thus, a writer is regarded as mediocre or...
even bad if there is no foregrounding of mundane events, persons, phenomena, etc. from the level of ordinary life up to the status of fiction.

However, if deviation or parallelism are unjustified, the writing is again regarded as faulty by publishing houses (the houses which are equipped with the above knowledge, and not by those editors for whom such information is virtually non-existent).

Reader-centeredness is a new characteristic of modern stylistics. The field in an analogous way with other sub-fields of linguistics borrowed from sociology the tendency to understand certain issues of it through vox populi. In stylistics it is implemented much similarly as in sociology by pinpointing target population, compiling survey questionnaires and eliciting the point of view of interviewees. The targeted person in this case has to possess a certain degree of competence of a reader in order to sensibly evaluate a piece of written work. Collecting, comparing and analyzing the likes and the dislikes of the reading audience help depict objectively and impartially the worthiness of literary creation (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010).

Merging pragmatics and stylistics is an attempt to measure how much pragmatically sound a work is, how much it lends itself to pragmatic interpretation and how much feasible results that interpretation yields. On the other hand, literature, especially prose, provides pragmatics with valuable resources to base their analysis on, further refining pragmatic theories, discovering more intricate details of human interaction. Thus, Speech Act theory with its distinction between locutionary and illocutionary acts and perlocutionary effect, between direct and indirect speech acts, speech acts like performatives and constatives, etc. Politeness Theory differentiating between positive and negative faces, Relevance Theory, Gricean maxims and the cases of their violation, etc. facilitate deciphering conversations, interactions, reflector’s and narrator’s train of discourse, enable deeply delving into the writer’s intention, nuances of meaning hinted at the reader or viewer by book writer or film producer (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010).

For example, Relevance Theory, in particular, teaches to look for and aids in finding subtle instances of irony with its focus on implicature. The theory is thus very much valuable, as there are many cases of failing to notice irony and thus involuntarily ignoring true merits of the writer (Black, 2006).

The principles of heteroglossia and hybrid language based on sociolinguistic studies of the language which disclose whether the writer is skilful enough to present the diversity of voices of humans and even of non-humans in his/her works, i.e., dialects, accents, slang, jargon, genderlect, etc. of people and communities depicted in the literary work and whether it is achieved in a laudable and competent way (Black, 2006). Thus, the inability to relevantly convey voices uttered and even not uttered and remaining as thoughts puts writers lower on a rating scale. Moreover, presenting speech and thought of any thinking or less intelligent creature (e.g., animals and birds) requires a certain amount of expertise. The models of categorization of discourse presentation existing in modern stylistics can be used as an objective tool to judge the qualities of any text in this respect (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010).

Corpus linguistics is one of the most innovative and powerful mechanisms to judge the good and the bad of any author, to dissect the work into its most immediate constituents and to count the uncountable. Corpus linguistics allows putting aside subjective, emotional and empirical judgment. For example, what sort of word combinations a writer uses, i.e., chunks of two or more words- clichéd or freshly selected? This criterion is one of the most distinguishing and salient at the same time for characterizing the writer’s style. Language corpora, especially in case of English, even the simplest Google search
enables with great certainty to claim whether collocations belong to the author or not. In language electronic corpora tools like n-grams and MI help determine local textual function. Such tools assist in understanding whether a text has a negative, positive or neutral shading which may not be overt and easily detectable on the surface (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010).

The emergence of the new technologies had a natural fascination for researchers of any sphere. However, there is a trend of abusing its possibilities for stylistic analysis. Misuse of various programs –language corpora – brought about too much reliance on quantitative data and ignoring qualitative approach to text interpretation. Some researches start and end their particular studies with data obtained through different corpora. Nevertheless, statistics, even in stylistic analysis, greatly assists in getting a realistic, objective picture of any text. Thus, corpus linguistics helps maintain the equilibrium between qualitative and quantitative studies, to redress the blemishes that purely empirical analysis may cause, to avoid subjective emotional judgment, to pinpoint the nuances which may be unnoticeable during a superficial study of the text.

One of the recent methods of stylistic analysis is based on the multi-dimensional approach to understanding any language - Systemic-Functional Grammar by Michael Halliday. Although this approach is not fully refined, often has controversial and tentative results, it unfolds otherwise unnoticeable layers of text. In particular, transitivity and modality categories postulated in it help spot in a text lexical, syntactic and morphological means, shading it either positively or negatively or making it neutral; furthermore, help understand by means of which resources passivity or activeness of characters, events, actions, etc. are achieved in the text (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010).

Schema Theory is one more new method of understanding text from an absolutely different angle and represents an attempt to transfer some psychological concepts to stylistic analysis. The theory enables fathoming how our mind, the matrix of mentality, knowledge, and experience decode text and construct meaning out of it. Furthermore, the theory explains how any text enriches our schemata and helps understand a certain phenomenon better or even fully (in case of good writers) or contribute to no schema enhancement (in case of worthless writings) (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010).

Why some writers are more involving, making reader conjure up vividly whatever they depict, their writings instantly transfer readers into the text world created by them, while there are books one can hardly read to the end, and cannot anyhow capture readers’ mind or induce imagination? The answer lies in Text World Theory with its focus on deixis (deictic shift, for instance), on frames (contextual frame theory), on world switch, etc. and the theory represents one of the most powerful and objective tools for understanding any text in this respect (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010).

Thus, modern stylistics has at its disposal a range of methods and approaches of objective and impartial analysis of any text (literary or non-literary), plus, of any medium of expression. These tools enable avoiding emotional subjectivity and interpretative subjectivism or positivism caused by various factors which emerge during the analysis.

REFERENCES


PRACTICAL USE OF THE INTERNET IN TEACHING

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ABSTRACT

Today we have reached the level when computer literacy of a student should be sufficient to operate freely on a personal computer as a user. This development, dictated by the time, indeed shows the level of development of the economy and moral values of a society. The time of simple transfer of knowledge has long passed. Today in training a special emphasis is placed on the student’s own work in searching, processing and realization of new knowledge. The teacher acts as the organizer of the learning process, the instructor facilitates the students and provides them with the necessary assistance and support. An improvement of quality in teaching may not be expected without including internet but not using the new technologies in education is also unreasonable. Perhaps today we can already say that Internet technologies are part of the information culture of the teacher and students.

Key words: Internet, foreign language teaching, authentic, communication

INTRODUCTION

Informational educational space is just starting to fill. In order to avoid lack of consistency and incompetence, it is necessary that teachers with many years of experience make their contribution to replenishment of this informational resource. The emergence of the Internet as one more powerful instrument in education stimulates the willingness of students to study, expands the zone of individual activity of each student, and increases the speed of delivery of quality material within the framework of one lesson. The stages of teaching should be reviewed and analyzed from this point of view.

Internet creates a unique opportunity for learners of foreign language to use authentic texts, listen to and communicate with native speakers, i.e. it creates a natural language environment. The problem is to integrate it in the real learning process with only three hours per week as contact hours.

The main purpose is the formation of communicative competence and all the remaining purposes are implemented in the process of realization of this main purpose. In the modern sense, communicative competence implies the formation of ability of intercultural interaction. This purpose is the most demanded by any category of learners of foreign language. Even if the further specialization of the graduate student is not related to traveling abroad, contacts with international specialists, using the worldwide web – Internet - becomes a more and more necessary condition for receiving and conveying information in any specialty. An educated person may be demanded under conditions of rapidly developing technologies of the developed countries of the world and should possess information in his area of specialization. Modern
means of communication with partners, access to information resources in the Internet suggest having rather good computer skills as well as foreign language skills.

The specific nature of the subject “Foreign Language” is that the leading component of the content of learning a foreign language is learning of various kinds of speech activity: speaking, listening comprehension, reading, and writing. For teaching various kinds of speech activities to learners it is necessary to provide each student with practice in the kind of speech activity which he/she is mastering is the given period of time. Accordingly, priority in learning a foreign language is given to oral exercises. This is the specific nature of the subject and the main difficulty of teaching, especially when we talk about the formation of speaking skills.

One more peculiarity of the subject “Foreign Language” should be mentioned. A speech activity may be taught only during real-life communication. The communicative competence is closely connected with the linguistic one, as well as cultural and cross-cultural competence. Therefore, the system of teaching a foreign language should be structured in a way that the learners are given an opportunity to become acquainted with the culture of the target language country. For example, at the end of each chapter we familiarize students with historic cities of Russia which are distinguished for their culture. Using the Internet, we show them a video and try to teach the students to respect the manifestations of this culture, i.e. have an ability of cross-cultural interaction.

It is important to understand for what purposes we are going to use the capacities and resources of the Internet. The purposes may be: inclusion of the web materials in the content of the lesson; independent search of information by learners while working on a project or presentation; independent learning, deepening of knowledge of the foreign language, and elimination of gaps in knowledge and skills.

Naturally, surfing the Internet during the lecture is practically excluded in many universities. It is hardly possible to find any acceptable amount of foreign language classrooms in our universities which are equipped with sufficient number of computers having access to the Internet. However, it should be mentioned that teachers of IBSU, having only one computer in the classroom and access to the Internet try to use even this small opportunity during the classes, using a projector. It should be considered that many families have computers connected to the Internet at home and the teacher should take this opportunity into consideration.

We can really rely on the capacities of the Internet to provide us with the following opportunities: the teacher may select authentic materials for reading related to the topic of the speech activity from his/her home computer before the lecture; hold an oral discussion of the letters received by email from project partners; discuss this or that problematic information in the cooperation groups and afterwards organize a joint discussion of the entire group; carry out linguistic analysis of certain messages, oral or written expressions.

However, the opportunities are not limited to the above examples of using Internet resources at the lecture. A teacher’s creative potential will dictate him/her the area of search, while his/her professionalism will give him/her an impetus for interesting discoveries and solutions.

The following didactic tasks are solved while using the Internet. As a result, the student can: develop his/her vocabulary of a modern foreign language, reflect over a specific stage of development of the nation’s culture, social and political system of society; gain culture-related knowledge, including speech etiquette, peculiarities of culture, traditions of the target language country form a stable motivation of foreign language activity of learners at the lecture on the basis of systematic use of “live” materials, discussion of not only issues related to the texts, but also the urgent problems which are interesting for everybody.
It is particularly interesting to use the Internet materials when working on a project or a presentation. Chat, teleconference or e-mail services may also be used to know the opinion of the native speakers, citizens of the target language country regarding this or that problem and discuss several points of view on the same problem at the lecture.

Currently, students of non-philological majors are taught according to two models. The first model (elementary course) takes 3 hours per week. Teaching normally begins from the freshman year. The minimum number of hours for the implementation of this course is 2-3 hours per week during two years. The second model (basic course) - teaching of the subject begins from the sophomore year. At the junior year the students either deepen the basic course or choose the option of profile-oriented learning (3 hours per week) depending on their majors: humanities, economics, etc.

The use of the Internet resources by the learners during the classes is mostly difficult. Therefore, the best solution will be to use the preliminarily found and prepared authentic Internet materials at the lecture, especially those materials which cannot be offered by a traditional textbook.

Learners and teachers can find any information necessary for the projects on the Internet: about museums and their exhibits all over the world, current events in various parts of the world and reaction of people to these events, the ecological situation in various parts of the world, national holidays, statistical data of diverse issues, etc.

Electronic mail, i.e. e-mail, seems to be the most popular and important Internet service. 20 million people communicate by e-mail on a daily basis. Almost all users have an e-mail address (Polat, 2000).

**Conclusion.** The issue of integration of Internet in education and, in particular, using it in teaching foreign languages is rather important currently. This is mainly connected with the fact that when using Internet as a means of teaching a foreign language many goals and tasks of teaching and education are realized in the best way possible (Vladimirova, 2002). The main goal of teaching a foreign language is to educate a personality willing and able to start an intercultural communication, versatile students of universities successful in their activities, professionals willing and able to receive a self-education. Participation in diverse international programs, opportunity to study abroad offer not only high level of knowledge of a foreign language but also definite personality characteristics: interpersonal skills, lack of language barrier, knowledge of norms of international etiquette. For achievement of the above goals, use of Internet resources in teaching foreign languages provides an effective assistance to teachers.

We hope that working with Internet as the means of teaching a foreign language will become a part of everyday practice of teaching of all universities. The necessary preconditions have already been created for that and the use of Internet in teaching foreign languages gradually materializes from discussions and theoretical searches into actions (Polyakov, 1996).

**REFERENCES**


LEARNING HOW TO LEARN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (ENGLISH): A SURVEY OF GEORGIAN ADOLESCENTS

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ABSTRACT

Metacognition, which is a high level of thinking and controls the cognitive process in learning, contributes to successful foreign language learning. Metacognition is promoted in the description of foreign language program created by the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia with a focus on teaching learners how to learn. The goal of the paper is to investigate what Georgian adolescents know about their foreign language learning skills. For this purpose a survey was conducted among sixty adolescents at the age of 12-18 in Kakheti region of Georgia in December, 2015. The obtained data suggested that the majority of the individuals in the study had a positive attitude to foreign language learning, and over half of the participants of the study believed that they had efficient skills to learn a foreign language; however, the same number of the students needed a special disposition to practice a foreign language. The results revealed some inconsistency in the adolescents’ answers. They need more instructional hours on learning how to learn a foreign language. Teachers should help students to develop stronger learning skills by assisting them to learn to think about what happens during the language learning process.

Keywords: Metacognition, attitudes to L2, adolescents as foreign language learners

INTRODUCTION

Metacognition plays a vital role in successful foreign language (FL) learning. Recent studies support the idea that learning strategies can contribute to better learning performance. Flavell (1979) first defined metacognition as "one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them" by describing three main areas of knowledge about cognition that may help learners improve their learning processes: a) knowledge about oneself, b) knowledge about the learning task, and c) knowledge of strategies available to complete that task (p. 232). Metacognition is a high level of thinking which controls the cognitive process in learning, making one a successful learner. In other words, metacognition is thinking about thinking, thus linked to intelligence. It encompasses basic knowledge how people learn and process information. Metacognitively aware learners have strategies to find out what they need to do in order to learn more profoundly and improve performance. Learners, who apply metacognitive strategies, are aware of their learning; they know how to complete a concrete task in the most successful way. In this paper we explore the first area of cognitive knowledge defined by Flavell, knowledge about oneself; particularly, the paper investigates the adolescents’, as foreign
language learners’, metacognition. Several publications have appeared in recent years documenting the link among metacognition, foreign language (FL) acquisition among adolescents, age factor in language learning, and L2 attitudes.

Arranging, controlling, and assessing learning as the metacognitive strategies, have the most focal part to play. Choosing and assessing one’s strategies is a significant ability. Rather than center students’ attention exclusively on learning a FL, second language instructors can offer students some assistance to consider what happens during the FL learning process, which will lead them to create more solid learning skills using this instructional time efficiently. When learners reflect upon their learning strategies, they are better prepared to make cognizant choices about what they can do to improve their learning (Anderson, 2002). Learning theory contends that the act of observing oneself in the moment of learning contributes to the capacity to understand one’s own particular learning processes, and to the ability to manage and control it.

Metacognition is contemplating, knowing, and helping students to gain cognitive learning and what they feel or think should be the main condition of work in the classroom. Metacognitive instruction in educational settings helps develop learner-centeredness and learner autonomy (Vandergrift, 2002; 2003). Furthermore, learners are more self-regulated and autonomous being able to direct learning.

On the other hand, research demonstrates that learners whose aptitudes or knowledge bases are feeble in a specific range tend to overestimate their capacity in that area (Kruger & Dunning, 1999). They don’t know enough to perceive that they need adequate learning for precise self-assessment. Conversely, learners whose knowledge or aptitudes are solid might belittle their capacity. These high-capacity learners don’t perceive the degree of their insight or abilities. Kruger and Dunning’s study demonstrates that it is conceivable to show learners at all capacity levels to evaluate their own performance more accurately. This study disclosed that the young learner was starting to comprehend the genuine key to learning being engaged in metacognition.

Adolescence and metacognition

Adolescence is a period of life associated with the emergence of self-concept and better self-awareness. It involves changes in the self, such as relevant to puberty, cognitive and emotional characteristics, and social expectations. One of the important perspectives, which was formulated later into a hypothesis, is the Critical Period Hypothesis. It states that first language acquisition takes place necessarily between the age two and puberty. It was assumed that Second language acquisition will have similar results if it is learned during this favourable period. However some studies have showed that age effects are conditioned by context and the application of this hypothesis that “younger is better” are not generalizable to all L2 learning context. For example, adolescents are more efficient learners than younger children. In Munoz’s study (2006) adolescents demonstrated higher levels of proficiency over younger children after the same amount of instruction, which can be explained by the fact that adolescents are more cognitively mature. However, teenagers may dislike any technique that exposes them in public; role play and simulation are in conflict with their adolescent anxieties. According to Ur (1996), although teenagers’ potential is bigger than the young children’s; they are more difficult learners as they lack motivation and it is hard to supervise and encourage them. A teacher needs patience and time to gain their respect and trust and it is difficult to please them. As a result, a teacher has to offer original activities that will draw and hold students’ attention. The difficulty of teaching is described vividly by Harmer (2001, p.38): “Anyone who has taught secondary school
students has had lessons, even days and weeks, when task seemed difficult, and on especially bad days hopeless. Yet ... teenage students are in fact overall the best language learners”.

Metacognition has also been investigated in relation to educational level within the field of language learning. These findings show that a longer duration of L2 learning enhances learners’ use of metacognitive strategies (Raoffi, 2014). This demonstrates that as L2 learners get older and they gain more language learning experiences, their language proficiency develops and in turn their metacognitive strategy usage increases. In a study that assessed the learning strategies among Taiwanese high school students in grades 7 through 9, Chen (2009, cited in Raoffi, 2014) found that students in grades 7 and 8 reported using significantly more metacognitive strategies than ninth graders. Overall, the findings of the studies are contradictory. In one of the recent studies the relationship between age group and metacognitive ability was established, such that metacognitive ability increased with age during adolescence and plateaued in adulthood (Wei et al., 2013). Although there is some evidence supporting the connection between language learners’ metacognition and their educational level/age, further research is needed to identify factors affecting this association.

**Attitudes to L2**

L2 Attitudes have great impact on successful second language learning. Attitudes are linked to motivation. Vandergrift reported that metacognitive strategies were significantly associated with L2 motivations. They are positive or negative feelings acquired through social interaction. It is believed that positive attitude facilitates second language acquisition, which has two different hypotheses. Positive attitude can be caused by good results and progress in Second Language Learning. On the other hand, attitudes influence success or failure of the second language learning process. Therefore, Attitudes may have double role and as a result researchers endeavor to measure both direction of attitudes and their intensity. Some research studies have shown that positive attitudes to the L2 tend to decline with age (Lasagabaster, 2013).

The notion that students must be passionate about learning process appears to be appropriate across disciplines. A similarly imperative part of the procedure is that what students feel around a subject is a real part of their total reaction to it. Remembering this emotion helps them consider (cognition) where that emotion originated from and utilize reflective strategies (metacognition) to assess their position in learning. According to Shulman (2004), “authentic and enduring learning occurs when students share a *passion* for the material, are emotionally committed to the ideas, process and activities and see the work as connected to present and future goals” (p. 25). As noted by Pintrich (2002), metacognition captures awareness of self, which should be incorporated through awareness of what one feels, then the affective becomes a part of the procedure and should be addressed explicitly in teaching (p. 223).

**The current study**

Classroom teachers can help second language learners develop one of the most essential skills - understanding and controlling cognitive processes. Teachers should teach students language content as well as FL learning ways and processes (Raoofi et al., 2014). Due to the increased learning and teaching of a foreign language in Georgia various approaches and materials have been developed and exploited. Nevertheless, the outcomes of foreign language programs in schools are not satisfying, especially in the regions. In the description of foreign language program created by the Ministry of Education, in Georgia a focus is on teaching learners how to learn a foreign language. Students should learn to manage their own learning. To do this, from the very beginning, educational goals and objectives should be defined. Learners should learn
how to analyze the process – what was observed, what approach was used, the challenges they faced, what contributed to overcome the difficulty, things that slowed down the progress, etc. (www.mes.gov.ge/uploads/gegmebi/ucxouri_enebi.doc). However, to the authors' best knowledge, Georgian adolescents' metacognition has been scarcely investigated from the point of view of FL learning skills. The objective of this paper is to explore a) Georgian adolescents' attitude to FL (English) and b) their knowledge about their own learning skills in FL. The following questions guided our research:

1. What attitudes do adolescents have to learning English?
2. How aware are adolescents of their FL learning skills?
3. What are adolescents' beliefs on their FL learning skills?

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Methods section, which introduces the survey among adolescents. The survey results are discussed in Results section, followed by summary of the results of this work in the Discussion section and Conclusions.

METHODS

We started our investigation by defining the current study as descriptive and a quantitative method was chosen to gather the data in Georgian public schools in the regions. For this purpose, a questionnaire was designed and a survey was administered in December-January, 2015-2016.

Participants

The sample of the study was chosen from the Kakheti region. It was decided to survey respondents from an urban area Telavi, as well as learners from the nearby and remote villages. The sample for the study was chosen randomly. 60 students participated in the survey. Their age varied from 12 to 18, 24 male and 34 female (2 answers were missing). The highest number (17) of the participants was the 14-year-old participants in the study, which was followed by the equal number (12) of 13-year-old and (12) 15-year-old respondents. The ages mean is 14.37, Std. Deviation – 1.575.

The participants had from 4 to 10 years of English learning at School (see, Table 1). As for the private tutoring, 61.7% (37) of the subjects studied language privately, 35% (21) of the participants did not take any private language course. About 17% (10) of the participants had been learning a foreign language for a year with a tutor and the same number of students (17%) had the private tutoring for 3 years. Only three students had the longest period – 7 years of learning a foreign language privately. Table 1 shows the sample's age, years of private tutoring and FL classes at school.

Table 1. Participants’ age, duration of FL studies at school and private tutoring.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants' Age</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>14</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>17</th>
<th>18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency (N)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Materials

For the survey a questionnaire was designed. In the questionnaire sixteen questions were closed with fixed answers (from absolutely agree to absolutely disagree, from 1 to 5) made according to Likert scale. There was only one open-ended question which asked learners to give recommendations from their experience how to learn a foreign language. The questions were grouped in four sections: first, demographic section included nominal data about the respondent’s age, sex, years of foreign language learning at school and years of private tutoring. The second group of the questions examined the attitude of the learners toward foreign language. Next group of questions examined the evaluation of learning skills, whether these skills were acquired in language classes at school, with the help of a tutor, or by oneself. The remaining questions were about learners’ behaviour while learning foreign language and beliefs on their learning skills. In this paper we will only deal with results of 5 questions.

Procedures

The questionnaires were completed by the adolescents in the urban and rural area. The permission of the schools was obtained and the questionnaires were distributed at schools. The English teachers administered the survey. Some questionnaires were filled during private classes outside of the school after obtaining students’ permission. The students were given instruction in each case, as we expected that participants might have problems with understanding or choosing the answer. As a result, there were missing answers in several questionnaires. 73 questionnaires were filled in, although some of them had nominal data missing or adolescents copied the answers from each other. Those questionnaires, which had a certain level of distortion, were eliminated from the study. The data from the questionnaires were analyzed by SPSS.

RESULTS

The striking results of our survey were that 50% (30) of the students in the study liked English very much. The participants who demonstrated stronger passion for the foreign language were at the age of 14 (See, Fig.1), followed by the 15-year-old ones. Less than half, 36.7% (22) of the learners liked this foreign language. Overall, 86.7% (52) of the participants in the study had positive attitude to English. Only 2 participants have no position and 10% (6) of the students disliked English. It was found that almost all of the participants 96.7% (58) wanted to master a foreign language well.
The participants were asked to evaluate their learning skills of a foreign language. They responded to the statement: “I have efficient foreign language learning skills.” Considering this statement only 5% (3) students were absolutely sure that they had competent learning skills followed by a large number of participants 58.3% (34) who admitted that they had efficient learning skills. In total, 63.3% (37) of the participants agreed that they had efficient skills. About 18% (11) of the participants did not think that their skills were resourceful; mainly they were 15-year-old participants (5) (See Table 2).

Table 2. Efficient skills across the age range

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Absolutely agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Absolutely disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next question asked students to reflect who assisted them to acquire the foreign language learning skills. The three statements suggested the answers: a) Language classes at school, b) Private tutoring and c) The student has acquired by himself/herself.

Table 3. Adolescents’ beliefs how their FL learning skills were acquired.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Absolutely agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Absolutely disagree</th>
<th>Missing answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FL classes at school</td>
<td>11.7% (7)</td>
<td>40% (24)</td>
<td>11.7% (7)</td>
<td>21.7% (13)</td>
<td>8.3% (5)</td>
<td>6.7% (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private tutoring</td>
<td>21.7% (13)</td>
<td>33.3% (20)</td>
<td>10% (6)</td>
<td>15% (9)</td>
<td>18.3% (11)</td>
<td>1.7% (1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 depicts the figures of the adolescents’ beliefs. More than half, 51.7% (31) of the participants thought that they acquired FL learning skills at school. Approximately 54% (33) of the subjects thought that private tutoring helped them to develop skills to learn a foreign language. About 33.3% considered that they were responsible themselves for learning these skills. It is noteworthy that some students checked both – language classes at school and private lessons.

The adolescents were asked if they needed some advice on how to learn a foreign language. It was assumed that this question would help to identify the existing difficulties in students’ FL learning or their appreciation/willingness to be advised on FL learning. About 20% (12) were completely sure that they needed the advice. Less than half of the learners – 40% (24) were willing to get some suggestions. 20% (12) of the participants had no position about this statement, and the same number of learners (12) rejected the idea of being advised on learning a foreign language (See Fig. 2). The 14 and 15-year-old participants showed more openness for advice. The survey revealed that 60% (36) of the adolescents needed special mood/disposition for learning/practices a foreign language over half of them, 25% (15) of students disagreed with this statement. Nine students (15%) neither agreed nor disagreed. As mentioned earlier our study attempted to investigate adolescents’ attitudes to FL, their knowledge and beliefs of their learning skills in FL.

**Figure 2. Need for advice across participants’ age.**

**DISCUSSION**

It was the main purpose of the paper to draw attention to adolescents’ metacognition or knowledge about their learning skills. We have addressed not only metacognition but learners’ attitudes to FL. To our knowledge this is the first study to deal with metacognition among FL learners in Georgia. One of the significant findings of this study is that Georgian adolescents have positive attitude to a foreign language (English) learning, which means they have passion for language. Another key data is that a majority of the subjects under study want to master well FL; however, they are not ready to take responsibility for learning which was visible from the results. Adolescents believed that only language classes at school and private tutoring teach learning skills. Approximately half of the subjects thought that private tutoring helped them to develop skills to learn a foreign language; however, not all of them were engaged in private classes, thus presenting
controversial data. Few students realize that learning should be self-regulated and self-directed. The most likely explanation of these results is that many of them have very few metacognitive skills. From the analysis it is obvious that the adolescents may not be aware of their FL learning skills; over half of the students believe that they have efficient skills to learn foreign language, surprisingly most of these adolescents need special mood for practicing a foreign language, casting doubt on their ability to evaluate their learning skills and positive attitude to English. These results are in good agreement with Kruger and Dunning (1999) study which has shown adolescents’ overestimation of their capacity. More than half of the adolescents want to be advised on how to learn a foreign language. Interestingly, about half of those who believed that had efficient FL learning skills were eager to get some advice. It can be concluded that the other half of the adolescents did not want to get any recommendations on FL learning. The following inconsistency is observed in the adolescents' answers:

1. A majority of adolescents admitted that they have positive attitude/passion to FL (English) and more than half of them have efficient FL skills and almost all of them would like to master English.
2. Only some of the adolescents realize their role and responsibility in acquiring FL learning skills, show acceptance for recommendations, find it easy to study FL without particular frame of mind.

It can be concluded that the discrepancy in the adolescents’ answers suggests that students’ metacognitive skills are poor. The findings may have different implications: Georgian adolescents do not know enough to recognize that they lack sufficient knowledge for accurate self-assessment. Hence, they need more instructional hours on learning how to learn a foreign language. Teachers should be more careful in teaching students’ metacognitive strategies especially when students demonstrate their love for a foreign language and desire to learn it. Teachers should help students to develop stronger learning skills by assisting them to learn to think about what happens during the language learning process. The main limitation of the study results is that it has examined unequal number of representatives in each age group. For the future it would be effective to choose the same number of respondents in each age group.

CONCLUSIONS

The main objective of this paper was to examine metacognition of adolescents, specifically knowledge about oneself; the paper investigated the adolescents’, as foreign language learners’, metacognition. From this research that has been carried out, it is possible to conclude that most adolescents enjoy foreign language learning, they may overestimate their learning skills; therefore, teachers should give them recommendations and help students to gain cognitive learning of what they feel or think while learning FL. Further research on adolescents’ FL learning skills in urban and rural area is necessary to extend our knowledge of adolescents’ metacognition.

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ADULT PROTAGONISTS IN JAMES JOYCE’S “DUBLINERS”

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ABSTRACT

Joyce termed the collection of short stories “Dubliners” as a “chapter of Dublin’s moral history”. The collection is subdivided into four main branches: childhood, youth, adulthood and social cycles. The third cycle is a matter of our focal interest. It consists of four stories: “A Little Cloud”, “Counterparts”, “Clay” and “A Painful Case”. Despite the age, gender, and social differences, all protagonists have the unifying traits - their inability to change their life or environment, fear of freedom. They are captivated by a deadly routine that drains life out of them and leads to ‘paralysis’, which is the natural state of Dublin. This cycle is the most tragic part of the “Dubliners”, as after the first feeble and futile attempt of releasing themselves from the deadly influence of Dublin, the young protagonists of the previous cycle join the humble and mute majority and turn into the grim protagonists of the adult cycle, who have to face the outcomes of their cowardice and indecisiveness in the period of youth and resort to violence and alcohol as the means of escape from reality. The ‘paralysis’ of the key characters in the collection of short stories is emphasized by means of numerous artistic devices. Joyce refers to such symbols as colours associated with death and decay: yellow, grey, brown - the weather, which is usually drab, gloomy and rainy, constant darkness and the lack of bright colours; the symbol of the circle - despite its positive connotation in general, as a form of harmony, in this collection the circle denotes enslavement, deadlock, constant repetition of the monotonous routine which lives no way out.

Key words: Dublin, paralysis, indecisive, freedom, violence, routine

The collection of short stories “Dubliners” belongs to the early period of James Joyce’s creativity. It is quite different from his mature works, like “Ulysses”, the writer’s magnum opus, or “Finnegan’s Wake”. This book was termed by James Joyce as one chapter from the moral history of Dublin. The collection contains 15 short stories, rearranged into four major parts - childhood, youth, adulthood and social cycles. The final story, “The Dead”, does not belong to any particular cycle, but sums up the whole book, binding all the themes together. The leading themes and leitmotifs of the collection are paralysis, death and decay, affecting the city of Dublin on the verge of the 20th century. James Joyce presents his collection as a form of moral judgement, putting the blame for the lamentable state of the capital on the shoulders of its citizens, the Dubliners. Dublin of 1904 is not a mere chronotope in this collection; it is a leading image, a centre of paralysis. The Irish of Joycean period had all the reasons for their frustration, passiveness and insecurity. As Declan Kiberd renders it, “The Irish, through the later nineteenth century, had become one of the most deracinated of peoples; robbed of belief in their own future, losing their native language, overcome by feelings of anomie and indifference, they seemed rudderless and doomed” (Kiberd, 1996: 329). The dramatic events of the Irish history, associated with the name of Parnell, who nearly led the nation to its independence, subsequent betrayal of Parnell by his supporters and his removal from the political arena was a severe blow for the national self-consciousness of the Irish and resulted in the full prostration and decay of all activities in terms
of liberation of the nation. The real activities were substituted by the chimeras of "Celtic revival", proclaiming the omnipotence of "the Irishness" and simultaneously, being a rather isolative cultural phenomenon, quite provincial in its nature. This aspect of the movement was greatly despised by Joyce and severely mocked in all his works, including the story "Mother", which belongs to the social cycle of "Dubliners".

A series of epicleti, betraying the soul of hemiplegia or paralysis, which may consider the city - these were the words, characterizing the collection in Joyce's letter to Constantine Curran. The citizens of Dublin are summoned by Joyce illustrate different forms of Irish paralysis. The protagonists of all cycles are involved within the process; still, the adult characters of the collection bear the main load of responsibility for this state. We have to distinguish the two groups of adult characters in the story – the grownups, who appear in the first two cycles of the collection - "childhood" and "youth", as well as in the "social" cycle and "The Dead" and the protagonists of the third, "adult" cycle of the "Dubliners". The latter is the matter of our focal interest - the cycle contains of four stories - "A Little Cloud", "Counterparts", "Clay" and "A Painful Case". The main themes and leitmotifs, unifying the stories, are deadly routine, inability to escape, fear of responsibility, physical abuse and alcohol as the means of coping, loneliness, estrangement and decay. The age range of the protagonists varies and the older they become, the grimmer these themes sound in the stories.

The first story of the cycle depicts a young Dubliner, Little Chandler and his reunion with a long-time friend - Ignatius Gallaher, who fulfilled the dream of all Dubliners and left the country - he moved to London nearly 8 years ago. This reason is more than enough to turn Gallaher into a role-model for young Chandler. He had some attempts of writing himself, while young and free, but gave it up after settling down with a family. Now, he puts the blame for his failure on his wife and the little baby. It is painfully hard for Little Chandler to realize that his frustrated aspirations are caused by his own shallowness and lack of considerable talent. He sees himself as a bearer of Ireland’s heroic past, renowned for the Celtic vein in his poetry. Ironically, it is Ireland that he would like to escape from.

We can distinguish three basic scenes in "A Little Cloud". The first describes Little Chandler at work and then en route to a meeting with Gallaher; the second reveals their drinking in the pub; and the final section portrays the frustrated and belittled clerk at home. Thematically, the story examines different aspects of Chandler’s identity - his job as a clerk and his role as husband and father. Opposed to these are his unfulfilled aspirations to be a poet and his desire for a more exotic and flamboyant life. In every scene we see the shallow and meek features of the protagonist, whose timorous attitude towards life and the world around him remains unchanged until the very last moment, when he undergoes epiphany - looking at the photo of his wife, Chandler realises that there is no way out, he is in deadlock and he will never be able to do something exiting, to introduce any drastic changes in his life. The final outburst of his anger is the moment, when he shouts at his baby boy, scaring the latter and reducing him to the hysterical sobbing. This is an important moment in the story, showing that Little Chandler has already found a mechanism of coping with his problems - this is violence and abuse - though verbal at the very moment and followed by an immediate sense of remorse. Afterwards, when the situation is mirrored in the "Counterparts", Farrington, another unlucky clerk, resorts to physical violence and abuse to cope with his problems, we see no sense of remorse in him. We can assume that Little Chandler can easily turn into Farrington in a decade or so, when the monotonous routine of his daily life will change his tender nature, make it more crude and coarse.

"Counterparts" touches upon another prominent problem for the Dubliners - drinking, which can be regarded as another form of paralysis - adult protagonists try to escape their routine by means of alcoholic intoxication which temporarily
“removes” them from their reality. Farrington is definitely one of the least attractive characters of the collection. Humiliated by his boss at the law firm in which he works, he pawns his watch and spends the money on a night of drinking in Dublin pubs. Afterward, he goes to his house in the suburbs, where he vents his rage by beating one of his five children - this is the brief story of the protagonist. The main reason for such abominable behaviour is the same – the deadly routine of daily existence, affecting Dubliners and draining all vital forces out of them. They have to deal with this overwhelming paralysis and Farrington refers to both mechanisms of coping, known to his fellow countrymen - drinking and violence. Aggression takes a more vivid form in the “Counterparts” than in “A Little Cloud”. In both stories the protagonists bully their own children, instead of making any substantial changes in their own life. The final of the story emphasises the fact that Catholic Church of Ireland is incapable of saving the Dubliners, vain are little Tom’s pleading prayers to his father, they cannot save him.

If violence binds the above-mentioned two stories together, loneliness is a unifying theme for the other two parts of the cycle - “Clay” and “The Painful Case”. Maria, a leading character of “Clay” is the only female protagonist of the cycle. She is absolutely timid, a true peace-maker, there is not even a trace of violence in her. Still, she, also, is affected by the paralysis of Dublin. Her concentration on daily worries and chores creates the false effect of a union with the community. For her relentless care for everybody she receives a piece of clay in the game, a symbol of death, which is the logical ending to paralysis. Her love is not strong enough to protect her family and save them from estrangement. There is no love for Maria either, just a feeling of pity, that brings tears on Joe’s eyes, while he thinks about her and the old days gone past long ago.

The burden of human loneliness is even worse for Mr James Duffy, who lost the only person, who ever showed a sparkle of compassion, love and understanding towards him - Mrs Sinico. He rejects the woman and after a while, he reads in the newspaper about Mrs Sinico’s death, apparently by suicide. At first he feels revolted and ashamed that he ever considered her a peer. Then Duffy begins to feel guilty: did his rejection of her result in Mrs Sinico’s suicide? Finally he identifies and empathizes with Mrs Sinico, realizing that her aloneness mirrored his own — and that he is now more alone than ever. Only then does he realise the meaning of true loneliness.

In all four stories of the adulthood cycle we see the characters, doomed for the loveless existence in a paralysed city of the dead. They are imprisoned for good in this moribund world of Dublin. Joyce uses a number of symbols to accentuate the desperate state of his protagonists - the colours of death and decay - yellow, grey, brown; the drab weather, and the constant darkness. The symbol of the circle in this collection denotes enslavement, deadlock, and constant repetition of the monotonous routine which lives no way out.

REFERENCES


A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH AND FRENCH ANIMAL PROVERBS – FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF METAPHORS

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ABSTRACT

In terms of conceptual metaphors English and French proverbs have many similarities. The native speakers of the two languages commonly use in proverbs conceptual metaphors in which the source domain is an animal, like horse, donkey, pig, goat, dog, cat, wolf, etc. It is concluded that certain emotions and metaphorical meanings generally highlighted in the English and French proverbs are positive as well as negative and domestic animals are popular in both English and French proverbs.

The article deals with the comparison of the English and French proverbs on the stylistic level. Similarities and differences are identified from the metaphorical point of view for analysing the representation of several species of fauna in English and French proverbs.

From the comparative analysis in the metaphorical meanings of animals between English and French, we can see that metaphors exist in our daily life and it structures our understanding of the world, our thoughts, culture and knowledge about life. Metaphors typically represent ethnic culture. Besides, proverbs are not only information carriers, but also cultural carriers, reflecting different social cultures.

Key Words: English proverbs, French proverbs, Stylistic level, Metaphorical point of view, Comparative analysis, Metaphorical meanings.

INTRODUCTION

Proverbs are universal: all peoples have them in their languages. Proverbs originated from the observation of the world and human experiences. The proverbial fund was enriched over the centuries. Proverbs as lexical unite are the part of each language proving cultural heritage of the land and showing the mentality of every nation. They grant their colour to the language and enrich our vocabulary, allowing us to make our communication sound more native and proficient. It is obvious that different languages will have different proverbs, both in structure and meaning.

The paper deals with the comparison of English and French proverbs on the stylistic level. Similarities and differences are identified from the metaphorical point of view for analysing the representation of several species of fauna in English and French proverbs.
Mostly the English and French proverbs contain wisdom, truth, morals, and traditional views. This comparative study is supposed to reveal a considerable amount of correspondences between English and French proverbs. This supposition is based on the fact that these two countries shared a lot in the course of their historical development, "where two languages exist side by side for a long time and the relations of the people speaking them are as intimate as they were in England, a considerable transference of words is "inevitable" (Eckersley & Eckerley, 1970).

**English and French Animal Proverbs**

A wide range of metaphoric proverbs related to animals is found to be used in each of these languages - English and French. Humans' life is bound to that of animals. This fact influences thought and manifests linguistically. Interestingly, this makes our study worthwhile. Various wild and domestic animals are involved in metaphoric proverbs with variable frequencies. For our purposes, domestic and wild animals are selected to delimit the scope of our research. These include horse, donkey, pig, goat, dog, cat, wolf, etc. that are widely used to represent people metaphorically in these languages.

The origin of the proverb is very old. Some of them find their source in the classical authors of antiquity. The term “proverb”, from Latin “Proverbium”, appears for the first time from the 12th century in the fables of Marie de France. Chaucer uses the French term in 1374. During the centuries many authors of fables and tales made use of this term. Most proverbs originated in oral languages. Before the invention of printing tools, proverbs were mainly memorized and utilized in oral communication. This is the reason why the date of origin of most of the world’s proverbs is unknown and neither are their “creators” (Bulman, 1998).

“A proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom, a truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way. Proverbs have much in common with set expressions, because their lexical components are also constant, their meaning is traditional and mostly figurative, and they are introduced into speech ready-made” (Davletbayeva, 2010: 49).

In the 19th century, the lapidary form of proverbs, often metaphorical, strikes the mind; retains its charm and usefulness. A well-placed or chosen proverb gives a delicious taste to a text or a speech.

A lot of proverbs of ancient languages moved into modern languages. For example, many proverbs used in English and French today come from Latin and classical Greek. Relevant instances are worth mentioning: the Latin proverb “Tempus fugit” is translated into English as “Times flies” (Byrne, 2005) and the French proverb “Des goûts et des couleurs il ne faut pas discuter” is derived from the Latin proverb used in the Middle Ages “De gustibus et coloribus non disputandum” (Petit Larousse en Couleurs, 1972).

English and French languages posses numerous animal-related proverbs which prove that idioms, sayings and proverbs enrich the corpus of each language. Consequently, both languages become more colourful, stylistically various and extremely expressive. The English and French nations use different animals i.e. cats, dogs, horses, foxes, etc. in proverbs. It proves the close relation of people’s life with various animals.

During our observation it has revealed the fact that there are much more proverbs related with domestic animals rather than with wild ones, which again indicates the close connection of people with domestic animals, though we do find proverbs related with foxes, lions and wolves in both languages as well.
The following examples show how rich both languages are with animal-related proverbs carrying various metaphoric colouring in different contexts and situation:

**Dog**

**English:**

A good dog deserves a good bone.

An old dog barks not in vain.

Barking dog seldom bite.

Better be a dog's head than the tail of a lion.

Beware of a silent dog and still water.

Do not dwell in a city where a horse does not neigh nor a dog bark.

Dog does not eat dog.

Dogs that fight each other will join forces against the wolf.

Dogs that put up many hares kill none.

Dumb dogs are dangerous.

Every dog has his day.

Every dog is a lion at home.

Every dog is valiant at his own door.

Give a dog a bad man and hang him.

Let sleeping dogs lie.

Many dogs may easily worry one hare.

Take a hair of the dog that has beaten you.

The cat would eat fish and would not wet her paws.

The dog barks but the caravan goes on.

The dog for the man, the cat for the woman.

The dog that fetches will ferry.

The scared dog fears cold water.

Those who sleep with dogs get up with fleas.

You can’t teach old dogs new tricks.
French:
Chien qui aboie ne mord pas.
Quand le loup est pris, tous les chiens lui lardent les fesses.
Chien hargneux, a toujours l’oreille déchirée.
Il ne faut point se moquer des chiens qu’on ne sorti du village.
Un chien vivant vaut mieux qu’un lion mort.
Qui veut noyer son chien l’accuse de la rage.
Il faut flatter le chien pour avoir l’os.
La lune est belle lorsque le chien l’espère.
Tout chien est fort à la porte de son maître.
À chien qui mord il faut jeter des pierres.

Cat

English:
A cat in gloves catches no mice.
A cat in grass is a tiger in the jungle.
A cat may look at a king.
A cat with a straw tails keeps away from fire.
All cats are grey in the dark (in the night).
Care killed the cat.
Curiosity killed the cat.
Dog remembers faces cats places.
In a cat’s eye all things belong to cats.
It is enough to make a cat laugh.
The dog for the man, the cat for the woman
There is more than one way to skin a cat.
When the cat is away the mice will play.
You will be always lucky if you know how to make friends with strange cats.
French:

À bon chat bon rat.
Chat emmouflé ne prend souris.
Chat ganté ne peut pas rater.
La nuit, tous les chats sont gris.
Quand le chat n’est pas là, les souris dansent.
N’éveillez pas le chat qui dort.
Quand les chats siffleront, A beaucoup de choses nous croirons.
Qui naquit chat court après les souris.
Qui ne nourrit pas le chat nourrit le rat.
Chat ganté ne peut pas rater.
Il ne faut pas acheter chat en poche.

Horse

English:

A good horse cannot be a bad colour.
A good horse should be seldom spurred.
A ragged colt may make a good horse.
Close only counts in horseshoes and hand-grenades.
Diseases come on horseback, but steal away on foot.
Don’t close the barn door after the horse runs away.
Don’t look a gift horse in the mouth.
Don’t look a gift horse in the mouth.
Every man has his hobby-horse.
He that cannot beat the horse beats the saddle.
If wishes were horses, niggards might ride.
If you can’t ride two horses at once, you should not be in the circus.
It is a good horse that never stumbles.
Never swap horses crossing the stream.
While the grass grows the horse starves.

You can take a horse to water but you can’t make it drink.

**French**

À bon cheval bon gué.

À nouveau cheval, nouvelle selle.

À bon ou mauvais cheval il faut l’éperon, à mauvaise femme il faut un bon bâton.

À cheval donné, on ne regarde pas les dents.

À cheval qui ne fait rien, on lui diminue l’avoine.

À cheval maigre, toutes les mouches s’attaquent.

**Fox**

**English:**

A fox is not taken twice in the same snare.

A fox smells its own stink first.

Old foxes are not easily caught.

When the fox preaches take care of your geese.

**French :**

Un renard n’est pas pris deux fois à un piège.

Un bon renard ne mange pas les poules de son voisin.

Il ne faut pas se confesser au renard.

Ce que le lion ne peut, le renard le fait.

Quand le renard se met à prêcher, fait attention à ta poule.

Plus le trou est petit, plus le renard s’y fait du beau poil.

**Lion**

**English:**

A goose quill is more dangerous than a lion’s claw.

A live dog is better than a dead lion.

A trapped cat becomes a lion.

He who kills the lion when absent, fears a mouse when present.

The brains of a fox will be of little service if you play with the paw of a lion.
À l’ongle on connaît le lion.
Partage du lion, tout d’un côté et rien de l’autre.
N’imitez rien ni personne. Un lion qui copie un lion devient un singe.
Un lion mort ne vaut pas un moucheron qui respire.
L’union dans le troupeau oblige le lion à se coucher avec la faim.
La méchanceté est un lion qui commence par bondir d’abord sur son maître.

Wolf

A precipice is in front, a wolf behind.
Hunger drives the wolf out of the woods.
The wolf maybe lose his teeth but never his nature
Who keeps company with the wolf, will learn to howl.
You can take a horse to the water but you cannot make him drink.

French :
Le loup mourra dans sa peau.
Les loups ne se mangent pas.
À chair de loup, dent de chien.
Brebis comptées, le loup les mange.
L’homme est un pou pour un homme.
Le loup mourra dans sa peau.
Plus l’âne est chargé, plus il vaut.
Qui a peur du loup, n’aille pas au bois.

Pig/Swine

A pig never smells its own stink.
Cast not your pearls before swine.
When pigs fly.
A hog that’s bemired, endeavours to bemire others.
French:

Nourris un cochon, il viendra chier sur ton perron.
Qui dort avec les cochons, avec les puces se lève.
Un cochon n’y retrouverait ses pattes.
Mieux vaut tondre un agneau que le cochon.
Propre ou non, tout engraisse le cochon.
Vieux garçon vieux cochon.

We also find some interesting proverbs related to leopards, camels, donkeys, apes, cockles, snipe, woodcock, etc. in both languages. Though, the number of such proverbs is obviously few in them.

English:

Death devours lambs as well as sheep.
Don’t eat the calf in the cow’s belly.
If a donkey bray at you don’t bray at him.
If you sell the cow, you sell her milk too.
It is a poor mouse that has no hole.
It is a silly fish that is caught twice with the same bait.
Never fry a fish till it is caught.
The ass brays when he pleases.
The best fish smell when they are three days old.
The best fish swim near the bottom.
The camel going to seek horns lost his ears.
The ewe that doth bleat doth lose the most of her meat.
The higher the ape goes, the more he shows his tail.
The last straw breaks the camel’s back.
The leopards cannot change its spot.
The wrecker ashore is worse than the shark at sea.
There’s winter enough for a snipe and woodcock too.
Easterly wind and rain bring cockles here from Spain.
When mastiffs fight, little curs will bark.
When the cow has been sold with firmness you may relax for a while and go for a better one.
Why pay for the cow when the milk is free?

**French:**

Celui qui se fait agneau, le loup le mange.

Le fils de la chèvre est toujours un chevreau.

Si un âne n’a pas soif, on ne saurait le faire boire.

L’âge mène l’âne.

L’âne porte tout ce qu’on lui met sur le bât.

À l’âne et à la mauvaise femme, il faut des coups de bâton.

Âne qui pète n’est pas crevé.

À la tannerie, tous bœufs sont vaches; et à la boucherie, toutes vaches sont bœufs.

À riche homme souvent sa vache vèle et du pauvre le loup veau emmène.

Autant meurt veau que vache.

Où la vache est attachée, il faut qu’elle broute.

Qui ose prendre le veau - Osera prendre vache et troupeau.

S’il ne tient qu’à jurer, la vache est à nous.

Il ne faut pas vendre la peau de l’ours avant de l’avoir tué.

Chats, chiens, porcs et ours portent trois mois, trois semaines, et trois jours.

Au lieu que ça serai au vieux bœuf de se plaindre, c’est la charrette qui fait du bruit.

Mieux vaut une portion des légumes avec de l’amour, qu’un bœuf gras avec de la haine.

Il ne faut pas mettre la charrue avant les bœufs.

Mieux vaut un bon jour et un œuf, qu’un grand méchant bœuf.

It is worth mentioning that birds also participate in the proverb-building process which greatly enriches the corpus of both languages. This phenomenon proves once again how people keep in touch with various species while depicting them in their own communication language. Below one can see the examples of different birds in various metaphoric expressions:

**English:**

A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

A black hen lays a white egg.

A goose quill is more dangerous than a lion’s claw.

A hen is heavy when carried far.

It is an ill bird that fouls its own nest.

Little pigeon can carry great messages.
One cheek keeps a hen busy.

One swallow does not make a summer.

The early bird catches the worm.

French:

Belle plume fait bel oiseau.

Ce n’est pas la poule qui chante le mieux, qui donne le plus d’œufs.

Une femme et deux oies font un marché.

Ce qui n’est ni poule ni coq, ne vaut jamais rien.

A chaque oiseau, son nid semble beau.

En semant, ne pense pas aux pigeons.

Une hirondelle ne fait pas le printemps.

Il vaut mieux un oiseau dans la main, que six sur la cime.

On ne prend pas deux fois les oiseaux dans le même nid.

In terms of conceptual metaphors English and French proverbs have many similarities. The native speakers of the two languages commonly use in proverbs conceptual metaphors in which the source domain is an animal, like horse, donkey, pig, goat, dog, cat, wolf, etc. We concluded that a certain emotion, metaphorical meanings generally highlighted in the English and French proverbs are positive as well as negative and domestic animals as well as wild ones are popular in both English and French proverbs.

Lakoff & Turner (1989) present different metaphorical schemas that show how we conceive animals, and how we apply this folk knowledge to the construction of metaphorical schemas.

The domain of animal life is one of the most elaborate ones, which we use to understand the human domain. This is important for proverb analysis and interpretation. They present some common propositions that take place in schemas for animals:

**№1. Schemas for animals**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expressiveness of animal-related proverbs</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pigs are dirty, messy and rude</td>
<td>“A pig never smells its own stink.”</td>
<td>&quot;Nourris un cochon, il viendra chier sur ton perron. “</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Cast not your pearls before swine.”</td>
<td>“Qui dort avec les cochons, avec les puces se lève. “</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lions are courageous and noble</td>
<td>“A live dog is better than a dead lion.”</td>
<td>&quot;À l’ongle on connaît le lion &quot;.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|                                          | "Un chien vivant vaut mieux qu’un lion mort. “                        | _______________________________________________________________
“The brains of a fox will be of little service if you play with the paw of a lion.”

**Foxes are clever**
- “A fox is not taken twice in the same snare.”
- “Old foxes are not easily caught.”
- “Un renard n’est pas pris deux fois à un piège.”
- “Un bon renard ne mange pas les poules de son voisin.”

**Dogs are loyal, dependable and dependent**
- “A good dog deserves a good bone.”
- “An old dog barks not in vain.”
- “Chien qui aboie ne mord pas”.
- “Quand le loup est pris, tous les chiens lui lardent les fesses.”

**Cats are fickle and independent.**
- “A cat in grass is a tiger in the jungle.”
- “A cat with a straw tails keeps away from fire.”
- “À bon chat bon rat.”
- “Chat emmouflé ne prend souris.”
- “Chat ganté ne peut pas rater.”

**Wolves are cruel and murderous.**
- “Hunger drives the wolf out of the woods.”
- “The wolf mammy loses his teeth but never his nature.”
- “Le loup mourra dans sa peau.”
- “Les loups ne se mangent pas.”

So, animal expressions often refer to undesirable characteristics and traits of human being and inferior aspects of human life as well, accordingly, most of them carry negative connotations. It should also be noted that people, nations show themselves in the proverbs. In other words, proverbs, like other linguistic vehicles, are the reflection of speakers’ views, cultures, believes social behaviours and roles. So, animal expressions can reveal individual or social thoughts, depending on our feelings and emotions.

**CONCLUSION**

Our observation has revealed the fact that in the English and French languages metaphoric proverbs, such as animal-related ones, represent interesting cultural instances of conventional metaphors. This feature makes them play an important role in acquiring cultural knowledge, metaphorical understanding and communicative ability in the process of language teaching/learning. However, their interpretation is often difficult to non-native learners/speakers of language.

**REFERENCES**


The examples have been selected from:


INFLUENCE OF THE ENTREPRENEURIAL UNIVERSITIES ON THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

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ABSTRACT

The paper deals with the essential meanings of Entrepreneurial Universities for the development of the developing countries. The endowment of Entrepreneurial Universities for increasing economic and social growth of the country or region where they operate is huge. Entrepreneurial Universities are oriented on market and government demands, create programmes and deal with the researches which are in the sphere of interests of public and private sectors, they produce academies and students who have brilliant ideas, which are capable to be transformed into small businesses and spin-offs and stimulate the economic growth of the countries or regions where they are located.

Key Words: entrepreneurial university; Triple Helix Model; entrepreneurs.

In the new era of globalization - post World War II period, both scholars and policy makers have been searching for the best investment for the development of their countries. They clearly understood that research and knowledge could generate economic growth. However, just strengthening scientific knowledge and research without their implementation could penalize the development.

Senator Bayh said: "What sense does it make to spend billions of dollars each year on government-supported research and prevent new developments from benefiting the American people because of dumb bureaucratic red tape?" (Kritikos, 2014).

The speech had influence on the majority of the policy makers and as a result in 1980 the Congress enacted the Bayh-Dole Act. The Act encouraged the transformation of technology from university research to commercialization. In addition, it paved the way to unlock all the inventions and discoveries that had been made in laboratories of the universities through the United States.

Although, according to the empirical researches (Audretsch, 2012, p. 318), Bayh-Dole Act has not had much of impact on generating entrepreneurial activities by scientists in the form of starting new firms, it was the first step towards shifting universities to become more entrepreneurial, so nowadays the rest of the world has a general idea about the level of economic development of the United States of America.

First of all, it is interesting to define what the phenomenon of Entrepreneurial University means, as this term has received a considerable attention for the last decades. An Entrepreneurial University is one where among other things multiple policies and programs are put in place as a contribution to regional economic development. Such universities transform their structures to be more adaptable to the environment where they operate. So, Entrepreneurial Universities are oriented towards innovation and development and have new managerial ethos in governance, leadership and planning. They use their results or researches for creation of new businesses and spin-offs. But the most important understanding of an
Entrepreneurial University is that it is a university that embraces its role within Triplex Helix Model (the university-industry-government relations) and makes contributions to regional/national development (Mavi, 2014, p. 371).

As universities play core roles in the development of economy and especially in the creation of social welfare, governments need to stimulate Entrepreneurship in Education. Nowadays, most of the governments of the developing countries understand the vital meaning of Entrepreneurial Universities and entrepreneurs in the society. Who are the entrepreneurs? Firstly, these people boost economic growth. Secondly, they innovate technologies, services and products. Thirdly, entrepreneurs try to avoid a stagnation period and lastly, these people create new jobs. So, the government as well as society need entrepreneurs and entrepreneurial universities for the further socio-economic development.

The keys of success of Entrepreneurial Universities

Different scholars (Audretsch, 2012; Mavi, 2014) name different elements which are of paramount importance for developing Entrepreneurial Universities. If we sum up their findings, we may talk about series of elements, such as: missions and goals, structure, leadership and governance, networks and partners.

Mission

An Entrepreneurial University becomes distinctive from other universities based on its mission, which seeks to contribute to socio-economic development of the region. It is essential to highlight that such universities produce entrepreneurs who are not only students and alumnis, but also professors, trainers, staff members and just citizens. The research is strongly connected to the needs of market, industry and government demands, as these private and public sectors fund money for the researches, which are essential for the development of the industry or public sector. Moreover, the main goal of an Entrepreneurial University is not only producing students who are jobseekers but mainly, those who become are job creators (Jahangir Yadollahi Farsi, 2012, pp. 196-197).

Resources are of paramount importance for developing Entrepreneurial Universities in the region or country. These resources are divided into two parts: soft and hard resources. Soft resources include: human and entrepreneurial resources, educational and research resources, entrepreneurial background and prestige of the university. Hard resources include: governmental financial and private financial resources; innovative financial resources, technological and infrastructural resources. Along with the resources, capabilities play a vital role for the success of Entrepreneurial Universities. Capabilities are categorized into: status and localization, background, networks and partners and resource absorption and management.

Status and localization are of great importance, as they show where the university stands today among its competitors. The status in the eyes of society, in the eyes of experts, in the eyes of the region, the political and legal status, everything has a great influence for the success of the university. The background of the university shows its behaviour in the past, gives the opinion about its present condition and makes visible the future plans of the university.

It is hard to imagine a university without networks and partners. This includes: public and private partners and networks, foreign partners and network and, of course, the third sector – society. All these elements help the Entrepreneurial Universities to form the Triple Helix Model: operate within university-industry-government relations, strengthen its research based on the needs of public and private sectors and, consequently, stimulate the socio-economic growth of the region.
New leadership style is characteristic for such universities. Entrepreneurial leaders or managers with entrepreneurial mindsets are spirits of the universities. These people, along with the human resource absorption and improvement, financial and physical resources absorption and improvement, innovative thinking and creativity lead universities to fulfill the main missions and goals of Entrepreneurial Universities.

**Impeding Factors**

Developing countries may have different impeding factors to developing such universities. First of all, these are political behaviour, lobbying and resistance. Political behavior and lobbying are categorized into: political behavior and lobbying of academies, political behavior and lobbying of policy makers and political behavior and lobbying of industries. These three parts interact with each other and create one system of political behavior and lobbying which could facilitate or impede the success of Entrepreneurial Universities.

Resistance to changes is very characteristic for developing countries, because most of the citizens are afraid of any kind of changes in their countries, including educational transformation. In addition, cultural, legal and political resistances are actual as well, but the resistance might be softened according to the benefits which these universities give to the society (Jahangir Yadollahi Farsi, 2012, p. 198)

**CONCLUSION**

As we see, there are many things needed for achieving success in order to develop Entrepreneurial Universities in the country, but the outcomes which these universities give to the society are really worth the effort. Entrepreneurial Universities give great benefits to the society, country and region where they operate. So, first of all, the governments of the developing countries should be interested in encouraging local universities to become more market-oriented and entrepreneurial.

**REFERENCES**


ABSTRACT

EU-Georgia relations started soon after Georgia gained its independence from the Soviet Union. The cooperation intensified following the signing of several bilateral agreements. The offer of a closer relationship is contingent upon Georgia sharing EU legislation. Effective legal approximation in higher education is therefore crucial to anchoring the reform process in Georgia and to further progress in EU-Georgia relations. Wanting to draw the attention of the stakeholders to the requirements of the EU, and the challenges Georgia faces, and to offer recommendations for a better approximation to the EU, this article reviews the country's achievements to date in legal harmonisation in the higher education field. Major hindrances in the process are highlighted and solutions to them discussed. The article concludes by offering recommendations to improve legal approximation in the higher education field.

Key words: Legal Harmonisation, Georgia, EU, Higher Education

INTRODUCTION

European Union (EU) law has come to exceed the boundaries of member states and gain additional value as a policy borrowing feature. The legal expansion is especially significant for post-soviet states (Steiner-Khamsi, 2004a), where EU legislature has become one of the main foreign benchmarks, due to strong bilateral interests. On the one hand, 'the expansion of EU rules beyond its borders, including the Eastern neighborhood, is one of the most important dimensions of EU external policy' (Cardwell, 2012, p. 218). On the other hand, for some former Soviet countries, legal approximation, which is defined as alignment of national laws, rules and procedures to that of the EU (European Union, n.d), has become a tool for fulfilling their aspirations toward European integration and achieving close cooperation with the EU due to political and economic interests (Silova, 2002).

Georgia, one of the pro-western oriented post-Soviet countries with explicit aspirations of European integration (Gornitzka, 2007), belongs to the above-mentioned group of countries. Since gaining independence, it has moved along the path to transformation but its progress has been affected by unemployment, poverty, increasing inflation, armed conflict and other problems (Glonti & Chitashvili, 2007). The rocky path gives EU law ample grounds for expansion in the Georgian legal area.

The European Union enlargement in 2004 raised hopes of future accession for many countries (Georgian Ministry of European and Euro-Atlantic Integration, n.d.). Georgia’s expectations were further strengthened after the signing of the Action Plan in 2006 and its replacement - the Association Agreement - in 2014. The latter is intended as a key instrument for the EU to ensure approximation of Georgia’s standards and norms with those of the EU.
As in other parts of the world, education has been seen in Georgia as a significant tool for responding to the demands of the new national context and the pressures of globalisation. Simultaneously with the intensification of its relationship with the EU, the Georgian government started building a foundation for educational reform (Georgian Ministry of European and Euro-Atlantic Integration, n.d.). These developments led Georgia to engage in the Bologna Process in 2005 (Lomaia, 2006), an initiative that proposes overarching goals and objectives which should guide all higher educational reform activities undertaken by its signatories. This step has become a key element of the economic, social and political change sometimes dubbed the ‘system change’ or the ‘transition’ for Georgia (Kozma, 2008, p. 35).

This article addresses the question of whether Georgia has fully adopted EU policy and, if not, what remains to be done in order to embody the Bologna Process. In order to explore this topic, possible indicators for measuring European integration are sought and Georgia’s performance is evaluated in this regard. The paper attempts to discover the main challenges facing Georgia in its transition to European standards, particularly in the area of higher education. The following research question is addressed:

**To what extent has Georgia harmonised its policies to the EU and what are the possible steps for closing the gap between the two legal systems?**

Most previous work in this area has concentrated on Europeanisation through the Open Method of Coordination or harmonisation of EU candidate countries’ legal systems. This paper is innovative in that it directs attention to the harmonisation of the legal framework of a country that is neither a member nor a candidate of the EU and is using EU requirements as a benchmark to free its system from Soviet legacies.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**The context of Georgian national higher education system**

Eastern Europe is an entirely unique phenomenon compared to its EU neighbours (Tomusk, 2006). Long years under Soviet rule shaped the entire existence of the states in this region, including their educational systems.

The Soviet Union was notorious for its extreme centralism and ideologically driven policies. It was designed according to the pyramid principle with a central government at the top controlling the member states, leaving them unable to function without instructions from above (Silova, 2002). Education and science policy was one of the major instruments maintaining the status quo. Following the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991, Georgia initiated a series of sweeping education reforms aimed at repositioning the newly independent state within the global political and economic arena. Similar to other post-soviet countries, most of the reform initiatives have been articulated in terms of overcoming Soviet legacies in order to bring the Georgian educational system in line with EU educational benchmarks.

The Bologna objectives were used as a guideline for a comprehensive reform programme that aimed to transform the entire education system in Georgia before it even joined the process. Specifically, the Bologna policy goals were included in the parliament decree (Parliament of Georgia, 2002), then in the Law on Higher education (Parliament of Georgia, 2004) and later on in the Education Strategy (Government of Georgia, 2007). Accordingly, a new structural model for the system was created. It aimed at increasing the autonomy of educational institutions, creating a competitive environment based on
the principle of fairness and, through these changes, improving the quality of educational services and giving rise to the development of a knowledge-based economy.

With the resurgence of democracy in Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, policy sharing has become one of the key strategies in post-socialist education reform processes. In addition to adjusting the inherited educational systems to the needs of the market economy, the newly established democracies have been ‘required’ to reform their educational systems as a precondition for partnership with or integration into the European Union. Driven by a strong desire to join the Western alliance, policy makers have made extensive references to European educational concepts such as ‘quality’, ‘lifelong learning’, and ‘comparability’.

To date, several agreements have been signed between the European Union and Georgia. Their aims are to encourage legal cooperation, which also includes the issue of legal harmonisation. Therefore, they still remain as the legal basis of the harmonisation process. This requirement of the agreements is not the only motivator and driving force for harmonizing Georgian higher education legislation with that of the Bologna Process and European Union. The aspiration of Georgian society towards European integration plays an important role even in the process of legal harmonisation. Although, any steps toward integration bring with them an increased level of oversight.

The Bologna Process and Europeanisation at a glance

As mentioned earlier, there are three main requirements, which need to be met in order to modernise the Georgian educational system and bring it up to par to that of the EU. These are: adhering to the Bologna Process, ensuring university autonomy and promoting European programmes of capacity building and bidirectional student and staff mobility. Before moving on to discuss policy borrowing, the principles of each requirement need to be reviewed in more detail.

The Bologna Process

The Bologna Process is a multi-dimensional and ‘the most large-scale educational reform process the World has so far seen’ (Tomusk, 2006, p. 4). It started as a process of European intergovernmental cooperation, later on joined by the European Union. The Bologna Process aims at creating a European Higher Education Area through the harmonisation of higher education across Europe. In doing so, it emphasises comparability, compatibility, competitiveness, and transferability of degrees and credit (Bologna Process, 2007).

Due to the fact that the Bologna Declaration, as well as other documents of the Bologna Process, are not underpinned by any supranational legitimate power, they ‘can hardly be considered a policy in a classical sense’ (Witte, 2004, p. 407), being, therefore, ‘not legally binding’ (van der Wende, 2003, p. 16). However, it is worth admitting that, due to the reasons discussed above, this does not hold true for European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument (ENPI) countries, Georgia among them. In addition, it should be acknowledged that the European Commission (EC) acquires a more pronounced role as a legitimate authority of the Process, because the Bologna Process is an essential part of the Lisbon Strategy. The latter aims at making the EU ‘the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion’ (European Council, 2000, cl. 5). The Lisbon agenda has had a profound impact on the direction of the Bologna Process.
To date, the Bologna Process has become a source of policy borrowing and an incentive for higher education policy change in 47 countries, all with diverse higher education systems that possess varying degrees of quality. Therefore, the gains from the Bologna reform are not the same for each country, since national idiosyncrasies result in different outcomes (Oh, 2008). The diversity of obtained results will be further intensified by the fact that the implementation has taken place in a decentralised manner on a state and regional level. For this very reason, depending on the country in question, attitudes toward the Bologna Process differ significantly and certain aspects of it are discussed and taken into account more seriously while others are demoted to secondary status in national debates. Thus, the regulatory regionalism approach clearly upholds the importance of the main actors on local political scene in understanding how the Bologna Process works, how it is supervised regionally and how its implementation is different for each country (Verger & Hermo, 2010).

In some cases, the implementation of the Bologna Process can have extra-educational motivations. To illustrate, in several eastern European countries, it is perceived (and advertised to the public) as a mechanism for becoming an EU member state (Kozma, 2008). The new additions to the European Union and other post-Soviet countries represent a different side of the Bologna Process implementation, due to the on-going transformations in their economies, policies and cultures. While the oldest members of the European Union consider the Bologna Process an experiment in higher education policy, these Soviet bloc countries view it as a chance for their transformation from the post-Communist system to the European one (Kozma & Rébay, 2008).

**University autonomy**

During Georgia’s time in the Soviet Union, all decisions regarding higher education were made by the Communist Party in service to its agenda. This meant that Higher Education Institutions had no autonomy to speak of. Even after the collapse of the Soviet Union, when decentralisation became the policy for many previously state-controlled organisations, including HEIs, actually implementing the desired changes proved to be problematic. During the first ten years of newly regained independence, there was a power vacuum in the country, further complicating the process of higher education reform (Jibladze, 2013). However, in 2004, sufficient time had passed to make the government functional again and the ensuing reforms fundamentally altered the face of Georgian higher education (ibid.).

There are several different aspects of university autonomy that can be considered with regards to what reforms should be carried out. Most authors exploring the subject largely agree on the three most important factors being institutional autonomy, financial autonomy and academic autonomy (Estermann & Nokkala, 2009). European University Association publication provides the universal definitions to all the three of them (ibid.). Institutional autonomy is achieved when a higher education institution has the ability and the legal right to determine its own structure and goals, and choose its governing body and staff. Financial autonomy refers to a higher education institution’s capacity to raise and, subsequently, allocate funds, independently set tuition fees for its students and manage its own assets. Academic autonomy gives a HEI the freedom to create and modify its own programs.

**EU Programmes**

European Commission provides several programmes for HEIs, students, academics and young researchers. The support is given through Erasmus+ and Marie Sklodowska-Curie actions. The Erasmus+ programme aims at boosting skills and employability, and, modernising education. It supports transnational partnerships among the institutions to foster
cooperation and tackle the skills gap through connecting the education and work. In order to reach its goals, Erasmus+ offers mobility and capacity building programmes (Erasmusplus National Office of Georgia, 2014). The Marie Skłodowska-Curie program, on the other hand, provides support for researcher mobility and career development, both internationally and for researchers inside the European Union. It encourages transnational, inter-sectorial and interdisciplinary mobility, enabling research-focused organizations to host talented foreign researchers and create strategic partnerships with leading institutions worldwide. Scientists gain experience abroad and consequently complete their education with competences and skills useful for their future careers.

Georgia has been part of mobility and capacity building programmes for almost two decades. However, Marie Skłodowska-Curie action is still new to the country.

Understanding and theorising policy borrowing

While there is no doubt that the process of policy borrowing is not new, nevertheless, it turns out that, over the past few decades, the occurrences of policy borrowing have increased (Dolowitz & Marsh, 2000; Steiner-Khamsi, 2004b). Nowadays, hardly any political process taking place in a certain country occurs in total isolation from the political developments proceeding in other countries. Different scholars discuss a plethora of political and economic reasons explaining why policies are imported from elsewhere. Among the obvious reasons for the growth in transfer are globalisation and ‘policy tourism’ via the internet, which have made policy borrowing a key feature of contemporary policy-making (Evans, 2009). Furthermore, political change or systemic collapse can also be a stimulus (Steiner-Khamsi & Waldow, 2012). Whatever the catalyst for change, it creates the need to search for successful solutions to existing problems elsewhere.

A model developed by Phillips and Ochs shows the complete process of policy borrowing, from initial attraction on the part of investigators to an instance of practice elsewhere and the reasons for the attraction, to its implementation and ‘internalisation’ in the home context (Figure 1). Briefly summarised, the four stages of educational borrowing are:

1. Cross-national attraction – Most nations get impulses to borrow a policy when faced by controversial problems (Robertson & Waltman, 1992). Although, there are cases of stimuli from transnational forces. Based on Phillips and Ochs (2004), the influences of international organisations in policy development can be deliberate and purposive, meaning that they are more or less irresistible. This happened a great deal in Eastern European republics after the dismantlement of the Soviet Union (ibid.).

2. Decision-making – Decisions to borrow from others could simply be a guiding principle for change and, thus, theoretical in nature. However, they can also be phony in nature, wherein politicians use it as a tool to legitimise their being in power (Phillips & Ochs, 2003). Phillips & Ochs also describe the ‘quick fix’ type of solution, which is the least desirable outcome for cross-national attraction and is potentially extremely dangerous.

3. Implementation – this stage of the process is used to ascertain the particularities of the local context, the supporting and resisting parties within the way the borrowing process is affected by these factors.

4. Internalisation – the extent to which the changes effected become internalised by the existing educational system. Spreen as cited in Steiner-Khamsi (2004) points out that it is important to internalise imported ideas, create local
meanings for borrowed policies that will transcend their origin and bring legitimacy to the whole initiative. According to her, this appropriation or vanishing phase is when external policies turn into educational practices.

5.

Figure 1. The four stages of policy borrowing in education. Source: Phillips and Ochs, 2004:10

**RESEARCH METHOD AND METHODOLOGY**

Drawing on qualitative research methodology, a case study investigating the process of higher education harmonisation in Georgia was deemed to be the optimal approach for fulfilling the overall aim of this article. A direct access to occurrences in the real world is considered to be one of the strengths of qualitative research (Silverman, 2013). The selection of this research strategy can be attributed to a number of reasons. Case studies have a distinctive advantage over other research strategies as they offer the opportunity to 'explain why certain outcomes may happen – more than just find out what those outcomes are' (Denscombe, 2014, p. 31). This characteristic is crucial in identifying whether Georgia has achieved its goal of EU harmonisation in the field of higher education. Furthermore, it enables the researcher to use multiple sources of data and a variety of research methods to explore the research questions which, in turn, foster the validation of data through triangulation (Denscombe, 2014).

The study utilised semi-structured interviews and document analysis as methods of data collection. Interviews made it possible to hear the voices of those directly involved in the reform process. In total, six representatives of various governmental organisations and the EU were interviewed. Analysis of existing policy documents and organisational reports, such as the main legislative acts of the Parliament of Georgia on higher education and the publications of the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia (MoES). Also considered were the findings and reports of various non-governmental and intergovernmental organisations, mainly the EU.
Discussion and findings

This section discusses higher education policy borrowing in Georgia. More specifically, it evaluates the process of legal harmonisation to EU higher education policies, points out gaps between the two systems and suggests recommendations. The analysis is structured according to the model developed by Phillips and Ochs (2004), the details of which were elaborated earlier.

Cross-National Attraction

Political and economic changes, internal dissatisfaction with and failure of the higher educational system, and globalisation were the major impulses that prompted the new Georgian government to begin to look at education reform processes employed internationally in order to change its education policy.

Political and Economic Change

After the collapse of the Soviet Union, Georgia's entire political and economic system was destroyed. The first years of independence were marked by internal armed conflicts and civil war. The transition from a centralised to a market economy was a turbulent one. Health, education and poverty indicators worsened (World Bank Report, 2008).

After coming to power in 2004, the new government of Georgia inherited the country in deep social and economic problems. In order to overcome the overwhelming crises, they followed the guidance given by supranational powers. The political leadership didn't have the necessary skills and experience to govern a democratic, free market society, let alone one facing such an exigent restructuring. The severing of ties from former Soviet allies added an extra strain on the country's economy and political standing.

Naturally, post-communist countries, transitioning from systems that had centralised everything, including education, to one based on more or less democratic principles, had a greater need for change. This forced them to look outside of their own legislature for a direction in which to take their countries, not just in terms of higher education, but as a general political manoeuvre. Most of the post-Soviet states found Western Europe to be the best example for such purposes and proceeded to borrow its policies at a high rate.

Systemic Collapse and Internal Dissatisfaction

After the Soviet Union's collapse, Georgia went through an initial period when nothing substantial was accomplished to restructure the educational system. This led to an increase in private higher education institutions that did not have much to offer in terms of academia and only existed because there was a huge demand for HE degrees. By 2004, the number of higher education institutions had risen to 252 (National Centre for Educational Quality Enhancement, n.d.). For a country, with a population of around 4 million (Population, n.d.) and with a very low number of international students, it was a colossal number. Furthermore, apart from several elite-type private universities, most of them were ‘diploma mills’ existing to meet the demand for holding a degree regardless of use or purpose (National Centre for Educational Quality Enhancement, n.d.). Accreditation and other quality assurance mechanisms were absent and the government’s role was limited to basic licensing of institutions, which was merely a formality.

The government, professors, staff, and students all expressed their discontent in regards to the higher education system,
its poor infrastructure, corruption, centralised nature, low quality and governance. Graduates were seldom able to find jobs in their fields of study. Those employed were not satisfied either in terms of their career objectives or remuneration. Although this discontent encompasses various topics, it crystallised itself into a general frustration about the poor conditions of work and study in universities. Employers, in turn, complained unequivocally about a shortage of skilled labour.

**Globalisation**

Research shows that globalisation is the most significant externalising potential that encourages educational borrowing (Crossley, 2008). Respondents unanimously agree that integration into a global system was one of the main incentives to change. ‘After the break-up of the Soviet system and especially after the transitional first 10 years of independence, Georgia turned its attention to the West in order to build a state according to modern and high quality standards’ – said respondent 1 (personal communication). Since gaining independence, Georgia’s major goals had included reclaiming of an international position and adopting the same structures as European countries. Reforming its educational system to match that of Europe’s was an opportunity to achieve these goals, while simultaneously solving the problem that higher education was quickly becoming. But it was no easy task. However, Georgia had to prove its readiness for reforms and the implementation of the Bologna Process requirements by introducing irreversible changes, some of which would not be received without controversy.

**Making a Decision to Change**

As policy borrowing is a complex process, there were different categories of agents involved in the Georgian government’s decision-making process. The first category of actors includes supranational organisations and international organisations such as the EU, which promotes harmonisation of policies among its member states and applicant countries. Within the European Union, involved parties include representatives of the EC in policy consultation and agreement drafting processes and higher educational institutions involved in terms of EC programmes. The second category is that of civil servants, who play a crucial role in conveying, analyzing and communicating information between the EU and Georgian jurisdictions. The centerpiece of higher education reform in Georgia is governmental educational policy, making it a top-down reform. Thus various groups of interested parties exist. Within the Georgian government, these include government officials, the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia and the National Centre for Educational Quality Enhancement. The third category is politicians, who give direction to public policy and whose endorsement is needed to legitimise the adoption of programs. Finally, non-state actors like higher education institutions facilitate and promote the borrowing process.

Out of the four existing categories, in most post-Soviet countries, the governments used the ‘Quick fix’ decision-making method (Phillips & Ochs, 2004, p. 780). Most of the respondents in this study believed this to be true for the Georgian case as well. According to them, as the government came into power through a peaceful revolution and wanted to implement radical reforms, a ‘quick fix’ seemed like a suitable solution to most problems (respondents 1, 3 and 6, personal interaction). The sudden political down spiral experienced by Georgia spurred it to adopt the reforms deemed appropriate by the international community. Thus, it comes as no surprise that this type of political action is dubbed ‘quick fix’ and is described by Phillips & Ochs (2004) as dangerous and only used when there is a dire need.

In general, it is widely known that the decision-making process is additionally affected by either binding measures (‘hard’
or regulatory coordination in the form of, for instance, EU directives) or by ‘soft’ law (also called ‘persuasive’ coordination). As for the hard law, its main instruments are ENPI itself, PCA, Association Agreement and other bilateral agreements. Since the majority of this paper discusses the way such laws have been implemented and the repercussions they’ve had, this section will focus on soft law. Persuasive coordination does not require national educational institutions to participate, but supports those that wish to participate by ensuring a certain amount of coordination and by providing financial support (Reinalda & Kulesza, 2006). The EU Erasmus, Tempus, CEIBAL Georgia and Mari Sklodowska-Curie programs provide examples of such initiatives (starting 2014 all the programs are offered under the umbrella of Erasmus+). Their main aim is to provide support for the modernisation of higher education in partner countries outside the European Union. Thus the research clearly demonstrates that the implementation of EU policy elements, such as the quality assurance system, has a mixed nature and is based on ‘soft’ as well as on ‘hard’ measures. Implementation or adaptation of these models in local context is another matter.

Implementation

The third stage of the ‘Composite model’ is Implementation, the nature of which largely depends on the contextual conditions of the home country (Phillips and Ochs, 2004; Carnoy & Rhoten, 2002). For example, the speed of change relies on the attitudes of stakeholders. Each of the three main aspects of harmonisation will be discussed separately with regards to their implementation.

Bologna reform

The reformist approach of the government of Georgia towards the higher education system is reflected in the law ‘on higher education’ that was passed by the parliament of Georgia on December 21, 2004. The law describes in detail the new system of higher education in Georgia, its principles and philosophy.

In order to ease the harmonisation process, in 2004, the Georgian government created a Georgian Committee for Integration to EU. The Committee is headed by the Prime Minister, with all the ministers as members. Its mission is to ensure better cooperation and coordination among different stakeholders involved in the process of EU-related reforms. Furthermore, its role in developing recommendations and proposals for making the cooperation more effective and help in achieving the above mentioned goal is emphasised (respondent 6, personal communication).

Higher education reforms have achieved a lot of progress since Georgia joined the Bologna Process in 2005 (Glonti, 2008; Bologna National Report, 2005). First of all, key amendments were made in legislation. As stated by the Bologna Process National Report, the Bologna Process was contextualised in terms of Georgian needs and requirements. In other words, all the requirements for higher education reform were tailored to the status quo in the country. For example, initial quality assurance standards had to be useful in regulating an educational system lacking the most rudimentary supplies, such as tables and chairs in the classrooms. Thus, quantitative measurements had to be employed. Over time, however, these standards evolved to be more qualitative and content-based (National Centre for Educational Quality Enhancement, n.d.).

Despite the advancements made in adhering to European educational principles, the Bologna Process in Georgia started as and remains a highly normative and ideological concept. The necessary changes are conceptualised from above, with limited policy influence from local actors. The most visible features of the Bologna Process in Georgia are the governmental
initiatives, decisions and legislative actions or, more generally, any contribution of political-administrative bodies. Thus, the Bologna Process in Georgia lives in laws and regulations.

Serving as evidence of the above, several studies prove that the new requirements are handed down from the ministry to the universities in a top-down fashion, and little effort is made at the central level to reform in a mindful and consistent way (Glonti, 2008). In addition, institutional representatives feel that the label ‘Bologna reform’ is used to introduce reforms which are actually not part of the Bologna agenda (personal communication). Defining the duration of semesters, grading scales and mobility rules are all examples of reforms introduced in Georgia as part of the Bologna package when there is no such requirement in the actual Bologna Process documents (Bologna Process Official Web-site, n.d.). In general, regulating such minutia falls beyond the purpose of the Process, which represents a broad vision, rather than strict guidelines. Moreover, interfering in these matters violates the autonomy of higher education institutions, which will be discussed in more detail in the following section. Thus, the formal regulations are adhered to, but the process lacks genuine understanding and focus on the Bologna policy agenda.

Apart from enabling the advancement of hidden agendas, the inherently politicised authorisation-accreditation process presents an obstacle for joining the European Quality Assurance Registry. The National Centre for Educational Quality Enhancement being a state-owned organisation and operating under the direct supervision of the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia surely speaks to the influence the government wields over the educational system. This fact automatically disqualifies it from being a member of EQAR, losing Georgian higher educational institutions the increase in trust and prestige that is associated with obtaining this type of affiliation.

The ideological irregularities discussed above are not the only hindrance to the reform. The current top-down approach still has significant problems with aligning education policies to the EU, despite the efforts put forth in the past decade and the significant amount of improvements put in place. One of the most important problems is that the existing institutional capacity is not enough for proper regulating, coordinating and monitoring of the higher education system reform.

In line with the above, it is also necessary to take into account the frequent restructuring of the governmental bodies working in the field of higher education (Ministry of Education and Science and National Centre of Education Quality Enhancement), accompanied by equally frequent shifts in the orientations and priorities of the education policy. Such disturbances in the ranks of professionals working to implement the reform are sure to hinder its process.

While the legislature may have some significant problems, a large part of it is functional, which is undoubtedly beneficial to the implementation of Bologna Process. Based on Glonti’s (2008) analysis, it was concluded that, at a formal level, the implementation of the Bologna Process was progressing well. In general terms, there is a foundation for legislative policies at the highest level, but the latter can only be attained through refining the already existing regulations and creating new ones whenever necessary. This opinion is shared by the interview participants of this study.

Naturally, acceptance of the objectives of the Bologna Process through national legislation is only the first step on the road to real reform. The problems described above will persist unless they are addressed by specific measures. However, it should be noted that, at this point, it is the legal framework that is of primary interest to the EU (EU-Georgia Association Agreement, 2014), which might explain why it is overly emphasised.
University autonomy

The autonomy of Georgian universities is guaranteed by the Law on Higher Education (2004). The discussion below will be organised through the prism of the threefold definition of autonomy (briefly reviewed earlier): freedom in administrative, financial and academic issues.

Administrative autonomy

The legislation regulating higher education in Georgia hardly leaves room for autonomy. Representative interviews together with the documentary analysis of legislative framework in a historical angle reveal that universities haven’t actually been granted autonomy. Rather, the centralised practices of the Soviet era carried on in their old curved path, with government oversight becoming just another administrative level in the universities’ organisational setup (Jibladze, 2013). Consequently, HEIs are more concerned with compliance, or creating the image of compliance, to the regulations and requirements set by the Ministry of Education and Science. Making the reformed practices effective is a lower priority and one that is often ignored altogether (Respondent 5, personal communication).

Another illustrative example to support the above is the so-called recommendations of authorisation (an instrument for external evaluation of compatibility with obligatory standards that is necessary for carrying out educational activities and issuing state-approved educational documents) and programme accreditation developed by the National Centre for Educational Quality Enhancement, which define, in meticulous detail, the only right way to assure quality. All the other possible means are treated as wrong (interviewee 5, personal interaction). Jibladze (2013) claims that the general impression is that higher education institutions implement Bologna principles only because they are necessary for the purpose of authorisation, the rules of which are directed by the National Centre for Educational Quality Enhancement, which, in turn, is controlled by the Ministry of Education and Science (interviewee 6, personal interaction).

Additionally, the matter of Ministry guidance in defining the duration of the academic semester, briefly mentioned in the previous sub-section, is a severe violation of university autonomy.

However, it should be noted, that administrative autonomy is relatively higher in terms of private higher education institutions. They have been and still are free to select their staff and determine tuition fees. This is not the case in state universities, where, up until recently, the rectors were still being appointed by the government. While they retain the freedom to manage their own personnel policies and similarly internal affairs, other aspects, like tuition fees, which can't be higher than state vouchers intended to fund students based on merit, are heavily regulated.

Financial autonomy. The HEIs are somewhat financially independent from the state. Since the reform, a voucher system of financing was introduced, wherein ‘money follows the student’ and the only way to receive funds from the state is to have grant-holding students. However, the grants go only to universities that have programmes accredited by the state agency, National Centre for Educational Quality Enhancement, the problematic nature of which was discussed in detail earlier. In addition, state HEIs receive funds from the treasury, which increases bureaucratic hurdles and limits the flexibility of their otherwise unregulated expenditures.

Academic freedom is more or less preserved. Nevertheless, the existing quality assurance mechanisms tend to impose standardisation on academic processes and, thus, negatively affect autonomy (Jibladze, 2013). Over the last several years,
the emphasis has shifted from academic to administrative matters. This has led to bureaucratisation and the rise in power of the administrative staff, which, naturally doesn’t bode well for academic freedom (interviewee 5, personal interaction).

**Promotion of EU programmes**

The expansion of links, exchanges and communication channels with other countries is another priority determined by the EU-Georgia Association Agreement. The Erasmus+ and Marie Sklodowska-Curie programmes aim to boost skills and employability, as well as to modernise education.

Georgia’s participation in various programmes under the umbrella of Erasmus+ is being promoted very actively (Respondent 2, personal communication). Several actions are taken on the national and European level.

Firstly, Georgia has been participating in the EU capacity building programme (then, TEMPUS) since 1995. Within the framework of this programme, Georgia established its contacts with European universities to develop programmes and improve administration at the institutional and state levels. It has become an essential source of experience, staff and student mobility, as well as funding at the institutional level. Apart from these, by supporting curriculum development, European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), the introduction of quality assurance mechanisms and lifelong learning, the projects have created a solid basis for the successful implementation of the Bologna principles.

In the years of 2012-2013, the number of funded TEMPUS projects has increased considerably:

![Figure 2. Submitted and financed TEMPUS projects with Georgian HEIs. Source: erasmusplus.org.ge](image)

Secondly, the Erasmus+ national office conducts information seminars and consultations for those interested. ‘People are informed. Additional advertisement isn’t necessary’ (Respondent 2, personal interaction). Unfortunately, information on Marie-Sklodowska Curie action was not accessible. ‘None of the offices were responsible for it before. If people heard about it, they applied. Therefore, no statistics exist so far’ – mentioned interviewee 2.

Despite the efforts discussed above, mobility numbers are still very low, even though they show a rising trend. The reasons for this are discussed according to mobility type below.

In terms of degree mobility to EU countries of Georgian MA students, scholars and PhD fellows, the numbers are fluctuating. However, they are still very low.
Table 4. Degree mobility statistics for Georgia. Source: erasmusplus.org.ge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mobility level</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EMMIC students</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMMC scholars</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMID Fellows</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for credit (short-term) mobility, the numbers are much more impressive. Table 2 illustrates the number of mobile students and staff from Georgia between the years 2007 and 2013. It can be clearly seen that the amount of exchanges has been increasing throughout the period with a slight fluctuation in the years of 2010 and 2011. Additionally, starting in 2012 there was an upsurge of mobility at all levels, from undergraduate students to staff.

Table 5. Credit mobility statistics for Georgia within Erasmus Mundus programme. Source: erasmusplus.org.ge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Undergraduate</th>
<th>Masters</th>
<th>Doctorate</th>
<th>Post-doctorate</th>
<th>Staff</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>273</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Even though the numbers have increased, since they’re shown in proportion to the entire studentship of Georgia, they are still very low. One of the main reasons for low outward mobility numbers discussed by the respondents was the language barrier – the need to obtain a language certificate, which is usually one of the prerequisites for mobility, often serves as a discouragement for students and staff. ‘In most of the cases, they need to present an international English language certificate, like TOEFL or IELTS. Their language skills aren’t good enough, so they decide not to apply’ – mentioned one of the respondents during the interview. In addition to language barriers, Interviewee 2 discussed several other problems associated with low outward mobility numbers. These included a general lack of qualifications in academic writing, particularly in the area of motivation or cover letters, subpar language skills, low perceptions about the quality of Georgian
According to the respondent, many students forego applying to foreign universities as they believe they are underqualified.

The number of incoming students has also increased and remains low proportionally (Respondent 4, personal communication). Unfortunately, statistical data is not available to support this statement. Respondent 1 noted his opinion that the quality of the education directly proportional to the number of incoming students. He also shared his concern for the severe imbalance in inbound versus outbound mobility, with the latter being significantly higher. Respondent 5 believes this imbalance to be caused by Georgia's status as a developing country that has only been independent for 20 years and still needs to prove itself as the provider of high quality education. According to him, if Georgia can establish a good reputation, it has the potential to dramatically increase inbound mobility and attract students from developed countries in addition to neighbouring ones. However, the Georgian higher education system has a long road of improvements, some of which have been discussed in detail by this article, ahead before this goal can be reached. The Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, together with other organisations involved in building the education sector, is working to increase the Georgia’s competitiveness in the international educational market.

**Internalization**

Within the last stage, an examination is made of what is happening after the adoption of the foreign example and how borrowed policies are absorbed in a different context (Ochs & Phillips, 2002).

The biggest disadvantage of the reform in the country of interest is considered to be its instability and dependence on the political elite. Public opinion has a crucial impact on how decisions regarding policies are made (Respondent 5, Personal communication). Apart from this, hidden political agendas that affect the reform have already been discussed. There's also the issue of inconsistent goals: on the one hand, the Georgian government has placed emphasis on short-term measures in order to boost the confidence of Georgian society and EU Member States in their commitment to the rule of law and to the ongoing reform. On the other hand, they have put emphasis on the necessity for advance planning. Naturally, both of these objectives cannot be simultaneously satisfied.

Another important hindrance to internalisation was found to be insufficient support for employee training and university development provided by the government. With the existing training and development support, the internalisation of the borrowed policy will be problematic. Even nowadays, many people have little information about what the process entails.

Furthermore, the research showed that there was insufficient time for implementing the reform and, consequently, the Bologna principles (Respondent 1 and 6, personal communication). Universities lacked time to fully integrate all policy changes before new ones replaced them. The series of reforms created unmanageable pressures for professors and university administrators. Furthermore, despite the fact that the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, higher education institutions and non-governmental organisations do their best to inform society and representatives of the academic circle about the aims and objectives of the ongoing reforms, the general public still lacks sufficient information, of which the interviews are proof (Respondent 1 and 5, personal interaction). The reform will not be successful if the Georgian society does not have exhaustive and complete information about the processes underway in the higher education sphere. Substantial work still needs to be done in this direction. As discussed above, lack of information was also
stated as a reason for low mobility numbers (Respondent 2, personal communication).

**Recommendations**

Despite the obstacles facing the integration of European initiatives into Georgia, most of which are to be expected in an undertaking this large, policy borrowing can generally be perceived as bringing about a positive change. On the political decision-making level, the work is done. The country has embraced the move away from the Soviet status quo, with higher education reforms in line with the Bologna Process playing a major role in its endeavour to establish closer ties with the European Union.

While the policy borrowing has progressed with success and efficiency on the legal side, a few concerns still remain. The chief among these is that simply changing the appropriate legislation to match the EU does not guarantee any success in implementing the reform. The case may be that no real changes come from this legislative reform, unless the Georgian government’s stance on education is changed and the universities themselves begin to embrace it.

There is no clear path which solves all of the problems that this paper has raised. However, determining the major issues underlying the process will hopefully present a meaningful contribution toward gaining a thorough understanding of how the educational system transition is occurring. The ability to take on the obligations of membership is not merely the ability to adopt national laws in line with European ones. It is the ability to adopt and enforce the rules of the game that are equal for all members of the Union. Legal alignment is a very demanding exercise precisely because it presumes successful enforcement. Otherwise, it would be a simple exercise of translation. In fact, the adoption of EU standards in Georgia will require very careful planning and well-coordinated public administration. The alignment and approximation exercise is the first important step leading to the application of EU law. Therefore, timing is key to success. A crucial advice given to a country hoping for the EU accession is precisely this – start early and plan. With the above considerations in mind, the following recommendations are deemed to best describe the changes Georgia needs to undertake:

**Recommendation 1**: There needs to be a general consensus within the country as to the vision of what the reform is trying to achieve and how it should be implemented;

**Recommendation 2**: The vision should have a clear purpose and should embody both internal and external aspects which affect the country;

**Recommendation 3**: HEIs should be aware of the requirements set for them and what the intended outcomes of these requirements are;

**Recommendation 4**: Stakeholder engagement in the reform process should be required, which would bring considerable benefits at the implementation and internalisation phases;

**Recommendation 5**: Short- and longer-term personnel development activities should be implemented, so as to enhance the skills and confidence levels of staff;

**Recommendation 6**: Evaluation issues (process and outcomes) need to be considered at the earliest possible stage and an appropriate plan should be put in place;
Recommendation 7: Consultation processes should be indiscriminating in including all stakeholders (students, employers, academic staff) and should reflect this inclusion in any and all evaluation procedures.

CONCLUSION

In order to address the major research question, the study was organised around three main aspects of legal harmonisation: evaluation of approximation to EU in Georgian higher education, identification of gaps and development of recommendations. The paper focused on the Bologna Process, a label for the higher education reform in Europe and beyond, which serves as a foundation for different higher education reforms. Further, it looked at two other criteria set by the EU-Georgia Association Agreement: university independence and promotion of EU mobility programmes.

The findings clearly demonstrate that Georgia has successfully progressed in a number of significant fields related to developing the basis for a stable state-wide political system, economic structure and development. After regaining independence a number of fundamental reforms were introduced with the aim to reorganise the previously existing soviet and transitional legacy. As a result, the system of education in Georgia went through many essential changes. These have allowed the development of higher education corresponding to international norms, but have also promoted integration into different structures of the EU – all of which may considerably facilitate Georgia’s activities in various institutions after possible accession to the EU.

It is obvious that Georgia not only is not lagging behind the achievements of other ex-Soviet countries, but is a pioneer in developing a national qualification framework, an element under the Bologna Process. However, acceptance of the objectives of the Bologna Process via domestic legislation is only the first step on the long road to real reform. An external orientation towards the EU is clearly evident in all the other policies and practices of higher education in Georgia. In other words, the government is conscious about the importance of alignment towards European standards and its role in a possible EU accession.

Most of the problems were identified at the implementation and internalization stages. Majority of the decisions made by policy-makers were partially or fully determined by the requirements of the European Union, both formal and informal. This deliberation has only been strengthened by the signature of Association Agreement in 2014 when the prospect of ratification by the EU has made it possible to put the hope of EU membership on the agenda. The most important aspect of the reform is that the Georgian government had its own hidden agenda together with the aim of Europeanisation. The idea, as discussed above, was to keep control over the higher education system in the country, even at the expense of restricting university autonomy at times. It was also discovered that the process was exploited by the Georgian government to overcome domestic resistance against reforms. It became evident that the government is keeping the course of central planning, which should have been long gone with the dismantling of Soviet Union. Instead of coordinating the reform and negotiating with the stakeholders, the government enforces it as a rule and causes irritation even though both of the parties agree on the necessity of the reform.

It can be summarised that the major challenge to the Georgian process of legal approximation is its lack of systemic character. It is obvious that the country needed changes, but making fast transformations is not easy. According to the gathered data, another important problem is the instability of the system itself. It can be argued that until the system becomes more stable, no changes will be fully successful. Additionally, even though the basis has been laid, the time
devoted by the commission in charge of Euro integration is not enough, as they hold full-time positions alongside this task and are not able to work daily on the processes necessary for legal approximation.

Obviously, legislative and regulatory approximation is crucial for Georgia. Significantly, the main challenge does not lie as much in the approximation of the legal texts as in the implementation of the provisions of such national legislation by the national bodies and their enforcement by the higher education institutions. In other words, simply borrowing policy is not sufficient. The government needs to reassess the local context and make adjustments to the reform. In addition, the top-down policy approach needs to be reviewed, as feedback received from higher education institutions is equally important.

Based on an examination of the Georgian education reform process, the following implications for Georgia can be identified with regard to major issues of higher education in terms of governance, financing, quality assurance, academic programs and faculty improvement. However, taking into account the Soviet Union’s legacy in Georgia, the country is in a good condition in terms of approximation to the EU in the field of higher education. There are political forces supporting the implementation of policies and regulations utilised by international organisations and developed countries. In some respects, the foundation has already been laid: relevant policies and funding regulations already exist, and a number of programmes have been implemented. The main concern at this moment is ensuring that planning is being done for the long term with all three reformable aspects being considered. In response to the key research question, the concluding statement is that the Georgian higher education policies are in line with those of Europe.

Considering the powerful character of the Bologna Process, one should not be surprised by the great impact this complex process would have over the higher education systems of signatory countries. The discussion of the effects produced by these international ideas over a transitional country was most important.

Integration into the EU is one of the strategic foreign policy goals of the Georgian government and accession to the EU is considered to be a vital opportunity for the development of the Georgian state. Eventual membership will necessarily have important implications for higher education. In the past decade, the orientation and approximation of education requirements with those of the EU have presented a considerable task.

Recommendations drawn on the identification of gaps are mainly focused on systemic problems. In other words, a shared vision for change based on borrowed policy is recommended to be developed engaging and involving all the stakeholders. Furthermore, crucial importance is given to capacity building activities in terms of personnel professional development in the areas related to the reform. Equally important is the timely monitoring of progress. The EC and the Georgian government need to take stock of the progress towards these challenges at annual meetings.

Considering the limited time, the Georgian Government and HEIs have made great strides towards converting the Soviet style education system to a new democratically oriented one. On a final note, it should be mentioned that 10 years is nothing for implementing reform this complex in a country with severe difficulties resulting from its recent history. The case study shows that a certain stage of willingness and domestic motivation for reform has proved to be an important precondition for implementing the Association Agreement. Progress in Georgia is first and foremost a consequence of the home-driven dynamic for reform. Its motivation for approximation to EU criteria is and remains the desire for EU membership, which the Association Agreement does not offer.

Timely identification of gaps and challenges gives special importance to this article as with time these would create
hindrances for future developments in the approximation process. The study could be considered an important contribution to higher education policy and legal harmonization research and a baseline product on which further research on high quality reform, the current and future development of higher education in Georgia and an examination of harmonization to the EU can be built on. The paper also contributes to our theoretical understanding of policy borrowing and its practical implementation in the post-Soviet world. Nevertheless, the study is not without limitations. Due to lack of time, the scope of the study focuses solely on state-level changes and does not extend to a consideration of the degree to which the reform is being implemented at the institutional level. It is suggested that future research should focus on conducting interviews with stakeholders and experts for collecting first hand and updated information. Possible lines of inquiry could be harmonization of higher education policies on a broader scale and comparative analysis of legal approximation to the EU among other post-Soviet countries. It might be interesting to see how the process of policy borrowing is implemented in other countries and compare it to the Georgian case. Future research could also consider the degree to which the changes is being applied at the HEI level.

REFERENCES


DIFFERENTIATION OF FORMAL DOCUMENT STYLE IN THE ENGLISH AND GEORGIAN LANGUAGES

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ABSTRACT

Writing is one of the means of communication. It is unbelievable to imagine modern business world without business correspondence. Considering whom we are writing to and what we are planning to write, the language - vocabulary and syntax and even at times the tone of the writing - changes. Two types of writing style are identified: formal and informal writing styles. Taking all-mentioned into consideration two types of writing are viewed in the paper: formal and informal writing styles. Both of them are acceptable, but for business correspondence formal writing style is mainly used. When it comes to formal correspondence, it is vital to consider and follow the number of characteristics and markers of the formal writing style. Formal letter is supposed to be written in a short way with complete and understandable sentences. The use of contracted grammatical forms is not advisable. Is not advisable to use short grammatical forms, either. Also, preference is given to the use of passive voice and the imperative. The aim of the paper is to compare formal correspondence style in the Georgian and English languages, i.e. to outline principal similarities and differences and establish common characteristics/markers between the two styles. Official documents in the English and Georgian languages have been selected for making the corresponding analysis and survey of the above mentioned issues.

Key-words: Formal letters, business letters, business correspondence.

Writing is one of the means of communication. It is unbelievable to imagine modern business world without business correspondence. Considering whom we are writing to and what we are planning to write, the language - vocabulary and syntax and even at times the tone of the writing - changes. Two types of writing style are identified: formal and informal writing. Both are acceptable, but for business correspondence we mainly use formal writing style, as informal English is casual and is appropriate when communicating with friends and other close people.

People mainly write formal letters to obtain information, inform others, apply for an academic program or a job, write a complaint letter, apologize, congratulate, express gratitude, remind, reject a proposal or offer, or simply express their opinions in an effective and coherent manner.

Letters are written from a person / group, known as the sender to a person/group, known in business as the recipient. Here are some examples of senders and recipients:

Business → business
Business → consumer
Job applicant → company
When it comes to formal correspondence, it is vital to consider and follow the number of characteristics and markers of the formal writing style. A formal letter is supposed to be written in a short way with complete and understandable sentences; it avoids all unnecessary friendly chat and casualness. It should be strong, clear, concise and mistake-free, as a business letter often gives the first impression to our clients or partners. Errors may diminish the impact of the statement or the impression the sender is trying to make. There is every possibility if the letter is too long, it will end up in the bin. That is why letters should take seconds to read, rather than minutes.

When a person plans to write a formal letter, s/he should always remember about the strict rules to follow:

In formal writing, one may not use contractions. No contractions should be used to simplify words, while it is normal in informal writing. For example, while writing to one’s mother, a person may write contractions like can’t, won’t or ain’t; but if one is writing a formal letter, s/he will have to use the full forms of words such as cannot, will not or are not. As for the abbreviations, they must be spelt out in full when we use them for the first time, but there are some exceptions for world-wide known ones, for example: BBC, UNESCO or NATO.

Formal writing is not a personal writing style. While writing a formal letter, one must use only the third person as a mark of respect and formality. As for informal letter, one can address the receiver in first, second or third person.

The key principles of writing a formal letter are as follows. The letter should have a desired effect on the reader. To achieve this effect, it should be:

- in the correct format
- short and to the point
- relevant
- free of any grammatical or spelling mistakes
- polite, even if one is complaining
- well presented

The correct format means that a letter should be written in standard format and strictly follow the steps given below:

1. The writers address (and not the name of the writer) goes in the top right hand corner. Generally e-mail or telephone number are not given, but it would be permissible.
2. Below this, on the left, goes the name and the address of the person we are writing to.
3. As for the position of the date, it is more flexible. It can go on the left or the right, but it should go below the addressee details.

4. Then at the beginning of the letter there is the salutation. If the name of the person that the letter is addressed to is unknown, the greeting “Dear Sir/Madam (or Dear Sir or Madam)” is used, but if the addressee’s name is known, the salutation should be “Dear Mr Johns”. Also it is necessary to remember: Mr – for male, Mrs – for a married female, Miss – for an unmarried female, Ms – for a female whose status is unknown or who would prefer to remain anonymous and Dr /Prof - for a person with the status of a doctor / professor. All those above-mentioned titles should be followed by the surname only (not the first name).

5. Below the salutation in formal or business letters sometimes it is common to put the subject of the letter. The purpose is to give the reader an idea of what the letter is about before reading it.

6. While writing an official letter, it is important to get straight to the point, not to include any unnecessary or supplementary information. It is not advisable to use long words just for the sake of it and the already given information should not be repeated. The content of the letter should be as short as possible, divided into short, clear paragraphs. The first (introductory) paragraph should be concise and should clearly state the purpose. It should give a clear message whether it is a letter of complaint, making an enquiry or a request. In the main body the points the letter is about should be mentioned. Here the main purpose should be explained, details and examples given. As for the concluding paragraph, it should outline what actions the recipient is expected to take. For example: to refund a sum, to send the information, etc.

7. It is common to end the letter with a phrase such as “I look forward to hear from you.

8. To end the letter, “Yours sincerely” is normally written, if the letter started with the name of the person, or “Yours faithfully”, if the letter started with “Dear sir”.

9. Directly below this there should be the signature and the writer’s name below it.

After writing the letter, it is essential to check it for grammatical and spelling accuracy. Otherwise, the letter will create a very bad impression and will decrease the desired effect. The letter should make an effect on the reader and have a practical result.

While writing formal letter one should always be polite and respectful, even if complaining. To achieve the “task”, the English language gives us an opportunity with the help of modal verbs, such as would, could and should. For example, instead of simple – “please send me”, one can express this more formally and say: “I would be grateful if you could send me ...”. But it is important not to overdo with the formal style, otherwise the letter will look too formal or old-fashioned.

While writing the letter, it is necessary to take into consideration the below standards and the writer should always remember that for formatting business / formal letter for both Georgian and English ones they are the same:

- Use A4 (European) or 8.5 x 11 inch (North American) paper or letterhead
- Use 2.5 cm or 1 inch margins on all four sides
- Use a simple font such as Sylfaen or Times New Roman
There are some coincidences and differences between formal letters in the Georgian and English languages. For the survey letter examples from the internet were used. Unfortunately, there are very few recommendations/instructions about formal letters and documents in the Georgian language. For the survey 20 Georgian and 20 English formal letters were used.

At the first glance one can see no difference but, after going into details, I saw that in Georgian formal letters the address of the sender is not included at all. There are only recipients' addresses and they are given in the top right-hand corner, at the very place, where in English letters the senders' addresses are written.

The second difference I came across is that all first words in every paragraph are one space inside in the Georgian formal letters. As for English formal letters, all the paragraphs are just separated with Double spaces.

As for the position of the date, as mentioned above, it is more flexible. It can go on the left or on the right, but it should go below the addressee details. But anyway, there are again some differences. In Georgian formal letters dates are written in the right-hand corner, while in the English ones they are mostly written in the left-hand corner.

Then comes the salutation. Both in Georgian and English formal letters, it comes in the left-hand corner. So, here we have coincidence. But in Georgian formal letters, “dear” is not used, for male write batono (ბატონო), for female – qalbatono (ქალბატონო) is written, which is followed by the first name. As for the English formal letters, here we have a diversity. We must remember: After “dear” the words to follow are: Mr – for male, Mrs – for a married female, Miss – for an unmarried female, Ms – for a female whose status is unknown or would prefer to remain anonymous and Dr / Prof - for a person with the status of a doctor / professor and all these are always followed by the surnames, not by the first name as in the Georgian letter-examples.

As for the abbreviated forms, abbreviations and slangs in the formal letters, I have not came across any in the sample ones, neither in the Georgian, nor in the English language. As mentioned above, they are not acceptable for formal letters. But, unlike Georgian letters, I came across with phrasal verbs and idioms in the English formal ones. For example, phrasal verbs such as: call on, pass on to, couple with, make up, mark down, cut back and idioms like: it is available in a premium carry away gift pack, it is really a fore-runner, we must hold you to your order, etc.
As for the ending of the letter, in the Georgian formal letters “pativiscemiti” (“პატივისცემით”) is written (there is no choice), but in the English formal letters there is diversity again: “Yours sincerely”, if we the letter started with the name of the person, or “Yours faithfully”, if the letter started with “Dear sir”.

So, as a conclusion it is necessary to admit that brevity is the soul of correspondence. The letter must clearly convey the information and there must not be any ambiguity. It should convey the sender’s interest to the reader. Business letter should be courteous. To sound positive, the writer should avoid negative words and try to choose words with great care. And the most important, a business letter reflects the image of the sender / organization.

Links used for the survey:

3. http://library.bcu.ac.uk/learner/writingguides/1.06.htm
MAKING USE OF STANDARDIZED TESTS IN ORDER TO MOTIVATE STUDENTS TO ACQUIRE ENGLISH EFFICIENTLY

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ABSTRACT

The goal of this article is to investigate the impact of standardized tests on students’ motivation. This study tried to explore the backwash effect of standardized tests, in particular, Cambridge exams, specifically, FCE tests and preparation courses, on students’ motivation. Our study defines the notions of standardized testing, backwash effect and motivation. In order to investigate the backwash effect of FCE test preparation on students’ motivation towards learning English the quantitative method was implemented. A survey was created and applied to 9th graders at the beginning of the one-month test preparation period. At the end of this period, the same survey was applied to the same students. Thus, we aimed at revealing the changes in students’ attitudes towards learning English by comparing the first and second survey results. According to the data obtained from the survey, it was found that standardized tests, in particular, FCE tests and the application of the test preparation courses, have a positive backwash effect on students’ motivation to acquire English effectively.

Key words: Standardized tests, backwash (washback) effect, motivation, goal setting, ESOL exams

LITERATURE REVIEW

Standardized Testing

Standardized tests are defined as large-scale tests that are produced and administered to students and then scored in the same way. All students are given the same test in the same circumstances and preferably at the same time, to attribute the test results to student performance, not to differences in the test, the way it is given or the time it is given (Barth, 2006).

In today’s world standardized tests have evolved to be an inevitable part of life, ranging from academic to business world. For instance, universities admit promising students based on certain criteria and one of them is standardized test score. Similarly, people all over the world are making a great effort to prove that they are the right applicants for any company or university by taking eye-catching scores in standardized tests like SAT, TOEFL, FCE, etc.
According to Shohamy (1998), tests can be used for power and control to influence teaching and learning. If the tests have such a potential impact on education, they must be taken into consideration in the process of creating educational policies of private institutions and governments.

As Hughes (1989) argued in his book, from now on perhaps standardized exams will not be slaves of language teaching. It is a fact that exams are usually prepared by teachers, based on what and how they taught. The materials and the methodology teachers apply in classrooms do not necessarily mean that they are the right and desired ones that are demanded by experts, most of the students and parents. On the contrary, not only the popularity of standardized tests, but also their quality is increasing day by day. Thus, standardized tests tend to be masters of language education. Consequently, they will most probably manage and even shape the materials and the methodology teachers and students use for the sake of the quality of language learning.

**Backwash (washback) effect**

The potential impact of standardized tests is usually called backwash or washback effect in literature. Backwash (washback) effect has been investigated and defined by various researchers. According to Shohamy (1992, 1993), washback effect is a planned implementation that is applied over educational institutions in order to manipulate behaviors of teachers and students.

Valette (1967) and Spolsky (1996) argue that backwash effect symbolizes only unforeseen and harmful effect. Cheng (1997, 2005) states that the term ‘backwash effect’ is used to refer completely to the intentional curriculum changes related to a testing innovation. Washback (washback) is defined by Shohamy (1996, p. 298) as “the connections between testing and learning”. Messick (1996, p. 241) defines this notion in a detailed way as “… the extent to which the introduction and use of a test influences language teachers and learners to do things they would not otherwise do that promote or inhibit language learning”.

According to Bailey (1996), washback can be either positive or negative to the degree that it either encourages or inhibits the attainment of educational goals held by learners, educators or both.

**Negative backwash (washback) effect**

It is usually defined as harmful influence of tests on education. Some tests appear to deteriorate students’ motivation to learn English. If a test does not include speaking and listening tasks, the application of this test will encourage students to ignore the improvement of these skills. As a result, the implementation of this test format will result in negligence of the mentioned skills. For instance, the English test in school finishing exams called ATESTAT in Georgia does not contain speaking skills-based tasks. That is why, it may be argued that this test has a negative backwash effect on students’ motivation to improve these skills.

**Positive backwash (washback) effect**

It is defined as the beneficial impact of tests on education in general. This effect may be exerted on purpose or it can occur unintentionally. For example, Cambridge ESOL exams test all four language skills. In addition to these, unlike other Cambridge exams and TOEFL tests, FCE tests include an extra section called ‘use of English’, which evaluates students’ creative use of grammar and vocabulary knowledge. It can be suggested that provided that FCE tests are applied at schools,
the students will most probably need to not only study grammar and vocabulary, but also make more effort to improve four main language skills.

**Motivation**

Motivation is defined in different words by different researchers. Nevertheless, it is clear that all the definitions mean almost the same. According to some, it is defined as “the reasons underlying behavior” (Guay et al., 2010). For Broussard and Garrison (2004, p. 106) motivation means “the attribute which leads people to do or not to do something”. Motivation consists of a set of beliefs, perceptions, values, interests and actions that are all closely related.

**Types of motivation (Intrinsic vs. Extrinsic Motivation)**

In literature different sorts of motivation are mentioned. However, it can be said that there are mainly two types of motivation.

**Intrinsic motivation**

It is the motivation type that is triggered by personal desire, interest or pleasure. Based on some scientists’ observations, “intrinsic motivation energizes and sustains activities through the spontaneous satisfactions which are inborn in effective volitional actions. This kind of motivation is visible in behaviors such as games, exploration and challenge seeking that people often do for exterior rewards” (Deci et al., 1999, p. 658).

**Extrinsic motivation**

According to Stipek (1996), in this type of motivation all behaviors, including success, are considered to be ruled by reinforcement contingencies. Three different types of reinforcers were identified. First of all, positive reinforcers, in other words, rewards are consequences which increase the probability of a given behavior, because the moment a target behavior is performed, a reward is given. Secondly, negative reinforcers are consequences which increase the probability of a given behavior as some negative external stimuli are removed or reduced. Thirdly, as the last type of reinforcer, punishment is defined as unpleasant consequences that lessen the probability of a given behavior.

Application of standardized test preparation is analyzed here to exemplify the terms of reinforcement. If we take into consideration the case of application of test preparation, teachers can use the practice test results as reinforcers. For example, Cambridge ESOL practice exams have been applied at the end of each semester at Private Demirel College (in Tbilisi, Georgia) since 2013. In this implementation, 7th and 8th graders take PET practice exams and 9th, 10th and 11th graders take FCE practice exams. Afterwards, the results of these tests are announced to the students. According to the results, the students who attain high scores are awarded unofficial PET and FCE certificates. What is more, these promising students are encouraged to register for the official exams and to get the official certificates. After that, as soon as any of the students gets official Cambridge ESOL certificate, his/her certificate is exhibited on the school corner of certificates. In this case it is clear that hardworking and successful students with certificates are given positive reinforcers as exhibition of their names and certificates at school publicly. On the contrary, students who do not study enough are given negative reinforcers by depriving them of certificates and the public display of their names. Furthermore, it is obvious that these students are in a sense punished indirectly by means of announcement of test results, because the results reveal their failure.
Goal Setting and Motivation

According to a report which was written by Ronald Taylor (2012), when the goals of underachievers and achievers were compared, it was found that underachievers had no specific goals or they had set goals beyond their academic levels, whereas achievers set realistic, attainable goals which were related to their academic level. So, it can be inferred from the finding that there is a positive correlation between setting realistic, attainable goals and achievements.

Furthermore, according to Siegle (2000), more challenging goals among students trigger higher achievement. In addition to this, Zimmerman, Bandura and Martinez-Pons (1992) argue that goals increase people’s cognitive and affective reactions to performance outcomes because goals specify the requirements for individual success. These researchers conclude that when elementary students are taught to use goals and to divide large and distant goals into smaller sub-goals, they tend to make faster progress in learning skills or content. In essence, they become more academically successful.

If students have a role in the formation of the goals, they will internalize the goals and become accountable toward the goals. Moreover, students will become even more autonomous when developing personal goals, which are specific only to themselves. The moment the goals are set, they will enable the students to be focused on what is most relevant and what can be strived to achieve the target goals. In the end, when goals are actualized, the students have a sense of accomplishment. For example, based on our observations, the 8th grade students who study and get official PET certificates tend to be more self-confident and more determined to get FCE certificates, which is more challenging to attain compared with PET certificates.

RESEARCH

KET, PET and FCE practice exams have applied to the students twice a year at Private Demirel College (Tbilisi-Georgia) since 2013, as they are applied in many other institutions in the world. In the first semester of 2014-2015 education year, we prepared 9th graders for the FCE practice exam for one month, using FCE materials as supplementary to the main course book, Gateway B1+ (MacMillan Pub. 2011).

The current research study was carried out to investigate the ‘washback effect’ of a standardized language test, namely the First Certificate in English (FCE) and the preparation period for it on students’ motivation to acquire English efficiently.

Research Design

A quantitative method was applied to search for the backwash effect of FCE test preparation period at Private Demirel College. A Likert-scale survey was designed and given to the 9th grade students. The survey consisted of 9 statements. Four of them, which display the impact of FCE tests, are mentioned in this article. Every statement had five different options. Students were asked to read each statement and then select the most appropriate choice for them among the alternatives. The options were as follows:


The same questionnaire was given to the same participants twice, at the beginning of the FCE test preparation period, which lasted one month, and at the end of the test preparation period.
In this, one-month, period the teacher did not change the current course book, which was *Gateway B1+*. Instead, the teacher supported and enriched the course book via FCE materials. To illustrate, after presenting suffixes to the classes, relevant worksheets of sample word formation tasks taken from FCE practice tests were distributed to the class. Word formation task is one of the tasks in use of English part of FCE exam. Thus, the students not only reinforced the fresh topic – suffixes - but also they got prepared for the standardized test which is recognized internationally. Similarly, other topics in the syllabus were practiced by means of FCE supplementary materials during one month. Lastly, at the end of the preparation period, students took a mock test of FCE. Hence, the period was ended. Then, the same questionnaire was given second time to get the students’ perception about the FCE test preparation.

The purpose of the questionnaire was to observe the possible change in 9th grade students’ attitudes and motivation towards learning English due to the implementation of FCE test preparation course and to find out the possible backwash effect of FCE tests and the test preparation period on the students’ motivation to study English.

**Research Questions**

The primary research objective in this study is to investigate the effect of standardized test preparation on improving English language learning and impacts of using standardized test on motivating the student on the path to efficient English language acquisition.

In order to reach the objective of this research, the study seeks to provide answers to the following research questions:

1. Does an FCE standardized test have a washback effect on students’ motivation to acquire English efficiently?
2. Does an FCE test have negative or positive washback effect on students’ motivation towards improving their English language proficiency?
3. How long should FCE tests be applied to create a positive washback effect on students’ motivation towards improving English language proficiency?

Each question has its own specific goal. The first question is in the pursuit of proving the possible washback effect of FCE on students’ motivation of improving their English skills’ level. If any change is observed between first and second survey, the existence of washback effect will be proved.

The second question aims at determining whether the existing washback effect is beneficial or harmful for students’ motivation. For instance, a possible increase in the percentage of the students who agreed to the first statement of the questionnaire will imply that FCE preparation period enable them to be more intrinsically motivated to study and improve their English language competence. This means that FCE tests have a positive washback effect.

The purpose of the third question is to reveal whether a one-month test preparation period is enough or a longer period is needed to provide positive washback effect. That is, at the end of one month FCE preparation, if a positive washback effect is observed on the students’ motivation, the result will mean that a one-month period is enough or vice versa.

**Participants**

Forty students in the 9th grade at Private Demirel College (Tbilisi, Georgia) were selected as participants of the survey. They were distributed the questionnaire twice at intervals without any kind of discrimination, such as age, class, gender, nationality, or level of English skills. Actually, most of the students were Georgian.
Data Collection Procedure

For data collection, school teachers were assigned as proctors for the data collection period. The questionnaire was given to the students in the classrooms by the teachers, who were guided by researchers. The survey was anonymous and the students were requested at the beginning to be sincere about their replies. What is more, they were asked to complete the survey individually without being affected by others and circle the appropriate option for each statement. After they finished the task, the questionnaires were collected. Afterwards, the students’ replies in the questionnaire were processed. Later, the numerical results of both surveys were collected, inserted into an appropriate program and analyzed. Findings for the same statement from both surveys were compared and contrasted in one table. Thus, the changes between surveys, such as an increase or a decrease were made obvious to comment on more easily.

Findings

The statistics that were obtained from two surveys were contrasted, analyzed and evaluated for each statement one by one. The data that were displayed in the figures and the tables were analyzed and evaluated.

![Figure 1](image)

**Figure 1 I am studying English because I love and enjoy it**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Survey</strong></td>
<td>18.75%</td>
<td>59.37%</td>
<td>9.37%</td>
<td>9.37%</td>
<td>3.12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Second Survey</strong></td>
<td>53.12%</td>
<td>43.75%</td>
<td>3.12%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1 I am studying English because I love and enjoy it**

According to the figure 1 and the table 1, it is clear that there seems to be an astonishing change of inclination regarding the cause of studying English. That is to say, in the first survey, which was delivered at the beginning of the FCE test preparation period, 18.75 % of the students strongly agreed that they studied English because they loved and enjoyed it. However, in the second survey, 53.12 % of the students strongly agreed that they studied English because they loved and enjoyed it. We can infer from the remarkable 34.37 % increase in strong agreement that test preparation process contributed to students’ attitudes and intrinsic motivation towards English in a positive way. In other words, a notable
positive correlation prevails between FCE preparation practice and intrinsic motivation in the direction of studying English. Thus, it can be argued that the more they get prepared for FCE, the more they will love and enjoy studying English.

![Figure 2: I want to increase my English level for academic purposes](image)

Table 2: I want to increase my English level for academic purposes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Survey</td>
<td>41.86%</td>
<td>44.18%</td>
<td>11.62%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2.32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Survey</td>
<td>65.11%</td>
<td>30.23%</td>
<td>4.65%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data in figure 2 and table 2 demonstrate students' preferences about the purposes of studying English. There is an amazing increase in the tendency towards studying English for academic purposes. While the percentage of the students who strongly agreed that they intended to improve their English language level to be competent at academic studies was 41.86 %, in the second survey, it increased to 65.11 %.

The incredible 23.25% increase in strong agreement clearly shows that test preparation process contributed in a positive way to the students' attitudes and motivation towards studying English in order to use at universities. The dramatic increase in the percentages also implies that a remarkable positive correlation exists between an FCE preparation procedure and learning English in order to use at universities. As a result, this preparation may enable them to be admitted to prestigious universities.
Figure 3: Preparation for FCE motivates me to study English language harder

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Survey</strong></td>
<td>21.87%</td>
<td>43.75%</td>
<td>25.00%</td>
<td>3.12%</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Second Survey</strong></td>
<td>23.25%</td>
<td>27.90%</td>
<td>41.86%</td>
<td>6.97%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Preparation for FCE motivates me to study English language harder

The data in figure 3 and table 3 reveal the students’ preferences about the relationship between preparation for FCE and motivation to study English. According to the first survey results, 21.87% of the students strongly agreed and 43.75% of the students agreed that FCE preparation practice motivated them to study English harder. In the second survey 23.25% strongly agreed (or a small increase is registered), but only 27.90% of the students agreed that they were motivated to study English more due to the FCE test preparation. The decrease by 15.85 % percentage in the second survey may have been caused by the weak students who were shocked by the difficulty of the test. As a result, the challenging FCE exam seems to have a certain negative backwash effect on the weak students’ motivation to study English harder. What is more, the difficulty of the test may have deteriorated their self-efficacy in terms of English language education.
Figure 4: I think I will be able to take the FCE certificate this year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Survey</strong></td>
<td>15.62%</td>
<td>37.50%</td>
<td>31.25%</td>
<td>12.50%</td>
<td>3.12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Second Survey</strong></td>
<td>16.27%</td>
<td>34.88%</td>
<td>30.23%</td>
<td>13.95%</td>
<td>4.65%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: I think I will be able to take the FCE certificate in this year

According to the first survey results shown in figure 4 and table 4, it is clear that 15.62% strongly agreed and 37.50% of students agreed that they will be able to take FCE certificate that year. However, a great number of students (31.25%) preferred to be neutral. Based on the data, it can be claimed that a plenty of students are not sure as to whether they will be able to take FCE certificate in that year. According to the second survey, there is a very slight increase (0.65%) in the number of students who strongly agree that they will be able to take the exam that year and a slight decrease (2.62 %) in the percentage of the students who agree on the statement. This decrease again may have been caused by some weak students who recognized that FCE test is challenging. We can deduce from the slight two-lateral change between the first and second survey results that one-month test preparation process did not cause students to really change their belief related to obtaining FCE certificate in one year. Accordingly, we can be sure that one-month test preparation period is not enough for the majority of the students to develop self-confidence about getting certificates. That is why, the more time they spend getting prepared for FCE, the more they will be self-confident and get to believe that they will be able to pass these exams and get the certificates.

CONCLUSION

According to the statistics obtained from the survey that was carried out in order to investigate the backwash effect of a one-month FCE test preparation period at Demirel College, very interesting data were revealed about the backwash effect. This valuable information is discussed, critiqued and then evaluated to make deductions and suggestions in terms of English language education.

First of all, as a result of the implementation of FCE test preparation at Demirel College, the number of the students who strongly agreed that they studied English because they loved and enjoyed increased by 34.37%. It is obvious that preparation for FCE has a beneficial backwash effect on students’ intrinsic motivation and attitudes towards English language education. Besides, according to the majority of the observers in educational settings, intrinsic motivation is believed to be more durable and effective regarding students’ achievements. Therefore, intrinsically motivated students are more likely to reach their goals compared with extrinsically motivated ones (Deci et al., 1999).

Secondly, at the end of the preparation period, the number of the students who strongly agreed that they wanted to improve their English level for academic purposes increased by 23.25% %. Based on the data, the positive washback effect of FCE is clearly observed on students’ extrinsic motivation of improving and enriching their English in order to be able to achieve more at higher academic settings like highly selective universities in the world. This motivation originated from attaining smaller goals like getting high scores in FCE practice tests and then obtaining FCE certificates. Later, these tiny
but successful steps of students are highly likely to result in higher self-esteem, which encourages the students to set higher goals in their academic lives.

These findings of the survey are also confirmed by scientists’ researches. Based on their studies, Decatur, Fitzsimmons, McGee, and Miller (2008) reached a conclusion that a personal goal setting had a rippling effect. That is to say, as the students formed reasonable goals to achieve and attained such goals as getting FCE certificates, they were able to establish higher levels of academic engagement and motivation. Consequently, needless to say, thanks to this durable and endless motivation, students are more likely to enlarge their goals and intend to aim higher and achieve more.

Similarly, Bandura & Schunk’s (1981) experimental studies revealed that teaching low-achieving students to set goals for themselves improved their academic achievement and their intrinsic interest in subject matter. That is why school administration, teachers and parents are supposed to be aware of this beneficial and indispensable motivational instrument. What is more, they should not hesitate to take advantage of FCE and other ESOL exams such as PET, KET and so on, in order to motivate students in terms of English language Teaching (ELT) starting from the early ages. Subsequently, the students who have already tasted the delight of success can naturally envisage higher targets and in the end aim at being admitted to the most prestigious universities in the world like Harvard, Yale, MIT and so on.

Thirdly, it is quite clear that the implementation of FCE test preparation courses has a positive backwash effect on strong and bright students. On the other hand, if teachers do not adapt the materials or do not support weak students in a way, the implementation may trigger a negative backwash effect on the weak students and might diminish their motivation towards studying English.

Thus, while strong students are encouraged to achieve more by means of FCE materials, weak students should not be ignored and discouraged. For instance, teachers may adapt FCE materials by simplifying and making them more comprehensible for their learners. In addition to this, they may explain the topics and test tasks to weak students in detail, arranging additional time or lessons for these students. Otherwise, they are likely to deteriorate the class atmosphere. Subsequently, teachers and the whole class are likely to suffer from their irritating behaviors.

One-month FCE test preparation practice appears to be insufficient to make the students believe that they will pass the test. At least a one-year preparation course, even preferably a two-year preparation period may be needed by the students to get ready well and gain self-confidence to pass the test. That is why they should be encouraged to start getting prepared for it earlier.

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT

Education is and has always been among the scope of interest of people. We are all aware of what modern higher education looks like and what role it plays in the development of a person, but it is also very interesting to trace back and find the roots and reasons why and by whom education was started as a field and what stages higher education system has undergone in order to obtain the current state. Knowing the history of education also enables contemporary scholars to avoid mistakes in the future, as a lot can be studied or examined from the past failures in the „realm” of education. According to J. Klein, the reason of human education can be found in the human nature itself. Questioning about all unknown or forgotten things, humans’ curious nature, etc. have given the way to education. The paper explores the development of higher education from the rudiments of university till the Middle Ages. It underlines those aspects which are of great importance in contemporary higher education. This historical review mainly focuses on the social role of higher education. While reading the article, the reader will vividly see the similarities and differences between the contemporary higher education system and the system of one of the historical periods.

Key Words: History of Higher Education. Rudiments of University. University in Middle-Ages. Roots of Modern University. Social Role of the University.

History matters. It matters not just because we can learn from the past, but because the present and future are connected to the past by the continuity of a society’s institutions. Today’s and tomorrow’s choices are shaped by the past. And the past can only be made intelligible as a story of institutional evolution.

Douglass C. North

INTRODUCTION

Education is and has always been among the scope of interest of people. We are all aware of what modern education looks like and what role it plays in the development of a person, but it is also very interesting to trace back and find the roots and reasons why and by whom education was started as a field and what stages education system has undergone in order
to obtain the current state. Knowing the history of education also enables contemporary scholars to avoid mistakes in the future, as a lot can be studied or examined from the past failures in the „realm” of education.

“Historical comparisons are crucial because there have been a number of different kinds of education, not a single evolutionary progress from primitive to modern forms. Because things do not develop in a straight line, we need to skip back and forth in time and in space, looking for key similarities and comparisons that reveal the main types of educational dynamics” (Collins, 2006: 214).

According to J. Klein (as cited in Myhrman & Weingast, 1994), the reason of human education can be found in the human nature itself. Questioning about all unknown or forgotten things, humans’ curious nature, etc. have given the way to education. J. Klein divides curiosity into two types: “Idle Curiosity” and “Nobler Kind of Curiosity”, the latter being namely the initial source and reason of human development leading to human education.

As H.G. Good (Good, 1957) mentions, there are two senses of education. The first of which is ‘Tell me, or show me, for I wish to learn’, in the process of which knowledge is transferred; and the second – ‘Do not tell me, because I want to learn for myself’ - meaning that knowledge is obtained by personal examination and discoveries. This division is quite interesting, actually these are the ways knowledge is discovered, analyzed and preserved for the future. We can add the third sense of education, which can be called “building” the paradigm of knowledge. To be more precise, from the knowledge we have from both above-mentioned senses, we can get the so-called “new truth”, “new discovery”, etc. We think that university has to be considered as the institution “inventing” new truths and structuring and systematizing them in a way to make them understandable for ‘tell me or show me’ type of people, in other words, for people seeking for new knowledge, i.e. students.

In this paper, we are going to trace the development of Higher Education from the very beginning up to the Middle Ages and note all important historical changes it underwent during this historical period before reaching the current state. We will discuss universities, which, we think, played a great role in the development of university system in general.

**Rudiments of Higher Education**

If we take the term broadly enough, education in some sense has always existed. “Adults have always inculcated the younger generation with the skills and practices of their society” (Collins, 2006:215).

As we know, education has its roots in ancient history. Mankind understood the need of education very early, “Code of Hammurabi” (1948-1904 B.C.) was written 4000 years ago, which proves that in that period not only customary practice was adopted, but there were some legal institutions as well.

What we retrospectively call “higher” education in Greece did not grow from elementary schools to secondary schools to a crowning level but was the first self-conscious educational institution invented. The schools of philosophy and rhetoric set a pattern that spread downward, eventually shaping the lives of young children” (Collins, 2006:217). We can start tracing higher education development since the period Greeks developed science, that is 2000 years ago. During that period, there were rudiments of systematically studying subjects similar to modern ethics, politics and education. As we know, young people in Greece, who wished to do some social work, be active citizens or even be members of the country’s government, ought to be skilled and namely these skills were taught by Sophists- Protagoras and Hippias of Elis, by the year 450B.C., later by Aristoteles, and then by Gorgias, Plato and Isocrates. Plato’s educational system contained arithmetic, geometry,
astronomy, music and logic or the science of thinking. All above-mentioned people were teaching rhetoric, logics, grammar, etc. This period can be considered as the rudiment in creation of the curriculum of the Middle Ages. We should also mention Hippocrates for his very important role in medicine; he was honored the title “the Father of Medicine” and Socrates (469-399 B.C.) was the developer of ethics.

“Greek and the Roman city-states, where laws were made by assemblies of citizens and law cases were argued before these same assemblies, the professional speaker or arguer became the advocate or lawyer. The most influential of the schools founded by the pupils of Socrates was not Plato’s Academy, but its principal rival: the school of rhetoric founded by Isocrates. This school, along with the philosophical schools (the Academy, similar schools at Megara, Gyrene, Elis, a little later Aristotle’s Lyceum, the Stoa, and others) became the institutional basis for higher education” (Collins, 2006: 217).

Graduation ephebia was not only for personal development, one needed it in order to find a job. „Only after completing the ephebia were young men allowed into the adult activities of the army, the gymnasium, and political life” (Collins, 2006: 216). We can assume, that ephebia was kind of a rudiment of formal higher education, the completion of which gave the "green light" for future employment. „A profession may be defined sociologically as an occupation that has a strong corporate identity and closure enforced through licensing and through formal education monopolizing admission into practice. It is its formal education that raises a “profession” above the status of a mere craft, in explicit contrast to the familistic or guild structure of on-the-job training by apprenticeship” (Collins, 2006: 221). Obtaining knowledge and profession was essential for ancient Greeks, but education was not considered as only the place where one could get a profession, it also served as an institution where one felt oneseif part of the society and namely here "social identity" was born. „The ephebia or protoschool was thus an institution for creating a collective identity that cut across and united youths outside of clan membership and loyalty, and in considerable degree replaced it. In Sparta, one might say that the ephebia model was extended into an entire social structure, so that all males remained members of the collectivity, living and training for warfare together for the rest of their lives” (Collins, 2006: 216).

There were different professions which were considered as being very prestigious. But the most prestigious among them was the profession of Rhetor. “In Greece, the high-status, educated professions were rhetors (the politician/speechmaker and lawyer) and physicians; as we have seen, these professions became organized through the invention of the formal school around 400 B.C.” (Collins, 2006: 222).

Even at that time education was considered a very essential “tool” in order to find oneself in life. „In the ancient world, knowledge and education were seen, in the first instance, as tools for shaping rounded individuals as well as, through the indissoluble link believed to exist between the individual and wider society, the institution of citizenship, for the creation of a rounded, right-thinking society” (Christinidis & Ellis, 2012: 62) So we can assume that ancient world had the same goals, views, ideas and intentions shared with the contemporary world.

It is interesting to mention, that the “market society”, which is very often used nowadays, was also very common for ancient civilization. “A mature civilization not only can make good use of the advantages of moral rules and social norms but it can also cultivate them and enhance them. Such was the case of Ancient Athens which during its Golden Age (5th B.C.) and its decline (4th B.C.) had economic institutions and an economic market that are very similar to the ones in today’s market societies. It also had legal institutions, social structure and moral values reminiscent of today’s modern democracies” (Karayiannis & Hatzis, 2010)
The mobility of students was also very common for ancient education. People were choosing the best "educational institutions" in order to get knowledge necessary for their future career. "Not only did the number of men wishing to become educated increase, but also, since there were no additional barriers to stop them, they naturally travelled to en masse to the point where they could best find this education, which they felt they needed" (Durkheim, 2006). Notwithstanding all these coincidences with the contemporary universities, we have to bear in mind that ancient higher education was quite different from modern one, although it played an important role as the ancestor of university. There were several early rudimentary universities even in the 5th-4th century B.C., e.g. Athens, Alexandria, Pergamon, and Rhodes, which means that education (including the higher one) was of great importance for the ancient world. Of course, we cannot consider those academies or philosophic schools being similar to what we mean under university, but they should be considered as the rudiment of university.

"The roots of the University as a community of scholars, with an international outlook but also with responsibilities within particular cultures, can be traced back to two institutions that developed in Egypt in the last two or three centuries B.C and A.D. One is Alexandria Museum and Library, and another is monastic system." (Ajayi, Lameck & Johnson, 2009:44).

Even though we are speaking about the role of ancient education in the development of medieval universities, "the organizational form of the university cannot be traced to classical antiquity, nor was it influenced by Byzantium." (Ruegg, 1994:7). The history of university, as educational institution and as "being primarily a part of intellectual history" (Ruegg, 1994: 10) dates from medieval period. Before discussing universities themselves, we would like to define the term "university". We will mention when and how it was born and how medieval society perceived it.

**Universities of Middle Ages**

According to H. Rashdall "the ancestor of university was called "studium generale." Private Educational establishment is not universitas, but studium generale; and studium generale means not a place where all subjects are studied, but a place where students from all parts are received" (Rashdall, 2009: 22), but according to Walter Ruegg (1994: 6), "higher education in the Middle Ages was called "studium generale" and later was designated as university." In the Middle Ages "the university was a guild of teachers (the term "universitas" originally meant guild) of the three recognized professions: law, medicine, and theology, along with the "artists," that is, professional teachers of the liberal arts, which were a preliminary study leading to the advanced professional faculties" (Collins, 2006: 224).

As it is possible to see, there is a slight or practically no difference between "studium generale" and "universitas". We can assume that university is the later term for "studium generale". It remains to point out the relation of the term "studium generale" to the term "universitas". There was originally no necessary connection between the institution denoted by the term "universitas" and the one denoted by the term "studium generale". Societies of masters or clubs of students were formed before the term "studium generale" came into habitual use; and in a few instances such societies are known to have existed in schools which never became "studia generalia". "The university was originally a scholastic guild whether of masters or students" (Rashdall, 2009: 25). It is necessary to mention that even though for the first period of existence founding "studia generalia" was easy, but "In the latter half of thirteenth century this unrestricted liberty of founding studia generalia gradually ceased; ... the erection of new studia generalia was one of the papal or imperial prerogatives" (Rashdall, 2009: 23).
“The notion that a university means a universitas facultatum - a school in which all the faculties or branches of knowledge are represented” (Rashdall, 2009: 21). J. Verger (1994: 37) defines university as “Universitas had become, for medieval jurists, the general term used to designate all kinds of community or corporation (a guild, a trade, a brotherhood, and so on).”

A glance into any collection of medieval documents reveals the fact that the word “university” means merely a number, a plurality, and / or an aggregate of persons. “Universitas vestra”, in a letter addressed to a body of persons, means merely “the whole of you”; in a more technical sense it denotes a legal corporation or juristic person: in Roman law it is for most purposes practically the equivalent of “collegium”. At the end of twelfth and the beginning of thirteenth centuries, we find the word applied to corporations either of masters or of students; but it long continues to be applied to other corporations as well, particularly to the then newly formed guilds and to the municipalities of towns; while, as applied to scholastic guilds, it is at first used interchangeably with such words as “community” or “college”. In the earliest period it is never used absolutely. The phrase is always “University of Scholars”, “University of Masters and Scholars”, “University of Study” or the like (Rashdall, 2009: 21-22).

As we have already mentioned, we can speak about university as an institution only from the Middle Ages, as namely that period can be considered as the date of birth of university. In other words, the medieval period can be considered as the most important period in the history of university, as namely then was university formed as an institution. It will not be surprising to mention, that Middle Ages can be considered as the best explored period of the history of university, but still we can see that there are a lot of gaps in the studies of this period, which gives us no opportunity to have a complete picture of this period. Only in case we have all information necessary for deep analysis, it will be possible “to trace the channels of intellectual currents and influence, to reconstruct the composition and structure of intellectual groups and their connections with each other, and the lines of transmission and diffusion of certain intellectual traditions such as Aristotelianism in the thirteenth, Roman law in the fourteenth, humanism in the fifteenth, and the Reformation in the sixteenth century” (Ruegg, 1994: 4).

We can divide the history of Medieval Universities in three phases, the first of which, of course, is the foundation of university. We have to pay the main attention to two universities: Paris and Bologna, as they were very different from each other, but they were of primary importance until the end of the 13th century. We do not have to exaggerate their difference and their influence upon other universities, but they played a considerably big role in the development of other universities. Taking into consideration all above-mentioned issues, it is needed to pay deserved attention to discussing these two universities.

There were, however, at the beginning of the thirteenth century, three “studia” to which the term was pre-eminently applied and which enjoyed a unique and transcendent prestige: they were Paris for theology and arts, Bologna for law, and Salerno for medicine (Rashdall, 2009: 27).

The exact date when Bologna or Paris universities were founded is not known and it is possible to assume an approximate date according to the facts that other scholars suggest. “The origin of the first universities is a very complex process. Bologna or Paris may be called the oldest university depending on the weight which one attributes to one or another of the various elements which make up university” (Ruegg, 1994: 6).

According to G. Campaye (2009: 68-71), the “12th century Bologna was one official university, but as education was quite demandable by the end of 15th century there were nearly 80 universities. This period can be considered as the period of
acceleration of universities. 19 universities in the 13th century, 28 universities in the 14th century, 28 universities in the 15th century. In the 16th century over 30 Universities were established. We can see how rapid the growth of Universities in Europe was" (Ruegg, 1994: 4).

As it has already been mentioned, Bologna was considered as the first University by many scholars. The date of origin of the University of Bologna is not yet been stated, and most of scholars just state its history being in the first half of the twelfth century when Irnerius inaugurated the epoch in the study of Roman law. As Walter Ruegg (1994: 4) says, “however, neither our investigation nor that of others into the history of medieval universities has produced any evidence for such a foundation of the University of Bologna in 1088. Rather the upshot of these investigation is that no such event took place in 1088. In fact 1088 was chosen a century ago as the “conventional date” by the committee under the chairmanship of the famous poet Giosue Carducci; 1888 was to be the occasion for a grand jubilee to be celebrated in the presence of the royal family and rectors of universities from all over the world to attend.” As it is possible to see, the date 1088 is not precise. “If, for example, one were to accept the solemn papal confirmations or the first written statutes which have survived (1215 and 1231 for Paris, 1220 for Montpellier, 1252 for Bologna), one would invariably end up with dates which are clearly too late” (Ruegg, 1994: 90). Official written documents are not really valid to let us have exact dates of the origin of those universities. But we have to bear in mind that for the later-period universities there exists more precise papal written confirmation of foundation, but in some cases even these dates are not exact as they started functioning later. E.g. “The University of Vienna, founded in 1365, only really became active in 1383, etc.” (Ruegg, 1994: 46).

Bologna is one of the first European universities which became a model to all other universities in the southern Europe. In the late eleventh century, students gathered around the lawyers who looked at Roman law as the essential document to solve society’s problems and confusions in relation to authority. The most well-known lawyer was Bolognese Irnerius (c. 1055-c, 1130). He explained Justinian’s "corpus juris civilis" VI century and "Digest" and made legal principles useful for the medieval society (Grendler, 2009: 87-100).

Being one of the oldest and very popular, Bologna had a lot of followers. Nearly all universities of later period were its imitators. “The universities of Italy except Naples were under the influence of Bologna. E.g. University of Padua 1222, University of Sienna 1357. Bologna increased its influence in foreign countries. In France 2 Universities Montpellier and Grenoble were the copies of Bologna” (Campayre, 2009: 76).

Functioning of the Universities in Italy conveyed two parts. It had to be authorized by Pope or Emperor, this is to get a license for functioning and it had to have a doctoral degree recognized throughout the Christendom. Having a license meant that University was registered, but it was not enough. University had to have advanced programs in law, arts, medicine and sometimes theology. A small University had 6-8 professors teaching the above-mentioned professions at a high level. Also Universities strived to get a Charter from Emperor or Pope and they often had to pay money for getting the Charter. Universities were in a difficult situation as obtaining money, hiring appropriate professors and after these procedures, attracting students was a hard task for them. This is the reason why some Universities were only “Paper Universities”. Some of the Universities were considered as “incomplete Universities”, as they did not teach law and medicine, being prioritized subjects in Italy.

According to W. Ruegg (1994: 12), “Bologna was a nodal point of commercial routes and of the ways of pilgrimage from the north to Rome, as well as the interest of the emperor in the elaboration and application of Roman law as a means of
legitimating his imperial claims. This interest moved Frederick Barbarossa in 1155 to issue Authentica Hebita, and led to the strengthening of the municipality of Bologna after the decline of the Holy Roman Empire. All these external factors contributed to making Bologna into the seat of university."

As already mentioned, in order to be prestigious, Medieval Universities had to teach law or medicine. But it is worth mentioning that quite soon some people started teaching law and it is also worth mentioning that some of the students were foreigners. As they were away from home, students founded associations in order to defend their rights. This was the first association of that type. "For the better part of the thirteenth century the Bolognese student associations exercised powers of which students everywhere dream: they appointed, paid, and dismissed the professors. The students’ greatest strength lay in the threat of migrate to another town, taking with them a considerable income that wealthy foreign students brought to a host university" (Grendler, 2009:91).

The University of Bologna was called students’ university, as "the university consisted only of the students, the teachers simply being hired through annual contracts that were agreed with the university itself or with the commune, which did not stop them from fairly rapidly creating their own organizations, the “college of doctors”, whose particular responsibility was examinations and the conferring of degrees" (Ruegg, 1994: 39).

The commune was responsible for paying salaries to professors in the 1220s, but in the 1230s students’ associations started paying salaries and the commune returned that right in 1280. From my point of view, the decision taken in 1280 was the right one, as it was the commune that took decision to open or close university, and it is obvious that it was namely up to the commune to appoint professors, calculate their salaries and pay them. It is natural that students were left some power, such as imposing on professors, etc., the Pope and the Emperor did not interfere until 1219, when they had to approve the "licentia docendi", but it was only a formality, as Bologna had already held examinations and taught students as well as awarded degrees. The University of Bologna was growing quite fast. There were 31 professors in 1370-79 years, 57 professors in1410-19, 90 in 1460-69, 88 in 1510-19, etc. (Grendler, 2009: 90-91).

Having decided to pay professorial salaries, the commune created the civil magistracy to rule the university directly and to serve as a buffer between “stadium” and the higher ranks of government. In or about 1376 the commune appointed 4 citizens - a senator, a noble, a knight and a merchant - to oversee the university. Called “Riformatori Dello Studio” (reformers of the university), this magistracy negotiated with professors, determined stipends, compiled the annual roll, fixed the teaching schedule, and regulated the university in every way except the legal privileges of the students. The “Riformatory” reported to the highest council of the commune. Other cities followed the Bolognese example by establishing a civil magistracy, often also called “Riformatory Dello Studio”, to oversee the local University (Grendler, 2009: 94).

It is worth noting that Bologna is known for the second known doctorate degree awarded to Laura Maria Caterina Bassi (1711-78). She was not the student of the Bologna university, but self-educated. She took part in a public disputation with five professors of logic, metaphysics and physics. They were so impressed by her speech and knowledge that decided to let her pass the exams, which, of course, she passed successfully in 1732 and got her degree. After getting her degree she started working at the University of Bologna. She was so gifted that was given the right to create a curriculum herself and choose texts according to her consideration.

In 1200 only centers such as Bologna, Paris, Oxford and Salerno could sustain teaching in the higher disciplines and, consequently, only these few would have been customarily regarded as general. But with the multiplication of “studia” in
Italy and France, moulded on the archetypal universities of Bologna and Paris, it was natural that some of these centers should claim for themselves the status “stadium generale”. It seems that any school could assume a “general” standing, but whether it came to be accepted as such would, in all probability, be decided by the force of custom. Before legal decision was evolved, the final arbiter of whether a school was “generale” as opposed to “particulare” was an informed educated opinion (Cobban, 2009:7).

Most scholars claim, that “two places especially- Bologna and Paris- the scholastic guilds obtained a development and importance which they possessed nowhere else. And, as we shall see, nearly all the secondary “studia generalia” which arose spontaneously without papal or imperial charter, were established by secessions of masters or students from Paris or Bologna. The seceders carried with them the customs and institutions of their alma mater. Even in the few cases where the germs of a university or college of doctors may have originated independently of the influence of Paris and Bologna, their subsequent development was due to more or less direct and conscious imitation of the scholastic guilds of these two great schools. Thus it came about that “universitas”, whether of masters or of students, became in practice the inseparable accompaniment of the “stadium generale” and a “universitas” of a particular and define type formed more or less the model of one of these great archetypal universities” (Rashdall, 2009: 25).

As it has been shown, another university, which was founded nearly in the same period as Bologna, was the University of Paris, but, unlike Bologna University, where students had the right to hire professors, pay salaries, etc., Paris University was founded by the guild of Masters, who got the right to form an independent guild in 1208-1210 and that strengthened their privilege. “The University of Paris, which came into being at almost the same period as that of Bologna, had very different qualities” (Verger, 1994: 50).

The University of Paris was founded on the bases of schools from the 11th century run by independent masters. The University “owned its origin to the schools which appeared in Paris from the end of the eleventh century. However, one should distinguish between the traditional ecclesiastic schools, the principal one being that of the chapter of the cathedral Notre-Dame, and the private schools opened by independent masters” (Verger, 1994: 50). But it is necessary to state that, even though it is considered that independent masters had right to run schools, it was “from the Chancellor of Notre Dame alone that the masters obtain their licenses” (Rashdall, 2010: 279).

It was the rule that “nobody should set up as a teacher without having been himself for an adequate period taught by some duly authorized masters was almost too obvious a principle to need formal enactment” (Rashdall, 2010: 285).

If the fact that theological schools of Notre Dame goes slightly beyond evidence is taken into consideration, but in the main Rashdall (2010) is unquestionably right in contending that it was the cathedral schools which eventually developed into university, it is possible to assume that universities in Paris also depended on Chancellor. We are right to consider Universities as being ruled by Popes or Chancellors.

New masters were not content with the situation and complained against bishop and chancellor, the latter being in a difficult situation, too, as the teaching-learning process was not well organized. So, foundation of the University of Paris can be considered as the best decision or compromise, which gave masters the right to form an independent guild. Thus, it can be assumed that “the university of Paris was in fact a “university of masters”, a federation of schools in which, while maintaining their personal authority over their own pupils within their particular school, the masters, by means of their
council and their elected officers, collectively administered the whole of the “Studium” and abided by a common agreement as regards all matters concerning teaching and examinations (Verger, 1994: 52).

In 1208-1210 Masters gained right to form independent guilds and by doing so they strengthened their rights. Also this was the right act in order to avoid the direct control of the Chancellor of Notre Dame. Even though they were fighting to gain freedom, ecclesiastic authority managed to implement obligatory syllabi and a detailed curriculum. Also there were some restrictions concerning new school foundations, etc. Universities were forced by the Pope to be joined by some ecclesiastic schools (in 1220).

It is worth mentioning that even though the Pope had a strong control over the universities in Paris, some very important institutions were implemented: e.g. four nations of students; Institute of Rector (being elected from the Masters of art) and the so-called prevailed faculties, having their own deans and statutes.

By the end of the 12th century the number of such schools increased significantly. Such schools had students not only from France but also from Britain, Germany and Italy. The number of foreign students was increasing drastically and so the rapid growth of students' numbers, of course, caused some problems. As J. Verger (1994: 52) describes: “This rapid, almost uncontrolled growth gave rise to many problems, both material (lodgings, provisioning, and public order) and institutional and intellectual”.

Another challenge Medieval Universities had was a constant stream of masters leaving their Alma-Mater and moving to the universities suggesting lower fees or better conditions, but in the majority of cases they returned to the original university or founded their own universities.

“In 1200 only centers such as Bologna, Paris, Oxford and Salerno could sustain teaching in the higher disciplines and, consequently, only these few would have been customarily regarded as general. But with the multiplication of “studia” in Italy and France, moulded on the archetypal universities of Bologna and Paris, it was natural that some of these centers should claim for themselves the status “studium generale”. It seems that any school could assume “general” standing, but whether it came to be accepted as such would, in all probability, be decided by the force of custom. Before legal decision was evolved, the final arbiter of whether a school was “generale” as opposed to “particulare” was informed educated opinion” (Cobban, 2009: 7). So, it can be assumed that most of the masters left these universities and founded their own.

As the level of education was really very high, invention of new system was not necessary and, thus, the foundation of other universities was merely a question of imitation. It is obvious that provincial Universities in France imitated Paris. But it is necessary to admit that not only in France, but also in England, French influence was quite strong. Even in Spain where Bologna had a great influence, still French influence was vividly felt.

Paris especially was imitated. “The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge in England, of Prague, Vienna, Heidelberg, and Cologne in Germany, derived their formal constitutions, the tradition of their education, and their modes of instructions from Paris” (Campayre, 2009: 76). As already mentioned, it was common for masters in Paris to found their Universities. Namely, a similar thing happened in the case of Cambridge, where masters founded a university after having left the University of Oxford.
According to V.H. Green (Green, 2009: 110), the origin of Oxford and Cambridge is not clear. "How the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge came into being is still obscure. They seem to have accidental by-product of Geography and History."

But it is necessary to take into consideration that in the 12th and the 13th centuries intellectual life was flourishing in whole Europe and, of course, the foundation of a University in England was inevitable. Tense relationship between King Henry II and Archbishop Thomas Becket was the reason of forbidding English scholars from studying in France. Of course, this was temporary, but this caused the enlargement of the small community of scholars in Oxford. The same kind of small community was in Cambridge, too, but it was formed as a school after masters' migration from Oxford in 1209. Notwithstanding the fact, that Cambridge had a very similar curriculum as well as similar organizational policy, etc., Oxford still remained in the scope of interest until the fifteenth century. As we can assume, Oxford and Cambridge became the major centers for obtaining knowledge in the 13th century. The two been virtually synonymous at this period – “and creating a pool of scholarship and ideas, which undoubtedly influenced the increasing number of literate laity, whether they actually studied at the university or not” (Green, 2009: 111).

Even though Oxford and Cambridge were the most important educational institutions of that time, according to G.H. Green (2009: 113), “the universities were clerical brotherhoods but they were colorful, often unruly and rich in their assortment of personalities. They were neither uniform in appearance and dress nor harshly ascetic. In some respects, they were less class conscious then than later. Obviously, the number of those who could study at the university was to some extent circumscribed by financial considerations.”

He justifies his point of view by stating that "at all stages of their history their students have been more or less closely correlated to the national needs. If the modern university sees its task as supplying the country with civil servants, administrators and technologists, the medieval university existed to train churchmen, canonists, monks and friars, schoolmen and schoolmasters” (Green, 2009: 112).

There were a lot more medieval universities, but only a few of them are discussed in the paper, the ones considered to be the most important of that time. As a conclusion, important features typical for medieval universities will be summarized.

**CONCLUSION**

It is noteworthy to consider ancient “higher education” as a very well-structured, informative and effective system, as philosophers of that time are of great importance even nowadays. While penetrating into ancient education system details, it is seen that not only philosophers' knowledge and ideas meet contemporary ideas, but even their way of educating students coincides with modern approaches. "One can argue that most of the modern teaching/learning techniques have been influenced by/are based on the Confucius and Socrates pedagogic methods and that the student-centered model has its roots/was first coined by these ancient philosophers. Irrespective whether one agrees or not with this statement, student-centered learning is the focus of the Bologna Process and the model to be (Pouyioutas, 2010: 162).

As shown in the paper, education was the key in order to succeed in life even in ancient world. Education was considered not only the place where knowledge was obtained, but also as a place where individual was “formed” as a member of society. Education included relation “between the individual and wider society, the institution of citizenship, for the creation
of a rounded, right-thinking society” (Christinidis, Ellis, 2012: 62). So we can assume that the ancient world had the same goals, views, ideas and intentions shared with the contemporary world.

“Market society”, the term very often used nowadays, was also very common for ancient civilization. “It also had legal institutions, social structure and moral values reminiscent of today’s modern democracies” (Karayiannis & Hatzis, 2010: 625).

The mobility of students also was very common for the ancient world. Students were choosing educational institutions according to their prestige in order to get knowledge they expected and that was necessary for their future career.

From all these above-mentioned issues it is possible to see vividly that even ancient education, to say nothing of the medieval one, had a lot of things in common with contemporary one, which proves that, if we learn the history of higher education in details, the knowledge obtained will lead us to better envision the future of universities. It will also equip us with necessary information which can help us avoid future problems or failures.

REFERENCES


FEEDBACK AND EVALUATION: CRITIQUES AND CHALLENGES OF TEACHING EFL ACADEMIC WRITING

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ABSTRACT
This paper focuses on the after-life of writing, that is, after the writing has taken place and we have a written product in front of the addressee. In recent years, with a major paradigm shift in assessment and evaluation in English language teaching, writing assessment informed primarily by a product and summative orientation, is considered increasingly inadequate. Such assessment, which focuses on measurement – i.e. marking, monitoring and checking, fails to capture the formative potential of assessment for promoting learning. A formative approach to assessment, on the other hand, focuses more on discovering, diagnosing and understanding, as well as the opportunities assessment provides improving teaching and learning. To enhance the potential of formative assessment in the writing classroom, it is essential that classroom assessment practices be geared towards effective student learning by raising their self-monitoring and consciousness for their progress in learning. It provides the impetus for this study, which investigates an EFL teacher's attempt to find a better way of providing student's writing evaluation in order to enhance effective writing.

Key Words: Writing evaluation and assessment, peer-review feedback, teacher's feedback, self-monitoring, self-evaluation

INTRODUCTION
Many teachers of English as foreign language (EFL) as well as L2 writing teachers have to make decisions about assessment of student’s writing every day. Assessment is considered to be an inherent part of schooling, so the teachers rarely ask if they need to assess their students all the time. The decision-making process demands some clarity of terms and notions that are used, such as evaluation, assessment, testing, measurement, grading and feedback.

Bachman (1990) distinguishes among the terms “measurement”, “test”, and “evaluation”, stating that any test is a certain measurement of some person’s characteristics, which can be used for evaluative purposes. At the same time, the notions of measurement and test can be used without evaluative purposes, as well as evaluation may not be performed in a form of a test. Bachman (1990) concludes that any test can become evaluative when we use its results for making personal judgements about students.

METHODOLOGY
The framework of this paper is based on Pearson Casanave’s (2004) differentiation between the assessments for evaluative purposes and decision-making, on the one hand, and those for descriptive and instructional purposes, on the other.
controversies in this respect may include practical misuse of three notions: evaluation, feedback and assessment with the purpose of making decisions about students' writing performance on the basis of language and writing samples. This type of after-writing assessment, informed primarily by a product and summative orientation, is considered increasingly inadequate in recent years. Based on marking, monitoring and checking, i.e. on measurement, it is associated with a lavish use of red pen (Breeze, 2012), which fails to construct a channel between teachers and students, which helps to develop them as writers.

Methodology handbooks recommend different variants of providing suitable feedback, the main controversy being put between the uses of two further notions: feedback and assessment. Being overlapping concepts, feedback and assessment often go hand in hand. Feedback usually presupposes some form of assessment, and assessment, on the other hand, has some degree of feedback.

Moreover, feedback and assessment are similar in their evaluative purpose, but different in their appraisal function. Feedback is more geared towards helping the student to improve by constructive guidance and correction. Assessment, in its turn, focuses mostly on the quality of the written product, rather than the development and improvement of the writer (Breeze, 2012).

The two basic types of evaluation are: teacher feedback and assessment examining their strengths and weaknesses, as well as evaluation potential in EFL teaching academic writing.

TEACHER FEEDBACK AND ASSESSMENT

The efficiency of teacher feedback is often questioned by both parties of the educational process (Breeze, 2012). Students see their problems recurring while their progress is slow. Teachers become frustrated when they witness the same problems appearing again and again in students' works. Plus, there is an evident suggestion that teacher feedback has little positive impact on student writing (Leki, 1992).

The number of reasons causing such a suggestion can be roughly divided into mismatches in teachers' and students' expectations from the process of writing instruction and writing development: teachers expect their feedback to be accepted by students as a positive motivation for writing improvement and students tend to undervalue the importance of mistakes correction after their work has been graded.

One more controversy of teacher feedback relates to cognitive differences in feedback perception among L1 and L2 writers. The bibliography of the area suggests that teacher feedback is differently perceived by L1 writers and L2 learners. L2 writers consider teacher feedback concerning language, organisation and content to be beneficial, as a necessary part of the learning process (Hinkel, 2002; Hyland, 2003). L1 writers, according to Breeze (2012: 141), are more inhibited by the negative teacher feedback.

The arguments of contrastive rhetoric (CR) as a field of study that began with the publication of Robert Kaplan's 1966 article in Language Learning, stating the so-called linguistic relativity of each language and culture, could partially be extrapolated to the differences in feedback perception and writing progress of L2 learners. Understanding such differences, according to R. Kaplan, might help scholars and teachers explain some of the problems that L2 learners have in organizing their writing in ways that seem acceptable to native speakers (as cited in Pearson Casanave, 2004: 27).
Having a purely pedagogical function, Kaplan’s project hoped to show that L2 students were not suffering from cognitive deficits, but revealing the influence of different rhetorical traditions in their L1s (Matsuda, 2002, as cited in Pearson Casanave, 2004). At the same time, Kaplan’s project, which is based on Whorfian principle “language determines our perceptions and thoughts”, is too extreme as well as improvable (Pearson Casanave, p.29). But if we compare structural and organisational features of written texts in different languages, we can observe differences quite regularly, provoking the questions about the sources of the latter and methodological perspective of giving suitable feedback in this respect, if any.

Another aspect of teacher feedback is the form in which this feedback is realized. It is important to define the optimal way of providing feedback for both parties. First of all, it is helpful to be clear about the task and requirements and the ways to get rid of mistakes. The best solution for this task is a structured feedback form, which provides a structure for the teacher to give specific recommendations about the piece of writing with ideas on how to enhance its development. The structured feedback has the following pluses: transparency in terms of errors and the ways of their correction.

There is one more controversy around the question of grammar correction in writing feedback. While some scholars argue about the counter-productivity of grammar correction, that more inhibits writing than encourages it (Breeze, 2012), others claim that students expect their grammar mistakes to be corrected (Ferris,1995; Zhang, 1995).

Most vital, feedback of any kind can become a motivating factor, if it raises students’ responsibility for the quality of their work, using the method of the so-called self-monitoring (Walker & Perez Riu, 2008), aimed at raising students’ consciousness on their way to mature process writing.

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE STUDIES

To conclude, the more formal teacher feedback is, the more appreciated it is by the students, but it does not minimize the risk of misinterpretations, unless there is a constructed communication channel between the two parties. In order to assist the process of assessment, peer-assessment may become helpful, as it operates on informal level and is often felt by students to be more motivating (Rollinson, 2005). Due to the fact that teacher feedback is differently perceived by L1 writers and L2 learners, the forms and types of feedback can considerably vary, starting with the individual comments (in considerably small groups of students) and ending with structure-based feedback form, which is considered to be transparent for both parties. The approach to grammar-corrections may also differ, depending on the type of learners and their level of language skills, as it is arguable that the students will transfer their grammar skills to the next piece of writing. At the same time, L2 students expect their grammar to be corrected by the authoritative teachers, viewing it as inevitable part of the learning process of EFL writing. Whatever the method of feedback is used, it is vital to begin with defining the purposes of assessment academic writing and observe the ethics of L2 learners’ assessment.

REFERENCES


ASSSESSMENT OF LEGAL FRAMEWORK AND PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF ADMINISTERING PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION IN GEORGIA

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ABSTRACT

The paper discusses Law on Higher Education in European countries and in Georgia. Education systems have changed recently, including policy initiatives in higher education at national and regional level. There are three driving forces that are involved for the change in higher education systems. They are economic, socio-demographic and technological forces. This paper considers European and Georgian goals of higher education, governance systems, funding, and reveals similarities between European and Georgian higher education systems. For example, higher education aims to promote and encourage creative skills and personal potential, training individuals in order to be compatible with modern requirements, supporting competitiveness of graduates in domestic and international labor markets and ensuring high-quality education. The paper discusses all the parties responsible for higher education in Europe and Georgia and shows how higher educational institutions are controlled, regulated and financed.

Key words: Higher education, law on higher education, Georgia, higher education administration, private higher education

INTRODUCTION

The Law of Higher Education is a part of a much broader system, known as educational law. Educational Law includes not only Law of Higher Education, but also postsecondary, secondary and preschool education. There are public and private educational sectors and they can be divided up as: public higher education, private higher education, public lower education and private lower education.

It is well known that higher education systems have changed recently, including policy initiatives in higher education at a national and regional level. In Europe the major policy development that has supported and encouraged the change includes the Sorbonne and Bologna Declarations adopted in 1998 and 1999 and the Lisbon Strategy, adopted in 2000. These declarations underlined the system of higher educational institutions as the key to achieving European economic and social goals.

There are about three driving forces that are involved in the change of higher educational systems. They are economic, socio-demographic and technological forces. Since 1945 economic development has resulted in increasing prosperity in Europe. However, prosperity was not the only benefit of this economic development; it was also connected with the growth of the global knowledge-based economy. Since 2008 the economic situation has stopped increasing. European countries started to have economic problems because of various reasons: debts and so on. The hard financial situation caused problems in the funding of higher education, especially from public sources. On the other hand, European
socio-demographic changes are closely connected with an increasing demand for higher education. Although there has been an economic decline in certain demographics, the demand for higher education has not reduced. There have been some movements across the EHEA towards mass participation systems with stronger expectations of lifelong learning. As for technological developments, they are important as well, particularly in Informational and Communication Technologies, as they are structuring the ways in which key functions of higher education – teaching, research and service to society – are guided, directed and delivered. Each of these driving forces has some influence over governance in higher education. Moreover, they provide a context that has shaped policy and political responses at the European, national and local levels plus reforming higher education systems and institutions (Middlehurst, 2012).

**Goals of higher education**

Education has always played an important role in Europe. From the eighteenth and nineteenth century, education has become an essential constitutional component of nation building with the creation of national states in Europe. During the political transformation of post-communist Central and East European countries and the European unification process several things have developed, such as social and political dynamism. All this encouraged and supported most of European countries’ integration in the European Union. Such kind of development turned out to be very important for Europe, because the dynamic of transformation integration has had influence on education systems of these countries.

In European countries current education goals for the higher education aim at improving and increasing the quality of education and development in teacher training and quality assurance, to develop better conditions at universities by increasing support and by designing curricula to the employability of graduates.

Georgia also shares European education goals: for example, promotion and encouragement of creative skills and personal potential, training individuals in order to be compatible with modern requirements, supporting competitiveness of graduates on domestic and international labor markets and ensuring a high quality education. However, one of the primary goals of higher education in Georgia include: economic development of the country, encouragement and development of Georgian and global cultural values, promotion of democratic ideas and civil society.

**Governance of the Higher Education System**

“Governance is concerned with the determination of values inside universities, their systems of decision-making and resources allocation, their missions and purposes, the patterns of authority and hierarchy, and the relationship of universities as institutions to the different academic worlds within and the worlds of government, business and community without. It embraces; leadership, management and strategy” (Middlehurst, 2012, p. 529).

Governance arrangements in higher education are related to institutional and system levels. At the system level, the players are national or provincial Ministries, university bodies and state-level agencies. Likewise, there are bodies that influence governance at European level and international bodies, such as UNESCO, OECD and the World Bank. These bodies have a substantial influence on governance at national, state and local levels.

“At the time of UNESCO’s last global overview of tertiary education, private higher education had already surged globally. This expansion has continued, intensifying and spreading to additional regions and countries. Today, some 30 percent of global higher education enrolment is in the private sector. Additionally, the extent and importance of the growth of this
new sector is attracting more attention (though still insufficient) than it was 10 years ago” (Altbach, 2009, p. 79). According to the present UNESCO report (Altbach, 2009) most of the growth in higher education worldwide is in the private sector.

“Private higher education has had a significant impact on the discussions of quality, equity, new learning modes and, perhaps most of all, access. Private higher education is less central to themes of knowledge development, research, and planning, but as governments and international organizations, including UNESCO, increasingly realize the growing role of this sector they are seeking ways to integrate and shape it more” (Altbach, 2009, p. 78).

In all European countries the total responsible body for higher education is the ministry which is a governmental department, led by a minister. However, in some countries responsibilities for higher education are shared and stretched among government departments or Ministries. Typically, the Ministry controls higher education institutions with national laws, determines strategic and national priorities and policy for the higher education system, creates national frameworks. Moreover, in some countries the Ministry appoints external and internal stakeholders as members of institution-level governance bodies.

The higher Education Council, Advisory Council and Research Council present bodies that usually support the Ministry. Usually these bodies provide the Ministry with advice on various issues related to higher education, science and arts policy. To sum up, the system-level functions include operational and regulatory responsibilities, advisory and decision-making (Middlehurst, 2012).

Similar to Europe, in Georgia the educational system is regulated by the parliament, the government, and the Ministry of Education and Science (MES). The parliament of Georgia is responsible for developing the national policy and the main directions of the sector. The government of Georgia defines national objectives, per capita funding standards, and the amount of vouchers. The MES develops indicators, designates educational institutions as legal entities of either public or private law and has the authority to reorganize or liquidate them and is responsible for state control of public educational institutions. Here we can ask a question about the authority of educational institutions as the MES designates educational institutions as legal entities, on the other hand it has an authority to abolish them (Andguladze, 2007).

The Law of Georgia on Higher Education defines the governing bodies of public higher education institutions as having the status of legal entity of public law. The new legislation defines faculty members, students and professors as chief agents in higher education. Rectors of higher education institutions (HEIs) are no longer appointed by the President, but elected by the members of the Academic Council. And, like in European countries, the governing functions are shared within public HEIs through new structures with elected members, including: The Academic Council, The Council of Representatives, The students’ self-governing body.

In 2005 Georgia joined the Bologna process and started implementing European standards of higher education and bringing Georgian educational legislation in alignment with it.

**General Information**

Level of integration in the Bologna Process: Bologna-Signatory Country (in 2005); Bologna Process officially embedded in the education system;
Bologna Process is implemented under the supervision of the Ministry of Education;
No particular mechanism supporting the implementation of the Bologna Process.

**Bologna cycle structure**

Level of implementation of a three-cycle structure compliant with the Bologna Process:

Bologna structure fully implemented in all or most fields of study.

Student workload/duration for the most common Bologna programs: Bachelor programmes-240 ECTS (4 academic years), Master programmes-120 ECTS (2 academic years).

Bachelor/Master cycle structure models most commonly implemented: 240+120 ECTS (4+2 academic years)

**European standards for Higher Education (ECTS)**

Definition of the Learning Outcomes Concept: Learning outcomes are defined in national steering documents and implemented through laws and regulations.

Level of implementation of ECTS: More than 75% of institutions and programs are using ECTS for both transfer and accumulation purposes. Allocation of ECTS is based on learning outcomes and student workload.

Indicative number of hours of student workload corresponding to one ECTS: 1 ECTS = 20 – 30 hours

**Bologna Diploma Supplement (DS)**

Level of implementation of the Bologna Diploma Supplement: Bologna DS is issued to students in more than 75% of institutions and study programs.

Diploma Supplement issued: Bologna DS issued automatically and free of charge; Bologna DS issued in the language of instruction and/or English.

**National Qualifications Framework (NQF)**

Stage towards establishing a National Qualification Framework: Not yet started formally/not foreseen.

Step 1: Decision taken. Process just started.

Step 2: The purpose of the NQF has been agreed and the process is under way including discussions and consultations. Various committees have been established.

Step 3: The NQF has been adopted formally and the implementation has started.

Step 4: Redesigning the study programs is ongoing and the process is close to completion.

Step 5: Overall process fully completed including self-certified compatibility with the Framework for qualifications of the European Higher Education Area.

**Quality Assurance Practices**


Year of establishment: 2006

**Recognition of foreign qualifications**


Recognition of Foreign Qualifications for academic study. Recognition for academic study by central or regional governmental authorities Recognition of Foreign Qualifications for professional employment: Recognition for academic study by central or regional governmental authorities, Combination of central or regional governmental authorities / social partner organizations or individual employers.

**Joint Degrees**

Establishment of joint degrees and programs in higher education legislation: Joint programs and joint degrees are allowed in the higher education legislation.
FINANCING

Since 2008 the difficult economic situation caused the trouble of funding higher education, especially for public sources. Government could not finance higher education, so universities started both public and private searching for financial sources. Students were also offered opportunities to get education through bank loans, but these models of higher education funding caused a crisis in this field in many countries and this issue is related to economic effectiveness and policy adjustment.

“One of the central issues in universities’ missions is their contribution to the public interest” (Middlehurst, 2012, p. 532). But serving and considering the public interest is quite difficult, so different institutions have different ways for achieving this goal. They serve the public in a different way than policy-makers or the government. Obviously, the financial matter plays a major role in relation to mission, because not only public, but also many private universities get a major share of their revenues from public sources. This is the case in continental European higher education. In recent years, external governance from the public authority has increased in many higher education systems through accreditation systems and quality assessment. Other external forces that impact the governance of higher education in institutions emphasize that social, political and business interests can influence higher education. Particularly those universities are influenced which have a stronger local and regional orientation defined in their mission statements (Middlehurst, 2012).

The majority of HEIs in Georgia are funded through tuition fees. For public HEIs, tuition fees account for 90% of the total income, while the rest comes from state subsidies, paid indirectly through state-funded grants to students and directly as a lump sum payment (block grant) to the HEI. Infrastructure grants from the government are provided to public universities for infrastructure projects where necessary, from time to time. Private universities receive no direct funding from the government, but receive indirect subsidies through state-funded grants to qualified students who enroll to these institutions.

The funding model of HEIs has changed substantially in the last years. The input-based lump-sum financing model of education has been transformed into per capita financing. Consequently, vouchers and grants were introduced. This shift primarily aimed at increasing efficiency and transparency of financing. The voucher scheme takes the form of a government grant to students. Different grants are given to the students according to their performance in a national admission exam at the end of secondary education and depending on the field of study.

The grants are used to finance tuition fees, at both public and private HEIs. Many private universities charge much higher tuition fees and voucher recipients may use vouchers to partially offset these higher fees.

However, there are some free faculties financed by the government: philology of Georgian literature, archeology, education, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology and so on. These free faculties are accessible at Tbilisi State University, Georgian Technical University, and Ilia State University.

A student loan system was introduced in Georgia in 2006 in cooperation with the leading commercial banks of Georgia. Students have so far been given loans with various coverage terms and interest rates. However, this student loan system cannot be considered as a successful initiative. Students are not sure that they will be able to pay back the loan after the graduation as employment after finishing studies cannot be guaranteed. So further improvements to student loan schemes will be made to increase the number and availability of loans, as well as lending conditions.
CONCLUSION

As it has already been mentioned above, according to UNESCO, private higher education has surged globally. This expansion has been increasing, intensifying and spreading to different parts of the world. Today, private higher education is becoming more and more demanding and popular. Therefore, private higher education and the extent and importance of the growth of this new sector is attracting more attention than it was 10 years ago. Governments and big international organization, including UNESCO, increasingly realize the growing role of this sector so they are looking for ways to integrate and shape it more.

As for the European standards for Higher Education, after joining the Bologna process Georgia has started to implement European standards for Higher Education and bringing its legislation into correspondence with them. Such innovations were introduced as European credit transfer system (ECTS), three cycles of education and so on. Similar higher education standards to Europe is very important, because it makes Georgian students competitive with European students and creates more opportunities for Georgian students to continue their studies in European countries. It is a great way of gaining experience and knowledge. Moreover, it gives students wider chances to be competitive and employed not only on the national, but also on the international market. However, there are still some issues, for example, student loan system that require further improvements.

European countries and Georgia share similar goals of education and recognize the importance of education for developing a state.

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PROSODIC VARIABILITY OF AN ENGLISH FOLK RIDDLE

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ABSTRACT

The paper is an experimental phonetic study of prosodic features of English folk riddles’ oral actualization influenced by structural, emotional and pragmatic factors, which are defined within the framework of an energetic approach to the research of phonetic phenomena. It offers a revised definition of a riddle and an algorithmic pattern of its text structure.

The paper introduces energy-grams formed with the use of a quantitative K-criterion of the texts’ emotional and pragmatic potentials and their typical intonation patterns. On the basis of the advanced methodological guidelines the author substantiates invariant and variant prosodic patterns of English folk riddles, whose parameters are described both within the text structural components and at their junctures, as well as explains the specificity of emotional and pragmatic potential’s change in the process of the riddle’s oral actualization. The analysis also confirmed that the described prosodic means can draw the listener’s attention to the intensified lexical units, triggering in his/her mental sphere the search for a relevant image of the riddle solution.

Key words: English folk riddle, prosodic means, emotional and pragmatic potentials, structural components.

INTRODUCTION

The communicative nature of the text of a riddle has been thoroughly elucidated in a number of linguistic, literary and ethnographic works, in which its genre and functional characteristics are outlined from different perspectives. However, despite the existence and rapid development of speech energetic theory (see Kalyta, 2015), scholars have not worked out a number of important issues about the connection of the riddle structure, its emotional and pragmatic potentials and prosodic features of its actualization, which directly influence the process of the riddle decoding. Considering this, the objective of the research is to experimentally define the impact of emotional and pragmatic potentials of the riddle structural components on the specificity of prosodic means’ interaction during its oral actualization.

METHODOLOGICAL BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH

As a methodological basis of the undertaken experimental study served the results of our previous research of the riddle structural pattern (Taranenko, 2013, p. 167-174) which confirmed that a characteristic feature of a folk riddle is its division into two parts, produced by different individuals (see Figure 1).
Figure 1: A generalized scheme of a riddle structure

As it is seen from the Figure 1, the first part of the riddle composition is the text of the riddle itself, containing the description of the object, which, in its turn, consists of two plot elements termed, respectively, “the topic” and “the commentary”. The second structural part of the riddle is its answer, or solution, that occurs in the recipient’s mind as a result of his/her mental activities. It was also assumed that such a lapidary structure of a riddle is to be compensated by a specific interaction of prosodic means capable of activating in the recipient’s mind cognitive and creative processes of searching for the riddle solution.

The accomplishment of a scientific description of the riddle oral actualization was grounded on the assumption that the speaker perceives and interprets in his conscience the text pragmatic aim. As it has been proved by phonetic studies, in oral communication the text pragmatic loading is expressed primarily by prosodic means, which, in their turn, directly depend on emotions and feelings experienced by the speaker, serving as “the communication motive power” (Kalita, 2005, p. 23). Thus, in terms of its functional-pragmatic loading, the riddle is viewed in our paper as a specific folk genre, whose text, having a creative-and-instructive pragmatic orientation, performs an entertaining-and-training functional role, realized on the basis of an associative-and creative mechanism of reconsideration of knowledge, existing in the recipient’s mind. This definition, reflecting a hierarchical system of the riddle functional characteristics (general didactic function → creative-and-instructive pragmatic orientation → entertaining-and-training function) serves as a theoretical basis for defining the correlation between the dynamics of the riddle’s pragmatic and emotional potentials progression and prosodic means of its oral actualization.

The methodology of normalizing the energetic characteristics of the riddle structural components was centered on a theoretical substantiation of the dimensionless quantitative K-criterion for the level of the emotional-and-pragmatic potential of utterance (Kalyta & Taranenko, 2012a, p.476-484), which is calculated by the following equation:

\[ F_0 \times t \times I_0 \]

\[ K = \frac{F_0 \times t \times I_0}{1000 \times I_3} \]

where:
- K is the criterion for the level of an utterance’s emotional-and-pragmatic potential actualization;
- F0 – fundamental frequency (Hz);
- t – syllable duration (msec.);
- I0 – amplitude of F0 (dB);
- I3 – amplitude of F3 (dB);
- 1000 – milliseconds to seconds conversion factor.

The physical essence of the obtained dimensionless criterion consists in its ability to characterize the quantitative measure of the level of the utterance’s emotional-and-pragmatic potential, expressed in terms of dimensional prosodic parameters.

Its practical use in the analysis of the results of experimental phonetic studies of various utterances (Kalyta & Taranenko, 2012b, p. 186-191) allowed us to systematize their dimensionless energetic variables according to their three corresponding levels (low, mid and high). Thus, we obtained a new theoretical and methodological tool for comparing the emotional-and-pragmatic potential of different speech segments, such as syllables, rhythmic groups, words, intonation groups, text fragments and texts.

This opens a possibility for the transition to the experimental study of the riddle structural components’ prosodic organization as a result of its emotional and pragmatic potentials’ actualization, which are defined in the paper by means of auditory and instrumental analyses.

**Results of The Experimental Phonetic Study of the Riddle Prosodic Variability**

Considering the ideas and assumptions outlined above, we performed the experimental phonetic analysis of 227 English folk riddles (Bryant, 2007, p. 92-109), aimed at establishing a set of prosodic means differentiating the riddle structural elements “the topic” and “the commentary” as well as defining their energetic characteristics which are to activate in the recipient’s consciousness a cognitive mechanism of the riddle decoding.

In the course of auditory analysis in order to identify typical patterns of English riddles’ prosodic organization we considered the interaction of all intonation subsystems: temporal (tempo, pausation and rhythm), dynamic (utterance stress distribution and loudness) and tonal (voice pitch and range variations). To define the specificity of the riddle energetic characteristics we formed so-called energy-grams which present graphical interpretation of the dynamics of the emotional and pragmatic potentials’ change and direction in the process of the riddle oral actualization.

The results of the auditory analysis showed that the riddle structural element “the topic”, which contains an indirect reference to the described object, is characterized by the prevailing use of neutral intonation: moderate tempo and loudness, a rising kinetic tone in the non-terminal intonation group and a falling tone in the final one, mid voice range, wavy-like pitch contour, low pitch levels of its beginning and end, e.g.: *If you /feed it ˙ \ will \live...* (ibid., p. 94). Enumeration of several features of the described object within “the topic” is accompanied by alternation of different pitch levels of high-rising tones, e.g.: *It was \neither /fish, \ flesh, \ nor \ bone...* (ibid., p. 97). Such an intonation model is usually used for enumeration in emotionally neutral speech and serves, at the same time, as an indicator of the low level of emotional potential of the riddle structural element “the topic”.
A gradual increase in the emotional potential of “the topic” in the direction to a high zone of the low level is achieved by the combination of two low-falling terminal tones in the adjacent intonation groups (\(\text{East and west} \downarrow\) and \(\text{north and south}\) (Bryant 2007, 92) as opposed to the described above combination of rising and falling tones, characteristic of a consistently low level of “the topic” emotional potential. A slight increase in the emotional potential of this structural element is also indicated by: 1) actualization of a high-falling terminal tone of a wide range within its initial intonation group (My ‘fatherland’ is Arabia… (ibid., p. 92)), 2) the use of a falling tone consisting of an ascending direction on its stressed element followed by a low level tone of the unstressed tail (\(\text{Runs smoother} \downarrow\) than ‘any rhyme’… (ibid., p. 94)) and 3) the presence of a broken descending stepping head (When I was young and beautiful | I wore a blue crown… (ibid., p. 105). The use of the mentioned prosodic means within the structural element “the topic” contributes to attracting the listener’s attention to those features of a described object, which will contrast to its characteristics, given in the structural element “the commentary” and will serve as a key for the creation of the metaphorical image in the listener’s mind, necessary to search for associations and analogies of the riddle solution.

The typical characteristics of “the commentary” prosodic organization include: 1) the combination of two falling kinetic tones of different pitch within a single intonation group, e.g.: … and wasn’t a beast… (ibid., p. 97); And I’m the torment of man (ibid., p. 106), the higher of which serves to highlight a specific feature of a described object, marked by the low falling tone; 2) the use of emphatic heads: sliding and stepping broken heads, e.g.: \(\text{Could not put} \downarrow\) Humpty Dumpty \(\downarrow\) to|gether a|gain || (ibid., p. 104), whose function in riddles is to intensify key lexical units which are to launch the image search in the recipient’s psychic sphere as a basis of the riddle referent prototype. A similar function is performed by high falling terminal tones in adjacent intonation groups, the latter having a slower rate of its movement, e.g.: | Love to \(\text{fall} \downarrow\) but cannot \(\text{climb} \downarrow\) || (ibid., p. 94); Inside the \(\text{cave} \downarrow\) her \(\text{anchor} \downarrow\) drops || (ibid., p. 102).

Specific features of “the commentary” prosodic organization also include the slowed down tempo of its final intonation group and perceptual pauses (\(\downarrow\)) that emphasize the rhematic element of a riddle, e.g.: | Lives in winter, \(\downarrow\) | dies in summer, \(\downarrow\) and \(\text{grows with its roots} \downarrow\) upwards || (ibid., p. 99). The rhematic element of the riddle can also be highlighted by the preceding pitch interval, as in the example: … and when he finds \(\text{water} \downarrow\), \(\downarrow\) he \(\text{perishes} \downarrow\) || (ibid., p. 102), where the word \(\text{perishes} \downarrow\) is intensified by means of a negative mid pitch interval.

Given the fact that an oral actualization of the riddle as a genre presupposes engaging the recipient into creative thinking processes aimed at enhancing in the entertaining form his/her cognitive abilities, the speaker usually tries to produce the riddle in an “enigmatic” voice coloring to which the listener responds in the first place. The auditory analysis has shown that such a coloring of voice is characteristic of the final intonation group of “the commentary” which is qualified as pragmatically most important component of the riddle. So there is every reason to conclude that riddle’s pragmatic potential is constantly growing, reaching its maximal mid-high level within the final intonation group. In the following example of the final intonation group of “the commentary” … What is it? || (ibid., p. 105) the pragmatic loading is increasing due to the combination of its “enigmatic” voice coloring, the use of a high falling tone of a wide range (\(\text{What}…\)) and a negative mid pitch interval at the juncture “nucleus-tail”. It was also defined that timbre can acquire a leading role in highlighting the final intonation group of a riddle in cases when it is combined with the slowed-down tempo and a low falling terminal tone with a reduced rate of its movement, e.g.: The \(\text{foot} \downarrow\) trod on it | and the \(\text{mouth en} \downarrow\) joyed it || (ibid., p. 107). The outlined interaction of prosodic parameters should be viewed as the means of involving the listener into the process of riddle decoding.
The auditory analysis allowed us to conclude that the riddle's structural elements are singled out, as a rule, with the help of a medium-length pause while the intonation groups occurring within these elements are separated by a short pause, e.g.: \textit{Cut me up in \textasciitilde pieces and bury me alive, | The \textasciitilde young\textasciitilde ones will \textasciitilde live and the \textasciitilde old\textasciitilde ones die} \cite{ibid., p. 93}.

Prosodic organization of a riddle has also differential features which are the result of the speaker's appraisal of the riddle referent, which causes a corresponding change in his/her emotional state while pronouncing the riddle out loud. The following riddle about the coffin as its referent can serve as an example:

\textit{The \textasciitilde man who \textasciitilde made it did\textasciitilde not \textasciitilde want it;} |

\textit{The \textasciitilde man who \textasciitilde bought it did\textasciitilde not \textasciitilde use it;} |

\textit{The \textasciitilde man who \textasciitilde used it did\textasciitilde not \textasciitilde know it} \cite{ibid., p. 104}.

The emotional component of this example, generated by the ethical appraisal of the described referent as well as the corresponding change in the speaker's emotional state, is realized by the use of a parallel intonation patterns of both structural elements, alternation of falling tones' pitch of all verbs of the riddle, the use of a negative tone interval at the juncture “nucleus-tail” \cite{ibid., p. 98}. Such prosodic specificity serves to attract the recipient's attention to each verb, thus increasing the riddle pragmatic loading. The negative ethical evaluation of the riddle referent can be enhanced by segmental units against the background of intonation parallelism of adjacent intonation groups, in particular by alliteration, assonance, and repetition of sound combinations, e.g.: \textit{Brass \textasciitilde cap and wooden \textasciitilde head, | Spits \textasciitilde fire and spews \textasciitilde lead} \cite{gun}.

In this example, the metaphorical image of a gun is created, along with the described above specific intonation, by the repetition of sound combinations \texttt{br-}, \texttt{sp-} which are traditionally viewed as unpleasant ones or as those which produce a negative aesthetic impact on the listener.

We believe that the use of similar or identical sounds and sound combinations in the text of a riddle enhances the semantic loading of some lexical units, thus inducing the occurrence in the recipient's mind of corresponding associations related to the general emotional polarity of the riddle. We can conclude that the interaction of segmental and prosodic means is caused by a definite semantics of its referent, which, in its turn, can help the recipient find a correct riddle solution.

The results of the conducted auditory analysis showed that the invariant prosodic pattern of the riddle oral actualization, which ensures the excitement of the recipient's associative mechanism of the search for its answer, comprises the following parameters of intonation: division of the text into short intonation groups, the use of rising pre-heads, checked or broken descending stepping heads, falling tones, wave-like pitch contour, regular rhythm, short pauses within structural elements and mid ones at their junctures. Invariant features of the riddle also include an emphatic prosodic organization of its final intonation group, which, being the riddle's semantic and pragmatic center, performs a subliminal function and excites the recipient's imagination and stimulates him/her to find the riddle answer.

The evaluation of the riddle energetic characteristics was experimentally defined with the help of a quantitative K-criterion as well as graphically outlined within energy-grams. A typical energy-gram of the oral actualization of an English folk riddle is shown on Figure 2.
As it is seen from Figure 2, which presents the progression of both emotional (EG) and pragmatic (PG) potentials within the riddle structural components, the emotional potential increases gradually from the low to middle level throughout “the topic” (from K-criterion = 22 to K-criterion = 32). In the “commentary” the emotional potential remains unchanged at the same middle level (K-criterion = 56.5). However, the pragmatic potential of a riddle steadily grows from a low level in “the topic” to a high zone of the middle level at the key word of “the commentary”. Thus, we can see that the emotional potential of the riddle is slightly lower in relation to the pragmatic one, which is conditioned by the speaker’s reserved emotional state due to his/her intention to conceal the understanding of the riddle metaphorical content. At the same time, the analysis revealed the connection between the level of the riddle emotional potential and the size of its text: the more lapidary is the content of the riddle, the higher is the level of its emotional potential and, vice versa, the increase of the size of the riddle text reduces its emotional potential and enhances the pragmatic one.

CONCLUSIONS

The methodological guidelines, advanced in the paper, and the results of the experimental phonetic analysis of English folk riddles allowed us to outline the regularities of their prosodic organization as well as characterize the energetic potential typical of the riddle structural elements.

The evaluation of the riddle energetic features, obtained by a quantitative K-criterion and graphically represented with the help of text energy-grams, confirmed that the riddle has a higher pragmatic potential in comparison with the emotional one due to the riddle’s creative-and-instructive pragmatic orientation aimed at attracting the listener’s attention to the search for a riddle solution. The carried out auditory analysis of English folk riddles confirmed that the riddle prosodic organization serves to realize its pragmatic potential by means of highlighting those lexical units which produce an influence on the recipient’s subconscious providing the stimulus for his/her search for images, associations and analogies in the process of riddle solution decoding.

We believe that the suggested approach to the analysis of prosodic specificity of the text oral actualization can serve as methodological guidelines for further studies of any oral speech phenomena.

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CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES WITHIN LEARNING COMMUNITIES

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ABSTRACT

The use of professional learning communities is a reformative educational strategy that produces positive results. Knowledge construction is no longer an isolated process; it is done collectively through the constant collaboration of participants with shared vision. The paper discusses the necessity of establishing learning communities and implementing effective continuous professional development strategies within them. New models for the professional growth meet the requirements of the transformational knowledge which consecutively is the necessity of contemporary society. Systematic professional development implies the balance between control and enhancement mechanisms and thus guarantees simultaneous flexibility and autonomy. In addition, the paper examines the urgency of supportive and shared leadership for educational purposes.

Keywords: Continuous professional development, learning communities, collaborative learning.

WHAT IS CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT?

In contemporary world teaching is analogous to business; students are treated as customers and the need for educational goods and services is instantly growing. There is an increased demand on teachers’ achievements within a limited period of time. Being professional nowadays means to be continuously undergoing transformation to adjust to rapidly changing needs. While academia is constantly raising its own standards, the importance of professional development becomes central to any policy-making effort.

Continuing professional development is a process of upgrading knowledge and skills in proportion to rapidly increasing demands of the market. In teaching, efforts towards development indicate the level of commitment to profession (Coleman & Earley, 2005).

The term continuous professional development goes hand in hand with personal development, lifelong learning, and staff development or in-service education and training (INSET). These terms overlap to some extent and are often used equivalently, though they can be distinguished according to formality of the development process and involvement of external factors.

Personal development is a broader term tightly linked to Maslow’s self-actualization – the need to realize one’s full potential. The process of personal development is informal on its early stages, when it stands for the formation of personality. Personal development is a lifelong process; as the person grows older, it becomes more and more difficult to distinguish where personal development ends and professional development starts.
Lifelong learning is often used interchangeably with continuous professional development. It stands for striving to pursue personal or professional goals, thus it can be formal or informal. According to the Irish Department of Education and Science (2000), lifelong learning is “voluntary and self-motivated”. The Commission of the European Communities (2006) underlines the importance of lifelong learning for “competitiveness and employability, but also for social inclusion, active citizenship and personal development”. Lifelong learning covers the vast area of self-development, personal and professional development, and continuous professional development is its inevitable part.

In teaching, Continuous Professional Development stands for:

any professional development activities engaged in by teachers which enhance their knowledge and skills and enable them to consider their attitudes and approaches to the education of children, with a view to improve the quality of the teaching and learning process (Bolam, 1993, as cited in Coleman & Earley, 2005, p. 230).

Continuous Professional Development implies the process that happens within and outside educational institutions. Contrary to staff development or in-service education and training, CPD is a highly collaborative process. Staff development, as well as INSET is mainly planned and executed by the administration of the educational institution, which is usually mandatory, thus, is rather extrinsic. CPD, instead, is the combination of the best developmental practices; it is the process that is collectively shared by an employee and the educational organization, where overall improvement is set as a goal (Coleman & Earley, 2005).

Riding (2001) identifies characteristics of effective professional development, stating that it should:

- be ongoing;
- include opportunities for individual reflection and group enquiry into practice;
- be institution-based and embedded in teacher work;
- be collaborative and allow teacher to interact with peers;
- be rooted in the knowledge base of teaching;
- be accessible and inclusive.

To summarize, professional developments may be internally or externally motivated, but it is always a social and collaborative process. Therefore, the question arises where and how it usually occurs.

Professional Development within Learning Communities

Learning communities emerged as a side-effect of democratization of education. The involvement of technology in schooling guaranteed a rapid exchange of ideas and practices that shared the common goal – the sustainability of teacher knowledge and skills through the period of transformation. Though policy-makers implement various practices in order to help institutions adapt to change, these practices are “often made without reference to real problems of classroom life” (Lieberman, 2000, p. 221). Learning communities step up where traditional development fails. Riding (2001) expresses his frustration about traditional in-service trainings and refers to them as “fragmented, unproductive, inefficient, unrelated to practice, and lacking in intensity and follow-up” (p. 283). He supports the idea that trainings delivered by “outside trainers” (outside "experts", according to Lieberman) have no effect in practice. Learning communities are mediators between
abstract educational goals (democratic education, teaching equity, student-centered education) and immediate processes in the classroom.

Parker (1977, as cited in Lieberman, 2000) enumerates five key characteristics of learning communities:

- strong sense of commitment to an idea
- a sense of shared purpose
- a mixture of information sharing and psychological support
- a facilitator who ensured voluntary participation and equal treatment
- an egalitarian ethos

Wenger (1998) refers to learning communities as communities of practice. Her perspective of learning is tightly linked with social interactions with a very specific purpose - production of identity. Wenger’s interpretation is particularly appropriate for education, as teachers’ professional development is a process of active social participation.

The key characteristic to learning communities is its voluntary, flexible structure. The high level of informality brings together people with common tensions. Informality allows a high level of openness and sets solid the basis for constructively critical peer observation. The members of learning communities are united by the commitment to continuous learning, thus making Continuous Professional Development a major gear of this self-sufficient mechanism.

Learning communities may take various forms and continue functioning for long periods of time. Several case studies (Riding, 2001; Lieberman, 2000; Coleman & Earley, 2005) show how small discussion groups that started to resolve a particular case, go far beyond and transform into extensive learning communities.

Interaction within learning communities depends on the needs of its members. It can be face-to-face, online or blended. Due to the increased involvement of technologies into education, most learning communities are online and exist entirely within virtual environment. There is no need to limit involvement into learning community based on geographical location and time zone.

Due to wide-reaching applicability, learning communities are difficult to monitor and regulate. Leadership plays a crucial role in the development and sustainability of continuous professional development within learning communities.

**Leadership for learning communities**

Leadership plays a crucial role in building professional capacity within educational institutions. Educational capacity went beyond its traditional meaning and includes a range of complex components such as skills, motivation, organizational culture, positive learning, infrastructure and support (Stoll et al., 2006). Creating learning communities for professional development demands a rigorous dedication, so is sustaining the development over time. According to Mulford & Silins (2003), teacher leadership is the main factor to contribute to sustained organizational learning. Transformational and distributive leadership is the milestone in commitment to sustained professional development.

Though success of learning communities rests on shared leadership and informality, its sustainability requires a solid basis. Stoll et al. (2006) suggest that any attempt to improve teaching organization starts with creating a learning culture. School leaders should facilitate the policy of growth and focus on promoting learning as fundamental to change. On developmental stages, school leaders are responsible for ensuring learning community’s credibility. On later stages,
distributed leadership proves to be the most effective method of monitoring and control. According to Harris (2003), distributed leadership supports meaningful collaboration between teachers, which cannot be achieved through top-down management. Productive collaboration is possible only in conditions of positive collegiality.

Timperley (2008) insists on the necessity of active leadership for promoting professional learning and development opportunities.

Designated educational leaders have a key role in developing expectation for improved student outcomes and organizing and promoting engagement in professional learning opportunities. (Timperley, 2008, p. 22)

She suggests that developing vision of new possibilities, leading learning, and organizing learning opportunities are the key factors of active leadership crucial for gaining and maintaining teacher’s interest.

CONCLUSION

Through defining the key characteristics of successfully functioning learning communities we can make a conclusion that in a long-term perspective its sustainability depends on members’ internal strive for self-actualization and external support of those in charge. Learning communities produce significant outcomes for both its members and their students. However, more research should be done in order to determine the necessary steps for creating self-sufficient learning communities that transform according to rapidly changing needs of the educational market.

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USING NEWSPAPER ARTICLES IN TEACHING BUSINESS ENGLISH – EFFECTIVE METHODS AND MEANS OF LEARNING

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ABSTRACT

Teaching Business English is vital in higher education, especially for students of business and financial directions. There exist different kinds of methods and approaches in teaching Business English, but using printed media, such as newspaper, magazine, brochures, etc., is comparatively new in comparison with acknowledged language teaching approaches. The main idea of this paper is to mention and clarify the main effects and advantages, which a learner can gain while using printed media in the learning of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) process.

Key words: Business English, newspaper, printed media.

INTRODUCTION

In the 21st century the knowledge of the English language, especially English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is very important, as it has become the most required instrument which a successful person should have. Global English conducted a very interesting survey as in 2010 (with 26,000 subscribers from 152 countries), where respondents were asked about the importance of the English language (Kutateladze, 2014).

One of the questions was about the importance of knowledge of the English language in respondents’ current jobs. According to 74% of the respondents, English was the most required language; 18% thought it was important and 1% considered English not to be important at all.

Another question referred to the frequency of English usage in their jobs. 55% answered that English was an inseparable aspect of their daily work (that is 6-7% more, compared to the results of the survey conducted in 2007 by Global English.)

The next question dealt with the English language knowledge and its role in a company promotion. According to the answers of the respondents, 69% considered English to be required for the promotion and 24% underlined its important character.

What is Business English? It is one of the parts of English for Specific Purposes, which is specially suited to international trade, commerce and finance. People use business terms in conversational mails and documents in English, and 80% of electronically stored and transmitted data is also in English (Rozina, 2001). According to some estimates, 75% of all business communications worldwide is between non-native English speakers (English Club (n.d.).

The above-mentioned survey, data and other factors, such as globalization, international perspectives and increased connections, opportunities of sharing colleagues’ experiences in international conferences and symposia or just understanding current events in your sphere proves that knowing Business English is really appreciable.
People have different understanding of the term *Business English*. They study it for two reasons: a) **business is their future/current profession**; b) **learner needs to know formal English** (as BE course contains not only business in English and terminology, but also vocabulary useful in formal situations.)

**Why newspaper?**

Generally, newspaper provides comprehensive written materials about printed media which play a considerably useful role in developing modern society with other kinds of media resources. In any profession, newspapers are considered as one of the most reliable, cheap, effective, renewable and informative sources. As media is very close to modern progress and challenges, using printed media (newspaper, magazine, brochures, etc.) in teaching ESP is an unchangeable resource.

News is changing and resources are new. Every new article is a challenge for a learner as reading, understanding and analyzing the content can be a new opportunity to enrich a learner’s own vocabulary. This approach of learning ESP is comparatively new in comparison with acknowledged language teaching methods.

To compare digital and printed media and specify the advantages of the latter one, it is worth mentioning that it is still an outstanding instrument to reach mass markets, people are still reading magazines and annual print publications (Mast, 2015), it is not such a fast provider of fresh information as TV or radio, but it still remains a more comprehensive tool with detailed information which provides complete, accurate and cohesive written material about specific matters, saturated with vocabulary, phrases, idioms, etc., typical for reader’s target sphere. All these characteristics of newspaper or other kinds of printed media deliver essential teaching materials to the learner to develop and improve their reading, writing and speaking skills.

As an authentic teaching material teacher can use not only English or American issues, but press in English, printed in any country, describing local business events or policy, which can be interesting for people from the business sector and diplomatic corps or for business managers and just for foreign visitors.

Authentic texts are much better for Business English learner. A newspaper article as a Business English learning resource in the classroom may increase:

1. **Motivation of the learner** – According to Roberts (2014), English newspaper has been designed for a native speaker, which is motivating for a language learner, and it helps to develop strategies for dealing with ‘real’ texts. This enables students to read more confidently and extensively outside the classroom.

2. **Understanding context**- when student of business or finance field have sense of his/her profession’s main points, with the help of knowing newspaper article structure, increasingly better understands the full context of the business news and develops intensive and extensive reading skills.

3. **Quantity and quality of vocabulary** – on the one hand, learner can find unknown words and phrases in the dictionary, understand the context, memorize them and enrich his/her own ‘lingual bank’; On the other hand, quantity of the vocabulary provides higher quality of the speaking, reading and writing skills.

According to Roberts (2014) newspaper is designed for a native speaker and that is a motivating tool for a learner and, developing strategies to deal with ‘real’ texts’ enables learner to read and think more confidently and extensively outside the classroom. He distinguishes some main challenges which can be complicated for students while using newspaper in
the learning process, such as text organization, headlines, identifying what certain words refer to, and idioms. Teacher can be the mediator between student and resource as explaining strategies is teacher’s main duty.

In business English there exist words which can be familiar for a learner, but they carry different meanings for economists, e.g. in Oxford dictionary the word ‘elasticity’ generally means the ‘ability of an object or material to resume its normal shape after being stretched or compressed’ or ‘ability to change and adapt, adaptability’. But in Business and Economics it means ‘the degree to which a demand or supply is sensitive to changes in price or income’. Translation and making sense of the vocabulary of business and economy are formidable, but vital for the learner.

Irrespective the difficulties of learning specific business language, the main effects and positive sides of the approach - using printed media in the teaching Business English with the acknowledged language teaching approaches are significant and variable.

The format of this approach considers regular reading, translating and analyzing newspaper articles, understanding the format of the target sources (e.g., an article consists of a headline, byline, main section, explanation, and additional information). Newspaper article format more or less coincides with decreased form of patterns of academic writings such as an academic article, resume, or review. They are built by the principles of ‘who, what, where, when, how and why’. The topic sentence and controlling idea are typical for all of them. Except vocabulary, learner subconsciously or automatically develops skills of academic writing, structure of logical sequence, writing style, and punctuation. Furthermore, learner can contextualize, evaluate and do comparative analysis about business sphere in English (e.g. analyzing two different authors’ arguments about an identical issue).

**In conclusion** we can say that the advantage of using a newspaper and its content in ESP (in particular in Business English) classes gives learners different but challenging opportunities to gain a wide range of business vocabulary, elements of critical thinking, analyzing and evaluating tools appealed to newspaper articles. A language learner may increase his/her confidence in reviewing events and information in the business sphere. Up-to-date and current news give language learners an opportunity to learn new things connected to business in English that can raise their motivation to understand news from their professional field. All these factors make learners more fluent in reading and understanding information in English from their field of study. This knowledge will make them more convinced in their speech in business circles and cooperation.

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**ABSTRACT**

The purpose of education is to teach children to become more efficient thinkers, to make smart social, emotional, and academic decisions. The role of the teacher is to facilitate and encourage this process of learning. To meet the challenge, teacher should have a state-of-the-art understanding of how the brain functions and people learn. A lot of efforts have been made due to this and nowadays most attention has been turned towards Brain-Based Learning in order to solve the problem of effective and successful teaching and learning process. Brain-Based Learning theory is based on the structure and function of the brain. It includes accepting the rules of brain processing and organizing the teaching according to the rules in mind for meaningful learning. Brain-Based Approach is a student-centred approach that utilizes the whole brain and recognizes that not all students learn in the same way. It is also a construction of knowledge in a variety of learning situations and contexts. Brain-Based Learning is the platform for many of the reform efforts in learning today, but often teachers do not take into consideration all the learning differences in their classrooms nor understand the importance of applying different brain-based techniques. Teachers can draw on recently developed brain-based research applied to other learners, in addition to their considerations of multicultural strategies, learning styles, and diverse needs. The aim of the paper is to raise teachers’ awareness of Brain-Based Learning approach. The paper will review the core principles of Brain-Based Learning with instructional techniques that are associated with it. Some activities will be suggested that can be used in English as a foreign language classroom. Equipped with an array of diverse teaching approaches, teachers can provide learners with more innovative ways of teaching and learning.

**Key Words:** Brain-based teaching and learning, student-centred teaching, Language teaching.

**INTRODUCTION**

There are different approaches and methods of teaching and learning languages. Language learners’ success greatly depends on teachers’ awareness and knowledge of different approaches to language teaching and strategies used in the classroom. Effective teaching begins with teachers’ knowledge of subject area and genuine caring for children. Students who have a positive relationship with their teachers have a sense of belonging in the school environment (Penner & Wallin, 2012). Besides the above-mentioned criteria, understanding how the brain works could be helpful for teachers to have better results. The brain itself has been the subject of centuries of study. Neuroscientists, psychologists, and educators all played a part in the growing number of research done in this field. These studies have provided a wealth of resources (Willis, 2008) on brain activity and how it learns (Jensen, 2000, 2005; Caine and Caine, 1994; Sprenger, 1999; Sousa, 2001).
The brain-compatible classroom activities are one of the results of the studies made about the brain and its ability to learn. These activities have been carefully planned and are considered very helpful for the language learning development of the students. According to Radin (2009), in this age of accountability, what and how teachers teach are critical for student achievement. Continuing to teach with the same antiquated techniques will produce the same results. Jensen (2008) suggested that tapping into what is known about neuroscience or brain research could assist teachers in developing their abilities to improve student success.

**DEFINING BRAIN-BASED LEARNING**

Brain-Based Learning can be viewed as techniques gleaned from research in neurology and cognitive science used to enhance teacher instruction. These strategies can also be used to enhance students’ ability to learn using ways in which they feel most comfortable, neurologically speaking. Jensen (2000) defines BBL as “learning in accordance with the way the brain is naturally designed to learn” (p. 6). Perhaps the most important aspect of BBL is that it encompasses and combines specific types of research-based academic interventions as well as applied aspects of emotional learning.

A basic component of brain-based learning is that our emotions influence our ability to learn. Our brains are constantly striving to make connections between intellect and emotions. Jensen (2000) explains that the “brain attaches emotion to each event and thought, forming patterns of meaning. . . .” (p. 9). Generally speaking, teachers have paid little attention to the emotional content of lessons. The emotional system tells us whether something is important—whether we ought to put energy or effort into it. In other words, teachers are most likely to gain and keep the attention of students when they engage students’ brain-based emotional systems in a challenging, yet non-intrusive manner.

According to Mayhew and Edwards (2007), a hands-on interactive approach to classroom instruction is not a new concept. In the 1880s John Dewey, a proponent of education reform, advocated learning through a hands-on approach. His philosophy was known as experimentalism or instrumentalism. He was so convinced of the benefits of interactive learning that he and his wife opened an experimental primary school in Chicago in 1894. Later in 1919 he, along with other prominent reformists of the day, co-founded The New School for Social Research, which is still in existence today.

In 1983 Hart was the first to use the term “brain-compatible” when he explained that the educational setting should be adjusted to accommodate for learning rather than teaching as usual, without regard to how the brain learns. McGeehan (2001) further noted that Hart’s claim received mixed reviews; some people were angered at his insinuation that the educational format of the day was deficient, while others were inspired to change.

Every healthy brain comes equipped with the ability to detect patterns, memorize, self-correct, and create. If everyone has these abilities, why do teachers struggle to educate? Caine suggests that “we have not yet grasped the complexity and elegance of the way the brain learns” (1994, p. 3). We can use teaching strategies that are compatible with the way the brain works, or we can struggle with educational methods that are contrary to learning.

For years educators have laboured to teach through rote memorization of facts and skills. Real life experiences and events, however, are etched in our minds with no difficulty. The brain constantly searches to make sense of experiences, seeking common patterns and relations. This suggests that the brain is predisposed to search for relations between what is being learned and what is already known. Caine (1994) summarizes that “brain-based learning involves acknowledging the brain’s rules for meaningful learning and organizing teaching with those rules in mind” (p. 4). Since the brain is already searching
for connections to previous knowledge, teachers need to "orchestrate the experiences from which learners extract understanding" (Caine, 1994, p. 5). Brain-based education, therefore, involves designing enriching experiences for learners and ensuring that students extract meaning from these experiences. Moreover, many educators confirm that neuroscience furnishes a biological and physiological foundation for effective teaching trains (Jensen, 2005). Therefore, educators who design curricula, lesson plans, or classroom activities cannot ignore this approach.

**Twelve Ways to Look at Brain**

Twelve principles of brain-based research can be applied to English language learning and teaching (Caine and Caine, 1994):

1. **The brain is a parallel processor.**

   The brain can function on many levels and in many ways simultaneously. Therefore, teaching must be based on theories and methodologies that guide the teacher to make orchestration possible. Teachers need a frame of reference that enables them to select from the vast repertoire of methods and approaches that are available. Activity shifting, or changing activities two to three times during a class period, and teaching around the wheel of learning styles stimulate thought and action in second/foreign language learner classrooms.

2. **Learning engages the entire physiology.**

   The brain is a physiological organ functioning according to physiological rules. Stress and threat affect the brain differently from peace, challenge, boredom, and happiness. Everything that affects our physiological functioning affects our capacity to learn. Stress management, nutrition, exercise, and relaxation, as well as other facets of health management, must be fully incorporated into the learning process. Cooperative learning (e.g., jigsaw classroom), rituals, games, and talking for social interaction improve English language learning (Zadina, 2005).

3. **The search for meaning is innate.**

   The brain wants to make sense of what it learns and to know that learning has purpose and value. When English Language teachers share with students a rationale for what they are doing, the brain and learner more deeply value the learning. Discovery, collaboration, community involvement, kinesthetic projects, and thematic teaching help to embed learning in real contexts, promoting understanding and enhancing memory (Zadina 2005).

4. **The search for meaning occurs through “patterning”.**

   When the brain encounters a new idea, it searches for prior knowledge and similar experiences. Effective English language teachers use front-loading—pre-teaching, modelling, and rehearsing key concepts, skills, and terms—by integrating graphic organizers, using prediction strategies, introducing vocabulary, conducting pair-shares, and presenting video clips to prepare the brain for the new knowledge to come. Discovery, inquiry, puzzles, thematic teaching, and interdisciplinary teaching all contribute to making meaning through patterning (Zadina 2005).

5. **Emotions are critical to patterning.**

   Daniel Goleman (1997) describes the principle of emotional quotient in his pivotal work Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ. The emotional intelligence principle posits that optimists with effective people skills are more
successful than individuals with high IQs and poor interpersonal skills. In the EFL classroom, a warm, supportive, encouraging educational climate—that is, using a variety of teaching strategies that are engaging and exciting to second/foreign language learners—is conducive to successful learning outcomes.

6. The brain processes parts and wholes simultaneously.

Successful language instructors engage learners in tasks that require both sides of the brain—analytical and creative—to engage, for example, using art to teach a math lesson or music to teach physics. Cross-disciplinary approaches recognize the importance of including both hemispheres, verbal and visual, in meaningful learning.

7. Learning involves both focused attention and peripheral perception.

The brain absorbs direct information but also pays attention to what Ruggiero (2000) calls ‘fringe thoughts’. Frequently, it is the offhanded remark, the subtext of a speech, and the nuances of a lesson that English Language learners respond to, because the mind perceives subtleties. Teacher demeanor, processing time, reflection, contextual learning, real-life activities, and interdisciplinary courses can contribute to attention, perception, and learning through unconscious processes (Zadina 2005).

8. Learning always involves conscious and unconscious processes.

Lozanov (1978) also stated that much learning actually happens unconsciously. It is because the peripheral signals reach the human brain and interact at unconscious levels. But with some delay, they emerge in the consciousness and start to influence individual motives and decisions (Caine & Caine, 1990). Therefore, what human remembers is not only what he has been told and taught, but also what he has experienced through the exposure (Caine and Caine, 1990).

9. We have at least two different types of memory, a spatial memory system and a set of systems for rote learning.

Two types of memory, short- and long-term, help language learners record completely all their experiences, as important and unimportant details get categorized and stored differently. English language instructors can attend to both types of memory by organizing activities into meaningful parts, placing ideas in context, and infusing a range of learning styles and multiple intelligences into classroom practice.

10. We understand and remember best when facts and skills are embedded in natural, spatial memory.

According to Deveci (2014), people learn languages through multiple interactive experiences involving vocabulary and grammar. Our language is shaped both by internal processes and social interactions. Therefore, success in learning a second/foreign language will depend on using all the senses and immersing the learner in a multitude of complex and interactive experiences.

11. Learning is enhanced by challenge and inhibited by threat.

At what level should we teach our students? Teaching at a slightly elevated level that is challenging but not impossible in a warm and inviting atmosphere encourages our students to strive.

Levine’s *The Myth of Laziness* (2002) chronicles the problems that stem from unaddressed dysfunction in learners. Gardner’s Multiple Intelligences Theory (1993) emphasizes not how smart the learner is but how the learner is smart. Alternative, non-traditional approaches to learning address the diverse needs of ELLs and improve their confidence and skills.

Caine and Caine believe that students learn from their whole experience, with every present event, piece of knowledge, or current behavior that is about to be linked to the past learned or stored information. This means that learners must be overexposed to content with context, submerged in learning, involved in talking, listening, reading, and discovering.

**Fundamentals for Optimum Teaching and Learning**


**Orchestrated immersion:**

It means that students are presented with optimally rich, multifaceted and realistic experiences. They are given enough time and opportunities to make sense of the stimuli, to reflect, and to construct meaning by analyzing how the things relate during the whole process. One example could be immersing students in foreign language culture to teach them a target language. Educators should take advantage of the brain’s ability to parallel process.

**Relaxed alertness:**

It is used for an optimal emotional and social climate which is non-threatening and non-judgmental, but personally meaningful, challenging, and supportive. It is necessary to counteract “downshifting” (Caine and Caine, 1995), which is the tendency to shift a defensive and less flexible mode for new information and ideas because of the stress.

To create the relaxed alertness setting, Duman (2010) started the lessons with music. By utilizing the principles every brain is unique and the brain is a parallel processor, he created a setting for positive academic perception of self-concept. During the breaks, the students were advised to drink water. And to enhance emotional awareness and relaxation, cooperation and group-work activities were utilized. During these activities, students were allowed to move around freely to brainstorm and to discuss the course content. Besides, the students were reminded that each and every individual is responsible for himself/herself to remove stress and to challenge himself/herself. By these, Duman (2010) stated that through the learning-teaching process, a classroom of physiological safety and psychological relaxation was ensured.

**Active processing of experiences:**

It refers to a continuous active processing of “experiences to construct, elaborate and consolidate “mental models and patterning” (Gulpinar, 2005). It is a process through which students analyze different ways of approaching and internalizing the information (Ramakrishnan and Annakodi, 2013).

With a purpose of genuine learning, Duman (2010) aimed to exploit questioning and deep thinking while the learning activities were carried out. It is because asking questions is stated to be the basic condition required for thinking (Duman, 2010). Also, for the internalization and rearrangement of the content, students with different learning styles were assigned to the same groups, and learning activities were performed in consideration of their learning styles. Likewise, topic-related stories, educational games, crossword puzzles, and drama activities were engaged in for assigning meaning and
constructing proper personal analogies. For encoding and connecting, the course content features were coded and matched with the expected student characteristics through learning.

**Brain-Based Learning Strategies**

Knowing how the brain works has a significant impact on what kinds of activities are most effective to be used by teachers. They have to help learners to have appropriate experiences and capitalize on those experiences. Using the following brain-based strategies can improve learners' performance in the class.

a. **Discussion**: It internalizes what students have learned. Give students a few bits of information, and then they have "turn and talk" time, where they discuss what they have learned.

b. **Emotions**: The strong memories are closely related to strong emotional experiences, both positive and negative. The brain performs better in a positive emotional state. Students should feel physically and emotionally safe before their brains are ready to learn. Teachers can create a positive environment by encouraging and praising their students' efforts.

c. **Visuals**: Vision is the strongest of the senses. Use posters, drawings, videos, pictures, and even some guided imagery with the children to help them learn. Visual learners prefer pictures, charts, and written text over lectures. Kinaesthetic learners need more tactile (hands-on) and movement-based activities while auditory learners do their best when they talk about what they are learning.

d. **Chunking**: That means that learners need a chunk of information, then an opportunity to process that in some way. Here is when discussion works, as well as an opportunity to write, draw, or even move. The brain learns new information in chunks.

e. **Movement**: Combining movement with learning almost guarantees stronger learning.

f. **Shake it up**: If you do exactly the same thing, exactly the same way, it becomes boring and the brain tunes out. Have a backwards day, turning the whole schedule around (within reason, of course). Change the seating arrangement, do one part of the day completely different.

g. **The brain needs oxygen**: That means we need to get the students up out of their seats regularly and move. Students need a moment to "rest their brain" from a task. Allowing off-task time between lesson segments often increases a student's focus. For example, allow students to take time to stand up and stretch, provide a 2-minute talk break, Brain Gym exercises, etc. By providing these moments, the brain will be more ready to stay on task and store information.

h. **Brain Breaks**: Students need to have time to process new learning in order to make room for more. Teachers should give students a brain break every five to 10 minutes. This could be in the form of a think-share-pair, a movement activity, or a well-placed joke.

i. **Make connections**: Connections are important for the brain. It cannot hold random information; it needs to connect to something else that is already there. Teachers can make connections through their own experiences and stories. Children learn best when teachers teach new material first and review previously learned material at the end of instruction.
Feedback: Practice does not make anything better unless the practice is accurate. Students need to hear they are on the right track. It works pretty well for motivation, as well. It is advisable for teachers to teach in short units and then provide a student led activity time. Students need time to practice the skills they are learning.

Music: Music can be a powerful tool. Teachers can teach difficult aspects through music.

Hydration: Allow students to drink water during learning time. Research shows that dehydration causes higher salt levels in the blood which in turn raises blood pressure and stress. Dehydration also causes a loss in attentiveness and lethargy. Ideally, students should drink 6 to 8 glasses of water a day to be properly hydrated.

Time for reflection: The brain also works on a time schedule. Children aged 5 to 13 learn best in 5 -10 minute increments. Children 14 and older learn in increments up to 10 - 20 minutes. Sometimes, teachers may extend time limits through positive reinforcement. Provide time at the end of a lesson to think about and discuss the topic. Understanding may not take place immediately, it may occur later. Processing time and reflection are vital to the learning environment.

Energy Level: Take advantage of students’ high energy time. There is a high-low energy level cycle that occurs during the day. For example, most students have lower energy in the morning (especially during adolescence) and higher energy levels after lunch. A higher energy level correlates to an increased level of attention. Teachers should take advantage of the times during the day when the students’ energy levels are higher by teaching the most important material during these times.

Positive Environment: First, it is necessary to set a positive and supportive classroom environment. The brain cannot learn well under stress. Higher-level thinking functions are rerouted to basic survival needs. Mirror neurons in our brains cause us to feel similar stress to those around us, causing the learning ability of the entire class to drop. Teachers should be sure to maintain a positive learning environment.

Optimism: An optimistic attitude should be modelled every day. Teacher may be the only optimistic person in a student’s life. It is advisable to model and talk about optimism as their future may depend on it.

Choice: Choice is another important and easy strategy. Students love to have choice. Their brains are more engaged when they have some sort of stake in the task at hand.

Anticipation: Before beginning a lesson, it is better to give students some specific information to listen for. Alternatively, let them know they will need to retell some information to a fellow student. They will pay close attention and retain more.

Meaningful learning: The brain is more likely to retain information that is relevant and meaningful. Students need to know why what they are learning should matter to them. This is especially relevant to challenged learners.

Brain-based teaching and learning can become second nature of teachers. With careful planning, knowledge of brain research findings, and a little creativity, teachers can offer engaging, brain-based activities that encourage exploration and
learning and support learning standards. Teachers and students can build a strong community of learners who see learning as an opportunity to be successful problem-solvers while anticipating each new challenge as another exciting adventure.

CONCLUSION

Brain-Based Learning is a way of considering how the brain naturally learns, how it is impacted by the stimuli around and how the use of different instructional techniques wires the brain, triggers the mind, and motivates the individuals for the best learning outcomes. With peer-reviewed research and practical results, BBL gains credibility. However, not being familiar enough with theoretical knowledge and not interpreting the neurological findings through a cognitive level analysis may hinder the utilization of a potential alternative approach for a good teaching and learning. Amidst reactions and criticism, BBL educators have become more professional, looking at more interdisciplinary research and incorporating new cognitive neuroscience discoveries into their practice than ever before. They are aware of the fact that the brain affects every learning strategy, action, behaviour and policy at school. And they, therefore, aim to enrich students’ lives by paying attention to how the brain learns in consideration of its physical, instructional, affective, and social conditions.

Teachers should learn what is known about the brain, and how cognitive psychology processes this knowledge so as to help with students’ learning and improve instruction. Remembering individual differences, taking care of cognitive processes as well as social and affective influences in learning process, the brain, the mind and the individuals need to be appealed simultaneously and interactively. Instead of asking students to adapt themselves to the teaching style, it is better to adapt the teaching style to the way the brain functions, to the way the mind processes information and to the way the affective mechanisms support one for learning engagement.

REFERENCES


KENNING AND KEND HEITI AS THE BASE MODEL OF THE MODERN COGNITIVE METAPHORS

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ABSTRACT

The paper aims at semantic and cognitive analyses of certain modern compound words applying prismatic model of analyses. The paper also deals with the distinction between kenning and kend heiti. The meaning of these composite expressions is derived from interaction of metonymy and metaphors. Both of these enigmatic compounds that were widely used in Old English poetry can be taken as a model in the process of analyses of modern compounds. They can be regarded as predecessors of metonymic and metaphorical compounds in modern English language, as they share certain peculiarities both from semantic and morphological point of view.

Key words: Kenning, kend heiti, exocentric compounds, mental map; metaphor; metonymy

INTRODUCTION

Language change is a natural phenomenon characteristic of every language, and when a language ceases to change, it is no longer considered to be a living language. However, even though a language goes through various changes, it still keeps its identity, and after many centuries, it is still recognized as the same language. The reasons why changes occur in a language are complex and numerous, but in many cases it is possible to follow their development, which is influenced by both linguistic and non-linguistic factors. Changes happen at all levels of language structure and in the result the new words are introduced in the language, either through borrowing or various word-formation processes.

Compounding, as one of the ways of word formation, has been very productive throughout the historical development of the English language, and it has enriched English word-stock for centuries. Even though being the most productive process of word-formation in English, compounding, opens many questions and problems which have not been solved yet. Compounds do not take a clearly determined position within grammar, since they connect several important linguistic and non-linguistic areas: syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations; syntax and morphology, and linguistic and pragmatic knowledge (Scalise & Fábregas, 2010: 2).

Linguists have defined compounds from different perspectives, casting light on some aspects, but neglecting others, and thus creating a limited perception and understanding of the whole picture. Even though all these different approaches complicate the study and understanding of compounds, still, they make the area of more serious and profound research.
OLD ENGLISH EXOCENTRIC COMPOUNDS

Compounding, as one of the most productive ways of word formation was used throughout all three periods of the English language history. Old English poetry abounds in compounds. They are the most striking feature of Old English poetic style and there is immense poetic force in this peculiarly Germanic figure. Apart from non-idiomatic compounds, whose meanings can be described as the sum of the meanings of their components, Old English poetry is rich with idiomatic compounds – kennings. The term kenning is derived from the idiomatic use of kenna við or til, meaning “to name after” or “make known by.” The verb kenna in rhetoric meant “to make a characterizing periphrasis.”

In the literature on Old English poetic diction, authors disagree on what constitutes a kenning, and on what distinguishes a kenning from the wider class of compounds. Friedrich Klaeber (1950: ixii) labels kennings as any compounds made of circumlocutory words. Andreas Heusler (1922: 130) offers a more restricted and precise definition proposing that the kenning is metaphor with an associating link. In this view, kennings are specifically only those two-membered expressions which consist of a metaphorical base or determinatum and a limiting word or determinant which links the base to its referent. Mitchell and Robinson (1998: 26) say that a construction is a kenning when the base word is wholly metaphorical, that is when it literally refers to something different from the referent. The base word is the second element of a compound of the noun qualified by a genitive noun. They give the following examples: “bánhús” house of bone”, meaning ‘human body’; beadoleoma “battle light”; meaning ‘sword’; heofones wyn ‘heaven’s joy’, meaning ‘the sun’.

According to Mitchell and Robinson (1998: 27) not all metaphorical compounds should be qualified as kennings. For instance such compounds as “beaga brytta” literally ”dispenser of treasure” meaning “king” or “wegflota” literally “ floater of the wave” meaning “ship” are not kennings. As kings literally did give and dispense treasure, and a ship literally did float on the waves. These expressions may be vivid and metonymical, but they are not kennings because they do not compare the referent with something it is not. Arthur Brodeur (1959: 247–59) and Alvin Lee (1998: 58–59) define this group of compounds as kend heiti (‘characterized terms’ adopted from medieval Icelandic treatises on poetics), and claim that this type of compounding is more frequent than kennings in old English. The dividing line between the kenning and kend heiti is difference between a metaphor and metonymy, kennings having the underlying driving force of the former and kend heitis of the latter.

As mentioned above, kenning is a semantically complex compound consisting of at least one metaphor and one metonymy. Hence, Analyzes of the kennings by isolating its metaphor and its metonymy will not be sufficient or adequate, as it would deprive us the possibility to see how the metaphor and metonymy interact in order to construe the meaning of the whole. Therefore, kennings should be subjected to some more recent meaning construction models such as prismatic model.

PRISOMATIC ANALYSIS OF OLD ENGLISH COMPOUNDS

Dirk Geeraerts (2002:87) introduces the prismatic model as “a necessary addition to an analysis in the framework of mental space and blending theory”. This model distinguishes between the paradigmatic and the syntagmatic levels of meaning in the interpretation of composite expressions such as idioms and compounds, and therefore allows a more fine-grained analysis. The paradigmatic level of composite expressions deals with the relation between literal meaning as a whole and the figuratively derived meaning. The syntagmatic level describes the compositional relationship between
the meaning of the constituent parts and the meaning of the composite expression as a whole. These relationships involve two kinds of transparency: motivation, which is transparency on the paradigmatic level, and isomorphism, which is transparency on the syntagmatic level. This transparency is gradable: some relations are more transparent than others. The analyses is based on the following schema:

If we analyze O.E. kenning "hronrād 'whale-road'" we would get the following result: The first constituent in its literal reading is a 'whale.' Due to its size and its natural habitat, it is easily comparable to a ship, so the first constituent in its derived reading is a ship, to which we arrive via a metaphor based on similarity. The second constituent, 'road' or 'riding-place,' stays the same, so the relationship is that of identity. The road refers to a place of movement; it is the surface for travelling. The relationship between the first constituent in its derived reading and the expression as a whole is that of metonymy, as both belong to the same domain: ships are in the domain of the sea. The expression as a whole in its literal meaning is 'whale-road,' or 'the road of the whales,' whereas it metaphorically refers to the 'sea.'

Most composition types that exist today go back to Old English. A type which was not attested in O.E. but only arose in Middle English due to French influence is so called "imperative compounds" which are also exocentric compounds as "forget-me-not," Middle English dictionary was considerably changed in comparison to Old English. When a new word was needed to express new notions, Old English used native elements which were combined together and formed compounds. In Middle English, borrowed words were readily used to name new concepts, and the power of compounding it had had in the earlier period was in decline. To illustrate the immense decrease in the use of compounds in Middle English, we can compare the total number of Old and Middle English compound nouns found in the Helsinki Corpus. According to data, the number of Old English compounds is almost four times bigger than the number of Middle English compounds. Although compounding in Middle English was not as productive as in Old English, still, it continued to enrich the English vocabulary. Some of the old patterns survived and produced new compounds, other patterns went out of use.
LEXICALIZED AND NOVEL EXOCENTRIC COMPOUNDS

According to the data, provided by Algeo (1991) analysis of the contemporary word formation patterns prove that compounding is the most productive word formation process: 68% of the new expressions are grouped into the combining category. Moreover, 90% of the compounds are nouns. Noun–noun compounds are a highly intriguing set of linguistic phenomena. What is most remarkable about these compounds is the diversity of semantic relationships that can exist between the two components on the one hand, and between the individual elements and the compound as a whole on the other. The most traditional and pervasive semantic classification of compounds used in linguistics is based upon the work of Bloomfield (1933), who suggested that compounds fall into two main groups: endocentric and exocentric. In endocentric constructions, the compound is the hyponym of the head element: “writing table”. Exocentric or so-called “headless” constructions, are not a hyponym of the head element, and in the majority of the cases there is some sort of metaphor or metonymy at work in the meaning of the compound, e.g. “black mail”.

Levi (1978) distinguishes three types of exocentric constructions: 1) compounds based on synecdoche such as “blockhead” that describe people and “cottontail” that describe animals; 2) those based on metaphor such as “ladyfinger” (a type of pastry) or “foxtail” (a type of flower); and 3) those which constitute coordinated structures (where neither noun can be taken as a head) such as “secretary-treasurer” or “sofa-bed”.

Surely metaphor and/or metonymy can act upon compounds in a number of ways, depending on which constituent of the compound is affected (or whether the meaning of the compound as a whole is activated by either of the two conceptual devices).

As Bauer and Renouf (2001) point out, exocentric compounds are regarded as exceptional cases in the sense that there are not too many of them, the corpus-based study has shown that exocentric compounds do exist in English and more then that neologisms are coined on the analogy of existing exocentric compounds. As Warren states “metaphor-and/or metonymy-based compounds or “idiosyncratic compounds” are constructions where the semantic relation between the component elements is neither explicit, nor in accordance with established patterns. She claims that such expressions are opaque as to the semantic relation between the constituents, since the hearer cannot “fall back” upon already existing patterns of English compounding”. Yet the simple fact that English does have such constructions implies that either English speakers like to invent dim and murky terms when creating a new word for public access or that the meaning of exocentric compounds is not as opaque as it seems. Exocentric compounds (especially those that are based upon metaphor and/or metonymy) are quite common in a vast number of the world’s languages. In their large-scale typological study of word-formation in the world’s languages, Štekauer et al. (2012: 80) found 30 languages out of their representative sample of 55 that possessed exocentric combinations. These thirty languages covered all major morphological types (agglutinative, fusional, isolating and polysynthetic) and came from sixteen language families.

Exocentric compounds are mainly coined on the bases of metonyms or metaphors or both of them simultaneously Warren (1992), for instance, discusses compounds where “metaphors within metonyms” and “metonyms within metaphors” are at work. In her view, hammerhead (‘a stubborn person’) is an example of the former, where the hammer metaphorically refers to something hard, and the compound as a whole is a PART FOR WHOLE metonymy (the head is used to refer to the whole person).
Prismatic model that was discussed above, in kenning analysis can be successfully used for shedding the light on present day novel, exocentric compounds. Compound noun - "silver ceiling" meaning: "A set of attitudes and prejudices that prevent older employees from rising to positions of power or responsibility in a workplace."

As the schema demonstrates two constituent elements are interconnected both metaphorically and metonymically via prismatic links namely: the words “silver” is metaphorically connected with the word “elder age” while ceiling is the generalization of “limitedness” and is in metonymical connection with the word. thus the idiomatic reading of the compound derives from the two constituent elements - “elder age” + “limit / prevention from promotion in carrier” As Benczes (2006) states, both metaphor and metonymy can be considered as a type of construal operation, and as such, a certain way of interpreting/conceptualizing the world around us. What this implies, therefore, is that the use of and reliance on conceptual metaphors and metonymies in word formation must also be an absolutely natural process.

Above stated example of metaphorical compound can be analyzed within cognitive linguistics framework as well. “Ceiling” is a kind of obstacle that prevents upward movement as it stops upward movement. From the perspective of cognitive linguistics this metaphorical compounds is based on cognitive metaphor –“life is journey” and implies the meaning that a person’s life and his carrier, if it is successful, should go onward and not backward. Moreover, prosperity in our mental map is tagged to upward movement and not downward.

The coinage of metaphor/ metonymy based compounds is very actively employed in neologisms. They are either newly coined words or are composed on the analogy of already existed, lexicalized compounds. In the examples presented in the table one can observe the tendency.
**CONCLUSION:**

English is remarkably abundant in nominal compounds whose meaning are based upon some sort of metaphor and metonymy both, lexicalized as well as novel ones. These lexical units are not only a staple part of everyday language, but they are also analyzable for language users and can serve as a basis for further, analogical coinages. Emergence of the new metaphorical compounds proves that this way of word formation will give rise to much more metaphor and metonymy based composites. Exocentric compounds are regarded as semantically opaque phenomena that are not formed on the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Existing exocentric compounds</th>
<th>Idiomatic reading</th>
<th>Novel exocentric compounds</th>
<th>Idiomatic reading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Jet leg</td>
<td>a tired and unpleasant feeling that you sometimes get when you travel by airplane to a place that is far away</td>
<td>Baby leg</td>
<td>Extreme fatigue and disorientation due to the sleep deprivation associated with parenting a baby</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Eye candy</td>
<td>An extremely beautiful person who accompanies a member of the opposite sex to a party or event, but is not romantically involved with that person.</td>
<td>Arm candy</td>
<td>Something purely aesthetically pleasing, that is, pleasing to the senses. Can be a person, a film, a sunset, a flower, or anything else you can see.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>White collar</td>
<td>of, relating to, or having the kind of jobs that are done in an office instead of a factory, warehouse, etc.</td>
<td>Orange collar</td>
<td>Relating to a worker who wears an orange safety vest while on the job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>honeymoon</td>
<td>trip or vacation taken by a newly married couple</td>
<td>Family moon</td>
<td>A honeymoon in which the bride and groom also bride and groom their children from previous marriages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Sweet tooth</td>
<td>a craving or fondness for sweet food</td>
<td>Meat tooth</td>
<td>A craving or fondness for meat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Rat race</td>
<td>strenuous, wearisome, and usually competitive activity or rush</td>
<td>Mouse race</td>
<td>A lower-stress lifestyle that results from moving to a smaller community or taking a less demanding job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Glass ceiling</td>
<td>an unfair system or set of attitudes that prevents some people (such as women or people of a certain race) from getting the most powerful jobs</td>
<td>Silver ceiling</td>
<td>A set of attitudes and prejudices that prevent older employees from rising to positions of power or responsibility in a workplace.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Black swan</td>
<td>an event or occurrence that deviates beyond what is normally expected of a situation and that would be extremely difficult to predict</td>
<td>Black elephant</td>
<td>An unlikely but significant risk that everyone knows about, but no one wants to discuss.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Couch potato</td>
<td>someone who spends a lot of time sitting and watching television</td>
<td>Mouse potato</td>
<td>A person who spends a great deal of time in front of a computer.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
basis of productive patterns. Cognitive linguistics, however, has demonstrated that these “exocentric” compounds are indeed analyzable with the application of prismatic model of analysis. The model distinguishes between sense development within the expression as a whole and those within component parts thus making the whole expression comprehensible.

REFERENCE


THE CITY AS CHARACTER IN VIRGINIA WOOLF’S NOVEL MRS. DALLOWAY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to explore the ways in which fictional images and urban aesthetics of London are represented in Virginia Woolf’s masterpiece novel Mrs. Dalloway. It will try to define the theoretical backgrounds for the literary analysis of urban space in Virginia Woolf’s novel Mrs. Dalloway. The article draws interest to the urban visions and poetics, writing techniques and devices the writer uses in order to create imaginative urban visions of London City within the fictional characters in relation to modern city. According to various theoretical definitions, the space is regarded as a product and the city is the location where the more visible signs of modernity were to be found in the highest concentration. That is why it will focus on spatial concepts: the general concept of space, urban space and the city and modernity. The main analysis deals with public and private spaces that are central to the novel’s plot and to the fictional characters. The significance of the city space of London will be examined as a whole, as well as its importance for the characters and how it differs from spaces outside of London. In addition, a closer look will be taken at the most important areas of London featured in the novel and attention will be drawn to how they are generally perceived, described and experienced by Woolf’s main characters and how they react to a direct confrontation with clearly defined gendered space and what means they employ to bend and break the established boundaries.

Key words: “A single-day novel, restricted spatial urban and temporal settings

INTRODUCTION

The ‘new’ experience of Western culture and the consciousness of ‘modern’ western person was to a great extent defined during the first period of urbanization, industrialization and modernization. As Steven Marcus (1987:232) convincingly argues, the new reading of the city, the perception and construction of it as a signifying structure may be regarded as prototypical and paradigmatic for the nineteenth century and the first part of the twentieth century as well. One finds variant representations of this vision in the Paris of Balzac, in the London of Dickens, in the St. Petersburg of Dostoevsky, in the Dublin of Joyce, in the Berlin of Doblin, in the New York of Dos Passos, etc. It can be found as well, appropriately modified, in the work of such other modernist figures as T.S. Eliot, Proust and the early Beckett. Within the context of the twentieth century, modernist perspective, the city is at once sordid, corrupt, ruinous, terrible, contaminating and still a place of wonders, magic, marvels, and “reality” in all its most startling and surprising manifestations. The city with its “treelessness”, and its “unnatural, too-human deadness”, with its dangerous “lack of the human in the too-human” became humanity’s new nature and the conscious substance of modernist novelistic discourse.

If nineteenth century urban novels explored the isolation of the individual from the idea of historical community in negative terms, the twentieth-century city went one step further by surrendering the very notion of historical continuity in favour of
unhistorical miscellany. Now, the city has become the location where the more visible signs of modernity are to be found in the highest concentration: for example, electric light, motorized transport, boulevards, telephone wires and department stores. That was an informing presence in many of the key works of modernism, especially in Virginia Woolf’s *Mrs. Dalloway*.

Modernism’s obsession with history in turn mutated into a new form of urban neurosis in which the city rather than its inhabitants became the protagonist. Desmond Harding (2003:11) has argued forcefully that modernist writers embodied a self-conscious awareness of historical and social relativity that played on the archetypal and historical features of the city in order to challenge the idea of urban space as an essentially static, fixed and ultimately, knowable object.

**The city as character in Virginia Woolf’s novel *Mrs. Dalloway***

The concentration on the subjective mind gave rise to the form of the single-day novel, which is representative of modernism. In a very restricted temporal and spatial frame (a single-day and a single location, usually a city) in what Henry James calls a ‘slice of life’, much of contemporary reality can be shown, as it is the case with Mrs. Dalloway, which is typical modernist single-day consciousness novel, where the urban spatial setting is especially significant and an experimental narrative takes London as its subject of the material city of modernism (Caws, 1991:116).

The city is the epitome of modernity, where the spirit of the age is represented in a distilled form. Modernist writers take interest of the ‘everyday’ with all its banality in their writing. This banality can be ‘balanced’ by the ‘eventful’ inner lives of their protagonists, their thoughts and epiphanies. A few focus is put on psychological phenomena, memories, dreams and the subconscious, where the urban aesthetics space plays a key role and reveals the city as the character of the novel.

This is a passage from *Mrs. Dalloway*:

She stiffed a little on the kerb, waiting for Durtnall’s van to pass. A Charming woman, Scrope Purvis thought her (knowing her as one does know people who live next door to one in Westminster); a touch of the bird about her, of the jay, blue-green, light, vivacious, though she was over fifty and grown very white since her illness. There she perched, never seeing him, waiting to cross very upright. For having lived in Westminster how many years now? Over twenty, one feels even in the midst of the traffic or waking at night, Clarissa was positive, a particular hush or solemnity; an indescribable pause, a suspense (but that might be her heart, affected, they said by influenza) before Big Ben strikes. (Woolf, 1975:4)

The novel begins with these lines that explicity narrate Clarissa’s walk outdoors in London. They follow her plunge into memories of Bourton and precede the sound of Big Ben and Clarissa’s famous meditation on what she loves about London. I want to use this passage as an anchor, for it prefigures the dazzling sequence a few pages later in the novel that links characters by the figure first of the mysterious motor car and then the skywriting airplane. This sequence, as critics have pointed out, shows Woolf asking if anything might unify postwar London, is it the idea of empire or the lingering terror of war? This epigraph also suggests the particular version of urban time explored in this early sequences, as it sets out a temporality of pausing, of waiting, central to the novel’s interest in the problem of defining character and defining the network of connections that constitutes London.

According to the various theoretical definitions and discussions, space is today widely seen as a product. According to Elizabeth Bronfen’s (1999: 29) notes, the space is the site in which events occur and in which people pass. Bronfen’s
definition of exterior spaces can be applied to other literary texts. In this respect, a quote from Virginia Woolf’s diary entry from May 26, 1924 becomes highly significant. Woolf was in the process of writing what was then called “The Hours” and expresses her joy of being back in London and writing: “London is enchanting. I step out upon a tawny coloured magic carpet, it seems, and get carried into beauty without raising a finger. And people pop in and out, lightly, divertingly like rabbits. One of these days I will write about London and how it takes up the private life and carries it on, without any effort” (Woolf, 1975:62).

So, she does not only comment on the beauty of London, but also on how it simply ‘carries’ life for her as well as for other inhabitants of the city. Looking at Clarissa’s thoughts and feelings in this respect, we see that she never specifically comments on these aspects of freedom and openness, but she indirectly connects them to her love of life in general: “In the triumph and the jingle and the strange high singing of some aeroplane overhead was what she loved, life, London, this moment of June” (Woolf, 1975:4). Considering this, it is difficult to agree with Susan Squier’s (1985: 65) opinion that “Clarissa confuses internal (individual) events with external (general) occurrences. In fact, she seems unable to separate the beloved city around her from her love of life itself”. Both the external occurrences and the city are closely interrelated with the protagonist’s thoughts and feelings – a literary devise used by Woolf, and in this sense her ‘love of life’ is indeed inseparable from the city she loves to live and walk around in.

Bronfen’s definition describes exterior places as exciting and mysterious spaces that are full of possible adventures and discoveries. This specific definition certainly holds true in connection with the city space of London in Mrs. Dalloway. In the novel Clarissa is well established in her social circle and her life follows seemingly fixed patterns established over time both in her marriage and within the social class she belongs to. So, instead of seeing her encounters with London’s exterior spaces as adventures and chances for exploration, they are walks through entirely familiar territory. Clarissa comments on her becoming a part of the city after her death, she does not leave the city throughout the entire novel, she only leaves London in her thoughts and memories of the past. Often these ‘walks in the past’ run parallel with her present and it becomes almost impossible to make a clear distinction between the two times. Stepping out, Clarissa thinks: “What a morning, fresh as if issued to children on a beach. What a lark! What a plunge! For so it had always seemed to her when, with a little squeak of the hinges, which she could here now, she had burst open the French windows and plunged at Bourton into the open air. How fresh, how calm, stiller than this of course, the air was in the early mornings” (Woolf, 1975:3). She forms a connection with all its past and future inhabitants and consoles herself to some extent “that somehow in the streets of London, on the ebb and flow of things, here, there she survived, she being part, she was positive, of the trees at home” (Woolf, 1975:7). This is a sentiment that is, in a way, later confirmed by Peter who, remembering a bus ride with Clarissa, takes it even further by saying that “she was all that. So that to know her, or anyone, one must seek out the people who completed them; even the places” (Woolf, 1975:111).

However, the sentiment of excitement is not completely absent from the novel. It is taken up by the next generation. When Elizabeth gets on the omnibus, she decides to go a little further to the strand, where “no Dalloways came”, which makes her feel like “a pioneer, a stray, venturing, trusting” (Woolf, 1975:100). In this passage, Elizabeth goes against the values and the roles that have come with her upbringing and social class. She wants to go to a different part of the city, ‘migrating’, she expresses a wish to get a new profession. Elizabeth’s act goes hand in hand with another aspect of city space. Her example shows that London has more to offer than just openness, freedom and excitement. The city presents itself as a
highly diverse environment that provides a vast variety of possibilities and through this contributes to social change, as it occurred in Modernism.

In Mrs. Dalloway it is Septimus who does not perceive London as searching for a new life.

London leaving an absurd note behind him, such as great men have written, and the world has read later when the story of their struggles has become famous. London has swallowed many millions of young men called Smith; thought nothing of fantastic Christian names like Septimus with which their parents have thought to distinguish them. (Woolf 1975:63).

There is another character in Mrs. Dalloway who has dreamt of a new life in London and is even quicker to realize that everything is not better in the big city. When we meet Maisie Johnson, she has just arrived in London, walking through Regent’s Park, has had an encounter with Rezia and Septimus Warren Smith who “had given her quite a turn” and it seems greatly discouraged her: “Horror! Horror! She wanted to cry. She had left her people, they had warned her what would happen. Why hadn’t she stayed at home? She cried, twisting the knob of the iron railing” (Woolf, 1975:20).

CONCLUSION

Thus, it has been noted that urban writers are responsible for making the vast picture of city space visible to others. This, however, can never be an all-encompassing representation, because, being part of the space, the observers cannot help to have a relatively limited view. It also means that there is an inevitable connection between the descriptions of the city space and the observers’ character, experiences, feelings and moods. Even more so, it is impossible to consider one without the other as these observes are at the same time the producers of space. It is not only the writers and characters who serve to depict the city, but also this very depiction (and therefore the city itself) can be seen as a representation of the observer. This is actually what Bronfen suggests in her general notes on actual material spaces, which allow the conclusion that these spaces take an active part in the narratives in one way or another and should not be seen as a mere background.

Woolf uses the city space of London as an indicator for the characters’ thoughts and feeling, London acts as a mirror, and the characters mediate through its streets. The sense of London helps Woolf to define the characters, and her sense of the characters helps her to define London. The novel shows the city closer to the everyday lives of their inhabitants rather than a strictly planned space and London city becomes a character in the novel Mrs. Dalloway.

REFERENCES


LANGUAGE AND GENDER: HE/MAN APPROACH, GENERIC HE, FALSE GENERICs IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING (ELT)

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ABSTRACT

The paper demonstrates the gender-inclusive tendency, particularly, the he/man approach, genetic he, false generics and possible ways of teaching it in ELT classroom. The He/Man approach involves the use of male terms to refer both specifically to males and generically to human beings. In linguistics terms, some authors have characterized the male as an unmarked, the female as a marked category. The discussion of the literature demonstrates that the use of generic he creates gender-exclusivity: such usages are perceived and understood as not referring to females. The experiment will determine whether and how this tendency persists in the English speakers of genderless languages, specifically, Georgian. The essence of the experiment lies in the fact that Georgian has got only genderless 3rd person pronouns which may refer to a male person, a female person, something with an unidentified gender, whereas the English 3rd person pronouns differ in terms of referent’s (he, she) gender. Research has shown that generic he tends to suggest a male referent in the mind of the reader. The objectives of the research are gender representation in English language. Concretization of the research is the third person reference, he/man approach, generic he and false generic. The case study was held, where Georgian genetic pronouns were translated into English, including the third person pronouns: "is/iGi" (ის/იგი) and their case forms - "mas/man" (მას/მან), etc, possessive and reflexive pronouns "mis/tavis" (მის/თავის) and their case forms "misma? tavisma" (მისმა/თავისმა), etc, by native Georgian speakers. In conclusion, the various ways of dealing with the problem, including the target group in the case study and further developments in ELT are discussed in the paper.

Key Words: he/man approach, false generics, genetic he, generic pronouns.

LANGUAGE AND GENDER

Language uses us as much as we use language. The language in relation to gender and language has been observed by many linguists and language experts have observed that men and women speak differently, as well as that men and women are spoken of differently, and it is often claimed that language is discriminatory against women. The term gender itself refers to social constructions of masculinity and femininity. Grammatical gender is used in contexts related to linguistic categories. Differences in male and female language usage began to be remarked in the early 17th century (Khoroshahi, 1989). These differences caused a tremendous interest among linguists and led to claim that men and women spoke completely differently. As a result, it can be claimed that the gender of a speaker determines or increases the likelihood of usage of obvious phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical forms of language. The he and man are frequently used as generic terms. Pronoun they is widespread in nonstandard English, which denotes an indefinite number of
individuals of unspecified or possibly mixed genders. The male as an unmarked category represents both maleness and femaleness, while the marked category represents femaleness only. It is suggested that third person pronoun usage is affected by the current feminist opposition to gender-indefinite he, particularly since the well-established alternative, singular they, has remained widespread in spoken English throughout the two and a half centuries of its “official” proscription. Genetic differences can be explained in terms that language is a reflection of the way society uses it, and language serves as a primary means of constructing and maintaining that particular society. There are two language differentiation phenomena: gender-exclusive and gender-variable differentiations. Gender-exclusive differentiation refers to the radically different speech varieties used by men and women in particular societies. In these societies the representatives of both genders may not be allowed to speak the variety of another gender. The example here may be noticed in using taboo words, functional use of language, and the degree of politeness. Gender-variable differentiation is seen in obvious frequency with which men and women use the same lexical items or other linguistic features. For instance, women have been shown to possess a greater variety of specific color items than men in North American society. I will attempt to discover that language use can tell us about the nature and extent of any inequality; and finally to ask whether anything can be done, from the linguistic end of the problem. The data which I found, my claims have been collected mainly based on journal articles and my own observation of the case study, where native Georgian speakers were asked to translate Georgian sentences, containing the genderless pronouns “is/igi/mat/man” and their case forms, into English. The essence of the experiment lies in the reflection in a reader’s mind of masculine and feminine pronouns’ usage.

Peculiarities of Male and Female Language Use

Based on my own observations, there are certain differences in language use between men and women. First, female speakers are keen on using prestige forms. Almost in all styles female speakers tend to use less stigmatized forms than male ones do. In terms of style shifting, female speakers are marked more than male ones are. Moreover, the use of non-standard forms seems to be associated with male speakers. In British English women are likely to be close to RP, while men prefer Norwich varieties (Stunderland, 2006). In addition to differences in syntax, morphology and pronunciation, men and women differ in terms of communicative strategies. Furthermore, men tend to interrupt very frequently, while women use more facilitative tags. It is believed by many linguists that males are species and women are the subspecies. As a result it leads to the situation that male should be dominant, and woman be derived from man. As female and male speakers differ in speaking styles, this factor could not be omitted in the perception of reading skills. Since representatives of both genders have their particular traits, the reflection of language output is seemingly different that makes the use of generic pronouns ambiguous and worth of interest.

He/Man Approach and Use of Generic He

The He/Man approach involves the use of masculine terms to refer both specifically to males and genetically to human beings. In linguistic terms, the male is characterized as unmarked, and the female as a marked category. The unmarked category represents both maleness and femaleness, while the marked represents femaleness only. In Old English man meant “person” that referred to both genders equally (Martyna, 2014). Many scholars, such as David Crystal (2004), claim that the masculine he in English is a matter of grammar, and it is not related to terms of gender discrimination. However, others (Martyna, 2014) state that the generic masculine is both ambiguous and discriminatory. I support the point of view that generic he is discriminatory and ambiguous towards femaleness. But I should admit that in many contexts it is difficult
to determine and distinguish which gender is meant under the generic he. As a result, it is better to indicate which gender is used (he or she) or use the neutral plural pronoun they. If we take the dictionary definition from Merriam Webster Online Dictionary and Treasures of the word man, we can notice that it has different meanings: 1) an adult human being; 2) a man or boy who shows the qualities that men are traditionally supposed to have; 3) a woman’s husband or boyfriend. (Webster, n.d.). As we see the definitions of man do not have any explicit or implicit connections with femaleness. One may not use the word man interchangeably with woman referring to the context where a female is meant. Some writers and linguists manipulate the usage of he/man with a person. Thus it enables the equality in gender discrimination, and gives the readers a choice of perceiving a person as female or male. I consider that people who combat the usage of generic masculine are concerned with both equal rights and equal words. If we exclude the ambiguity and gender exclusiveness of the he/man approach, it would enable speakers to communicate more clearly and fairly about the genders. In many contexts the use of generic masculine is completely confusing. It leads the reader to confusion, and in many cases readers skip the main idea. In order to avoid semantic misunderstanding, we may use everyone, person, he/she, him/her, or they/their. I think that he must represent a male; she - a female; and it – an object of no sex; they equally represents objects of all the three genders. However, the possessive their is very commonly misused to refer a singular noun. According to traditional grammar, there is a possessive adjective used before nouns, which refers to plural (group of people). However, in the following sentence the meaning is misused: “If the traveler wishes you to make their arrangements or reschedule them, you may refuse their pleasure”. As we notice the meaning of their is misused and interchanged with his/her, which causes a grammatical error. According to modern textbook writers the gender-indefinite he is “correct”, whereas singular they is “inaccurate” and he/she is awkward (Bodine, 1975). This problem may be explained with respect to the fact that there is no common gender (in the third person singular). The best solution is to use both pronouns he/she as in the example. The tendency of the masculine he has been lasting for almost two centuries which eliminates he or she and singular they, while suggesting that the countermovement against gender-indefinite he is improbable to disappear. The entitlement is that the of the use masculine he with a great deal of frequency makes women feel shut out, not a part of what is described, an inferior species or nonexistent one (Lakoff, 2009). As a result, one should be careful, while using the generic he, in order to avoid gender discrimination caused by the misuse of pronouns.

Mixed genders; False Generics

The third person pronoun they is widespread in nonstandard English which represents as uncertain a number of individuals of unspecified or possibly mixed genders. The following words are examples of mixed gender: actor – actress, mailman – letter carrier, fireman – fire fighter, chairman – chair / chair person, museum of man – museum of civilization, etc. As we have mentioned above, he and men are used as generic terms. This application is usually classified into two groups: 1) it is an ancient use of English grammar; 2) reflecting the fact that males dominated the world of education and literacy. As a result, some authors claim that it is the matter of grammar or social language. With frequent use of he/man generics, the false generics emerge in language use. Examples of false generics are: Man breastfeeds his child; Man suffers in the childbirth; Diana became the first man to swim the river. In the examples mentioned above we can obviously see that he/man cannot be substituted in all contexts even though they are appropriate in terms of grammar (Paterman, 1982) . When we are talking about “Men and Women” or “Women and Men”, the following question arises: Which should we write first, Men or Women? I think it is up to the speaker to decide which one to use in the first place. By placing woman/man or man/woman in the first place, the speaker may show us his/her priority. However, according to people’s stereotypes, what comes first
Translation of Georgian Sentences Containing 3rd Person Singular in English

In order to see how the generic he works in the perception of non-native speakers of English, the following experiment was conducted. I compiled Georgian sentences logically related to each other, including the third person pronouns: is/igi and their case forms mas/man, etc., possessive and reflexive pronouns misi/tavisi, and their case forms (misma/tavisma, etc). I was interested in how Georgian generic pronouns would be translated into English. After that I asked 44 participants (native Georgian speakers) translate these sentences into English. The compiled sentences do not contain any semantic cues revealing a referent’s gender. The essence of the experiment lies in the fact that Georgian has only genderless 3rd person pronouns which may refer to a male person, a female person, someone with an unidentified gender, or to just one of them, whereas English third person singular pronouns differ in terms of a gender of a referent (he, she). Sophomore students and a group of both administrative and academic staff at International Black Sea University, whose level was upper-intermediate and higher, acted as subjects. The results of the survey are presented in the following chart:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronouns /respondents’ gender:</th>
<th>Generic he</th>
<th>Pronoun she</th>
<th>He/she</th>
<th>Singular They</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the compiled sentences did not reveal a referent’s gender, it was up to the translators to decide who was the entire text about. While translating from Georgian into English, eighteen female participants out of twenty-two, perceived the genderless Georgian pronoun is/igi/man as she in English. Fifteen male participants out of twenty used the generic he, while translating the same text containing the genderless Georgian pronoun is/igi/man and their case forms. Two female participants perceived it as the generic he, five male participants – as female she, four males and four females used the neutral he/she style without directly implying to the gender, and only one female representative used singular they and its case forms with complete ignorance of the gender issue. I have come to a certain conclusion that without the semantic clues revealing a person who is spoken about, native speakers of Georgian are not able to distinguish the gender of referent. Moreover, male speakers of Georgian tend to use masculine he more often, than females do. On the other hand, with no obvious semantic clue, female speakers of Georgian prefer to use the pronoun she and its case forms (her, herself) in almost all contexts where they noticed the use of is/igi/man, etc. A very small number of participants used the neutral he/she style. It may be explained in two ways: either participants do not realize the gender of referent, or they just avoid leading to misunderstanding in the target language. Two female participants used another spelling form of neutral he/she style as it is shown it the following example – s/he. It can be perceived as female speakers of Georgian seem to have feminist views. They prefer to use she to indicate that the women are dominant over men. Moreover, it demonstrates their view that women are species and men are subspecies. It implied that men are derived from women, and not women from men. While translating sentences from Georgian into English, I, as a female non-native speaker of English, prefer the neutral he/she style. It may keep me away from misuse of referent’s gender or incomprehension in the texts written in English. But I should
admit that if there is even a small semantic clue to reveal a referent’s gender, one should be careful about the use of the *he* or *she* pronouns. It may seem inappropriate to substitute *he* or *she* interchangeably with *he/she* in all contexts.

**The Ways of Dealing with Generic *He* in ELT**

Personal perception in terms of personal pronouns is one of the most socially significant aspects of language. The structure of English third person pronouns may be expected to change in order to reflect the new ideology and social practices. Analysis of the processes and results of this change can further explain the contributions of social forces to language development. However, there should be an attempt to change only what can be changed, since this is hard enough. I have come to some conclusions that for a teacher of a second language, it is important to realize that social context is relevant in learning to speak a second language fluently and non-offensively. If a woman teacher unconsciously teaches "women's language" to her male students, they may encounter difficulties while conversing in another setting and vice versa. If a female anthropologist learns the "men's language" of an area, he/she may not be able to get anywhere with the inhabitants because she seems unfeminine, and they will not know how to react to her. Language learning, thus, goes beyond phonology, syntax and semantics: it takes a perceptive teacher to notice the difficulties and to clarify them correctly for students. As I have observed the participants during the research, speakers of genderless language, found the phenomenon of translating the sentences into a language which has generic pronouns comparatively hard and confusing. The possible solution to this problem can be done by proving semantic clues in the context of sentences to be translated. It will facilitate translators or interpreters not to misuse the pronouns. Another way of dealing with this problem can be resolved by giving students in ELT classroom translating texts from English into Georgian. In this case the students will have an opportunity to have a look on how generic pronouns are translated into their language. After that students may switch translating from one language to another. These processes may make the essence of translating more practical and understandable for them. My observations of pronoun usage have shown that there are drastic gender differences in both the use and understanding of the generic *he*. Females use *he* less often than males do, and turn more frequently to alternatives such as *he* or *she* and *they*. In general, males appear to be using and understanding *he* in its specific more often than in its generic sense. I deeply believe that the gender issue is the matter of language perception and its reflection in social context.

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THE OPTIMAL LEVEL OF MOTIVATION AND ABILITIES: HOW THEY ARE RELATED TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PRODUCTIVE PROFESSIONAL

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ABSTRACT

The production theory and the qualitative approach to the development of human resources bring a question into attention to how the motivation and abilities of professionals are interrelated and what their optimum level is to ensure the highest possible productivity. The combination of the psychological and economic aspects of motivation and a literature review are discussed holistically in the paper. The hypothesis that lies behind the paper is that there should be an optimal combination of human abilities and motivation that entails to the most efficient results. We have made an attempt to mathematically model the motivation and abilities on creating something (working, achieving an aim, producing something) and to find the rational level of their combination to avoid psychological harms and economic inefficiency. The cases of interrelations of motivation and abilities are also comprehensively illustrated. Thus, the paper has more of a theoretical approach to the issues of productivity.

Key words: Motivation, ability, behavior, productivity, production function.

BACKGROUND

One of the outstanding phenomena in the twentieth century that has been in the interests of economists’ is the shift of human capital development from extensive (quantitative) to intensive (qualitative) level. The latter was mainly due to technological and industrial development and brought forward the idea of endogenous economic growth and a number of scientific disciplines launched the observation of a human from the point of view of their motivation, abilities and performance as an economic agent and quality labor force. In this paper we seek to introduce a theoretical overview of how the motivation and abilities anticipate the outcomes of a professional from an economic perspective. That is to say, we have applied the general microeconomic theory of production to an individual’s level to theoretically discuss how the productivity of an individual changes in certain proportions of motivation and abilities one possesses.

A number of authors have attempted to design the behavior of a professional from various perspectives: motivation, abilities, triggers, cognitive abilities, goal setting, confidence, etc. B.J. Fogg (1999; 2002) in his papers discusses a new model of human behavior, which comprises of three factors: motivation, ability and triggers. This model is comprehensive enough to depict the drivers of human behavior and describes the factors that shape the performance. William Revelle and David Condon (2015) discuss temperament, abilities and interests as factors of achieving an outcome.

In psychological theories abilities are defined as talents and skills necessary to perform a current task. This assumes therefore that any learning or development processes necessary have already been attained. However learning process is
typical to cognitive abilities which entails to the development of parts of cognitive abilities: perception, attention, memory, motor skills, language, visual and spatial processing, executive functions. In this paper, we consider the abilities in its broader sense including both cognitive and physical abilities.

Motivation is defined as the process that initiates, guides, and maintains goal-oriented behaviors. By goal orientation here we will mean the utility maximization problem of an individual assuming that an individual maximizes one's utility when s/he achieves the maximum performance and produces the maximal level at his/her capacity. So, motivation is what causes us to act, whether it is getting something to eat to reduce hunger or developing skills to get a higher wage rate. It involves the biological, emotional, social and cognitive forces that activate behavior. “The term motivation refers to factors that activate, direct, and sustain goal-directed behavior. Motives are the "whys" of behavior - the needs or wants that drive behavior and explain what we do. We don't actually observe a motive; rather, we infer that one exists based on the behavior we observe.” (Nevid, 2013:278).

**METHODOLOGY**

The comparative description of how motivation and abilities shape an individual's behavior from the perspective of production theory in microeconomics lies behind the methodology of this research. As capital and labor are the factors of production in their broader understanding, similarly motivation and abilities are considered here as the factors that drive an individual to produce something. In the latter case the production is also in a wider meaning: it can be creating something new, developing a theory, achieving a goal, participating in an industrial production process, delivering services, etc.

Motivation and abilities have a key role in any human activity. Motivation accounts for the behavior and activity and has a great impact on professional self-determination and person's satisfaction with the work. In motivation theories and in psychology as well, authors tend to model the behavior by depicting them in matrices. In this research we have modeled it using mathematical tools to make it more comprehensive how these factors interrelate with each other and how they are correlated with the final outcome.

**The Optimal Combination of Preliminary Abilities and Motivation**

Generally, in economic theory we consider the rational choice of individuals upon the scarcity of resources. The resources are scarce for production which brings the idea of rational choice and the questions that lie in the background of economic theory: what to produce, how to produce and for whom to produce.

In case of an individual one also encounters with the issue of scarcity: the scarcity of time, abilities, motivation, etc. But the difference here is that the abilities are exogenous, that is to say there is a certain set of abilities that a person possesses (inherited from parents). Meanwhile, some of the abilities can be developed further and some of them remain in preliminary level. Cognitive abilities occur from infancy to adolescence, but development does not stop there (Bernstein et al, 2013: 405). However, the changes in abilities are not flexible, so in the paper we will consider it exogenous. So, how one can perform as a professional is similar to that of a production function in economics, meaning that in economics we have to choose between the labor and capital and in case of a development of a professional we have to choose between the abilities and the motivation.
A professional's production set (see Figure 1) depicts the feasible production possibilities an individual possesses. That is to say, we can have various combinations of motivation and abilities and the way they are interrelated which will entail to various outcomes. Thus, the set of all possible combinations of motivation and abilities and the production results are a professional's production set.

The line ℓ in Figure 1 is the production function of an individual, which is the maximum feasible production from a certain amount of abilities and motivation. F(x) is the final output, the production and x is motivation and abilities.

In microeconomic theories, we discuss how one chooses between labor and capital to maximize the productivity, though these factors are not flexible in a short-run to change easily. We assume that one can choose between the combinations of these production factors. In our case, when we discuss a professional's production we encounter with the same with some differences. If in the case of economic sense of production, one makes a conscious decision on how much labor and how much capital to invest in the production, in our case an individual hardly puts it all on a conscious level to choose between motivation and abilities. The forces that drive a certain level of motivation are complicated to describe and as we also mentioned above the abilities are somewhat limited, at least in a short run. Explicit motives are expressed through deliberate choices and more often stimulated for extrinsic reasons. Also, individuals with strong implicit needs to achieve goals set higher internal standards, whereas others tend to adhere to the societal norms. These two motives often work together to determine the behavior of the individual in direction and passion (Brunstein & Maier, 2005). Meanwhile, it is worth noticing that theoretically there are certain combinations of motivation and abilities that will entail to the same outcomes and an individual will be indifferent which combination s/he had, while achieving the desired outcomes. Thus, the indifference curves that are similar to those we use in microeconomics to describe the preferences in demand and technology in production theories describe the combinations on motivation and abilities that have the same utility for a professional (Figure 2).

In Figure 2 the vertical axis is the motivation (M) and the horizontal axis is the abilities (A) of a professional. Each point on the same indifference curve has the same utility. Meanwhile the higher iso-quant describes a higher motivation and abilities.
which consequently has a higher utility and leads to better performance and outcomes. Thus, when one develops the skills and competencies his/her iso-quant curve goes up and right to a new quality level.

![Graph showing iso-quant for a Professional’s Choice between Motivation and Abilities](image)

**Figure 2: Iso-quant for a Professional’s Choice between Motivation and Abilities**

As there is a tradeoff between the motivation and abilities as one remains on the certain iso-quant, it is possible to calculate the marginal rate of substitution. That is to say how much more motivation (abilities) one should gain to give up some abilities (motivation) and remain on the same iso-quant.

The equation will look as the expression below:

\[
MRS(A, M) = \frac{MPA(A, M)}{MPM(A, M)}
\]  

(1)

Where MPA is the marginal production for abilities and MPM is the marginal product for motivation (they are calculated as first order conditions for A and for M respectively). In mathematical expression the numbers entail to the same outcomes, however in the long-run the combination of motivation and abilities have essential consequences. Even if two different combinations of motivation and abilities may result to the same result in the short run, they entail to different development tracks for the future, in the long run, as the resources of an individual to gain more skills are limited.

The simplest way to depict the production function is the Cobb-Douglas function:

\[
F(x) = qA^\alpha M^{1-\alpha}
\]  

(2)

Where A and M are abilities and motivation respectively and q is the interrelation between these factors. The sense of q is more complicated to describe as the same motivation and abilities in case of different individuals lead to different results due to the qualitative characteristics of the factors and the extent to which they are interrelated. That is to say, whether motivation is higher to put the abilities into activity or whether abilities are so developed that they drive to a good performance even if the motivation is not at the highest level are different in their quality. The parameters \( \alpha \) measures the extent to which the output responds to changes in the motivation and abilities.
If we calculate the first order conditions for each factor A and M, we will get the optimum of motivation and abilities and it will reveal that the optimum is the case, when $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$. That is to say, when an individual has equal abilities and motivation s/he has less internal (self) obstacles to achieve the goals and produces at the highest level.

As in economic theory, here we assume that the production set is monotonic, meaning that the increase in the amount of motivation or abilities leads to production at least as much output as originally.

**Various Combinations of Motivation and Abilities**

*In the short run* motivation and abilities are relatively fixed at predetermined levels. However, *in the long run* an individual can develop some other abilities, gain more skills and competencies, as well as have shifts in his/her motivation. He can adjust the level of motivation and abilities to maximize his profits (production, outcomes, achievement of goals).

The economist’s distinction between the long run and the short run is this: in the short run there is at least one factor that is fixed: in our case it is the abilities both cognitive and physical. In the long run, all the factors can vary: both motivation and abilities.

Moreover, as in economic theory we may encounter with the diminishing, increasing and constant returns to scale, meaning that the relatively increase in abilities or motivation in one unit leads to changes of output on less than one, more than one and exactly one unit respectively. In the previous chapter we counted mathematically that the optimal level of motivation and abilities is the case when $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$. But what is the psychological intuition? What if one has more motivation than abilities? What if visa verse? It is said that achievement motives have an indirect or distal influence, and achievement goals are said to have a direct or proximal influence on achievement-relevant outcomes (Elliot & McGregor, 1999). So, let us examine in this context.

**One is more motivated than his/her abilities are**

As the abilities are less adaptable and less flexible than motivation, the ambitions to achieve some goals or produce more make one utilize one’s abilities more and more. And considering that the utilization of abilities has some value adding effect to itself, it brings big profits over time. But in the short run, the abilities reach to the maximum capacity they can support the motivation and ambitions and the individual faces a psychological situation of inferiority complex.

In the long run as the abilities get more flexibility there are two distinct tracks of development:

- the individual overcome the inferiority complex, develops his/her skills and competencies to support his/her motivation further, or
- the individual stays in the same psychological state, which goes deeper in destruction and leads to stress and depressions at worst.

In a research by Department for Business, Innovation and Skills (2013: 11) it is stated that “Almost one half of 18-24-year olds interviewed made reference to being motivated to learn in order to achieve career aspirations.” So in the long run both outcomes described above are equally probable to occur. “The desire to develop skills and knowledge and to gain experience was a particularly strong motivator for those ‘looking for learning opportunities’. Individuals wanting to gain
skills and experience were generally focused on the employment advantages that learning can provide, while those more concerned with developing their knowledge tended to acknowledge the wider benefits of learning” (ibid.:11).

**One is less motivated than his/her abilities are**

In case an individual has more abilities in the short run, than his/her motivation is, one encounters with the superiority complex and inefficient exploitation of resources. S/he has more capacity to produce but is less motivated to make it.

In the long run there are two scenarios of development:

- the individual may gain more motivation to make it relevant to the abilities and will achieve more outcomes,
- the individual may remain at the previous state and get into stagnation.

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THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL EDUCATION IN THE PROMOTION THE POLITICAL PARTICIPATION OF YOUNG GENERATION FROM MINORITY AND RURAL AREAS OF GEORGIA

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of the research is the analysis of the importance of the development and consolidation of democracy in Georgia by the promotion of the political participation of young people from rural and minority areas in Georgia in civil society through a special education program, which should be implemented in several schools of Georgia as a pilot project, thus, to create a precedent for the continuation of the study program at other Georgian schools in the future. In this regard, at the first stage of the study program, it is necessary to implement the educational program for 30 teachers and about 600 11th-grade pupils from 30 schools of Georgia with a special focus on border regions, rural areas and regions populated by national and religious minorities.

Key words: Schools, pupils, teachers, political participation, political representation.

INTRODUCTION

Taking into account the realities in the South Caucasus Region including Georgia after the period of the disintegration of USSR, it should be mentioned, that none of the countries in the South Caucasus region, neither Armenia, nor Azerbaijan, nor Georgia has experienced longer periods of stable democratic rule in their history. The forceful integration into the Soviet Totalitarian Empire in the early 1920s has negatively affected the beginnings of all democratic processes in the South Caucasian societies. In 1991, all three countries of South Caucasus declared independence and adopted democratic constitutions. Soon afterwards, all three states of the Region struggled with various transitional problems – especially related to the transition from a totalitarian system to a democracy and still have not been able to resolve all of those problems up to today.

Most severe for Georgia was the civil war (Abkhazia, South Ossetia) which broke out in the early 1990s. These wars in the two Regions of Georgia have torn apart the country and the region politically and have become protracted conflicts which last up to today. Peaceful conflict resolution is still not working as the war between Russia and Georgia in August 2008 has highlighted. Mutual allegations of war crimes and mass murder, as well as extremely negative stereotypes restrict the possibilities of governments and political parties for finding peaceful and stable conflict resolutions.

The socio-economic development and democracy promotion suffers not only from the protracted conflicts in the country, but also from shortcomings in the sectors of democracy, rule of law and human rights. Democratic political institutions as foreseen in the supreme law – the constitution of Georgia - are not yet fully operating according to Western Democratic standards. Political decisions in the framework of legislative or executive branches of power are normally taken with a
limited number of public debate and participation. Main subjects of political socialization like family, peer groups, mass media and schools still fail to transmit a proper understanding of democratic political procedures. Young people under 20 make up a little more than 25% of the population of Georgia. Their attitudes and capacities to be actors in the democratic life will determine the future of the development of democratic institutions in Georgia. Such types of difficulties are most considerable in the rural areas and in districts populated by national and religious minorities, due to language problems and the generally bad socio-economic situation (as in whole country) there. Especially, young people from rural and minority areas are barely participating in the political processes. But without political participation and political representation Georgia will not be able to be transferred to a stable and prospering democracy.

Main problems in education related to the presence of democratic culture

Taking into consideration the importance of democratic thinking of the young population of the country, it should be mentioned in general, that the transition from a totalitarian system to a democracy and a market economy has turned out to be an extremely difficult and painful process. The main reasons, which seriously hamper the development of democratic Institutions in Georgia and increasing the democratic thinking of the young population of the country, are the following issues:

- ABSENCE OF DEMOCRATIC TRADITIONS IN LOCAL POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC CULTURE AND WEAKNESS OF THE CIVIL ELEMENTS, INCLUDING THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE YOUNG GENERATION;
- THE PRESENCE OF ‘SOVIET MENTALITY’ AND SOVIET MANAGEMENT CULTURE AMONG THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE STATE AUTHORITIES.

In this regard the following issues are worth mentioning: one of the main reason of the existence of weak democratic institutions is the factor of lacking information among Georgian society regarding the knowledge by the citizens of Georgia of their own civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights. It is the concern especially for the young part of the population. In this regard it is necessary to point out the following issues:

- Lack of information about the main principles of Human Rights Protection and the models of Democracy – political participation in Georgian society, particularly among the Georgian Scientific circles, representatives of governmental agencies, school pupils, students, NGO’s from the different regions of Georgia, etc.

- Despite the fact that today in Georgia more than a thousand (public and private) schools are registered, there is almost no school where the discipline Human Rights or Democracy (including political participation issues) or other directly related to Human Rights protection subject is taught.

- There is lack of reference literature, for example books, about Human Rights Law and Models of Democracy, political participation, etc. in Georgian and the languages of ethnic minorities (Armenian, Azerbaijanian etc.) and, if we take into consideration the fact that today approximately in 90% of the Georgian schools the lessons are delivered in Georgian, it is almost impossible for Georgian pupils to study about human Rights and Democracy, principles of political participation in Georgian and languages of the national and religious minorities.

The main aspects of the pilot education project related to the improvement political participation and representation
The main purpose of the project is the development and the consolidation of democracy in Georgia by the promotion of the political participation of young people from rural and minority areas in Georgia in civil society and political activities. In this regard, it is necessary to implement by experts’ team the educational program for 30 teachers and about 600 11th grade pupils from 30 schools of Georgia with a special focus on border regions, rural areas and regions populated by national and religious minorities.

**IMPLEMENTATION PHASE**

**Development of the two types of curricula**

(1) 30 teachers from different regions of Georgia

(2) About 600 11th-grade pupils from 30 schools are the target groups in the action.

(a) Curriculum for an intensive qualification program for teachers on political education

This curriculum will be drafted by the members of the project team. It will cover the workshops and seminars on

- Simulation Exercise Methodology,
- General Methodology Qualification for Political Education,
- Political Participation and Political Representation.

(b) Curriculum for a simulation on peaceful balancing of group interests and political representation and participation for school-pupils of the 11th-grade

Among other steps should be mentioned:

- Development and Publication of a Handbook on political participation and representation together with the other topics related to democracy and human rights

For 30 teachers seminars will be conducted on each of the four following topics:

1) Methodology Seminar: The participating teachers shall be trained on additional modern methods of political education (e.g. group work, discussions, working with hand-outs, interest-based pupils’ projects).

2) The 1st Content-Oriented Seminar will focus on political participation.

3) The 2nd Content-oriented Seminar will focus on political representation.

4) Travel of the project participants to different regions of Georgia for the organizing simulation-exercises on political participation, representation and decision making in 30 schools for a total of 600 pupils

Prepared by their trained teachers, approximately 20 pupils of the 11th-grade-classes of each participating school will simulate the process of political participation, representation and decision-making. The simulations shall take place preferably outside the school (e.g. in the town-hall or other public buildings). The pupils, 2 teachers, and 2 - 3 members of the project staff will conduct the exercise together.

In case of the prolongation of the project, the simulation exercise will be repeated in the consequent years of the action with the 11th grade pupils from the same and most probably additional schools along the same pattern.
The topics discussed within the project:

During the seminars and working over the handbook, the following topics will be researched:

Political participation;

Political Representation;

Role of democracy for providing peace and security, socio-economic development, promoting the protection of the fundamental principles of human rights, etc. Historic overview of democracy development;

What should democracy mean today?

Models of democracy (classical democracy, protective democracy, development democracy);

Main International Conventions related to democracy and human rights;

Comparative analysis of the political systems of the democratic states (USA, Canada, Australia, Japan, EU Member States);

The role of democratic states and International Institutions (for example, NATO) in providing peace and security;

Main problems of democracy enlargement in the World;

Main achievements of the International community on the way of the democratization of the World;

Main perspectives of democracy enlargement;

Recommendations – including the political, legal, economic, security, information, educational aspects – which are important for democracy enlargement on the global level.

With regard to the issue, how will the results be determined/measured - it is necessary to point out that for the evaluation of the project implementation process results and the determination of the results of different events at the concrete stages of the fulfillment of the project, the Center is going to take the following steps:

At the end of the each stage of the project implementation process, to those people who are the participants of the appropriate training and study courses, special questionnaires will be distributed, with different questions regarding the quality of the study course, for example: qualification of the simulation exercises, different presentations and lectures, also questions related to the importance of the topics according to the training courses with the purpose of increasing the political participation, participants’ point of view and other questions. Together with these questions, schoolchildren and teachers will be asked to express their point of view on how to improve the study course in the future, which new topics should be included, etc. Each questionnaire will include 15 questions. The main topics will include questions connected with the quality level of the simulation exercises and lectures – including the lectures, which will be delivered by the project participants, communication skills of the speaker, relations between trainers and schoolchildren and teachers, level of tests.

Besides, at the last stage of the project, teachers and schoolchildren will be asked to express their point of view on how the education courses in Georgia have affected the level of education of the concrete student, how this course has increased interest to the topics and affected the increase of the political participation, etc. Most of the questions have to be evaluated by a 5-point scale.
CONCLUSION

In general, the main results of the project will be the introduction and consolidation of the liberty values in different regions of Georgia, especially in the rural and minorities areas. This factor will create a convenient basis for the promotion of the active involvement of the future generations from rural and minority areas in the different socio-economic and political processes in Georgia and integration of the representatives of national minorities in Georgian society. In this regard the following should be pointed out:

- At different schools in various regions of Georgia, for the first time the study course related to the political participation issues will be organized, and this factor will play the key role for the introduction to the curricula of an appropriate study course and in this way more school children will also have a possibility to get significant knowledge about political participation and civil and political rights protection issues.

- Publishing for the first time a special book on political participation and civil and political rights protection issues in Georgian will be used during the conducted classes within the project implementation and in the future. Furthermore, the distribution of the book at other schools of Georgia, especially in the regions, will promote starting the study courses on political participation issues at other schools of Georgia, which will not be involved in the project implementation process. Furthermore, this book will play a key role in using the materials on political participation and democracy issues by the representatives of different target groups, who will work over research papers and articles.

- School teachers from different regions of Georgia will receive appropriate skills and competences related to the political participation issues, which will play a positive role in delivering this knowledge to the future generations.
IS THERE A PYGMALION EFFECT IN LEARNING EFL?

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ABSTRACT

The paper defines the Pygmalion Effect as the belief that the positive expectation that the teacher has upon his/her students will increase their self-efficacy, which, in turn, raises their motivation and, eventually, performance. The views of authors who support the idea that a positive correlation between the teacher expectation and the student-learning outcome exists are compared to the opposite views. A conclusion is made that the positive correlation, although not too strong, does exist.

Keywords: Pygmalion effect, self-efficacy, motivation, academic performance

INTRODUCTION

The name Pygmalion originated from a Greek myth about Pygmalion, a prince of Cyprus, who was a sculptor. Once he carved an extremely beautiful sculpture of his imaginary perfect woman and fell in love with her. His love was so powerful that the sculpture subsequently came to life.

The “Pygmalion Effect,” known as the “Rosenthal Effect,” according to the name of the researcher who studied it (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968), is the result of belief that the positive regard which the teacher has upon his/her students can improve self-efficacy, which, in turn, improves performance. A related term is Self-Fulfilling Prophecy (SFP). A person’s (whether a teacher or a student) expectation can unknowingly become a self-fulfilling prophecy – if we expect ourselves to be successful, we more often are so than when we expect ourselves to fail (Natanovich & Eden, 2008). The Pygmalion Effect may develop a high or a low SFP in students, eventually having an impact on the success/failure of their learning.

The Pygmalion Effect in Educational Research

The early studies conducted by Rosenthal and his fellow scientist Lawson (Rosenthal & Lawson, 1964) concerned animals. They designed an experiment to check that performance results would be high, if scientist expectations were high and results would be low, if expectations were low. The ‘participants’ of the research were chosen at random laboratory rats. But the experimenters were incorrectly informed that one group of the rats were ‘bright’, whereas the other group of rats had a genetic inclination to be ordinary or even stupid. The rats were given certain tasks to fulfil. The ‘bright’ animals performed higher than their ‘ordinary’ counterparts. Rosenthal explained the results as follows: the experimenters spent more effort developing the ‘bright’ rats abilities and thus influenced their performance.

As results obtained with animals not necessarily is true for people, further Rosenthal and Jacobson’s (1968) research was conducted with college students, to see how teacher expectations how encouraged students’ learning. The children were at random chosen for both groups – the control and the experimental one. But the teachers were wrongly informed that
the IQs of the students in the control group were lower than the IQs of the students in the experimental groups. After an educational year (8 months) the children of the experimental group showed a greater intellectual development than the children in the control group. This shows that teacher expectation mostly brings good results: it increases students’ self-efficacy, which in turn, raises their motivation and, eventually, performance.

Rosental spent 40 years experimenting with the effect and hundreds of experiments yielded the same results – teacher expectations, mostly subconsciously, triggered teachers treat better and pay more attention to students viewed as (an, possibly really) more gifted than other students. Due to this students’ performance increased more than those students’ for whom teachers did not have any special expectations (Rosental, 1997). In the works that followed Rosental’s ideas the greatest effect has been shown on student motivation (Bakash, 1984; Cooper, 2000; Dusek & Joseph, 1983; Zabel & Zabel, 1996). Spitz (1999) determined that educator anticipation factor most likely does not influence student IQ, but might influence study accomplishment (Spitz, 1999).

Some scientists, including Jussim and Harber (2005) have criticized Rosental’s research, however, they could not completely deny his results. They mention that

- Self-fulfilling prophecies in the classroom do occur, but these effects are typically small, they do not accumulate greatly across perceivers or over time, and they may be more likely to dissipate than accumulate.
- Powerful self-fulfilling prophecies may selectively occur among students from stigmatized social groups.
- Whether self-fulfilling prophecies affect intelligence, and whether they in general do more harm than good, remains unclear
- Teacher expectations may predict student outcomes more because these expectations are accurate than because they are self-fulfilling. Implications for future research, the role of self-fulfilling prophecies in social problems, and perspectives emphasizing the power of erroneous beliefs to create social reality are discussed.

Thus, the issue of Pygmalion Effect still remains actual in education.

The Pygmalion Effect in English Language Teaching

English language teaching and learning due to the role of English as lingua franca in the contemporary world, has become the most important in the globalized world. Every country pays more attention to teaching and learning English for education, business, political issues and communication world-wide. Teachers try to find better models to teach English effectively to encourage students.

At the same time, English teaching faces a lot of difficulties, especially when we teach English as a foreign language (EFL), with no relevant environment to apply and practice it in everyday life. Students encounter not only linguistic difficulties (especially, when students’ native language does not belong to Indo-European family of languages), but also psychological ones (lack of self-confidence and motivation, some cultural prejudices, etc.). The importance of overcoming psychological barriers of shyness, low self-confidence, fear of mistakes, language and test anxiety, in foreign language learning is especially important, compared to other school or university subjects/courses.

Therefore, EFL teachers need to be aware of student self-efficacy and of how to provide motivation in EFL classes. Pygmalion effect will work in EFL class, it will raise students’ motivation in English learning, so, eventually, students’ performance will
become autonomous, when they have self-efficacy. In that case Pygmalion Effect goes hand in hand with education very well.

Most studies on Pygmalion Effect in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) have shown that teacher’s expectation has a big role in EFL context (Andres, 2002; Brown, 1980; Wang & Lin, 2014). Teacher’s expectation affects student’s effort to work hard and, what is especially important, to be involved in foreign language communication, this, eventually, yields good results of study are obtained. A language teacher who believes that his/her student are good at learning the target language, like the ancient sculptor Pygmalion, enlivens his/her students and has them involved in the classroom activities (Wang, 2014). As Brown (1980: 105) has remarked, “perhaps good teachers succeed because they give optimal attention to linguistic goals and to the personhood of their students.”

Learning a foreign language greatly depends on the learning environment. Schultz & Schults (2005:4) defined, “behavior is determined through the interaction of behavioral, cognitive, and environmental or situational variables”. An unfriendly environment can cause anxiety, distract student’s attention and block his ability to learn. English language teacher impact both students’ linguistic competence and motivation. Brophy (1985) defined that teacher’s positive or negative expectation will develop students’ positive or negative self-fulfilling prophecies that will have an impact on student motivation and, via it, on learning outcomes. That expectation, often against students, will open different opportunities to students.

4. Positive expectations and students’ achievement

Teacher expectation can have a positive or a negative effect on student behavior regarding their and academic achievement. If a teacher’s expectations area unit high, productivity is probably going to be wonderful. If his/her expectations are low, productivity is probably going to be poor. The way people treat their subordinates in business is subconsciously affected by what they expect of them (Livingston, 1969). Analogously, if a teacher decides to put the students for remedial class with low expectations, the student can have grave problems with their education (Broussard and Joseph, 1998; Moller, Stearns, Blau, & Land, 2006).

Teachers, therefore, need to control their expectancies and to do their best to believe in the ability of all students to learn the subject. According to Althof & Berkowitz (2006), a young person’s character formation depends on the positive regard by the parents and teachers. Therefore, Pygmalion Effect can help solve students’ psychological troubles, fight anxiety and increase their self-esteem. It can also make students more communicable and open to communicative activities in an EFL class.

As Bandura (2004: 622) explains self-efficacy, it is “rooted in the core belief that one has the power to effect changes by one’s actions.” At same time, students’ self-efficacy increase improves their language learning strategies. When they have sufficient motivation, they struggle linguistic and psychological problems as well.

Teaches, especially foreign language teachers, need to understand that their good relationships with students are important to the outcomes of their work. Rosenthal and Jacobson advised that a good relationship with students’ influences the development of students’ mental abilities (Rosenthal, 1987).

5. Factors affected by teachers’ expectations
According to Bruner (1996), people can feel and understand what other people think of them. As his research clearly depicts, teacher [person] expectations are understood / felt by students. Resilient students may not be affected by teacher’s negative view, but other students are most probably going to lose their motivation to learn. As for teacher’s positive regard, it mostly has a positive effect on student’s self-efficacy and, correspondingly on his/her desire to continue study (some students’ however, may be spoilt by it and become lazy).

According to Mros (1990), if students did not understand what the teacher expectations are, a student’s performance will not be effective in the classroom. This means that everybody can get power from each other’s thinking. People’s (students’) personal image depends very much on other people’s opinion of them, especially, of such important people in children’s lives as teachers. The teacher needs to show his/her positive expectations, whether the student’s performance at the moment is good or bad, in order to stimulate the student to not give up. The positive expectations may be shown by the teacher in a verbal or non-verbal way. If the verbal comments are more often perceived by the student consciously, the non-verbal signals (teacher’s smiling or grim face, gestures and body positions expressing pleasure or displeasure) are perceived by the student subconsciously. The subconscious signals have an even stronger effect, so teachers have to be aware of it and control their mimics, gestures and body position, not only their speech (Cassidy et al., 2003).

Some researcher have determined that certain variables dealing with self-fulfilling prophecies are more affecting students: while teacher demonstrates a strong belief in his/her students, students’ behavior and academic performance are especially effected (Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Elliot et al., 2000; Motlagh et al., 2011; Zabel & Zabel, 1996).

A part of the Pygmalion effect is reflected in the friendship between Teacher and Students. It is expressed in always willing to help, eye contact, trying to softly push the indecisive students. As a result students are happy to enjoy their time in school, try to attend classes, to improve their knowledge and to get more beneficial remarks from teacher (Covington, 1998).

Pinder (1998) study examines how people spend energy in connection to study. Inner high expectations stimulate people to make an effort for success. But also other people can affect people’s performance by high energy of the expectation. This gives them energy to focus on their work.

**CONCLUSION**

Researchers have found that belief and trust in one’s own abilities to get success are very important to reach success (Bandura & Locke, 2003). This belief increases if one sees teacher’s belief in his/her capability to learn, to fulfill the given tasks; it has an impact not only on the process and outcomes of learning, but also on life-long careers. If teacher expectations can turn into students’ self-fulfilling prophecies, even if that impact is not too high, it definitely has to be known by teachers and taken into consideration by them. As shown in the paper, teaching and learning EFL is especially dependent of psychological factors, as in this subject students need not only to acquire knowledge, but also to communicate, so for EFL teachers it is essential to provide a positive Pygmalion effect, to contribute to students’ success in learning the language as well as in their future careers.

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THE FORMATION OF PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCE OF STUDENTS IN THE PROCESS OF PROFESSIONALLY-ORIENTED TRAINING IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN A TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

The paper reveals the problem of development and formation of students' professional capacity. Professional competence is an integrated characteristic of a graduate who is capable and ready to implement professional activity and interact in the professional environment and polycultural community on the basis of a valuable relation to the profession. The development of professional competence takes place in the study of academic disciplines (basic and optional). In the process of studying the discipline "Foreign language" (basic unit) the formation of foreign language communicative competence continues, including language, speech, compensatory, social, cultural, and educational-cognitive competences. In this context the vocation-oriented approach learning a foreign language at a technological institute of higher education is the urgent problem. It forms the students' ability to speak foreign languages in the particular fields and situations of business and science taking into account the professional thinking peculiarities. The parameters of personal development today are not just knowledge, skills, and competence. The analysis of numerous works of Zimnyaya (2006) and Bagateeva et al. (2012) allows to claim that competence as an integral characteristic of personality determines the person's ability to solve the typical problems arising in real-life situations, using knowledge, training and life experience, values and inclinations. For the successful implementation of English communication in the technical field professionals need to improve their skills and abilities especially in understanding, speaking and writing (Zimnyaya, 2006). Foreign language skills are implemented successfully in the composition of communicative competence only if they are consistent with professional skills, specific qualifications of such specialists.

Key words: Vocation-oriented approach, professional capacity, students' motivational readiness, humanization of higher technical education, value - oriented motivation.

INTRODUCTION

One of the urgent needs of the twenty first century is the need in highly qualified technical specialists with knowledge of foreign language, the readiness to implement professional cross-cultural communication.

A modern expert has to be able not only to communicate with foreign partners, but also to use international, professional and cultural experience in the work. According to researches of Bagateeva (2012), the most "required" abilities in the modern world is the ability to creative development and self-development, the ability to make creative decisions in the process of a dialogue, and this is possible only at a sufficiently high level of linguistic competence.
Today foreign language skills are necessary for each person for the effective solution of communicative tasks and in situations of personal contact and in communication situations in the educational environment.

The Formation of Professional Competence of Students.

Knowledge of a foreign language has become a universal remedy of productive professional life, also the requirements to the level of language competence of a future expert have sharply increased. Therefore, training in a foreign language at a technical college is becoming more and more significant, as it has become a part of development and formation of professional competence by students. Zimnyaya (2006) defines that the high level of professional competence of an expert is reached by through professional abilities acquired during training in a higher education institution.

According to the practice of teaching a foreign language in technical colleges, I can claim that the level of proficiency in oral foreign-language professional communication by future experts in the field of professional communication is inappropriate, it does not provide the readiness of students for active interaction with the professional foreign-language environment. Graduates can read literature in the specialty, reproduce the learned topics, but it is difficult for them to express their views freely in a foreign language, to participate in foreign-language professional communication.

The results of observations, interviews, and questionnaires indicate that the main problems which students face are: the inability to implement adequately the communicative-functional vocabulary, to choose the appropriate communicative task, the type of communication and accordingly to produce a statement.

From a position of the professional-focused approach to learning of a foreign language in the conditions of a non-linguistic higher education institution it is possible to claim that the main function of studying of the target language in the higher education institution is the acquisition by students of professional competence, component of which is foreign-language communicative competence. Obraztsov and Ivanova (2005) consider that the professionally-focused training is understood as the training based on the students’ needs for learning a foreign language, dictated by the features of the future profession or specialty.

It implies the combination of mastering professionally-oriented foreign language with the development of personal qualities of students, knowledge of the culture of the country of the target language and the acquisition of special skills based on professional and linguistic knowledge.

According to Fedotkina (2007), professionally-oriented teaching of a foreign language at a non-linguistic University includes components, such as learning a foreign language as a means of mastering a specialty and as a means of professional communication.

The requirement of time is also an active possession by an expert of not only written, but also professionally-focused oral speech and the ability to communicate in a foreign language. However, using only traditional methods of teaching (information goes from the teacher to the learners); the objective of active acquisition of a foreign language cannot be reached. Without active learning, without the involvement of the trainees in communication, without relations of equal partnership full-fledged development of man as the subject, the member of the community and professional cannot occur.

Methods of teaching specialists offer an approach which allows to receive good results in teaching a foreign language. This approach is connected with:
1) a solution of the problem of interrelated training in types of speech activity;
2) an ability to organize speech interaction according to the communicative intention;
3) practical possession of a set of social and situational roles;
4) with the development of speech ability to realize intelligent content-focused and not form-focused communication.

The realization of such an approach significantly promotes the formation of communicative abilities in listening and speaking, which provides a high level of formation of skills of oral communication in a foreign language. The forming of the professional skills and abilities of a future expert is linked with the foreign-language speech activity (FLSA) and the content of his training is based on the model in which spheres and situations of the use of the foreign language are defined in process of professional activity of the expert. Training in foreign languages will promote a value-oriented attitude of students, develop intellectual, emotional and the activity sphere of the personality only in case of its organization with use of the foreign-language texts and special tasks and exercises meeting certain requirements. The topics of texts have to reflect students' interests, contain both humanitarian and professional information. They should have students acquainted with representatives of their future profession, with local history and environmental problems, to activate students' knowledge of history and culture, to develop their creativity. The system of exercises aimed at the development of communicative skills has to cause an emotional response, aspiration to the analysis, an assessment of moral essence of acts and actions of people, to learn to interpret one's own actions from the point of view of the accepted in the society moral standards, to teach to understand the deep meaning of the text, situations, etc. In this case teaching foreign languages will allow to increase also the level of humanitarian culture of students of technical specialties. The major condition mediating the effective use of the process of teaching foreign languages as a means of humanization of the higher technical education is the motivational readiness of students for the perception of humanitarian maintenance of training materials in a foreign language directed on the formation of humanitarian culture.

The implementation of motivational readiness of students to the perception of the content of texts in a foreign language is determined by a complex of the external and internal conditions, the most significant of which are:

- a psychologically favorable climate for practicing a foreign language;
- the humanistic orientation of the pedagogical process;
- the student-centered approach;
- activization and stimulation of the process of self-actualization.

Kushnirenko (1998) mentions that the professionally-focused teaching a foreign language demands to create special educational complexes, including the professionally-focused textbooks and manuals, audio-video materials, Internet materials, computer programs and multimedia. Modern pedagogical approaches, such as cooperative learning, project work, use of new information technologies and Internet resources help to realize an individual approach in teaching, to provide the differentiation of training, taking into account students' abilities and inclinations. The most various interactive training computer programs on studying of English are aimed at independent study of phonetic and grammatical aspects that make the relevant skills truly automatic. The features of these programs are interactive dialogues, systems of recognition of the speech and visualization of pronunciation, animated films showing an articulation of sounds, exercises for the development of all types of speech skills, video fragments with the translation subtitles, individual settings of work, and also tracking of one's own results of training.
The rapid penetration of information technologies into educational process forces to rethink the role and the place of teacher while training students. The task of the teacher consists in creating conditions of practical language acquisition for each student, in choosing such methods of teaching which would allow each student to show the activity, the creativity. The task of the teacher is to stir up the cognitive activity of the student in the course of learning a foreign languages. Any special lexical topic addressed at practical classes can be developed into a self-report (often in the form of the presentation).

Son (2009) considers that an active language practice on-line has a positive effect on the formation of students’ linguistic and general competences while studying a foreign language, it increases learners’ motivation, contributes to a more fruitful and interesting organization of the cognitive process while learning foreign languages.

The process of practicing professionally-focused communication with the purpose of development and formation of professional competence will be more effective, as E.A. Shaturnaya (2014) considers, if the following conditions are observed:

- if we build this process on the basis of personal and active approach;
- if the selection of content of training in the professionally-focused foreign-language communication is carried out on a situational and thematic basis;
- if training is carried out on the basis of specially developed techniques assuming the use of a set of exercises and the methods aimed at the development and formation of professional competence of students of technical colleges while teaching the professionally-focused foreign-language communication to students.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The level of proficiency of students in a foreign language within the professionally-focused training should be defined, based on the following criteria:

- knowledge of professional language (grammatical peculiarities; terminology);
- readiness for verbal professional interaction (possession of all types of speech activity on the basis of the professionally-focused vocabulary; ability to realize the needs of foreign-language professional communication with the help of various language means);
- readiness for creative professional activity (motivation, informative and creative activity of students).

According to Vasilyeva (2009), the development of students’ language competence has to be based on the need of involvement of each student in active informative process at all levels of mastering all types of speech activity.

Thus, professionally-oriented teaching of foreign language in technical universities requires a new approach to the selection of content. It needs to be focused on recent advances in a particular sphere of human activity, in a timely manner to reflect scientific advances in the areas directly touching the professional interests of students, to provide them with the opportunity for professional growth. The selection of contents of training in a foreign language is urged to promote the versatile and complete formation of the identity of the student, to prepare him/her to the future professional activity.

The process of formation of foreign-language communicative competence as an element of students’ professional competence at higher technical schools will be efficient in the following pedagogical conditions:
- the continuity of foreign language teaching in higher education institutions, taking into account the multilevel structure of vocational training in higher education (bachelor-specialist-master);
- professional and practical orientation of teaching a foreign language in technical high schools within the framework of cognitive, activity and emotional-axiological components of professional training of students;
- a combination of competence (target component), communicative (methodological component) and person-oriented (emotional and value component) approaches to the organization of the process of foreign language training of students of technical universities;
- ensuring harmonization of the academic discipline “Foreign Language” with major academic disciplines and professional training;
- the use of the courses on foreign language, individual, pair and group organization of learning, interactive teaching methods, adequate active components of content of foreign language teaching and emotional-value-based attitude to the profession.

REFERENCES


TEACHING AND ASSESSING ORAL PRODUCTION

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ABSTRACT

There are many different assessment methods used in Higher Education. When deciding which assessment method to use, both the learning outcomes and the learning activities need to be considered so that appropriate assessment methods are used. There are a lot of arguments whether to give oral examination to students or not, as it is difficult to design and difficult to follow the principles such as validity, reliability, simplicity and fairness and objectiveness. On the other hand, oral assessment is very time-consuming. Teacher should incorporate oral assessment into practice of teaching during class. In other words, teacher should teach students how to think out loud.

There are different ways of checking students’ speaking abilities, like reading aloud, an interview, picture-based discussion, text-based, discussion, listening-based discussion or giving a controversial question to students to discuss in pairs. Whatever type you use, there is one crucial thing to remember - evaluation needs to follow the rubrics you align beforehand. The paper will give an idea of the range of possible ways to help students improve their speaking abilities and it will deal with effective ways which rubric to use and how to make the oral assessment as objective as possible.

Key words: Oral examination, Objective, Rubric, Assessment.

INTRODUCTION

Teaching and testing the ability to speak is one of the most important aspects of language teaching and testing. The long-lasting questions whether what is more important, accuracy or fluency while teaching and testing speaking skills, remain largely unanswered. Very often people can produce practically all the sounds correctly and make very few grammar mistakes, but are still unable to communicate. On the other hand, people can make lots of errors in both phonology and grammar and yet succeed in expressing themselves fairly clearly. As we can see, there are different factors that should be considered while assessing oral production, but before, there is one crucial thing to remember - we need to teach them before we test.

DISCUSSION

Nowadays a modern approach to teaching, in other words communicative language teaching (CLT) enables most students to practice speaking at the lessons, but the question is: while testing oral production, shall we ask the students pre-prepared material, or spontaneously chosen one. This is a controversial question, as there is no straightforward answer to the question. It means that, if we ask students what they have already discussed at the lessons, how can we measure their speaking ability? On the other hand, when we ask them to speak about the things they have not prepared, they keep complaining that they studied so many phrases and words in vain. Thus, assessing speaking is supposed to be prepared long before it occurs.
It is also very important to let one’s students know about the criteria set in the rubrics. First, rubrics inform students of teacher’s expectations in their oral production assessments in the form of the criteria lengthily embedded in them. Through the performance descriptors indicated at each level of the rubric, students gain an understanding of the learning targets of the oral production assessment. Rubrics are also said to allow students to reflect on their oral production performances. This reflection comes in a form of asking students to identify what they have missed and/or failed to meet in the expectations set by the rubric. They would start thinking about their performances - what they did right and what they should work on for the next assessment.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Speaking is probably the most difficult skill to test. It is difficult to design a test format as it involves a combination of different skills that do not seem to have any correlation with each other, like phonology and grammar. To go back to CLT lessons, we can surely say that productive skills are to be largely employed at every language lesson. That will enable us to design a test where teachers could easily demand students to produce their own language. Instead of the traditional question “Do you know it?” the students will be expected to answer the questions: “How well can you use what you know?” That could be done either through describing a photo or through a discussion of a question or through expressing his/her own feelings, etc. That means that at the exam you can easily ask students to perform any of the above-mentioned tasks.

Among numerous presentation techniques that can be used at CLT lessons I would like to describe my favourite ones. They are reaction to the text, role-play and one-minute speaking task. Apart from being effective, these activities will enable students to get ready for the oral exam without any extra efforts.

While practicing reaction to the text, the teacher can ask the students to start reading the text aloud. The same task could be given at the exam. While reading aloud, different skills are assessed: pronunciation, connected speech and fluency. Subsequently, after reading a text students will start to express their own feelings towards the text, employing both fluency and accuracy. For example, let us take a short passage from Kate Chopin’s famous story “The Story of an Hour”: “Her fancy was running riot along those days ahead of her. Spring days, and summer days, and all sorts of days that would be her own. She breathed a quick prayer that life might be long. It was only yesterday she had thought with a shudder that life might be long. She arose at length and opened the door to her sister’s importunities. There was a feverish triumph in her eyes, and she carried herself unwittingly like a goddess of Victory. She clasped her sister’s waist, and together they descended the stairs. Richards stood waiting for them at the bottom. Someone was opening the front door with a latchkey. It was Brently Mallard who entered, a little travelstained, composedly carrying his grip-sack and umbrella. He had been far from the scene of the accident, and did not even know there had been one. He stood amazed at Josephine’s piercing cry; at Richards’ quick motion to screen him from the view of his wife. When the doctors came they said she had died of heart disease—of the joy that kills”.

After reading the passage, the teacher can ask the students to discuss the story and express their own feelings towards the main character of the story. If the teacher employs that practice at the lesson, s/he can easily use the same technique at the exam for the assessment of oral production.

Another technique I often use at the lessons is role-play. Students could be asked to assume a role in a particular situation. This allows the ready elicitation of communicative language functions. For example: You want your mother (played by the
examiner or another student) to increase your pocket money. She is not happy with the idea. Try to make her change her mind.

The activity will allow students to use different functions by making the decisions quickly and implementing them smoothly (Douglas, 1997). When the students are trained to do so you can happily use the technique at the exam to test their oral production.

And, finally, free activities that come last in the lesson. Here the students have complete freedom in the language they produce. The teacher cannot predict what will be said before the activity begins. The students have the greatest opportunity to personalize the language, experiment, and incorporate the previously learned vocabulary, grammar, and other points. What I do is I write different topics on a piece of paper, roll them up and put them into a box, asking students to pick any. They have 20 seconds to think about the topic and then start talking about it one minute non-stop. The topics can vary from favourite seasons to global warming. Consequently, while assessing oral production, a teacher can use the above-mentioned technique and test students’ pronunciation, vocabulary, accuracy and fluency simultaneously.

It is fairly difficult to design a test for oral production, but, from my point of view, its assessment is the most difficult part of the process.

FINDINGS AND RESULTS

I conducted a small experiment with my intermediate level students and the results were very good. Nine out of sixteen students got the maximum score. They were the ones who were also very active at the lessons. The experiment proved the advantages of Communicative Language Teaching emphasizing the importance of practicing speaking at the lessons. But the most difficult part of testing oral production is to design objective and fair rubrics. In other words, you need to identify the standards first, then select the tasks, identify the criteria for the tasks and create the rubrics. Thus, before setting the exam, the teacher needs to ask him/herself some basic questions:

- **Did I test what I taught?**
  
  For example, the questions may have tested the students' understanding of surface features or procedures, while the teacher had been lecturing on causation or relation – not so much what the names of the bones of the foot are, but how they work together when we walk.

- **Did I test for what I emphasized in class?**
  
  The teacher needs to make sure that s/he asked most of the questions about the material s/he feels is the most important, especially if s/he has emphasized it in class. The teacher should avoid questions on obscure material that are weighted the same as questions on crucial material.

- **Is the material I tested for really what I wanted students to learn?**
  
  For example, if you wanted students to use analytical skills such as the ability to recognize patterns or draw inferences, but only used true-false questions requiring non-inferential recall, you might try writing more complex true-false or multiple choice questions.
These questions will help a teacher design a valid, fair and objective tests. Most teachers are familiar with the concept of *grading with a rubric* - a matrix with different criteria and a grading scale. There are the following aspects to be included - pronunciation, vocabulary, accuracy, interaction and communication. After noting your students’ pronunciation levels, move to vocabulary. *Vocabulary comprehension and vocabulary production* are always two separate banks of words in the mind of a speaker (Andrade, 2000). A student may struggle with grammar and pronunciation, but how creative is she while communicating in the language s/he knows? Assessing students’ communication means looking at their creative use of the language they do know to make their points understood. The more creative they can be with language and the more unique ways they can express themselves, the better their overall communication skills will be. Being able to say what you mean in a foreign language is one thing, being able to interact with others is another. The above-mentioned role-play and discussions will help the students master the skill and become a better speaker. And again, *these criteria - pronunciation, vocabulary, accuracy, communication, interaction and fluency* - are all markers of a student’s overall speaking abilities.

Here is a sample rubric that could be used for testing oral production. The rubric has been designed to test the task “Reaction to the Text”. We need to remember that every task set at the oral exam needs to have a separate rubric. The following rubric is a modified sample from the internet resource Text-based discussion rubric (n.d.).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text Use</th>
<th>3 Points</th>
<th>2 Points</th>
<th>1 Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>● Student exhibits thorough familiarity with text and draws several inferences</td>
<td>● Student exhibits familiarity with text, including an inference.</td>
<td>● Student exhibits limited familiarity with text, including limited inferences</td>
<td>● Student exhibits no familiarity with text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>● Student accurately and frequently refers to specific parts of text to:</td>
<td>● Student accurately refers to text to:</td>
<td>● Student seldom or inaccurately refers to text</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- locate answers to questions</td>
<td>- locate answers to questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- restate ideas</td>
<td>- restate ideas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- identify evidence to support, justify, and validate his/her position or claim</td>
<td>- identify evidence to support, justify, and validate his/her position or claim</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
And finally, I would like to include some tips for the students from British Council speaking exams:

- Listening to as much English as possible will help to improve your speaking. Listening to songs, podcasts, films, TV series or video clips will help you to feel more confident about speaking.
- Speak as much English in class as possible. If you speak English regularly in class, you will find it easier to speak in an exam.
- Use language you know is correct. Use words and expressions you have used before.
- If you don’t know a word, think of another way to say it. For example, if you know the word ‘expensive’, but can’t remember the word ‘cheap’, you could say:
- It's not expensive.  
  It's a good price.  
  It's not a lot of money.
- Listen to yourself while you speak and if you hear a mistake, correct it. Native speakers make mistakes and correct them all the time.
- Look at the examiner’s or other student’s face and eyes when you speak. Do they understand you? If not, say it again with different words.
- If you don’t understand the question or the activity, ask the examiner. Say: ‘Could you repeat that, please?’
- Always say something. Don’t just say ‘yes’ or ‘no’. Explain your answer with a reason. Say ‘Yes, I agree because....’
- If you can choose the question or topic, choose one you know something about. It’s easier to talk about something you know.
- Speak clearly so that the examiner can hear you. If you find this difficult, practise with a friend at home. Stand at opposite ends of a room and speak to each other in English. Or speak to each other in English on your computers.
- What can you prepare before the exam? Ask your teacher. For example, questions about personal information. Prepare what to say at home and practise with a friend, in front of a mirror or record yourself on your phone or computer.
- In some exams, there are two examiners. One who talks to you and one who listens. Say hello and goodbye to both examiners, but during the exam, focus on the examiner who talks to you.
- This is your opportunity to show the examiner what you know. Use your best language and pronunciation.
- Remember that everyone feels nervous in exams. So, take some deep breaths before the exam and try to relax.
- Finally, remember that the examiners are normal human beings, not aliens! (British Council, n.d.).

CONCLUSION

Thus, this implies that oral production assessments are needed for both teachers and students. It helps teachers create a valid, reliable and fair assessment test and helps the students to really take advantage of the rubric they use/create by helping them improve their oral production performance. Consistent and iterative use of a particular rubric steadily increases students’ awareness of their strengths and weaknesses. Lastly, the paper tends to prove an important role of testing students in what they have been taught and encourages students to practice speaking as much as possible. Through this, teachers can think of ways to teach speaking and match the learning process with the testing tasks. Simultaneously, students can devise ways on how they can improve their oral production performances.

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ONLINE ENVIRONMENT IN THE MODERN SOCIETY AND THE IMPORTANCE OF INTERNET SYMBOLS IN VERBAL/NON-VOCAL INTERNET COMMUNICATION

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ABSTRACT

Communication is an integral component of society. It is changed and improved continuously, depending on the growth of society and technological development. Finally, in the current century most of communication process is done through the Internet. The huge amount of facilities for communication (like Facebook, Twitter, etc.), the fastest way of sending and receiving the information was the reason that internet conquered the whole world. It is evident that there are inherent differences between traditional and online environments, so the way of communication is not same. It is quite clear that face-to-face, both verbal and non-verbal communication, is the best way of showing emotions of the speaker expressed with tone and intonation, facial expression and gestures. But it does not mean that the use of internet-based lingo is not an effective way of expressing one’s feelings and emotions. In the paper we tried to show that effective computer-mediated communication, in which messages are constructed using lexicon, semantics and syntax, can greatly affect the creation of impression or the expression of feelings. Besides words, internet communication is rich in special internet symbols (smileys) which are also very effective for expressing one’s feelings and emotions.

Key words: Communication, verbal / non-verbal communication, vocal / non-vocal communication, internet, internet symbols.

Communication has always been an important need of all societies. As an integral component of society, it is changing and improving continuously, depending on the growth of society and technological development. Since the time of our cave-dweller ancestors, people have been communicating in different ways. They drew pictures on cave walls, were using drumbeat and smoke. At wars, soldiers used doves to communicate top secrets. Letters, the telegraph and telephone were the next step in communication. Finally, in the current century most of communication process is done through the Internet. The huge amount of facilities for communication (like Facebook, Twitter, etc.), the fastest way of sending and receiving information was the reason that internet conquered the whole world. It is evident that there are inherent differences between traditional and online environments, so the way of communication is not the same.
Defining communication is not an easy task. There are several definitions of it. According to Richards et al (1992:98), communication is the exchange of ideas, information, etc. between two or more people. In an act of communication there is usually at least one speaker or sender, a message which is transmitted, and a person or people for whom this message is intended - the receiver(s). There are three major types of communication: Verbal or dialog, Non-verbal, and visual. Dialog or verbal communication is a conversation between two or more entities in which they use their speech organs to convey a message. It has two sub-categories: Interpersonal and public speaking. Non-verbal communication is the process of communicating through sending and receiving wordless messages. Visual communication, as the name suggests, is communication through visual aids.

The Tubbs Communication Model includes Communicator 1 (the sender/receiver) and Communicator 2 (the receiver/sender) (Tubbs & Moss, 2006). Tubbs and Moss (2006) describe both Communicator 1 and Communicator 2 as sources of communication, since each originates and receives messages simultaneously. These messages are transmitted verbally and/or non-verbally. Tubbs and Moss (2006: 12-14) provide the following definitions for types of messages:

- **Verbal** - any type of spoken communication that uses one or more words;
- **Intentional verbal** - conscious attempts people make to communicate with others through speech;
- **Unintentional verbal** - the things people say without meaning to;
- **Non-verbal** - all of the messages people transmit without words or over and above the words used;
- **Intentional non-verbal messages** - the non-verbal messages we want to transmit; and
- **Unintentional non-verbal messages** - all those non-verbal aspects of people’s behavior transmitted without their control.

These definitions are same for both – traditional, face-to-face and online communication, but in face-to-face communication, the communication channels include sensory organs for receiving stimuli. In other words, in face-to-face communication we intend to use both verbal and non-verbal communication simultaneously. It means that we can show and express our emotions completely with tone and intonation, facial expression and gestures.

In face-to-face communication, verbal and non-verbal communication affects communication transaction, interpretation, and meaning. Therefore, it is important to distinguish verbal from non-verbal and vocal from non-vocal (Stewart & D’Angelo, 1980, as cited in Tubbs & Moss, 2006). Verbal communication, as previously stated, is “any type of spoken communication that uses one or more words” while “nonverbal communication is all of the messages we transmit without words or over and above the words we use” (Tubbs & Moss, 2006: 12-13). Therefore, according to Tubbs and Moss, verbal / vocal communication refers to communication through the spoken word while verbal / non-vocal communication refers to the use of words, but without speaking.

Non-verbal / vocal communication, also referred to as paralinguistics, consists of vocalizations without words (e.g., inflection, pitch, tone, etc.) as well as “noises without linguistic structure, such as, crying, laughing, grunting” (Trager, 1958, as cited in Tubbs & Moss, 2006: p. 136). Non-verbal /non-vocal communication includes visual, spatial, and temporal cues. Visual cues include kinesics (posture, facial expressions, body gestures), oculesics (eye behavior), haptics (use of touch to communicate), appearance (clothing, hairstyle, body shape, artifacts, choice of color, etc.), and use of objects.
What is effective communication? Tubbs and Moss (2006:24) state that “communication is effective when the stimulus as initiated and intended by the sender, or source, corresponds closely to the stimulus as it is perceived and responded to by the receiver”. In online environment, effective communication is particularly important.

Computer-mediated communication (CMC) provides extensive communication channels in an online environment for interaction through written communication, including e-mail, IM (instant messaging), text messaging, bulletin boards, chat rooms, discussion boards, listservs, social networking, virtual worlds, blogging, etc. The growing domestication of e-mail, IM, text messaging, blogging, and Facebook – and the rash of other forms of online communication platforms – have altered our communication landscape.

E-mail has become one of the most commonly used formats in computer-mediated communication. However, communicating effectively by e-mail does not mean just “type and send.” In the article Egocentrism Over E-mail: Can We Communicate as Well as We Think? Kruger et al. (2005:1) investigates the difficulty of conveying emotion and tone via e-mail without the “benefit of paralinguistic cues”. They conducted five studies to examine overconfidence over e-mail by comparing the perceived and actual ability of participants to communicate via e-mail. The results of the five studies indicated that participants, who sent e-mails, overestimated their ability to communicate by e-mail and that participants, who received e-mails, overestimated their ability to interpret e-mail. Furthermore, participants, who sent e-mails, predicted about 78% of the times their partners would correctly interpret the tone. However, the data revealed that only 56% of the times the receiver correctly interpreted the tone. In our opinion, however, to interpret correctly the tone depends on the words and the structure of the sentence used by the person who sends the e-mail, i.e., interpretation / misinterpretation is based on lexicon (words of a language), semantics (meaning of words), and syntax (how words and symbols are put together). Just as the pitch and volume of one’s voice carries the attitude and tone at parties and meetings, the choice of words and the way speakers / writers put their sentences together convey a sense of attitude and tone in their utterances.

When we want to create an impression, express feelings, or convey variations in tone or volume, we use capital and lowercase letters differently, typing exclamation marks, and other punctuation signs and emoticons (called smileys) along with our verbal message. It is remarkable, that these emoticons (smileys) are universal symbols, used by every nation, in spite of their language.

```
e.g.: Black eye
#:o Shocked
%- Confused
%- Dazed or silly
%- Ironic
\(): ** Hugs and kisses
\(\): &gt; Angry
\(\): Kiss
\(\): Very sad
\(\): Tongue in cheek
Laughter
\(\): Loudmouth, talks all the time; or shouting
\(\): Returning kiss
\(\): Crying
\(\): Smiling of happiness or sarcasm
\(\): Very unhappy
\(\):D Laughing

(List of emoticons on Facebook, n.d.),
```
Besides this, there are special words and/or phrases, the so-called "internet slang" which is widely used in internet communication. The use of internet-based lingo (lingo refers to any medium of texting communication taking place via computers, including IM programs, e-mail, Facebook, etc.) is very popular, especially among younger age groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gf</td>
<td>girlfriend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bf</td>
<td>boyfriend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>idk</td>
<td>I don't know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;3</td>
<td>(said as &quot;heart&quot; or &quot;less than three&quot;; indicates love)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>btw</td>
<td>by the way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>curt</td>
<td>(see you next Tuesday)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ttyl</td>
<td>talk to you later</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w/e</td>
<td>whatever</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rofl</td>
<td>said as &quot;rofl&quot;: indicates rolling on the floor laughing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how r u</td>
<td>(how are you)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFAICS</td>
<td>(as far as I can see)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFAICT</td>
<td>(as far as I can tell)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFAIK</td>
<td>(as far as I know)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td>before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4N</td>
<td>(bye for now)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BB</td>
<td>(bye bye)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H8</td>
<td>(hate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HBD</td>
<td>(Happy Birthday)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HF</td>
<td>(have fun)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMHO</td>
<td>(in my humble opinion, or in my honest opinion)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMHE</td>
<td>(in my humble experience)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INMP</td>
<td>(it's not my problem)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POV</td>
<td>(point of view)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Internet Slang – Internet Dictionary, n.d.)

As we see verbal/non-vocal internet communication is a new but very popular and effective way of communication in the age of technology of the 21st century. It is quite clear that face to face, both verbal and nonverbal communication, is the best way of showing emotions of the speaker expressed with tone and intonation, facial expression and gestures. But it doesn't mean that the use of internet-based lingo is not an effective way of expressing one’s feelings and emotions. Effective computer-mediated communication is based on lexicon (words of a language), semantics (meaning of words), and syntax (how words and symbols are put together). Furthermore, the way in which messages are constructed using lexicon, semantics, and syntax can greatly affect the creation of impression or expression of feelings. Beside words internet communication is rich with special internet symbols (smileys) which are very effective for expressing feelings and emotions.

As technology advances, it is distinct that verbal/non-vocal internet communication will be more suitable for making effective communication in the online environment.

REFERENCES


IDENTIFYING THE INTERLINGUAL ERRORS IN ENGLISH THAT STEM FROM TURKISH IN THE ACQUISITION OF PREPOSITIONS

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates Turkish L1 effect in the use of English prepositions and whether there is a connection between the English proficiency level and the appropriate use of prepositions in English. English is a head initial language, having prepositional structure while Turkish, as a head final language, has postpositional structure. L2 learners (L2ers) tend to rely on the grammar of their mother tongue when they are faced with certain constraints in the target language and this may result in an ungrammatical outcome. Hence, Turkish might have a negative transfer effect on learners in the process of the acquisition of prepositions. To find the degree of L1 effect, a Grammaticality Judgment Task was administered to sixty native Turkish participants with two different L2 proficiency levels (thirty advanced and thirty intermediate). The findings indicate that L1 Turkish has a negative transfer effect on L2 English in the acquisition of prepositions. It was also found that this effect is smaller in advanced level learners than in intermediate level learners, concluding that proficiency level is an aspect to take into account when investigating interlingual effect.

Key Words: Negative transfer effect, interlingual error, second language acquisition

1. INTRODUCTION

This study is on possible negative effect of L1 Turkish on L2 English in the acquisition of prepositions. A preposition is a word or group of words that indicates various types of relational meanings such as location, time, and direction and so on; however, a preposition is not counted as a preposition if it does not precede a noun or pronoun (Straus, 2008). A postposition resembles a preposition in terms of its function but it does not come before the nouns, instead it follows them. Pre/postpositions are differentiated from each other due to the head directionality parameter. Considering its binary nature, languages either have prepositions or postpositions in accordance with being either head-initial or head-final.

English is a head initial language and has a prepositional structure. On the other hand, Turkish as a head final language does not have prepositions; instead, it has postpositions. In the second language acquisition process it is inevitable for the students to make mistakes, especially when the target language has completely different structures in certain topics from L1. Thus, one can conclude that Turkish might have a negative transfer effect on learners in the process of the acquisition of prepositions. Moreover, if there is a negative transfer effect of L1 on L2, one may wonder to what degree this effect
might appear in various stages of the acquisition of L2. To be able to answer this question, the proficiency levels of participants should be taken into consideration, as well.

In this paper we discuss how difficult Turkish learners of English as L2 find the acquisition of prepositions, which do not exist in their mother tongue. The focus of this study is to find the degree of L1 effect in the use of English prepositions and to decide whether there is a connection between the proficiency level and the appropriate use of prepositions in English, i.e., the amount of negative transfer from L1 Turkish.

Previous research showed that Turkish learners of English switch codes between English and Turkish to fill the gaps in their missing lexical items so they tend to use L1 equivalents of English prepositions (Özışık, 2014). Learners of lower proficiency will resort more to their mother tongue if they are not competent enough in L2 (Blom, 2006).

There have been many research studies about the effects of the languages on one another; however, there is little attention paid to the effects of students’ proficiency level in L2 on the use of prepositions in Turkey. Investigating different levels of Foreign Language Education (FLE) students in Turkey, then, may shed some light on the correlation between how Turkish learners learn prepositions and how actually they should be taught by taking the proficiency levels into consideration.

A noteworthy piece of research on negative transfer effect of Turkish on English was conducted by Özışık (2014). He examined a group of thirty upper-intermediate students with respect to the way they filled suitable prepositions in the blanks. He found that students had difficulty while determining correct prepositions because they managed to answer only half of the questions correctly in the questionnaire. Hence, he has concluded that interlingual effect has an important role in the learners’ choice of using prepositions.

A similar study on definite and indefinite articles in Persian and English was conducted by Ghonsooly and Joolaee (2014). They tested the transfer effect in two different levels of native Persian students (advanced-intermediate). Their questionnaire consisted of thirty-five English and thirty-five Persian items because they wanted to use Contrastive Analyses to see the language interference. The results changed in accordance with the proficiency level, namely intermediate students were successful in Persian, but not in English. By contrast, advanced students were better at using definite articles in English, which do not exist in Persian syntactically but semantically. They have stated the more advanced the students are, the more accurate the use of definite articles will be.

Elkılıç (n. d.) reports similar results. He investigated twenty-six intermediate and forty-two upper-intermediate level Turkish students on the use of various structures in L2 English. In order to detect the negative transfer errors –particularly in prepositions, uncountable nouns, and articles–participants were assigned to write composition papers. His findings show that most of the structures in students’ writings rely on their mother tongue’s structures and such structures are seen in lower level student’s writings more than in higher level students.

Finally, Sadoughvanini, Shamsudin, and Zaid (2012) examined interlingual errors in L2 English collocations. They investigated fifteen Iranian participants and conducted two different types of speech tests, namely impromptu and public speaking. They found that L1 interference affected the errors that Iranian speakers made radically because 80% of the errors stemmed from negative transfer effect of their mother tongue.

For the present research, we used three preposition groups to test the negative transfer effect of L1 on L2 in line with two different proficiency levels (advanced-intermediate). Our first preposition group is called “Perfect Match” in which Turkish
postpositions are equal to English prepositions. The second preposition group is Mismatch 1 where the prepositions in English do not have corresponding Turkish postpositions. Finally, Mismatch 2 is the group where you can find the opposite case of Mismatch 1, that is, when Turkish has postpositions, English has bare preposition forms. Considering our different groups of prepositions, we expected both levels of participants to succeed in Perfect Match group more than the Mismatch groups 1-2 since the target language and L1 have similar structures. Furthermore, we expected intermediate level students to be more affected by the Turkish negative transfer effect on English when compared to advanced level students.

The results of present research are in keeping with the findings of Elkılıç (2012) and Sadoughvanini et al. (2012). As expected, our study showed that there is a negative transfer effect of L1 Turkish on L2 English in the acquisition of prepositions and that the strength of the effect changes in concert with different proficiency levels. In our case, advanced level participants were less affected by the interlingual effect of Turkish since they were significantly better than intermediate level students. In this respect, the study supports the findings of Ghonsooly and Joolae (2015), who claim that the more advanced the students are, the less they will be affected by the interlingual effect. Hence, the current study shows that there is an undeniable relationship between negative transfer effect and the proficiency level of the learners.

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. Participants

The participants in this study were Foreign Language Education students at Middle East Technical University who have not yet completed their Bachelor’s degrees. All of the participants were native speakers of Turkish. The study involved sixty participants in total, thirty first year and thirty fourth year students (forty-nine females and eleven males). The first year students were aged between 18 and 33 years old, the fourth year students were aged between 21 and 24 years old. The reason why we conducted this study on these participants was to find out the relationship between the duration of the exposure to English and the negative transfer effect in the acquisition of prepositions. Because the exposure time of the fourth year students to English was longer than that of the first year students, we accepted fourth year students as higher in proficiency than the first year students.

2.2. Data collection tools

Our study had a quantitative design and a questionnaire (Appendix A) was utilized as the data collection tool. Our questionnaire consisted of two sections: A and B. In section A, there were a consent form and questions regarding personal information of both researchers and participants. Section B was a Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT), which included thirty-six items consisting of eighteen filler and eighteen experimental items. Half of the experimental items were grammatical and the other half were ungrammatical. Each item was accompanied by a five-point likert scale (1: completely unacceptable - 5: perfectly acceptable). The experimental items were testing three groups of prepositions, shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Groups of Experimental Items with Their Formulas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group Name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Below are some real examples from our questionnaire:

**Group 1: Perfect Match**

(1) Allison talks about her own experiences in Europe whenever we come together. - grammatical

(2) You were very kind against me when you welcomed me at the airport. - ungrammatical

The sentence in (1) is an example for the grammatical items in the first group of prepositions from our data. The preposition "about" is equivalent to the postposition "hakkında." The sentence in (2) we changed the correct preposition "to" with "against" because in this particular example, Turkish equivalence of to is against and to accept this sentence as grammatical is an example of negative transfer.

**Group 2: ØENG ≠ POSTTURK = Mismatch 1**

(3) Implying that he wants to have a date, John asked: "Are you seeing someone?" - grammatical

Turkish translation of sentence (3) requires a free-standing morpheme but in English no preposition is needed here. Therefore, to accept this sentence as ungrammatical means that students are affected by negative transfers.

(4) Do not keep asking me to marry with you just because I am pregnant! - ungrammatical

In sentence (4), there is with as a redundant item, but if Turkish speakers are affected by their mother tongue, they would accept with, which appears as an interlingual error as a grammatical item because the Turkish equivalent of this expression requires a postposition (ile).

**Group 3: PREPENG ≠ ØTURK = Mismatch 2**

(5) When you replied to my question, it was obvious that you had very creative ideas. - grammatical

In the sentence (5), we see the preposition to standing adjacent to the verb replied. Turkish equivalence of this verb does not require a postposition; therefore, to accept this sentence as ungrammatical shows negative transfer effect.

(6) The teacher made me listen the details of each tiny mistake before he finally announced the grade. - ungrammatical

The last sentence, (6), is an ungrammatical sentence which requires the preposition to. Since Turkish verb dinlemek ‘to listen’ does not require a postposition, students might accept this sentence as grammatical.
2.3. Design and Procedure

The data was collected in two different sittings at once. We visited both 1st years’ and 4th year students’ lessons separately with the permission of their instructors. We preferred collecting our data in formal settings because the authority of the instructors made the participants take these questionnaires more serious. Also, we wanted the participants to feel more comfortable in their own classes with familiar environments. Thus one can say that stress did not play an important role while the participants were completing our grammaticality judgment task.

2.4. Data Analysis

We used SPSS to analyze our data. For each group of students (1st and 4th year), we calculated their mean score on each group of experimental items (Perfect match, Mismatch 1, and Mismatch 2). We then compared the mean scores, separately on grammatical and ungrammatical items, both between the two groups and within each group. Our results are schematically shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Schematically Shown Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Name</th>
<th>1st year students</th>
<th>4th year students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group 1</strong> (PERFECT MATCH)</td>
<td>X1</td>
<td>Y1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP&lt;sub&gt;ENG&lt;/sub&gt;=&lt;sub&gt;POST&lt;/sub&gt;TURK</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group 2</strong> (Mismatch 1)</td>
<td>X2</td>
<td>Y2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ø&lt;sub&gt;ENG&lt;/sub&gt; ≠ &lt;sub&gt;POST&lt;/sub&gt;TURK</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group 3</strong> (Mismatch 2)</td>
<td>X3</td>
<td>Y3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP&lt;sub&gt;ENG&lt;/sub&gt; ≠ ØTURK</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Within each proficiency group, the scores were compared to each other in order to determine whether the degree of “matching” between L1 and L2 affects the success on the GJT. This was done separately for grammatical and ungrammatical items. So, the following comparisons were made: X1: X2, X1: X3, X2: X3 and also Y1:Y2, Y1:Y3, Y2:Y3. The comparisons were done via paired samples t-tests.

Moreover, each X score was compared to the corresponding Y score (across the proficiency levels), to see whether the amount of negative transfer decreases with the increase in the proficiency of students. This was again done for both grammatical and ungrammatical items (X1:Y1, X2:Y2, X3:Y3). This time the comparisons were done via Independent samples t-test.

3. RESULTS

Recall that we were investigating whether there is a negative transfer effect of L1 Turkish in the acquisition of Prepositions in English and we expected the students in both classes –namely 1st and 4th -to be better at Perfect Match group than
Mismatch 1 and Mismatch 2. To see whether the degree of “matching” between L1 and L2 affects the participants’ performance, we calculated every score in each preposition group in 1st and 4th classes separately.

3.1. Results of the Ungrammatical Items

Paired samples t-test revealed that there are significant differences between Perfect Match (\(\text{PREP}^{\text{ENG}} = \text{POST}^{\text{TURK}}\)) and Mismatch 1 (\(\text{Ø}^{\text{ENG}} \neq \text{POST}^{\text{TURK}}\)); between Perfect Match and Mismatch 2 (\(\text{PREP}^{\text{ENG}} \neq \text{Ø}^{\text{TURK}}\)) for both classes. The first year students were better at detecting ungrammatical items of Perfect Match (M=2.28, SD=1.01) than Mismatch 1(M=3.78, SD=0.95), and there was a significant difference between the two scores, t (29) = -5.53, p<0.05. This situation is also valid for Perfect Match and Mismatch 2(M=3.67, SD=0.97), t (29) = - 3.26, p<0.05. The fourth year students’ results are almost identical to the 1st years’: they were also better at detecting ungrammatical items of Perfect Match (M= 2.20, SD=1.06) when compared to Mismatch 1 (M= 3.12, SD=1.06), which indicates significance between these two scores, t (29) = -4.70, p < 0.05. Similar results are obtained between the scores of Perfect Match and Mismatch 2 (M= 2.86, SD= 0, 95), t (29) = -3.16, p<0.05. While both classes were successful in detecting ungrammatical items in the Perfect Match group, they were least determined to define ungrammatical items in the two mismatch conditions. Table 3 reveals the mean scores (M) and the standard deviations (SD) for ungrammatical items.

Table 3: The Mean Scores (M) And The Standard Deviations (SD) For Ungrammatical Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Perfect Match</th>
<th>Mismatch 1</th>
<th>Mismatch 2</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Class</td>
<td>M: 2.78</td>
<td>M: 3.78</td>
<td>M: 3.67</td>
<td>M: 3.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD: 1.01</td>
<td>SD: 0.95</td>
<td>SD: 0.97</td>
<td>SD: 0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th Class</td>
<td>M: 2.20</td>
<td>M: 3.12</td>
<td>M: 2.86</td>
<td>M: 2.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD: 1.06</td>
<td>SD: 1.06</td>
<td>SD: 0.95</td>
<td>SD: 0.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2. Results of the Grammatical Items

Paired samples t-test showed that there are no significant differences between any two groups of items, except for 4th year students’ mean scores in Mismatch 1 and Mismatch 2 (shaded in Table 4). The fourth year students were better at determining grammatical items of Mismatch 1(M=3.97, SD=0.63) than those of Mismatch 2 (M=3.47, SD=1.06), t (29) =2.5, p<0.05. The mean scores (M) and standard deviations (SD) for grammatical items are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: The Mean Scores (M) And Standard Deviations (SD) For Grammatical Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Perfect Match</th>
<th>Mismatch 1</th>
<th>Mismatch 2</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
3.3. Overall Results

Remember that we were also investigating the relation between the negative transfer effect and proficiency level. We first compared two classes in all items. We anticipated that 1st year students would be more affected by negative transfer than 4th years. Table 5 shows the overall results of two classes in both grammatical and ungrammatical items.

Table 5: The Overall Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>All Grammatical Items</th>
<th>All Ungrammatical Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Class</td>
<td>M: 4.14</td>
<td>M: 3.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD: 0.48</td>
<td>SD: 0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th Class</td>
<td>M: 3.78</td>
<td>M: 2.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD: 0.56</td>
<td>SD: 0.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the table above revealed, first year students (M= 4.14, SD= 0.48) were more successful in judging grammatical items than fourth years (M=3.78, SD=0.56), whereas forth year (M= 2.72, SD= 0.15) students showed better performance on detecting ungrammatical items than first years (M=3.41, SD=0.65). However, while the difference between the two levels on the grammatical items did not reach the level of statistical significance, the difference on the ungrammatical was statistically significant, t (58) =3.55, p<0.05.

4. DISCUSSION

We tested whether L1 Turkish has a negative transfer effect on English in the acquisition of prepositions and if there is such an effect, we wondered to what degree this effect would have an influence on Turkish learners of English in accordance with their proficiency levels.

As expected, both classes were good at detecting both the grammatical and the ungrammatical items in the Perfect Match condition. On the other hand, they are not that good at determining the grammatical and ungrammatical items of
Mismatch groups. We also expected fourth year students to be less influenced by the negative transfer effect when compared to first years in general. The results that we obtained did not provide a clear-cut support to our expectations. We found that the first year students were better at judging grammatical items in the three experimental conditions than the fourth years, whereas the fourth year students were better at detecting the ungrammatical items in each group of prepositions. Ungrammatical items showed that fourth year students could detect the violations in L2 grammar unlike first years and if a learner accepts an ungrammatical item as grammatical, it means that the learner is not aware of what constraints must be met in L2 constructions. Thus, we accepted the ungrammatical items as determinants and fourth years were less affected by negative transfer effect. Surprisingly, we also found that fourth year students showed statistically significant difference between Mismatch 1 and 2. In other words, they were better at detecting grammatical items of Mismatch 1 than Mismatch 2.

Our first result might indicate that Perfect Match group did not cause negative transfer effect, instead, this group provided positive transfer effect on Turkish learners of English since the structure in target language and mother tongue are alike in terms of prepositions in English are matched by postpositions in Turkish. On the contrary, Mismatch groups were the ones which indicate negative transfer effect since in these conditions the L1 and L2 are different from one another in that while one has a preposition, the other does not have a postposition and vice versa. Thus, in each case, we were faced with a mismatch and that create difficulty for L2 learners to use pre/postpositions effectively. Similarly, Wang (2009) states the elements that are similar to mother tongue will be easier to acquire in SLA process whereas it will be difficult to learn when some structures are different from L1.

Our next result, the success of intermediate level students in grammatical items and the outstanding performance of advanced levels' on ungrammatical items suggests that the first year students tend to accept anything as grammatical while fourth years approach grammatical items more critically. On the other hand, fourth year students could be more settled about ungrammatical items likely because they have been exposed to negative evidence more than first years. As we stated in section 2.1. Participants, fourth year students' exposure time to L2 is more than first years, therefore, they are able to constrain their L2 grammars more unlike first year students. According to our findings, the fourth years are less influenced by L1 transfer, due to their success in detecting ungrammatical items. Our results are similar to earlier studies which have shown that earlier stages of L2 acquisition tend to be affected by “predominance of interlingual errors” (Kırkgöz, 2010, p. 6) and lower proficiency level learners need to be competent enough in L2 in order to be less affected by L1 (Blom, 2006).

Our final result, an unexpected difference in the group of fourth year students between Mismatch 1-2 may indicate that our Mismatch 1 group of prepositions are less marked than our Mismatch 2 group of prepositions. In other words, Mismatch 1 does not require inserting new prepositions in spots where Turkish has postpositions; on the contrary, in Mismatch 2, Turkish learners need to insert a new preposition although they do not have any equivalence postposition in that spot in their mother tongue. Making something from nothing (Mismatch 2) seems to be slightly more difficult than removing something that has been already there (Mismatch 1). Thus, Turkish learners of English find Mismatch 1 relatively easier than Mismatch 2. Nonetheless, one might wonder why fourth years performed significantly differently between these two groups, whereas the first years did not. We can again say that first year students tended to accept anything as grammatical since they were not able to constrain their L2 grammars unlike fourth year students.
We conducted our study on first and fourth year FLE students and we specified their proficiency levels according to their L2 exposure times. Namely, we accepted first year students as intermediate and fourth years as advanced. Also, first year students were luckier in the sense that they were attending Contextual Grammar I-II lessons at the time of the study, while the fourth year students were not. Finally, in Turkish education system, students have to take university entrance exam (LYS-5) which consists of twenty English grammar questions out of eighty in total. Thus, first year students’ focus had been grammar-oriented until several months before the study; on the contrary, fourth year students had not been taking any grammar lessons for three years. All the factors stated above could affect first years’ performances in our grammaticality judgment task substantially.

In future research, we suggest that the proficiency levels of participants might be detected by Oxford Quick Placement Test or the study could be conducted in the Department of Basic English, in which the levels are determined by a proficiency exam so that we could have more precise distinction between two levels. Also, we suggest collecting data through gap filling activity as well as grammaticality judgment task since the former requires the participants to find the prepositions by themselves while the latter has already provided the prepositions and the only thing the participants is to do marking one of the numbers on likert scale. Therefore, the study could give different results provided that gap filling activity is added to it.

The present study set out to investigate Turkish negative transfer effect across different proficiency levels on pre/postpositional structures. We concluded that lower level students are affected more than higher level learners. Considering these findings, teachers could develop different strategies to make corrections or give feedback to students and make students aware of the interlingual difference between Turkish and English.

5. CONCLUSION

Prepositions in English cause certain problems for native Turkish speakers since Turkish having postpositions lacks prepositions. We conducted our study for the purpose of finding whether there is a negative transfer effect of L1 Turkish on L2 English in the acquisition of prepositions and if there is such an effect, how different levels of students are influenced by it. Our findings showed that there is indeed such an effect since when prepositions in English had their Turkish postposition equivalences, the participants were quite successful, which indicates they were not influenced by L1 negative effect; on the other hand, when there was no equivalence, negative transfer effect appeared since most of the problems we observed were in the mismatch conditions. Moreover, this effect seems to diminish with higher proficiency levels and increase with lower proficiency levels because advanced students were more successful than intermediate students in our study. Finding this relationship between negative transfer effect of Turkish language and proficiency levels may enlighten the EFL scholars, educators or even the students who dedicated themselves to get rid of these common preposition mistakes that they encounter in their everyday lives. They can see the reasons behind these mistakes and change their teaching/learning styles according to these findings; in addition to this, we intend this study to be a reference for other studies in the field.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A

Please read all the sentences and decide how acceptable they are by marking them on the scale 1-5 ( 5: Perfectly Acceptable, 1: Completely Unacceptable)

1) Do not keep asking me to marry with you just because I am pregnant!

1 2 3 4 5

2) Do you remember the last time you forgotten your house keys?

1 2 3 4 5

3) Allison talks about her own experiences in Europe whenever we come together.

1 2 3 4 5

4) He does not know what he should do if something bad happens to his family.

1 2 3 4 5

5) You were very kind against me when you welcomed me at the airport.

1 2 3 4 5

6) Horror movies make me feel good, especially when it is raining.

1 2 3 4 5

7) Implying that he wants to have a date, John asked : “Are you seeing someone?”

1 2 3 4 5
8) Have you ever seen a movie that broken your heart?

9) He looked me and said he did not want to see me anymore.

10) It has been a long time since my parents and I went shopping together.

11) You should speak to John if you want to get more information about the registration.

12) We shocked when we watched the breaking news two days ago.

13) Professor Jane told me that she wanted me to meet with her in Susam Café.

14) She has explained these activities in a very detailed way in order to help us.

15) She has attended to all of the lessons throughout the semester.

16) The population growth rates is expected to increase dramatically.

17) Johanna waited me in the other room while I was getting ready for the evening.

18) After Alice was bitten by a dog, her friend called 911.

19) When you replied to my question, it was obvious that you had very creative ideas.

20) I am not a perfect person but I am doing my best all the time.

21) It was you who came to me and wanted my help, but now you are being so selfish.

22) Einstein’s Relativity theory change people’s perceptions worldwide.

23) Older children always tend to mock with their younger siblings when they are alone.

24) Patrick Wagner, who suffered from facial burning, am a firefighter before his death.

25) You do not need to hesitate when you need my help because I am here from you.
26) I kept reading your journal although you did not let me do that.

27) Sam is always finding an excuse for fighting with her friends in the classroom.

28) Whenever I imagine a hamburger, I cannot help smiling.

29) Social media have isolated people who overuse it.

30) The teacher made me listen to the details of each tiny mistake before he finally announced the grade.

31) I could not understand the text properly because I was sleepy.

32) My parents are always comparing me into their friends’ children.

33) Charlie Sheen, who is known best all over the world, celebrated his 42th birthday.

34) They greeted us in a very sincere way and took us to a very luxury restaurant.

35) I have accused while I was living in Germany but I was innocent.

36) Let’s have a cup of coffee and discuss what we are going to do next.
EFFECTIVENESS OF PEER COACHING METHOD TO IMPROVE TEACHING OF ENGLISH PERFORMANCE (NOVICE LANGUAGE TEACHERS, CASE OF FEZA EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS, SAMSUN, TURKEY)

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ABSTRACT

Over the last twenty years, a very large number of educators have come to the conclusion that the traditional methods, workshops and conferences, for the teacher development are insufficiently effective, often inadequate, time and money consuming. Another problem is that many researches tell that beginning teachers strive with many different problems in schools. The goal of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of peer coaching method on teaching performance of English language novice teachers. A conclusion is made that within this study, it has been proven that Peer Coaching is a method, which can change teacher practice in positive way. Some of the benefits of Peer Coaching method are: improving performance of teachers in the classroom; making teachers’ sense of efficacy deeper; enhancing sense of professional skill; improving student achievement; giving chance to teachers for professional ties with colleagues; improving student – teacher interaction.

Key words: Peer coaching, novice teachers, English teaching, teachers’ effectiveness

INTRODUCTION

Over the last twenty years, a very large number of educators have come to the conclusion that the traditional methods, workshops and conferences, for the teacher development are ineffective, inadequate, time and money consuming. Teachers say that traditional development methods do not offer permanent and long-term opportunities for them to change their classroom practice. Richard (2003) says that in the US more and more schools are replacing the traditional staff development methods with school-based staff developers. Researchers have noticed that workshops that involve most traditional staff development methodologies do not give adequate time, exercises, or content important to advance significant change (Garet et al., 2011). Studies by Joyce & Showers (1996; 2002) show that less than 15% of instructors acquire new thoughts learned in conventional staff advancement settings, for example, workshops. The issues with traditional systems are that teachers do not have the required abilities to apply what they learn in workshops. On the other hand, while applying the techniques they learned, they have no opportunity to get any help or assistance. A study says that teachers need to see new methods shown them in classroom setting (Garet, et al., 2001).
Over numerous years, researchers have considered the impacts of traditional teacher development methods and the findings they discovered were really conformable. An article by Alexander Russo (2004:2) summarized these findings.

“To be effective, scores of researchers say, professional development must be ongoing, deeply embedded in teachers’ classroom work with children, specific to grade levels or academic content, and focused on research-based approaches. It also must help to open classroom doors and create more collaboration and sense of community among teachers in a school.”

Another problem is that many researches tell that beginning teachers strive with many different problems in schools. “Novice teachers are mostly unprepared for dealing with classroom management issues,” says a study on the problems of novice teachers (Melnick & Meister, 2008:3). According to Fry (2007), beginning teachers say that their pre-service education did not much help for their real experiences in the classroom setting. “A bigger bag of classroom management ideas could help us better,” tells a starter teacher (Fry, 2007:225). And beginning teachers are complaining about the lack of support by their colleagues and superiors. It was identified in a study that novice teachers find the support they get on their first year ‘poor’ (Hover & Yaeger, 2004). More than anything else, beginning teachers often appear to have in-need-for-yet-seldom-get helpful feedback on their teaching from experienced colleagues and administrators (Fry, 2007; McCormack, Gore, & Thomas, 2006).

Consequently, a study searching the effectiveness of Peer Coaching method to improve novice teachers' abilities in classroom setting was undertaken by the researcher.

I. What is Peer Coaching? Why Peer Coaching?

Peer Coaching is a viable methodology, which has been embraced by top performing schools of the world. Educational institutes use to embrace this methodology, keeping in mind the end goal to be more powerful. This is a proficient learning framework, which places thoughts into practice. It is a procedure, which empowers educators to gain from one another. Educators give time, bolster, watch and impart their routines or encounters to one another (Cox et al., 2014). Through this viable communitarian way, educators perform the act of Peer Coaching. Besides, according to Parker, Kram, & Hall (2014), it has been portrayed that each great educator needs great instructors for preparing them. In this way, it concentrates on one to one coaching in classrooms (Parker et al., 2014).

Peer Coaching is the procedure through which mentors help teachers for adding to their abilities. Peer Coaching framework empowers educators to learn fundamental abilities and techniques, for example, aptitudes with respect to innovation and instructional systems or strategies, etc., which need to consolidate in improving efficiencies of teachers. In addition, as indicated by Zepeda, Paryllo, & Ilgan (2013), mentors help partners in offering them convenient preparation and learning administration. Diverse sorts of aids can be given through Peer Coaching which incorporates co-arranging learning exercises, displaying successful instructing, watching partners, teaching, and reflecting what they observe (Zepeda et al., 2013). Peer Coaching support progressing teachers' cooperation, which concentrates on students' learning. It offers educators learning in regards to classroom efficiencies through which they can enhance learning of students and teachers. Furthermore, it also helps in development and innovation of schools.
Peer Coaching has the following attributes:

- **Trust:** It is the most important aspect because if there is no trust in a partnership, you cannot get the best outcomes and to be able to open up to your coach you need to have a proper trust based relationship.

- **Private/Personal:** It is important that whatever has been shared among the two in Peer Coaching should remain within them and the data should not go outside.

- **Reassuring:** A coach should be very supportive towards the coachee and try to fit in their shoes. The coach should be able to admire their work and similarly show compassion.

- **Reciprocate the gesture:** If one person in Peer Coaching is training another for a certain period of time, the other person should also take the initiative to teach that person for the same amount of time.

- **Mutual benefits:** Both coach and coachee learn a great deal from one another through coaching seminars.

- **Active listening:** Coachee is going to speak a lot about his/her experiences. Being a good coach, the most important thing is to be a good listener without judging that person. Remember that this is not an evaluation tool. It is a learning tool that promotes shared learning.

- **Reflecting upon the session:** An important job for the coach is to mirror whatever has been concluded or discussed in the session. Basically, the coach summarizes the whole meeting and puts forward his/her observations regarding that matter. Do not mix this with advice giving: the coach is only opening up the options for the coachee.

- **Not a mentor:** A peer coach is neither a mentor nor an advisor on the relevant subject, neither does he entertain the sentences such as I have been doing it or I have a great experience and I’ll be helping you out.

- **Do not act as a friend:** There is a difference between a coach and a friend. Although you are going to talk about your struggles and thoughts, the coach, on the other hand, is going to listen to you more attentively and in return s/he is not going to give you any advice. Rather, he would create a self-learning environment in which all the peers ponder upon the existing practices themselves and reflect upon the ways in which those practices could be improved.

- **Peer Coaching is not about teaching coachee coach’s area of expertise like monitoring about health issues, managing finances, and incorporating budgets.**

- **Do not confuse peer teaching with counseling:** Peer Coaching is applicable to those who are interested in bringing up change and getting closer to their professional and personal targets. On the other hand, counseling is about those people who seek advice for their problems.

Educators learn, get trained and experience from Peer Coaching which encourages them in organizing joint effort and determining their teaching pointed issues. They likewise improve the relational abilities of companions, which assume a basic part in building trust for educators. (Parker et al., 2014). Generally, schools use to embrace this methodology of Peer Coaching as it empowers instructors to get educated and improve their skills successfully, furthermore, urge them to instruct such coordinated effort aptitudes by supporting one another. According to Goldman, Wesner, and Karnchanomai (2013), Peer Coaching upgrades the performance of the people which encourages them in their learning process. Also, in Peer Coaching method, mentors figure out how to make such
cooperative environment, which urges educators to learn. Peer Coaching methodology is a powerful and compelling methodology, which beats the blemishes of showing procedures, embraced by instructors (Goldman et al., 2013).

Furthermore, this methodology requires a protected and collegial environment. In a survey of Peer Coaching writing, Zwart et al., (2009) found that educators in Peer Coaching projects were more effective than control bunch instructors in actualizing new instructional methodologies, utilizing the new procedures as a part of more suitable ways, supporting the utilization of new techniques, and comprehension the reasons of direction. Besides, Peer Coaching additionally adds to increments in educator adequacy. At the point when educators make self-assessments about the nature of their instructing, associate data can impact these self-judgments in various ways (Zwart et al., 2009).

**METHOD**

The goal of this experimental study was to find out the effectiveness of Peer Coaching method on the classroom practices of English language novice teachers. Correspondingly, three research questions were asked:

1) Does the Peer Coaching method sustain the development of teaching skills among novice teachers?

2) Does English language novice teachers’ Peer Coaching positively affect on their classroom performances?

3) Does the Peer Coaching method for English language novice teachers alter the students’ success in English language?

The setting for this study was Feza Educational Institutions in Samsun, Turkey. The experiment took place in 2 different schools, Feza College and Feza Berk College. At the time of this study, schools had a culturally and socially diverse students’ population of approximately 1000 in grades five through twelve. The schools had about 130 actively working teachers and supporting staff.

The participants for this study were 16 English teachers from Feza educational institutions in Samsun, Turkey. Eight of them were coaches (mentors) and other eight were coachees. Coachees were novice (beginning) teachers who had less than two years experiences in English language teaching (ELT). Five of the coachees had seven months’ experience and other three had about one and half year. Four of them were males and the other four were females and the ages were between 22 and 24. The coaches (mentors) had more than 8-year experiences in English language teaching. Two of them had an MA degree in ELT, one had a CELTA (Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) certificate and one had a DELTA (Diploma in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) diploma. All sixteen participant teachers volunteered to participate in the study.

The study was conducted in March-June 2015, during 12 weeks – 53 school days. The administrative permissions were taken and the study was fully supported by the school administration and staff. Each coachee had about 35 classes (40 minutes each) with their coaches. The total number of lessons was 276 with 24 different classes and 437 different students from grades five to eleven. Coachees were videotaped sometimes for feedback. Coaches gave feedbacks to coachees after each teaching. Coachees also observed the teaching of coaches.

To answer the first and second questions, a questionnaire that helped the researcher gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for teachers in their school activities, was used. It is Teachers’ Sense of
Efficacy Scale (TSES) by Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001. Three moderately correlated factors have been consistently found in the TSES. These are teachers’ efficacy in: student engagement, instructional practices, and classroom management. The questionnaire was held before and after the experiment to see if there is any change in teachers’ effectiveness. It comprised 24 questions to understand the problems of teachers in school activities. The questions were asked in Likert-scale-like format, 1 (nothing) to 9 (a great deal).

To measure the effectiveness of the teachers from students’ perspective, another questionnaire was applied to 40 students from the classes in the school where Peer Coaching was applied. It is TEBS (Teacher Evaluation by Students Survey) survey. Students were applied the questionnaire before and after the study to see if there was any change in their teachers. The questionnaire comprised 15 questions and was asked in Likert-scale-like format, 1 (nothing) to 9 (a great deal).

To answer the third question, the students were tested for their English language skills. Experimental group and control group were created from 16 students in each group. All 32 students were from the 5th grades and were chosen randomly. Students in the experimental group were chosen from classes where peer-coaching study was applied. To provide reliability of the results, the tests used in both groups were the same. Both groups were tested at the same time, before and after the experiment. The test was English level assessment test by Macmillan. At the end of the study, the average results in both groups were compared, to see, whether the experimental group did better than the control group.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1. Mean Results of Pre-Experimental and Post-Experimental Results of Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Pre-Experimental Means</th>
<th>Post-Experimental Means</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  How much can you do to help your students think critically?</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8 | How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly? | 4.13 | 5.25 | 1.13
9 | How much can you do to help your students value learning? | 4.25 | 5.38 | 1.13
10 | How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught? | 4.50 | 5.38 | 0.88
11 | To what extent can you craft good questions for your students? | 4.50 | 5.13 | 0.63
12 | How much can you do to foster student creativity? | 4.00 | 4.63 | 0.63
13 | How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules? | 4.50 | 5.63 | 1.13
14 | How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing? | 4.00 | 5.00 | 1.00
15 | How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy? | 4.13 | 5.50 | 1.38
16 | How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students? | 4.00 | 4.75 | 0.75
17 | How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students? | 3.88 | 5.25 | 1.38
18 | How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies? | 4.25 | 5.50 | 1.25
19 | How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson? | 4.38 | 5.63 | 1.25
20 | To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused? | 4.13 | 5.50 | 1.38
21 | How well can you respond to defiant students? | 4.13 | 5.50 | 1.38
22 | How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school? | 4.38 | 5.13 | 0.75
23 | How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom? | 4.50 | 5.75 | 1.25
24 | How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students? | 4.00 | 5.13 | 1.13

It can be deduced from the table above that the effectiveness of the novice teachers increased after the application of Peer Coaching method. In all 24 questions, novice teachers think that their classroom effectiveness has developed with the application of Peer Coaching method.
Teachers were asked, "To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?" (Q20) and before the experiment, the mean result of all 8 teachers was about 4 out of 9. It means they were having difficulties providing extra explanation to the students when they need. But with the help of their experienced colleagues, after the experiment, the result was about 6 out of 9.

Some results were shown in the chart below, to see the difference between pre-experimental results and post-experimental result.

Figure 1. Some Mean Results of TSES in Chart

Table 2. Mean Results of Teachers’ Pre-Experimental and Post-Experimental Evaluation by Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Pre Experiment Means</th>
<th>Post Experiment Means</th>
<th>Difference</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Teacher is prepared for class.</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Teacher knows his/her subject.</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Teacher provides activities that make subject matter meaningful.</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Teacher is clear in giving directions and on explaining what is expected on assignments and tests.</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Teacher manages the time well.</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Teacher has clear classroom procedures so students do not waste time.</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 I have learned a lot from this teacher about this subject.</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Teacher gives me good feedback on homework and projects so that I can improve.

Teacher is creative in developing activities and lessons.

Teacher encourages students to speak up and be active in the class.

Teacher follows through on what he/she says. You can count on the teacher’s word.

Teacher listens and understands students’ point of view; he/she may not agree, but students feel understood.

Teacher respects the opinions and decisions of students.

Teacher helps you when you ask for help.

Teacher is consistent and fair in discipline.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Teacher gives me good feedback on homework and projects so that I can improve.</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Teacher is creative in developing activities and lessons.</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Teacher encourages students to speak up and be active in the class.</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Teacher follows through on what he/she says. You can count on the teacher’s word.</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Teacher listens and understands students’ point of view; he/she may not agree, but students feel understood.</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Teacher respects the opinions and decisions of students.</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Teacher helps you when you ask for help.</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Teacher is consistent and fair in discipline.</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be deduced from the table above that the effectiveness of the novice teachers, according to the students, increased after the application of Peer Coaching method. Students were asked 15 questions about their teachers’ classroom abilities and according to their answers it seems that after the application of Peer Coaching method, teachers’ effectiveness has increased.

Students were asked if their teacher comes prepared for the lesson or not. Before the experiment students rated this as 6.1 out of 9, but this increased after the experiment, 7.6. According to students, teachers know their subject not well, 5.8 out of 9, but this number increased after the experiment to 7.4. Students rated teachers’ time management in the classroom as 4.7 before the experiment and this was 6.8 after the experiment.

Let us see some of these results in the cart below to see the differences between pre-experimental and post-experimental results.

Figure 2. Some Mean Results of TEBS in Chart
And the language test results of the students before and after the experiment are shown below. Both groups were given the same tests simultaneously, and the test format, volume and the difficulty level was the same before and after the experiment. There were 16 students in each group, chosen randomly.

Figure 3. Comparative testing results of control and experimental groups

It can be seen that both groups have improved their language skills, but with the control group the increase is 6.9 points, while in the experimental group the increase is 17 points, which is significantly higher. The results showed that each student in the experimental group increased their language skills more than the students in the control group.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

After the experiment, coaches, coaches, some students and some members of the administration were interviewed in order to better understand the effect of Peer Coaching method applied in Feza educational institutions in Samsun, Turkey. 2 to 7 questions were asked to participants to share their experiences with Peer Coaching method. From the questionnaire and the interview, the following results were gained:

- Proper application of Peer Coaching method can be more effective than the traditional teacher development methods.
- With the proper application of the Peer Coaching method, it is possible to sustain the development of teaching skills of novice teachers.
- Proper application of the Peer Coaching method affects classroom performance of English language novice teachers.
- With the proper application of Peer Coaching for English language teachers, it is possible to alter the success of students in English language skills.
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

"Having other teachers seeing me in the time teaching gives me feedback about my weaknesses and strengths in teaching, without being evaluated by administrators" said one of the participant teachers about Peer Coaching practice. "I feel, believe and see that my teaching effectiveness has been increased through Peer Coaching process" said another participant. "I started to love my students more, after this process" commented a participant teacher.

With this study, it has been proven that Peer Coaching is a method which can change teacher practice in positive way.

Some of the benefits of Peer Coaching method, which was applied in Feza educational institutions in Samsun, Turkey, are as follows. Peer Coaching:

- has improved performance of teachers in the classroom
- has made teachers' sense of efficacy deeper
- has enhanced sense of professional skill
- has improved student achievement
- has enhanced student progress
- has increased the teachers' ability to analyze their own lessons
- has given opportunity to teachers for better understanding of what they know about best practices in teaching and learning
- has given chance to teachers for professional ties with colleagues
- has created a positive school climate
- has improved student – teacher interaction

As it is same with other development methods, to be successful with Peer Coaching method, we must align it with school's educational goals, budget and other resources. Peer Coaching can be a very successful method for improving teachers' effectiveness, thereby students' success. It is a very effective way for schools and other educational institutions to meet their needs which can be widely recommended to teachers.

REFERENCES


ALUMNI PARTICIPATION AS EMPLOYERS IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS IN GEORGIAN UNIVERSITIES

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ABSTRACT
A common concern in Georgian institutions of higher education is to involve their graduate's (potential) employers in curriculum development activities. Employers play an important role in curriculum development process worldwide, as they represent a bridge between universities and the market. According to Georgian accreditation standards, employers are one of the most essential stakeholders in curriculum development process, but often this requirement is fulfilled on paper rather than in reality, as universities find it difficult to involve employers in curriculum development process. What can be a solution to the existing problem? Today most of higher education institutions in Georgia pay less attention to involvement of alumni in university development, while western higher education institutions actively promote them in educational activities. Alumni can be considered as one of the most important asset to any university in terms of future employers. In this sense, this research aims to analyze the situation at Georgian universities from the viewpoint of their collaboration with their alumni.

Key words: Curriculum development, university, alumni, stakeholders, employers

INTRODUCTION
It is obvious that in order to have an adequate response to society or market demand one of the major factors is the participation of employers in curriculum development, but universities in Georgia nowadays mostly find it difficult to involving them in this process, due to employers’ lack of interest. Most of employers do not perceive themselves as one of the most important curriculum developers. Due to this attitude, collaboration between universities and employers are often based on formalities. However, there is one great potential that universities do not seem to realize – their graduates who in the future may become employers and who will be more willing to support the development of the universities they graduated from and to participate in curricula improvement. Unfortunately the majority of Georgian universities have not recognized this possibility yet, while in western countries at is a typical enough attitude. Alumni are one of the most important assets for any university. Actually they are the people who represent the university both in the country and in the world. The purpose of this paper is to find out to what extent Georgian educational institutions collaborate with their alumni.

LITERATURE REVIEW
According to Brubacher and Rudy (1976), the existence of both formal and informal alumni organizations at US educational institutions date back to the 19th century, while at European universities, the importance of alumni and alumni networks
grew in the 1980s due to the international and global pressure on universities to stay competitive and attractive (Rohlmann & Wömpener, 2009). Besides their participation in the curriculum development process, alumni provide various types of support, such as: financial aid, recruitment, career consulting or job placement for graduates and participation in alumni events (Ransdell, 1986). The concept of collaboration between public higher education institutions and their alumni was developed according to the motto: building a relationship to students not only for the years of study, but rather for a lifetime brings lifelong benefits to both — the university and the alumni.

As Dolbert (2002) presents, connecting alumni with academic affairs is very important and logical, therefore, alumni association can be a valuable partner of the institution's continuous education in terms of connecting them to academic programs, certification and training programs.

As Weerts et al., (2010) state, alumni are part of the university advisory board before and after graduation. They may deliver lectures, provide job opportunities for students and graduates, establish their careers, act as ambassadors or prominent university alumni through advertisement, help university find new students, act as mentors and give financial support to the university.

It is obvious that in the United States and Europe, the culture of maintaining a link between alumni and educational institutions is stronger than in Georgia, only in recent years, there has been a movement for the creation of alumni centers. This movement is more evident in some private higher education institutions, and by this kind of association, they seek to consolidate the relationship between alumni and the educational institution in terms of curriculum development, as they have firsthand information related to:

a) the curriculum (they have not only read it on paper, they studied according to it);

b) the requirements of a job in a specific field, technical and professional expectations at workplace.

Visiting alumni at their workplace, inviting them to special events or giving them a stage for public speaking are effective strategies which some universities use in order to prepare a platform for developing collaboration with alumni, as they are the people who have quite positive feelings towards their Alma Mater and are eager to collaborate.

Methodology: Survey Questions and Respondents

I decided to define a general picture of the collaboration between the universities and the alumni. 5 state universities participated in the survey. The respondents were quality assurance managers and programs coordinators at the universities.

The questionnaire was mainly prepared in Likert scale format: 1 (Agree) – 2 (Partially Agree) – 3 (Neutral) – 4 (Disagree) – 5 (Strongly disagree). I considered 1-2 as "agree" and 3-5 as "disagree" when analyzing the responses.
Table 1. Average results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Partially agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  Alumni as employers frequently participate in program creation and/or development</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  University systematically organizes meetings with alumni</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  University involves alumni in conducting public lectures/seminars</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  Alumni visit university and share current practices</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  For the purpose of curriculum development alumni often apply to university with initiatives</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  University has an information system with which alumni are informed about the events at the university</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  University runs projects with which collaboration between alumni and university is promoted. If yes, please indicate the project title.</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  There is Alumni Coordination Center at the university</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9  There is a career development office at the university and one of its functions is to develop links between university and alumni.</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Purpose of the meeting with alumni

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>For getting feedback about knowledge gained</th>
<th>For Social-cultural activities</th>
<th>As potential employers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  University holds meetings with alumni</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Table 1 indicate the current practice of universities and alumni collaboration.
According to the survey, 20% partially agreed that alumni as employers participate in program creation and/or development, whereas 80% disagreed, so it means that from five universities only one university considers alumni as potential employers and somehow involves them in curriculum development process.

60% of universities partially agreed that they systematically organize meetings with alumni, while 40 percent disagreed, so we can assume that meeting the alumni is a less active process or sometimes even not in the schedule.

40% of universities partially agreed and 60% disagreed to the question: “University involves alumni in conducting public lectures/seminars,” which indicates that this practice is not widely used within the Georgian universities.

"Alumni visit universities for sharing current practices" - as we see 20% agreed to this item, 20% partially agreed and 60% disagreed, which means that only two universities among the ones taking part in the survey use this possibility while three do not.

Another question, in which the universities were surveyed, was about alumni initiatives for the purpose of curriculum development, where one university partially agreed, there was one neutral answer and three disagreed, here also we can say that the frequency of collaboration between the universities and alumni is very low.

I went further in the study and analyzed whether universities had an information system or database by which they could inform alumni about the events held at university or if there were any projects under which collaboration between the alumni and the university was promoted. According to the question, 20% of the respondents partially agreed, while 80% disagreed, so the majority of universities simply do not use software for communication with alumni or run projects for involving alumni in university social-cultural and academic life.

80% of the respondents declared that they do not have any alumni coordination center at the university, while 20% partially agreed to the statement; developing links between the university and the alumni was not one of the functions of career planning office. 60% agreed and 40 percent disagreed, so we can assume that collaboration with alumni is not considered as one of the important issues for university development.

In general, the purpose of meetings with alumni which universities organize is to get feedback about the knowledge gained and for social activities, they are not considered as potential employers, as the percentages are distributed in Table 2: 80%, 20% and 0%, correspondingly.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

a. By developing a legal base system the Ministry of Education and Sciences of Georgia should encourage state universities for wider collaboration with alumni.

b. Reciprocal collaboration of the ministry and universities should be established.

c. Universities should think about the policy towards the alumni.

d. In order to set up communication with alumni, universities should have alumni database, communication devices, including electronic mail.

e. Universities should establish the alumni coordination centers on the university base.
f. They should encourage the alumni to support and participate in curriculum creation / development process as potential employers.

g. Universities should give them the floor to share their experience with seminars or public lectures.

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT

Many of the world’s English speakers are not only non-native, but usually have various dialects, sociolects, and various grammatical constructs that often provide a cumbersome communication experience for English language learners in real world applications. In order to alleviate these frustrations, we must prepare our students for the interactions that take place outside of the classroom by providing more varied listening instructions inside the classroom. We must ask ourselves: What is the benefit of teaching English? Is it to train our students to speak with those only speaking academic received pronunciation, or is it to communicate with the world as a whole? This presentation will demonstrate the need and value of teaching various accents, dialects, and sociolects in order to improve English students’ listening proficiency.

Key words: code-switching, English, language, education, teaching

The field of English language learning has been a growing topic of interest to nonnative speakers for decades. In many countries, students are typically taught a standardized received pronunciation version of the language, which is only spoken by three per cent of British people on a daily basis (Trudgill, 2001). The justification generally entails the belief that received pronunciation is perfect, the most correct, or superior in some way to more commonly used accents and dialects. In The Sociolinguistics of Modern RP Trudgill (2001) also asserts that “only twelve per cent of the population [are] speakers of Standard English, implying that nine per cent of the population normally speak Standard English with a regional accent”. Other accents that have been considered the most correct include Standard American English and the Mid-Atlantic accent. This dialect is often referred to as American Theatre Standard and “Good American Speech”. As the Mid-Atlantic dialect was originally popularized by the advent of “talkies”, or voiced motion pictures, the accent has waned in popularity.

When a speaker code-switches, he moves from one form of English to another. Generally, we all use a standardised version of English in more professional settings or when talking to our non-native students. Initially, this helps our students learn the more formal forms of English, but their progression into fluency will not be complete without being able to recognise non-standard English. There are many variations of the English language, and they are based on everything from regional dialects, social language shifts, and education level. Thompson (2013) claims that there are five main reasons why we code-switch. 1.) We get into a situation in which we are less familiar or we are acting on instinct and emotion. 2.) We want to relate to others or be a part of the immediate group. 3.) We want something. 4.) We need to tell a secret to another person. 5.) We need to convey a thought or an idea in which only non-standard language will work.

Learning standardized English in a non-native environment can often leave students unprepared for authentic communication. Most of the world’s English speakers are not only non-native, but usually have various dialects, sociolects,
and use various grammatical constructs that can often provide a cumbersome communication experience for English language learners in real world applications. For example, my secretary in Istanbul was very well-qualified and had made good grades in English throughout school, even passing the English portion of the KPDS with flying colours. She was studying for the YDS, a standardised English proficiency test usually only administered to civil servants and academics. Every morning I would make small polite conversation with her upon entering the office. Occasionally I would slip up and ask “How are you doing?” instead of the universally recognised “How are you?” The poor girl had no idea how to respond. In her mind, I was either asking “How are you?”; “What are you doing?”; or “How are you doing the thing you are doing?” That is when the lightbulb flashed. If we continue to teach only the basics of grammar without the subtle changes to grammatical structures and dialectic differences, we are only teaching English as a mathematical problem with a correct answer for each formula. Instead of this structured method, we must teach the learners to be able to understand the meanings and the contexts in which they are using the language. Basically, English is a tool to be used as the learner sees fit, not a math problem to be solved with a finite set of answers.

In order to alleviate these frustrations, we must prepare our students for the interactions that take place outside of the classroom by providing increasingly more varied listening instruction inside the classroom. Let us say the student ends up on an airplane next to a Canadian or has a date with an Australian. The odds of these interactions with native speakers being carried out in fully standardised English or RP are slim to none. These reworking experiences are not just limited to listening opportunities, for example, our students would have an easier and more enjoyable experience reading Harper Lee’s *To Kill A Mockingbird* and William Faulkner’s *The Sound and the Fury*, had they been exposed to the Southern American dialect. The subtle jokes and double meanings of James Joyce’s *Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* would be lost on those students who had never heard the Dublin accent.

Personal implementations of code-switching should be limited to students who already possess some knowledge of the language. It also has to be done by multiple native speakers, perhaps all of the native teachers a student has. Exposure to other dialects and sociolects when there is no one from that particular area should be accomplished by the use of sound bites and film. For example, my university has English teachers from all over the United States, a Canadian teacher, and a British teacher. Fortunately, our students get a good sampling of the Western hemisphere, but not much from other places. In China, a lot of the native interactions after a student has learned English occur with Australians. It is only fair that we as teachers help ease them into their future English language interactions.

Letting our students into our more secret language lets them feel that they are part of the English-speaking community, and it gives them more confidence in their listening skills by broadening their ability to understand others. Initially, my students tend to think it is pretty funny the first time they hear my true accent. Eventually, they see that this is one of the many ways native speakers talk, and they find their listening skills and their understanding of the Anglophone culture improved.

WORKS CITED


MANAGING THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS’ VALUES WHILE TEACHING THROUGH DOCUMENTARIES (CIVIC EDUCATION, HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY)

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to assess how audiovisual aids, specifically, documentaries affect the formation of adolescents’ values, attitudes and standpoints in the process of teaching / learning social sciences (Civic Education, History and Geography) at high school level (grades 9-12). It is a quantitative research paper. In total 204 students took part in the survey. The collected data can be interesting for schools teachers who try to apply new methodologies in social studies instruction. The results reveal interesting facts related to the efficiency of teaching through documentary films, as the subsidiary and supplementary method in the process of teaching / learning social sciences (Civic Education, History and Geography) at high school level (grades 9-12).

Key words: Value, attitude, moral development, social science, civic education, audiovisual aids, documentary films.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research is to introduce teachers to the methodology which may be easily implemented in secondary social studies instruction. Although this research focuses on teaching social studies to grades 9-12, films should be infused into all subject areas, from language arts, math, and foreign languages, to science, arts, physical education, and more. In this day and age, students have become accustomed to acquiring knowledge through media such as television and movies. Though books and text are essential in learning, teachers should take notice of additional visual stimuli. Films are familiar in everyday lives of students. Though some teachers and scholars (Kaplan, 2004; Duska & Whelan, 1978) frown upon movies and television, sometimes films open a student’s eyes to new ideas. Therefore, it is very important to find new approaches and methods in the educational process to support young people’s personal development through their value formation, ethical and moral development.

The process will be more effective and tangible when young people are taught such kind of knowledge not only theoretically from students’ handbooks, but also through audiovisual aids that provide the learners with realistic experience, capture their attention and help in the understanding of different social issues. The use of film can enhance the learning environment by placing the student in a familiar arena, the movie theater.

One World in schools

The idea of the research topic came from the well-known educational program “One World in Schools” (OWIS). One World in Schools is an educational programme run by the People in Need foundation. The programme focuses on promoting education though documentary films and other audiovisual materials in primary and secondary schools. The researcher’s
experience of running the programme for 13 years has confirmed that documentary films are a great way of initiating
debates and promoting interest among students in human rights, global development education, the environment, racism,
and other issues, whilst also enabling them to form their own opinions, attitudes and values.

Currently, the programme’s materials are used by teachers in over 3,000 primary and secondary schools throughout the
Czech Republic. In the recent years, the educational programme has been spreading beyond this country’s borders and
focusing on cooperation with organizations from other countries, which are interested in introducing the OWIS model in
their national educational systems. Since 2008 OWIS has functioned as a leader in the international Watch and Change
project, focusing on development education though audiovisual methods together with partner organizations from
Estonia, Poland and Slovakia. It has also collaborated on educational projects in Lebanon, Romania, Great Britain and
Sweden. From 2010 the programme has been working in Kosovo, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia, Georgia, Armenia,
and Mongolia.

The goals of the educational programme are to raise young people’s awareness about the challenges of today’s world and
current social issues as well as to initiate a debate, think critically and formulate questions and educated opinions about
human rights and relevant issues. It also aims to promote an understanding of the global processes that influence the lives
of people in the world and to cultivate a sense of responsibility that will actively encourage them to contribute to
addressing current social problems.

The programme offers schools documentary films and methods of teaching handbooks about topical subjects concerning
today’s world and modern history. The selected films help increase awareness among young people by raising questions
and pushing students to search for answers, drawing parallels to the students’ own lives and encouraging them to form
independent opinions. One World in Schools utilizes films that reflect today’s world without lecturing the audience.
By using the medium of film, the program gives the students a chance to experience an emotional
conflict and interact with others as opinions and values form and understanding grows.

One World in Schools in Georgia

In Georgia, the educational program “One World in Schools” firstly started in 2010. The education materials developed by
the organization People in Need were included into the official guidelines for Civic Education teachers that were published
by the Ministry of Education and Science. Georgian secondary schools are provided with toolkits containing a methods of
teaching guide, 5-8 documentary films chosen specifically for young people, and tools for interactive activities (role plays
and quizzes, sample work sheets, etc.). The films have been selected in close cooperation with the respective Ministry of
Education. At present, more than 1000 Georgian teachers in about 400 schools are using the methodology.

This learning material consists of documentaries and social spots on DVDs and a methods of teaching handbook. The
handbook containing each documentary has these didactic materials: synopses to films, informational sections, which are
in Q+A (questions and answers) form and should help to get basic information about the film topic, descriptions of specific
activities and worksheets for activities which can be used for teaching. The material has been designed to guide teachers
in facilitating the necessary learning activities for each film.
Each film and didactic materials (especially the activities) were tested in pilot schools in Georgia to find out whether the selected activities are appropriate and helpful for teachers in social studies instruction. The pilot part of the program took place at 10 schools and after its completion the materials were reproduced in the desired amount and distributed to schools that are interested in using them. The methods of teaching handbook has been developed as a structured guide for teachers to assist them to prepare their lesson plan. The handbook includes sections which are divided according to films. It is important to mention that each activity has been selected specifically for use with a certain topic/film or sub-topic and these are noted at the beginning of the activity description. Furthermore, at the beginning of each activity, details are provided on how long it takes to complete, along with recommendations regarding which subjects it is suitable for, information on the goal or aim of the activity, an in-depth description and a work sheet (if applicable). It is essential that the screening of each documentary is then followed by an activity or one of the general teaching and learning activities, because students may have difficulties dealing with the topics of the films. Finding an appropriate way to reflect on the thoughts and feelings of the students is very important in order to help them gain new knowledge.

**Characteristics of the documentaries used for school screenings**

The One World in Schools programme uses documentary films that are mostly chosen from the selection presented at the annual One World human rights festival, which has been organized by People in Need since 1999. In general the OWIS program selects films according to the topic which the specific educational material is focused on. The films should be interesting and have the ability to capture students' attention. The films selected are thought-provoking and pose basic questions that the students can relate to.

**METHOD**

The duration of the research was 2 months. At the first stage, from the videotheque of the educational program “One World in Schools in Georgia” three documentaries dubbed in Georgian language were selected. The following criteria were taken into account:

- Compliance of films and lesson duration;
- Compliance of film topics with the topics (civic education, history, geography) determined under the social sciences subject group program of the National Curriculum for secondary education level (9-12 grades);
- The interest demonstrated by young people to the documentary films and their evaluation.

For the purposes of our study, the quantitative research panel survey was selected, which means surveying of the representative sample (subjects of the research from the target group) in different time periods. This survey has been designed to determine the changes at individual levels of students’ personal attitudes and standpoints towards various social issues. The questionnaire was developed as the instrument of the quantitative research. The designed questionnaire focused on revealing the respondents’ attitude and disposition since the disposition is directly related to evaluation and explores the emotional attitude of respondents to the given issue.

The next stage of the research included the questionnaire designed on the topics of the films to observe the attitudes and disposition of the respondents towards various social issues.
When designing the questionnaire, great attention was paid to formulation of questions which measure knowledge and attitudes/disposition. The following basic principles were taken into consideration during the formulation of the questions: relevance to the respondents, the language, and the sensitivity; besides, double and guiding questions were avoided.

The pre-post questionnaire covers a total of 51 positive and negative items. These items of the questionnaire (see in the attachment) are grouped in seven main categories as follows:

- **Human rights** (positive items - “Protection of human rights is the obligation of every citizen and the state”. Negative items - “I have never heard of any human rights violations facts in my country”);
- **Environment protection** (positive items – “There are environmental issues in my country”; Negative items – “Government should not take more active measures to protect the environment”);
- **Acceptance / tolerance / migration** (positive items – “Every citizen must respect ethnic and cultural values of representatives of different nations”; Negative items – “Only those immigrants who fully share our cultural values should be allowed to live in our country”)
- **Civil Activism** (positive items – “Even the smallest activity (e.g. cleaning activity, greening, etc.) to protect human rights and the environment is crucial”; Negative items – “I am going to do something to improve conditions for vulnerable people in my society”);
- **Conflicts** (positive items – “State / Government has the most important role in conflict management, regulation and resolution”; Negative items - “Conflicts cannot be settled in peaceful way”);
- **Education** (positive items – “The right to education is not one of the universal human rights”; Negative items – “In our country, every child has access to quality education”);
- **Bullying** (positive items – “Victims of bullying can not protect themselves from the abuser”; Negative items – “The state is not obliged to adopt a law against discrimination, everyone can protect themselves to not become a victim of bullying”).

Each category includes 4 to 8 items, which measure the respondent’s attitude towards the issues.

The survey of the respondents based on the questionnaire was carried out by Likert scale. The socially acceptable responses by questionnaire items were identified in advance both for positive items and for negative ones. The total number of socially acceptable answers obtained is 74.55%. It means that the majority of the respondents gave socially acceptable answers to most of the items. For example, the item # 20 “I believe people should think more on the importance of environmental issues” where the expected, acceptable answer falls into the “strongly agree” or “agree” categories, and most of the respondents have chosen these answers. On the other hand, the item # 29 “The state is not obliged to adopt a law against discrimination, everyone can protect themselves to not become a victim of bullying” where the expected answer is in “strongly disagree” or “agree” categories, and the majority of the respondents gave a negative answer to it.

At this stage of the study, two target schools were identified in Tbilisi. Table 1 illustrates this information.

**Table 1.** Target schools in Tbilisi
In total 204 students took part in the survey. In both schools, the selected 10th and 11th grade students (4 experimental and 4 control classes) filled out the pre-questionnaire.

At the next stage, only the experimental classes of each school watched the selected documentary films and took part in post-screening activities on relevant topics. Each experimental class (4 classes) in each school was shown 3 documentaries three times, i.e., 6 screenings in 2 experimental classes of Public School №136 and 6 screenings in 2 experimental classes of Ilia Vekua Physics-Mathematics Public School № 42. Thus, in 2 schools in total, 4 experimental classes watched documentary films 12 times, which were followed by respective activities.

After the completion of each film screening, the students were asked to join in different activities, which included self-reflection, discussion and appropriate exercises over the topics rendered in the films. Each documentary film exercises are designed by education experts within the programme “One World in Schools in Georgia”.

Each exercise is provided with the information on its main topic, objectives, appropriate age, required time and resources. The detailed instructions of the exercises and recommendations for teachers are also included.

RESULTS

Among the respondents of the quantitative survey the age of adolescents varies from 14 to 17. The total of 60.8% of the surveyed comes from Ilia Vekua Physical-Mathematical Public School № 42 and 39.2% from Public school №136.

With regard to the gender of the respondents, in the entire sample, 128 or 63% were males, while 76 or 37% were females. This similar distribution makes the two groups comparable.

Figure 1: Distribution of Respondents by Gender in Two Schools

![Figure 1: Distribution of Respondents by Gender in Two Schools](image)

Figure 2: Distribution of Respondents by Allocation to Experimental and Control Groups

![Figure 2: Distribution of Respondents by Allocation to Experimental and Control Groups](image)
The total number of socially acceptable answers is 74.55%. It means that all 51 items presented in the questionnaire were assessed by the majority of the respondents as socially an acceptable phenomenon or vice versa, depending on their positive or negative meaning.

**Figure 3**: Distribution of socially acceptable responses by questionnaire items

Cluster analysis was done for data obtained from the experiment. Based on pre-questionnaire items, seven main clusters were differentiated. They are: Human rights, environment protection, acceptance/tolerance/migration, civil activism, conflicts, education, and bullying. Each cluster was analyzed for the experimental as well as for the control group. The cluster analysis revealed that the majority of the respondents gave socially acceptable answers for each social issue presented in the questionnaire. For instance, the cluster “bullying” in the questionnaire was presented with variously formulated six different items, but the results showed that regardless the specific formulation of the items, 73.1% of the respondents consider the concept of bullying and harassment as not acceptable in society and have negative attitude towards it (Figure 4).

**Figure 4**: Distribution of socially acceptable responses to bullying
In the same category the differences between the responses by the respondents' gender was not revealed. To our surprise, the category of "Human rights" and the necessity of human rights defense received the lowest percentage of socially acceptable responses among all other above-mentioned categories. Only 62.5% of socially acceptable responses fell to this issue. 63.9% of respondents in the experimental and 61.1% of respondents in the control group stated the issue of human rights actual and expressed socially positive attitude towards it.

On the contrary to human rights issue, environment protection received the highest 95.0% of socially acceptable responses from all participants. The same high percentage of acceptable responses was revealed in the experimental group – 94.0% as well as in the control one – 96.0%.

The concept of acceptance/tolerance/migration was the second issue in regard with lower percentage of socially acceptable responses after human rights category. So that in total 66.6% socially acceptable responses was obtained on all items within the questionnaire. Socially acceptable responses were slightly higher in the experimental group 68.3% compared to similar responses of the control group – 64.8%.

The distribution of socially acceptable responses in the category "conflicts" looks so: 76.0% out of all answers 76.6% in the experimental group and 75.4% - in the control one.

Figure 4 below presents socially acceptable responses in the entire sample. 69.4% constitute socially acceptable answers. Here, the same slight difference revealed between responses in experimental group - 70, 9% and in control group – 68.0%.

**Figure 5:** Distribution of socially acceptable responses to education
Finally, the category of civil activism (figure 6) received the average position regarding with socially acceptable answers between all above mentioned categories. Thus, 88.5% goes to all socially acceptable responses. The experiment revealed 88.1% of socially acceptable responses in the experimental and 88.8 in the control group.

Figure 6: Distribution of socially acceptable responses to civil activism

CONCLUSION

To conclude, the survey has revealed that on the whole (74.55%) the participants give more or less socially acceptable answers. However, about a quarter of students are either uninformed and uncaring on some items, or have wrong viewpoints on them. This means that a problem exists and, to solve it, special management of the issue should be developed.

The next stage of our research involves applying video-recordings for the improvement of students’ values systems and then the assessment of how this more emotional and addressed to two channels (audial and visual) information will impact the students’ values, compared to the traditional (on-paper + lecturing way of teaching them.)
REFERENCES


Appendix

Questionnaire

Welcome,

You will have the possibility to see several documentaries about social and environmental issues. Before that, please fill out the following questionnaire. I would be grateful if you allocate your time and state your position in relation to the items below. The questionnaire is anonymous. Please answer all the items honestly.

Thank you!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>I am not sure</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bullying / violence among children is inevitable, no one can eliminate it</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Some religious teachings are difficult to understand, therefore, it is difficult for some people to accept them</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Even armed conflicts can be settled peacefully if conflicting parties have a desire / willingness</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Every citizen must respect ethnic and cultural values of representatives of different nations</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>I would not vote in favor of women's discrimination law in my country, because I do not think there are any discrimination acts against women in my country</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Immigrants do not pose a threat to the country</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Protection of environment is the obligation of every citizen and the state</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>For conflict resolution readiness of only one party is not enough</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Immigrants are full-fledged members of society in the country</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>We have to encourage other people to defend human rights and protect the environment</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>I can settle conflicts in a peaceful way</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Ridicule or rejection of someone for being different is bad / unacceptable</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>Recognition of human rights is one of the pillars of conflict resolution</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Children’s education should not be a state’s priority, because there are more pressing issues</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>I am going to act to protect nature / environment</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>The State should eliminate only some kinds of discrimination</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Discrimination facts on the basis of people’s visual differences or strange habits are quite common</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>I have never encountered bullying in my school</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>Children’s education should be limited to literacy</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>The state is not always obliged to provide access to complete basic education for all children</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>I believe people should think more on the importance of environmental issues</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>State / Government has the most important role in conflict management, regulation and resolution</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>If children are employed / working and it is their choice, it is a violation of their rights</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>Any conflict/ misunderstanding between people can be prevented if we accept that everyone has the right to be different from us</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>Anyone can change things in the environment</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>26</td>
<td>Conflicts can be settled in peaceful way</td>
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<td><strong>27</strong></td>
<td>Care and protection of human rights is the State’s obligation, not mine</td>
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<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td>I have witnessed the facts when people were polluting and / or treating badly the environment / nature</td>
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<td><strong>29</strong></td>
<td>The state is not obliged to adopt a law against discrimination, everyone can protect themselves to not become a victim of bullying</td>
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<td><strong>30</strong></td>
<td>Child labor is necessary for the State and society</td>
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<td><strong>31</strong></td>
<td>I can easily imagine an immigrant as my friend</td>
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<td><strong>32</strong></td>
<td>Victims of bullying can protect themselves from the abuser</td>
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<td><strong>33</strong></td>
<td>I am going to do something to improve conditions for vulnerable people in my society</td>
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<td><strong>34</strong></td>
<td>In our country, every child has access to quality education</td>
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<td><strong>35</strong></td>
<td>Only those immigrants who fully share our cultural values should be allowed to live in our country</td>
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<td><strong>36</strong></td>
<td>Government should take more active measures to protect the environment</td>
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<td><strong>37</strong></td>
<td>I have never heard of any human rights violations facts in my country</td>
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<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td>Conflict is not a problem, the problem is unresolved conflicts</td>
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<td><strong>39</strong></td>
<td>Children / adolescents can sometimes laugh at others if they are somehow different from others</td>
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<td><strong>40</strong></td>
<td>Even the smallest activity (e.g. cleaning activity, greening, etc.) to protect human rights and the environment is crucial</td>
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<td><strong>41</strong></td>
<td>There are environmental issues in my country</td>
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<td><strong>42</strong></td>
<td>I am able to care about and support the social and environmental / nature protection issues</td>
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<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td>Child’s right to education must be protected by his/her family, not by the State</td>
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<td><strong>44</strong></td>
<td>It is not necessary to be rich to change something in the society</td>
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<td><strong>45</strong></td>
<td>I have examples of people’s active civil involvement in social and environment protection matters</td>
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<td>Question</td>
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<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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<td>46 Excessively obese people are a laughingstock</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>47 Young people should be more actively involved in protection of human rights in our country</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>48 We must do more to protect the environment in our country</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>49 It is not necessary to pay much attention to human rights protection in the country because there are more important issues</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>50 The right to education is not one of the universal human rights</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>51 Young people should make more efforts to protect the nature/environment</td>
<td>☐</td>
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</table>

**Gender:** female / male *(Circle)* **Age:** 14 – 15, 16 – 17, 18 *(Circle)*

**Mother’s first name initial:** .....................

**Father’s first name initial:** .....................

**Your first name initial:** .....................

**Your birth date:** *(dd/mm/yy)* .....................
BOTTOM-UP APPROACH TO VOCABULARY TEACHING

Rana Abdulmajeed Saeed Almaroof
Alburaimi University College, OMAN
rana@buc.edu.om

ABSTRACT

This paper is an attempt to present the bottom-up approach to vocabulary teaching starting from the base form or the bottom of vocabulary teaching, which is the morphological aspects towards the top, which embraces the semantic and web-based strategies, to enrich the knowledge of a word. The approach is based upon systems that have inner circles. Unblocking the meaning of the new vocabulary demands the operation of these systems which work together in specific steps. Each system has inner circles that gradually add to the new vocabulary. Each system works on both morphological and semantic forms to enrich the lexical meaning of the word. The acquired meaning is then emphasized by using the web-based tools. The morphological system is the first step in the process of vocabulary development. The inner circles of the morphological system deal with vocabulary characteristics, affixation, transparency, and irregularities. The second is the semantic system which has the denotative and connotative meanings, semantic features, semantic relations and irregularities as its inner circles. The last system is the web-based system, as it depends on the tips, meaning and communication through the use of supportive web links. The aim of this study is to highlight on the importance of these systems in the process of vocabulary development in teaching, starting from the smallest structures of the language, which is the morpheme, and ending with the use of the vocabulary in appropriate contexts of the language.

Key words: Morphological circles, semantic circles, semantic features and web-based tools.

1. INTRODUCTION

Most recent research emphasizes the view that “direct instruction in vocabulary can increase vocabulary learning”. This direct instruction enhances both the “breadth of information” and “active processing” (McKeown & Beck, 2004). This fact, however, is ignored in most learning classes on the preference of teaching vocabulary implicitly through other skills. Vocabulary, thus, is not explicitly taught in most language classes and learners are supposed to “pick up” their new vocabulary without any guidance (Crookall & Oxford, 1990). In some cases, however, words that are chosen based on vocabulary tiers, should be taught explicitly.

Based on the previous assumption, vocabulary development should be taught on the basis of the bottom-up approach that works on different systems in the sense that it starts with lexis and ends with sentences or paragraphs. This approach starts with the base-form of the word and its affixation, which both form the essence of a word. The lexical meaning is later enriched through studying the meaning and the semantic relations that are associated with the selected words. All these systems are practically enhanced by using different web-based tools. The previously suggested approach can
supportively be used in increasing the number of vocabulary and developing learners’ present vocabulary. Therefore, this approach is based on three systems, which are:

1. The Morphological System.
2. The Semantic System.
3. The Web-based System.

All these systems work together to create a kind of a coherent system of learning to enhance the teaching process comprehensively. Each system has its internal circles that add more relative knowledge to increase the bank of data a learner may acquire in this process. The decontextualized words that are chosen based on word ties are selected first. Then the contextualized words are introduced through the Web-based system that enhances the study of words in reading passages or any other context.

METHODOLOGY

This paper is centered on developing a course for teaching vocabulary explicitly in terms of systems to a group of students who are supposed to be acquainted with a list of words that are classified according to their major. Beck, McKeown & Kucan (2004) classify words into three main tiers. The first tier requires a rare instructional attention. The second tier refers to a group of words that has a high degree utility for mature language users; these words are found across a variety of domain. The third tier has a set of words that has a low frequency of use. This group includes words that are taught for specific purposes. Thus, the course provides the language learners with an opportunity to make use of the three tiers with more emphasis on the last two tiers, as they handle both influential and relatively area-specific sets of vocabulary.

The importance of such a course lies in the fact that learners have a high level of awareness concerning the technique that is adopted to increase their total number of vocabulary words, whenever there is a need for that. The course is designed with specific goals as follows:

(a) Teaching vocabulary that helps the students in translating different types of texts.

(b) Teaching decontextualized vocabulary based on word-tiers. Then the contextualized words are picked up from web-based texts.

When the reading texts are used, the focus would be on the teaching of unfamiliar words which is prior to the reading task. Learners should preview reading materials to figure out which words are unfamiliar. Then these words should be defined and discussed. However, this procedure can be implemented by introducing words based on the level of complexity away from any reading task.

This approach is word-centered rather than learner-centered, because it gives a detailed description of words from different linguistic aspects through a number of stages till the words are fully integrated into the learner’s lexicon.

2. THE MORPHOLOGICAL SYSTEM

This system mainly starts with the root of a lexeme or a vocabulary word. Each root has different forms, reflecting its inflectional and derivational morphology. These forms can vary according to the context in which they occur (Lyons, 1981).
This system embraces two levels, which work jointly to add more data concerning a learner's knowledge of a specific word or lexeme. In such a case, a learner has to work at two different levels, namely, the depth and the breadth which form the most important morphological knowledge that has to be acquired.

2.1 The Breadth Level

Vocabulary breadth has generally been interpreted as the number of words that a learner knows. One of the updated views is to deal with the vocabulary breadth as the vocabulary size corresponding to the number of nodes and the increase of breadth nodes as the addition of new words (Meara, 2009). The morphological breadth or size can be increased by taking into consideration the following factors:

   a. Word- General Features or Characteristics.
   b. Word Affixation

The development of these features is dependent upon (a) the basic knowledge that a learner possessed, i.e., his or her present word knowledge and (b) the added dictionary based knowledge. The choice between known and unknown vocabulary words or totally new vocabulary words depends basically on the learner's knowledge and on the word tiers.

Knowing all these details of certain group of vocabulary helps the learner in establishing the inner circle in his or her process of vocabulary development. A learner may know, for instance, the word 'suppose', i.e., the basic knowledge, but he or she doesn't have the accumulated knowledge (dictionary-based knowledge) which is related to its other morphological formation. Accordingly, a learner may even be better acquainted with totally novel expressions that are derived or related to the concerned word. For example, a learner may know the word lady as a noun. His/her knowledge about this word will be enhanced when s/he becomes acquainted with different verb forms of the word such as lady Muck, ladybird, lady beautiful and ladyship.

2.2 The Depth Level

Vocabulary breadth refers to how well learners know the word. The depth level of the word is conceptualized in terms of bars. The longer the bar, the more depth the word has whereas the shorter the bar, the less depth it processes in the learners' knowledge (Meara, 2009). Based on Richards's (1976) views, word knowledge involves knowing the degree of probability of encountering a word in everyday speech or in print. Accordingly, the morphological breadth deals with the following factors:

   a. The notion of transparency.
   b. Example and Non-example Strategy.

Part of the breadth level is the study of the types of compounds in relation with the notion of transparency and non-transparency. This notion is related to compounding. Generally, compounds can be either transparent or opaque. Transparent compounds have meanings that can be deduced from the meaning of the constituents, whereas the non-transparent or opaque compounds are the opposite. Ullman (1962) discusses three types of transparent words. The morphologically transparent words are the most frequent ones. The meaning of these words can be determined from the meanings of their parts, such as 'doorman'. The second type includes words, whose sense can be understood from the sound form, such as 'bang,' 'snore' and 'crack'. The third type of transparent words are the semantically-motivated ones,
whose figurative meaning can be understood from their relation to the literal meaning, such as ‘coat of paint’. This factor sheds light not only on the related compounds, but also on the transparency aspect.

Accordingly, compounds are either classified as transparent words, i.e., words whose meanings can be derived from the meaning of its constituents, such as teaspoon, or opaque words, i.e., words, whose meanings are not related to its constituents, such as ‘butterfly’.

The last circle in this process is the use of Malamed’s (2014) example and non-example strategy. The strategy helps in grouping together ideas, events, and things that share the same features or characteristics. In this paper, this strategy is used to firstly help the student to use the word forms in complete sentences and secondly to discover what is not applicable to a specific word. This strategy shifts the learner to the outer circle, i.e., the practical knowledge rather than the theoretical knowledge. Practically speaking, this strategy tackles the non-availability of related word-classes. The word ‘lady’, for example, has no equivalent adjective or adverb form. This implies that this strategy focuses on the exceptional cases of a word.

3. THE SEMANTIC SYSTEM

Vocabulary can be taught semantically by concentrating on the semantic networks. To build the networks, links between words have to be found in terms of co-occurrence database. Each word in this network is connected to another word by a direct link (Beckage, Smith & Hills, 2011).

The network adopted in this study is based upon developing the semantic relations that help firstly in getting the right meaning of the word in L1 and secondly in getting related meanings. In this respect, Gairms and Redman (1986) propose various aspects that connect a lexical unit with others, including polysemy (distinguishing between the various meanings of a single word from several meanings which are closely related), homophony (understanding words that have the same pronunciation, but different spellings and meanings), synonymy (distinguishing between the different shades of meaning), and translation (awareness of certain differences and similarities between the native and foreign languages).
Building such a network requires three main stages. The first stage is the lexical association stage which connects L1 with L2. The meaning of the new vocabulary word can be understood from an existing semantic structure, which is part of L1. This stage emphasizes the use of translation in the process of association. The second stage is the lexical development in which translation plays a less important role. The word in this stage is linked to the conceptual representation. The third stage is the full integration in which the lexical knowledge is used with more idiomaticity. This stage incorporates all the previous morphological and lexical aspects (Jaing, 2004).

Within the framework adopted in this study, four basic semantic relations are created to implement the lexical approach of vocabulary teaching and the learner usually has to go through the previously suggested stages to trigger the meaning of the word. The semantic relations are to be built based on the following stages. The first stage deals with the acquisition of the basic meaning of the word or the new vocabulary through giving a related definition or other associated definitions. This would help in providing the basic connection between the new (for the learner) word and its meaning. The meaning of the word involves both the denotative and the connotative meanings.

The second stage is the lexical development of the ‘vocabulary word’ (lexical item) which starts when the students try to connect the new for them word with other related meanings to build a wider network of connections. This can be represented by adopting the ‘STAR MODEL’ reflecting different related meanings through the semantic relations of synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy and others. For example, a word like ‘candy’ can have a star relation with other words within the inner circle ‘synonymy’ as shown in the star model below.

![Star Model for Candy]

Synonymy relation is treated based on the binary distinction of denotation and connotation. Denotation refers to the relationship between a linguistic sign and its referent, whereas the connotation refers to the additional properties of a word, such as poetic, slang, baby language, formal language, etc. (Jackson & Amvela, 2007). Thus, the general meaning of the word ‘candy’ is a kind of sweet, but it has different usages which imply different meanings or additional properties. Working with other semantic relations, such as antonyms, implies that the learners are presented a group of words, to which a group of opposite meanings can be given. The adjective ‘active’ has two opposite adjectives which are ‘lazy’ and ‘sluggish’. A web relation or a STAR model can be created to represent this relation. This semantic relation represents the second inner circle.

![Star Model for Active]

The third stage is related to the full integration of the semantic features with a set of vocabulary words. The student has to make a list of the leftmost column of the grid for some features or characteristics that some of the elements might
have. The cells in the grid have to be filled with a ‘+’ sign in the grid, meaning that the word possesses that feature, or/and a ‘-’, when it lacks its features. The word ‘candy’ can be expressed in this feature analysis to illustrate the different related meanings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food</th>
<th>Sweet</th>
<th>Sour</th>
<th>colored</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Candy</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saga Game</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Name</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last stage is the use of examples and non-examples strategy. It has two main functions. The first one is to enhance the usage of the meanings in a context and the second is to discover what is not applicable to the new vocabulary words. This stage builds the last circle in the final outer circle. The word ‘active’, for instance, can be used to represent the applicability of meaning in certain context. The sentences ‘They are active people’ and ‘They were not involved in any type of active programs’ represent the correct usage of word-meaning in the context. On the contrary, the incorrect usage of the word-meaning in a specific context is represented in a sentence such as ‘They are working in a slow mood. They are active’. The word active should be replaced in a word with opposite meaning ‘Lazy’.

**Definitions**
- The meaning of a word in the dictionary.
- The associated meaning of a word.

**Semantic Features Analysis**
The grid is used to reflect some features or characteristics of the vocabulary. The cells in the grid are filled with:
- ‘+’ reflecting that the word has the feature.
- ‘-‘ reflecting the lack of this feature.

**Semantic Relations**
- Synonymy (denotation & connotation)
- Antonyms (the opposite meaning)
- Homophony (words that have the same pronunciation, but different spellings and meanings).
- Translation (awareness of certain differences and similarities).

* To state what is incorrect and non-applicable
4. THE WEB-BASED SYSTEM

Websites play an effective role in providing various strategies for vocabulary development. Websites are important for both the teacher and the learner. One of the famous and effective websites is called ‘Wordsift’. This website provides a real opportunity to assess the learning of new words through reading passages, images and games. Thompson et al (2012: 280–283) suggest the so-called ‘Wordsift’, which is ‘Vocabulary Development Tool’. ‘WordSift’ is a free tool, accessible to anyone at http://www.wordsift.com. When a user logs in, he or she can see a blank box, into in any chosen word can be pasted in any text. After clicking the button ‘Sift’, users are taken to a new page that presents a variety of interactive displays, which include a list of words in the text sifted by the user.

This program has been designed and based on the ‘Visual Thesaurus’, which is responsible for generating dictionary meaning and other related meanings. The Visual Thesaurus is interactive in that the definition pops up when the cursor scrolls over it. Other websites are also useful for teaching vocabulary. The following links present some vocabulary teaching websites for teachers. The following table includes the possible useful webs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Websites</th>
<th>links</th>
</tr>
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</table>

These websites offer vocabulary graphic organizers, vocabulary strategies, word play and vocabulary tips and hints. These links provide teachers with clear steps in introducing the new vocabulary with all the necessary templates and models. Another web-based system includes software that can enhance teaching and learning vocabulary, such as ‘Moodle’ and
'CALL'. Many researchers have proven that there is a considerable increase in the number of words that the students know after the application of the software in the process of teaching. Rezapour, Gorjian, & Pazhakh (2012) state that:

EFL learners can enhance their vocabulary development significantly through having enough exposure to web-based language learning... the participants of the experimental groups were so enthusiastic and motivated. It was more effective in embedding vocabulary into their long-term memory. (p.286)

According to this study, the use of the ‘Podcast’ and ‘Moodle’ approaches to teach vocabulary can help in conveying the meaning of the lexical items, especially when the instruction for vocabulary learning is given explicitly through the use of newly-developed approaches (ibid).

5. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Despite the fact that vocabulary cannot be learnt in isolation from the text, it is more influential to have a direct method in teaching vocabulary to a group of selected students within course-based goals. The implementation of various systems with inner circles can reinforce the learning of a word that ultimately becomes part of the basic knowledge and can be used later for translation or non-translation purposes.

The morphemic analysis is important in deconstructing words into their meaningful constituents. The morphemes, including roots, along with the affixations enhance the students’ knowledge of the word constituents (Antonacci & Callaghan, 2012:100). Thus, the starting point in learning a word should be the morphological system which paves the way to other related lexical meanings. The analysis of words in terms of examples and no-examples strategy along with use of the notion of transparency enables the learners to increase their knowledge at the breadth and depth levels. The second system is the semantic one, which digs deeper to promote a deeper knowledge of a word. Exploring the semantic relations helps to create semantic relations between a number of lexical units and other related words. According to Reutzel and Cooter (2008) the use of word maps in vocabulary teaching offers an opportunity to connect the basic knowledge with the new concepts and helps in categorizing the lexical meaning. The categorization process is emphasized through the semantic feature analysis which classifies the word according to different criteria. The last process is the web-based system which facilitates the use of visual tools to explore new vocabulary through reading texts. Relevant websites help in providing revision and a rich support for word learning "to promote active engagement among students, and to facilitate both direct and indirect vocabulary development" (Thompson et al., 2012:280-283).

6. CONCLUSION

Vocabulary teaching can be best acquired through the accumulation of knowledge for a specific lexicon through a course with specific goals and a targeted group. The amount of lexical meaning can be enriched by tackling different aspects of the same word morphologically, semantically and practically through web-based tools.

The present work is an attempt to provide a bottom-up method for teaching a group of decontextualized and contextualized vocabulary to a group of students by increasing the accumulated knowledge of words. Although there are different strategies on how to develop vocabulary, the present work does help to create a network of systems that works at different levels to form a comprehensive knowledge about the word in question.
The bottom-up approach of vocabulary teaching can be reinforced, as it goes through different circles to facilitate the teaching and learning of new vocabulary. When an instructor is conscious of the word, students then are better guided comprehensively both academically and in broader domains. Vocabulary development has a direct relation with word-consciousness.

REFERENCES


TRANSLATION AS A TYPE OF DISCOURSE AND THE IMPORTANCE OF CULTURE IN TRANSLATION

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ABSTRACT

The paper deals with the issue of pre-translation analysis. The topicality of the research is conditioned by the need to improve translation quality by gathering extra-linguistic and cultural information on the text. The degree of the closeness of translation to its source culture and the extent to which the meaning of its source text to be retained is very much determined by the purpose of the translation. The paper analyzes different approaches to the issue of pre-translation analysis, their strengths and weaknesses. The paper also defines the concepts of translation styles.

"Translation is a kind of activity which inevitably involves at least two languages and two cultural traditions" (Toury, 1978: 200). As this statement implies, translators are permanently faced with the problem of how to treat the cultural aspects implicit in a source text (ST) and of finding the most appropriate technique of successfully conveying these aspects in the target language (TL). These problems may vary in scope, depending on the cultural and linguistic gap between the two (or more) languages concerned (Nida, 2004).

The cultural implications for translation may take several forms ranging from lexical content and syntax to ideologies and the ways of life in a given culture. The translator also has to decide on the importance given to certain cultural aspects and to what extent it is necessary or desirable to translate them into the TL. The aims of the ST will also have implications for translation as well as the intended readership for both the ST and the target text (TT).

Considering the cultural implications for a translated text implies recognizing all of these problems and taking into account several possibilities before deciding on the solution which appears the most appropriate in each specific case. Before applying these methods to the chosen text, this essay will examine the importance of culture in translation through a literature review. The different general procedures of treating the cultural implications for translation will be examined as well as the ST and the aims of the author analyzed. The translation process will also be treated, using specific examples found in the ST before discussing the success of aforementioned theoretical methods applied to the TT.

The definition of "culture" as given in the Concise Oxford Dictionary varies from descriptions of the "Arts" to plant and bacteria cultivation and includes a wide range of intermediary aspects. More specifically concerned with language and translation, Newmark (1988: 94) defines culture as "the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression", thus acknowledging that each language group has its own culturally-specific features. He further clearly states that operationally he does "not regard language as a component or feature of culture" (ibid: 95) in direct opposition to the view taken by Vermeer (1989: 222) who states that "language is
part of a culture”. According to Newmark (1988: 66), Vermeer’s stance would imply the impossibility to translate whereas for the latter, translating the source language (SL) into a suitable form of the TL is part of the translator’s role in transcultural communication.

The notion of culture is essential to considering the implications for translation and, despite the differences in opinion as to whether language is part of culture or not, the two notions appear to be inseparable. Discussing the problems of correspondence in translation, Nida conveys an equal importance to both linguistic and cultural differences between the SL and the TL and concludes that “differences between cultures may cause more severe complications for the translator than do differences in language structure” (Nida, 2004, 130). It is further explained that parallels in culture often provide a common understanding despite significant formal shifts in the translation. The cultural implications for translation are thus of significant importance as well as lexical concerns.

Lotman’s theory states that “no language can exist unless it is steeped in the context of culture; and no culture can exist which does not have at its centre, the structure of natural language” (Lotman & Uspenski, 1978: 211-32). Bassnett-McGuire (1980: 13-14) underlines the importance of this double consideration when translating by stating that language is “the heart within the body of culture,” the survival of both aspects being interdependent. Linguistic notions of transferring meaning are seen as being only part of the translation process”; “a whole set of extra-linguistic criteria” must also be considered. As Bassnett-McGuire further points out, “the translator must tackle the SL text in such a way that the TL version will correspond to the SL version... To attempt to impose the value system of the SL culture onto the TL culture is dangerous ground” (Bassnett, McGuire 1980: 23). Thus, when translating, it is important to consider not only the lexical impact on the TL reader, but also the manner in which cultural aspects may be perceived and make translating decisions accordingly.

Translation services link one language to another by taking a careful consideration of the social groups involved, this is very difficult and can be done wrong if one is not careful. As cultures are increasingly brought into larger connection one with another, multicultural considerations are brought to tolerance to an ever-increasing degree. We are not just dealing with words written in a certain time, but with the aspect of the text as well.

In addition, the trans-coding process should be focused not merely on language transfer, but also - and most importantly - on cultural transposition. As an inevitable consequence of the previous statement, translators must be both bilingual and bicultural if not multicultural.

Language and Culture

The power of language to reflect culture and influence thinking was first proposed by the American linguist and anthropologist, Edward Sapir (1884–1939), and his student, Benjamin Whorf (1897–1941). The Sapir–Whorf hypothesis stated that the way we think and view the world is determined by our language (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2002; Crystal, 1987; Hayes, Ornstein, & Gage, 1987). Instances of cultural language differences are evidenced in that some languages have specific words for concepts, whereas other languages use several words to represent a specific concept. Cultural differences have also been noted in the ways in which language is used pragmatically. In American culture, new skills are typically taught and learned through verbal instruction (Slobin, 1979). In some cultures, new skills are learned through non-verbal observation. A distinction has also been made between cultures that encourage independent learning and those that encourage cooperative learning (McLeod, 1994).
During the 1970s and 1980s, educators and linguists researched and debated the verbal-deficit perspective. This perspective contended that anyone who did not use standard English did not know a valid language and thus was verbally deficient. Although the verbal-deficit perspective has now been proven invalid, it is important to understand the research that was conducted to either support or discredit that perspective. Bernstein (1971), Bereiter and Englemann (1966), and Labov & Sankoff (1979) were among the researchers who studied language differences between different social groups, including middle- and lower-income groups and ethnic groups. This body of research identified specific differences in the way children from different socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds used language at school and in out-of-school settings. Implications of this research have been widely discussed and interpreted in a variety of ways.

Language and culture may thus be seen as being closely related and both aspects must be considered for translation. When considering the translation of cultural words and notions, Newmark proposes two opposing methods: transference and componential analysis (Newmark, 1988: 96). As Newmark mentions, transference gives “local colour,” keeping cultural names and concepts. Although placing the emphasis on culture, meaningful to initiated readers, he claims this method may cause problems for the general readership and limit the comprehension of certain aspects. The importance of the translation process in communication leads Newmark to propose componential analysis, which he describes as being “the most accurate translation procedure, which excludes the culture and highlights the message” (Newmark, 1988: 96).

It is generally agreed that language and culture are closely related. Language can be viewed as a verbal expression of culture. It is used to maintain and convey culture and cultural ties. Language provides us with many of the categories we use for expression of our thoughts, so it is, therefore, natural to assume that our thinking is influenced by the language which we use. The values and customs in the country we grow up shape the way in which we think to a certain extent.

CONCLUSIONS

Finally, it can be concluded that theoretically a text which is embedded in its culture is both possible and impossible to translate into other languages. If practicality is considered first, then translation is possible. Whether the degree of its closeness to its source culture and the extent to which the meaning of its source text is retained is very much determined by the purpose of the translation. It is suggested that the translator should consider the procedures explained above to translate culturally-bound words or expressions.

A variety of different approaches have been examined in relation to the cultural implications for translation. It is necessary to examine these approaches, bearing in mind the inevitability of translation loss when the text is, as here, culture-bound. Considering the nature of the text and the similarities between the ideal ST and TT reader, an important aspect is to determine how much missing background information should be provided by the translator using these methods. It has been recognized that in order to preserve specific cultural references certain additions need to be brought to the TT. This implies that formal equivalence should not be sought as this is not justified when considering the expectations of the ideal TT reader. At the other end of Nida's scale, complete dynamic equivalence does not seem totally desirable either as cultural elements have been kept in order to preserve the original aim of the text.
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THE ROLE OF TRANSLATION IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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ABSTRACT
The paper highlights the role of translation activities in the English language learning. Comparison is made between the traditional Grammar-Translation Method and the Direct Method, the former implying teaching grammar rules and translating sentences between the source and target languages and the latter focusing on a more natural, Communicative Approach to language teaching. Arguments are given for and against translation and it is made clear that integration of translation activities into the language learning process has far more advantages than disadvantages notwithstanding the claims that they hinder the development of the basic skills (listening, reading, speaking and writing) and interfere with the process of learning. Particularly, translation activities are seen as a useful tool for the development of all four language skills and the qualities, such as flexibility, accuracy and clarity. The Communicative View is opposed by the Cognitive View that regards language learning as a cognitive process involving comparison between the formal and functional characteristics of the two languages, and develops the awareness of differences and similarities between the native and foreign language systems. This leads to the conscious (and not mechanical) learning appropriate for adult learners. The paper suggests criteria for translation activities and a list of such activities used in English learning programs (CEFR levels A2 and B1) at the St. Andrew the First-Called Georgian University of the Patriarchate of Georgia (SANGU); it also contains an analysis of the activities and the results of the survey completed by the students. It focuses on the role of translation activities in enhancing students’ knowledge of the source and target languages, enriching their English vocabulary, correcting grammatical, semantic, lexical and stylistic mistakes, and identifying the differences between the expressive means of source language (SL) and target language (TL), which is characteristic of cognitive learning.

Key words: translation activities, language learning, traditional method, communicative approach, language skills, cognitive view, source and target languages, cognitive learning

INTRODUCTION
As it is well-known, there have been different approaches regarding the use of translation in foreign language teaching. For many centuries, until the late nineteenth century, the traditional Grammar-Translation Method was an established tool in foreign language classrooms. This method derived from teaching of Greek and Latin, and lessons involved presentation of grammar rules and vocabulary, exemplified by a text in a foreign language, which the language learners had to translate into their mother tongue. It was also common practice to learn grammatical and lexical constructions by translating a great number of disconnected, artificially constructed sentences between the two languages. The language mainly spoken in the classroom was the students’ mother tongue and the knowledge they acquired was the knowledge about how the foreign language functioned rather than the actual knowledge of that language.
Later such uses of translation were severely criticized by the proponents of the so-called Reform Movement, suggesting a more “Natural” or Direct Method of language teaching. The followers of that movement emphasized the importance of spoken mode of the foreign language and called for minimizing or altogether eliminating the use of students’ mother tongue (L1) from the classroom. According to the Reformists, a foreign language had to be taught and studied in a natural environment and the focus had to be made on the activities promoting speaking. They viewed the co-presence of the mother tongue as an interference with the natural process of learning.

However, as reconciliation between the two methods, the Cognitive Approach to foreign language teaching and learning has suggested the rehabilitation of L1 in the classroom as a stepping stone to new knowledge, as new knowledge is generally built on the already existing knowledge and experience. The followers of that approach do not see why translation needs to be linked only to learning grammar rules, or why behaviorist perceptions of language learning put a ban on the use of students’ L1 and translation in the classroom. Instead, they consider language learning as a cognitive process involving “mental comparison between the formal and functional characteristics of native and foreign languages” (House, 2013, p. 63). Translation helps language learners to develop an awareness of differences and similarities between SL and TL systems through comparison of the two languages at the levels of words, sentences, text, etc. This leads them to the type of learning that can be called Cognitive Learning. Such an approach is more suitable for adult learners as with age people tend to find mechanical learning more difficult than young learners. Moreover, the process of translation encourages students to explore and experiment with language and in this way develops their creative and critical thinking (Gohil, 2013).

**THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

According to Alan Duff (1989), teachers and students now use translation to learn, rather than learning translation. This was his response to the suggestion by some scholars that translation not only does not hinder the development of the four basic language skills, but also should be considered “as a special fifth skill, to be used only after learners had acquired a superior knowledge of the foreign language” (House, 2013, p. 61). Critics of translation activities in language teaching viewed the co-presence of learners' mother tongue as unnatural for L2 learners, claiming that it would corrupt the use of the foreign language, which, in its turn, would affect their command of L1. According to them, translation interferes with successful language learning that implies thinking in the foreign language; it distracts students from establishing a direct connection between the foreign language and the extra-linguistic reality associated with that language and, instead, contributed to establishment of links between L1 and L2. A number of arguments were offered against the use of translation as a pedagogical tool. Listed below are some of the alleged disadvantages of translation summarized by Professor Kirsten Malmkjaer (1998, p.6):

1. Translation is independent and radically different from the four skills which define language competence: reading, writing, speaking and listening.
2. Translation takes up valuable time which could be used to teach these four skills.
3. Translation is unnatural.
4. Translation misleads and prevents students from thinking in the foreign language.
5. Translation is a bad test of language skills.
6. Translation produces interference.
7. Translation is only appropriate for training translators.

In response to the above statements I would like to bring some counterarguments, namely, the reasons why I think that translation activities are useful and play a significant role in foreign language teaching and learning.

1. To start from language competences, it should be remarked that even in the past, when the Grammar-Translation method was employed, translation activities used to contribute to the development of writing and speaking skills. Notwithstanding their completeness, originality and innovativeness, the modern English language textbooks drawn up according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages mainly contain exercises requiring to fill in the gaps or choose the correct answer out of two or more possibilities and only few tasks of writing letters or essays. In this regard translation activities, based on natural situations and specific grammar and lexical material, can be really useful. While doing oral translation activities, students cannot avoid using unfamiliar words and phrases, which they normally while fulfilling other oral activities, and in this way they will enrich their vocabulary and develop speaking skills. On the other hand, they are requested to talk to both the teacher and other learners, and through listening to both the lecturer and the students improve their listening skills. Before starting translating a text, it “should be read carefully and analyzed in detail to determine the contents in terms of what, how and why it is said” (Leonardi, 2009, p.143), which improves students’ reading comprehension and contributes to vocabulary development.

2. While the above-mentioned Direct Method implies learning in a natural monolingual environment, it should be noted that learning by this method requires a lot of oral practice. Banned from using their mother tongue, students have to participate in many different activities and do different kinds of exercises in order to understand the unfamiliar words and learn to use them in the right context. In this regard translation is less time-consuming, as it quickly provides exact or close equivalents of the unfamiliar words in students’ L1. Furthermore, although language learners are often able to do text comprehension exercises correctly, they still tend to misinterpret the meanings of particular words and phrases, which only becomes obvious through translation.

3. Translation is a real-life, natural activity, which is becoming more and more necessary with the ongoing process of globalization and the growing importance of online information. According to Duff (1989:6), “translation happens everywhere and all the time, so why not in the classroom?” Students translate in class for other students; interpret signs and notices in the environment; translate instructions, letters, recipes and other texts for friends and relatives. Moreover, they mentally translate ideas from their mother tongue into English and vice versa. In most cases they cannot help thinking in their mother tongue. Whether we encourage it or not, translation is a frequently used strategy for learners, so we should accept this and support them in developing this skill in the right way.

4. While the Grammar-Translation Method was claimed to mislead language learners into believing that there was one-to-one correspondence between L1 and L2, the more recent Cognitive Approach has succeeded in helping
them to identify the differences between the two languages at all levels and promoting the conscious process of learning, which is quite productive, especially for adult learners. Translation also teaches students to reach equivalence at the level of sense instead of separate words, and this practice, which can be called sense-for-sense translation, is certain to promote thinking in a foreign language.

5. Translation is one of the best ways of testing all four language skills as it reveals the mistakes that students would not make if they were given the freedom of formulating their ideas instead of translating the already existing texts. In the former case learners can use only those words and constructions they are sure of, while translation activities are more limiting – they require to produce English (in our case) versions of particular words, phrases or texts.

6. Translation does not interfere with learning a new language, just the opposite – the already existing knowledge provides a basis for acquiring new knowledge. As already mentioned before, the Cognitive Approach is more suitable for adult learners who “rely on what is already known as a stepping stone to new knowledge” (House, 2013, 63). In such a case language learning involves comparative analysis of how each language works and the awareness of the fact that there is no one-to-one correspondence in meaning between lexical items of L1 and L2. The Cognitive process of learning means the identification of the differences between source and target languages, namely, “different semantic volumes of words, changes of their meanings depending on how they combine with other words, special rules of word combination,” etc. (Panjikidze, 1988, p. 5).

7. According to Duff (1994), using translation activities can enhance the four skills and develop three qualities essential to all language learning: accuracy, clarity and flexibility. Duff’s (1998) statement about teachers and students using translation to learn, rather than to learn translation emphasizes that the purpose of translation activities is not to train professional translators, but to help learners acquire and strengthen their knowledge in the English language.

8. Besides, the use of translation activities in the classroom encourages language learners to consider such issues as translatability, which is associated with idiomatic expressions, metaphors, puns, humor, irony, cultural context, functional compensation and the need for sense-for-sense rather than word-for-word translation. This leads to the theory of dynamic or functional equivalence versus formal equivalence suggested by Eugene Nida, the famous 20th century American linguist and translation theorist. According to Nida (1996, p. 29) no two languages contain two words whose designative (denotative) and associative (connotative) meanings coincide, which suggests that “in a wider setting no two languages can ever fully represent the same reality, whether that reality be material, social, ecological or religious”. In the context of language learning, awareness of the above-mentioned doctrine is certain to help students to enrich their knowledge of both source and target languages, to understand the interaction of the two languages and the problems caused by their L1, to correct the mistakes they make, particularly in, L2, and move to higher order thinking. In a nutshell, the cognitive process of acknowledging differences in the expressive means of SL and TL seem to contribute to more successful learning of a new language and reinforcement of L1 knowledge.
DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

In the autumn term of 2015/2016 translation activities were introduced as one of the methods of teaching English (CEFR A2 and B1 levels) to several groups from the departments of Social Sciences, Humanities, Business and International Relations at St Andrew the First-Called Georgian University of the Patriarchate of Georgia. This was aimed at helping students to improve their knowledge of the English language. The experiment involved 70 students in the Bachelor’s Degree Programs who had English classes 8 hours a week. At the end of the term a survey was carried out in order to assess the results of the use of translation activities in the classroom and all the participants of the course were asked to complete a special questionnaire containing 5 questions – either yes/no or multiple choice ones (See Appendices 1 and 2). All the participants answered the questionnaires and returned the sheets. The obtained data were analyzed and summed up. The results of the students’ survey will be discussed below.

The course contained pre-translation, translation and post-translation activities. We decided that like other activities, e.g. reading, speaking etc. translation activities had to be preceded by a certain kind of preparatory or lead-in tasks. In our case these were lexical and grammatical exercises aimed at identifying the problematic for the students areas and correcting their mistakes. Apart from exercises, lists of the words (in English) that could be unfamiliar to students were handed out and students were asked to guess their meanings, or the words were provided in their mother tongue and they had to find their equivalents in the material for translation. Sometimes translation of sentences was used as a warm-up activity. Pre-translation tasks included brainstorming, discussion and other activities. With respect to selecting the materials for translation activities, the materials had to:

- serve specific purposes (improvement of knowledge in particular areas);
- be interesting for students (along with working on the texts selected by the teacher; learners were permitted to bring the material they wanted to translate, e.g., texts related to their major field of study);
- encourage discussion – allow students to compare and discuss their ideas with one another;
- stimulate creativity and elicit new ideas;
- contain translations by professionals (exemplary) or bad translations needing correction and their originals (for comparative analysis);
- ensure students’ equal involvement in tasks.

Students had to work individually, in pairs or groups independently from the teacher; they compared their results with others and discussed different possibilities; mistakes had to be corrected by the teacher later, when students presented their final versions.

The activities were followed by post-translation activities, such as revising, rewording, rewriting and assessing.

Below we offer a number of translation activities worked out, based on the above-listed criteria and aimed at developing the four language competences among the students, their awareness of the differences between L1 and L2 and promoting cognitive learning:
All students were given the same text for translation from English into Georgian, corresponding with their level of knowledge, and were asked to work in pairs or groups. After they had completed the task, they were regrouped and compared their translations with representatives of other pairs/groups, which led to discussion and further perfection of their work. The final versions were presented to the teacher who made necessary corrections and changes to the texts. Such an activity served the development of all language competences, particularly reading, writing and speaking skills, helped them to identify the differences between the expressive means of English and Georgian languages and to acknowledge that they could not use the word-to-word correspondence principle in translation. Through participation in discussions students gained more confidence when speaking English. In addition to that, as a result of self- and peer-correction of mistakes, and correction of their mistakes by the teacher they improved their knowledge of both SL and TL.

The students were asked to translate letters, both formal and informal, from English into Georgian and vice versa. They worked individually or in pairs. After group discussion of their translations and correction of mistakes they were given another task – to write similar letters in English. At the next stage their writings underwent necessary changes and were finalized. This activity was mainly designed to promote the learners’ reading and writing skills.

The language learners worked on translation of proverbs, idiomatic expressions and metaphors between the two languages individually, in pairs and in groups. This process was followed by the exchange and discussion of results. After that the students discussed culturally-conditioned differences with the teacher. Along with the development of all language competences, this activity promoted cognitive learning and enriched their vocabulary.

This task involved back translation of the texts translated by the students from English into Georgian, which they exchanged between themselves (individually, in pairs or groups). Later the back translations were compared with their originals and the differences were discussed. Such practice significantly contributed to the identification of differences between the expressive means of the SL and the TL, emphasized the contrast between the texts created by the learners of English influenced by their mother tongue and those written by native speakers, and helped the students to correct their mistakes and improve their knowledge of English.

The students were asked to translate short texts from English into Georgian or vice versa and were later exposed to the translations of the same texts by professionals selected by the teacher as exemplary. They carried out comparative analysis of both translations with the originals identifying, correcting their mistakes and gaining a better insight into the peculiarities of the SL and the TL. This activity proved especially useful for the development of writing competence and cognitive learning.

Copies of translation performed by a computer program were handed out to students, who were given the task to compare them with the original, find the faults and the mistakes and come up with their own versions. Naturally, the machine translation demonstrated inadequacy, as it had sought for word-for-word or one-to-one correspondence between the SL and the TL items and ignored polysemy, different semantic volumes of words, peculiarities of word order and word collocation in the two languages and other significant aspects. Consequently, the students became aware of the dangers like word-for-word translation, misinterpretation of
foreign words and the influence of the source language syntax on the translation, which helped them to deepen their knowledge of both languages and to apply the cognitive approach to learning.

As mentioned earlier, a survey was conducted to get feedback from students about the results of the sample. The survey consisted of five questions. The first question – “Do translation activities help you in learning English?” – had three possible answers: “yes”, “no” and “not sure”. 65 out of 70 students answered “yes” and the remaining five were not sure.

The next question involved multiple choice and students had to underline the language skills and areas – writing, speaking, reading, listening, grammar and vocabulary – that translation activities helped them to develop. They were allowed to choose more than one answer. As a result, 68 students marked “vocabulary”, 57 answered “writing”, 55 chose “grammar”, 35- “reading”, 38 - “speaking” and 29 - listening skills. Twenty-nine students marked all the skills and areas.

The third question – “Do you think translation is necessary in the classroom?” – required choosing “yes”, “no” and “not sure”. 50 students out of 70 found translation necessary, noting that it helped them to understand the learning material, 8 answered “no” and 12 were not sure.

To answer the fourth question students had to characterize translation activities as useful, interesting, difficult, boring or useless. More than one choice was allowed. As a result, 65 students found translation activities useful, 57 interesting, 45 difficult, 28 boring and none of respondents described them as useless (See Appendix 1, Table 1).

Finally, students were asked to number the activities – grammar exercises, written tasks, vocabulary, reading comprehensions, listening, and speaking exercises, also discussions and translation tasks – according to their usefulness. Number 1 meant the most useful and number 6 the least useful. Translation activities were assessed by the students in terms of their usefulness and were found as useful as most of other tasks and exercises: 5 students found them the most useful (number 1), 7 students considered them as the second most useful, 10 students placed them third, 14 students the fourth, 9 students the fifth, 8 students the sixth and also eight students placed them seventh (See Appendix 1, Table 2).

CONCLUSIONS

The use of translation as a teaching method has caused much controversy and still remains controversial among teachers, methods of teaching specialists and linguists. However, the present research has revealed its advantages and potential as a pedagogical tool. The feedback received from the students who participated in the sample course has demonstrated the usefulness and necessity of translation activities for learning English.

- Integration of interesting and creative translation activities in the routine classroom activities has led to development of all language competences – reading, writing, speaking and listening, along with grammar and vocabulary – among the language learners. It also helped the students develop three essential qualities: accuracy, clarity and flexibility.

- The introduction of translation in the process of teaching English offered the students a better insight into the structures, expressive means and cultural context of the source and target languages, helped them to deepen the knowledge of both languages, and promoted cognitive learning.
• Through exploring and experimenting with the foreign language, which is encouraged by creative translation activities, students can develop critical thinking. The techniques involved in such activities – group discussion, brainstorming, problem solving and group work – can give them access to higher order thinking.

• With the ongoing process of globalization, translation is becoming increasingly necessary as a natural, everyday activity performed formally or informally, depending on the situation. The role of translation is becoming more significant with the growth of communication and access to online information. Hence, since it is done always and everywhere and is part of human thinking process, its involvement in the process of teaching and learning seems quite natural and beneficial, provided it is used purposefully, moderately and creatively.

REFERENCES


APPENDIX 1

Table 1. Results Regarding the First Four Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Number of Students</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Possible Answers</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>1. Do translation activities help you in learning English?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>65</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>not sure</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Which language skills and areas do translation activities help to develop? (more than one answer allowed)</td>
<td>grammar</td>
<td>55</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>vocabulary</td>
<td>68</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>writing</td>
<td>57</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>speaking</td>
<td>38</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>reading</td>
<td>35</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>listening</td>
<td>29</td>
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<td>3. Do you think translation is necessary in the classroom?</td>
<td>yes</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>not sure</td>
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<td></td>
<td>4. Characterize translation activities (more than one answer possible)</td>
<td>useful</td>
<td>65</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>interesting</td>
<td>57</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>difficult</td>
<td>45</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>boring</td>
<td>28</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>useless</td>
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Table 2. Results Regarding the Fifth Question

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tasks and Exercises</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Number Chosen</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. Grammar exercises</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>12</td>
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<td><strong>6. Writing tasks</strong></td>
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<td><strong>7. Vocabulary exercises</strong></td>
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<td><strong>8. Reading comprehension exercises</strong></td>
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<td><strong>9. Listening exercises</strong></td>
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APPENDIX 2

Questionnaire

1. Do translation activities help you in learning English?
   a) Yes
   b) no
   c) not sure

2. Underline the language skills and areas translation activities helped you to develop (more than one answer allowed).
   a) grammar
   b) vocabulary
   c) writing
   d) speaking
   e) reading
   f) listening

3. Do you think translation is necessary in the classroom? Why (why not?)
   a) yes
b) no

c) not sure

4. Describe translation activities using the adjectives given below. Underline the appropriate adjective(s), (more than one answer allowed).

a) useful
b) interesting
c) difficult
d) boring
e) useless

5. Number the activities according to their usefulness. Circle the appropriate number (Number 1 means the most useful and number 6 the least useful).

a) grammar exercises
   1 2 3 4 5
b) writing tasks
   1 2 3 4 5
c) vocabulary exercises
   1 2 3 4 5
d) reading comprehension exercises
   1 2 3 4 5
e) listening exercises
   1 2 3 4 5
f) speaking exercises and discussion
   1 2 3 4 5
g) translation activities
   1 2 3 4 5
LITERARY TEXT TITLE AS A LINGUO-CULTURAL PHENOMENON

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ABSTRACT

Different aspects of titles have always been the subject of scholars’ interests. However, there are still some problems that require special attention. One of such issues concerns the revelation of their linguo-cultural essence that should be carried out via interdisciplinary and interparadigmatic research methodology. The novelty of our approach to the literary title lies in the fact that the title is a linguo-cultural phenomenon, which not only expresses the individual style and vision of the author, and reveals the conceptual nucleus of the text, but also characterizes the literary-cultural context of the epoch when it was created. In the paper it is assumed that: a) it should be studied in connection with the main text b) at the same time it is necessary to focus on its literary-cultural context within which the work has been created. The title is some kind of informative signal about the content of the text. Frequently, the reader makes a decision to get acquainted with the book only after reading its title, encompassing the essential, conceptual nucleus of the literary work it entitles in a most appealing way. It is concluded that diachronic comparative analysis of literary titles reveals the fact that their structural-semantic typological dynamics reflects the alternation of literary-cultural paradigms that are predetermined by the epochal changes of literary thought.

Key words: Literary title, paratext, author, context, linguo-cultural essence, reader.

INTRODUCTION

Within the framework of modern linguistic thought, scholars consider a literary text as a lingual sign of the highest rank, with the help of which the author verbalizes and reveals his/her aesthetic-communicative intention. In this respect, the phenomenon of the title is of a paramount importance, since it not only identifies a work, but also fulfils descriptive, connotative, organizing and other functions.

Different aspects of literary titles have always been the subject of academic interest of both literary critics and linguists. Despite this continued interest, there are some problems that require special attention. One of such issues concerns the revelation of the linguo-cultural essence of the title of a literary text that should be carried out with the help of interdisciplinary and interparadigmatic research methodology. We assume that linguo-cultural peculiarities of the title should be revealed both in relation to the text it entitles and in the context of the literary-cultural paradigm within the framework of which a literary work was created. We think that the study of the titles in these two directions will enable researchers to reveal their linguo-cultural essence in its multifaceted complexity. We also believe that the diachronic comparative analysis of literary titles will help us define their structural-semantic types, at the same time showing how
their evolution through the history reflects the alternation of literary-cultural paradigms that are predetermined by the epochal changes of literary thought. As far the author of this paper is aware, literary titles have not been studied from this angle so far.

**Theoretical basis of linguo-cultural study of literary titles**

The first attempt to analyze literary titles was made by Krzhizhanovsky during the 20-30-ies of the twentieth century (Krzhizhanovsky, 1931). The sign status of the title is controversial. Opinions differ as to whether the title should be defined as a constituent part of a literary text or as an independent, autonomous title containing the conceptual nucleus of a literary work in a compressed form. According to some scholars, once the title names the text identifying it, it should be defined as a representative of the whole work rather than as one of its semantic-compositional elements. From the linguistic viewpoint, the title is, first of all, a name of the text. In this respect, it can be compared with a proper name, identifying and differentiating a given text from other ones. However, the title is much more than a book’s name. Gerard Genette (1997), perhaps the best known of modern specialists on titles, suggests that as well as identifying a work, the title also fulfills descriptive, connotative and temptation roles.

Lingual units are analyzed with the help of the three-dimensional semiotic model, integrating the semantic, syntactic and pragmatic aspects of research, the title is considered as a specific aesthetic sign. From the semantic viewpoint, the title is regarded as a pre-text, representing the whole work in a compressed form. This assumption relies on the fact that the literary title is finally chosen by the author only after completing the process of writing the text, and presumably after serious consideration of the ways of presenting the main idea most effectively. Being chosen, the title constitutes a summarized, representative, and concise statement carrying the main ideological and thematic message of the text. That is why some scholars refer to it as a “thematic construction” (Gvozdev, 1977: 86).

The title is some kind of informative signal about the content of the text. Frequently, the reader makes a decision to get acquainted with the book only after reading its title, as the title encompasses the essential, conceptual nucleus of the literary work it entitles in a most appealing way. The famous dictionary compiled by Dal defines the title as the name of a literary work placed in a position prior to the text itself, either on the title-page or at the top of the first page, occupying an “introductory position” so that it would be read before the text (Dali, 1956: 17). In a wider sense, the title is the name of a book, a chapter or some constituent part of it, while in business correspondence it denotes the office location, the sender’s or the receiver’s name. In his dictionary, Ozhegov defines the title as the name of a literary or music work encompassing the overall meaning of the work it entitles (Ozhegov, 1967: 11).

Opinions differ concerning the syntactic peculiarities of literary titles. According to Ronginsky, the title, however limited it might be in its verbal representation, is always characterised by some kind of completeness which it acquires in relation to the text. Therefore, the title should be considered as a sentence and consequently its structural typology should be carried out via the syntactic approach to lingual units (Ronginsky, 1977: 183). Another scholar, Bogorodsky (1969: 155), claims that the title is most frequently represented by a nominalized syntactic transform of a sentence, which contains the conceptual nucleus of the text in a compressed way.
From the pragmatic viewpoint, the title should be considered via intersubjectivity and interactionality. On the one hand, the title can be regarded as a kind of a reference point, a guideline, which explicitly or implicitly serves as a manifestation of the author’s aesthetic-communicative intention, his/her subjective modality and communicative strategy. On the other hand, the literary title fulfills numerous functions, such as informative, rhetorical, summarizing, provocative, and so on. One of the major functions of the literary title is “focusing,” which implies selecting from among the main elements of the core content one theme to stand as the leading one of the work. Therefore, a focusing title suggests which of the contending themes should be given a central place in interpreting the work and organizing one’s appreciation of it. In this way, the author prepares the reader for the aesthetic perception of the text. Thus, it is possible to conclude that the literary title possesses all the necessary features of a verbal sign in its semantic, syntactic and pragmatic dimensions.

Despite the continued interests of different scholars, both linguists and literary critics, the problem concerning the semiotic status of the title and its position in the hierarchical system of lingual signs remains controversial. Within the framework of the 20-th century systemic-semiotic paradigm of linguistic thought, the semiotic understanding of the language system and its evolution have developed in two main directions. On the one hand, it concerned the pragmatization of verbal signs that necessitated the study of lingual units in relation to the reality in which they are utilized (that is, in the context of speech act and communicants). On the other hand, lingual units themselves have undergone semiotic evolution from the word as an elementary designating unit in the hierarchy of language system to the text as a full sign of the highest rank, capable of performing communication.

In linguistic literature and literary criticism the title is considered either as a constituent part of a text or as an independent text. In modern textual theory, titles are classified as an element of what Gérard Genette (1997) has termed the text’s ‘paratext’. Genette argues in his seminal Seuils (the title in translation is Paratexts: Thresholds of Interpretation) that texts are ‘rarely presented in an unadorned state, unreinforced and unaccompanied by a certain number of verbal or other productions, such as an author’s name, a title, a preface, illustrations’. According to Genette, we do not always know whether these productions are to be regarded as belonging to the text, in any case they surround it and extend it, precisely in order to present it, in the usual sense of the verb but also in the strongest sense: to make present, to ensure the text’s presence in the world’ (Genette 1997: 79). Therefore, the paratext transforms the text into a book so that it can be received and read as such. The title, then, as a paratextual element, is both inside and outside the text, that is, both part of a text and an independent text itself.

Some scholars think that the title is embedded in a literary work as one of its compositional-structural elements, which can be reviewed alongside with other textual segments, such as an introduction, the main bulk of the text it entitles and a conclusion. Others consider that the title stands above the text’s spatial and temporal dimensions, thus encompassing the whole literary work. This assumption is predetermined by the fact that the title is not included in the linear development of the text.

Opinions differ according to the perspective the literary title is analyzed from. If the title is analyzed from the reader’s viewpoint, it can be considered as a part of the text, while for the author the title is as independent as the text it represents. This assumption can be substantiated by the fact that the literary title is eventually chosen by the author only after completing the process of writing the text. The literary title is generally a concentration and focusing of the author’s
system of intentions. It is thus a kind of a subtext that encompasses the overall meaning of the text by various means of title design. This encompassing by the literary title is multi-directional. As the literary title can encompass central themes appearing in the body of the text, the text may also encompass the title, and the reader may discern title elements scattered throughout it.

Thus, the linguo-semiotic status of the title is controversial. A critical review of linguistic literature and literary studies on this problem has enabled the author of this paper to single out some general standpoints according to which: a) the title is considered as one of the components of the text it entitles; b) the title is regarded as a paraphrased version of the text; that is, the title equals the text it represents; c) the title is a text itself; d) the title is more than a text, it is superior.

However, none of these statements gives a linguistically adequate definition of the title. The author of the paper assumes that they should be considered as those essential features of the title the set of which forms its invariant, inner form that should serve as a basis for working out a relevant definition of this phenomenon.

Linguo-semiotic status of the title of a literary text

It is necessary to make the definition of the text more precise, as it is a dominant concept in the study of the title. In modern linguistics there are two major methodologies of defining the text: structural and functional. From the structuralist viewpoint, text can be defined as a sequence of thematically interrelated sentences that forms a meaningful whole. According to this definition, the lower border of the text is restricted as it implies a sequence of at least two sentences. However, the structural definition leaves the upper border of the text open, because of the varying range of its theme (Kirvalidze, 2008: 14). From the functionalist methodology, the main criterion for the text definition is not a quantitative criterion, it is the potential of a lingual unit to perform communication. Accordingly, a verbal unit of any length, be it a sequence of thematically interrelated sentences, one simple sentence or even a single word, can be defined as a text if it performs the communicative function.

If we apply functional methodology of linguistic analysis to the title, and at the same time, take into consideration its main features discussed above, then the title can be defined as specific type of a text – a pre-text or a fore-text, encompassing in a compressed form the conceptual nucleus of a literary work or its aesthetic evaluation, which can unfold and expand simultaneously with the main bulk of the text located beneath it. Due to its prior position, the title acts as an organizing dominant of the text, structuring it semantically and compositionally in such a way that brings the main ideas and emotions of the work into focus. In other words, the title functions as an aesthetic-semiotic unit designating the informative kernel of a literary work or its evaluation in a most compressed way. Therefore, the title acquires functional-semantic completeness to some degree, that makes it a pre-text/fore-text or a ‘paratext’ (in Genette’s terminology), possessing its own communicative perspective.

The novelty of our approach to the literary title lies in the fact that we consider it as a linguo-cultural phenomenon which should be studied both in relation to the work it entitles and in the context of the literary-cultural paradigm within which the work was created. Our analysis of the British literature of the XVII-XVIII centuries has shown that their titles were mostly represented by anthroponyms without any modifying epithets. For instance, “Roxana” (D. Defoe), “Sir Charles Grandison” (S. Richardson), “Amelia” (H. Fielding) and so on. Consequently, such titles were neutral, as they only identified a certain
person as a subject matter of the literary text without expressing the author’s subjective-evaluative modality, i.e. the way he/she sees its aesthetic-literary content. Anthroponymic titles were still retained in the XIX century. For instance, "Ivanhoe" (W. Scott), "Emma" (J. Austen), "Jane Eyre" (Ch. Bronte), "Oliver Twist" (Ch. Dickens), etc. At the same time, there appeared titles that already contained information about profession, origin, social status or some other important aspects of the main character, such as: "The Kidnapped" (R. L. Stevenson), "The Professor" (Ch. Bronte), “The Mayor of Casterbridge” (T. Hardy), "The Bride of Lammermoor" (W. Scott), "Jude the Obscure" (T. Hardy), “Our Mutual Friend" (Ch. Dickens), "A Woman of No Importance", “An Ideal Husband”, “The Devoted Friend”, “The Selfish Giant” (O. Wilde) and so on.

The XX century titles also contain words denoting main characters. It should be noted, that the personages of the XX-century fictional writing are not as ‘ideal’ as the characters of the previous centuries, since the titles are often represented by the lexemes with negative connotative meaning, such as: "One Fat Englishman" (K. Amis), "The Man of Property" (J. Galsworthy), "The Black Prince" (I. Murdoch), "Lady Chatterley's Lover", “The Trespasser” (D. H. Lawrence). This can be explained by the socio-cultural and political situation of the epoch – the two world wars and great economic changes in England have found their manifestation in literary thought, respectively, in fictional titles. However, it does not mean that the XX-century literary titles bear only negative connotations. There are a lot of appealing titles with positive connotations, such as: "The Unconquered" (W.S. Maugham), "The Loved One" (E. Waugh), “A Word Child” (I. Murdoch), “The Wonder Hero” (J. B. Priestley) and so on.

Among the XIX-XX-century titles there are some that identify the location where the events described in the text take place. Such titles are represented by proper names designating: a region or an estate − “Crome Yellow” (A. Huxley), “Mansfield Park” (J. Austen); a street − “Angel Pavement” (J.B. Priestley); a house − ”The Old Curiosity Shop”, “Bleak House” (Ch. Dickens), “The Country House” (J. Galsworthy); real or fictional world − “El Dorado”, “Treasure Island” (R.S. Stevenson), “The Island Pharisees” (J. Galsworthy), etc.

It is important for the author to bring into focus the place of the textual world which frequently acquires a symbolic meaning of the main theme of a literary work. For instance, Ch. Dickens’s "Bleak House" is a symbolic title designating the style of life of the XIX-century England. Sometimes authors are disposed to describe the society they live in and express their own critical attitude to the existing social-political system with its accompanying customs and traditions. We find such criticism in W. Thackeray’s “Vanity Fair”. The book's title comes from John Bunyan's story “The Pilgrim's Progress”, first published in 1678 and still widely read at the time of Thackeray’s novel. In that work, “Vanity Fair” refers to a stop along the pilgrim’s route: a never-ending fair held in a town called Vanity, which is meant to represent man’s sinful attachment to worldly things. In his novel Thackeray satirizes the English society, which is characterized by hypocrisy and opportunism, greed, idleness and snobbery. Therefore, “Vanity Fair” is a symbolic generalization of England of that period, where everything − even people and love − could be sold and bought.

Sometimes writers express their viewpoints allegorically placing and depicting their heroes in an imaginary world with symbolic meaning. J. Swift's “Gulliver's Travels” is a typical example of this. It serves as a biting satire of English society, and as Swift ensures, the book is both humorous and critical, constantly attacking British and European society through
its descriptions of imaginary countries. Another example of symbolic titles is “The Island of Pharisees” by which J. Galsworthy critically characterized his contemporary English society as self-righteous and hypocritical.

Titles with the temporal meaning are rare in English fictional writing. They are used to evaluate the events narrated in the text rather than to denote a definite period of time. Therefore, it is natural that such titles contain evaluative lexemes with both positive and negative connotations in an explicit or implicit form. For instance, “Hard Times” (Ch. Dickens), “When the Going Was Good” (E. Waugh), “Bright Day” (J. Priestley), “The Time of the Angels” (I. Murdoch), etc. They dispose readers to foresee the possible development of the plot of a literary work in terms of good or bad, thus preparing them to share the author’s aesthetic-communicative intention conveyed in the text.

In the XVII-XVIII centuries authors tried to stimulate readers’ interests by using long descriptive titles containing the plot of a literary work they represented. Such titles were characteristic of the novels of adventure genre, such as “The Life, Adventures and Piracies of The Famous Captain Singleton” (D. Defoe), “The Life and Strange Surprising Adventures of Robinson Crusoe, of York, Mariner” (D. Defoe), “A Journey Made in the Summer of 1794 through Holland and Western Frontier of Germany” (A. Radcliffe), “The Adventures of Roderick Random”, “The Expedition of Humphrey Clinker” (T. Smollett). Descriptive titles were rarely used in the XIX century. Authors of this period used neutral forms of the title which were less informative in regard to the plot and the theme of the text. Such titles are, for example, “The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde” (R.L. Stevenson), “The Posthumous Papers of the Pickwick Club”, “A Tale of Two Cities” (Ch. Dickens), “The Return of the Native”, “Two on a Tower” (T. Hardy). The only exception in the XIX-century titles were the titles of some of Thackeray’s novels in which the author retained a descriptive form of presenting the plot of a literary work. For instance, Thackeray’s novel “The Adventure of Philip” was originally known as “The Adventures of Philip on his Way through the World: Showing Who Robbed Him, Who Helped Him, and Who Passed Him By.” The titles of his other novels, such as “The history of Pendennis. His “Fortunates and Misfortunates”, “The Newcomers: Memories of a Most Respectable Family”, “The Virginians: A Tale of the Last Century” also resemble descriptive titles. It is not easy to convey the conceptual nucleus of a literary work in its title, yet some authors manage to do it masterfully. For instance, Jane Austen’s titles “Pride and Prejudice”, “Sense and Sensibility” and “Persuasion” serve as classic examples of the titles which represent the conceptual essence of the works they entitle in a simple, but most effective way via generalizing abstract nouns.

British writers of the XX century avoid using titles with concrete descriptions of textual events. They prefer the titles which inform readers only about the central event of the text: “The Flight from the Enchanter”, “A Fairly Honourable Defeat” (I. Murdoch), “They Walk in the City”, “Festival at Fairbridge” (J.B. Priestley), “Love Among the Ruins” (E. Waugh), etc. Characteristic of this epoch is the appearance of metaphorical and allusive symbolic titles that represent conceptual generalization of an aesthetic-literary content of a work. To this type of literary titles belong, for example, “The White Monkey,” “The Silver Spoon” (J. Galsworthy), “Under the Net”, “The Sandcastle”, “The Bell” (I. Murdoch), “Decline and Fall” (E. Waugh), “The Razor’s Edge” (W. S. Maugham), etc.

CONCLUSION

Thus, according to the above-said, we can conclude that two essential tendencies are noted in the art of entitlement which is connected to the epochal changes in literary thinking: a) verbal economy while forming titles and b) its pragmatization.
While using metaphors and symbols for titles, authors pass on a transformed and generalised picture of the story. Consequently, they express their aesthetic cognition, ideology and individual style in literary thinking.

In general, the presented paper shows that the title is a linguo-cultural phenomenon. Its evolution and typological variety is predetermined by the epochal changes in literary thinking and also by author’s aesthetic-communicative strategy, which is aimed at accumulating literary text’s conceptual essence in a title in the most effective and artistic way in order to encourage the reader’s interaction in aesthetic reception of the literary work.

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GENDER IN GEORGIAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

The paper analyses the problem of gender inequality at the secondary school level in Georgia. It is an effort to define the masculine and feminine stereotypes of Georgian society promoted in schools. The paper investigates whether these gender characteristics are represented in school curricula and textbooks or in the hidden curriculum. The paper concludes with possible solutions to the problem of gender inequality in schools. It is hoped that the paper will contribute to changing the attitudes of teachers towards male and female pupils, to differentiate traditional male and female roles, functions and actions from those of modern ones.

Key Words Gender Stereotypes; Gender Equity; Gender Inequality; School Curricula; Textbooks

INTRODUCTION

The issue of gender equality is not only the echo of contemporaneity in Georgia. In a limited form, but still the Old Ecclesiastic Georgian Law contained the notes about the equality and at the same time the differences between males and females. Gender equality became a subject of continuous dispute in the first decade of the 21st century between the government, NGO sector, church and society, and subsequently, on the 26th of March in 2010, the president of Georgia signed the law on “Gender Equality” which is relevant to the international judicial norms. In accordance with the Constitution of Georgia, the law recognizes the inevitability of the equality of men and women: “The State shall support and ensure equal rights of men and women in political, economic, social and cultural life” (The Law of Georgia on Gender Equality, 2010, article 4.1). Among other things, the law also guarantees without any discrimination the access to education and free choice of education at all stages of learning for women and men (ibid, article 4.2.b). However, how these norms are realized in practice is an entirely different matter. Everyday life abounds with examples of instances of gender separatism, or gender discrimination. This is done either out of habit and tradition, or due to opportunism. In either case, the result is the same – unequal treatment of the sexes in various spheres of life. As the social environment is a determining power in forming the gender roles (Berekashvili, 2012), this is where the reasons of gender inequality should be sought. Different factors can be identified in the Georgian society that strengthen gender stereotypes. For instance, a rational, powerful, and active character of a male and an irrational, weak, and passive character of a female are revealed. These stereotypes are strongly buttressed in most aspects of life in families, schools, universities, different communities and in general in the whole society.
The paper will be an attempt to describe and analyse the problem of gender inequality at the secondary school level. Gender inequality became a common subject of research in modern scientific works and academic papers dedicated to gender stereotypes in the educational setting; most notably, in the way Georgian school textbooks are written as well as in different attitudes of teachers towards the sexes. Besides the curricular aspects, certain extracurricular features also play a role in forming gender stereotypes. Moreover, the hidden curriculum is worth mentioning among the reasons that cause gender inequality firstly at schools and later on in the whole society.

The paper’s central objectives are as follows:

- To provide statistics of gender at the level of the Secondary Education (teaching staff and schoolchildren).
- To define the masculine and feminine stereotypes of Georgian society promoted in schools through the hidden curriculum.
- To investigate how these gender characteristics are represented in school curricula and textbooks.
- To suggest possible solutions to the problem of gender inequality in schools.

It is hoped that the paper will contribute to changing the attitudes of teachers towards male and female pupils, to differentiate traditional male and female roles, functions and actions from those of modern ones. It will also support the idea of revising secondary school curricula and textbooks. Change cannot be achieved without raising the awareness of gender issues among the society members; that is why certain trainings and workshops might be recommended in order to change the mentality in terms of gender stereotypical attitudes of the teaching staff and the parents.

The article is structured in the following way. Firstly, the statistics data are described. Next, the masculine and feminine stereotypes promoted at secondary education level are defined. Then, the analysis of the school curricula and textbooks is given. The article concludes with recommendations as how to solve the gender inequality problem at schools as well as in the whole society.

**Statistics of Gender at Secondary Education Level**

The tables below show the ratio of schoolchildren and teachers in both sexes at secondary education level. According to the National Statistics Office of Georgia, the ratio of boys slightly exceeded that of girls in 2011/2012, 2012/2013 and 2013/2014 school years. The data is given in Table 1.1.

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<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>300,000</td>
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<td>300,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>290,000</td>
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On the other hand, the majority of the teaching staff are females (Table 1.2). This huge difference among male and female teachers promotes stereotypical views on the profession of a teacher itself. Furthermore, as we can learn from the following chapter, this domination favours gender stereotypes quite strongly.

![Table 1.2 Statistics of Teaching Staff in Secondary Schools](image)


**Masculine and feminine stereotypes of Georgian society promoted in schools**

Psychologists and scientists divide gender stereotypes in various types, such as: self-stereotyping, school stereotyping and family or culture stereotyping. It would be hard to find the border between the norms and the stereotypes of gender, since it depends on the nation and its cultural heritage.

In 2014 Training and Research Group financially supported by Women’s Fund in Gender conducted a research on the teachers’ knowledge and attitudes about gender equality (Women’s Fund in Georgia, 2014). The aim of the research was to learn how the teaching staff of the schools is informed about the gender issues and what kind of attitudes and skills the teachers possess in order to increase female students’ participation in the social life. In spite of the fact that the respondent teachers had attended trainings on the professional skills of the teachers, the teaching and development theories or the inclusive education, and even some of them were certified teachers, the majority of the teachers has a resisting attitude towards gender equality; moreover, they tend to admit that male students are superior to female students with their brain and abilities (Women’s Fund in Georgia, 2014, p. 36). Thus, it can be admitted that the teachers encourage certain masculine and feminine stereotypes of Georgian society in schools. According to the findings of the research, the teachers’ knowledge about gender is not objective, furthermore, they rely on traditional and stereotypic arguments rather than theories and research findings. Georgian teachers maintain that gender equality in Georgia is settled not by the laws, but by the opinions spread in the society Women’s Fund in Georgia, 2014, p.11).

The teachers believe that the most important aspects for a female life seem to be family and maternity rather than career, while the males are the ones who should maintain their families: “The most important thing for a woman is a child, a childless woman looks like an abandoned and collapsed house” Women’s Fund in Georgia, 2014, p. 21). The teachers also
consider that gender equality can endanger the national identity of Georgians, as it resists Georgian cultural and religious ideas: “Traditions saved Georgia, there are a few legends about women and mothers, and, therefore, we have to think over whether we want to reject these traditions or not” (Women’s Fund in Georgia, 2014, p. 18). As long as the teachers’ opinions are conservative, they admit the dominance of a male in career and family, even more, a man has to be important in social and political activities.

As for subjects, the teachers delivering humanities try to show their female pupils the caring and virtuous image of a woman, while explaining the material. The teachers of sciences theoretically presume that boys generally have better skills in learning technical subjects, which can be connected to the larger size of their brains. “Men are stronger in sciences. Of course, there are women scientists as well, but their number is quite low and it also depends on the sphere of the brain. Men are successful right from the brain” (Isakadze & Gvinashvili, 2012, p. 20). This stereotype is quite strong in the USA as well. According to Cvencek et al. (2011), girls’ confidence in their math skills is lower because of the stereotype that girls fail at math.

What is more, Georgian teachers think that the school does not influence the formation of gender stereotypes. In general, they consider that gender equality is a minor issue for Georgia, as Georgian culture and history is full of feminine heroism (Khomeriki, Javakhishvili, & Abramishvili, 2012).

According to Berekashvili (Berekashvili, 2011), Georgian teachers tend to differentiate students on the basis of sex and approve gender stereotypical characteristics. Gender stereotypes have a substantial influence over the teachers’ methods of punishing and encouraging both sexes. Teachers also give priority to boys concerning learning skills that require higher-level cognitive operations. They also associate school subjects with different genders, for instance, boys are more skillful in maths, natural sciences and sport, girls, on the other hand, in humanities and arts. On the whole, however, Georgian teachers do not even acknowledge having the gender.

It should be taken into account, that the community where the teachers have developed such stereotypical ideology is the same way stereotypical. According to Narahara (1998), stereotypes and sexism limit the potential growth and development. Therefore, if Georgian society does not challenge these stereotypes, it will be too hard to gain the western values. Teachers can play the most important role in this transforming process, but, as Dawn Lo (2015) admits, “teacher’s philosophy of education greatly influences his or her actions which can either reproduce or challenge dominant gender stereotypes”. This is because “teachers have a key role to play, if we are to achieve social justice and social transformation for both men and women. However, this role will not be realized until society and educational stakeholders openly seek to identify and debate the influences that contribute to a gendered education system. Moreover, a tolerance and acceptance of different practices of femininity and masculinity should be a central concern of schools committed to gender equity” (Cushman, 2010, p. 1218). Thus, as teachers are moral educators, it is their duty to foster equity in classrooms and schools, later it will reach broader communities and finally the whole society (Lo, 2015). In order to challenge gender stigmas that are fundamentally rooted in Georgian society, we need teachers who are ‘publicly minded’ and not ‘privately focused’ (Forsey, 2010).
Gender Characteristics Represented in School Curricula and Textbooks

In 1994 on September 22 Georgian Parliament ratified the Convention of the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. The Convention states: “The elimination of any stereotyped concept of the roles of men and women at all levels and in all forms of education [...] by the revision of textbooks and school programmes and the adaptation of teaching methods” (Convention of the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, 1994). Later the National Action Plan was developed that showed the necessity of making the gender analysis of school textbooks. In 2012 the Center for Civil Integration and Inter-Ethnic Relations (CCIIR) within the project “Supporting Multilingual Education Reform in Georgia” conducted the research “the Issue of Gender Equity while Teaching Social Sciences”. (Khomeriki, Javakhishvili, & Abramishvili, 2012) The aim of the research was to make the gender analysis of textbooks (History and Civic Education) through which it would be found out whether these textbooks contained gender equity issues at all and if they were balanced according to gender equity, if these textbooks strengthened the positive attitude towards gender equity, if there were any gender stereotypes and consequently, to produce recommendations for the solution of any discovered problem. (Khomeriki, Javakhishvili, & Abramishvili, 2012)

According to the findings of the above-mentioned research, gender discrimination is seen in both quantitative and qualitative analysis (Khomeriki, Javakhishvili, & Abramishvili, 2012):

a) The female sex representation in the analyzed textbooks is much less than the male.
b) The qualitative analysis proves that the textbooks, especially of history, contain quite strong gender stereotypes.
c) The textbooks do not promote the development of the idea of gender equity.
d) The textbooks cannot provide the changes of social and cultural models that support the inferiority of female sex and the advantage of the male.

Fortunately, it is not the problem that refers only to Georgia and to Georgian education system. This issue has been the subject of research in different countries for years. As Lo (2015) states, ‘one factor that perpetrates gender norms to students is gender bias in textbooks’. According to Blumberg’s study of Canadian textbooks, women are underrepresented in text as well as in illustrations, and if they appear, they have stereotypical household or occupational roles. In general, females’ characters are accommodating, nurturing and passive, while males bear impressive and noble features. (Blumberg, 2008)

CONCLUSION

As we see, this problem of gender stratification and roles bothers many countries. Georgian curriculum and textbooks have to be ameliorated in this regard as well. In order to fundamentally change the attitudes towards the issue of gender equity, it is important to awaken the gender sensitivity among schoolchildren and to develop the abilities how to make gender analysis during studies. To achieve this result, the issue of gender equity should be paid more attention to in National Curriculum, especially while developing new textbooks, gender parameters and all the requirements about gender equity should be taken into account by the authors. In addition, the Ministry of Education and Science should provide certain trainings and workshops as a non-stop project for the teaching staff. Finally, it is essential to conduct yearly research in order to find out whether any success was achieved concerning the challenges against gender stereotypes.
In conclusion, the recommendations for solving the problem of gender inequality nationwide, the Ministry of Education and Science should start on the level of secondary schools by preparing the teaching staff how to solve the above-mentioned problems, how to diminish discrimination among male and female students, how to fight against their own stereotypes and bias and, most importantly, more male teachers should be recruited in schools. Psychologists together with curriculum developers and educators should work on the stigmatized social groups and help to promote non-traditional gender roles (e.g. a boy cleaning the classroom). Teachers have to inspire their students to think critically about gender stereotypes and their effects on society and work with them how to destabilize these stereotypes. Conducting annual researches with participation of both students and teachers to see if the attitudes towards gender stereotypes and gender equity have changed.

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FRAME NETWORK CONFIGURATION OF “TIME” IN MODERN ENGLISH AND GEORGIAN LANGUAGES, FRAME “MOMENT”

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of the paper is finding similarities and differences between the English and Georgian languages. It is achieved by frame representation of the concept “time”, elements wanted for concept representation in the language and identification of nominative fields’ characteristics of frame word-representations. It was revealed that frame network of the “time” consists of such kind of constructions as: “Duration of Time”, “Moment”, “Cyclic structural organization of time” and “Linear structural organization of time”. The lexicalization of the frame happens with such kind of phraseological units, which bring together the following common semantic denominators: “Timely”/“Untimely”, “Suddenly”, “Early”/“Late” and “Now”/“After”. It has been shown that both cultures have a negative connotation of “Untimely” and “Suddenly”. The research gives examples in the Georgian and English languages and after analyzing time phrases it concludes that:

- Similarities between languages and their cultures is emphasized by conceptual analysis, on the data level derived from frame’s modeling, which confirms conceptual analysis centralization on Antropocentrism, not on Ethnocentrism in terms of universal categories;
- Differences between languages and their cultures is emphasized by semantic analysis on the data level derived from the semantic analysis, which confirms the informative nature of semantic analysis and explores principles for the study of specific character of the nation’s disposition; even for the universal categories.

Key Words: Concept, Time, Phrase

INTRODUCTION
Anthropocentrism has become one of the most important directions of linguistic research in the XX-XXI centuries. Anthropocentrism paradigm, within the framework of the studies, is focused on various methods of getting information, encoding, storage and transmission problems. The study, concentrated on vector spaces, requires to integrate different thinking spaces, which gives the opportunity to humanize the scientific thought.

According to Anthropocentrism, human is realized to be the centre of the universe and current events. According to the principles of Anthropocentrism, during the language usage process, human can “appropriate” the language, as far as the language has objectivity, whose existence can only be in “subjective depths”.
Despite the diversity of opinions about Anthropocentrism, one thing is clear - the vector of linguistics, the development paradigm has changed during the last decade. According to it, human is the creator of the language and is simultaneously created by it. Such kind of change can be considered as "Anthropocentrism Shift". Characteristic of the last decades of the XX century presents such direction of philological thinking which implies to the language as holistic access of the essence of the anthropological phenomenon.

Research of phraseology, according to the Anthropocentrism principle "human in the language ", has launched the new direction - Anthropocentrism Phraseology, which aims to analyze the relation between the phraseological units of linguistic and extra-linguistic meanings. The concentration on the following issue will provide a possibility of a deeper study of phraseological units; because only one part of the information is coded in phraseological units' meaning, the other part is stored in the human psyche in the form of extra nature semantic icons.

The purpose of the research is finding similarities and differences between the English and Georgian languages. It is achieved by frame representation of the concept "time ", elements wanted for concept representation in the language and identification of nominative fields’ characteristics of frame word-representations.

The novelty of the research is identifying similarities and differences in the modern English and Georgian languages, from Anthropocentrism, namely, linguo-cognitive and linguo-cultural perspectives of the concept "time".

The theoretical value of the work lies in the following facts:

- The work deals with the analysis of phraseological objectivator, within the perspectives of Anthropocentrism and Axiology.
- The conceptual and semantic analysis methods have been synthesized, which provides a multidimensional nature of descriptive fullness of one of the fragments - "time " in the English and Georgian languages' consciousness.
- The criteria for "time " frame network's analogy/contrast in the modern English and Georgian languages is valid for determining similarities / differences of the languages according to the required criteria.

The research methodology is derived from expansionism which implies an interdisciplinary approach, in this particular case, the survey is carried out on the basis of data analysis of linguistics, cultural linguistics, philosophy and anthropology. Poly-paradigmatic research methodology is also used.

Empirical material of this dissertation presents some phraseological units of "Time " in modern English and Georgian languages. The material was obtained by the analysis of bilingual and explanatory dictionaries.

It was revealed that frame network of the "time" consists of such kind of constructions as: "Duration of Time", "Moment", "Cyclic structural organization of time" and "Linear structural organization of time".
Lexicalization of the frame “Moment” happens with such kind of phraseological units, which bring together the following common semantic denominators: “Timely”/“Untimely”, “Suddenly”, “Early”/“Late” and “Now”/“After”.

Georgia belongs to the countries having *polychronic* culture. This culture is focused on establishing relations. Thus, „doing something on time” in Georgian culture, compared to English culture, is not established as the necessary condition to do something properly. Nevertheless, “timeliness” in both languages has a positive connotation. The difference between the languages is only quantitative – more phraseological units dealing with “timeliness” can be found in the English than in the Georgian language.

For example:

- “strike while the iron is hot” – „dahkak sanam rkina tskhelia“ (დახაკარ, სანამ რქინა ცხელია);
- “make hay while the sun shines” – „tiva manam tibe, vidre mze kashkashebs“ (თივა მანამ თიბე, ვიდრე მზე კაშკაშებს) = “sanam tone tckhelia, puri manam Caakario” (სანამ თონე ცხელია, პური მანამ ჩააკარიო);
- „droze mtesveli droze moimkiso“ (დროზე მთესველი დროზე მოიმკისო);
- “in the very nick of time” - „zust droze“ (ზუსტ დროზე);
- “time and tide wait for no man” - „tavis droze“ (თავის დროზე).
The popular phrase "Time is money" was first used by Benjamin Franklin (1748) who wrote it in his story "Advice to a Young Tradesman":

As you have desired it of me, I write the following hints, which have been of service to me, and may, if observed, be so to you. Remember that TIME is money. He that can earn ten shillings a day by his labour, and goes abroad, or sits idle one half of that day, tho' he spends but sixpence during his diversion or idleness, ought not to reckon that the only expense; he has really spent or rather thrown away five shillings besides. (Franklin, 1748).

Today we often repeat that we live in a time, where time is money. This expression, which was brought by the era of business and which focuses on the value of time, is relatively new in Georgian reality. In Georgian language we have a similar expression “time is precious” („dro dzvirfasia“ - დრო ძვირფასია), but, to our mind, in Georgia reality, “precious” is not associated with money or material goods.

Lakoff and Johnson (1990) in their paper- "Metaphors We live By" provide us with the following phraseological units dealing with timeliness (the corresponding Georgian expressions have been offered by the researcher):

- “That flat tire cost me an hour” - „Am capushulma saburavma erti saati gamaflangvina“ (ამ ჩაფუშულმა საბურავმა ერთი საათი გამაფლანგვინა);
- “I've invested a lot of time in her” - „Uamrav dro davakharje mas: (უამრავი დრო დავახარჯე მას);
- “You need to budget your time” - „Tqven unda gatvalot tqveni dro“ (თქვენ უნდა გათვალოთ თქვენი დრო);
- “He is living on borrowed time” - „Is tskhovrobs sxvisi drois kharjze“ (ის ცხოვრობს სხვისი დროის ხარჯზე).

Both cultures / languages have a negative connotation of "Untimely" and "Suddenly":

- "out of the blue" - „mekhivit davarda“ (მეხივით გავარდა);
- "out of a clear blue sky" - „mokhviqvelo დემო მეხით გავარდა“. 
“out of nowhere” - „daupatizhebeli stumari“ (გადაფართობელი სტუმარი);  
“like a bolt from the blue” - „mekhivit davarda“ (შეუცვლელი დავარდა).

There are two other units carrying the meaning of the sema - “Suddenly” in Georgian language. They are - „artsa tsiva, atrts tskhela“ (არცა ცივა, არცა ცხელა = neither cold, not hot) and „tvalsa da xels shua“ (თვალსა და ხელს შუა = between the eye and the hand).

Georgian equivalent of the following phrases - “out of a clear blue sky” and “like a bolt from the blue”, is „mekhivit davarda“ (შეუცვლელი დავარდა = fell like a thunder). The logic of the English and the Georgian phrases is that usually there is no thunder in the clear sky; though, when it happens, all are surprised by this unexpectedness. In both phrases “blue” is associated with a clear sky e.g.:  
• And now at this moment, when hope was dead, Tom Sawyer came forward with nine yellow tickets, nine red tickets, and ten blue ones, and demanded a Bible. This was a thunderbolt out of a clear sky. Walters was not expecting an application from this source for the next ten years. But there was no getting around it -- here were the certified checks, and they were good for their face. (Mark Twain, “The Adventures of Tom Sawyer”, Chapter 4).

The existence of such units the dominant units of the semantic structure of which are “Early/Late”: “at cock-crow” - „mamlis kivilze“ (მამლის ყივილზე); “at first light” - „mzis pirvel skhivze“ (მზის პირველ სხივზე); “with the sun” - „mzestan ertad“ (მზესთან ერთად); „mzes akhola“ (მზეს აყოლა); “be up with the lark” - „torolastan ertad“ (ტოროლასთან ერთად). The Georgian equivalent of this phrase is „torolastan ertad“ (ტოროლასთან ერთად) and „dilaadrian“ (დილაადრიან): “You were up with the lark this morning!”

This semantics can be seen in the formula of the oath (Barbaqadze, 2003:149):

“One of the main functions of the time is the sun ... figuratively sun is an hour, everything in the world lives in the time and with time ... everything has its time ... each person has a certain way of life, hour, sun ... Time, which is recorded by the sun, is life, so in this case the sun is time and this means life. This semantics can be seen in the formula of the oath: „shens mzes vfitsav“ (შენს მზეს ვფიცავ”, which means “I swear your life...” (Ibid. 2003: 149).

Fixed units in English which include a component of “sun” represent such kind of cognitive differential signs’ objectives, such as:

• speed - “go to bed with the sun”
• space - “There is nothing new under the sun”
In both languages there is an associated link between the sun and time, though this link’s language objectivity is clearer in the Georgian language than in English. The criteria of sharpness of the language objectivity is not only the expressiveness degree (which is significantly higher in the Georgian units), also units’ quantitative mark. Such fixed units are more in Georgian than in English.

The component’s - “sun” - units in the English and Georgian languages are characterized by positive semantics. This is natural, because in linguistic consciousness of both languages “life” (sun) is against “death”, and “day” is against “night”. Human dies, but life goes on; it dawns and the sun rises.

The unity of time and space is revealed in such kind of units like, “There is nothing new under the sun” / „araferi axtali am tisqveshetshi” (არაფერია ახალი ამ თისქვეშეთში). Its linguistic expression presents the paraphrase of the biblical phrase: “What is happening now, has already happened before” („is rats akhla khdeba, momkh dara utsinats” (ის, რაც ახლა ხდება, მომხადარა უწინაც)). Units, which express the concept “early”, play an important role both in English and Georgian cultures. In both cultures, this concept is related to hard-working and success:

- “The early bird catches the worm” - „adre adgoma meti sitotskhlao“ (ადრე ადგომა შეიძელო სიცოცხლისთან); „adre amdgarsa kurdghelsa ver daetsia mtsevari” (ადრე ამდგარსა კურდღელსა ვერ დაეწევა მწევარი = The rabbit which got up early was not caught by the wolf); – „adre amdgarsa khmatsvilsa deda umzadebs sadilsa” (ადრე ამდგარსა ყმაწვილსა დედა უმზადებს სადილსა = for a son who got up early mother is cooking the dinner);

- “Get a name to rise early, and you may lie all day” - „adre amdgomi shors tsava“ (ადრე ამდგომი შორს წავა = who gets up early, will go far); „adre amdgoms ukharodes, gvian – mosadilesao“ (ადრე ამდგომს უხაროდეს, გვიან მოსადილესა = who gets up early will be lucky to get his dinner, who gets up late – won’t).

- “Early to bed, and early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy and wise” - „vinats dilit adre dgeba, ganarjvebats masve khvdeba” (ვინაც დილით ადრე დეგბა, გამარჯვებაც მასვე რჩება - who gets up early, will be the winner); „adre amdgomi chiti niskarts itsmends, mdzinara ki – tvalebs ifshvnets” (ადრე ამდგომი ჩიტი ნისკარტს იწმენდს, მძინარა კი თვალებს იფშვნეტს - the bird that wakes up early has a full mouth, the one that wakes up late only looks at it).

In Georgian and English languages, phraseological units which express the concept “late” are characterized by a negative connotation: “A little too late and much too late is both late” - „tsota dagvianeba da didi dagvianebaorive dagvianebaa” (ცოტა დაგვიანება და დიდი დაგვიანება და იმჯობენ დაგვიანებაა). In both languages to do something in time is referenced: “better late than never” - „sjobs gvian vidre arasodes” (სჯობს გვიან, ვიდრე არასდროს).
The study concludes that:

- Similarities between study languages and their cultures is emphasized by conceptual analysis, on the data level, derived from frame’s modeling, which confirms conceptual analysis centralization on Antropocentrism not on Ethnocentrism in terms of universal categories;
- Differences between languages and their cultures is emphasized by semantic analysis on the data level derived from the semantic analysis, which confirms the informative nature of semantic analysis and explores principles for the study of specific character of the nation’s disposition; even for the universal categories;
- The analysis of the phraseological objectives of the concept “time” in the modern English and Georgian languages revealed that the frame network of “time” presents a whole space of elements characterized by universal and national awareness;
- The consistent awareness of the English and Georgian languages that is emphasized in the analysis level of the phenomenon “time”, implies the similarities of knowledge vectors, mental projection in the English and Georgian languages;
- The difference between the English and Georgian language awareness, which is emphasized on analysis level of the phenomena “time”, implies language objectification of universal (identical) vectors of the knowledge by national cultural codes reflexed by phraseological units.

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INTERACTIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING IN GEORGIAN INSTITUTIONS

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ABSTRACT

Interaction is an important word for language teachers. In the era of communicative language teaching, interaction is, in fact, the heart of communication; it is what communication is all about. It is the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings, or ideas between two or more people, resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other. Through interaction, students can increase their language store while they listen to or read authentic material, or even the output of their fellow students in discussions, skits, joint problem-solving tasks, or dialogue journals. Teachers can play many roles in the course of teaching. The teacher must create a climate in which spontaneity can thrive, in which unrehearsed language can be performed, and in which the freedom of expression given over to students makes it impossible to predict everything that they will say or do. The teacher must maintain some control simply to organize the class hour.

Key Words: Interactive principles, roles of interactive teacher, strategies for interactive learning, group work.

INTRODUCTION

Interaction is an important word for language teachers. In the era of communicative language teaching, interaction is, in fact, the heart of communication. In informal spontaneous conversations, we are constantly alert for the reactions of the people we are interacting with so that we make our communication as informative as required, amending it, depending on how the other participants in the interaction behave. We send messages, we receive them, we interpret them in a context, we negotiate meanings, and we collaborate to accomplish certain purposes. After several decades of research on teaching and learning languages, it has been discovered that the best way to learn to interact is through interaction itself.

Through interaction, students can increase their language store while they listen to or read authentic material, or even the output of their fellow students in discussions, skits, joint problem-solving tasks, or dialogue journals. We have discovered a great deal about how to best teach a second language in the classroom. And, while many mysteries still remain about why and how learners successfully acquire second languages, it is appropriate for teachers to focus on what they do know, what they have learned, and what it is possible to say with some certainty about second language acquisition. It is, for instance, clear that a great many of a teacher’s choices are grounded in established principles of language learning and teaching.
According to Brown & Lee (2015), all the principles listed below form foundation stones for structuring a theory of interaction in the language classroom.

**Automaticity:** True human interaction is best accomplished when focal attention is on meanings and messages and not on grammar and other linguistic forms. Learners are thus freed from keeping language in a controlled mode and can more easily proceed to automatic modes of processing.

**Intrinsic motivation:** As students become engaged with each other in speech acts of fulfilment and self-actualization, their deepest drives are satisfied. And as they more fully appreciate their own competence to use language, they can develop a system of self-reward.

**Strategic investment:** Interaction requires the use of strategic language competence both to make certain decisions on how to say or write or interpret language, and to make repairs when communication pathways are blocked. The spontaneity of interactive discourse requires a judicious use of numerous strategies for production and comprehension.

**Risk-taking:** Interaction requires the risk of failing to produce intended meaning, of failing to interpret intended meaning (on the part of someone else), of being laughed at, of being shunned or rejected. The rewards, of course, are great and worth the risks.

**The language–culture connection:** The cultural loading of interactive speech as well as writing requires that interlocutors be thoroughly versed in the cultural nuances of language.

**Interlanguage:** The complexity of interaction entails a long developmental process of acquisition. Numerous errors of production and comprehension will be a part of this development. And the role of teacher feedback is crucial to the developmental process.

**Communicative competence:** All of the elements of communicative competence (grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic, pragmatic, and strategic) are involved in human interaction. All aspects must work together for successful communication to take place.

Teachers can play many roles in the course of teaching. The following sets of metaphors describe a spectrum of possibilities of teacher roles, some of which are more conductive to creating an interactive classroom than others.

1. **The Teacher as Controller – Master controllers determine what the students do, when they should speak, and what language forms they should use.**

But for interaction to take place, the teacher must create a climate, in which spontaneity can thrive, in which unrehearsed language can be performed, and in which the freedom of expression given over to students makes it impossible to predict everything that they will say and do.

Nevertheless, some control on teacher’s part is actually an important element of successfully carrying out interactive techniques. A wise controller will carefully project how a technique will proceed, map out the initial input to students, specify directions to be given, and gauge the timing of a technique.

In the most cooperative of interactive classrooms, teacher must maintain some control simply to organize the class hour.
2. **Teacher as Director** - It is our job to keep the process flowing smoothly and efficiently.

3. **Teacher as Manager** - This metaphor captures teacher’s role as one who plans lessons, modules, and courses, and who structures the larger, longer segments of classroom time, but who then allows each individual player to be creative within those parameters. A language class should not be markedly different.

4. **Teacher as Facilitator** - A facilitator capitalizes on the principles of intrinsic motivation by allowing students to discover language through using it pragmatically, rather than by telling students about language. It might be described as making learning easier for students.

5. **Teacher as Resource** - teacher is available for advice and counsel when the student seeks it. There are appropriate times when teacher can literally take a back seat and allow students to proceed with their own linguistic development.

The most important key to creating an interactive language classroom is the initiation of interaction by teacher. One of the best ways to develop teacher role as an initiator and sustainer of interaction is to develop a repertoire of questioning strategies.

There are teacher strategies that promote interaction. Pair work and group work rise to interaction. Giving directions (“Open your books”, “Do the following exercise”) can stimulate interaction. Organizational language (“Get into a small group”) is important. Reacting to students (praise, recognition, or a simple “Uh-huh”) cannot be dispensed with. Responding genuinely to student-initiated questions is essential. Encouraging students to develop their own strategies is an excellent means of simulating the learner to develop tools of interaction (Brown & Lee, 2015).

Group work is central to maintaining linguistic interaction in the classroom. In so doing, teacher will get some answers to questions, such as:

1. What are the advantages of group work?
2. What are some problems to overcome in successful group work?
3. What different kinds of tasks are appropriate for group work?
4. What are some steps or rules for implementing group work?

Below find these questions discussed one by one:

1. **What are the advantages of group work?**

   - **Group work generates interactive language.** In traditional language classes, teacher talk is dominant. Teachers lecture, explain grammar points, conduct drills, and at best lead whole-class discussions in which each student might get a few seconds of a class period to talk. Group work helps to solve the problem of classes that are too large to offer many opportunities to speak.

   - **Group work offers an embracing affective climate.** The second important advantage offered by group work is the security of a smaller group of students where each individual is not so starkly on public display, vulnerable to what the student may perceive as criticism and rejection. A further benefit of small-group work is an increase in student motivation.
• **Group work promotes learner responsibility and autonomy.** Group work places responsibility for action and progress upon each of the members of the group somewhat equally. It is difficult to hide in a small group.

• **Group work is a step towards individualizing instruction.** Each student in a classroom has needs and abilities that are unique. Small groups can help students with varying abilities to accomplish separate goals. The teacher can recognize and capitalize upon other individual differences (age, cultural heritage, field of study, cognitive style, to name a few) by careful selection of small groups and by administering different tasks to different groups.

2. **What are some problems to overcome in successful group work?**

Some teachers are afraid of group work. They feel they will lose control or students will just use their native language, and so they avoid it. The limitations of group work and the ways to overcome them are discussed below.

• **The teacher is no longer in control of the class.** There is no doubt that group work requires some yielding of control to the students. In numerous cultures, students are indeed primed to be under the complete control and authority of the teacher, and group work therefore is a very strange activity to engage in. In such contexts the teacher must be very clever to orchestrate successful small-group work. With careful attention to guidelines for implementation of group work, administrative or managerial dilemmas should be avoidable.

• **Students will use their native language.** In ESL settings where a multiple number of languages are often represented in a single classroom, teachers can avoid the native language syndrome by placing students in heterogeneous groups. But in EFL situations, where all of the students have a common native language, it is indeed possible, if not probable, that students in small groups will covertly use their native language. The ways to overcome this possibility are:

  1) If teachers feel that the task is too hard (or too easy), or that directions are not clear, or that the task is not interesting, or that they are not sure or the purpose of the task, then you may be inviting students to take shortcuts via their native language. 2) Teacher should demonstrate how enjoyable the various small-group tasks, games and activities are. A careful selection and administration of group activities helps to ensure such pleasure. Teacher’s overt display of enthusiasm will help to set a tone. 3) Teacher should remind students that they can try out language without feeling that the whole class (and the teacher) is watching and criticizing. 4) If they can be convinced that small group work helps to build their intuitions about language, they may also understand that those intuitions will be their ally in a test situation.

• **Students’ errors will be reinforced in small groups.** Teachers are usually concerned about the fact that, especially in large classes, students will simply reinforce each other’s errors and the teacher will not get a chance to correct them. Errors are a necessary manifestation of interlanguage development, and we do well not to become obsessed with their constant correction. Moreover, well-managed group work can encourage spontaneous peer feedback on errors within the small group itself.

• **Teachers cannot monitor all groups at once.** Interactive learning and teaching principles counter with the importance of meaningful, purposeful language and real communication, which in turn must allow the student to give vent to creative possibilities. The effective teacher will circulate among the groups, listen to students, and offer suggestions and criticisms.
Some learners prefer to work alone. Many students, especially adult-age students, prefer to work alone because that is the way they have operated ever since they started going to school. As a successful manager of group work, teacher needs to be sensitive to such preferences, acknowledging that some if not many of his/her students will find group work frustrating because they may simply want to give them the answers to some problem and then move on. Language is for communicating with people (whether through oral or written modes), and the more they engage in such face-to-face communication, the more their overall communicative competence will improve.

While such problems can and do occur in group work, virtually every problem that is rooted in learning style differences can be solved by careful planning and management. In fact, when the group members know their task and know their roles in the group, learning style differences can be efficiently utilized and highly appreciated, much more so, than in whole-class work.

3. What different kinds of tasks are appropriate for group work?

Typical group tasks are defined and briefly characterized below:

- **Games** - a game could be any activity that formalizes a technique into units that can be scored in some way;
- **Role-play and simulations.** A role-play is a classroom activity in which learners are given roles to act out in a given situation. Role-plays are usually done in pairs or groups. A group role-play might involve a discussion of a political issue, with each person assigned to represent a particular political point of view. **Simulations** usually involve a more complex structure and often larger groups (of 6 to 20), where the entire group is working through an imaginary situation as a social unit, the object of which is to solve some specific problem.
- **Drama** - sometimes small groups may prepare their own short dramatization of some event, writing the script and rehearsing the scene as a group.
- **Project work** - an activity which focuses on completing an extended task on a specific topic. Learners may work in groups to create something such as a class magazine. Learners sometimes do some work by themselves, sometimes outside the classroom;
- **Interview** - a popular activity for pair work and group work. At the lower levels, interview can be very structured. The goal of an interview could at this level be limited to using requesting functions, learning vocabulary for expressing personal data, producing questions, etc. But at the higher levels, interviews can probe more complex facts, opinions, ideas, and feelings.
- **Brainstorming** - to think of ideas about a topic. This is often done as preparation before a writing or speaking activity.
- **Information gap** - a classroom activity in which learners work in pairs or groups. Learners are given a task, but they are given different information and, to complete the task, they have to find out the missing information from each other.
- **Jigsaw** - jigsaw techniques are a special form of information gap in which each member of a group is given some specific information. Learners listen to or read their part only, then share their information with other learners so that in the end everyone knows all the information.
• **Problem-solving and decision-making.** Problem-solving - learners work in pairs or groups to find the solution to a problem. Problem-solving activities usually help to develop oral fluency. Decision-making techniques are simply one kind of problem-solving, where the ultimate goal is for students to make a decision.

• **Opinion exchange** - Opinions are difficult for students to deal with but moral, ethical, religious, and political issues are usually hot items for classroom debates, arguments, and discussions. Teacher does everything s/he can to assure everyone in his/her class that, while there may be disagreement on issues, all opinions are to be valued, not scorned, and respected, not ridiculed.

4. **What are some steps or rules for implementing group work?**

The planning phase should include the following steps or rules for implementing a group technique:

a) The teacher introduces the technique - The introduction may simply be a brief explanation.

b) S/he models the technique.

c) The teacher gives explicit detailed instructions.

d) S/he divides the class into groups.

e) Then s/he check for clarification.

Some of the described ways of pair and groups work have been popular in Georgian schools for a long time (such as games, role play, and drama), but many are more or less new and applied only by more advanced teachers. It is not difficult, of course, to master the techniques, but the problem is the teacher-centered mentality, which has to be overcome. Then teachers will apply the techniques in a way pleasant for both students and themselves. All of the guidelines and reminders and do’s and don’ts included in this paper will in due course of time become a part of our teachers’ subconscious, intuitive classroom behavior. The teacher will not have to process every minute of his/her class hour in terms of whether s/he has done all the right things. In the meantime, just that conscientious attention to what makes for successful group work will soon pay off.

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THE USE OF PAUSES AND SILENCE IN HAROLD PINTER’S BIRTHDAY PARTY

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ABSTRACT

Harold Pinter was a playwright who felt that the most successful communication avoided the use of many words. He did not recognize the phrase ‘Communication Failure’ as a result of not using enough words and considered that successful communication never depended on the use of many words. Furthermore, he believed the communication to be more successful only in our silence, in what is unsaid. He distinguishes two types of silence: the first one when no word is uttered and literally there is silence and the second one, where characters’ speeches are full of words, but the speech which we hear actually indicates what we do not hear. It is only a tool to imply the language beyond it. ‘When true silence falls, we are still left with echo, but are nearer nakedness. One way of looking at speech is to say that it is a constant stratagem to cover nakedness’ (Pinter, 1977a: 15).

Key words: Silence, pause, speech, communication.

INTRODUCTION

Pinter never understood those writers who trusted words. He himself had mixed feelings about words. Certainly he took pleasure in dealing with words, in sorting them out, bringing them down to paper, but words at the same time provoked another extreme feeling in him, which he could compare to nothing else but nausea. As he considered that every day people encounter such great number of words which are void of any true meaning. “Such a weight of words confronts us day in, day out, words spoken in a context such as this, words written by me and by others, the bulk of it a stale dead terminology; ideas endlessly repeated and permuted become platitudinous, trite, meaningless” (Pinter, 1977a: 13).

Therefore, Pinter always tried to use as few words in his own writings as possible and to tell much to the audience by means of pauses and silence. Pinter was sure it was only in the silence that his characters were really evident to him. “I believe the contrary. I think that we communicate only too well, in our silence, in what is unsaid” (Pinter, 1977: 15). However, this should not be conceived as if Pinter was suggesting that a character in a play should never disclose his intentions and utter any words. Not indeed. The question is to say something only truly meaningful. “I have found that there invariably does come a moment when this happens, when he says something, perhaps, which he has never said before. And where this happens, what he says is irrevocable, and can never be back” (Pinter, 1977a: 15).

One of the first plays that Pinter wrote was Birthday Party and the notion of Pinter’s pauses and silence came into existence through it. This was a truly original and innovative work of art. The play was full of mystery and the audience had no notion how to solve this mystery. Pinter was never tempted to get engaged in any self-explanations and comments on the play.
“It’s not for an artist to provide a critical child’s guide to his intention. A work of art must speak for itself” (Pinter, 1977a: 13). When the play was staged, people were bewildered. This play was too modern and outran the time. It took time for society to catch up with it.

The stage director of Birthday Party Peter Wood wrote that Pinter just before rehearsals started for the first production of the play in April 1958, asking him for some comments about the characters and the play itself. In his letter to the stage director Pinter (1981) described how all it started. He said that about a year ago, in 1957, he put the first image on the paper, only four words: kitchen, Meg, Stanley, corn flakes and sour milk. After that everything happened itself. He said he interfered only technically and the fact that people wanted him to shed a light on the play and describe the play from the perspective of a writer as from a credible source, from first person was understandable for him. However, he was afraid it was beyond his strength. “I take it you would like to insert a clarification or moral judgement or angle on it, straight from the horse’s mouth. I appreciate your desire for this but I can’t do it. … the play exists now apart from me, you or anybody” (Pinter, 1998: 9).

Pinter himself claimed he was, like other people, the reader of his own play and was unable to insert any clarification about play’s aims and intentions whatsoever. And generally Pinter never felt responsible to explain himself. “My responsibility is not to audiences, critics, producers, directors, actors or to my fellow men in general, but to the play in hand, simply” (Pinter, 1998: 11).

Pinter was irritated by audience’s constant reaction: “How fascinating but what does it mean?” (Pinter, 1998: 10), to which he replied: “Meanings begin in the words in the action, continues in your head and end nowhere. There is no end to meaning. Meaning which is resolved, parcelled, labeled and ready for export is dead, impertinent – and meaningless. I examine my own play and ask, what’s going on here? ” (Pinter, 1998: 10).

For Pinter it was impossible to bring the play into any framework. He was against any explanation as generally there exist no universally accepted true definition. It is hard to draw a line between what is right and what is false. One and the same thing could easily be true and false both. “I suggest there can be no hard distinction between what is real and what is unreal, nor between what is true and what is false. A thing is not necessarily either true or false; It can be both true and false” (Pinter, 1998: 11).

Pinter thought any kind of label would be artificial, vivid, leaving no ambiguity. When such act takes place, this is not a theatre, but only a simple process of solving the puzzle, as if the audience is holding the paper and the play fills in empty spaces and ultimately everyone is happy. “To supply an explicit moral tag to an evolving and compulsive dramatic image seems to be facile, impertinent and dishonest. Where this takes place it is not theater but a crossword puzzle. The audience holds the paper. They play fills in the blanks. Everyone’s happy” (Pinter, 1977a: 13).

It was never Pinter’s aim to make the audience happy or to leave it content. All he wanted was to provoke it, to leave it bewildered. People could never find any answers in Pinter’s plays. All he had was questions and unresolved endings. That is why Pinter’s plays are famous for unresolved endings. How he finishes his plays is always unexpected. He does not do it deliberately, on the contrary, by doing it he himself dives into quest and, like audience, he also searches for answers. He
never believed in solved problems. For him a dramatic play was never a process of answering questions. While watching plays, he never had answers. All he wanted was questions.

Therefore he could never understand those playwrights, who aimed at eliminating all doubts. He thought people should be cautious about those writers, who never leave doubt about their values and needs and who think they are well-aware where their characters should be and what they should be doing. To his opinion, such writers were bodies locked in a prison of empty definitions and clichés. “If I were to state any moral precept it might be: beware of the writer who puts forward his concern for you to embrace, who leaves you in no doubt of his worthiness, his usefulness, his altruism ... that ensures ... where his characters ought to be. What is presented, so much of the time, as a body lost in a prison of empty definition and cliché”) (Pinter, 1977a: 13).

The play Birthday Party is a good example of all these. Together with its famous pause and silence, it also employs an obscure, unresolved ending, which turn the play into one of the interesting and mysterious plays that Pinter has written.

The play starts with the pause. One of the characters, Petey, enters the room, sits down at the table and starts reading:

MEG. Is that you, Petey?

**Pause.**

Petey, is that you?

**Pause.**

Petey?

PETEY. What?

MEG. Is that you?

PETEY. Yes, it’s me.

(Pinter, 1977b: 19)

After the question: “Is that you, Petey?” – there is a pause. This pause creates a suspense in an audience. But this tension continues. “Petey: Yes, it’s me”. Meg enters the stage. She asks the question three times and the idea is the same. These questions are not even questions, they sound like a challenge of therefore active and positive thought that is in fact a body. Meg puts the word: “Petey” at the end of the sentence then with more imperative tone at the beginning and finally, “Petey” is a question word. By repeating these questions, Meg wishes to confirm her presence. Pause between questions lets the audience think about the intentions existing beyond this silence.

Generally, mostly pause prevails between Meg and Stanley which appears between them during drinking tea.

PETEY. Give it to me.

MEG. (sitting at the table, right). I am not going to.
Pause.

STANLEY. No breakfast.

Pause.

All night long I have been dreaming about this breakfast.

MEG. I thought you said you didn’t sleep.

STANLEY. Day–dreaming, All night long. And now she won’t give me any, Not even a crust of bread on the table.

Pause.

(Pinter, 1977: 25)

CONCLUSION

The use of pause and silence for Pinter is a strategy for creating suspense in an audience. They help Pinter trigger a doubt about a hidden communication, which exists beyond actual dialogue and which is more important. They constitute a large part of the plays and have more power over spoken words. Thus, he is encouraging audience to look forward when characters are silent rather than when they talk. These dialogues are an attempt to reveal and decipher those hidden communication channels - those words which the characters do not tell but mean. Pinter considered that it is not at all necessary for people to keep communication through question-answer format. He understood the nature of people’s everyday conversations and dialogues, how thee speeches are meaningless. He wanted to avoid this illogical, non-linear character and therefore he attempted to reveal these characteristics through pause and silence. Generally, Pinter’s plays, and in this case specifically Birthday Party remains vague and highly confusing, leaving space for multiple interpretations.

References:


TRANSLATION ETHICS TRAINING UNDER THE CONDITIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION

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ABSTRACT
The paper deals with the issue of professional ethics of translator training. The role of ethics of cross-cultural communication as well as the importance of professional ethics training in modern society is pointed out. The main problems of translation ethics training are considered with respect of the peculiarities of modern system of education in Ukraine. The most important ideas for the development of the approach to the translators’ education improvement are discussed.

Key Words: Translation ethics, translators training, system of education.

INTRODUCTION
Ethics has become an inevitable part of modern social relations as modern global society is based on the principles of multiculturalism and requires the skills and abilities of different cultures and world views perception. Thus, the role of ethics has changed as it turned to the cross-cultural rather than to the national level of communication. Modern educationalists face the problem of dealing with the needs of providing students with advanced knowledge in cross-cultural issues as well as the skills of ethical decision-making, based on the multinational background. The problem is extremely urgent for translation students, as they should be ready to deal with the ethical issues as a part of their professional activity, i.e. mediation between cultures.

The idea of translation ethics is considered by many foreign scholars (Baker & Maier, 2011; Bermann, 2005; Pym, 2004). They develop various methods for teaching translators with the relation to the principles of ethics and consider the most important issues of ethical decision-making in translation and interpreting. But the solutions of the problem of translation ethics training are not described in the theoretical sources on a systematic base. Education practitioners and professionals in the field of translation mostly share their experience rather than try to create a special substantiated approach to the problem. Thus, A. Pym (2002:1) develops the idea of ethics of cooperation as one of the most important for translator’s code of ethics; the scholar notes that “linguistic mediation... is only worthwhile if it can promote long-term cooperation between cultures”.

Thus, the task of this paper is to systematize the most important ideas to be considered as a background for the approach to translation ethics training under the conditions on Ukrainian educational system.
System of education in Ukraine and translator training challenges

The system of education in modern Ukraine is characterized by dramatic changes involving all educational levels, so it is quite difficult to state the starting points for some educational goals or plan the whole process for the development of some professional qualities of a university graduate. As for the professional ethics, which includes translation ethics, it cannot be considered only as a phenomenon of professional activity or limited by it. The socio-cultural competence as a component of communicative competence occasionally deals with ethical issues on all educational levels of both foreign and first language learning. So, the process of professional ethics training starts not at university, but at school level. That is why the process of professional translation ethics training should be mentioned as development. It is obvious that the background knowledge in the sphere of ethics is different for different students at the university, so we should consider the introductory stage of the process as a means of ensuring the same input knowledge level.

As it was mentioned above, ethical issues are not limited by a professional activity of an individual. Ethics is a complex phenomenon including a wide range of skills, competences and knowledge, as well as such important issues as leadership and decision-making. S. Bermann (2005:6) underlines the idea that “the translator’s task is inevitably an ethical one. In attempts to translate, we become most aware of linguistic and cultural differences, of the historical ‘hauntings,’ and of experiential responsibilities that make our languages what they are and that directly affect our attitudes toward the world”.

So, to consider translation ethics as a part of university curriculum, we should state the educational goals and the specifics of professional activity.

There is such the following division of translation specialties in Ukraine:
- fiction translation;
- scientific and technical translation;
- interpreting.

So, it goes without saying that the professionals in each field should have the same knowledge in the sphere of translation ethics (basics, principles, ethical decision-making tips, the ways of avoiding unethical situations and decisions etc.), but they often have different possibilities to put their knowledge into practice. As for written fiction and scientific and technical translation, they involve the notions of accurate rendering of facts and ideas, the problems of quotations rendering. The process of written translation implies the time for transforming the source text, i.e. time for working with the additional sources of information, creating the most exact correspondence and equivalence for the phrases in target and source texts.

Written translation implies the possibility to consider the most difficult issues of translation and to take into account the information to be transformed from the ethical point of view. Such an approach requires general knowledge of ethical subject matter and skills or dealing with various sources of information, which sometimes means coping with large quantities of information. Global information society is closely connected with the concepts of information culture and information literacy and also related to ethical challenges of translation. The notions imply the means and ways of dealing with different information and also the ethical aspects of such processes. Professional translators are to have strong skills of information culture nowadays to perform well as students and also as employees and keep in touch with professional
challenges; information literacy makes a great influence on modern translator’s high professional performance and lifelong learning as a way of self-development.

Fiction and scientific and technical translation mostly belongs to the written translation and is connected to the issues of publication ethics and anti-plagiarism, so a translator should follow the requirements of modern publication policy. Each country establishes special regulations for translation of foreign printed materials, so the regulations should be considered as the guidelines for translators in addition to the professional standards.

Interpreting as a specific translation activity requires immediate coping with ethical issues, so the knowledge of translation ethics and instant decision-making skills are needed to perform well. We should stress that it is productive for future interpreters training to provide students with the essential tips and framework of dealing with difficult situations of translation under the conditions of current communicative situations. It is also important for an interpreter to be aware of the peculiarities of non-verbal communication, its national specifics, as some gestures and postures can be misapprehended by the representatives of another culture. Avoiding ambiguous situations and expressions in the cross-cultural communicative process is a kind of skills to be developed under the conditions of specialist training.

Interpreting is also closely linked with the issues of business ethics, as both translation and business ethics standards are to be met in communication. A translator should consider the requirements of business ethics to avoid the possible situations of conflict of interests.

Thus, an interpreter becomes both a language and culture intermediary, and should be ready to overcome the relevant difficulties and differences. But a professional in translation needs the knowledge of the sources and background of dissimilarities between the cultures; the competence in predicting the differences is also needed.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, it is necessary to emphasize that translators’ curriculum in Ukrainian higher educational institutions should include tips for the development of knowledge in the sphere of translation ethics. As translation ethics is a complex phenomenon and implies quite a wide range of issues, the system of translators’ training should provide for the elements of general ethics, ethics of cross-cultural communication, business ethics, as well as the essentials of translation process ethics.

REFERENCES


COGNITIVE APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF REFERENTIAL EXPRESSION DISTRIBUTION IN DISCOURSE

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ABSTRACT

The issue of how people manage to communicate referential meaning with so little difficulty and what lies behind this process is an interesting and controversial one. Each speaker or a language operates with a certain number of referential expressions. The number and distribution of these forms varies from language to language, but there are striking similarities that have inspired many a researcher to look for a universal framework. The article gives a brief overview of the research conducted in the area of referring expressions and their distribution in discourse. It adopts the attitude to referential expressions as mere accessibility markers and discusses the criteria determining referent accessibility. The article demonstrates three most relevant criteria incorporated into the Accessibility Marking Scale (Ariel, 1991) and attempts to locate this scale within the cognitive approach to the study of referential expression distribution. The focus is on the claim that the scale is universal and so it can be used to account for the data found in all world languages. Therefore, the article tries to identify those characteristics of Georgian grammar that are to be taken into consideration prior to testing applicability of Ariel’s accessibility scale to the Georgian language.

Key Words: Referential expressions, accessibility scale, givenness / newness, accessibility markers, reference

INTRODUCTION

All languages provide their users with different tools to refer, i.e. to reflect the “relationship which holds between an expression and what that expression stands for on particular occasions of utterance” (Lyons, 1977, p. 175). Whether it stands for real world entities, mental representations or something belonging to the world of discourse is a controversial issue that has remained a central question of much of the research in philosophy and linguistics for years. Another question that has been of great interest to researchers is what determines the choices that language users make between different linguistic forms of referring they have at their disposal. The latter is what this paper will focus on.

What is it that a speaker says or does that helps the hearer pick out some entity from a vast number of them in the universe or the world of discourse? Why is it self-evident to a competent user of a language when the same person can be referred as ‘Mr. John Smith’ and when ‘that man’ or ‘he’ would be more appropriate? These seemingly simple questions do not have simple one-dimensional answers and below a brief overview of the research conducted in the area of referring expressions and their distribution in discourse will be given.
The issue of how people manage to communicate referential meaning with so little difficulty and what lies behind this process is an interesting and controversial one. Prince (1981) in her seminal work on givenness and newness of information sets the following goals for the researchers:

1. identifying linguistic forms that are used for referring (referential expressions);
2. developing a taxonomy of the varying degrees of givenness (or ‘assumed familiarity’, in her own terms), which has to do with the characteristics of the information conveyed;
3. establishing correlation between the above two.

CASE STUDY

In answer to the first of these questions we could say that each speaker or a language operates with a certain number of referential expressions. This includes forms as semantically loaded and elaborate as full noun phrases and proper names often followed by descriptions. It also encompasses semantically empty and attenuated forms such as cliticized pronouns and person agreement markers or even zeros. The number and distribution of these forms varies from language to language (as demonstrated by Arial, 1991; Clancy, 1980; Givon, 1983; Gundel, 1985), but there are striking similarities that have inspired many researchers to look for a universal framework.

The answer to the second of the above-mentioned questions implies a certain classification of information conveyed. One obvious aim - a user’s choice of referential expressions - is based on the desire to be understood by the interlocutor and therefore the speaker/writer has to make guesses as to which particular forms would enable the hearer/reader to identify the referent with minimum effort. That means communicants constantly perform ‘calculation of ‘retrievability’ (Saeed, 1997 p.181) and the judgements made depend to a great extent on the context. Pragmatic theory suggested by Clark and Marshal (1981) introduces three types of mutual knowledge that direct the speaker and addressee’s choices:

1. Community membership mutual knowledge
2. Physical co-presence mutual knowledge
3. Linguistic co-presence mutual knowledge
4. This roughly implies that meaning of referential expressions can be calculated based on background (encyclopaedic) knowledge that participants share independently of this particular conversation (discourse) as well as inferences they can draw
5. Physical context, i.e. participants, time and location of conversation
6. What has already been mentioned in the discourse

This subdivision is very similar to Givon’s sources of “shared knowledge”: generic file, deictic file and text file (Givon, 1983). However, as Ariel (1988, p.67) rightly points out, the relationship between context and the linguistic forms used is not straightforward and simple. Assuming the context dictates which representation(s) will appear in actual discourse would be an oversimplification of the matter as varied linguistic forms can be used in each context and no strict correlation has been found between them. Prince (1981) views information represented in referential expressions not so much in terms of its context but with regard to its familiarity (givenness) to discourse participants. She suggests a new model of
givenness/newness which differentiates between brand new anchored (BNa), brand new unanchored (BN), unused (U),
textually evoked (E), situationally evoked (Es), inferable (I) and containing inferable (Ic) entities. Based on the data from
naturally occurring texts she develops the following familiarity scale:

E

➢ U > I > Ic > BNa > BN

E

Figure 1

This is an attempt to classify discourse entities according to the speaker’s view of their cognitive status in the addressee’s
mind.

Further development of Prince’s approach can be found in Gundel (1985) whose model links choices of referential
expressions with cognitive processes especially activation and focus of attention. The authors argue that a clear distinction
needs to be drawn between the assumed cognitive status of a referent in the addressee’s mind and the context which is
merely a means by which this status is achieved. For example, mental representation can be brought in focus (one of the
cognitive statuses in their givenness hierarchy) by introducing it into the linguistic context. Consequently, they develop a
hierarchy in which each status entails all lower statuses and is in itself “a necessary and sufficient condition for the
appropriate use of a different form or forms” (ibid, p. 275). This is what the Givenness Hierarchy presented in (1) in Gundel
(1985) looks like:

in focus > activated > familiar > uniquely identifiable > referential > type identifiable

{ it } { that, this (that N) (the N) { indefinite (a N)

this N) this N)

Figure 2

All the models discussed above are more or less based on the cognitive approach to reference. It does not mean, of course,
that this is the only approach existing in modern linguistics. Huang (2002) identifies four models of discourse anaphora,
two of which adopt very different views based either on discourse organization or pragmatic considerations. It should also
be kept in mind that the dividing lines between these models are not very clear-cut. Gundel (1985) introduces pragmatic
rules into his model; Ariel (1988) admits the influence of discourse organizational structure on referent accessibility when
speaking of the unity criterion. However, discussion of these issues goes far beyond the scope of this article.

Ariel’s is a cognitive model based on the assumption that principles governing discourse anaphora are motivated by
cognitive considerations (Ariel, 1994). Commenting on the limitations of the current models of memory that have been
used as a basis for “context-type theories of definite expressions. Ariel (1988, p. 68) suggests that communicators combine
them with cognitive principles governing anaphora. Her model builds on the research demonstrating that different
referential expressions are processed in very different ways, require different amount of time etc. The conclusion to be
drawn is that they signal how accessible mental representation is or more precisely, a speaker’s evaluation of their
accessibility. The main claim of this model is that referring expressions are merely ways of coding accessibility, ‘no more than guidelines for retrieval’ and thus ‘accessibility markers’ (Ariel, 1994).

In answer to the question of what determines a degree of accessibility Ariel adopts classification of factors that was traditionally thought to affect accessibility of antecedents and with a few modifications she applies it to encompass direct references (Ariel, 1991). These factors are:

a) Distance/recency

b) Unity

c) Prominence (including topicality among certain other features)

d) Competition or interference

A. Recency or distance can be applicable to expressions that function as initial retrievers as well as the ones that have already been introduced in the current discourse. In the first case they would probably denote recency of their storage in the one’s memory although other factors such as our attitude towards information stored, etc. also play an important role in determining how accessible these representations are (Ariel 1991, p. 444). In the second case distance between an antecedent and anaphoric expression is studied as calculated by the number of sentences or clauses between the co-referring expressions. Clauses are the units of referential distance that Givon (1983) uses for measuring topic continuity. However, Ariel also includes sentences and paragraphs in her measurement of distance as they together with clauses are relevant units in terms of cognitive process involved in their processing (Ariel 1994, p. 18).

B. Unity has to do with “how related the unit in which the antecedent occurs is to the unit the anaphora is in” (Ariel 1991, p. 447). We can interpret it to mean that the more closely linked the co-referring expressions are in terms of their textual arrangement (frame, paragraph, clause subordination) the more easily identifiable they become.

C. A major consideration in antecedent prominence is topicality which to a great degree determines its accessibility. Discourse and sentence topics are more salient and thus easier to identify as antecedents for subsequent mentions. However, prominence in Ariel’s classification is not restricted to topicality. It also includes discourse participants alongside with all the entities that are easily identifiable due to their physical salience or their (possibly psychological) importance for speaker/addressee.

D. The fourth factor that contributes to a degree of accessibility is the number of competitors for the position of referent. If there is more than one potential antecedent it complicates the task set to the addressee and decreases referent accessibility.

Although these factors are discussed separately it is obvious that they are all interrelated and there is a certain degree of overlap.
Having identified factors that determine the degree of accessibility, Ariel (1991) then moves on to discuss what determines allocation of a particular form as a code for a certain degree of accessibility. She suggests three criteria that are “universally used to translate the cognitive concept of Accessibility into linguistic dress” (Ariel, 1991). These are:

- **Attenuation** – which Ariel’s (1991) own admission is similar to Givon’s (1983) criterion of phonological size. Again, like expressions with low informativity, attenuated i.e. shorter and/or unstressed form provide the hearer with little help in identifying the referent apart from signaling its high accessibility.

- **Informativity** – lexical content of the expression. the more information the expression provides the easier it makes to pick out the referent from its context or retrieve it from long term memory and thus high informality of the marker signals referent’s low accessibility;

- **Rigidity** – “the extent to which the expression can reduce the number of alternative potential entities that the addressee may be considering to be the intended referent” (Kronrod & Engel, 2001, p.685).

All these considerations can be summed up by the quotation from Givon: “The more mental effort is used in processing information, the more coding material will be used in representing the information in language” (Givon, 1989, p. 106).

The criteria discussed above are incorporated into the Accessibility Marking Scale (Ariel 1991, 1994), which is supported by the data from different languages:

**Low accessibility**

- Full name – modifier
- Full name
- Long definite description
- Short definite description
- Last name
- First name
- Distal demonstrative (+ NP) + modifier
- Proximal demonstrative (+NP)
- Stressed pronoun + gesture
- Stressed pronouns
- Unstressed pronouns
- Cliticized pronoun
- Agreement markers
- Zeros
High accessibility

Figure 3

The claim that the author makes is that the scale is universal and so it can be used to account for the data found in all world languages. However, she does not rule out the differences between individual languages as to which of these linguistic forms are available to the speaker and which of them are marked. She would probably agree with Givon (1983, p. 16) in saying that "some languages may either overcode the entire domain or sub-segments of it". For example, distribution of high accessibility markers will predictably differ between English and Georgian as the verbs in the latter have subject and object person markers: pronouns in Japanese mark familiarity between the speaker and the referent and thus are avoided in some cases when they would be used in English (Clancy, 1980). All these differences do not refute the claim that Ariel's accessibility scale predicts relative accessibility to be constant across the languages (Ariel, 1991).

Therefore, I have tried to identify those characteristics of Georgian grammar that would need to be taken into consideration prior to testing applicability of Ariel's accessibility scale to the Georgian language. In the analysis of the Georgian grammar I largely rely on Hillery (1996) and Shanidze (1973). It should be mentioned at the outset that Georgian is a split ergative language. Subjects of intransitive verbs and objects of transitive verbs are coded by nominative case, but subjects of intransitive verbs are coded as ergative. However, its ergativity is revealed only in aorist forms.

1. kats - i amtavrebs sakme – s.
   Man (nom) is finishing work. (acc)
   Man (erg) (has) finished work (abs)
   Along with the ergative construction the Georgian language has a certain class of verbs (mainly affective) whose subject appears in the dative case while direct object is in nominative.
3. deda – s ukvars – s chai.
   Mother (dat) loves tea (abs).
   Moreover, even verbs normally not included in this group take dative subject in perfect and pluperfect.
4. is tsdilob – s darekva – s.
   s/he (nom) tries to call. (act)
5. Man s – tsad – a darekva.
   s/he tried to call (acc).
6. deda – m urchi – a rom mas etsada darekva.
   Mother (erg) advised that s/he (dat) tried to call (nom).

Therefore, these characteristics should have important consequences for the choice of referential expressions.
A lot of difficulties could also arise from the fact that Georgian is an agglutinating language with a particularly complex verb structure. Among many other affixes most verbs have person and number markers for both subject and object. It has to be noted, however, that the II person singular subject is most frequently marked by zero affixation although traces of historical markers can be found on some verbs. Zero also marks III person singular and plural direct objects. With indirect objects Georgian has two different variants of prefixes depending on the following sound, the use of these variants is declining in the modern language and in most cases direct and indirect objects are marked identically.

All bi and tri-valent verbs need to be marked for both subject and object simultaneously and as person agreement markers are prefixes in all cases except for III person subjects; we should have two separate affixes before the stem. However, this is rarely the case as usually subject marker is omitted.

7.  
   g – khedav (I see you).
   IIp.O

1-st person subject marker v – is omitted.

The only exception to this rule is co-occurrence of Ip. S and IIp. IO when the marker of the latter is omitted.

8.  
   v – khedav.
   IpS

However, zero marking in all these cases contrasts with explicit marking in other persons and thus by virtue of having an empty verbs clearly identify the person referred to. Consequently, it can be considered as a form of person agreement marking.

9.  
   she – s – tavaz – a (offered)
   IIIp. IO – stem – IIIp.s

III p. direct object is marked by zero but clearly implied by contrast with Ip. O marker m- and IIp.O marker g-.

Another tool that Georgian has is pre-radical vowel usually used to mark what is called ‘version’ in descriptive literature. This usually identifies who benefits from the action performed also indicating reflexivity if the subject is the beneficiary as well as the agent.

10.  
    v – u – qide – t (we bought it for him/her).
    Ip. - vers- stem - pl.

Here version marker – u - compensates for the absence of the third person indirect object marker being a way of promoting the oblique (mistvis – for him) to the position of the indirect object by introducing it into the verb structure. Below I will consider version markers as person agreement markers to avoid overspecification.

Consequently, as the majority of the verbs in Georgian fit the categories described above i. e. have slots for person agreement marking, we need to assume that when there is another accessibility marker (a pronoun, NP etc.) in the clause subjects, direct and indirect objects are referred to twice. These can also be considered as a single reference and saying
that the accessibility marker in a clause is a pronoun will in fact imply it as a pronoun in nominative, ergative and dative cases, because they function as core arguments and usually agree with the verb in person and number. Personal pronouns in genitive case (often containing other inflections apart from a case marker) and possessive pronouns are not represented in the morphological form of the verb. As for clauses which contain one finite verb, they most commonly carry person agreement markers. Consequently, we can only expect to find zero as a referent accessibility marker when possessives or oblique arguments are omitted.

CONCLUSION

Thus, we have attempted to locate Ariel's referent Accessibility Marking Scale within the cognitive approach to the study of referential expression distribution. We have adopted her attitude to referential expressions as mere accessibility markers and discussed the criteria she suggests as determining referent accessibility and also a set of factors that influence the choice of particular linguistic forms to function as markers. We have also focused on specific features of the Georgian grammar that would influence the choice of accessibility markers. Therefore, two areas requiring very detailed study can be suggested:

1. The difference between personal pronouns in different cases between personal pronouns in different cases and possessive pronouns in terms of the level of accessibility they mark;
2. Comparable prominence of subjects and objects in absolute, ergative and dative cases and how this influences antecedent accessibility.

REFERENCES


HOW TO MAKE LEARNING ENGLISH ENJOYABLE

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ABSTRACT

This paper deals with the discussion of the value of a language teaching method -Total Physical Response (TPR), built around the coordination of speech and action, in motivating students to learn English and enhancing learner involvement. Using this method while teaching a second language reduces stress and tension within the learners. They really find it entertaining and relaxing. TPR creates a positive mood in the learner, which facilitates learning. TPR is an invaluable tool to develop students' abilities in listening and speaking, as listening skill always precedes speaking. Also it can be used to teach a variety of language items, such as vocabulary and grammar. Although the communicative approach has become the mainstream in language teaching, learners are still very passive recipients. With the help of TPR learners may become effective communicators. In the future they will be able to conduct themselves in a variety of personal, professional and academic environments with confidence. This paper presents a number of activities, which help students to have fun while learning a second language. Imperative Drills are the major classroom activities in Total Physical Response. They are typically used to elicit physical actions and activity on the part of the learners. Other classroom activities also include role plays and slide presentations. Activities discussed in this paper offer a great deal of advantages in promoting the learning of English. The greatest advantage is stimulating students' interest and activities used in the classroom enhance their involvement. Students show a tremendous interest in learning English through TPR. Learners become more familiar with language items they are learning.

Key words: Motivation, Learner involvement, Language teaching method, Activities and task design.

INTRODUCTION

Using a language teaching method -Total Physical Response (TPR) - in motivating students to learn English and enhancing learner involvement is still very valuable. Despite the wealth of materials available, nothing is more useful for a learner than this very direct and visual instruction. TPR is an invaluable tool to develop students' abilities in listening and speaking, as listening skill always precede speaking. Also it can be used to teach a variety of language items, such as vocabulary and grammar. With the help of TPR sequences learners enlarge their vocabulary, study grammar tenses in context and practise English sentence structure and word order. Although the communicative approach has become the mainstream in language teaching, learners are still very passive recipients. With the help of TPR learners may become effective communicators. In the future they will be able to conduct themselves in a variety of personal, professional and academic environments with confidence.
Communication is an exchange of meaning and understanding. Meaning is central to communication. Communication is symbolic, because it involves not only words, but also symbols and gestures that accompany the spoken words, because symbolic action is not limited to verbal communication. Communication is an interactive process. The two communication agents involved in the communication process are sender (S) and receiver (R). Both communication agents exert a reciprocal influence on each other through interstimulation and response. At its most basic level, oral communication is the spoken interaction between two or more people. The interaction is far more complex than it seems. In order to function successfully academically and professionally, one needs to learn effective oral communication skills.

Oral communication is a unique and learned rhetorical skill that requires understanding what to say and how to say it. Oral communication can take many forms, ranging from informal conversation that occurs spontaneously and, in most cases, for which the content cannot be planned, to participation in meetings, which occurs in a structured environment, usually with a set agenda (Halliday, 1978).

Oral communication fulfills a number of general and discipline-specific pedagogical functions. Learning to speak is an important goal in itself, for it equips students with a set of skills they can use for the rest of their lives. Speaking is the mode of communication most often used to express opinions, give arguments, offer explanations, transmit information, and make impression upon others. Students need to speak well in their personal lives, future workplaces, social interactions, and political endeavors. They will have meetings to attend, presentations to make, discussions and arguments to participate in, and groups to work with. If basic instruction and opportunities to practice speaking are available, students position themselves to accomplish a wide range of goals and to be useful members of their communities.

For successful communication, students require more than the formal ability to present well and a range of formulaic expressions. Successful communication is context-dependent and therefore embedded in its particular discourse community (Bizzell, 1989). Oral communication reflects the persistent and powerful role of language and communication in human society. Communication is a dynamic interactive process that involves the effective transmission of facts, ideas, thoughts, feelings and values. It is not passive and does not just happen; people actively and consciously engage in communication in order to develop information and understanding required for effective group functioning. It is dynamic because it involves a variety of forces and activities interacting over time. The word process suggests that communication exists as a flow through a sequence or series of steps. The term ‘process’ also indicates a condition of flux and change. The relationships in communication continuously grow and develop.

There are several elements of oral communication of which a speaker needs to be aware in order to learn how to use them to his / her advantage. Apart from the language used for communication, there are several others elements which the speaker should learn to communicate effectively. The skills are eye contact, body language, style, understanding the audience, adapting to the audience, active and reflexive listening, politeness, precision, conciseness, etc. At tertiary education level it is assumed that the learners know the basics of the language. At this level simply teaching speaking skills is irrelevant (Austin, 1962). What the teacher has to teach at this level is the communication skills. For this he has to know the individual needs of the students. And this can be known in a better way when the learners perform tasks in the class. Total Physical Response approach seems to be suitable for teaching and learning these skills.
Total Physical Response (TPR) is a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action; it attempts to teach language through physical (motor) activity. Developed by James Asher (1977), a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, California, it draws on several traditions, including developmental psychology, learning theory, and humanistic pedagogy, as well as on language teaching procedures.

Total Physical Response is linked to the “trace theory” of memory in psychology, which holds that the more often or the more intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it will be recalled. Retracing can be done verbally (e.g., by rote repetition) and/or in association with motor activity. Combined tracing activities, such as verbal rehearsal accompanied by motor activity, hence increase the probability of successful recall.

Using this method while teaching a second language reduces stress and tenseness within the learners. They really find it entertaining and relaxing. TPR creates a positive mood in the learner, which facilitates learning.

Materials and classroom activities through TPR must be chosen very accurately, as correctly chosen activities help students have fun while learning a second language. TPR also provides a base for literacy development in the second language, as students learn to read the commands they follow. Combining the TPR and materials development by learners shows how learner involvement can be maximized by engaging learners in meaningful task design.

Total Physical Response requires initial attention to meaning rather than to the form of items. Grammar is thus taught inductively. Grammatical features and vocabulary items are selected not according to their frequency of need or use in the target language situations, but according to the situations in which they can be used in the classroom.

Imperative Drills are the major classroom activities in Total Physical Response. They are typically used to elicit physical actions and activity on the part of the learners. Choosing the instructional focus for TPR is essential. The examples should be chosen very accurately as they reflect functional classroom instructions and also begin to introduce the language the learners are going to study. Too often it is better to use commands which do not provide the language that is most needed by the learners. Commands such as: ‘Sneeze, Blow your nose, wet your lips, scratch your nose’ and so forth are fun, but do not include the vocabulary, content, nor classroom directions.

Fun commands, however, can be incorporated which use functional and purposeful vocabulary. The activity ‘Simon says’ is a classic among TPR activities, that is commonly used to teach the parts of the body. But with the help of this activity learners can not only study the new words, they can also get used to more complex commands, for example, how to give directions. Commands could be directions: ‘Simon says turn right. Simon says turn left, Simon says go straight.’ Teacher can clear up the classroom so that the learners can easily move around according to these commands. Flashcards or pictures of different places such as: a bank, a school, a shopping centre, a cinema - can be used on the desks of each learner so that they can take turns giving each other the directions.

Learning English through songs also provides a non-threatening atmosphere for learners who usually are tense when learning English, but if we also add movement or miming, they will enjoy them so much more. Thus, if singing and moving comes naturally, then why not take advantage of this. Songs with movements are a great help for learners to remember the new words together with fun.
Even if the imperative is the major or minor format of training, variety is critical for maintaining continued student interest. The imperative is a powerful facilitator of learning, but it should be used in combination with many other techniques. The optimal combination will vary from instructor to instructor and class to class.

There is generally no basic text in a Total Physical Response course. Materials and realia play an increasing role, however, in later learning stages. For absolute beginners, lessons may not require the use of materials, since the teacher’s voice, actions, and gestures may be a sufficient basis for classroom activities. Later the teacher may use common classroom objects, such as books, pens, cups, or furniture. As the course develops, the teacher will need to make or collect supporting materials to support teaching points. These may include pictures, realia, slides, and word charts.

Activity ‘A stroll around the classroom’ is great for kids and adult learners. Teacher can use as many objects or props realia as he/she likes to use. First, teacher pantomimes a series of actions while he/she says the phrases. Then the teacher says the phrases and asks the learners to pantomime the actions. The teacher can try this with several learners and use different objects. Finally, learners should do it on their own and walk around the classroom interacting with objects.

Mime Role Plays are also a lot of fun for adult learners. Each learner is given a role to act out, but one of them is told that he or she has lost the voice. Learner A knows what situation he or she has to act out, but learner B does not know what it is. For example:

Learner A--------You need to find a post office and you ask someone for directions. You have lost your voice and cannot say a word.

Learner B--------You will be stopped in the street by someone who needs directions, but the person cannot speak, so you must interpret his or her gestures to find out where he or she needs to go. With the help of this activity learners memorize phrases or words very easily. Learners enjoy it.

While learning a second language, each of the lessons provides practice with specific grammatical patterns. If these patterns are introduced through TPR activities, it will help learners easily understand both form and function. After the students are comfortable with a lesson, teachers can work on the target structure through games and drills. E.g., the following activity helps learners study Present Continuous. Grammar: I’m/You’re walking/running/drawing. Materials: a pair of paper wings for a child to use.

**A Flying Bird**

1. You’re a bird.
2. You’re going to fly.
3. You’re walking.
4. You’re running.
5. You’re running faster.
6. You’re flapping your wings.
7. You’re flapping and running.
8. WOW!
9. You’re flying.
10. You’re flying faster.
11. You’re flying slower.
12. You’re tired.

This activity can help learners study types of questions: Wh-questions and Yes/No-questions. Questions: What’s your name? Are you afraid?

Lost
1. I’m a police-officer.
2. Look at my badge.
3. You’re lost.
4. What’s your name?
5. How old are you?
6. Where do you live?
7. What’s your mother’s name?
8. What colour is your house?
9. Are you hungry?
10. Are you thirsty?
11. I’ll take you home.

Learners may be asked to make their own sequences. They may also work in groups, use their imagination and they may even make up a story, maybe a funny one. It is very enjoyable.

The teacher plays an active and direct role in Total Physical Response. “The instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors” (Asher, 1977, p. 43). It is the teacher who decides what to teach, who models and presents the new materials, and who selects supporting materials for classroom use. The teacher is encouraged to be well-prepared and well-organized, so that the lesson flows smoothly and predictably. It is the teacher who makes learning a second language enjoyable.
CONCLUSION

The series of activities described above offer a great deal of advantages in promoting the learning of English and make learning easy and enjoyable. The greatest advantage is stimulating learners’ interest and enhancing their involvement. Activities through TPR create a supportive classroom environment and there is no doubt that such activities can be both motivating and fun. Learners show a tremendous interest in learning English through TPR. It is a lot of fun, learners enjoy it. It lifts the pace and the mood in the classroom.

TPR can be used to teach and practise many things with fun and joy. Through TPR activities learners can study vocabulary connected with actions, tenses, classroom language, imperatives, instructions, and story-telling in a non-stressful environment. If the teacher is prepared to perform the actions, the learners feel happier about copying. It is really good for kinesthetic learners who need to be active in class. Learning English through TPR activities, used together with other methods and techniques, can be a successful and enjoyable way of changing the dynamics and pace of a lesson.

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT

The aim of the paper is to define the essence of Imagism, a movement in modernist poetry focused on describing objects as opposed to the long philosophical discussions of traditional poetry. It is very interesting how the movement emerged at the beginning of the twentieth century. The paper draws interest to the modernist poets’ tendency of abandoning traditional rhyme and meter and focusing on imagery in poetry. In traditional poetry, images are described in great detail with many words, and then they are linked to a philosophical idea or theme. But some of the Modernist poets decided that the best way to write poetry was to describe things with a few simple words. In addition, many of them did not explicitly discuss the ideas and themes of the poem. The discussion will be confined to the major representatives of Imagist poetry, such as Hilda Doolittle, Ezra Pound, William Carlos Williams, and Amy Lowell, with a particular emphasis on the poetry of Ezra Pound, the founder of Imagist movement. Pound changed the course of modern poetry. Pound’s three rules of writing poetry are also discussed, as primary characteristics of the imagist poetry.

Key words: Imagism, movement, ideogramic, modernism

INTRODUCTION

The paper deals with one of the predominant movements of Anglo-American poetry- imagism. The main principles of the movement belongs to the American poet Ezra Pound. He defines the term “image” in the following way: ‘Image’ is that which presents an intellectual and emotional complex in an instant of time” (Pound, 2016). The Imagist movement included English and American poets in the early twentieth century who wrote free verse and were devoted to “clarity of expression through the use of precise visual images” (Poetry Library, 2006). The central text of imagism and a typical example of Pound’s style is a poem In a station of the metro, written in a form of a Japanese Haiku. Imagist poets tried to avoid metaphoric and abstract language and to use common speech.

Imagism as an Anglo-American poetic movement

Modernist literature is the predominant genre of fiction in the XIX-XX century. Increasing industrialization, new technologies and terrifying events of both World Wars made their influence on the humanity. Writers reacted to this problem by turning toward Modernism sentiments. Their fiction spoke of the inner self and consciousness. Instead of progress, the Modernist writers saw a decline of civilization.
To express their emotions they decided to abandon the conventional style of writing, so there can be seen the tendency towards psychologism and individualism. Poets and writers employed literary experiments of language and style in their writings. These are the changes, which mark the mode of representation in literature.

The XX century was a remarkably productive period for Anglo-American poetry. To renovate a poetic form was the main aim of modernist poets, such as Ezra Pound, Hilda Doolittle, T.E. Hulme, F.S. Flint, Richard Aldington, and Amy Lowell. Reacting against what they considered to be an exhausted poetic tradition, they wanted to refine the language of poetry in order to make it a vehicle for the exact description and evocation of mood. To this end they experimented with free or irregular verse and made the image their principal instrument. In contrast to the leisurely Georgians, they worked with brief and economical forms.

A leading Anglo-American poetic movement of the XX century is Imagism. Imagism was a reaction against the flabby abstract language and “careless thinking” of Georgian Romanticism. Imagist poetry aimed to replace muddy abstractions with exactness of observed detail, apt metaphors, and economy of language.

It is considered to be the first organized Modernist literary movement in the English language. T.E Hulme’s Autumn and City Sunset, which were published in 1909 in a Poets’ Club anthology, have the distinction of being the first Imagist poems.

The Imagist movement included English and American poets in the early twentieth century who wrote free verse and were devoted to “clarity of expression through the use of precise visual images” (Poetry Library, 2006). A strand of modernism, Imagism was officially launched in 1912 when Ezra Pound read and marked up a poem by Hilda Doolittle, signed it “H.D. Imagiste,” and sent it to Harriet Monroe at Poetry. The movement sprang from ideas developed by T.E. Hulme, who as early as 1908 was proposing to the Poets’ Club in London poetry based on absolutely accurate presentation of its subject with no excess verbiage. The first tenet of the Imagist manifesto was “to use the language of common speech, but to employ always the exact word, not the nearly exact, nor the merely decorative word” (Poetry Library, 2006).

The main principles of Imagism belong to Ezra Pound. The name of the movement comes from the word “image”. Pound gives the precise definition of “image” in A Few Don’ts by an Imagiste (Pound, 2016):

“An ‘Image’ is that which presents an intellectual and emotional complex in an instant of time” (ibid). This was the central aim of Imagism - to make poems that concentrate everything the poet wishes to communicate into a precise and vivid image, to distill the poetic statement into an image rather than using poetic devices (like meter and rhyme) to complicate and decorate it. As Pound put it, “it is better to present one Image in a lifetime than to produce voluminous works” (ibid).

Pound’s commands to poets will sound familiar to anyone who has been in a poetry workshop in the near-century since he wrote them:

- Cut poems down to the bone and eliminate every unnecessary word—“Use no superfluous word, no adjective, which does not reveal something... Use either no ornament or good ornament” (Pound, 2016).
- Make everything concrete and particular—“Go in fear of abstractions” (ibid).
- Do not try to make a poem by decorating prose or chopping it into poetic lines “Don’t retell in mediocre verse what has already been done in good prose. Don’t think any intelligent person is going to be deceived when
you try to shirk all the difficulties of the unspeakably difficult art of good prose by chopping your composition into line lengths” (ibid).

- Study the musical tools of poetry to use them with skill and subtlety, without distorting the natural sounds, images and meanings of language—“Let the neophyte know assonance and alliteration, rhyme immediate and delayed, simple and polyphonic, as a musician would expect to know harmony and counterpoint and all the minutiae of his craft…. your rhythmic structure should not destroy the shape of your words, or their natural sound, or their meaning” (Pound, 2016).

The first anthology of Imagist poets, Des Imagistes, was edited by Ezra Pound and published in 1914, presenting poems by Pound, Hilda Doolitle, and Aldington, as well as F.S. Flint, Amy Lowell, William Carlos Williams, James Joyce, and Ford Madox Ford. By the time the book appeared, Amy Lowell had stepped into the role of promoter of Imagism, and Pound, concerned that her enthusiasm would expand the movement beyond his strict pronouncements, had already moved on from what he now dubbed ‘Amygism’ to something he called ‘Vorticism’. Lowell (2014) then served as editor of a series of anthologies. In the preface she offered her own outline of the principles of Imagism:

1. To use the language of common speech, but to employ always the exact word, not the nearly-exact, nor the merely decorative word.
2. To create new rhythms—as the expression of new moods—and not to copy old rhythms, which merely echo old moods. We do not insist on ‘free-verse’ as the only method of writing poetry. We fight for it as for a principle of liberty. We believe that the individuality of a poet may often be better expressed in free-verse than in conventional forms. In poetry, a new cadence means a new idea.
3. To allow absolute freedom in the choice of subject. It is not good art to write badly about aeroplanes and automobiles; nor is it necessarily bad art to write well about the past. We believe passionately in the artistic value of modern life, but we wish to point out that there is nothing so uninspiring nor so old-fashioned as an aeroplane of the year 1911.
4. To present an image (hence the name: ‘Imagist’). We are not a school of painters, but we believe that poetry should render particulars exactly and not deal in vague generalities, however magnificent and sonorous. It is for this reason that we oppose the cosmic poet, who seems to us to shirk the real difficulties of art.
5. To produce poetry that is hard and clear, never blurred nor indefinite.
6. Finally, most of us believe that concentration is of the very essence of poetry.

The central text of Imagism and a typical example of Pound’s style is a poem In a Station of the Metro, written in a form of Japanese Haiku. The history of its creation is very interesting. “Three years ago in Paris I got out of a “metro” train at La Concorde, and saw suddenly a beautiful face, and then another and another, and then a beautiful child’s face, and then another beautiful woman, and I tried all that day to find words for what this had meant to me”, said Pound. The poet worked the whole year on the poem, until he gave it the form of haiku:

“The apparition of these faces in the crowd;
petals on a wet, black bough".
In the British museum, Pound met a Poet, Laurence Binyon, who introduced him forms and tradition of eastern poetry. It was a decisive moment in the formation of Pound’s poetic style. He became addicted to eastern poetry. Another important moment was Pound’s meeting with Earnest Fenollosa. Inspired by him, Pound established the ideogramic method of writing. It is based on the juxtaposition of words and images and, by avoiding abstraction and consecutive discourse, aims to achieve a greater force and immediacy. Pound hit upon the method around 1914 when reading the notebooks of Ernest Fenollosa (1968), a deceased American orientalist. According to Fenollosa, as Pound understood him, the characters of the Chinese alphabet are ideograms. That is to say, each one is either a simplified picture of the object it refers to, or a composite of such pictures which can stand for an idea. For example, the hieroglyph which means ‘east’ is a composite of the characters for ‘sun’ and ‘tree’: it represents the rising sun entangled in a tree’s branches. Thus, the simple characters are direct representations of things like ‘sun’ or ‘tree’, while the complex ones are visual metaphors. In Chinese poetry, which Pound now began to translate, he found a representational directness, especially in the syntax, which for him registered the physical world with more vigour, economy and directness than anything he knew in Western literature. He ascribed this to the way the Chinese language appeared to derive its concepts, not from abstract symbols, but from concrete particulars. The Chinese poets, moreover, give one image to each line, so the lines are juxtaposed with one another.

CONCLUSION

Ezra Pound is considered to be the main figure of Imagist movement. Along with T.E. Hulme, he formed the main principles of Imagism. Imagism has been described as the most influential movement in English poetry since the activity of the Pre-Raphaelites. As a poetic style, it gave Modernism its start in the early 20th century, and is considered to be the first organized Modernist literary movement in the English language. The Imagists wrote succinct verse of dry clarity and hard outline in which an exact visual image made a total poetic statement. Pound was an influential figure in Anglo-American modernist movement. A characteristic feature of Imagism was its attempt to isolate a single image to reveal its essence.

REFERENCES


CONTRASTIVE VIEW ON PARALLEL MARKERS IN POLITICAL MEDIA DISCOURSE

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ABSTRACT

The paper presents a contrastive study, which investigates the peculiarities of functioning of parallel markers in English and Georgian political media discourse, namely, in a political interview. Parallel markers are the class of pragmatic markers, which are devices indicating illocutionary force. They can be found almost in all languages. But the peculiarities of their functioning differ from one language to another; as they depend on the linguo-cultural peculiarities of the nation and the language itself. Various examples are provided to show the main points and make the discussion vivid and clear from the research resource which is the corpus to be analysed consisting of interviews chosen from English and Georgian printed and internet media from section of politics. 1000 pragmatic markers in each language were searched successively through the texts and identified according to the aims of the research. The close analysis of the texts of English and Georgian political interviews has revealed clearly the peculiarities of functioning of parallel markers. Finally, the results of the analysis are presented in figures and findings are generalised into conclusions.

Key Words: Pragmatic markers, Parallel messages, Contrastive study, Political interview.

INTRODUCTION

Pragmatic markers are illocutionary force indicating devices which can be found almost in all languages. Hardly can a language be found with no linguistic means of expressing the illocutionary force of assessment, conclusion, evidence, contrast and so on. But the peculiarities of their functioning differ from one language to another; as they depend on the linguo-cultural peculiarities of the nation and the language itself.

Pragmatic markers are not the part of the proposition. They are separate and distinguished from it. So, there can be no overlap of functions. When a given lingual unit operates as one type of pragmatic marker, it can be considered neither as another type of pragmatic marker nor as a part of the proposition. Any kind of ambiguity or misunderstanding is out of question.

Parallel markers are a class of pragmatic markers. The function of parallel markers is “to signal an entire message in addition to the basic message” (Fraser, 1996:187). The following four subclasses of parallel markers can be distinguished according to the types of the parallel message (ibid.): vocatives, speaker displeasure markers, solidarity markers, and focusing markers. The paper presents a contrastive study, which investigates the peculiarities of functioning of parallel markers in English and Georgian political media discourse, namely, in a political interview.
METHODS

A linguistic phenomenon like pragmatic markers needs to be approached in a complex way. For this reason the methodology of the study has been based on anthropocentric-communicative and linguo-culturological approaches, which gave the opportunity to conduct an effective contrastive analysis and show the peculiarities of functioning of parallel markers in political media discourse in English and Georgian.

The research resource was selected, bearing in mind the fact that modern scientists consider an interview to be one of the active forms of linguistic realisation and that this realisation is different in individual languages influenced by their peculiarities. The research resource is the corpus to be analysed consisting of interviews chosen from English and Georgian printed and internet media from section of politics (Tchokhonelidze, 2014:169-171). 1000 pragmatic markers in each language were searched successively through the texts and identified according to the aims of the research. The close analysis of the texts of English and Georgian political interviews has clearly revealed the peculiarities of functioning of parallel markers.

PARALLEL MARKERS

1. Vocatives

Pragmatic markers of this type have the form of addressing. They include: names, titles, occupation names... For example, a journalist addresses the respondent this way:

(1) a) - Senator McCain, thanks very much for coming in (7); (Note: The source interviews can be found by corresponding numbers in the Corpus).

b) - ბატონო რამაზ, პრემიერ-მინისტრმა ახალი ხელისუფლების მუშაობის 100 დღეში შეაჯამა, ისაუბრა ბიუჯეტის 1 მილიარდი ლარით გაზრდაზე, პენსიების ზრდაზე, ფასების კლებაზე, ჯანდაცვასა და განათლების დაფინანსების გაზრდაზე, სოფლის მეურნეობის აში საგაზაფხულოდ დაგეგმილ უპრეცედენტო გეგმებზე. თქვენი აზრით, რამდენად ადეკვატურად აფასებს პრემიერ ახალი ხელისუფლების საქმიანობას? (38) / Mr. Ramaz, the Prime Minister summarized the 100-day activities of the new government, talked about boosting the budget with a million GEL, boosting the pensions, cutting the prices, funding the healthcare and the educational systems, mentioned the unprecedented plans for the spring in the agriculture. What do you think about the adequacy of the assessments made by the Prime Minister about the activities of the new government? / (Note: Each Georgian example is followed by equivalent translation).

An addressor, in addition to sending a basic message, explicitly names an addressee to whom the message is addressed with the help of these markers.

It is worth mentioning that, as the analysis has shown, using vocatives is typical for the initial part of an interview and is almost never used during an interview.

(continued...
Vocatives are commonly used by a journalist due to the peculiarities of an interview as a genre when s/he addresses the respondent with the purpose of receiving information. However, one case was observed in one of the Georgian interviews when a respondent conversely, addresses the journalist:

(2) ... ეს ფუნქცია, თავის დროზე, ჩვენ სასამართლოს მივეცით. ქალბატონო დარეჟან, ჩვენ იმ დროის ადამიანები ვართ, როდესაც 221-ე და 222-ე მუხლები შემოვიღეთ, რათა პროკურატურის დაკავების სანქციები ჩამოერთვათ, რასაც აღმკვეთი ღონისძიება ჰქვია (35) / ...We attached this function to the court some time ago. Mrs. Darejan, we are the people of the time when 221st and 222nd articles were introduced, for the purpose that the prosecutor's office would be deprived of the right to arrest people as preventive measures/.

The conducted statistic analysis has shown that the subclass of vocatives makes 4,2% of the class of parallel makers in the English segment, and 0,1% of the whole English segment (all the types of pragmatic markers). As for the Georgian segment, the subclass of vocatives makes 67,9%of the class of parallel makers in the Georgian segment, and 1,9% of the whole Georgian segment (all the types of pragmatic markers).

2. Speaker Displeasure Markers

Speaker displeasure markers express the addressee’s displeasure and annoyance together with the basic message, as seen from the name of the subclass. Such markers are, for example: damned, the hell, in heaven's name.

It must be noted that no precedent of using such markers has been observed neither in the English nor in the Georgian segment of the corpus analysed. This fact, to my mind, is conditioned by the peculiarities of an interview as a genre, as during an interview speakers talk about political issues in formal register and expressing displeasure towards each other and correspondingly, using speaker displeasure markers are unlike here.

3. Solidarity Markers

An addressor with the means of solidarity markers expresses solidarity or, vice versa, lack of it, towards the addressee along with the basic message. Such markers are, for example: look, man; my friend; as your superior.

No marker of this type, just like the above described one, has been observed neither in the English nor in the Georgian segment of the corpus analysed. This fact, to my mind, is also due to the peculiarities of an interview as a genre were there is no necessity for a journalist or a respondent to express (un)solidarity explicitly to each other along with the basic message or, moreover, highlight the superiority, even if s/he is the authority or a VIP. This is because, the roles of the interlocutors are clearly defined in an interview and there is no need of further clarification.

4. Focusing Markers

Another type of pragmatic markers are focusing markers, the function of which is to focus on the topic in question together with expressing the basic message. For example:

(3) a) - And if we look at it now, and if you get these settlements, how will you feel? Will it make you feel better? A sense of relief?
- Look, I've... I will feel better not from settlements, but from my wife, my family, my friends. The people I don't even know who've written to me. That's what makes you feel better. The settlement will just be a warning - don't go there (3).b - What do you think about this policy that we now see in these memorandums that have been revealed that the president can simply order an American citizen to be killed by a drone without any judicial review?

- Wolf, from everything I've seen over the last several years, including everything that's come out in the last several days, I think the president is acting according to the law, according to the Constitution. The president's main job, his main obligation is to protect the security of the American people. And the fact that the enemy may happen to be an American citizen should not give that enemy any immunity. And to me there are sufficient procedures in place, there are protocols in place. And to say that someone who's on the battlefield, who is a high-ranking member of an enemy force, is somehow entitled to due process - listen, if we can capture that person, if we could somehow bring him into justice, otherwise, fine. But you take someone like Awlaki, there's no other way we could get him, and he really was one of the most dangerous people in the world, more dangerous than Bin Laden (6).

c) - Not every Muslim in the country works in takeaways and taxis?

- But in the Burnleys and the Blackburns significant numbers of them do. You see, less of it in London. The Muslim population in London, very significant lots of them came from cities (8).

The focusing particle "აი" is the only representative of this type of parallel markers in the Georgian segment of the corpus. It has been observed just several times. For example:

(4) a) გადავხედოთ, რამდენი მუმიაა სააკაშვილის ხელისუფლებაში, კერვალიშვილით დავიწყოთ და იმით, რაც ხდება „ცენტრპოინტთან დაკავშირებით. ხელისუფლებასთან შერწყმული ბიზნესი, - აი, ეს არის რელეგაცია, რომელიც მაღალი მოქალაქების ბაზაზე ადგილობრივი მოქალაქეობის დროში (33). / Let's have a glance at the number of mummies in Saakashvili government, beginning with Kervalishvili and the situation that is going on concerning "Centerpoint". A business merged with the authority - this is what is called oligarchy, which makes money dishonestly by deceiving people./

b) აი, აქ უშუალო ზედამხედველობა აქვს პროკურატურაში, პროკურატურის მეშვეობით სასამართლოს უნდა ჰქონდეს ზედამხედველობა, რადგან ის არის მართლმსაჯულის უძველესი ინსტიტუტი. აი, ეს პრინციპი დარღვეული (35) / This is the aspect, over which the procurator's office carries out direct supervision. Accordingly, the court should carry out supervision, as it is the only institution of justice. This is the very principle, which is ignored./

In all the given examples the speaker, apart from sending the basic message, tries to draw the listener's attention towards some specific aspect of the proposition, which s/he thinks is very important. S/he manages it by using the focusing marker.

The conducted analysis has revealed that the subclass of focusing markers makes 95.8 % of the parallel pragmatic marker class in the English segment, and 2.3% of the whole English segment (all the types of pragmatic markers). As for the Georgian segment, the subclass of focusing markers makes 32.1% of the parallel pragmatic marker class in the Georgian segment, and 0.9% of the whole Georgian segment (all the types of pragmatic markers).
RESULTS

The conducted contrastive study has shown that parallel pragmatic markers can be found in both English and Georgian. But a very small number of this type of pragmatic markers has been found in the corpus analysed. Moreover, no precedent of usage of the two types of parallel markers out of the four distinguished types has been observed in any of the segments of the corpus; they are: speaker displeasure markers and solidarity markers. I have come to the conclusion that this fact is due to the peculiarities of an interview as a genre.

To sum up, the number of parallel markers found in both segments - English and Georgian - and the frequency of their usage in both languages is approximately the same (Figure 1).

![Parallel Pragmatic Markers](image1.png)

Figure 1. Parallel Markers in English and Georgian Political Interview

The frequency of usage of the given class of pragmatic markers in the two languages among all the observed markers (1000 in each) in the two segments of the corpus analysed is presented in the Figure 2:

![Types of Parallel Markers](image2.png)

Figure 2. Types of Parallel Markers in English and Georgian Political Interview

Thus, only two types of parallel markers appeared to be present in both segments of the corpus analyzed: vocatives and focusing markers. Vocatives are typically used by a journalist, a little more frequently in Georgian than in English. As for the focusing markers, the situation is vice versa: the speakers focus and highlight facts more frequently in English political media discourse than in Georgian.
CONCLUSION

To sum up, as mentioned in the beginning of the paper, the functioning of pragmatic markers in political media discourse is determined by the linguo-cultural character of the nation which is reflected in the peculiarities of their functioning. Generally speaking, the low ratio of such markers in both segments reveals the isomorphic pragmatic nature between the two languages about functioning of the type of pragmatic markers in question: English as well as Georgian media discourse is characterized by lack of parallel markers i.e. English speakers as well as Georgian ones send few parallel messages in political interviews.

REFERENCES


P4C AND TEACHER EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Lack of understanding of teachers and student teachers’ knowledge and beliefs has often been blamed for the failure of teacher education courses and innovations introduced in the education system. A teacher education course, that is focused exclusively on imparting factual information and building skills while neglecting to investigate and if necessary, attempting to modify belief systems is doomed to failure, especially in the setting where education system is undergoing serious changes, as is the case with Georgia. The paper reviews the reasons for the lack of effect of teacher education courses in changing teacher’s belief systems and consequently, their behaviours. It suggests that the solution may lie in the approach called Philosophy for Communities (P4C). Although this approach was initially developed to encourage abstract thinking and reasoning skills in young people, it has since been applied in many areas across school curriculum. The paper summarizes the aims of this approach and attempts to translate them into the benefits for teacher education courses. It presents an experimental study carried out as part of the pre-service teacher training course and integrating the P4C approach into the existing curriculum. Providing a detailed description of the procedure and discussing the results of the sessions, the paper yields some interesting findings. Based on the results of the study, it is possible to make a tentative claim that using the P4C approach can help bring trainees’ thinking and learning to a conscious level and to contribute to integration of new views and thoughts into their belief systems.

Key Words: Teacher education, philosophy for communities, P4C, teacher belief, communicative language teaching, reflection.

1. TEACHER BELIEFS AND TEACHER EDUCATION

Teacher education in Georgia (and probably in many other countries) has a double purpose: it equips the teacher with professional knowledge and skills, but it also tries to introduce new approaches and methods into education through these newly-trained teachers. This means that teachers are trained to teach in ways they have little experience of from their previous contact with educational system. It is certainly a challenging task and it has long been recognized that the success of teacher education relies heavily on the effect it can have not only on teacher behaviour, but also on teacher cognition. “Reciprocal relationship” between the domains of teacher thought and action came to the fore together with
the belief that "the process of teaching will be fully understood only when these two domains are brought together and examined in relation to one another" (Clark & Peterson, 1986: 258).

A lot of research on teacher cognition is concerned with studying teachers’ knowledge and beliefs, as their influence on teachers’ judgments and behaviour has long been widely recognized (e.g. Clark and Peterson, 1986; Pajares, 1992; Shavelson and Stern, 1981). Lack of understanding of teachers and student teachers' knowledge and beliefs has often been blamed for the failure of teacher education courses and innovations introduced in education system.

Teacher training courses generally have notoriously little influence on the development of future teachers’ belief systems (Johnson, 1995). Even when they do have some effect, it disappears very soon after the first contact with the reality of the classroom. This is the experience described by Pennington and Richards (1997) in their article about five Hong Kong teachers of English. Having completed a three-year training course, these teachers were expected "to be comfortable teaching according to the principles of communicative language teaching, while at the same time being able to adapt their teaching to student needs and expectations and to the type of class they are teaching" (p.159). However, by the end of the year very little of their commitment to the principles of CLT had survived. The authors were forced to draw a very pessimistic conclusion, that there was very little likelihood of these teachers introducing any significant innovation even in later teaching years. This experience must sound very familiar to many teacher educators around the world and this is hardly surprising.

In their review of previous studies dealing with teacher thinking, Shavelson and Stern (1981) claim that beliefs come into play only when knowledge relevant to the situation is not available to the teacher. A similar point is developed by Nespor (1987), when he speaks of "entangled domains" and "ill-structured problems" and states that a great deal in teaching can be described as such. Classroom conditions with limitations of time, space, resources, often lack of official support, pupil motivation, demands of the curriculum, all the other subjective and objective factors that come into play are a severe test of innovative teachers’ newly developed beliefs and skills. While this is true of all teachers, the pressures are doubled for novices. They have to adjust to a totally new atmosphere, establish their roles in relationship to pupils, colleagues, supervisors as well as teach. Unlike beginners in many other fields demands placed on teachers are not modified in any way because of their lack of experience (Lortie, 1975). Thus, their mastery of teaching skills and their knowledge of the principles of methodology undergo a severe test. In order to survive this test these principles have to be based on teacher’s deep beliefs. Delimiting knowledge and belief is no easy task, but for our purposes we can use Calderhead’s (1996) definition. Summarising some of the previous research he writes: "Although beliefs generally refer to suppositions, commitments and ideologies, knowledge is taken to refer to factual propositions and the understandings that inform skilful action" (ibid: .715). A teacher education course that is focused exclusively on imparting factual information and building skills while neglecting to investigate and if necessary, attempt to modify belief systems is doomed to failure, especially in the setting where education system is undergoing serious changes, as is the case with Georgia.

The problem in fact is that very often teacher training is thought to have little influence on the development of teachers’ belief systems. Lortie (1975) complains about the “lack of dramatic change of outlook” in teachers as a result of pre-service training courses (p.66). He sees no evidence of transition from the perceptions of a "naïve layman" to those of a
professional. The major finding of Lacey’s (1977) research is the discontinuity between teacher education and actual practice of teaching. Now, forty years later these problems are still very often seen as vital.

There are several reasons why teacher beliefs are so difficult to deal with. According to Pajares (1992), time when the beliefs are formed is very significant. He speaks about ‘primacy effect’, that is how early experiences and inferences made from them bias the whole process of development of belief systems. So, trainee teachers come to the course with a well-formed system of beliefs bringing with them many conscious and unconscious images of learning and teaching from home and most importantly from school. As many of the students have mainly experienced knowledge-transmission model of education, teacher educators face a daunting task of challenging their existing belief systems.

Although the view that formal teacher education is ineffectual in developing or changing prospective teachers’ beliefs is common, several interesting exceptions can be quoted. Peacock (2001) reports that after initial failure to influence trainee teachers’ beliefs in favour of communicative approach in language teaching, they had to revise the course content and include a reflective element into it. According to the author this produced the desired result, however the study is not conclusive as it relies on students’ self-reports and the findings have not been quantified or triangulated in any other way. This suggests that a lot depends on the character of the program itself, the factor that has often been ignored in the research on belief development.

So, can a teacher education course affect trainees’ beliefs and values and through them ultimately have a long-term effect on their behaviour? We believe a solution (or at least part of the solution) may lie in the approach called Philosophy for Communities.

2. P4C

P4C is an approach to teaching and learning developed initially by Matthew Lipman and extended into a curriculum by him and his colleagues from Montclair University (USA). Initially it stood for Philosophy for Children and focused on developing abstract thinking and reasoning skills in young people of 6 to 16. At present, this term is also used to denote Philosophy for Communities as its uses cannot be limited to children only. Since 1960s when it was born the approach has been used in numerous educational settings all around the world and there is ample evidence that it is successful in achieving its aims which include:

1. bringing thinking and learning to a conscious level;
2. encouraging the search for different viewpoints and ways of thinking in order to avoid becoming mindless when we rely on a fixed mindset and cling unthinkingly to the same way;
3. expanding thinking not only by thinking for oneself but also thinking with and through others;
4. preparing students to learn and to think for themselves in order to equip them better for the rapidly changing world outside.

I have listed here the aims which I believe to be most relevant to the aims of teacher education programmes (for a more detailed discussion of the aims and advantages of P4C see Fisher, 2003; Chachanidze, 2013). As Fisher (2003) puts, resulting ‘improvement in thinking can be viewed as a move from unconscious to conscious thought, from everyday to critical
thinking, moving from the surface of things to the structure of things, from what Socrates calls ‘unconsidered life’ to a considered view which backs claims and opinions with reasons” (p.18). The aims listed above can easily be translated into the benefits for a teacher education course.

- Bringing unconscious beliefs to a conscious level, verbalizing them will help teachers or prospective teachers better appreciate the ‘conflict’ between the demands of modern methodology and their existing belief systems and images. This might be a step towards enabling teachers to handle this ‘conflict’ better.
- Clinging to traditional principles and methods could be the result of low awareness of the variety of options open to teachers, possibilities existing even within a single method. A teacher education course that manages to open trainee’s minds to new possibilities and teach them to avoid the trap of a beaten track will certainly have achieved a major success.

We will not go into detailed description of P4C structure and techniques here. Chachandize (2013) provides a brief and informative summary of the relevant points. However, as the session planned for the pilot study mainly followed basic stages of P4C instruction, we will try to provide a detailed description of the whole procedure in the following section.

3. THE STUDY

This pilot study was carried out at the Department of English Philology of Akaki Tsereteli State University as part of English language teaching methodology course with the purpose of testing potential effects and desirability of introducing P4C into the course programme.

3.1. Research Participants

The participants were 18 third-year English Language and Literature students, taking an optional course in ELT methodology. As this is the only module focusing on teacher education in the BA programme, it would be safe to assume that the students have little awareness of the theory of language teaching. However, they have many years of experience as language learners first at school, then with private tutors and finally at university. In spite of the lack of formal training, 14 out of 18 of these students admit that they do private tutoring and work with school pupils of different ages.

3.2. The Session

ELT methodology in this course is taught using a coursebook written by a group of Georgian authors entitled “Becoming an English Teacher: Theory and Practice of Teaching English in Georgia” (Tsitsishvili et al, 2008). By the time of the intervention the students had had only two sessions of methodology. In the first one the instructor introduced them to basic language systems and skills and gave a lecture on Grammar-Translation method. In the second session the students had a chance to go over the concepts they had read about after the first session, ask questions, do the activities given in the coursebook, and answer the instructors’ questions. They all commented on how familiar everything about the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) was to them and how similar it was to what they had been exposed to at school. They were also highly critical of many of the characteristics of GTM, for instance, a teacher’s dominant role, extensive use of L1, absence of student-student interaction, and neglect of speaking and listening skills.
The aim of the third session was to introduce communicative language teaching (CLT) to the students. The class was conducted according to the main principles and structure of P4C.

The desks were arranged in a circle and the group was seated so that everyone could see everyone else. A video demonstration of the communicative approach selected as stimulus was shown to the students. Although the demonstration lesson is accompanied by comments explaining the main principles of the approach, these sections had been cut out so that the students could be completely free in forming their opinions and assumptions.

After viewing the instructor asked everyone to think of any questions that came to mind and write them on pieces of paper. There was some initial hesitation and uncertainty, which is only natural with an unfamiliar strategy. However, as soon as the instructor’s example question clarified that no special knowledge of methodology was required from them and questions could even be simple factual ones, they started to write eagerly. 39 questions overall were collected; some students wrote only one question, others three or four. At this stage the instructor did not exactly follow P4C strategy in that she did not ask students to put their names next to the questions. Judging by the findings of the post session reflection this turned out to be the right decision; majority of the students claimed they felt less self-conscious about language accuracy and even content of the questions. However, as they grow more accustomed to this approach, such caution will probably become unnecessary.

Question formulation stage was followed by voting using ‘omnivote’ strategy i.e. the instructor read out all the questions and asked the students to vote for any or all of the questions. The question that won was the following: “What is the aim of this course (or lesson)?” As the questions were all anonymous, the author of the selected question was deprived of the chance (usual for P4C) of the ‘first words’, opening the discussion and sharing their initial thoughts. However, one of the students volunteered to answer the question and it gave a start to a very successful discussion, which flowed for the whole of the allocated time (45 minutes) not leaving the instructor a possibility to move on to the second most popular question. However, interestingly approximately half of the questions came up directly or indirectly in the discussion and were covered quite thoroughly by the students. The instructor’s role was very limited during the whole process. Although at certain points the participants looked at her expecting a direct answer to some of their questions, when no such answers came, they moved attention to their peers. The instructor did have to take a more active role at the concluding stage to call on one of the students who had not volunteered her opinion during the whole session.

As usual, P4C sessions end with ‘final words’ stage when each participant is given time to reflect on the whole process and their own thoughts and feelings. In this session students’ final words concerned the approach used as much as the topic under discussion. While they still had some reservations about the method and their own understanding of the method, their reactions to P4C approach were overwhelmingly positive.

P4C session was followed by a regular lecture, reading and analysis of communicative language teaching according to the coursebook. As a home assignment, the students were asked to reflect on their reaction to this new technique of presenting new material in their reflection journals, especially in comparison with the previous presentation of GTM.

3.3. Discussion
The issues that came up in the discussion were the following:

- The trainees initially stated that the overall aim of the lesson was to improve communication skills. However, later they managed to narrow it down to the function of ‘building a case’ i.e. structuring an argument.

- The trainees commented that there was no focus on ‘grammatical perfection’, only on communication. Although some saw this as an advantage, others expressed a belief that explanation of some language points, e.g. grammatical structures, might have helped the learners in building their argument later. They claimed that such explanation in the native language would have been beneficial. However, it was suggested by one of the participants that it would have been practically impossible considering the fact that the learners were obviously from different countries and did not share a language. Thus, it was concluded that such explanation though desirable was not possible in the given circumstances.

- It was suggested that this method is acceptable for teaching communication which, as followed from many of the comments, equals speaking. However, it could not be used for “teaching everything”. As students followed up this thought they remembered that the teacher in the video sets the group an essay for homework. So the discussion moved on to how appropriate communicative approach would be for teaching writing.

- One of the students was surprised that people at this age (adults mostly in their thirties and older) needed to be taught such simple functions. It came up that age might not be directly related to language competence.

- The discussion also focused on who the learners in the video could be. Considering their low competence assessed on the basis of their pronunciation and accuracy problems, the trainees were surprised that they had few problems understanding the teacher’s instructions and explanations. They deduced that these learners must have had a lot of exposure to spoken English before coming to class. So they must be living in an English-speaking country.

- The trainees were also interested in the teacher’s decision to use his family’s experience as the topic for the activity. They thought it an interesting choice because it would motivate the learners.

- A lot of the discussion had to do with the lack of teacher’s control during the role play demonstrated in the video and the question whether there was any learning taking place. Majority opinion was that it was good for communication practice, but it remained rather vague what was meant by this.

It is interesting that the instructors’ lecture and the background reading material from the coursebook included the following points: the aim of communicative language teaching, the equal focus on all the skills and language systems, the language of instruction in CLT, the roles of the teacher and learner, the importance of pair and group work, the main types of activities in CLT (including role play), characteristics of communicative activities (e.g. communicative purpose, information gap, feedback).

As is clear from the brief summary of the discussion topics, many of the issues that the instructors had planned to include in the lecture came up after viewing. So, at the very least the scene had been set for the presentation and the trainees’ topic-related schema had already been activated prior to the lecture. Consequently, the material was more understandable and less effort was required on the instructors’ part. Moreover, the instructors got a very clear idea of the trainees’ attitudes to various aspects of language teaching.
4. CONCLUSION

Although this experiment was only a preliminary stage of a study investigating the effects of P4C on developing trainee teachers’ beliefs and perceptions, some tentative suggestions can already be made. It can be concluded after the very first session of P4C that

1. the session led the trainees to raise the questions that the trainer will need to focus on while working on the main principles and strategies of CLT. These issues include the main aim of CLT, the language systems and skills focused on in CLT, applicability of this method for learners of various ages and levels, the place of explanation/presentation and the role of L1, the effects of exposure to target language, the importance of communicative intent in planning communicative activities.

2. the trainees’ beliefs concerning the role of formal instruction, their attitude to grammar teaching, the importance of pronunciation, the role of the teacher were clarified and in certain cases were found to contrast with what they claimed to feel about GTM. It became evident that although they value accuracy over fluency, they see communication skills as something additional, something to be developed on the “solid foundation of GTM”.

Interestingly, trainees’ reflections after the first session reveal that they saw this video lesson as primarily the opportunity to improve their listening and speaking skills in English. Only a few of them mentioned among its benefits that is brought the method to life and it was easier to discuss the positive and negative sides of the method after actually viewing it in action. Thus, the trainees’ perception of themselves is still very much that of students/learners and they find it hard to assess events and activities from a teacher’s perspective.

The advantages of using this approach in teacher education can be summarized as follows:

1. It activates background knowledge and prior experiences making presentation of new theoretical material more relevant and effective;
2. It provokes trainees’ curiosity and interest in the issues raised and motivates them to learn further finding competent answers and explanations to their questions;
3. It allows trainees to verbalize their beliefs and sometimes unconscious attitudes to various aspects of teaching and raises their awareness of certain issues;
4. It provides the trainer with valuable information concerning the trainees attitudes and belief systems allowing them to observe any changes throughout the course;
5. Through listening and reacting to their peers opinions trainees come to a deeper understanding of the issues discovering the aspects and concepts that would have escaped their notice otherwise;

In the initial reflections the trainees did not comment on how they felt about initiating the questions themselves. However, in the next session they already felt much more confident about asking questions. The nature of the questions, the ratio of open vs. closed questions, factual vs. so called Socratic questions itself will be an interesting object of study for future.
REFERENCES


THE OEDIPUS MYTH AS INTERTEXT IN THOMAS PYNCHON’S *THE CRYING OF LOT 49*

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ABSTRACT

Thomas Pynchon’s *The Crying of Lot 49* involves many historical, cultural, political, literary and artistic allusions. Allusive connections in the narrative structure help fill the open possibilities of the text. However, the objective of this paper is not to identify the various sources of the novel, but to define the function of the myth of Oedipus in the novel. The name of the main protagonist of the novel is Oedipa, a female form of Oedipus. The myth interwoven into the text does not have any connections with its Freudian interpretation. In the Greek mythological tradition, the canonical version of which can be found in Sophocles’ trilogy, Oedipus is tormented by the question of man’s place in the Universe. He had to face with religious, philosophical, political and moral problems. The King of Thebes was very confident that the disorder in his society was not caused by him, and might be solved by his famous talent to understand riddles. Later he realized that he himself was indeed the cause of the troubles around him. When he met the Sphinx on the road to Thebes, he did more than answer a riddle — he generated a myth that, told and retold, would become one of Western culture’s central narratives about self-understanding. Oedipa in *The Crying of Lot 49*, likewise, first as a detective tries to solve a puzzling case, but later learns that truth is not so easy to discover. Wherever she goes, whichever interpretation she does, at the end of the novel she finds only the absence of closure. Much of the humor of the novel grows from the parody of Oedipa’s attempt to create order and significance from the various clues.

Key words: self-understanding, futility of the quest, chaos

INTRODUCTION

Thomas Pynchon’s *The Crying of Lot 49* involves numerous historical, cultural, political, literary and artistic allusions. As an extremely learned writer, Thomas Pynchon exploits even science for offering the novelists new areas of experience and unusual metaphors and comparisons. The novel also includes references to mathematics, computer technology as well as the Second Law of Thermodynamics. It is a truly multidisciplinary case study that demonstrates the value of intertextuality to articulate issues too complex for direct analysis. A lot of allusive connections in the narrative structure help fill the open possibilities of the text, deepen readers’ appreciation and experience, bringing multiple layers of meaning to the text. However, the objective of this paper is not to identify and analyze the various sources of the novel, but to define the purpose of using the myth of Oedipus in the novel.
Intertextuality as practical application for the textual analysis

The name of the main protagonist of The Crying of Lot 49 Oedipa, most obviously implies that she is a female equivalent of Oedipus, arguably the first literary detective. The name Oedipus refreshes our memory of ancient Greek mythology and the tragedy Oedipus Rex by Sophocles about the King of Thebe. However, the myth interwoven into the text does not have any connections with its Freudian interpretation. At the beginning a reader probably may be confused by the name itself and the idea of using it for the main character in the novel. The reader of the book must consider the possibility that Oedipa’s name is merely comic, as parody, satire and black humor are manifest throughout all Pynchon’s works.

In the Greek mythological tradition of Oedipus, the canonical version of which can be found in Sophocles’ trilogy, Oedipus is tormented by the question of man’s place in the Universe. He had to face with religious, philosophical, political and moral problems. King of Thebes was very confident that the disorder in his society was not caused by him, and might be solved by his famous talent to understand riddles. He could defeat the Sphinx and answer its riddle (e.g., what walks on four legs in the morning, two at noon, and three in the morning), but he could not guess the puzzle of his life and avoid the destiny predicted for him. Later he realized that he himself was indeed the cause of the troubles around him and it is revealed that he himself was the unknown man who killed his father and married his mother. The tragic hero crosses over into an unknown and dangerous realm where rules and limits are not known. When he met the Sphinx on the road to Thebes and guessed its riddle, he did more than answer a riddle - he generated a myth that, told and retold, would become one of Western culture’s central narratives about self-understanding.

Oedipa in The Crying of Lot 49, likewise, first as a detective tries to solve a puzzling case, but later learns that truth is not so easy to discover. Wherever she goes, whichever interpretation she finds, at the end of the novel she discovers only the absence of closure. Much of the humor of the novel grows from the parody of Oedipa’s attempt to create order and significance from the various clues. Indeed the story has no proper beginning, no proper development, and no ending. In line with Mikhail Bakhtin (1990; 1993) and Julia Kristeva’s (1980) definition, intertextuality gives us a possibility to see any text as a dynamic structure that involves a particular mental activity, namely, not only identifying texts that participate in the final text, but rather an understanding of the new identity of the text, which, due to intertextuality, may appear as fragments of character, or fragments of ideology, or fragments of representation (Nicol, 2009).

Oedipa Maas left for California’s San Narciso to inherit some property left to her by the ex-lover, Pierce Inverarity. Immediately she finds herself overwhelmed by the size and the complexity of Inverarity’s estate, and hopelessly imagines that she will never get Inverarity’s affairs straightened out. But when Oedipa is about to lose hope, she meets an odd man who seems to have some ideas to help her. As the two look into the estate, coincidence after coincidence starts, until Oedipa finds herself enmeshed in a global conspiracy, where almost every person, place, and thing she meets can be plausibly fit. She begins to feel like “the private eye in any long-ago radio drama”. Thus, the central question of the story is whether the conspiracy exists or Oedipa is making it all up.

Running around California, Oedipa tries to gather information about Tristero, the post system which has been in a state of degradation since the eighteenth century. She hopes the information about it will help her find the truth, but the more
information she gains about Trystero, the more confused and disorderly are her thoughts, pushing her to the point where reality and fantasy are mixed.

It seems to her that she finds similarities between Trystero and the Thurn and Taxis postal monopoly, which actually existed in Europe, and the American Government’s own postal monopoly. Oedipa continues collecting information, tries to find any system in chaos, any solution of the mystery. She seems to find substantial clues in the oddest and most coincidental places, though her problem is not that the vital information is hidden or encoded, but that there is an excess of information. She is tossed around from place to place, from man to man, and from text to text. The only areas of certainty seem to be the text, Oedipa does not trust anything, but the documents. The first text is Inverarity’s will, which manipulates the woman from the beginning to the end: it sends her to San Narciso and leads to attend a performance of The Courier’s Tragedy. The play is the second important text in the book. She wants to discover the original text of the play to clean of all the additions by the director of the pay and the various scholars. Oedipa hopes that she may decipher the secret, coded into Inverarity’s will, thanks to the play. She hopes that once she will discover the original text and will know for sure if Tristero ever existed and is still around. The feelings of doubt and uncertainty make her wonder if she is going mad or if she can make any sense of what is happening around.

Oedipa realizes that she is within “the confinement of a tower”. This image appears when she sees a painting of Remedios Varo’s Bordando el Manto Terrestre in Mexico with Inverarity: “…in the central painting of triptych, titled ‘Bordando el Manto terrestre’, were a number of frail girls with heart-shaped faces, huge eyes, spun-gold hair, prisoners in the top room of a circular tower, embroidering a kind of tapestry which spilled out the slit windows and into a void, seeking hopelessly to fill the void: for all the other buildings are creatures, all the waves, ships and forests of the earth were contained in the tapestry, and the tapestry was the world” (Pynchon, 1974:13). Oedipa saw herself as the centre of the world: the girls are inventing the world with their hands and imaginations from their place of confinement. Someday, of course, they will discover the circularity of the process: they cannot go on inventing the world without inventing themselves. The painting becomes a revelation to Oedipa: “What did she so desire escape from? Such a captive maiden, having plenty of time to think, soon realizes that her tower, its height and architecture, are like her ego only incidental…” (Pynchon 1974:14). Oedipa starts crying, overwhelmed with anxiety and fear at the thought of nothingness.

In Berkeley, she will come across another painting which, according to David Cowart, represents a woman who opens one of a number of small caskets in a room, only to find her own face inside staring back at her (Cowart, 1980). The picture again demonstrates the futility of her search. The main character’s last name is significant – Maas in Dutch stands for the stitches of a net. It transmits the protagonist’s feelings of entrapment in net-like, web-like arrangements and connections in her experience when it is impossible to distinguish what is true and what is false.

Oedipa’s unsettling discoveries of the Tristero produces the readers’ own discovery of a network of historical clues and suggestions. Her futile attempts to verify verbal details act like a comic warning to the reader not to expect informational closure. Wandering through San Francisco and everywhere Oedipa finds signs about the secret system to verify her suspicions about the word WASTE (We Await Silent Tristero’s Empire) and Tristero’s symbol of the Horn. At the same time the reader realizes, that the word “waste” indicates the futility of her quest. At the end just as the truth promises to be
revealed in an auction for some valuable stamps (labelled by auctioneers 'lot 49'), the novel is cut short. Oedipa and the reader will always await the Crying of Lot 49 just as the audience is waiting for Beckett’s Godot.

CONCLUSION

The quest leads Oedipa to encounter a kind of internal chaos and leaves her in limbo as her quest is hopeless. Indeed, she never succeeds in figuring out the meaning behind the Tristero. If she fails and cannot find solution, she cannot find placidity. However, if she succeeds, she will lose happiness and contentment for good, as she will know that her universe is being undermined by an adverse system. The world around Oedipa seems to be a world full of conspiracies and illusions, where everybody and everything is controlled, probably, by the government, big business, mass media, or some conspiracy theory.

Like her mythical model, Oedipus, Oedipa, the main protagonist of The Crying of Lot 49, is struggling to reveal all mysteries, even if it means tearing the world apart and making it unfit to live in. Where Oedipus is able to solve a riddle and discover a hidden truth, Oedipa is clearly unable to do either. The Oedipus myth as intertext guides the reader in reading Pynchon’s novel and helps him understand what their similarities and differences reveal about one another. And just as Oedipa is unable to piece together the puzzle of the Tristero, she is similarly unable to refashion her life after it begins to fall apart. Oedipa can no longer find orientation and feels manipulated and lost in an incomprehensible world. The reader and the characters appear finite, dependent, and vulnerable human beings in a historical situation that they cannot penetrate and understand. The Crying of Lot 49 appears to be about cultural chaos and communication as seen through the eyes of a young woman who finds herself in a hallucinogenic world disintegrating around her.

REFERENCES


SUCCESSFUL TECHNIQUES IN CLASS TO HANDLE INTERCULTURAL BARRIERS

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ABSTRACT

In a global world experiencing rapid change, education has a major role to play in promoting social cohesion and peaceful coexistence. Education is the instrument both of the all-round development of the human person and of that person's participation in social life. Intercultural education is a kind of education that respects, celebrates and recognizes the normality of diversity in all areas of human life. It sensitizes the learner to the idea that humans have naturally developed a range of different ways of life, customs and worldviews, promotes equality and human rights, and values upon which equality is built. It tackles with issues such as challenges of intercultural communication and unfair discrimination.

Successful approaches of intercultural education should ensure that the education process respects the diversity of values, beliefs, languages and traditions of all the humans. Georgia is distinguished with its ethnic diversity. Ethnic minorities live in Kakheti region as well (Azerbaijanis, Kurts and Kists) where Telavi State University is located. Our university has lots of Kist students and that creates an intercultural environment and it has become an issue of interest to form and implement several key strategies that can break intercultural barriers in the classroom. The paper deals with the challenges of intercultural education and the impact of different cultures as well as suggests useful techniques for teachers to use in the classroom to manage intercultural differences and handle misunderstandings of different cultures' representatives.

Key words: Intercultural education, diversity, identity, marginalization

One of the most important issues in today’s global world is education internalization for all its citizens. In this case the social responsibility of educational sphere is to create such a learning environment in the educational institutions that makes all students competitive in the world. In today’s rapidly changing universe, where nobody knows in which part of the world s/he will be employed the next day, it is the greatest responsibility of universities to prepare its students in such a way that they can live, collaborate and work in harmony with the people around in culturally diverse world. The best precondition to attain this goal is to teach students how to manage and handle problems within different cultural groups and how to live peacefully among them keeping in mind that all people, despite their religion, skin color, gender, cultural or ethnic origin, are equal and have identical rights.

Intercultural education promotes the understanding of different people and cultures. It includes teachings that accept and respect the normality of diversity in all areas of life. Intercultural education efforts to promote equal opportunities of education for all.

In order to understand intercultural issues, it is essential to define the term culture at first. Culture is a complex system of behaviors, values, beliefs, traditions and artifacts, which is transmitted through generations. Culture is a learned pattern of
behavior, and is a way in which a person lives his life. It is an integral part of every society, and it creates a feeling of belonging and togetherness among the people of that society. Culture encompasses various aspects of communication, attitude, etiquette, beliefs, values, customs, norms, food, art, jewelry, clothing styles, etc. Every society has a different culture, which gives it an identity and uniqueness.

“A person is not born as a social being...Education and upbringing are nothing but acquiring a culture...According to this, culture means adaptation of a person to society” (Sorokin, 1992: 218). Education is “the instrument both of the all-round development of the human person and of that person’s participation in social life” (UNESCO, 1992: 4). It can take place at any age, through the actions of many institutions, such as family, the community or the work environment. It can also take place through interaction with the natural environment, especially when such interaction is socially and culturally determined.

It is important to define socializing which is the component part of intercultural relations in the classroom. “Human is definitely socialized and takes the norms of the given society, but at the same time tries to maintain his/her own identity” (Eriashvili, 2009: 12). Socializing is the process of inheriting and disseminating norms, customs, values and ideologies, providing an individual with the skills and habits necessary for participating within his/her own society. Socialization is “the means by which social and cultural continuity are attained” (Hurrelmann, 2009: 5). For the process of socialization in the classroom to be successful, the teacher should know in what kind of social environment was the student raised (family, neighborhood, relatives, etc.) and in what kind of social institutions s/he studied at (nursery school, secondary school, college, etc.). All these above-mentioned social settings define students’ cultural characteristics of socialization which form cultural identity in students. The cultural identity of an individual can be clearly different not only for students representing different cultures but also among the same cultural carriers. Cultural differences can cause misunderstandings and barriers among students and between students and teacher as well. For managing these misunderstandings in the intercultural classroom, teacher must know effective strategies and ways to help students learn and collaborate in harmony with all the students around. The goals of interculturalism are to enhance mutual understanding and reduce marginalization (Balogun, 2010).

The Constitution of Georgia (1995), article 35.1.2 declares that “everyone shall have the right to receive education and the right to free choice of a form of education. The state shall ensure harmonization of the national educational system within the international educational space”. In Georgia the implementation of intercultural education is very important, as this country is multi-ethnic and multi-religious. One of the regions where different ethnic groups live is Kakheti, where in Pankisi Gorge live Kists. They constitute about 8% of the whole population in that area. Like the ethnic diversity of the population in Georgia, ethnic minorities can also be seen in educational institutions as well. Ethnic minorities (mainly Kists) study in Telavi State University which is situated in Kakheti region. Their total number on Bachelor level is 30 in different specialties. That creates an intercultural environment in the classrooms and the need and knowledge to use strategies to overcome the possible problems that may arise during the learning process.

It is worth noting that in the Georgian Teacher’s Professional Standard Guideline (Mastavlebis, 2015) it is mentioned that “teacher creates a safe environment for students of various cultures”. All teachers should keep in mind that an intercultural classroom may cause some barriers, but at the same time it can be used as a very good and effective resource to make
the teaching environment more interesting and cognitive. As Georgian writers Shalva Tabadze and Natia Natsvlishvili say in their book (Tabadze & Natsvlishvili, 2008: 8), “intercultural Education is a necessary condition that teachers be teachers for all the students and not only for them who are closer to his/her personal identity”.

The concept of identity is self-awareness and getting to know oneself which is probably the starting point towards accepting, understanding and enjoying otherness. Exploration of one’s identity seems to be an essential element for intercultural communication (TEMPUS, 2014). Identity can also be defined as the distinctive characteristic belonging to any given individual, or shared by all members of a particular social category or group. Identity is the conception, qualities, beliefs, and expressions that make a person (self-identity) or group (such as national identity and cultural identity) different from others (Leary & Tangney, 2003: 3). Every individual student in the classroom has his/her own personal identity, which needs to be respected and accepted by others. Teacher in the classroom must provide safe spaces where students are seen, valued, cared for and respected. It is also important that students have opportunities to learn from one another’s varied experiences and perspectives. But first teachers have to show they value students’ lives and identities in a variety of way, such as taking the time to learn the proper pronunciation of every student’s name or getting to know their families, traditions and customs. Teacher’s actions in the classroom have a very big impact on students’ relations. A critical component of developing relationships is to know and understand the learner. Developing relationships with students who come from culturally different backgrounds can be challenging and requires specific skills from new and experienced teachers alike. It is important to help teachers become aware of how their racial and cultural heritages may impact their classroom climates. This awareness helps prepare teachers to identify and work through any existing intolerance they may have for students who come from different ethnic, racial, class, or religious backgrounds.

One effective strategy for teachers to use can be Life Road Map (Facing History and Ourselves, 2016), which allows teachers and students to develop a map of their lives by creating sequences of events, including important decisions and inspirations. It would promote an appreciation for one’s own culture and for the cultures of others that are represented in the classroom. It also would provide a forum for sharing difficulties that teachers and students have faced, some of which will be a result of culture and race. One more similar strategy can be for both teachers and students to write a poem called Where I’m From that reveals information about their lives outside classroom (Christensen, 2001). Students are encouraged to include information in the poem by studying items found in their homes, in their yards, and in their neighborhoods and the names of relatives, foods, and places they keep in their childhood memories. For a teacher with students from different cultures in one classroom, these poems could be read aloud and posted to provide a powerful way of building relationships and community in the classroom. For both of these strategies, it is critical that the teacher participate by completing the assignments and sharing them as well.

The following tips can be also helpful for teachers who work in the intercultural classrooms:

- It is important to celebrate similarities, as well as discovering differences between students. Teachers can promote the discovery of common interests and shared experiences between students and help build cohesiveness in the group.
• Opportunities for students should be provided to students to interact with the teacher informally. Promote a computer or a mobile phone as an easily accessible method of student-lecturer interaction after the lessons, this will make students believe that they all are equally important for teacher, despite religion, ethnicity, race, etc.

• At the start of each semester, provide students with some information about your cultural background and any cross-cultural teaching, learning or research experiences you have ever had.

• Ask students how they prefer to learn, and, where possible, examine how you might adapt your teaching and learning activities accordingly. For example, inviting students to write a self-reflective essay to explain their learning style.

• Communicate to your students that you are committed to understanding cultural differences and understanding your own assumptions, values and beliefs associated with diversity. This sends a message to students that culture is valued and respected in the classroom.

• At the beginning of the semester ask all the students what name or form of address they prefer.

• During class discussions, refer to students by name as much as possible. Correct pronunciation of names is very important, as it demonstrates cultural awareness and respect.

• Avoid ignoring or neglecting the needs of individual students. For example, ensure you do not have a tendency to favour one student over another when answering questions or doing tasks.

• Avoid stereotypes and preconceived assumptions in your teaching practices and course content.

• Prompt students to ask questions by using open-ended statements, such as: Would anyone like to share a different opinion about the issues?

In order to make teaching process more interesting, teachers can use a lot of activities that help students of different cultural background interact. Here are some of the activities that are very effective in the intercultural class:

1. Respect Activity (this activity can be used at the beginning of the term which helps diverse students introduce themselves)

Ask everyone to find someone in the room who they do not know. Instruct them to introduce themselves to that person, and spend five to ten minutes talking about respect. What does it mean for you to show respect, and what does it mean for you to be shown respect? After the allotted time, ask the participants to return to their seats, and open the discussion. What ideas did students discuss? Each of these responses offers interesting points of reflection. They each are informed culturally. This activity touches many bases. First, it starts the crucial path toward building a community of respect. This is the first step in maintaining a constructive exchange regarding issues related to equity and social justice. At the most basic level, participants meet someone they did not know and exchange ideas with that person. Second, the community is built through an understanding of how the group perceives respect and how we negotiate its meaning. Third, the similarities and differences in participants’ ideas about respect begin to show the first signs of similarities and differences within the group on a larger level, often in ways that reflect power and privilege.
2. **Activity “Names”**

Ask participants to write short (one- or two-page) stories about their names. (You may have to assign this prior to the class in which you want to use it.) Leave the assignment open to individual interpretation as much as possible, but, if asked for more specific instructions, suggest some or all of the following possibilities for inclusion in their stories:

- Who gave you your name? Why?
- What is the ethnic origin of your name?
- What are your nicknames, if any?
- What do you prefer to be called?

In order to ensure that everybody has an opportunity to share her or his story, break the class into diverse small groups of five or six, if necessary. Give participants the option either to read their stories or to share their stories from memory. Ask for volunteers to share their stories. Because some individuals will include very personal information in their stories, some may be hesitant to read them, even in the small groups. It is sometimes effective in such situations for facilitators to share their stories first. If you make yourself vulnerable, others will be more comfortable doing the same. Be sure to allow time for everyone to share, whether reading their stories or sharing them from memory. When everyone has shared, ask participants how it felt to share their stories. Let them explain why this activity is important and what they learned.

3. **Gender socialization task: Girls and Boys**

This activity continues self-reflective processes, as participants write and share short reflections about how their gender identities were informed through childhood messages about what it meant for them to be a boy or a girl. In order to ensure that everybody has an opportunity to share her or his story, break into diverse small groups of 8-10 if necessary. Give participants the option either to read their pieces or to share their pieces and reflections from memory. Ask for volunteers to share their stories.

4. **Circles of My Intercultural Self**

The activity engages participants in a process of identifying what they consider to be the most important dimensions of their own identities. Stereotypes are examined as participants share stories about when they were proud to be part of a particular group and when it was especially hurtful to be associated with a particular group. Ask participants to pair up with somebody they do not know very well. Invite them to introduce themselves to each other, then ask participants to write their names in the center circle. They should then fill in each satellite circle with a dimension of their identity they consider to be among the most important in defining themselves. At the end ask students to present their work in front of the class.

The teacher in the intercultural classroom has to be aware that:

- common, everyday gestures may mean something different to people of other cultures;
- one’s personal space might be larger or smaller than is comfortable for the person you are talking with;
some cultures touch more or less than you;

- language that may sound rude or abrupt to you may just be a direct transfer for each diverse learner;

- Do not misinterpret the lack of eye contact as shyness, rudeness or hiding something, as many of your students view this body language as a sign of respect;

- Do not misinterpret smiling or laughter as happiness, as for some of your students this can be an indication of embarrassment, uncertainty or loss of face.

Cultural differences are often misinterpreted. Below there is some general information that teachers need to be aware of when teaching an intercultural class. But these generalizations do not apply to every individual student:

**Touching:** Rules for touching vary across cultures and with different situations. For example, in some Asian countries the head is considered the highest part of the body. It is sacred and should not be touched by others. In many parts of the world, persons of the same sex may hold hands in public and/or sleep in the same bed. This would be considered a sign of close friendship. On the other hand, in Armenia, during the talk touching is not done, unless someone knows the other side well enough. Also for Kists touching can even be insulting and it is not allowed.

**Eye Contact** is just one form of communication. Many cultures believe that making an eye contact is inappropriate and rude, especially toward authority figures such as Chairs, Coordinators, Instructors, or anyone with a higher education or position, or those who are older or senior. For many of international students, it is considered to be a sign of respect and humility to avoid eye contact. Kist students are not against eye contact, as they feel more self-confident and think they are valued.

**Expressing Emotions** - Enthusiasm is expressed differently across cultural groups. Reactions are shown immediately both verbally and non-verbally. Some cultures express their emotions openly, while others tend to hide their emotions and do not show them in public. This can lead to misunderstandings, as it can be difficult for members of other cultures to read between the lines and get the message. Sometimes expressions of enthusiasm may be misinterpreted as overly aggressive, as people who come from more expressive cultures may be seen as overreacting or creating scenes. For example, Kist people are very reserved and try to hide their emotions, they are very proud and do not like to show their pain to others. In case of positive news they also try to be shy and modest.

**Response Time** - Pauses between participants in conversation vary across cultures. Problems can start to occur when two speakers have different systems for pausing between turns. In some cultures, long pauses in conversation are a sign of respect. They show consideration and thought is given to what the speaker has said. In other cultures, people are expected to talk simultaneously during a conversation. This would show interest in the topic. Many misinterpretations can occur around pauses and turn-taking when speaking.

According to Francesco Lembo (2015), we can identify 4 issues which interfere with the cross-cultural understanding:

**Linguistic issue** - verbal communication can drastically reduce relational and learning processes. Even with adults, knowledge of words and synonymous strongly affects the understanding and interpretation of messages.
Relational issue - interaction and negotiation of meanings strengthen active listening and empathy. An interactive and bottom-up approach is a catalyst for the development of social and relational skills.

Cognitive issue - people get demotivated when they are confined in a passive role, just receiving teacher’s information. Contents can be easily transmitted only if they are connected with interests, needs, goals and prior knowledge.

Affective issue - classroom setting directly interferes with student’s emotions and feelings. Learning difficulties and the subsequent exclusion of most classroom activities involves loss of motivation and low self-esteem, frustration and isolation. A student who feels cut off from activities can therefore assume attitudes of rejection, closure and aggressiveness.

In conclusion, it is important to clarify that, if a teacher organizes the intercultural classroom and uses the above discussed strategies, s/he will have the students who will be able to handle possible barriers, live and work in multicultural settings and respect the values and views of each individual. Our rapidly changing world today gives great priorities and importance to people who will have acquired skills of working peacefully in ethnically and culturally diverse surroundings. The main principle of intercultural education is to enable the students to behave adequately in an intercultural environment and to motivate them to view diversity as a norm and not a barrier. The major goal of intercultural education is to teach equality in an equal environment. Teachers should keep in mind that each student carries a package of peculiar competencies, abilities and skills and teacher’s task is to let everyone be an active member of a teaching community. Students who are motivated to cooperate by sharing responsibilities and commitments improve social relationships and learning abilities. A balanced amount and variance of tasks and exercises can give each learner the opportunity to build a personal successful career path and be welcomed in every cultural community.

REFERENCES


INCREASING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (EFL) STUDENTS’ MOTIVATION AND SELF-EFFICACY IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING (ELT)

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ABSTRACT

Motivation is defined in different words by different researchers. However, in spite of a variety of interpretation, an agreement could be achieved that motivation is a driving force for one’s actions and aspirations. Motivation consists of a set of beliefs, perceptions, values, interests, and actions that are all closely related. As for an educational setting, motivation has gained even more importance for the 21st century learners. The correlation between students’ motivation and teaching effectiveness is strong; this is most true of learning a foreign language. Teachers should use all the tools, methods and approaches to motivate students, be it setting up an encouraging atmosphere, learner supportive classroom or assessment modes aiming at learners’ interaction and participation; accurate selection of the methodology will largely determine students’ satisfaction and their intrinsic or extrinsic motivation. Increase in motivation will ensure a better performance which will lead to learners’ satisfaction and their self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is strongly correlated with student motivation and results in the creation of aptitude and increase in performance and academic achievement. This paper aims at analyzing the strategies, methods and approaches employed in English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching and learning in order to identify the most effective ways to support students’ motivation and increase self-efficacy.

Key words: Language teaching, motivation, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, EFL

INTRODUCTION

The word “motivation” is defined as the forces that account for the arousal, selection, direction, and continuation of behavior. It is often used to describe certain sorts of behavior. A student who studies hard and tries for top grades may be described as being “highly motivated”, while his/her friend may say that he is “finding it hard to get motivated”. Such statements imply that motivation has a major influence on our behavior. "Motivation can be defined as a concept used to describe the factors within an individual which arouse, maintain and channel behavior towards a goal. Another way to say this is that motivation is goal-directed behavior (Noamen, 2009)."

Motivation in the EFL Classroom

Student motivation has long been one of the major problems for most of English language teachers. Motivation in EFL classroom is one of the essential factors, because many language learners still have a low motivation to learn English.
According to Noamen (2009), while most of the learners have a vague sense that whether “English will be useful for their future” or not, they do not have a clear idea of what exactly that means, nor is that a very strong motivator; it is too vague and too far off.

All teachers can think of situations in which certain “motivated” students do significantly better than their peers; these students frequently succeed even in what appears to be unfavorable conditions; they succeed despite using the methods which experts consider unsatisfactory (Jeremy, 1991). In the face of such phenomena it seems reasonable to suggest that the motivation that students bring to class is the biggest single factor affecting their success (Jeremy, 1991).

There are some problems dealing with motivation. If we want to give some typical examples firstly, few students enjoy learning English. Most of them learn English just for preparing for the varieties of examinations (such as university entrance examination, TOFEL, ILSTS, etc.). Secondly, many students have lacked the spirit of learning English, because, having passing the examinations, they often feel satisfied and do not want to get progress in learning English in their future life. There are some common characteristics in the “demotivated” or “disaffected” students in foreign language learning. Chambers (2000) defines them as follows:

- Non-completion of assignment;
- Lack of persistence and expectation of failure when attempting new tasks;
- High level of dependency on sympathetic teachers (needing constant attention, direction, supervision and reassurance);
- Non-attendance or poor attendance;
- Frequent expression of view that school is boring and irrelevant;
- Apathetic non-participation in the classroom.

Besides, English teachers often ask questions, such as “What can I do to help my students get started?” or “How can I help them put more effort into their learning?” or else “What can I do to help them want to learn what I have to offer?” Facing such questions, teachers need to have a motivation plan, which has an essential role in teaching English language.

Teachers would like to see motivation increase along with learning increase. It is difficult to build or strengthen learners’ motivation without a motivation plan. There is no structure for consistent application. Probably, one of the most helpful aspects of any plan is that it reminds teachers of what to do and when to do it. Without a plan, motivation too often becomes a trial-and-error, lacking cohesion and continuity during instruction (Wlodkowski, 1986).

In tackling the problem of motivation in learning a language may be the first step is that teachers need to understand the role and importance of motivation in any learning. In the context of language learning, William Littlewood (1987, p. 55) observes: in language learning, as in every other field of human learning, motivation is the critical force, which determines, whether a learner embarks on a task at all, how much energy he devotes to it, and how long he perseveres. It is a complex phenomenon and includes many components: the individual’s drive, the need for achievement and success, curiosity, the desire for stimulation and new experience, and so on. These factors play a role in every kind of learning situation.
“Student motivation is influenced by both internal and external factors that can start, sustain, intensify, or discourage behavior” (Reeve, 1996).

While teaching language the teacher has to apply these motivational components but

The teacher has to activate these motivational components in the learners but how can it be done in every class everyday?

Figure 1: Instruction of motivation in Foreign Language learning (Dörnyei, 1995)

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrumental Motivation Subsystem</th>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Integrative Motivation Subsystem</th>
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<tr>
<td>Interest in foreign languages, cultures, and people</td>
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<tr>
<td>Desire to broaden one’s view and avoid provincialism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire for new stimuli and challenges</td>
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<th>Need for Achievement</th>
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<th>Attributions About Past Failures</th>
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Motivation and self-efficacy

Motivation to learn is seen in the form of student persistence, curiosity, and performance (Lei, 2010).

There are mainly two types of motivation: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is defined as participating for pleasure, or satisfaction derived from performing an act.

According to Davis (1993), to encourage intrinsic motivation, instructor can do the following:

- Provide frequent, positive, early feedback that supports students’ beliefs that they can do well. Have students examine their own beliefs about their abilities.
- Give students opportunities to succeed. Students design their own blueprint for success and monitor their successes. Focus is on success, not failure. When they do not achieve, the focus is on the learning to ensure success the next time.
- Help students find meaning in the material. Meaning can be applied to their personal growth and development. Students should be asked: “What did you learn about yourself in this exercise?”
- Design an open and positive environment. Focus is on growth and success, never on lack, weakness, or failure.
Ensure that students are valued members of a learning community – everyone is valued for their own uniqueness. Students do not feel threatened by others when they feel good about themselves. Put-downs are given as a way to make a person feel bigger or better about themselves. When students are focused on what is great about them, they no longer spend as much time comparing themselves to others.

Extrinsic motivation is a short-term, immediate incentive designed to produce a desired outcome or behavior. However, extensive use of extrinsic motivators means sacrificing the intrinsic motivation students develop over the long term. “A reliance on outer motivational resources to accomplish the goals of education is to put at risk students’ later ability to generate their own motivation to accomplish the strivings they have for themselves.” (Reeve, 1996, p. 28).

Extrinsic motivation also has an important role in learning a language, as students learn for recognition, grades, and other performance metrics. However, the extrinsically motivated student has many drawbacks, such as minimal effort to achieve goals, stopping to learn once the goal (e.g., passing the exam) is achieved, lower self-efficacy, and less cooperative behavior (Lei, 2010).

Bandura (1997) states that people who have a low sense of efficacy for accomplishing a task may avoid it altogether. On the other hand, individuals with a high self-efficacy are noticed to work harder and endure longer when they meet complications.

While the self-efficacy to complete tasks increases, active processes begin which lead to deeper understanding and the creation of aptitude (Singh, Barto & Chetanez, 2005). Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as personal belief of one’s own capability to execute strategy to attain designated goals. Zimmerman (2006) found self-efficacy to be highly correlated with student intrinsic motivation, while Schunk, Hanson & Cox (1987) found that increases in student effort and rate of performance increased with higher self-efficacy.

Learners’ beliefs in their capabilities affect performance tremendously. Learners’ beliefs can predict performance better than their real ability (Bandura, 1997; Schunk, 1987). This is of considerable importance for educators in that students with high self-efficacy actually engage in doing a task, therefore, they achieve higher scores than learners with low self-efficacy, even though they may have a low ability. Self-efficacy is a motivational variable in learning and it seems almost impossible to examine some aspects of human functions such as learning, motivation and academic performance regardless of the role of self-efficacy beliefs of the learners (Pajares, 2006).

Efficacy items should accurately reflect the construct. Self-efficacy is concerned with perceived capability. According to Bandura (1997), the items should be phrased in terms of can do rather than will do, as can is a judgment of capability, while will is a statement of intention.

Extrinsic motivation also has an important role in learning language as students learn for recognition, grades, and other performance metrics. However, the extrinsic motivation student has many drawbacks such as minimal effort to achieve goals, stopping of learning processes once goal is achieved, lower self-efficacy, and less cooperative behavior (Lei, 2010).
Bandura (1997) states that people, who have a low sense of efficacy for accomplishing a task, may avoid it altogether. On the other hand, individuals with a high self-efficacy are noticed to work harder and endure longer when they meet complications.

**Motivational Strategies in Foreign Language Learning**

As indicated by Dörnyei’s (1999) work, he combined the motivational systems that utilized in teaching English as a foreign language into the following types:

**Generating initial motivation**

- Creating the basic motivational conditions:
  - Adopting appropriate teacher behavior and establishing rapport with the students
  - Creating a pleasant and safe classroom atmosphere
  - Creating a cohesive learner group
- Enhancing the learners’ language-related values and attitudes:
  - Focusing on ‘integrativeness’
  - Focusing on the anticipated intrinsic pleasure of learning
  - Focusing on instrumental incentives
- Making the curriculum relevant for the learners
- Increasing the learners’ expectancy of success

**Maintaining and protecting motivation**

- Helping learners to set appropriate sub-goals for themselves
- Increasing the quality of the learning experience
- Increasing the learners’ self-confidence:
  - Providing regular experiences of success
  - Reducing classroom anxiety
  - Promoting favorable self-conceptions of foreign language learning competence
- Creating learner autonomy
- Adopting an active socializing role (by the instructor)
- Raising the learners’ awareness of motivation maintenance strategies:
  - Emotion control
  - Motivation control
  - Environmental control
✓ Rounding off the learning experience: Encouraging positive self-evaluation
✓ Promoting attributions to effort rather than to ability
✓ Increasing learner satisfaction

These strategies/techniques can then be interpreted into learning activities or teacher behaviors that are coordinated into the learning succession by the instructor.

Ways of motivating students in the classroom

Pair/Group work: One of the effective ways to motivate learners, if the instructor is sufficiently skillful, is stimulating learners to participate in the lesson, utilizing “pair work” or “group work” adequately. Language is best learned through the nearby cooperation and correspondence among learners. This kind of joint results are advantageous for both/all learners. Learners can help each other while taking a role at various sorts of assignments, such as interview, drawing, writing or role plays etc.

The seating arrangement of the students: The way the students are seated in the classroom will often determine the dynamics of the lesson. Indeed, a simple change in the seating pattern can make an incredible difference to group coherence and student satisfaction. The seating pattern teacher uses may, in some cases, not be fully under his/her control – if, for example, the desks are fixed to the ground or the school has strict rules about not moving the furniture. Student numbers are also going to be an issue.

Students’ seating arrangement in the classroom will frequently determine the dynamics of the lesson. Simple changing in the seating pattern can have an amazing effect to group coherence and learner satisfaction. In any case, whatever seating pattern the instructor chooses, the class is likely to be more successful, if the following principles can be applied:

a) Maximizing eye contact: Both instructor to learner and learner to learner. In full class stages of the lesson, if the person who is speaking does not establish an eye contact with the others, attention is likely to drop.

b) To be sure students are seated at a comfortable distance from each other: The instructor should be sure that no student is sitting alone or outside the groups. Also, the instructor should try to leave a reasonable space between the students, because large distances between the students will tend to lead to a “muted” atmosphere, low pace, and less student participation in the lesson.

c) Organizing changing partners or changing groups: This is a period of the lesson which can conceivably drop into chaos on the off chance that it is not tightly controlled, with learners wandering erratically around, not knowing where to go or surely moving to the wrong place.

The Error Correction: If the instructor stops at every single error and treats with no space for errors to take place, it can lead to a gap of communication and learners will be afraid of making mistakes. Hence, because of being too much obsessed with not making mistakes, learner will be unwilling to participate in the lesson. Therefore, instructor ought to be aware of when to correct errors and how to do that without any hurt feelings and humiliation. In a learner-centered
classroom, it should be better to correct mistakes, which students make unconsciously, whenever there is a gap of communication or when not treating the error will result in a misunderstanding of the idea expressed.

**Role play** is another technique to vary the pace of the lesson and to respond to the important notion of diversity in teaching. Role play activities can be used to motivate the learners and help the less motivated learners participate in the lesson.

There are also many techniques and strategies to motivate learners while teaching language, such as: using realia, flash cards, stories and songs, audio visual material (cassette player, video, computer, online teaching materials, educational technology, games, etc.).

**CONCLUSION**

Motivation is a dynamic process different for different individuals. Good teaching practices can do more to counter student apathy than special efforts to attack motivation directly. The activities undertaken to promote learning will also enhance students’ motivation. To develop the drive to achieve, students need to believe that achievement is possible, which means that there are early opportunities for success.

Increasing one’s learners’ self-efficacy could help students attain the goal they have for learning the English language. Using motivational strategies while teaching the language could raise both learners’ self-efficacy and their language ability at the same time. Increasing their self-efficacy would develop their language ability even further.

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THE IMPLEMENTATION OF FACILITATORS INSTITUTIONS AT SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

The paper deals with the effectiveness of teachers' self-assessment questionnaire and action plans. Teacher Professional Scheme is related to the development of professional skills of teachers at schools which previously was made by the state. Now teachers can take an active part themselves in deciding how they want to improve their skills. The novelties of the scheme are the responsibilities of school evaluation groups and the functions of facilitators. The piloting year has revealed that still there are some aspects which needed to be worked out with the help of practitioner teachers. That is why the recommendations have been gathered from the facilitators which would be taken into consideration for the next academic years. All these recommendations were gathered from different parts of Georgia.

Key words: Teacher Professional Scheme, self-assessment questionnaire, action plans, school evaluation groups, facilitators

INTRODUCTION

The educational reform movement in Georgia and around the world are setting ambitious goals for student learning. Many factors contribute to the achievement of these goals. However, the changes in classroom practices, demanded by the reform visions, ultimately rely on teachers. Changes of this magnitude will require a great deal of learning on the part of teachers and will be difficult to make without certain support and guidance.

The realization of this fact has led educational scholars and policy-makers to demand professional development opportunities for teachers’ that will help them enhance their knowledge and develop new instructional practices. That is why Teacher Professional Scheme was introduced to educational system. The Scheme objectives are improving the teaching and learning process at the secondary educational institutions, enhancing teacher’s competence, professional and career advancement. According to the scheme, it is clear that professional development is not an event but a long-term process.

This process started in 2011, when Teacher Professional Development Scheme (hereby, scheme) was published, which requires teachers’ involvement, renewal of teaching rights, a mandatory number of credits required for granting various categories to teachers and the ways of the credit accumulation. It was the first draft, not a completed version. Later, in the beginning of 2014 another draft was published, where the actions with the credits and the categories were defined. The last draft contains four categories of teachers’ ranks: the highest rank / category, the first category, a certified teacher and a practitioner. According to Kakha Jgenti -Teachers’ Professional Development Programs coordinator, from September,
2014 all the teachers have been involved in this scheme, based on their education: the fourth rate (practitioner) would be given to all active teachers, the third - to certified ones, the first category - to the certified teachers with a Ph.D. degree in the specific subject. For this time there would not be any teacher-mentors (highest category), as this process is transitive and educators should gain the categories by credits (Tsivtsivadze, 2014).

The National Center for Teacher Professional Development of the Georgian Ministry of Education prepared a special questionnaire for the school teachers of the Georgia, consisting of 120 items, which are broken into two main categories. It gives them an opportunity for professional self-assessment. The initiators noted that the decisions related to the development of professional skills of school teachers were previously made by the state. Now teachers can take an active part themselves in deciding how they want to improve their skills (Georgian teachers, 2015).

As for the preparation, a workshop for school administration and teacher consultations were held on issues within the “Teacher Induction, Professional Development and Career Advancement Scheme” at the National Center for Teacher Professional Development. The meeting was attended by Trainer-Consultants and Experts.

TPDC Trainer-Consultants held meetings with all school principals and deputy principals before September 14, 2015 with the Scheme effective implementation in mind.

One of the scheme novelties is responsibility delegation to schools and teacher evaluation by the school evaluation groups. Also the formation of facilitator groups are envisioned at schools by the Teacher Professional Scheme, whose major function is teacher support in professional development. According to the scheme, the selection of evaluation group members and facilitators should take place within a month from the beginning of the academic year. After the selection of evaluation group members, TPDC carried out series of trainings for the group members, the first cycle of which lasted until the end of the year. TPDC developed two parts of the scheme guideline that will be disseminated to all schools before the beginning of the academic year. 45 Trainer-Consultants, selected on contest basis by TPDC, will provide consultations to teachers and schools.

Although, it is a piloting year for the whole country and all of these actions were taken in order to enhance teachers’ professional development, lots of problems have arisen while working.

The main problem was that the access to internet (eSchool/eflow) was available only from the school where the teacher was registered. As already mentioned, the special questionnaire for the school teachers consists of 120 items. They is broken up into two main categories, which as well have been divided into eight sub-sections. Moreover, some items were repeated in different sub-sections, so as they should be understood in different context. All these made the working environment stressful, as poor comprehension caused confusion among teacher-practitioners and most of them were ready to give up. Now, it was facilitator’s job and responsibility to convince and help them with filling in the document.

Next, most of the teachers were incapable of completing the questionnaire, as their computer skills were really poor. Again, the facilitators did their best to assist them. It was a hard and time consuming job. It is necessary to mention the reflection as well, which was the ending point to each sub-section. Even though teachers have defined their strengths and weaknesses after consultation with facilitators, writing appropriate activities for their needs became incredibly hard.
And the last step was an action plan, this time not for the whole year, but for the second semester only. Again facilitators helped the teachers to make the action plan based on their needs.

**Conclusions**

Later, based on this hard experience, some facilitators shared their recommendations to the representatives of the Georgian Ministry of Education and Science. They are:

- Collaborative action done by teachers is more effective when all of them are aware of the actions they are doing, as teachers can compare and share their experiences.
- Repetitions of items in self-assessment scheme makes the working environment stressful rather than helpful.
- The access to internet only from the school causes problems not only for the teachers, but also for the facilitators, as the responsibility of decisions, related with the development of professional skills relies on them.

The Ministry of Education and Science promised to take into consideration all our recommendation for the future.

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USING BLENDED LEARNING IN TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGE WRITING

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ABSTRACT
Developing good writing skills in students is one of the most difficult challenges for the English language teachers. There are so many ways to help them overcome this difficulty, including using new technologies in the teaching process. To assist language instructors to improve learners’ writing competence and produce good writing, this paper aims to present a strategy and a compatible approach which will make writing an easier job for language teachers and learners. The main objective of the present study is to investigate the effectiveness of such an innovative method as Blended Learning strategy in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) writing. A blended learning approach combines face-to-face classroom methods with computer-mediated activities and forms an integrated instructional approach. There are no exact rules what the ideal blend might be. The term “blended” has a broad understanding, and can include any integration of face-to-face and online instructions. This blend will greatly depend on the content, the students’ needs and the preferences of the teacher. An experiment was conveyed at Gori State University, Georgia in 2015-2016 years. The experimental group was taught writing through Blended Learning approaches while the control group was taught the same skill through the traditional way of teaching. Suggestions based on the students’ writing test scores, opinions and expectations concerning the efficiency of Blended Learning strategies in teaching writing are offered.

Key Words: Blended Learning, writing skills, face-to-face and online instructions.

INTRODUCTION
Writing is one of the most powerful communication tools which is a part of our daily business and personal life. People use it to share their thoughts and ideas with others and even to communicate with themselves. Journals, class notes, and shopping lists are just a few of the ways one can use writing to remember facts and details. Even after a person finishes his/her last school assignment, writing will still be part of his/her daily business and personal life (Carrol, Wilson, & Forlini, 2001).

The fact that people frequently have to communicate with each other in writing is not the only reason to include writing as a part of our second-language syllabus. According to Ann Raims (1983), there is an additional and very important reason: writing helps our students learn.

First, writing reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms, and vocabulary that instructors have been teaching their students.
Second, when students write, they also have a chance to be adventurous with the language, to go beyond what they have just learned to say, to take risks.

Third, when they write, they necessarily become very involved with the new language; the effort to express ideas and the constant use of eye, hand, and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning.

As writers struggle with what to put down next or how to put it down on paper, they often discover something new to write or a new way of expressing their idea. They discover a real need for finding the right word and the right sentence. The close relationship between writing and thinking makes writing a valuable part of any language course.

For language learners writing is considered as a very difficult skill which takes so much time and effort of students and teachers. The learners of foreign language writing usually face great challenges. Writing needs more attention, preparation and perfection than speaking. The reason is that good writing skills include good vocabulary, grammar, spelling, reading and punctuation skills. Because many students experience problems with writing or find writing a difficult effort, they often try to avoid the task and their self-esteem also suffers. Thus, both FL writing course instructors and learners often feel frustrated.

There are so many ways to help students overcome these difficulties including using new technologies in the teaching process. To help foreign language teachers to improve students’ writing competence and produce good writing, this article represents a strategy and compatible approach which will make writing an easier job for language instructors and students.

Nowadays it is impossible to imagine modern education without information technologies. Many teachers agree that combining online elements with face-to-face instruction means that learners show better performance than if they do learning only in a traditional class environment.

Blended learning that combines different methods of delivering educational activities seems to be a solution to this problem. The use of Blended Learning (BL) in higher education has increased significantly during the past decade. This paper investigates the use of Blended Learning approach with EFL writing students in a general English course.

**Blended Learning Definition**

Blended Learning is a modern learning method that blends the traditional learning and learning via computer and internet to increase students’ achievements. Blended Learning has been around for many years, but the name has changed as the uses and recognition have increased. Many people may be using a form of blended learning in lessons and teaching, but may not realize it or be able to give it an actual name (Osguthorpe & Graham, 2003). Blended learning is something that is used in the world of education as well as the world of business. Blended learning is not a new concept, but may be a new term to many users.

The term ‘Blended Learning’ originated in the business world in connection with corporate training (Sharma & Barrett, 2007), then was employed in higher education (MacDonald, 2006) and lastly it appeared in language teaching and learning. The term is being used with increasing frequency in both academic and corporate circles. Despite its widespread use in different fields, many researchers claim that the term is difficult to define.
In 2003, the American Society for Training and Development identified Blended Learning as one of the top ten trends to emerge in the knowledge-delivery industry (Rooney, 2003).

Sharma and Barrett (2007) substitute it with ‘technology’: “Blended learning refers to a language course which combines a face-to-face (F2F) classroom component with an appropriate use of technology”.

Blended Learning in higher education has been defined as: “a combination of technology and classroom instruction in a flexible approach to learning that recognizes the benefits of delivering some training and assessment online but also uses other modes to make up a complete training programme which can improve learning outcomes and/or save costs” (Banados, 2006: 534).

Blended or hybrid learning has great advantages. Graham (2006) listed six of them:

1. pedagogical richness
2. access to knowledge
3. social interaction
4. personal agency
5. cost effectiveness
6. ease of revision

Later Graham and Robinson (2007) added three other reasons that encourage people to select the blended learning approach:

1. improved pedagogy
2. increased access
3. flexibility

In a later publication, Hockly (2011) does not repeat these reasons for employing Blended Learning in English language teaching, but provides us with three additional ones:

1. Learners’ expectations – learners nowadays expect technology to be integrated into their language classes.
2. Flexibility – learners expect to be able to fit learning into their busy lives, especially professional adults and university students.
3. Ministry of Education (or similar) directives – in some contexts teachers are expected to offer blended learning options.

Al Fiky (2011: 24-26) summarizes the benefits of blended leaning as follows:

1. Increasing students’ interaction and participation
2. Developing students’ learning and performance
3. Affecting teachers’ approaches of other subjects
4. Developing independent learners, a source of instant feedback, time saving and motivation to learners
5. Increasing student learning outcomes and reduce instructional delivery costs
6. Maximizing classroom space and/or reduce the number of overcrowded classrooms
7. Allowing institutions to offer more classes at peak demand times of the day, thus maximizing the scant resources by increasing flexibility in scheduling
8. Reducing paper and photocopying costs. In hybrid courses, all course documents, including syllabi, lecture notes, assignment sheets and other hard copy handouts are easily accessible to the students on the course web site. A lot of studies confirmed those advantages of blended learning.

So, there are many reasons why an instructor might choose to introduce Blended Learning in a course.

METHODOLOGY

The experiment was conducted at Gori State University on the intermediate level (three year) of EFL students in 2015 spring. The study aimed at investigating the effectiveness of the blended learning program on developing and retention of students’ English writing skills. Although our students have a good access to modern technologies, they do not make use of them in their learning in general and English learning in particular. We believed that using a Blended Learning program could help them develop their writing skills, which may help them become more effective communicators through writing.

For this purpose 24 EFL students were randomly selected and randomly assigned to two groups - one control and the other experimental. There were 12 students in each group. A pre-test which was used to check the similarity of achievement between the two groups showed that they were similar in their writing skills achievements. The experimental group was taught via Blended Learning approaches, whereas the control group adopted the traditional method. The experiment started in spring 2015 and lasted for fifteen weeks.

During the experiment the same teaching material was used with both the experimental and the control groups. In the control group students were taught writing in a traditional way. They wrote their written assignment, brought it in class and read it loudly. The teacher listened to them, commented on their mistakes and gave them oral feedback. The experimental group students also attended writing classes. The teacher explained them the new material and gave them some writing tasks with appropriate instructions as homework. The theoretical material was also sent to them via the Google Drive platform. The students were to write their homework electronically. Because of the platform, they could download or upload materials any time. Google Drive platform enabled them to see each other’s writings and also comment on them. After 3-4 days they submitted their writings again via the Google Drive platform. Finally, all the submitted assignments were read, corrected, graded and commented by the teacher. Thus, it was easy for the students to notice the mistakes they had made, the changes, revisions and suggestions given by the course teacher. The availability of both on-line and off-line resources enabled students to revisit the lesson at the ease and comfort of time. With everything electronic, it was also easy for them to compare and contrast their old and new written assignments. Because it was online, the students felt more comfortable and less anxious to ask questions and discuss these questions among themselves and with the teacher.
RESULTS

Students wrote the achievement test before, during and after the experiment. In this way we measured the effect of the Blended Learning application on the students’ writing skills in English. The post-experimental test results revealed that there was a significant difference between the average test scores of the experimental and the control group in favor of the experimental one.

Graph №1. Comparison of the Experimental and Control Groups’ Test Results

As it is seen on the graph, the level of writing skills remarkably increased in the experimental group. As for the control group, there is a little growth of writing skill level, but it is much less than in the experimental one.

CONCLUSION

The research has shown that Bended Learning can be beneficial in teaching EFL writing in numerous ways. In this article we described how to use the learning platform that can be available through the Internet to make foreign-language writing easier for language teachers and students. It provided students with a better learning environment, which was reflected in their achievement in English-language writing. The blended approach created an on-going interactive learning environment that encouraged communication between students and teachers, enabled students to express themselves freely via writing and increased their motivation and interest in learning. Blended Learning also offered instant and detailed feedback, which had a positive impact on students’ progress. It provided flexibility of resources, such as time and space allocation which are not found in the traditional method.

The technologies and other teaching strategies used in classroom settings are constantly evolving. In the future the key question will not be “to blend or not to blend?”, but the key question will be “How to blend?” It will be useful to ensure that teachers adopt positive attitudes towards Blended Learning and that they use this method in the best possible ways. In order to teach them how to use the new technologies in the classroom, some workshops and teacher
training courses are needed to be conducted, which will increase teachers' awareness of Blended Learning as a new method that suits modern trends in teaching.

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CREATIVE MODIFICATION OF IDIOMS AS A COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGY IN SATIRICAL ARTICLES

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ABSTRACT

The article attempts to study the examples of modified idioms found in British satirical magazines. Creative modification of idioms made by an author aims at achieving a particular effect on the target reader. Modified idioms make the message more memorable and impressive. Accordingly, the emotive charge created by them is undoubtedly great. This study presents the examples of modified idioms and proves that modification is a rich and boundless source for the author’s creativity. Herewith, the article advocates that, although modification involves adding or substituting one element at least in the original idiom, the base form remains recognizable.

Key words: Idiomatic expressions, modification, substitution, expansion, context-based use, base form

INTRODUCTION

Many research papers have been published on idioms over the years and there is no doubt that they occupy a multidimensional lexical space of the language characterized by its semantic, syntactic, pragmatic and socio-linguistic properties. The conventional character of idioms proves their unpredictability. There is hardly any idiom that can be entirely predicted on the basis of the knowledge of its constituent parts. Only the semantic analysis of the parts of idioms in isolation tends to be ineffective and even misleading in the use and interpretation of the idiom in pragmatic facet. This is the interrelation of linguistic regularity, situational use and lingo-cultural conformity that makes idioms conventionalized to a high extent. Although idioms present rigidly determined formulaic language consisting of fixed expressions to be learnt and understood as units rather than as individual words, they can be modified in a number of ways depending on the author’s creativity and communicative intention. Modified idioms, particularly those with strong images, are frequently used in headlines, advertising slogans and satirical articles for emphasis. The stylistic effect of their usage is evident, as they are common and popular in journalism. They can be found not only in formal contexts such as news items or business reports, but also in magazine horoscopes and problem pages. As an illustration, “the next week for you will be the period of licking your wounds” or “This week is full of journeys and new experiences, but you will come back safe and sound”. Despite the fact that idioms are traditionally perceived as strictly fixed expressions, they do demonstrate a capacity of lexical variability and modification. According to T. Ifill (2002), some idioms can accommodate interchangeable synonyms and therefore, some idioms can show individual lexical variability, but that variability is limited.
to only a few options. Nunberg (2003) expects to find “families of idioms”, the common case when the same verb occurs in different environments forming semantically related idioms. E.g. hit the hay (sack); lose one’s mind (marbles), to throw someone to the dogs (lions, wolves), pack a punch (wallop), hold a pistol (gun) to someone’s head, etc. Likewise, there are also cases where a phrase with a single idiomatic interpretation occurs with more than one idiomatic verb. E.g. stretch (strain) a point, lay (throw, place, put) one’s cards on the table, keep (lose, blow) one’s cool, clap (set, lay) eyes on somebody... I agree with Ifill (2002), when he states that although these options for variability are semantically similar, not all semantically similar words can fit. He also discusses another way that idioms can show variability from a frozen form, i.e. through modification, which idioms can accept to various degrees. He analyses the examples of individual word modification within an idiom and focuses on idiom modification through substitution or extension of adverbial and adjectival character.

“E.g. My brother kicked that filthy habit years ago.

They shot huge holes in my argument.

The prosecution left no legal stone unturned.

He kicked the big bucket.

The shit really hit the fan.” (Ifill, 2002)

The noteworthy aspect in idiom modification is to remember that if one decides to modify an internal component of an idiom through the word substitution, it must be done accurately as not all the internal components of an idiom are liable to alteration. E.g. if the word “stone” in “he left no stone unturned” can be substituted with “pebble” or “rock” the word “kick” does not subject to any kind of modification in “he kicked the bucket”. Still, it is obvious that idiom modification is quite frequent in journalism and its use can confuse or mislead those readers who are unaware of the original ones and attempt to interpret the idiom be means of inference or contextual guessing.

Accordingly, the aim of this paper is to study the examples of idiom modification cases used in satirical articles. The paper analyzes context-based idiom modifications and attempts to manifest their role in message highlighting and influence on the target reader.

**MODIFIED IDIOMS AS A COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGY**

According to Cowie (2001), a deliberate modification of an idiom is a widely-used method in speech and writing to achieve a stylistic effect, but it must be distinguished from variation within a phraseological unit or an idiomatic expression. Many researchers (Vrbinc & Vrbinc, 2011; Ifill, 2002; Dronov, 2011) urge making a distinction between variation and modification and discuss these phenomena in opposition. Vbrnic &. Vrbinc (2011) suggest that variability involves substituting one word or several words at one or more points but the number and kind of constituent words to be substituted in an idiom is of a big importance and it should be done with awareness to avoid a communicative failure. Even though fixedness is a key property of idioms, many of them have lexical variations or strongly institutionalized transformations. Variations are not ad hoc manipulations like modified idioms, they are institutionalized, although some may be restricted to particular
varieties of English or formality levels. The most important characteristic concerning the expressive use of idioms is creative manipulation of their form.

Variations introduced into idioms are common. According to Langlotz (2006), these changes are constructional adaptations and they include “modifications of the base-form that change the inflectional and syntactic structure of an idiom in a systematic way”. The variations are mostly of the following types: article variation, number variation, passivization and fronting / topicalization. Thus, Langlotz considers that the internal organization of idiomatic constructions shows “more or less striking

a) semantic characteristics,

b) structural peculiarities and irregularities

c) constraints or restrictions on their lexicogrammatical behavior which cannot be explained by the general grammatical rule of the given language. Nevertheless, idioms are

d) conventional expressions that belong to the grammar of a given language and

e) fulfill specific discourse-communicative functions.” (Langlotz 2006:8)

Langlotz defines the idiomatic constructions as complex symbols with specific formal, semantic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic characteristics. If idiomatic expressions ‘fulfill specific discourse – communicative functions”, appearing in a text or any piece of discourse these units are to demonstrate not only their rule-driven peculiarities or irregularities but also context-based characteristics. This is the case when we refer to “idiomatic creativity” capturing “the varied evocation of a relatively stable idiomatic construction in a specific context of use. Thus, rather than just being reproduced, idioms can be varied in discourse” (Langlotz 2006:9). What is creativity? - the phenomena which is mostly associated with artful, resourceful, imaginative activities and human behaviour. It is closely linked to some innovative, inspiring and original ideas, the ideas that have not been thought of before. Once an idiom is creatively modified, it becomes more eye-catching, expressive and intriguing for the reader. Following Vrbinc, modification is a rich and boundless source for the author’s creativity, it is an endless process and “can thus be stretched very far, provided that the base form is recognizable, that cohesion and coherence are not endangered and that the stylistic effect endures. Where communicative intent cannot be inferred, listeners/readers may either fail to recognize the idiom itself or recognize it but view the modified utterance as a mistake by the speaker/writer. The modification will be productive if the relation between the original constituents and their substitutes and the modification is viewed as intentional, not inadvertent (Vrbinc, 2011:78).

Although plenty of modified idioms are encountered in newspapers and magazines, unmodified idioms are quite frequent as well.

1) London Mayor is the clear favorite, but dark horses Theresa May and George Osborne could catch up. (a dark horse = someone or something whose abilities, plans, or feelings are little known to others)

2) Fans and critics alike are keen for a spin-off from Thor franchise – but Marvel will have to be quick to

3) pin down the British star. (to pin down = trap, prevent somebody to from moving from cover or showing
4) himself

5) Manned outpost would be stepping stone for Mars, says British astronaut, as he opens up about life on

6) the ISS (a stepping stone = a means of reaching a higher professional or social level or a more advanced

7) stage in building, learning, etc.)

8) Golf course christened with hole in one. (to christen = to use for the first time)

9) Greece’s protracted third bailout have hit the rocks. (to hit the rocks = to encounter an especially

10) a difficult, troubled or low point, as in relationship or some pursuit)

11) Greece debt crisis rears its head again after IMF leak. (to rear a head = to become a problem that has

12) To be dealt with

13) Readers going nuts, including even Brexiteers (go nuts = get excited over something, go mad)

In the above examples idiomatic expressions were presented without any kind of modification. Their meanings were checked in dictionaries and their use in the above cases was standardized. These are the idioms with stable structure and semantics and are registered in dictionaries.

However, to make their articles and stories more expressive, intriguing and vivid, the author’s use of idiom modification becomes a communicative strategy to draw a potential reader’s attention. When the author is motivated to modify an idiom to achieve a specific stylistic and communicative effect on the target reader, he accurately considers both syntactic and lexical flexibility of idiom constituents relatively depending on an idiom type. The point is that any change in an original idiom must not lead to inaccuracy and confusion in idiom interpretation. A reader must be able to recognize the base form which is rigidly fixed in a reader’s mind and stored in his memory. The analysis of majority of examples elicited from satirical newspapers proved that modified idioms are context-based and their base forms remain intact. To illustrate this, we will manifest a number of examples taken from British newspapers The Week and The Private Eye of 2016 March-April editions. We chose the satirical magazines due to the fact that they present a “juicy” material for analyzing idioms and idiomatic expressions.

The study of examples made it possible to point out two groups of modified idioms:

A. Idioms modified on substitutional basis;

B. Idioms modified on expansional bases

**Group A substitution**

1) Phoebe Buckley – a rider in the storm (be in the eye of the storm = be very much involved in an argument or problem that affects a lot of people

2) A pensions scandal is brewing at British airways, whose Spanish owners are suing the trustees in a row over inflation (to brew a plot = devise, plan)
3) A career propping up the establishment has paid off for former hack Peter Riddell, in the shape of a **juicy** public **appointment** (Juicy contract = very profitable, interesting, satisfying)

4) The FBI v Apple battle couldn’t happen in the UK, as the Investigatory powers Bill demands the tech companies **leave a back door open** (go by/through the back door = not in a direct, official or honest way)

In these example sets we can see that individual words within an idiom can easily accept modifications with nominal and verbal units. But it is notable that since the idiom has some internal structure the base word should remain unaltered. Thus, modified part should find its proper place in the idiomatic expression. Not all the parts can undergo such modifications. E.g. “to boil a scandal” instead of “to brew a scandal” would be misleading and ambiguous. Although one of the elements of its conventional form has undergone lexical substitution by a synonymous verb or a synonymous noun, the meaning of the idiomatic expression was easily interpretable in all of the above examples.

**Group B expansion**

1) With Daniel Craig’s future as the spy still uncertain, here are the actors tipped **to shake and stir** fans. (to stir = to excite, evoke, provoke somebody to do something)

2) Prince Philip to join Remain campaign and **hens to lay rugby-themed eggs**. (to lay an egg = to do something bad or poorly; to perform poorly on stage, to fail to make people enjoy or be interested in something)

3) Danger levels rise as Amazon and the BBC prepare **to go head-to-head in the battle** of the car shows. (head-to-head = in direct confrontation, conflict at close quarters or direct competition)

4) Bernie Sanders and ted Cruz talk up comeback hopes as they **leave frontrunners in the dust**. (to leave in the dust = to leave one far behind as in a race or competition. The metaphoric colloquialism “dust” alludes to the dust raised by a fast-moving horse or vehicle)

5) Celebrities including Jennifer Lawrence and Kate Upton caught up in **leak of personal pictures**. (leak = when secret information becomes public)

6) We are going to **squeeze the rich** until the pips squeak (To squeeze = to get money from somebody by applying pressure of various kinds)

7) Allison Pearson **sparked an almighty row** at the Telegraph last week (to spark a row = to provoke a scandal)

Context-based insertion of the elements in the idiomatic expression is obvious in the above examples. The fact that idioms modified on expansional basis dominate over other kinds of modifications can be explained by its straightforward and practicable property to be modified. No matter which part or element is modified in the idiom and how it is done, it is obvious that modifications intensify the message.
CONCLUSION

The introduction of new elements or any changes in the in the original idiom from the lexico-grammatical point of view has a pragmatic value fulfilling the author’s communicative intention to depict definite semantic content in a creative manner. Idioms are subjected to numerous contextual adaptations or transformations. Accordingly, variability or modification of idioms has a systematic nature and can be encountered as many times as the author’s creativity allows. The image of the idiom basis becomes more expressive, emotional, original, vivid and informative for the reader and the author truly counts for achievement a desirable effect.

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‘OTHERING’ IN BAPSI SIDHWA’S WATER AND GLORIA WHELAN’S HOMELESS BIRD

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ABSTRACT

The term “Other” refers to the differences between various concepts such as ethnicity, nationality, gender, religion and social classifications. In male-dominated societies where men regard themselves superior to women, women are ‘otherised’ and unconsciously ‘otherise’ their own kind. Women, who are ‘otherised’ because of their gender, are considered labourers for their husbands. Due to the tradition of marriage at a very early age in India, young widows are no longer acceptable and become a burden in a family where they are located, after their husbands die. In order to be respected, a woman should have a husband; however, with the death of their husbands she loses her identity and is left to loneliness and depression. She becomes nobody, namely, the ‘other’. Branded as inauspicious, widows are forced to live a cruel life filled with bans, worshipping in the holy cities of Varanasi and Vrindavan. With the influence of the social reform in the 19th century, widows in India started to become a subject of literature. Novels about widows gained a great popularity after the law allowing the remarriage of the widows in 1856.

Bapsi Sidhwa’s Water and Gloria Whelan’s Homeless Bird share similar themes, such as exclusion, repression, and othering that widows have to face. Because the two stories take place in different years, they show how such attitudes toward widows in India changed with time.

Key Words: Other/Othering, widowhood in India

‘The Other’ as a term, which is philosophically, psychologically, socially, culturally, literarily, and politically assessed in various ways, was first used by the German philosopher Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel in the late 18th century and it became an important term in 20th-century literature. The relationship between the dominant and the enslaved in Hegel’s (1977:111) Master-Slave dialectic sheds light on the relationship between the ‘otherised’ and the ‘othering’ force.

The concept ‘the other’ stands for ‘the different’ namely not of ourselves. Although it reminds a racial difference at first; the term can also be used to represent the difference between nationality, gender, religion, or social classifications. The concepts of ‘otherness’ and ‘othering’ appear when individuals are divided into two hierarchical groups in the form of ‘them and us’. But this shows that ‘I and the Other ’ are inseparable from each other, they are the two halves of a whole. The existence of ‘I’ is not possible without the existence of the other. Because the concept of otherness is the result of an individual’s self-identification effort.

Staszak (2009, p. 2) explains otherness as “the result of a discursive process by which a dominant in-group (‘us’, ‘the self’) constructs one or many dominated out-groups (‘them’, ‘others’) by stigmatizing a difference – real or imagined – presented
as a negation of identity and thus a motive for potential discrimination.” The dominant in-group holds the power, just like men’s keeping power and the control of social life. At the same time, women, who are economically under control, form the out-group in a male-dominated society. All in-groups regard themselves superior to and worthier than the out-groups, and every society creates a concept of ‘I and the other’ in itself.

The French feminist author Simone de Beauvoir (1997) evaluated the concept of Otherness in the context of male-female relationships. De Beauvoir examines the ‘othering’ of females in male-dominated societies. Assuming that the ‘other’ is a minority in the society, the ‘othering’ of women, regardless of the male-female ratio, may be associated with the structure of the society. In such patriarchal societies where men regard themselves superior to women, and consider them weaker and in need of them in order to survive, women both are ‘otherised’ and unconsciously ‘otherise’ each other.

De Beauvoir examines gender relations in a radical way in her book *The Second Sex*. She mentions how women are viewed as objects by men, and criticises the opinions put forward by men about women’s being the ‘other’. Thus, De Beauvoir is considered one of the founders of modern feminism.

The attitude of men towards women is not only determined by the laws or the traditions in a society. According to Simons (2001, p.169), “in our male-dominated societies, women are the other, an oppressed cast defined as inferior by religion and science; socialized to a psychological dependency on men; and restricted in their political and economic activities by laws and social convention.” A reflection of this situation faced by women occurs in all areas of social life. A woman is seen as inferior to a man both in social, religious, and cultural terms.

‘Otherness’ may occur in various ways, such as between different races, nationalities, religions, social classes, political views, sexual choices, ethnic groups, and even between different genders. For instance, the poor to the rich, the East to the West, Muslim to Christian, homosexual to heterosexual, and woman to man could be the ‘other’.

As Edward Said (2003) mentions in his well-known work *Orientalism*, the East is identified with barbarism and brutality in the eyes of the West, and geographically ‘otherised’. Just like the West lays claim on the belittled East, men lay a claim on women whom they consider to be the weaker sex. They achieve this sometimes by force, or sometimes it is offered by women without realizing it. Since “oppression cannot work if the oppressed refuse to identify with the oppressor’s definition of themselves” (Evans, 1998. p. 135), women are ‘otherised’ by accepting the status of the ‘second sex’ which is imposed upon them by men.

‘The other’ is the one who is not involved in any group one way or another, and every foreigner is an ‘other’ to the certain in-group. The standardised and dominant in-group judges the different ones with being the ‘other’, and excludes them. “Perceived as lacking essential characteristics possessed by the group, the other is almost always seen as a lesser or inferior being and is treated accordingly. The other in a society may have few or no legal rights, may be characterized as less intelligent or as immoral, and may even be regarded as sub-human” (The Other, n.d.). They are not allowed to make their voices heard in the community, and to defend their rights. They must abide by the rules that are seen fit for them by the dominant group in the society. They have no other identities than being the ‘other’ in a community. Besides, “the other may be doomed forever to remain separate, never to become part of the group---in other words, to be the Other forever” (The Other, n.d.). The situation of the widows in India is an example to that kind of ‘Othering’. These anonymous women,
who are left alone after losing their spouses, have no identity in the eyes of the society other than being inauspicious widows, because they are no longer a daughter or a wife of someone. They are only the ‘other’ now.

In the patriarchal Hindu society, in which women derive their status from their husbands, widows are seen as the symbols of ill fortune and their existence is believed to bring bad luck. As the duty of a woman in Indian society is to facilitate her husband’s life and as a woman is responsible for her husband’s health, she is also held responsible for the death of her husband. The death of her husband means the loss of her identity in the society. With no income of their own, abandoned by their families and even their children, the widows go to the holy cities of Vrindavan and Varanasi, pray all day, beg to feed themselves, and they have no other place to stay than the ashrams where they all live together.

Widowhood is not just transition from one marital status to another after the death of the husband. Entering into widowhood is more hazardous, painful and humiliating to women than to a widower because of the discrimination, ritual sanctions of the society against the widows. With the result, widows in India not only suffer with social and economic sanctions but also face many psychological consequences, loneliness, and in many cases deprivation causing emotional disturbances and imbalance. (Reddy, 2004, p.2)

The sacred books of Hinduism, Dharmashastras, also have explanations and rules regarding the widows. According to Hindu belief, widows primarily should cover their bodies with plain, white, and seamless cloth instead of colourful and ornamented dresses. They must shave their long and decorated hair which almost became the symbol of Indian women, and they should not carry anything that attracts attention, such as jewellery, flowers, or coloured beads. Also they should not use perfumes or essences, and should stay away from any kinds of make-up. They should not chew walnut leaves, eat desserts or fried food, or eat from bronze cups, and should only eat one meal a day. They should sleep on made of grass mattresses on the ground, and they should never lounge about, but always pray and give thanks to God. These rules are so strict that they even tell what the widows can and cannot eat. For example, “the widow of a deceased person shall sleep on the ground during six months, practising religious vows and abstaining from pungent condiments and salt.” (The Vashishta Dharmashastra, Part 3, Chapter 17, item 55), and “a widow shall avoid during a year (the use of) honey, meat, spirituous liquor, and salt, and sleep on the ground.” (The Baudhayana Dharmashastra, Prasna II, Kandika 4, item 7)

In the 19th century, with the effect of the social reform that took all India under its influence, Indian widows began to be the subject of literature. Indian writer Rahul Sogani (20020 analyses the 150-year history of the widows and the novels, written in the eight languages spoken in India, which are about widows in his The Hindu Widow of Indian Literature.

Novels about the widows started to be written in Bengal where the Western effect was first felt, then spread all over India and gained full popularity after the law allowing the remarriage of widows in 1856. The misfortunes of the widows and the plight of women were also uttered by poets, as in Nobel-prize winner Rabindranath Tagore’s poem.

O Lord, why have you not given
Woman the right to conquer her destiny?

Why does she have to wait head bowed,

By the roadside, waiting with tired patience,
Hoping for a miracle in the morrow? (Tewari and Tewari, 2009, p. 39)

Some of the novels about widows that were written before and after India gained independence from England dealt with the cruelty and oppression faced by widows due to traditions in the society whereas some of them were romantic novels whose heroine is a widow. It could be said that Pakistani novelist Bapsi Sidhwa’s Water (2006) belongs to the first group.

The book is about the events that took place in the holy city of Varanasi on the Ganges river bank in 1938 when India was still a British colony, and the supporters of Mahatma Gandhi were growing in number. Sidhwa wrote this book upon the request of Deepa Mehta to novelise her film Water; both the film and the novel were published the same year. In 2000, Mehta wanted to shoot the last one of her Fire, Earth and Water trilogy in Varanasi; however, the crew was fired from the city because they were thought to be challenging centuries-old traditions, and that they would degrade religion. Yet she did not give up her dream, and managed to shoot the film four years later by establishing a city similar to Varanasi in Sri Lanka. The film met its audiences together with the novel, two years after it was shot.

The novel tells the story of ‘little mouse’ Chuyia who was married at the age of 6 and widowed at 8. Chuyia is widowed by the death of her husband Hira Lal who is nearly as old as her father shortly after arriving in the holy city of Varanasi with her father, and Hira Lal’s mother. Following the cremation and scattering the ashes of her husband in the Ganges, Hira Lal’s mother, the according to tradition, breaks off the coloured glass bracelets that have been given to Chuyia at the wedding. This child bride is believed to bring bad luck to the family and her husband. The little girl’s hair is shaved, her colourful clothes were taken off and she’s wrapped with a piece of white cloth, then brought to the ashram where she will spend the rest of her life away from her family.

Chuyia’s father who is a Brahmin priest gives more information about the place of women in society at the beginning of the novel. “Outside of marriage the wife has no recognized existence in our tradition. A woman’s role in life is to get married and have sons. That is why she is created: to have sons!” (Sidwha, 2006, p. 15) Moreover, according to the belief, a daughter was “only a guest and never belonged to the house in which she was born” (Ibid, p. 16).

According to Chuyia’s father “a girl is destined to leave her parents’ home early or she will bring disgrace to it. She’s safe and happy only in her husband’s care. ... A woman is recognized as a person only when she is one with her husband.” (p. 14) For this reason, Chuyia was married to 44-year-old Hira Lal when she was only 6 years old but she was widowed two years later. With that she loses her identity, and becomes nobody, namely the ‘other’.

Chuyia’s mother knows what her daughter will go through after being widowed but as a woman she cannot do anything to change this situation. She knew that the cruel traditions could not be challenged. Also scared of falling into the same situation, her mother could only cry for Chuyia.

In Brahmin culture, once widowed, a woman was deprived of her useful function is society – that of reproducing and fulfilling her duties to her husband. She ceased to exist as a person; she was no longer either daughter or daughter-in-law. There was no place for her in the community, and she was viewed as a threat to the society. A woman’s sexuality and fertility, which was so valuable to her husband in his lifetime, was converted upon his death into a potential danger to the morality of the community. (Ibid, p. 32)
Due to child marriage tradition, young widows no longer have an acceptable place in the families after the death of the husband, and they have to work ceaselessly in order to feed themselves. Their hair is completely shaved in order to minimize their femininity. Besides, they should always be thin to hide their body contours, therefore eat as little as possible.

Immediately after a woman is widowed, her head was shaved to stave off the dirt in her hair and her sins, and to show her sexlessness as a widow. “It was enforced by the belief that if the widow did not shave her head, every drop of water that fell upon the hair polluted the husband’s soul as many times as the number of hairs upon her head” (Ibid, p. 44) Her femininity is believed to bring unrest to the family and to the soul of her husband.

Even the shadows of the widows are considered to be inauspicious. Moreover, it is believed that it would bring bad luck if a widow is seen by other women, especially by a bride. Shakuntala’s being kept away from the bride at the wedding ceremony by the Ganges could be given as an example of this belief. When she is watching the wedding ceremony, the priest calls out to Shakuntala; “Don’t let your shadow touch the bride!” (p. 114) However, the supporters of Gandhi spreading through India were opposed to that belief and they did not believe that the widows would bring bad luck. Shakuntala meets a follower of Gandhi by the Ganges who is not scared of looking at her or talking to her. She says “I’m Gandhi’s follower and my eyes see the life different” (Ibid, p. 219). She was not scared to touch the widows or did not care if their shadows would bring bad luck if they touch her. For this reason, Shakuntala decides to entrust Chuyia to Gandhi and his supporters in order for her to get rid of her ill fortune.

It is believed that the widows are in misery because of their sins in their past lives, and that they were half-dead after the death of their husbands. When Chuyia first came to the ashram, Madhumati explains their situation to her. “Our holy books say, ‘A wife is part of her husband while he is alive.’ Right?...And when our husbands die, God help us, the wives also half die” (Ibid, p. 52).

Until the law that permitted the remarriage of the widows, they were not allowed to remarry after the death of their husbands as they were expected to remain faithful to their memories.

A widow’s head is shaved, her ornaments removed, and she is expected to mourn till the end of her life. She fasts, and stops eating warm meals that would increase her sexual desires. She stays away from ceremonies and celebrations since she carries the curse which caused the death of her husband, does not marry again, and stay faithful to her husband’s memory. (Ibid, p. 171)

Madhumati intentionally hides that the law allowing the remarriage of the widows was enacted to keep the order she established in the ashram as it is. Yet, she wants to justify herself by saying “we should live and die in chastity” (Ibid, p. 168). In fact, it is not possible to say that they live in chastity, because Madhumati forces the young and beautiful Kalyani into prostitution in order to meet the costs of the ashram and more importantly to get some weed for herself. She even lets Kalyani keep her hair long.

Kalyani’s condition stands for all women whose beauty and body become her curse. Like Chuyia, Kalyani was widowed at the age of 9, but she could not escape evil people when she was just an anxious and confused little girl, and was forced into prostitution to survive. From the age of eight to eighty, the life of widows was full of plight while waiting for their death.
The novel tells the story of widows from all age groups. Eight-year-old Chuyia, young and pretty Kalyani at the end of her teenages, matronly Shakuntala at her forties, grumpy and merciless Madhumati in her seventies, and old Bua who is close to death more than ever share a common future although they have different histories. They are all widows excluded by society, namely otherised.

The kind of ‘othering’ faced by a widow who is considered inauspicious and excluded could be defined as an ‘othering’ resulting from the incompatibility between the expectations of the outside world and her own inner world. For instance, even though old Buba knows that it is forbidden but always dreams of eating sweets, only after she eats the laddoo which Chuyia brings secretly to her she could draw her last breath.

Considering the long-standing and deep-rooted traditions in India, it is not difficult to estimate that there are millions of widows living in the streets and struggling with hunger. Despite the law that permits the remarriage of widows, the number of men who wish to marry a woman who is considered inauspicious would not be high. Even if a man wants to marry a widow, his family and friends may disapprove. Not surprisingly, Narayan’s mother does not accept a widow to be her daughter-in-law, and his father advises him to keep Kalyani as his mistress. His father’s paying to have affairs with widows, and his mother’s quietly accepting this situation is also thought-provoking in terms of questioning women’s place in society.

Excluded by society, pushed aside, and not allowed to be happy at all, the widow Kalyani whose beauty is ruthlessly abused falls into depression as a result of this ‘othering’, and puts an end to her life in holy waters of the Ganges. The situation of Kalyani can be defined as due to some psychological and sociological external factors, a person’s losing his/her own identity. Kalyani commits a suicide at the final stage of her lack of communication with the environment.

In Indian society, it is also possible for a woman whose husband died to be burned to death on the funeral pyre of her late husband. This practice is called ‘sati’; however, sati is also accepted as suicide and not approved. Hence, the widows are ‘otherised’ in a society where neither living nor dying is possible; and as a result fall into depression.

As they had to beg or prostitute themselves in order to survive, a certain amount of pension started to be granted by the state to the widows; however, it only allows them to barely support themselves. Since Water tells the events that took place in 1938, the widow pension was out of question, but it is seen that the young widow Koly takes the widow pension in Gloria Whelan’s award-winning Homeless Bird (2000). Although it is not certain which dates are exactly covered in Whelan’s book, it is understood from the story that the events take place in the early 1990’s when computers were beginning to become widespread.

The book starts with the talk between 13-year-old Koly and her mother about marriage. It continues with her family’s finding a good match for her, the wedding, and the death of her young husband Hari. Koly stays with the family of her late husband who was already sick and died shortly after the wedding. She befriends Chandra, and helps with the house work; however, she is continuously humiliated and considered inauspicious by her mother-in-law. Koly, who always dreams of escaping, learns how to read and write from her father-in-law. This uncommon situation in their society later on becomes a great help for her to stand on her own feet.
The main duty of a woman was to get married and to bear children; therefore they were wedded at the age of 8 or 10, were not allowed to get an education. The only education they could receive was about housework. Besides, in Indian society, it is the family mainly who fixes the marriages, and in marriage the husbands always have the upper hand. Going against the wishes of her husband is considered to be a sin for a woman. If a bride brings a large amount of dowry she is given respect and is treated well in her new home, but if her dowry does not meet the expectations of her in laws, she has to suffer harassment. (Tewari & Tewari, 2009, p. 42)

In Homeless Bird, Hari’s mother thinks that Koly’s dowry is not enough and that is brings bad luck instead of healing her son. She repines and says “it is an inauspicious day she came to our house” (Whelan, 2000, p. 71); yet she does not hesitate using Koly’s widow pension. Moreover, according to her, Koly is granted a pension thanks to her late son, so she has the right to use that money as she is Hari’s mother.

A 13-year-old girl Koly knows that she will be widowed, if Hari dies in Varanasi, where he is taken with the hope of a cure. She expresses her fear by saying “if Hari died, what would become of me? I would be a widow whom no one would want. I had been told stories of terrible days long ago when widows were thrown on the burning funeral pyres of their husbands” (Ibid, p. 29). Her fears do not fully come true; but Hari dies, and Koly takes her first step into widowhood by wearing the cheap white cloth her mother-in-law bought for her before leaving Varanasi.

Koly cannot go back to her family and house because she is afraid of being rejected by them with her widow outfit, although she always dreams of going back to them. She spends about three years like this, but she gets lonelier after Hari’s sister Chandra gets married and leaves the house. No matter how close they are to each other, it is never forgotten that Koly is a widow. She is not allowed to help prepare Chandra on her wedding day. Her mother-in-law says “only those women who are not widowed and have borne a male child are privileged to help” (ibid, p. 75) to prevent her from helping the bride. During the wedding, Koly is amongst the ones who eat the last and the least.

Shortly after the wedding, her father-in-law dies and her mother-in-law is widowed, too. Since it is not possible for two widows to survive together, her mother-in-law decides to live in her brother’s house, and on her way leaves Koly in Vrindavan. Koly has to sleep in the streets as she knows no one in this crowded and holy city. The story of an old widow whom Koly meets at her first day in Vrindavan is like a summary of the stories of all other widows in this city.

When my husband died, I was no longer needed. His property was divided between his brothers. The brothers brought me here. ... Once they had my husband's property, they had no more use for me. They said widows were unlucky to have about. The truth is that I am too old for hard work. ... Like the other widows I go each day to a temple and chant for four hours. The monks in the temple feed us, and there is the pittance of my widow's pension. I had a room I shared with other widows, but the landlord wanted it back for his family, so we are all turned out. Now I must find a new room. (Ibid, p. 106-107)

Since widows are considered unlucky, Koly thinks that it might bring unhappiness and even shame to her family if they learn what happened to her, and gives up the idea of going back to her family. Yet, she starts facing the problems as other widows do. She manages to escape the man who tries to trick and kidnap her; however, she is faced with starvation when her little money finishes; and she has to find a way to survive.
In the morning, I decided, I would go to the temple. I would chant all day to show how holy I was, and the monks would keep me from starving. At least in the temple I would be safe from evil men. I would become one of the thousands of widows of Vrindavan. That would be my life for as long as I lived. (Ibid, p. 115)

At this very moment, with the help of a rickshaw driver Raji, she settles in a widows’ house. This place is a lodging-house donated to the widows by a lady bountiful; and those who live here stay there until they learn how to stand on their own feet without facing the problems of widows. Upon settling in the widows’ house, Koly first of all takes out her widow’s sari; soon she finds a job which helps her make a living, makes new friends, and starts building a new life. She even dreams of her future thanks to Raji whom she teaches how to read and write.

When the owner of the widows’ house, Mrs. Devi, visits them, we learn the reason why she is helping the widows instead of excluding them. Her grandmother was also a widow abandoned in Vrindavan, and her father looked for his mother for years only to find no trace of her. "When he died, he left money in his will for a widows’ house” (Ibid, p. 146), and his daughter granted this place to the widows in order to fulfil her father’s will. She not only provides a place where widows can stay, but she also commits herself to protect them from the repression of traditions. She does not approve of the widows covering their faces with saris; and she speaks to them in a direct and open way, so they would not feel like poor widows.

With the help of Mrs. Devi, Koly finds a job which she likes a lot and where she can improve her skills. When she starts earning enough money she moves out to a new house with Tanu so that new widows come and stay in the widows’ house. Even though she seems to be free from the oppression and exclusion a widow comes across in social life, she abstains from accepting Raji’s proposal. She knows that the remarriage of widows is not approved, and men who wish to marry a widow are not supported by the society. She shares her doubts with Raji by saying “they wouldn’t want you to marry a widow; such a marriage is inauspicious. And you own land. You would have no trouble finding a wife who would bring you a dowry”. (Ibid, p. 168) It takes time for Koly to say yes, but eventually when they are about to marry, Tanu remarkably expresses her feelings. “You are lucky. Where will I find a man who will marry a widow?” (p. 180)

At the end of the novel, which takes its name from Rabindranath Tagore’s poem “Homeless Bird”, Koly is like a homeless bird which could finally fly back home when she is going to her new house with Raji. She has a new nest to live with her husband now.

Women, whose gender is the main reason of ‘othering’ them, are regarded labourers for their husbands, and they become a burden to the families of their husbands after the death of the men they serve. The widows who lose their identities with the death of the husband, with no income, are pushed to loneliness and depression because no one including their own children protects them. Labelled inauspicious, and forced to live a harsh life with many restrictions, the widows continue their lives gathering and worshipping in the holy cities of Varanasi and Vrindavan. Since they had to beg or even prostitute themselves in order to survive, some of them dare to commit suicide due to the harsh conditions of their lives.

In both novels, the child brides are widowed long before they learn the meaning of marriage, and they have continue their lives with curse of being a widow. They rebel against this fate with the enthusiasm of their young age. Chuyia want to escape from the ashram at first, and keeps saying that her mother would come and take her. Similarly, Koly dreams of
escaping from the house of her in-laws and starting a new life for three years. Both girls do not want to grow old as a widow.

Different from Chuyia, Koly’s husband was very young, but he dies shortly after the wedding. She is not left to an ashram at first, instead she is kept for helping the housework in the house of her in-laws. However, she faces the real conditions of the widows after her fate brings her to Vrindavan. Whereas Chuyia has to spend her life begging and praying in an ashram, Koly moves in a widows’ house where widows do not come across restrictions and cruelty. Koly and the rest of the widows there do not wear widow’s sari, and could eat sweets and fried food without prohibitions. Remarriage is not forbidden for them if they find a spouse who accepts them.

Both novels deal with the exclusion, repression, and othering faced by the widows although the dates and the way they handle the themes are different. At the end of the novel, Koly is freed from othering, she owns a husband and an identity. But for Kalyani, the same thing cannot be said. Even though she finds a spouse who accepts her, she cannot escape from being no one, namely the Other, which is imposed by the society. Her mental disturbance brings her to death. Chuyia, with the effort of Shakuntala, is driven apart from her misfortune. Although the end of Sidhwa’s novel creates a little hope in the minds of the readers, it is not possible to know how Chuyia’s life would be in the future.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND LEARNER AUTONOMY: AN L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF-SYSTEM PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

The study aims to explore the relationship between L2 motivation and learner autonomy, an issue which has attracted much attention in the recent years. The participants included 84 female and male English language learners and data was collected through the administration of three instruments: Key English test (KET), a motivation questionnaire used by Taguchi, Magid, & Papi (2009) and an autonomy questionnaire used by Spratt, Humphreys, & Chan, 2002). Cronbach’s Alpha was first run to determine the reliability of the obtained data and correlation tests were then applied to examine the relationships between the variables. The results revealed that most of the autonomy variables moderately correlated with ideal L2 self, intended effort and attitudes to learning English. It was also found that none of the autonomy variables had statistically significant correlations with L2 anxiety, however, L2 anxiety was significantly and moderately correlated with the variable, which shows that the degree to which learners believe teachers rather than the learners is mainly responsible for students’ learning (r = .24, p = .02). Therefore, it was concluded that learner autonomy is mainly related to those components of L2 motivational self-system which relate to the learners’ deeper ‘self’.

Key Words: L2 Motivation, Autonomy, L2 Motivational Self-System, L2 Anxiety

INTRODUCTION

L2 learner motivation, which has been the focus of many studies (e.g., Gardner, 1985) in second/foreign language acquisition, can be regarded as one of the most important educational variables identified so far in the field. The results of previous research have indicated that motivation is the key variable which has determining effects on L2 learner achievement.

Research on language motivation was first initiated and then consistently pursued by Gardner and his associates (e.g., Gardner & Lambert, 1972). The key component of Gardner’s (1985) motivation theory was the integrative motive, which concerns a positive interpersonal affective disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even
become similar to valued members of that community. However, he received criticism for focusing so much on the integrative motive. He believed that "subjects who select integrative reasons over instrumental reasons as indicative of themselves evidence higher levels of motivation" (Gardner, 1985, p.53).

A more recent development in theorizing motivation has been introduced by Dörnyei (2005) who proposed ‘L2 Motivational Self System’ in response to the theoretical and practical shortcomings of Gardner’s theory. According to this model, integrativeness is reconceptualized as an internal process of identification within a learner’s self-concept rather than his/her identification with an external reference group. The major components of this model include ‘ideal L2 self’, ‘ought-to L2 self’ and ‘L2 learning experience’.

In addition to motivation, learner autonomy has been shown to be associated with language learning. Although autonomy was initially a concept mostly discussed in philosophy, sociology and political sciences, it has now become an area of interest for educators and language learning specialists. According to Holec (1981), autonomy is the ability to accept the responsibility of one’s own learning and in many other conceptualizations of learner autonomy. It has been defined as capacity for detachment, goal setting, critical thinking, decision-making, self-monitoring, self-assessment and strategic learning (Dickinson, 1987; Little, 1990; Littlewood, 1996; Oxford, 1990).

It has been suggested that the development of learner autonomy depends on the implementation of a number of factors. In classes which focus on learner autonomy, teachers are facilitators and counsellors and not the only decision-makers (Voller, 1997). The second factor is that in such classes the activities engage students in interactions, cooperation and collaboration (William & Burden, 1997). In an autonomy-based type of classroom, students also reflect on their own learning (Little, 1991) and learn to use different learning strategies. Students in such classes also use genuine forms of language for the purpose of real communication (Legenhausen, 1999) to acquire the language. Results of different studies have also shown the positive effects of other techniques on the development of learner autonomy. Some of these techniques include the utilization of self-reports (Wenden, 1998), distance-learning (Holmberg, 1986; Januin, 2007; White, 2003), diary keeping (Dam, 1995) and portfolio assessment (Ekbatani & Pierson, 2000).

The relationship between L2 motivation and autonomy has also been discussed in the literature. While some of the studies suggested that autonomy is the precondition for the development of learner motivation (Brophy, 2009; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ushioda, 2011), some others have shown that motivation is an important factor which can help language learners become more autonomous (Spratt, Humphreys & Chan, 2002). In order to delve into the relationships further, the present study investigated the issue by assessing each component of L2 motivational self-system and variables associated with learner autonomy.

**Participants**

The participants in this study were 84 (45 females and 39 males) English language learners from language institutes in Iran. Convenience sampling was used to select the participants, as it was not possible to select them randomly. Language learners who took part in the study were either high school or university students, therefore, they were between the ages of 16 and 22.
Instruments

Three instruments were administrated in this study. The first one was the listening and reading section of Key English test (KET), which was used to assess the participants’ level of proficiency. The test is provided by Cambridge English language assessment and shows the extent to which learners are able to use English in simple situations. The other two instruments used in this study included an L2 motivational self-system questionnaire, which was developed by Taguchi, Magid, & Papi (2009) and a learner autonomy questionnaire used in a study by Chan, Humphreys, & Spratt (2002). The motivation questionnaire consisted of different motivational subscales to assess ‘intended effort’, ‘ideal L2 self’, ‘ought-to L2 self’, ‘instrumentality-promotion’, ‘instrumentality-prevention’, ‘integrativeness’, ‘attitudes to learning’ and ‘L2 anxiety’. The autonomy questionnaire included three sections: students’ and teachers’ responsibilities inside and outside the class, students’ perceived abilities to perform autonomously, and actual activities students’ engaged in both inside and outside the class. The estimated reliability of the data associated with each subscale was above .60, which is an acceptable value for Cronbach’s alpha (Dörnyei, 2003).

Procedures for Data Collection

After making arrangements with the institute and the teacher, the data was collected during two sessions. In the first session KET was administered by the teacher and in the second session students were asked by the teacher to respond to the questionnaire items. The respondents filled in answers on a Likert scale. They were eager to participate in the study as they were told by the teacher that the exam scores would be reported and they would be able to assess their English proficiency.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In the first stage of data analysis descriptive statistics of the obtained data was calculated. Table 1 provides information about the number of participants, number of items in each subscale, the respondents’ mean score and standard deviation of the data related to each variable.

Table 6 Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KET</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>42.21</td>
<td>12.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intended effort</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>25.61</td>
<td>4.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideal L2 self</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>28.91</td>
<td>4.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought-to L2 self</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>23.08</td>
<td>7.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumentality-prom</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24.36</td>
<td>5.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumentality-prev</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>29.79</td>
<td>8.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrativeness</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14.94</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the second stage several correlation tests were run to see to what extent motivational variables correlate with the autonomy variables. Since one of the assumptions of using correlation is the normality of data, and the results of Shapiro-Wilk showed that the assumption was sometimes violated, instead of using Pearson product-moment correlation, Spearman rank correlation which is the non-parametric alternative was sometimes used. Table 2 below shows the results of correlation tests, whenever the assumptions are violated, results of Spearman rank correlation are presented.

Table 2 Results of Correlation Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Intended Efforts</th>
<th>Ideal L2 Self</th>
<th>Ought-to L2 Self</th>
<th>Instrumentality-promotion</th>
<th>Instrumentality-prevention</th>
<th>Integrativeness</th>
<th>Attitudes to learning</th>
<th>L2 Anxiety</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student's responsiblity</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>.49**</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher's responsiblity</td>
<td>.22*</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td>.22*</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception of ability</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>.21*</td>
<td>.21*</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.24**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual activity</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>.33**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.39**</td>
<td>.48**</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
As table 2 shows, students’ responsibility which is in fact the degree, to which learners believe learning is mainly their own responsibility, has the strongest relationship with ideal L2 self (r = .49) and the correlation is statistically significant. However, teacher’s responsibility which refers to the extent to which students believe teachers are responsible for their learning has the strongest correlation with L2 anxiety (r = .24), a variable which significantly correlates with none of the autonomy variables. Students’ perception of their ability to manage their own learning inside and outside the class significantly correlates with intended effort (r = .35). And finally, the actual activities, which reflect learners’ engagement in actual autonomous activities, have the strongest correlation with attitudes to learning (r = .48), intended effort (r = .43), ideal L2 self (r = .43) and integrativeness (r = .39).

CONCLUSION

The present study was intended to investigate the relationship between autonomy and motivation using the L2 motivational self-system theory. The results clearly reveal the fact that learner autonomy might be closely related to the learners’ deeper self, as motivational variables which are more internally regulated, have stronger correlations with different variables associated with learner autonomy.

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ORIENTALISM AND GENDER ISSUES IN LITERATURE: REVISITING THE AMBIGUITY ON TERMS “WEST-EAST” AND “MAN-WOMAN” IN DAVID HENRY HWANG’S M. BUTTERFLY

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ABSTRACT

M. Butterfly is a novel which meticulously includes orientalism and gender issues in its plot. While the author tethers at the edges of two distinct genders’ psychologies and understandings with a skillful command in the language, he also reveals hints of reading a literary text through the orientalist discourse. Gallimard, the protagonist, embodies all issues related to “being a man” and “representing west” in east. This paper discusses how David Henry Hwang achieves to form a fictitious text by employing all these issues in his characters in a smooth plot so as to enable the readers to read other literary texts through these discussions included here.

Key Words: Orientalism, Ambiguity, M. Butterfly, Postcolonial Literature, Hwang

I think one of the more simple things the play’s trying to say is that eventually one must look past all the cultural stereotyping we do of each other, west to East and East to West, and deal with each other just as humans if we’re really to reach any point of true understanding.

David Henry Hwang (cited in Digaetani, 1989: 146)

In the story of Phoenix, as it is mentioned in its most well-known story, it sings beautiful songs that all the others admire it. It does its best all through its life and at the end it stops somewhere, where it will die. There it starts its last and the most beautiful song. Life stops and everything listens to this song. While singing this song, it collects wood pieces to set up its death nest. After finishing its song it starts to clap its wings and it flares its wooden nest, it burns itself and a new bird is born from the old bird’s ashes. And for another most beautiful song, this bird must die, as well.

In the above mentioned story, singing songs is bird’s main duty to perform through its life and it performs it at the end of its life, perfectly. In the play, M. Butterfly by David Henry Hwang, there are some common senses with the story of Phoenix. It is obvious that the main character of the Phoenix story is the bird itself, on the other hand, in Hwang’s play the protagonist is Gallimard. He is a French diplomat who lives in China just because of his duty. He performs his duty as a diplomat in this country and serves his motherland. He sings his songs by doing his daily tasks and he continues this monotonous life reluctantly. However, the shared experience between his and the Phoenix is that he lives according to his duties nothing more and nothing different and nothing is as well as he wants. He does everything he has to do but not
his choices. So, at the end he tells all his story that he lived a life full of songs but this is his best story. This is better than all the other stories and duties that he has served. He serves to the readers and the listeners to his story. And eventually he dies. He burns himself in his story. But this last story puts out a new Gallimard for the readers who tell the real story of him. He tells and recreates himself by putting out the truth behind the vision. So, in the light of this new Gallimard’s turn, I will discuss the terms Orientalism and gender roles in M.Butterfly by trying to remove the ambiguity on the issue of Gallimard’s lie. There are certain reasons related with Orientalism and Gender roles in this particular play and to understand the latent content of the play, these reasons must be understood first (Kondo, 1990:18).

First of all, the reasons related with orientalism will be dealt with in the paper, but to understand orientalism, the definitions of this term must be clarified. Edward Said defines Orientalism in three ways. At first, he says that orientalism is the term that deals with any person who deals with the orient in any ways like teaching, writing about it, researching it. (Said, 2003: 2) This is the most general understanding of orientalism. According to this definition there are two people categorized in terms of orientalism, the ones who are related with East, the Orient, and the others who are not related with it. So it can be said that, it is necessary to interact with the other people in a small world and Orientalism is an unavoidable term that defines this interaction.

The other definition of orientalism, according to Said is that it is an ontological and epistemological truth. (Said, 2003: 2) This is originated from the existence of distinction between the east “the Orient” and the west “The Occident”. So the east is ontologically and epistemologically “the other” of the west and the west is also “the other” for the east. They exist together and their existence provides each other to survive. They are parts of one complete system. To define “the Orient”, “the Occident” will always need to be defined and vice versa.

Said’s last definition for Orientalism is more specific than the other two. As a western style, Orientalism is being dominated, destructed by a Western authority. West teaches to dominate, researches for establishing its authority over East. So here the roles are not equal. There are two roles played by East and West and West plays the dominative one. East is there just for being conquered. By using these three definitions of the term orientalism, we can look at Gallimard’s situation and understand why he lies. Gallimard is the protagonist of the play M. Butterfly and the play starts with him. First orientalism-related reason of the lie is the subtext of Puccini’s Madame Butterfly. Play starts with quoting this opera of Puccini as a subtext. Gallimard is supposed to be Pinkerton in this subtext (Kondo, 1990: 21). He encounters with Song Liling at first at the home of an ambassador while she is performing as Butterfly in the opera. Gallimard is to have the role as Pinkerton while Song is Butterfly because there are two main roles in this opera. Puccini’s opera is an Orientalist opera and completely fits all the definitions of the term Orientalism. It is a reading on East by a Westerner, it puts out the differences and it defends the domination and authority of West on East (Tang, 2008: 29). And Song emphasizes the Oriental reading of it by giving an opposite example;

SONG: Well, yes, to a Westerner.

GALLIMARD: Excuse me?

SONG: It’s one of your favorite fantasies, isn’t it? The submissive Oriental woman and the cruel white man.
GALLIMARD: Well, I didn’t quite mean...

SONG: Consider it this way: what would you say if a blonde homecoming queen fell in love with a short Japanese businessman? He treats her cruelly, and then goes home for three years, during which time she prays to his picture and turns down marriage from a young Kennedy. Then, when she learns he has remarried, she kills herself. Now, I believe you would consider this girl to be a deranged idiot, correct? But because it’s an Oriental who kills herself for a Westerner—ah!—you find it beautiful. (Hwang, 1993: 18)

Song always uses this way of reading Orientalism against Gallimard as a weapon but here she gives the role of being Oriental figure to Madame Butterfly and its characters. Because of all these oriental comments on Madame Butterfly, Gallimard finds himself a reason to lie. Gallimard is kept by this trap and tries to be shown as Pinkerton. Actually this is just a role for him to act. He wants a Butterfly and that’s why he tries to get closer with. But this approach is not like Pinkerton’s. The intention can be same but the way is different. Gallimard wants to be dominant on someone but not like Pinkerton.

PINKERTON: Cio-Cio-San. Her friends call her Butterfly. Sharpless, she eats out of my hand!

SHARPLESS: She’s probably very hungry.

PINKERTON: Not like American girls. It’s true what they say about Oriental girls. They want to be treated bad! (Hwang, 1993: 6)

Pinkerton wants and puts out his intention and takes what he wants. But Gallimard has to obey rules. He is a diplomat not a sailor. He has responsibilities first. He doesn’t feel free to do same thing as Pinkerton does. But his role is Pinkerton and it must be like that. He doesn’t want to be Pinkerton as the Orientalist who uses Orient for his own purposes but he is (Kondo 26). So Madame Butterfly’s difference and Orientalist pressure on Gallimard is one of the reasons on Gallimard’s lie.

Second Orientalist reason for Gallimard’s lie is Song’s game on him. Song plays a game on Gallimard. Whenever she talks about West and East she humiliates east but admires west as Gallimard can want. She always gives these ideas before Gallimard even hasn’t started to think. Gallimard is stuck in this trap at the beginning of everything.

GALLIMARD: I know she has an interest in me. I suspect this is her way. She is outwardly bold and outspoken, yet her heart is shy and afraid. It is the Oriental in her at war with her Western education. (Hwang, 1993: 25)

Gallimard supposes Song is the Oriental and he is the Westerner who will easily manage everything in accordance with his responsibilities (Ross: 12). He thinks all the control is in his hand, he is not aware of Song’s game on him. So this is also a reason for his lie.

Third Oriental reason for Gallimard to lie is his deconstructivist role in Song’s life. He believes that he can deconstruct her life by doing tricks. He comes closer to her but for some time he doesn’t want to see her just to test his deconstructive authority on Song’s life. Song writes letters to him but he wants to satisfy his Orientalist authority and never replies until he goes and wants Song to be his Butterfly. He deconstructs her life and rents a flat to live with Song and doesn’t care.
about her life. After this scene he becomes completely entrapped just because of his deconstructivist way of thinking in contrast to his thoughts.

**GALLIMARD** (To us): So much for protecting her in my big Western arms. (Hwang, 1993: 18)

On the other hand, Gender Roles are also important for Gallimard in his lie. Gender roles are mainly in two different categories. It is biologically obvious that; these two categories include “men” and “women” roles. But biological definition is not enough only. These roles are given by society and society set the roles that form these roles in a systematic way. Society—the group that people live in—is the main authority on these roles. The rules which are put by society affect the relationship between two genders. To be a man and to be a woman changes from people to people and from country to country. People’s expectations shape the gender role and the identity. Because a person interacts with other people, he or she uses these roles or he or she should be assumed as the ones who obey these rules that his or her gender has.

As a man Gallimard, is always in between these two gender roles. First of all, biologically he is a man and he tries to behave as a man. But from the flashbacks that take the reader to the past of Gallimard, in his life as a young student boy, we might have clues that he has never been a good representation of a young “man”.

**MARC:** (…) You’re just in there, going at it, eyes closed, on and on for as long as you can stand. (Pause) Some fun, huh?

**GALLIMARD:** What happens in the morning?

**MARC:** In the morning, you’re ready to talk some philosophy. (Beat) So how ‘bout it?

**GALLIMARD:** Marc, I can’t… I’m afraid they’ll say no—the girls. So I never ask.

**MARC:** You don’t have to ask! That’s the beauty—don’t you see? They don’t have to say yes. It’s perfect for a guy like you, really.

**GALLIMARD:** You go Ahead…I may come later.

**MARC:** Hey, Rene—it doesn’t matter that you’re clumsy and got zits—they’re not looking!

**GALLIMARD:** Thank you very much.

**MARC:** Wimp. (Hwang, 1993: 8-9)

Also in his life in China, after he meets Song, he tries to pretend to be Pinkerton but he can’t succeed in this job. He wants to hide behind this role but at the end he turns into Butterfly. He is the one at the end who has been cheated and used (Tang, 2008: 33). Of course he has also used Song to cover his homosexuality against the people who presumes him as a perfect man but Song’s betrayal is stronger than his aim. He wears the mask of “perfect man” and acts as a perfect man. He is also supported by the society and the people in his role.

**TOULON:** It’s only widespread within this embassy. Where nobody talks because everybody is guilty. We were worried about you, Gallimard. We thought you were the only one here without a secret. Now you go and find a lotus blossom…and top us all. (He exits)
GALLIMARD (to us): Toulon knows! And he approves! I was learning the benefits of being a man. We form our own clubs, sit behind thick doors, smoke and celebrate the fact that we’re still boys. (Hwang, 1993: 46)

This also encourages him to continue in this way but he doesn’t notice that the role given by the society is not the same as he sees in their life with Song (Tang 34-35). While he is building up his powerful kingdom as a perfect man in this society he loses his life in Song’s hands. Because Song is not only a partner who shares everything with him sexually but she is also a spy. Song is not only a man who pretends to be a woman to earn money and to keep Gallimard in her hand to earn more money. She is not a man who tries to hide his secret with him just because he is a homosexual and not a man who looks for a man lover. Gallimard is the victim of the western rape mentality over eastern people. He doesn’t approve this rape mentality but he becomes a victim of it. He performs this activity stronger than Pinkerton just because Pinkerton and butterfly lived an approved relationship and they married. But in Gallimard’s situation he knows his homosexual tendency and he satisfies this on Song’s woman role (Ma, 1993: 111). Song – as the woman character - is the one who is used to satisfy Gallimard and hide his secret. Gallimard is the perfect man who has the power on Song and the other people who deals with him. So to keep up on this comfortable situation and to hide his not perfect identity inside him, he should lie and he lied. But the Western Rape mentality turns into the reverse results that Gallimard becomes “woman”. This happens just before the end of the book, when the reader learns Song was a man and Gallimard was cheated. Gallimard s not cheated on not knowing that Song was a man but he was cheated that Song was not only sharing his only secret with him. He becomes a woman after being a prefect man just being cheated. He turns into a weak character that he has never been in the play before. Here this woman role o song and Gallimard are important because they are related with each other strongly. The role of Song makes Gallimard so weak. Her play deconstructs him and reshapes him. Song plays this perfect woman role and achieves to reach her aim and makes him believe in her.

SONG: Why, in Peking opera are women’s roles played by men?

Chin replies.

CHIN: I don’t know. Maybe, a reactionary remnant of male...

Song cuts her off.

SONG: No. Because only a man knows how a woman is supposed to act. (Hwang 49)

Song plays her woman role as perfect as she gives no chance to Gallimard to be suspicious about her trustworthiness. And song knows all his progress from being a man to woman.

SONG: become...something more. More like...a woman. (Hwang, 1993: 67)

Gallimard loses at the end and becomes the Butterfly “writhed on a needle”. His plans as a man collapse after he learns Song was a spy. So as Butterfly, Gallimard couldn’t tell the truth that he has already learned that Song was a man and he was the woman in their relationship and he lied that he has firstly learned it in the court. Because of being a woman and being dominated by the men around him he lied. He couldn’t tell the truth until the very last minute.

GALLIMARD: The man I loved was a cad, a bounder. He deserved nothing but a kick in the behind, and instead I gave him...all my love.
Yes—love. Why not admit it all. That was my undoing, wasn’t it. Love warped my judgment, blinded my eyes, rearranged the very lines on my face...until I could look in the mirror and see nothing but a woman. (Hwang, 1993: 68)

In his woman-Butterfly role Gallimard acts as an oppressed, used and left woman as it’s same for Butterfly in Puccini’s opera. Gallimard accepts this at the end of the play and names himself as Madame Butterfly. He completely espouses the identity of a woman who has been cheated by a man.

GALLIMARD: The love of a Butterfly can withstand many things...unfaithfulness, loss, even abandonment. But how can it face the one sin that implies all others? The devastating knowledge that, underneath it all, the object of her love was nothing more, nothing less than...a man. It is 1988. And I have found her at last. In a prison on the outskirts of Paris. My name is Rene Gallimard—also known as Madame Butterfly. (Hwang, 1993: 68)

As a result, because of all these reasons Gallimard tells a lie and kills himself. His lie is; not telling the truth about his life. He lies as he has never understood that Song was a man. He has known this since the beginning of all when he wants her to be his butterfly but he needs this lie. He needs this lie because of the reasons related with Orientalism and Gender roles. He has his identity with these reasons through the book. But this Gallimard is the one who lives the story and is affected by everything happened in the play. The other Gallimard is the one who is born after the other one dies. By killing himself he confuses the truth that he has been lying all through the book. By being a dead he is out of the prison that he feels at the beginning of the play.

GALLIMARD: I’ve played out the events of my life night after night, always searching for a new ending to my story, one where I leave this cell and return forever to my Butterfly’s arms. Tonight I realize my search is over. That I’ve looked all along in the wrong place. And now, to you, I will prove that my love was not in vain—by returning to the world of fantasy where I first met her. (Hwang, 1993: 91)

He breaks his walls which are set up by the terms East and West and Man and Woman. Everybody can understand the truth because he doesn’t need these lies-masks anymore. The truth makes new Gallimard- new Gallimard is new just because we look back all the story and comment on it after learning his death without telling the truth by speaking-stronger in the impression of the protagonist (Molotsky). Gallimard becomes a cult who reminds us the variety of choices and the possibility of not choosing one of all the alternatives.

In conclusion, Orientalism and gender roles were strongly studied in M.Butterfly by David Henry Hwang. And he reaches his aims by doing this. In one of his interviews he declares his aim as removing the stereotypes and dealing with people as they are only human beings. So, here in Gallimard’s life journey, this can be seen as anew way of thinking counter to Orientalism and Gender roles definitions. To understand Gallimard’s life is also to understand the life on earth. He has reasons and we can have reasons to lie but the only thing will remain after us is the truth.

“Death with honor/ Is better than life/ Life with dishonor.” (Hwang, 1993: 15)
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STUDENTS’ INVOLVEMENT IN THE PROCESS OF ENHANCING QUALITY OF HIGHER EDUCATION - CHALLENGES AND PERSPECTIVES

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ABSTRACT

The paper deals with a case study dealing with Education Management issues, its challenges and perspectives. It concerns the innovation in the education management - involving students in the assessment of quality of teaching, learning, research and administration. Students in the case study are not only assessing, but also helping others to develop. Increasing students’ involvement in nearly all the educational processes serves for making students more aware of what quality education is. This is essential for students, so that than later on they would contribute a lot to somehow improve the teaching-learning process, to obtain a better final product. From this point of view, the institute of tutors has been established within Akaki Tsereteli State University (ATSU). Tutors are Georgian and foreign senior students helping less experienced students in many different ways, following their job description. According to their great wish, quality assurance service of ATSU has scheduled several training courses for these tutors during the spring term. They were actively involved in assessing the process of administrating, teaching and learning. The paper mainly analyses the process of training tutors in order to raise English language awareness among ATSU students. It implies educating competitive graduates with market-oriented knowledge and skills. As well as the students, university and also the region they live in benefits from this. It is a long-term investment in becoming more international.

Keywords: Education management; Tutors; Internationalization; Teaching English

Since 2005 Georgia has become a part of the Bologna process. Simultaneously lots of changes on legislative level as well as on institutional level took place. Quality assurance service has appeared in the higher education institutions (HEIs) and the main idea of this structure at the HEI is to assure the quality of teaching, learning, research and administration. The quality assurance service at Akaki Tsereteli State University does its job in many different ways. This is working with the national center for educational quality enhancement for accreditation, authorization and simultaneously revising the existing curricula, designing new ones, which are competence-based and involve new learning outcomes, developing a correspondent assessment system and teaching methodology. Another obligation for the structure is to help the academic staff as well as the students to upgrade personally and professionally, to support them with lots of trainings in different directions. These trainings are announced beforehand, so that everybody has an equal opportunity to take part in them.
Also the quality assurance service tries to assess the quality of research and promotes the internalization of the programs and the whole university. In 2015 the ATSU quality assurance service carried out its work in the following directions:

- Assured compatibility of the programs with the authorization and accreditation standards;
- Disseminated information and assured publicity;
- Developed internal quality assurance mechanisms;
- Developed vocational programs and promoted internationalization.

The paper analyzes the experience of ATSU related to various innovations in the direction of quality assurance. Increasing students' involvement in nearly all the processes serves making students more aware of what quality education is, so that later on they would contribute a lot to somehow making the teaching-learning process better and the final product of higher education more successful. From this point of view ATSU organizes short courses for the academic staff; a network of tutors has been established within the university, whose aim is to help students learn and to be adapted at the university.

Tutors are experienced students helping less experienced students and newcomers (via mobility) in many different ways. The description of their job looks as follows:

- They are helping quality assurance staff during the mobility process;
- They help novice students with orientation;
- They help less experienced students to choose elective courses and give feedback on that;
- They participate in the analysis of inquiries and in many other activities.

Apart from getting experience, tutors get a reference for the internship and are able to take part in the trainings organized by ATSU Quality Assurance office.

ATSU has already scheduled some such trainings for the spring term, which would give them some extracurricular competences and the skills needed not only for the workplace, but also as the members of the society. The trainings will be held on the following topics:

- First aid;
- Environmental protection;
- Students' role in the assessment process;
- XXI-century skills.

The institute of tutors initiates the ideas of how to develop the process and involve others in the assessment of teaching, learning, research and administration process according to their functions. Actually, internalization is one of the main perspectives and challenges both for Quality Assurance service and administration at Akaki Tsereteli State University. Quality Assurance service does many things to reach internationalization on the program level and it tries to have good connections with quality assurance services at other universities within and outside the country. The staff of QA service participates in many international conferences disseminating good practices and then shares experiences with academic and administrative staff, as well as with tutors.
The Erasmus+ office at ATSU contributes much in this direction. At the moment at the university seven capacity building projects are going on. The number of incoming and outgoing students at ATSU is substantial, so it is important to take care of student mobility, in which the institute of tutors plays an important role. The incoming students integrate well in the academic society and their initiatives are more than welcome at the university. They benefit from all the privileges that ATSU students have.

The case study analyzed in the paper was designed and offered by one of the incoming Erasmus+ students from Gratz University, Elisabeth Schauermann, who was an exchange student in Akaki Tsereteli State University for the fall semester in 2015. She initiated the project which was intended to help the students to raise their English language competence and to support the society to become more friendly to the outside world. The methodology used for the project was presented with the problem-tree analysis.

Elisabeth found it difficult to communicate with the students unless they were the students of English Philology when she first appeared at the university. Accordingly, she started analyzing and observing the situation. She differentiated two major problems. One was lack of motivation and the second was not having the proper training in English. Lack of motivation could be caused by the discouraging experience in English learning and at the same time not having a sufficient vision on how important the English language is. Her idea was to provide informal peer learning of English, as learning in peer groups can be less stressful, as the focus on progress and not the grades are taken into account. In figure 1 see the problem tree analysis and the plan of implementing the strategy that Elizabeth defined.

Figure: 1

The major problems why many students do not know English was categorized into two major areas: internal and external factors. Internal factors of a problem included: having no interest in establishing any alternative educational system, having no willingness to pay for the further education, not having enough interest in learning English, as students do not see
advantages of learning it, being too self-conscious about the inability to communicate in English and having no desire to be confronted. The following external factors were differentiated by Elisabeth: lack of time; lack of available classrooms and study materials and not enough human resources. Having analyzed the problem, she set up the vision of the challenge and the mission.

The vision was: to raise the level of the English-speaking skills of ATSU students through a tutoring system in addition to regular courses.

The mission was: to build a structure of English tutoring classes that allow students and pupils to reach a satisfactory level of English skills that many currently seem to lack. A platform had to be set up, that would allow those in need to find tutors with sufficient English skills (preferably within Akaki Tsereteli State University’s student body). The importance of learning English has to be put forward and organizational obstacles have to be kept to a minimum.

Elisabeth designed the strategy for project implementation:

- Involve the student body, Akaki Tsereteli State University and municipality of Kutaisi → intellectual, financial, etc. resources;
- Change the mind-set through information, campaigning; try to reach many people;
- Gather skilled people → tutors;
- Set up a system of benefits; advantages for all parties;
- Trying to keep obstacles low; making things simple.

Having analyzed the problem and designed the strategic plan for the project, Elisabeth addressed the Quality Assurance office for help. At Quality Assurance service the strategic plan and the milestones were a bit changed and further the assistance provided. The project was really taken into consideration and for the first step it was decided that it could be tested on the tutors themselves.

Totally there are 64 tutors at the university. Among them there are tutors from the specialty of English philology. As soon as Quality Assurance service approved the project, it was decided that the involvement of the English Philology Department and the Language Center would be crucial. With their support, five trainings were conducted for the tutors of English Philology on teaching methodology, assessment system, and teaching resources. Skillful tutors started the further implementation of the project. A placement test was designed and the willing tutors from other faculties set the test. According to their time availability, language competence and the time availability of the tutors the groups were set up. In total four groups with the total number of 40 students were selected and formed; two more are to open soon. The number of students willing to take part in the project has been growing since the initiation of the project. To provide the sustainability of the project, its outcomes are being analyzed. The beneficiaries of the project obviously are the students, the university and the society. As result of the project the students will develop more self-confidence concerning their future upon graduation, and the society will gain more members to become part of globalized world. Teaching English is a long-term investment in becoming more international and more attractive as a location of industry/commerce and as an academic institution.
From Elisabeth’s point of view teaching English helps students gain qualifications and confidence in their skills, allowing them to get better jobs and communicate with people worldwide. This is why she decided to contribute to the development of English-speaking skills at the university where she was doing her studies. Her mobility period at Akaki Tsereteli State University is over, and she has returned home, but the project is still developing successfully and it can be considered as one of the best cases established at Akaki Tsereteli State University in Education Management.
CIVIC EDUCATION, KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS IN AZERBAIJAN – A POST-SOVIET COUNTRY

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ABSTRACT

According to the literature the importance of civic education and engagement for democratic and ‘desired’ society is undeniable. Where a society has not had experience of democracy before and where it is trying to establish and improve democratic values, civic education and engagement become even more important. For example, Azerbaijan was a part of the Soviet Union and after the collapse of the Union in 1992, it became a democratic republic. It is possible to say that during the Soviet Union era the concepts of human rights and political and social engagement in governance were ‘forbidden’. For example, there was only one party – the Communist Party and in this case political engagement was something that could be discussed. So, the term ‘citizenship’ was directly related to obeying the rules imposed by the single-party system, otherwise participating in decision making was impossible: there was a lack of civic engagement, people even could not share their ideas about any political or social situation, they formally had the right to vote, but in reality they could ‘elect’ one candidate out of one. If any society has not had experience of democracy before and is trying to establish and develop democratic values, the importance of civic engagement is highly important as a means of transforming participation. However, to achieve a high-level civic engagement, there is a need for civic knowledge and skills. So, this study investigates whether civic education at schools provides proper civic knowledge and skills for young students in Azerbaijan – a post-soviet country.

Keywords: Civic education, civic knowledge, civic skills

INTRODUCTION

Civic engagement stands for individual and community involvement in both social and political actions that leads to the communication between people and society and can affect policy at various levels (Putnam, 2000). According to McBride, Sherraden and Pritzker (2006: 4), civic engagement is “a hallmark for democracy, the space of freedom where citizens exercise rights, voice, and conscience”. However, to be able to participate in social and political activities and play an active role in a society as a citizen, people need civic skills. Civic skills are the abilities to liaise with civil servants and politicians, affect policy and government and engage with critical thinking towards civic and political issues (Soltan, 1999). It can be argued that there is a need for civic skills for effective participation in both civic and political life (Kirlin, 2003). Moreover, there is a need for civic knowledge, because civic knowledge positively affects supporting democratic values: knowledgeable citizens are more likely to promote core democratic values, firstly having tolerance (Galston, 2001).
Different civic skills categories have been defined by various researchers. For example, while Patrick (2002) identifies two necessary civic skills categories: participatory and cognitive, Kirlin (2003) identifies four categories of civic skills: collective decision-making, communication, organizational and critical thinking. Although there are different skill categories, there appears to be an agreement that some such skills are needed if a society is to encourage meaningful participation and so it would seem that civic skills are essential for civic engagement. Kirlin (2003) defines civic skills as ‘part of a larger set of ideas about what is believed to be necessary for citizens to be engaged in public life’ (p.3). When it comes to the role of school in teaching civic knowledge and skills, as Verba, Schlozman and Brady (1995) state, “civic skills are acquired throughout the life cycle beginning at home and, specially, in school” (p. 305). Torney-Purta (2002) states that, when civic content and skills are meticulously taught, schools get the best results in encouraging civic engagement. It should be stated that civic content and skills can not only be taught as a special subject, but also through different subjects. Even, Conover and Searing (2000) argue that informal civic education in non-civic courses as English literature may be more influential than civic education as a special course (as cited in Galston, 2001, p 227).

Traditionally in western democracies, schools have been an important place where essential knowledge, skills and attitudes around engaged democratic citizenship are fostered (Hochschild & Scovronick, 2002; Parker, 2003). Even for the American public, preparing students for democratic and liable citizenship is the most essential aim of public schools (Crabtree, 2005). Nowadays, to promote democratic values, critical thinking, civic knowledge and skills that are essential for informed and active citizenship civic or citizenship education is taught at schools either as a subject or through different subjects. For instance, in England citizenship has been taught to the students aged 11-16 as a part the National Curriculum since 2002 (Koating et al., 2010) and it is a special subject called ‘Civics’. Civic education means teaching instructive tactics and supporting democratic ways of thinking that encourage active and aware citizenship (Hoge, 2002). According to Althof and Berkowitz (2006), civic education refers students’ engagement in various learning-activities where public issues and government activities such as elections are discussed. Moreover, “civic education may be defined as any conscious or overt effort to develop students’ knowledge of government, law, and politics as those have evolved through history and presently operate in society” (Hoge, 2002, p5).

However, despite the different definitions of civic education, there is a clear evidence that civic education has a noticeable influence on civic engagement (Whiteley, 2012). Civic education contributes to democratic society by promoting civic engagement. As Wheeler-Bell (2014, p. 464) states, civic education should ensure “collective sensibilities necessary to create the desired society” for children.

**Civic Education in Azerbaijan**

There is no special subject that is called ‘Civics’ at schools in Azerbaijan. However, the subject that mostly focuses on civic education is called ‘Knowledge of life’. This subject has been taught at schools for more than 10 years. It starts from the fifth grade and continues till the eighth grade. It should be stated that Civics is a part in this book. For example, ‘Knowledge of life’ for the fifth grade consists of five parts: 1) Natural Processes, 2) Healthy environment, 3) Moral Life, 4) Safe Life and 5) Civil Society. The part-Civil society includes the following topics: Family and Society, Public Knowledge, Human Rights and Citizenship.
METHOD

This study examined participatory skills, cognitive skills, communication skills, and collective decision-making skills to identify the effect of civic education on the acquisition of civic skills. To collect the data, a questionnaire was used. Wilson and McLean (1994) consider a questionnaire as widely used appropriate instrument to collect numerical data. However, there was a need not only for numerical data, but also for qualitative data in this study. So, both closed and open-ended questions were included in the questionnaire. While closed-ended questions help make comparisons, open-ended questions give the participants an opportunity to express their ideas without limitations (Cohen et al, 2011). There was only one open-ended question: How should a real active citizen behave (what kind of person should a real active citizen be)?

The participants were the ninth and tenth graders and the number of them was 74. The age of the participants was between 15 and 17. The questionnaires were given to them in the end of English lessons. It should be stated that before conducting the research the information sheet had been given to the participants and their parents gave approval for their children to participate in this questionnaire.

The questionnaire includes 13 closed-ended questions and one open-ended question.

RESULTS

The table below shows the students’ answers to the questions concerning civic knowledge and skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Answers (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 We discuss the issues and events happening in Azerbaijan with our peers</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 We discuss the issues and events happening in Azerbaijan with our parents or the elders</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 We have a discussion with the people around us to solve any issues</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 We discuss the issues we saw on TV with our friends</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 We discuss the issues we saw on TV with our parents</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 We read newspapers and journals</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 We follow what happens in our country</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 We follow what happens in other countries</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1. The questions and the answers with percentage

It can be easily seen from the table that the percentage of the students who always or often discuss the issues and events happening in Azerbaijan with their peers and with their parents or the elderlies are over 60%: (67% and 61%), while 33% of the students sometimes discuss these issues with their peers and 36% of the students sometimes discuss these issues with their parents or the elderlies.

As it can be seen from the table, nearly half of the students (47%) sometimes or never discuss the issues which need a solution with the people around them and it shows their lack of collective decision-making skills.

One of the most interesting points is that 39% of the students never read newspapers or journals and 47% of the students sometimes read them. Furthermore, the percentage of the students who never or sometimes follow what happens in their country is 67%. Fortunately, 76% of the students always or often follow the news on TV, but, unfortunately, only 44% of them always or often watch the programs about social and public activities. Besides, 37% of the students think that they cannot give a public speech and 35% of the students are not even interested in it.

Specially, the answers to the open-ended questions are interesting. For example, only 15% of the participants describe an active citizen as a person who follows and is aware of what happens in the country. 20% of the students even do not know who an active citizen is and their answers are: “I do not know”. For 54% of the students a real active citizen should always protect his/her country, be loyal and honest and ready even to die for his/her country. Interestingly, for 11% of the students, an active citizen means obeying rules.

CONCLUSION

Civic knowledge and skills have to be provided by schools. This can be done via a special subject with the same name or via other subjects such as literature and history. In Azerbaijan there is no special subject for civil education, but there is a subject called “Knowledge of life”, part of which includes topics dealing with civic education, taught for four years. The research held showed that school children only to some degree have the features needed for being active citizens. This brings me to conclusion that more measures should be taken by school in this direction.
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SOCIAL JUSTICE AND EQUITABLE ACCESS TO HIGHER EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the article is to give a clear definition of social justice as the most important moral standard that regulates social life. Two most important theories of social justice are analyzed for this reason. Education is rightfully considered as a powerful weapon for attaining social justice and educational rights, which enable everyone to participate fully and equally in social life. Consequently, depriving people of educational rights can lead to exclusion. The two terms ‘equality of opportunity’ and ‘equity’ need further explanation. Equality is equal treatment of everyone, whereas equity implies that people are treated according to their individual differences. In order to ensure fair access to higher education detailed analysis of these two approaches is necessary. In addition, the topic of fairness causes controversy among people and the most unjust cases preventing people from access to higher education are overviewed here. The last issue is the student admission system in Georgian higher education. The implementation of the new model for entrance exams based on transparent meritocratic principles is one of the most successful reforms in the country.

Key words: Social justice, higher education, equality, equity, fairness, distribution, inclusion

INTRODUCTION

Justice is a central moral standard in social life. The controversy over its meaning and interpretation is caused by its crucial role in transforming individual lives, relationship, and societies (Cohen, 1986). Social justice exists when people share a common humanity and, consequently, have a right to equitable treatment, support for their human rights, and a fair allocation of community resources; they are not discriminated against or prejudiced on the basis of gender, sexuality, religion, political affiliations, age, race, belief, disability, location, social class or socioeconomic circumstances (Robinson, 2016).

Social justice as distributive justice refers to division of benefits and to allocation of burdens at the same time, with the help of social and institutional arrangements (Oduaran, 2006). Struggling for social justice is a sign of development and is “the result of applying just principles to conflicts that arise from individuals’ and communities’ quests for advancement” (Oduaran, 2006, p. 70).
The Principles of Social Justice and Education

Higher education has always been connected with the achievement of something morally worthwhile. Therefore, it would be appropriate to connect it with the attainment of social justice (Waghid, 2014). A prominent theorist Rawls (2005) defines three main principles of justice: the liberty principle, the principle of fair equality of opportunity and the difference principle. The difference principle implies that the greatest benefit should be given to the least advantaged members of society. Under this approach certain degrees of inequality is acceptable in access to higher education, if these inequalities allow the higher education system as a whole to achieve greater degrees of excellence (Meyer, 2013). Here the question of ‘reverse discrimination’ arises and since “social justice as a principle is not supposed to discriminate against anybody, there cannot be any grounds to be ‘vindictive’ and discriminate against any individual or group of individuals” (Oduaran, 2006, p. 71).

In order to attain social justice, according to Miller’s theory, the society must comply with the principle of need, desert (reward) and equality. Citizens are treated equally, in case “public policy is geared towards meeting the intrinsic needs of every member of society and the economy is constrained and framed in such a way that the income and other work-related benefits people receive correspond to their respective deserts” (Waghid, p1451). Education should be responsive to need, desert and equality to get the desired outcome-social justice.

Equality or Equity

The principle of social justice requires that education should be distributed to ensure equal access for everyone. Although existing widening access to higher education is the indicator of existence of social justice, still there are many questions regarding fairness. The question arises to what extent increasing access to higher education enables disadvantaged groups to get fair access. It is necessary to clarify whether the equal opportunity guarantees inclusion for disadvantaged groups. For this reason these two confusing concepts, equality and equity, deserve to be discussed.

Having equal educational rights in the selection process involves equal treatment to all applicants regardless of race, class, disability and other markers of identity. As for equity, according to Dias (2015) it can be achieved by defending two dimensions: fairness and inclusion. Educational equity insists that in the process of selection applicants be treated according to their individual differences (Chankseliani, 2013).

Jacobs (2013) extends the concept of equality and by introducing stakes fairness as an indispensable component for an egalitarian society. He develops the view that higher education is unlikely to become universally accessible, therefore, considering it as a competition, he develops a three-dimensional model of equal opportunities. These dimensions are procedural fairness, background fairness and stakes fairness. Procedural fairness is the rules of procedure that guide a competition including the determination of the winners, background fairness ensures that there is a level playing field for competitors, and stakes fairness focuses on the prizes in the competition. Compared to one dimensional approach, which considers equality regardless any background information, and to two- dimensional approaches, implying only procedural and background fairness, it ensures fair allocation of benefits and burdens within a competition.
Reasoning about Fairness in Access to Higher Education

From Meyer’s (2013) point of view, fairness and justice are vogue concepts and defining unjust actions, regarding access to higher education, is much easier than just cases. A classical unjust case is exclusion based on wealth, creed, race, and gender, when people are barred from access to higher education because of inability to pay or for reasons of gender, religion, race, disability or any other factors.

Other more or less widespread cases preventing people from access to higher education are: corruption and bribery, when access to higher education depends on one’s ability and willingness to partake in overt or covert schemes of corruption or bribery; connections and favoritism - a legitimate use of social capital to give preference to applicants whose parents or grandparents attended the same institution; a less frequently discussed case is ideology and political correctness, barring people for lack of the proper political view or affiliation.

Standardized tests are the subject of debates. Meyer (2013) casts doubt on the sharp cut-offs and winner-take-all principle, which is the case when an applicant is barred from access for missing some threshold test scores, perhaps even by a fraction. However, simply lowering the access threshold to a point where everyone gets in will not result in a fairer system. On the contrary, the expansion of the system will be at the cost of quality.

Higher Education Admission System in Georgia

Georgian higher education has undergone radical changes. From historic perspective, the most important reforms have been carried out since 2005, when a centralized admissions model, the Unified National Exams were introduced under control of National Unified Exam Centre (NAEC). Scores of standardized tests are used as the only criterion for admission to a limited number of places and for allocation of tuition grants across all higher education institutions (HEIs).

In terms of equality of opportunities, standardized tests are an advancement compared to the earlier used approach, as it managed to tackle the wide-spread practice of corruption and ensure equal conditions of competition for places for all applicants, but, like other meritocratic systems, which are based on merit and ability, they do not take into consideration many background factors.

Georgian higher education system is specific for several reasons: under the centralized system of admissions, differences between public and private HEIs in terms of access are negligible and selection of students for private HEIs is held in the same unified manner as for public HEIs. At the same time, the government subsidizes both public and private HEIs by allowing students to obtain public tuition grants to cover their fees. The difference here is that the public institutions have to set fees within the limits established by the government, whereas private providers have no restrictions towards the tuition rate.

Georgia has a large public sector in terms of the number of students and is characterized by high (compared to income) tuition fees and low assistance. Compared to average monthly income tuition fees are too high, and the allocation of public resources for tuition fees is so scarce that only 9% of students get full state grants and small social programs for different categories of socially vulnerable students provided only 2% of students with grants in 2005-2009 (NAEC 2009).
Notwithstanding the limited capacity of higher education institutions, the high tuition fees and low Gross Enrollment Ratio, Georgian education system has recently experienced a visible progress in terms of social justice.

CONCLUSION

Social justice regulates our social life. Based on human rights, it promotes equal treatment, fair distribution among people and provides them with not only benefits, but also burdens. It is a sign of development, as struggling for justice means struggling for a better, more just society, in which everyone is entitled to be an eligible member.

The principles of Rawls’ theory ensure fairness by giving more to disadvantaged people. According to Miller’s theory, based on basic needs resources should be distributed so that benefits which people receive correspond to their respective deserts.

An equal access to higher education results in inclusion. Therefore, it is vital to discern equality from equity. Equality means that all applicants are treated equally without taking into consideration their differences. As for equity, it can be achieved, if fairness and inclusion are components of it.

Defining unjust actions is important for struggling against them. Most widespread unjust cases preventing people from fair access deal with exclusion based on inability to pay, gender, religion, and disability. Alongside it, corruption, favoritism, cut-off scores are seen as a deterrent for social justice. Finally, Georgian higher education system has undergone many changes, and, in spite of having many drawbacks, its meritocratic admission system is undoubtedly progressive.

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A GENRE ANALYSIS OF ESP BOOK REVIEWS AND ITS REFLECTIONS INTO GENRE-BASED INSTRUCTION

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ABSTRACT

This study firstly aims at specifying and presenting the frequency of different types of rhetorical moves employed in ESP book reviews, and then highlighting the importance of comprehending genre knowledge of the profession that ELT post-graduate students will set out in future, as this knowledge is essential to their professional career. With this in mind, 12 ESP book reviews (N = 12) from the most appreciated academic journals were randomly selected. The results of the study have indicated that all the analysed ESP book reviews include specific steps from rhetorical moves such as defining the general topic of the book, providing a general view of the organization of the book, providing focused evaluation, finding the book useful, etc., while some group of move steps are not included in some reviews. Besides, lexis, particularly keywords, and grammar structures are seen to be included at different frequencies in the study. ELT instructors may benefit from the findings of this study in their genre-based writing courses.

Keywords: ESP, genre analysis, book review, genre based instruction

INTRODUCTION

Genre analysis is prompted by a wish to comprehend the communicative features of discourse by investigating how people administer language to take part in specific communicative cases. Analysing genres means describing how texts are formed in terms of move, stage and strategy, and figuring out the characteristics in specific texts to recognise their communicative objectives. Studying genres discovers knowledge of the writers, readers, speakers and listeners in a specific society and aids to find out how they are connected to users’ communicative goals. Besides, it supplies definitions on how and why linguistic selections are realised on the basis of social, cultural, and psychological setting; thus, it can also assist language instruction (Hyland, 2004). Academic discourse studies in English have a rather short past (Štašková, n.d). Proficiency of academic discourse is vital for students to attain success academically in lieu of the repeated assessment of knowledge and skills in oral and writing productions. In higher education context, students require to grasp specific genres to present knowledge and learn the writing standards of the academic discourse society (Ting et al., 2013). Students following a university program are in need of proficiency in both written and spoken language to utilize academic discourse and to master the programme. Academic discourse or genre is a detailed discourse with particular principles and practices which can differ among genres. Those who are linguistically competent may still not be able to make out complicated genres and may call for help from the ESP instructor (Osman, 2004). The simplest assumption of the genre-based phenomena is based on functional language by means of which people get things done (Paltridge, 2004); however, even the postgraduate
students may not have the required skills in genre-based analysis or genre-based activities. With all these in mind, this study was conducted to analyse ESP book reviews according to the principles of book review genre analysis and to have implications on the base of genre based instruction for postgraduate ELT students. The study specifically sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the rhetorical, lexical and grammatical moves that appear within in the ESP book reviews?
2. What implications can be driven out of ESP book review genre analysis on the base of genre based instruction for postgraduate ELT students?

**Genre Analysis**

A piling number of research studies are based on genre to evaluate academic and professional communication and to define how individuals of a group use language (Luzón, 2005). Genre analysis can be seen in two diverse views: it may be perceived as a reflection of the complicated realities of the world of systematised communication, or it may be conceived as a pedagogically productive and suitable mean of designing language teaching programmes, often located in simulated settings of classroom activities (Bhatia, 2002). Each genre is a proof of an achievement in a particular communicative purpose employing conventionalized knowledge of linguistic and discourse resources (Bhatia, 1993). For instance, we have cases when people own activities employed totally by talk, as in a telephone conversation, and other activities when talk does not occur or occurs incidentally, as in a football match (Levins on, 1979). Genres are seen in both spoken and written contexts. In the recorded history, the genres of texts such as novels, letters and newspaper articles have been properly known by experts and non-experts. Yet, the term genre could easily be regarded as more intricate. Not only the above-mentioned pieces of texts have their own genre, but also any type of text would follow some genre. Over the recent years a high number of linguistic specialists have been doing considerable research within the area of genre analysis of non-fictional texts (Arhus, 2005). A genre is a group of communicative events in which types or occurrences of genres vary in their prototypes. The discourse community’s classification of genres is a significant supply of insight while the basic criteria that transforms a pile of communicative incidents into a genre is some shared set of communicative aims (Swales, 1990).

**Genre-Based Instruction**

Genre indicates deep, socially perceived means of using a language. It is based on the hypothesis that the characteristics of the same set of texts are based on the social context of their formation and use, and that those characteristics can be introduced in such a way that relates a text to others like it (Hyland, 2003). Many definitions or descriptions on precise discipline-based genre examples and diverse instructional recommendations have been formed by ESP genre research. Yet, what learners acquire from these genre explanations and the emerging instructional suggestions as well as how students promote as writers of genres in ESP genre-related writing instruction is still a less-progressed extent of research (Cheng, 2006). Genre-based pedagogy in writing is based on the assumption that each writer generates his or her texts personally; however, the texts constantly refer to a social setting and to other texts as well (Knapp and Watkins, 2005). Genre introduces teachers and students a diverse perspective of writing, as well as presenting them a number of instructional practices. Contrary to process models, genre-based education aids learners within a contextual structure for writing, which highlights the messages and text-types. Genre-based instruction, at its core, supplies writers with an explicit
comprehension of how texts in the given genres are formed and the reason why they are written in the ways they are. Students have to know the lexico-grammatical patterns to form a well-done and proper text while the teacher's mission is to help learners to be aware of the target genres and the explicit grammar of linguistic options. Supplying writers with the essential grammar knowledge transforms writing instruction – from the tacit experimental form to an intentional use of language and choice (Hyland, 2003).

Data Collection

The data for this study were collected from twelve ESP book reviews in total. The book reviews were selected from articles in a journal index with large circulation. The main reason for selecting these materials is due to the fact that a book review is a kind of analysis from a critical perspective. That is to say, the communicative objective of a book review, in our case an ESP book review, is to evaluate knowledge production (Motta-Roth, 1996). In a study on genre analysis, Motta-Roth (1995) worked on book reviews in such fields as linguistics, economics, and chemistry. In her study, she examined each book review focusing on the appearances of rhetorical moves and move cycles related to book review genre. When it comes to my analysis of ESP book reviews, I have perused all steps of moves adapted from the framework of Motta-Roth (1995) as seen in Table 1. Then I classified moves as introducing the book, outlining the book, highlighting parts of the book, and providing closing evaluation of the book. Besides, the frequencies of lexical and grammatical patterns were counted by means of Complete Lexical Tutor v.8 for Data-driven Language Learning on the Web and Hemingway Editor (online).

Instruments

As stated above, the twelve ESP book reviews selected for the study were chosen among the most prestigious journals. The framework of Motta-Roth (1995), lextutor online word counting program and Hemingway Editor were used to analyze the collected data.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move</th>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Move 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>INTRODUCING THE BOOK</td>
<td>M1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Defining the general topic of the book</td>
<td>M1S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Informing about potential readership</td>
<td>M1S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Informing about the author</td>
<td>M1S3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Inserting book in the market</td>
<td>M1S4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Informing about the materials</td>
<td>M1S5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Informing about the layout</td>
<td>M1S6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Informing about the usability of the book</td>
<td>M1S7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>OUTLINING THE BOOK</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Providing general view of the organization of the book</td>
<td>M2S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Stating the topic of each chapter</td>
<td>M2S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Supporting citations</td>
<td>M2S3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Other books referred</td>
<td>M2S4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move 3</td>
<td></td>
<td>HIGHLIGHTING PARTS OF THE BOOK</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Providing focused evaluation</td>
<td>M3S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move 4</td>
<td></td>
<td>PROVIDING CLOSING EVALUATION OF THE BOOK</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Recommending the book</td>
<td>M4S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Disqualifying the book</td>
<td>M4S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Shortcomings of the book</td>
<td>M4S3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Recommending the book despite indicated shortcomings</td>
<td>M4S4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Recommendations for future works and resources</td>
<td>M4S5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Finding the book useful</td>
<td>M4S6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Recommendations to develop the book</td>
<td>M4S7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Framework for the Analysis of Moves
Data Analysis and Results

As a first step, each kind of emerging rhetorical move from the book reviews were figured out through analyzing each review one by one and they were categorized into moves with steps. At a second stage, lexical patterns of genre analysis were counted to have an understanding of their frequencies. At a third stage, grammatical patterns of genre analysis were examined to have a view on their emergences.

Rhetorical Moves

This group of genres consists of 4 moves with steps categorized into introducing the book, outlining the book, highlighting parts of the book, and providing closing evaluation of the book with each emerging codes. In Table 2, we observe the codes of emergences employed in the ESP book reviews.

Table 2. Rhetorical Moves of Book Review Genre

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Book Reviews</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Emerged Moves</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Resources for Teaching English for Specific Purposes</td>
<td>M1S1, M1S2, M1S6, M2S1, M2S2, M2S3, M2S4, M3S1, M4S1, M4S3, M4S5, M4S6, M4S7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Focus on Electrical Engineering in ESP</td>
<td>M1S1, M1S2, M1S3, M1S5, M2S1, M2S2, M3S1, M4S1, M4S6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Basturkmen, H., Developing Courses in English for Specific Purposes</td>
<td>M1S1, M1S2, M2S1, M2S2, M2S3, M3S1, M4S1, M4S3, M4S4, M4S6, M4S7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Review of “Needs analysis for language course design. A holistic approach to ESP”</td>
<td>M1S1, M1S2, M1S5, M2S1, M2S2, M2S3, M3S1, M4S1, M4S3, M4S4, M4S6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Review ~ Email English</td>
<td>M1S1, M1S2, M1S4, M1S5, M1S6, M1S7, M2S1, M2S2, M3S1, M4S1, M4S6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>How to write ESP materials</td>
<td>M1S1, M1S2, M1S3, M2S1, M3S1, M4S1, M4S6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Oxford English for Careers: Tourism 3 Student’s Book</td>
<td>M1S1, M1S2, M1S4, M2S1, M2S2, M2S4, M3S1, M4S1, M4S3, M4S6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
By looking at the first book review in Table 2, we can clearly see that three steps (M1S1, M1S2, M1S6) emerge in the move introducing the book, four steps (M2S1, M2S2, M2S3, M2S4) emerge in the move outlining the book, one step (M3S1) emerges in the move highlighting parts of the book, and five steps (M4S1, M4S3, M4S5, M4S6, M4S7) emerge in the move providing closing evaluation of the book.

When it comes to the second book review, it is clearly observed that four steps (M1S1, M1S2, M1S3, M1S5) emerge in the move introducing the book, two steps (M2S1, M2S2) emerge in the move outlining the book, one step (M3S1) emerges in the move highlighting parts of the book, and two steps (M4S1, M4S6) emerge in the move providing closing evaluation of the book.

Regarding the third book review, it is seen that two steps (M1S1, M1S2) emerge in the move introducing the book, three steps (M2S1, M2S2, M2S3) emerge in the move outlining the book, one step (M3S1) emerges in the move highlighting parts of the book, and five steps (M4S1, M4S3, M4S4, M4S6, M4S7) emerge in the move providing closing evaluation of the book.

Besides, it is clearly illustrated that in the fifth book review, six steps (M1S1, M1S2, M1S4, M1S5, M1S6, M1S7) emerge in the move introducing the book, two steps (M2S1, M2S2) emerge in the move outlining the book and one step (M3S1) emerges in the move highlighting parts of the book while two steps (M4S1, M4S6) emerge in the move providing closing evaluation of the book.
Furthermore, from Table 2, we can see that in the sixth book review three steps (M1S1, M1S2, M1S3) emerge in the move introducing the book, one step (M2S1) emerges in the move outlining the book while one step (M3S1) emerges in the move highlighting parts of the book as well, and two steps (M4S1, M4S6) emerge in the move providing closing evaluation of the book.

Additionally, it is easily displayed in seventh book review that three steps (M1S1, M1S2, M1S4) emerge in the move introducing the book, three steps (M2S1, M2S2, M2S4) emerge in the move outlining the book, one step (M3S1) emerges in the move highlighting parts of the book, and three steps (M4S1, M4S3, M4S6) emerge in the move providing closing evaluation of the book.

From Table 2, we can see that five steps (M1S1, M1S2, M1S3, M1S4, M1S5) emerge in the move introducing the book, two steps (M2S1, M2S2) emerge in the move outlining the book, one step (M3S1) emerges in the move highlighting parts of the book, and two steps (M4S1, M4S6) emerge in the move providing closing evaluation of the book.

The results obtained for the ninth book review suggest that three steps (M1S1, M1S2, M1S6) emerge in the move introducing the book, two steps (M2S1, M2S2) emerge in the move outlining the book, one step (M3S1) emerges in the move highlighting parts of the book, and two steps (M4S1, M4S6) emerge in the move providing closing evaluation of the book.

For the tenth book review, it can easily be understood that four steps (M1S1, M1S2, M1S4, M1S7) emerge in the move introducing the book, two steps (M2S1, M2S2) emerge in the move outlining the book, one step (M3S1) emerges in the move highlighting parts of the book, and four steps (M4S1, M4S3, M4S4, M4S6) emerge in the move providing closing evaluation of the book.

The eleventh book review contains three steps (M1S1, M1S2, M1S6) in the move introducing the book, two steps (M2S1, M2S2) in the move outlining the book, one step (M3S1) in the move highlighting parts of the book, and four steps (M4S1, M4S5, M4S6, M4S7) in the move providing closing evaluation of the book.

Lastly, by looking at the twelfth book review, one can clearly understand that four steps (M1S1, M1S2, M1S4, M1S5) emerge in the move introducing the book, three steps (M2S1, M2S2, M2S4) emerge in the move outlining the book, one step (M3S1) emerges in the move highlighting parts of the book, and four steps (M4S1, M4S3, M4S4, M4S6) emerge in the move providing closing evaluation of the book.

**Lexical Patterns of Genre Analysis**

This group of genres consists of the most frequently used 20 content words related to the theme of the book reviews. In Table 3, we observe the frequencies and percentages of the first 20 words emerged most frequently in the ESP book reviews.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. The Most Frequently Used Content Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Word</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the overall ESP book reviews, there are 13,438 words in total. By looking at Table 3, we can easily understand that the most frequently used content words are ESP (0.82), book (0.80), English (0.75), language (0.55), students (0.47), course (0.45), writing (0.36), needs (0.33), professional (0.30), teaching (0.29), chapter (0.27), communication (0.27), unit (0.25), engineering (0.25), analysis (0.24), materials (0.24), reading (0.23), units (0.22), academic (0.22), activities (0.22). The higher ranking a word has, the more weight (importance) it owns in the analyzed body of texts. Therefore, the word “ESP” has the highest weight in these book reviews. Hence, the pedagogical implication is that teachers should consider the highest ranking content words as a priority since they constitute the vocabulary which is most often used in authentic texts.

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>ESP</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Book</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Language</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Course</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Needs</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Chapter</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Materials</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Units</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Grammatical Patterns of Genre Analysis

The Emergence of Tenses in the Reviewed Books

This group of genres consists of the frequencies and percentages of tenses starting from the highest range to the lowest one. In Table 4, we observe the frequencies and percentages of the tenses in English emerged in the ESP book reviews.

Table 4. The Emergence of Tenses in the Reviewed Books

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple Present Tense</td>
<td>386</td>
<td>% 71.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Modals</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>% 11.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple Past Tense</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>% 8.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Perfect Tense</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>% 5.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Tense</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>% 1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Continuous Tense</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>% 0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Perfect Tense</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>% 0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect Modals</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>% 0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>538</td>
<td>% 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be observed from Table 4, regarding the emergence of tenses in the book reviews, the highest frequency of usage refers to Simple Present Tense (% 71.74) which is pursued by Present Modals (% 11.15). Following them, the emergences of tenses decreases as in Simple Past Tense (% 8.73), Present Perfect Tense (% 5.57), Future Tense (% 1.67), Present Continuous Tense (% 0.55), Past Perfect Tense (% 0.37), and Perfect Modals (% 0.18).

The Emergence of Relative Pronouns in the Reviewed Books

This group of genres consists of the frequencies and percentages of relative pronouns starting from the highest range to the lowest one. In Table 5, we observe the frequencies and percentages of the relative pronouns emerged in the ESP book reviews.

Table 5. The Emergence of Relative Pronouns in the Reviewed Books

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative Pronouns</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>that</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>% 0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>which</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>% 0.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From Table 2, we can see that the most frequently emerged relative pronoun is *that* (% 0.88). Then, the relative pronoun *which* (% 0.40) comes as the second highest emerged item. Following them, the relative pronouns *who* (% 0.19), *when* (% 0.13), and *where* (% 0.09) appear in a descending order.

The Emergence of Passive Voice in the Reviewed Books

This group of genres consists of the frequencies and percentages of active and passive statements. In Table 6, we observe the frequencies and percentages of the passive voice emerged in the ESP book reviews.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passive Voice</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active statements</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>% 68.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive statements</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>% 31.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>487</td>
<td>% 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table we can observe that the passive voice emerges with a percentage of 31.82 while the active statements occur with a percentage of 68.17.

Suggestions for Genre-Based Instructions (GBI)

This paper reports on a genre analysis of ESP book reviews to have implications for postgraduate ELT students for GBI to teach writing for specific purposes. The following implications for GBI are adapted from the study of Osman (2004). After having taken the course, based on such a book review genre, the postgraduate students will be able to diagnose the basic framework of the book review genres, comprehend the mental practices contained in forming the book review genres, define linguistic characteristics employed to grasp the communicative function, and be able to form the genres that are based on the codes and the linguistic characteristics mentioned. At an ELT postgraduate program, for instance, the mentor might ask the students to analyze book reviews. The task is to figure out and form book review genres. The steps that the mentor can pursue in GBI on book review genre analysis are as follows:

Step 1. Direct the students to comprehend the code of the book review genre, let them out to the models of the book review genre.

Step 2. Direct the students to grasp the knowledge of the book review genre through analyzing structural patterns.
Step 3. Supply the students with exercise to form book review genre, so that they become aware of the mental formation of book review genres.

Step 4. Appoint the students to individually form book review genres.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

The study found out that, as rhetorical book review moves, all authors defined the general topic of the book, referred to potential readership, introduced the organization of the book, clarified the focused evaluation, recommended the book they reviewed, and found the book useful while there were other moves as well scattered among the book reviews. In this study, the most commonly used content words are related to ESP book review genre, for instance, the words *ESP, book, English, language, students, course, writing, needs, professional and teaching*. Investigating and teaching the keywords of a specific genre can help instructors and students comprehend the weight (‘keyness’), topic (‘aboutness’) and cultures of the words employed in that genre (Yang, 2012). Besides, when it comes to the dominantly used tense in the analyzed book reviews, Simple Present Tense is the case. LeBlanc (2003) clarifies tense issue as "whether you are dealing with fiction, poetry, or nonfiction literature, use the present tense (also called the literary present tense) to discuss the actions and thoughts presented in the text. Do this because literature exists as a present phenomenon regardless of whether or not its author is alive". Furthermore, passive sentences were less than active ones in the analyzed book reviews. Woolley (1907) suggests not to use the passive voice when such use makes a statement clumsy and wordy. By using the passive voice, the agent of the verb should not be left vaguely indicated, whenever it should be clearly identified. Here in this study, the administration of passive voice was taken into account, as this grammar structure was introduced as a language characteristic of description texts as put forward by Derewianka (2012). Additionally, the relative pronoun *that* is the most emerging pronoun in the book reviews. Choosing between the pronouns *which* and *that* is mainly directed by the genre of communication, as well as the level of stylistic formality (Moon, 2012). It is recommended that ESP instructors deal with the required grammar and contexts of the keywords instead of dealing with the common lexical and grammatical patterns (Yang, 2012). Genre-based instruction is linked with the idea that genres are peculiar to specific cultures, it reminds the instructors that their students may not share this knowledge with them and requires from instructors to go beyond syntactic structures, vocabulary, and also it composes to integrate in their teaching the ways language is employed in particular settings (Sadeghi, Hassani and Hemmati, 2013). ELT instructors may benefit from the findings of this study in their genre-based writing courses. In other words, the findings of this study on the specified moves related to the book review genre in terms of rhetorical, lexical and grammatical dimensions may have implications for ELT lecturers in their GBI.

**REFERENCES**


Reviews analyzed


THE NATIONAL AND LITERARY VALUES IN CENGIZ DAGCI’S NOVEL OF “O TOPRAKLAR BIZIMDIR” (IT WAS OUR LAND)

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ABSTRACT

The assets of a thousand years history of the Tatars, their culture, literature and religious status and, the most importantly, the origin and the ethno-linguistic and the etnogenesis problems of this nation have been the object of study in many countries. The paper will be based on the historical novel It was Our Land (O Topraklar Bizimdir) written by the outstanding Tatar writer Cengiz Dagcı. As a novel writer, he has reflected the life and the historical peculiarities of the Crimean Tatars in almost all of his literary creativity. Particularly, he wrote about the Crimean Tatars’ struggle for their own land during 1937 – 1945. Besides this, in the novel, as a Tatar writer, Cengiz Dagcı focused his attention on the national and literary values of his naion. Furthermore, he depicted the fate of the people who have worked and lived there and almost all along the Volga or across the Russia.

Key words: Cengiz Dagcı, Crimean Tatars, Turkish origin, cultural and religious status of Tatars

INTRODUCTION

To analyze the novel “O Topraklar Bizimdir” (It was Our Land), it is necessary to describe some delicate issues concerning the Tatars, those who have lived in Russia for ages. The rich thousands-years-old history of Tatars, their cultural and religious status, and, the most importantly - the origin and the ethnolinguistics and ethnogenesis problems of this nation have been the object of study in many countries, especially in Russia and Turkic nations. Russian, European scientists, and Turkish scientists and historians have revealed many interesting data in a significant number of valuable works concerning this aspect (Devletşin, 1981; Rorlich, 2000).

The Tatars have lived in the Crimea over centuries and they were real and very early inhabitants of these places, but, unfortunately, they could not use the same legal rights in Russia, concerning their living conditions at all stages of history and this status shows itself with a very “delicate niceties” even today. It was a planned concept which was directed by Russian Tsarism against the Tatars, to their ethnicity, culture, and also to their language and religion. Paul W. Werth explained it as follows below: “virtually all the region’s non-Russian spoke either Turkic or Finnic languages. Tatars, a Turkic people, represented the largest and most prominent non-Russian group of the region” (Werth, 2002, p.18).
Crimean Tatars have created a clear semblance reflecting in the life and in the culture of the Crimean life. Often false and untrue information about Crimean Tatars is provided by some willful authors and historians, in such sensitive issues as lifestyle and religion, which generates a great resentment and disappointment in people’s lives. To right to live independently under the name of “the honor of the independent state”, has not been given to them, however, after the 1920s, they obtained autonomy within the Russian Federation, with the capital in Kazan (Türkler, 2002, p.50).

Tatars were one of the glorious nations with their rich culture and the existence, in all periods of Russian and also in the world history. These facts were showing themselves, even more pronounced, principally, in literature, art, history and in other branches of sciences. Tatars have bestowed the greatest leaders, sciences, art leaders not only in the Russian history, but also in worldwide. After the collapse of Kazan Khanate in 1552 by Ivan IV, they were too often confronted with the reaction of preventing of their language culture and even of their religious affiliation.

Both the economic and cultural status of Tatars never have been good enough. Therefore, they were assimilated, and have been exposed to the language and religion repression as compulsory under the Russian influence. But they have always had maintained their secular initiative, those who have written, and invariably they were precisely determined to reveal more gorgeous works for Tatarians. One of them is the outstanding Tatar writer Cengiz Dagcı, who lived all his life in exile.

**Turkish writer of the Tatars**

Cengiz Dagcı was born March 9, 1919, in Gurzuf, where the country was very confused (it was a time that people stayed face to face with war and famine). He was too small and was not able to understand how the power of Soviet imperialism influenced the lives of people. The struggle for their land, the tragedy of his own people, all the troubles and horrors, everything was happening around him, just right across his eyes, but, despite these, he was growing as a happy child unaware all of these problems. His father Emir Hussein was a village hairdresser. Dagcı spent his childhood with his parents, together with other sisters and brothers and felt very happy, because he was growing with his family, unlike his peers.

But, unfortunately, the sweet child happiness very quickly demonstrated life’s bitter sides to Dagcı. In 1921, the “new economic policy” begins under the name of “kolkhoz application” (it also called Lenin Application S. A.) and, consequently, the implementation of this program was the starting point of his exile life. He was captivated at the beginning of the war, and gave very hard struggle for his liberation in camps and finally he contrived to escape from the camp and settled in London in 1946. And with this, he was starved for his native home till the end of his life. In London he had a small family with his lovely spouse Regina.

He had never thought about becoming a writer in his younger years. But his yearning life turned Cengiz into a world-famous writer. In London all his novels and literary creativity has opened its eyes to the world. According to the opinion of literary critics, his novels are not technically very strong, but the literary language and the national sensitivity are broadly reflected in all of his novels, which makes them so valuable.

All his novels deal with Crimea, his lovely homeland, his longing, unattainable aspirations, and also with someone, whom he could never again see until his death, his beloved mother. But in his memory he was always fondly stroking his beautiful and young mother, and her image was in front of his eyes. Dagcı lived up to 65 years in England, he knew all the beauties of the English Language such, he knew it as well as his mother tongue, but wrote all his novels in the Turkish Language. Dagcı was very happy about this, at least,
he was convinced that all these tragedies, his land’s pain and love will be delivered to his people in this language, the language which everyone can understand, he could write about his hardships in his native language. At the same time, he persistently believed that behind him there were huge masses of people, who would recognize and love him due to these novels. He wrote novels, stories, memories and precious articles in large quantities. This paper will concentrate our on the novel of “O Topraklar Bizimdir” (It was Our Land).

“O Topraklar Bizimdir” (It was Our Land)

The novel “It was our Land” (O Topraklar Bizimdir) is one of the most characteristic literary novels, in which the writer was able to demonstrate the war fighting of Tatar people "as a national literary process" in the twentieth century. The novel is entirely devoted to the Crimean Tatars’s struggle for their own land, the dread, in which the people were steadily forced to live.

The fate of Crimean Tatars have always been exposed to the very strict Stalin’s regime; this political situation was very close to the policy of cultural erosion of Tsarist Russia. According to Kemal Ozcan’s estimates, only “between 1783-1922 years the number of Crimean Turks who migrated to the Ottoman territories that refers to at least 1.800.000 million people” (Ozcan, 2002, p.3).

Generally, the beginning of the exile life of the Crimean Tatars was indicated in the historical sources, especially in the 1930s. During these years only more than 40-50 thousand Crimean Tatars were deported to the Urals and Siberia from their own land. All resources and materials about the Crimean Tatars mostly are mostly in the Russian language and in general are protected in the Russian libraries and archives (Karimullin, 1989). Also, there is no consistent information either in English or in Turkish languages. In this respect, it was quite difficult to obtain more information about Cengiz Dagci’s works and about literary activities.

As for the novel, the tragedies in Crimea are brought into consideration, especially, between the years 1937-1945. While Dagci lived in London, he really would like to go to Turkey most, but he could not. The writer did not write this novel for himself only, he saw his people as himself, and wanted to write this novel as a symbol of Tatars. Cengiz Dagci showed two considerable opinions of Crimean realities in “O Topraklar Bizimdir” (It was Our Land) with its nakedness:

8. Unbearable living conditions of Crimean Tatars during the Second World War

Stalin’s regime was carrying out land reforms in Akmechet (the current Simferopol), almost everywhere, as in all parts of the former Soviet Union. And with it “the new improvers” were disclosing with their false and deceptive laws of the indigenous people. Of course, this tragedy is the whole village’s drama, especially for the youth. The young generation were doing their best to avoid becoming members of kolkhoz, because they do not understand what this kolkhoz is, besides, they also reject the soviet regime. The reason is that Russians has kept these people in darkness and ignorance for centuries. Stalin’s occupation ended with almost complete deportation of Crimean Tatars from their land.

According to the writer, no one loves Akmechet (Simferopol) like him. He tells his readers about his love to the town with interesting details in the novel.

There were some people (former peasants) in the village, who still appreciated Stalin as one of the “best of the best” and some of them even raised a glass in his honor in one of the village parties. Dagci expresses his hatred to them only as “laughing in tears”, for example:
During one of these parties, one man stood up in the dark: 

"Who is Stalin" he shouted (his name is unknown for him yet); 

Another man answered: "Stalin, who has saved Russia from the hands of capitalists and the rich"; 

Another one is committed: " Ah; - he said, - Even if he just comes here to us, we will rescue Crimea from the hands of Russians." 

In this case, the author very skillfully is focusing his attention on the feelings and aspirations of peasants. And therewithal, " still there are individuals, who lived under the bourgeois and nationalism feelings among the villages"; with these ideas Dagci is not afraid to laugh them in tears, undoubtedly. 

At the same time, the writer tried to show the Tatar culture, its mythology with great skill in the novel. According to the writer, some of the negative characters of his novel are inspired from their dirty actions from time to time. And for this reason they often put themself in a worse situation. In " Bu Topraklar Bizimdi" we often meet such types of individuals as a typical personage. The writer tries to describe them in realistically, with in a convincing method of allusion. According to Dagci, his motherland is a spirit and an indivisible entity of him. 

9. The invansion of their land under the name of kolhoz reform 

In the novel O Topraklar Bizimdi the writer shows how Crimean Tatars were fighting together with Russians against the Germans in order to defend their homeland in 1941-1945. But, when wounded and with ruined health they returned home from the war, they saw that their land had already been taken from their hands. All their lands now were in the hands of kolhoz. Villagers understand that their land will never get back again to them and, therefore, they, especially the young people, were forced to leave their land. According to the writer, was a bad example for the other people, who continued their life in the villages. Whatever happens, people should not leave their land, otherwise, they, like himself, would not have a chance to go back again. 

The cause of writer's continuous talk of his homeland in the novel, in our opinion, is the constant occupation of his land. He does not blame his people who leave those lands. In terms of this disgusting treatment of the Crimean Tatars, the writer condemns the Russians. According to him, all these attitudes and behaviors were the traditional Russian political model which has been directed against non-russian peoples who lived in Russia, particularly against Tatars. 

The literary style of the novel 

In terms of form and subject matter. O Topraklar Bizimdi is a novel written in a realistic manner, based on actual facts. It examines the character and the customs of the people involved in all these events. The writer tried to tell the readers about the events which was happened in people's mind and in their inner life in a particular geographical enviroment. In this context, the writer was able to dramatize concrete events in the novel with different motivations. 

As for the the novel's narrative style in O Topraklar Bizimdi, the writer has perfectly approached the villagers' opinions, especialy the events, the people, the environments which are connected with the main theme. He revealed a great sensitivity in the way of explanation of the characters. In this respect, O Topraklar Bizimdi can be accepted as a realistic and social type of a novel.
One of the most obvious features of the novel *O Topraklar Bizimdi* is that the writer has managed to keep his own feelings and dreams in the second plan. He did not intervene his ideas with the ideas of his characters. Dagcı exposes the realities and the different characters of the novel in an objective manner, as a vivid picture. If we think of this novel in terms of concept of art, in that case we can see traces of a a new novel here. The roots of the events in the novel are based on a date from not too distant past. But as the main topics, all events that took place in the novel are brought close to the readers. With all these obvious realities, Cengiz Dagcı attempted to put forward a more universal vision and attitudes in this novel. Thus, due to all these topics - the society, and the domestic issues - this novel can also be viewed as a social novel. Additionally, it is one of the most characteristic and the best examples works of Dagcı. With this novel the writer wanted to reflect the lives of one of the idealistic generations and their too extreme devotion to their hometown, to their land.

**CONCLUSION**

Cengiz Dagcı's literary creativity was one of the best samples of the Tatar literature of the twentieth century. The writer’s literary position was always in the front row of a national literary process. And hence, he united around himself ther writers who came after him to this literary movement. In spite of the fact that all his life passed abroad, he wrote all his novels in the Turkish Language, comprehensible for all Turkic-speaking nations. His innovative approaches to the literary idea, the spirit of beauty and the style were the important features of his writings. This style has been accepted and evaluated as a new avantgarde trend in the new direction of the national esthetic contemplation. The writer by means of his experimental ideological and political principles, wanted to completely disclose the spiritual world of the people who have done evil to the Crimean people. So, the writer tried to clarify these characteristic properties without doing any damage to the shape, style and the language of the novel in accordance with the format of the novel. Especially, the most attractive direction in his writings is that the author never repeat his predecessors in all his creativity process. He dedicated his writing to the development of the people’s struggle and the political freedom and expressed it with the author’s position and his creativity.

**REFERENCES**


MARIAM MERKVILADZE STRESS MANAGEMENT IN THE JUNGLE

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ABSTRACT

The "wedding" of peaceful spirits and wild nature, the harmony of music of the wild world, the noise of the silence – this is the jungle with its diversity and uniqueness and this is us - the teachers - never been able to guess what to expect from it. Each and every individual spirit with its rich nature, character, abilities and preferences form a small jungle – a classroom, where you can never know for sure what to expect. Much of the time our mind is a balloon in a wind, blown here and there by external circumstances. When we are able to manage our energy, time, classroom and relationships at school, our happy feelings increase. But when the things are not going our way and we are in disharmony with the inner and outer world having problems in handling with many difficulties and dilemmas appearing in the classroom, our happy feelings disappear and we are in a state of stress. So, teacher stress can be defined as a dis-balance and an unpleasant emotion, which arises when people worry that they cannot cope with the difficulties stated above as well as with the excessive pressure or other types of demand placed upon them. The purpose of the present work is to explore causes, effects and ways of improving work-related stress for better standard of education as well as teacher health and well-being. The study has been conducted with a mixed (qualitative and quantitative) research approaches executed in questionnaires and is based on the literature review and a teacher survey. Based on the findings, a number of recommendations are made.

Key words: Teacher stress, burnout, teacher well-being, recommendations

INTRODUCTION

Challenge is a dragon with a gift in its mouth.

Tame the dragon and the gift is yours.

- Noela Evans

Distinguishing the unique individual sounds from collective noise, hearing the harmony of each sound from every individual spirit with their rich nature, character, abilities, preferences and differences in the jungle named classroom and above all being expected to fill many different roles at the same time is the leitmotif of teaching profession. A teacher might need to become an actor, director, musician, singer, or interior designer. His/her roles in the classroom might include assessor, planner, information provider, role model, facilitator, and resource developer. As a result of balancing these many roles, stress will always be a part of the teaching profession.
Teacher stress can be described as any characteristic of the school environment that poses a threat to the teacher. There is no agreement on what stress is as the term holds different meanings for different people. The difference in the definition of teacher stress might be influenced by how that person is affected by his/her job demands and ability to meet these demands. Otto (1986) conceptualized work-related stress as resulting from a mismatch or a lack of fit between external job demands and external and internal resources, whereas Kyriacou (2001) defined stress as the experience of negative or unpleasant emotions resulting from aspects of the work.

According to Hans Selye (1976), stress is the body’s non-specific response to a demand placed on it. Selye refers to stress reaction as “the General Adaptation Syndrome”. It consists of three stages: 1. Alarm stage; 2. Resistance stage; 3. Exhaustion stage.

The alarm stage is the initial reaction to stress. It comes about when a person first recognizes that there may be trouble and prepares to deal with the threat. This reaction is commonly referred to as “fight and flight”. A person’s instinctive impulse draws from energy reserves and puts it immediately at his/her disposal to either defend one’s self (fight) or to run away (flight) (Selye, 1976).

In the resistance stage stress is on the verge of being resolved. Homeostasis (the process by which the body reacts to changes in order to keep the condition inside the body, for example, temperature) begins restoring the balance and a period of recovery and renewal takes place.

The exhaustion stage occurs if stress has continued for some time. When this happens, the body’s ability to resist is lost and all energy supply is gone. The exhaustion stage may be referred to as adrenal fatigue, maladaptation, and dysfunction.

Teachers are the most affected by rising stress in their respective work environments. Teacher stress can be caused by environmental factors, as well as individual characteristics. Major causes of stress can be workload, lack of resources, and student behavior (Tatrow, 1998). Becoming aware of teacher stress and providing some insight into phenomenon of teacher stress is of vital importance for developing coping behaviors, as teaching is more stressful today due to the fact that many deadlines have to be met and the responsibilities are growing. These responsibilities might include lesson planning, teaching, classroom management and discipline, supervisory role, extracurricular activities. Having a deep understanding of the stressors, teachers would be armored with stress coping strategies. Coping with stress is important for teachers, so that their stress does not interfere with the achievement of their educational goals and they have a better quality of life, both personally and professionally (Sprenger, 2011).

Two types of stress can affect teachers. The first type of stress is task-based stress, such as dealing with disruptive students. It refers to problems that are associated with a variety of specific tasks that teachers must perform in their teaching role. The second type of stress is role-based stress, such as an absence of sufficient resources to perform adequately. It refers to how teachers’ expectations of their role fit in with the actual work-related responsibilities needed to fulfill their role (Wolf, 1982). Stress can also be driven by the organizational factors related to the way in which teachers are expected to work (Brown, 2001).

Stress can also be explained by categorizing factors into first and second-order stressors. First-order stressors directly interfere with teacher’s effort and can include student apathy, student disruption or discipline, poor student attendance,
high student-to-teacher ratio (large classes), paperwork, irresponsible colleagues, lack of effective leadership such as assistant principals or principals and seemingly non-supportive parents. Stressors that occur most frequently tend to be organizational issues dealing with students, administration, other teachers and other work relationships. Second order stressors do not interfere directly with teacher effort and can include issues such as low salary, emotional fatigue, frustration, helplessness, stagnation, boredom, and loss of motivation or enthusiasm (Blase, 1986).

Many teachers report a high degree of stress and symptoms of burnout. Excessive workload has been found to predict emotional exhaustion, motivation to leave the teaching profession and actual teacher attrition. (Skaalvik, 2015).

Scott (1998) classified the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfied into three domains: 1. Intrinsic reward of teaching; 2. Factors extrinsic to the school; 3. School-based factors. Intrinsic rewards of teaching concern the actual work of teaching, working with the students, and seeing students learn and develop.

Teacher autonomy, supportive school environments and positive social relations with parents, colleagues and the school leadership might be predictive of teachers’ job satisfaction and motivation to stay in the profession. In the contrary, time pressure and discipline problems are predictive of lower level of job satisfaction and stress (Gu, 2007).

The present mini-research aims at revealing the stressors between participants and providing effective and practical tips and coping strategies for dealing with teacher stress and coping strategies.

**METHOD**

**Questionnaire**

The mini-research was conducted with mixed (qualitative and quantitative) research approaches executed in questionnaires. Participants of the study were 28 Georgian and Turkish teachers from primary, secondary and high school. The questionnaire used for research consisted of different types of questions: multiple choice format, scale format asking teachers to assess how much they agree with given statement in terms of scale from 1 (never) to 3 (often) and from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Others were open-ended questions giving participants an opportunity to answer themselves and express their own ideas concerning teacher stress, burnout and causing factors of above-mentioned.

The questionnaire was divided into several parts: I – Stress symptoms; II – Demands put upon teachers; III – Control (the level of “freedom”); IV – Support (how much support do they feel at the workplace); V – Relationships (teacher-parent; teacher-colleague; teacher-student; teacher-principal/manager); VI – Role (teacher’s role in school and in the classroom); VII – changes (how changes affect teachers).

**Questionnaire Data Analysis and interpretation**

The first part of questionnaire aimed at distinguishing stress symptoms and defining which of them the teachers were most suffering from. The questionnaire revealed that 14% of participants suffer from heart diseases, 12% from low self-esteem, change in appetite, indigestion, 13% from high blood pressure, 9% from depression, 7% suffer from poor sleep; 5% from anxiety, exhaustion, headaches and inability to concentrate.
To the question to how they feel while working 27% answered they feel helpless, 31% - anxious, 24% - frustrated and 6% - angry.

The first part of the questionnaire revealed that teachers suffer mostly from heart diseases and while working most of them feel helpless.

The second part of the questionnaire was aimed to find out what the teachers thought about the demands put upon them and whether they had sufficient and suitable environment for meeting the demands. 50% of teachers agree that their physical working conditions are acceptable, 31% of teachers disagree that facilities are old and in bad condition; 39% strongly agree that their total working hours are acceptable, but 31% of teachers think there are too many after-school meetings, 38% are ambivalent and 37% of teachers agree that unreasonable deadlines and time pressure are often imposed upon them. 26% feel excessive pressure form inspections while 28% disagree with this statement. 28% of teachers disagree that they have balance between work and home, 34% of teachers strongly agree that lesson planning requirements are over-burdensome.

The second part of questionnaire revealed that though teachers' physical conditions are acceptable there are some factors that might be the cause of stress such as many after-school meetings, unreasonable deadlines and time limits and dis-balance between work and home.

The third part of the questionnaire was related to the control (the level of “freedom”). 36% of teachers strongly agree that they can express their own ideas and points of view freely, 32% disagree that they have to neglect to some tasks due to the fact that they have too much to do, 58% of teachers agree that they are encouraged to use their skills and initiative to do their work.

The fourth part of the questionnaire refers to the support that the teachers get. 38% of participants of research disagree that they receive appropriate training and 42% of teachers are ambivalent about having enough support in dealing with bureaucratic paperwork and still 38% agree that they have supportive managers that might be proved by the fact that 50% of teachers regularly receive positive feedback on their work. The fourth part of the questionnaire revealed that teachers lack in sufficient trainings.

The fifth part of the questionnaire is related to relationship with various actors of school life. 42% of teachers are ambivalent about having good relationship with managers and 23% disagree with this statement. 58% of teachers agree that they are on good terms with colleagues. 23% of teachers agree and 35% are ambivalent about the statement that management promotes positive behaviors at work to avoid conflict and ensure fairness in the workplace. 31% disagree and 31% of participants are ambivalent about being afraid to complain in case they are “picked on”, 37% of teachers agree that they have to deal with disruptive students. 54% disagree that they are concerned about violence from aggressive parents.

The sixth part of the questionnaire refers to role and to the way how the teachers perceive themselves at work. 31% agree that they are clear about what is expected of them at work, 50% use their skills well, 38% of teachers feel valued in their role.
So the sixth part revealed that participants feel valued at their workplace, have opportunity to use their skills and have a clear idea of what is expected from them.

The seventh part of the questionnaire which referred to the changes and how teachers feel about them 35% agree and 23% of them disagree that they find it difficult to cope with the pace of organizational or curriculum changes. 23% strongly agree and 35% are ambivalent about the fact that initiatives are daunting for them.

The interviews

Interviews in the form of semi-structured dialogues were conducted with each respondent. The respondents were chosen according to their working experience. The respondents were novice teachers, teachers having 2-5 years of teaching experience and teachers having 10 and more year of teaching experience. All interviews started with asking the respondents what their immediate thoughts about working as a teachers were. They were also asked to name the symptoms they were suffering from. The teachers were also asked if they could name the factors that might have caused stress for them and whether they used any coping strategies or if they had any idea and information about such strategies for tackling stress. Respondents were also asked about their free time if they had any and what were they doing in their free time or a breaks at work. The experienced teachers were also asked to give advice to novice and less experienced teachers and generally to teachers who suffered from work-related stress.

During the interviews the vast majority of young teachers or teachers of 2-5 years of teaching experience suffered from stress symptoms, such as rapid breathing, fast heart beating, increased muscle tension, cold feet or hands, increased sensitivity to sound/light – the reaction is change of mood, feeling discomfort, irritation, a dry mouth, problems of swallowing, sudden suffocation panic, and a general sense of anxiety. The novice respondent said she thinks that her stressful condition is in the direct connection with school and workplace. It is caused by limited time, tension and anxiety. The novice teacher also thinks that there are unreasonable demands and deadlines, lack of resources.

"Sometimes, for instance, today, we are given some task and the time limit is 2 days when this task might require more than two days and needs much time to be done".

"For me, most stressful is that I cannot use gap time, for instance, I have one lesson gap during which I cannot do the tasks and meet demands in this lesson gap because I can't find an empty classroom. I am limited in resources".

To the question which strategies the respondent used for coping with stress the latter answered:

"I don't use any strategies to reduce my stress. Though I know I'm really suffering from stress, I just don't know what strategies I should use. If I knew the coping strategies, I would definitely use them".

The interviews with novice teachers and those who have 2 to 5 years of teaching experience and suffer from stress have shown that they lack the knowledge of how to cope with their condition and how to make their lives and work a better place. Teachers do not have enough time to devote to their physical and emotional self, as they have no free time and they have additional private jobs with student out of school and work.
“In fact, practically, even if I have at least one hour free time, anyway my thoughts and concerns are related to school and the fact that I have to fulfill my duties, does not let me feel free and I can’t think about other things”.

“Practically, returning home, the only ‘free’ time I have is for sleeping. And I feel so stressed that noise affects me badly, so before I go to sleep, I sit down alone in total silence without any television, music, or light, as these things irritate me. I sit in silence alone and quietly. I feel relief in isolation”.

Other respondents were teachers having 10 and more years of teaching experience. The teacher of 14 years of teaching experience named fewer symptoms than novice teachers, but she also suffered from fast heartbeat, cold hands and feet, sensitivity to light, noise, a dry mouth and swallowing problems. Sometimes she often feels frustrated. She said:

“I strongly try to control myself and my emotions”.

This experienced respondent mentioned pills that help her with fast heartbeat. She also mentioned how much the teaching experience matters.

“In the teaching process I always try to search for something new but due to my experience I do it without much anxiety anymore”.

She was also asked about her recent thoughts about stress and her answer was:

“Stress might be psychological, or it might be physical. When psychological stress has physical outcomes, it is much worse”.

The respondent was also asked to name the reasons and factors she thought could cause teacher stress.

“Teacher is also a human being. This reasons might be related not only to their job and workplace. But job-related stress might be workload, relationship with managers, and colleagues. So, stress can be caused by various reasons. It might just be caused by tension, exhaustion, it might be caused by monotonous routine, e.g., it affects me very much. Sometimes it’s depressing me”.

The teacher said that people might think that it could not be monotonous when people have to deal and work with children, but

“Teaching process itself is very monotonous, especially when you have to deal with very low-ability learners. Low level of students is also very depressing”.

One of the experienced teachers also said:

“When you want to give them some new material and more interesting and less monotonous tasks, to see the results of your teaching unfortunately, they cannot keep up with it”.

During the interview to the question about free time and activities that teacher was doing during gaps between lessons the latter teacher said she had very few gaps between lessons and free time. She said:

“Whenever I have a gap, I still use this 45-minute free time to fulfil other job-related tasks and again search for some new resources and additional material. So I can never devote time to myself and to my relaxation”.
During week days teachers are also very limited in free time and rarely can devote it to themselves. The respondent said laughing:

“I am the only member of my family who goes to sleep most early”.

The experienced teacher was also asked what could be the causes of stress among teachers. She said:

“I strongly believe that mostly people who suffer from stress are the ones who have a high sense of responsibility. If teacher is concerned about his/her professional development and success, if she/he is concerned about what to teach ad how to teach, of course, the beginning of the career will be very stressful, because they meet a new environment, new managers, new faces, parents, and students. So all the above-mentioned can stress them”.

She was also asked to give advice to teachers and especially novice teachers. She said:

“Teachers should work hard on themselves and be as well prepared as possible from the point of teaching. They should be equipped with knowledge about what to teach and how to teach. If all these factors are satisfied, they will, of course, be more self-confident and with time the stress will gradually decrease”.

As for the coping strategies, the latter teacher was not aware and did not possess knowledge of these strategies, but she said:

“Snacks such as, for example, sunflower seeds, best movies and bestseller books help me distract my attention from school”.

Discussion

Most teachers participating in the study reported a high level of stress. They experienced a high degree of stress and many teachers showed physical and emotional exhaustion. The teachers experienced a number of causes of stress in their work, such as lack of resources, time for themselves, relaxation and none of them knew about possible coping strategies for tackling stress.

The findings indicate that many teachers experience an accumulation of sources of stress, which may explain the high level of physical and emotional exhaustion. In an attempt to reduce the amount of stress teachers are unaware of coping strategies and might be in need of training and workshops in this point.

The mini-research showed that teachers experience a high workload and a severe time pressure at school. Most of them said they were worn out at the end of the school day. All these might be caused by frequent changes in educational policy, as well as the gradually increasing demands and requirements put upon teachers. Nowadays teachers have to meet too many demands and face too many professional and personal challenges in limited time.

Practical recommendations for teachers

Coping behaviors or resources come in the form of physical, psychological, social, or material factors and help teachers overcome job-related stressors. They help teachers achieve their valued outcomes with students (Blasé, 1982). The coping strategies can be categorized in several types, such as inward and outward strategies.
concentrating on something narrow in the field of stimuli around oneself include seeking stillness and focus. Outward strategies, such as exercise, involve seeking connections, directions and movement. Coping strategies can also be negative, positive and neutral. Negative coping strategies might be ignoring the stressor, putting school work to the side, watching a lot of television, and focusing on things unrelated to school work. Although this type of behavior can lead to lowered self-esteem, and feelings of helplessness. Positive coping strategies can be exercise, social resources, reading, hobbies, movement, and meditation. Neutral coping strategies are developing a social support system – family and friends. Teachers who have more support within their personal lives tend to experience less stress in the workplace.

The findings have clear practical implications and they aim at giving teachers practical recommendations on how to deal with stress and what coping strategies they can use.

Firstly, teachers should be aware of the physical, mental and behavioral symptoms of stress to have a deep understanding of their own state.

In his book Russel Bradshaw, an assistant professor of education in Lehman College/CUNY, Bronx (Bradshaw, 1991), provides us with stress symptoms and practical solutions and tips for dealing with stress.

**Physical symptoms**

1. Shallow and rapid breathing, deep sighing
2. Fast heartbeat (pulse of eighty or more)
3. Signs of headache
4. Increasing muscle tension
5. Cold feet and hands
6. Increased sensitivity to sound/light; dilated pupils.
7. Ringing in ears, dizziness, or faintness
8. Sin hives or rashes, nervous scratching
9. Weight loss or gain, loss of appetite or nervous eating
10. Dry mouth, problems swallowing
11. Frequent colds or flu
12. Sudden, suffocating panic, general sense of anxiety/insecurity, inability to breathe normally.

**Mental symptoms**

1. Nervousness, anxiety, worry, guilt
2. Moodiness, instability of emotions
3. Depression, pessimistic thinking
4. Problems with concentration, trouble learning new information, forgetfulness
5. Nightmares
6. Difficulty making decisions
7. A sense of being overloaded
8. More frequent crying
9. Fear of getting close to people, loneliness
10. A sense of never being good enough

*Behavioral symptoms*

1. Inattention to dress and grooming
2. More frequent lateness
3. A more serious appearance than usual
4. Unusual behavior, nervous habits, such as finger or foot tapping
5. Rushing around
6. Increased frustration and irritability, overreaction to small things, general sense of anger
7. Inability to be soft and caring toward students, friends, loved ones; rudeness
8. Reduced work efficiency or productivity
9. Unrealistic demands
10. Constant tiredness/sleep problems

Teaching is a profession that often leaves one psychologically tired, although the body may not be. It is important for teachers to exercise regularly, in order to balance mind and body. Besides, exercise is the best relaxer for mental health too. Activities, such as yoga, jogging, walking, weight training, swimming, tennis, or aerobics are proved to be helpful in searching for inner peace and balancing outer health and dynamism.

The diet is also extremely important. There are some stress-inducing foods, such as coffee, sugar, tobacco that should be avoided.

Passive television watching can also be a source of stress when you do not leave enough time to do other necessary activities. It also emits radiation, electromagnetic fields, and loud, stressful noise.

We should also choose activities which will not distract us from being relaxed, refreshed, and happy, not tired, depressed or anguish.

As the teachers have to accomplish many tasks simultaneously and in a limited time, they need to be equipped with some time-management tips. So teachers should start doing the tasks that are of vital importance. They should organize tasks
according to their importance. Besides, they should never procrastinate and try to concentrate only on the task they are doing.

Conclusions and limitations

Both the workload and the accumulation of numerous sources of stress have a number of maladaptive consequences. Important consequences are physical and emotional exhaustion, the sacrifice of social lives and feeling of helplessness and unhappiness. Teachers who are exhausted, stressed and depressed cannot find the way for professional development and raising their quality of teaching. Teachers suffering from work-related stress should firstly go deep into their stress and stressors and start to use the coping strategies for tackling with their stress.

The limitations of the mini-research are the limited number of participants that cannot give us an opportunity to generalize the results and the fact that the participants work at a private school the educational policy of which may differ from public schools.

REFERENCES


**APPENDICES**

Appendix 1. Questionnaire

Introduction

This document provides support for teachers in their work related stress by providing:

- an examination of the nature and extent of stress in the teaching profession;
- guidance on tackling stress
- an overview of how work-related stress can be tackled

Members of teaching/lecturing staff have been responding that the increasing levels of stress at work are affecting their health, well-being and job satisfaction. In order to gather evidence I conducted a stress questionnaire.

Please, answer the following questions. You replies will be treated in the confidence – I are not asking you to provide your name.

I hope that all members of the teaching staff will appreciate the importance of this and take a few minutes to fill it in.

**Background details:**

1. Please, indicate your position:
   1. Lecturer
   2. Researcher
   3. Teacher
   4. Manager
   5. Principal

2. Are you:
   1. Female
   2. Male

3. Age:
   1. 21-25
   2. 26-35
   3. 36-45
   4. 46-55
   5. 56+

4. Which department are you in?
   1. Primary school
   2. Secondary school
   3. High school

5. Please, estimate the average number of hours per week that you work
   22

**Stress symptoms:**

Instructions: Rank the following statements from 1 to 3:
1 = Never 2 = Sometimes 3 = Often

Are you experiencing, or have you experienced any of these stress symptoms in the last year?

a. Headaches/migraine 1 2 3
b. Aches and pains 1 2 3
c. High blood pressure 1 2 3
d. Poor sleep 1 2 3
e. Indigestions 1 2 3
f. Anxiety 1 2 3
g. Depression 1 2 3
h. Heart disease 1 2 3
i. Changes in appetite 1 2 3
j. Exhaustion 1 2 3
k. Inability to concentrate 1 2 3
l. Erratic mood 1 2 3
m. Low self-esteem/confidence 1 2 3

While working do you ever feel:

a. Irritated 1 2 3
b. Angry 1 2 3
c. Frustrated 1 2 3
d. Helpless 1 2 3
e. Anxious 1 2 3
f. Depressed 1 2 3
g. Unable to concentrate 1 2 3
h. Over tired 1 2 3

Instructions: For each of the following questions, enter the number matching the description which most closely represents how you feel.

1 = Not at all 2 = Not much 3 = Sometimes 4 = Mostly 5 = Very much so

More than 100 = low evidence of stress – but see caveat below;
51 to 100 = moderate evidence of stress;
Up to 50 = high evidence of stress.

Please note that a score of 100 or more does not necessarily indicate the absence of a problem.

Do you feel able to concentrate on what you are doing at school? 4

Do you feel that you are playing a useful part in school life? 5

Do you feel capable of making decisions at school? 5

Do you feel generally relaxed in your home and school life? 4
Do you feel that most problems you encounter at school can be surmounted? 2

Do you generally manage to keep your sense of humour? 4

Do you feel happy at work, all things considered? 4

Are you sleeping well? 1

Are you eating well? 3

Do you cope well with changes to your job? 4

Do you have a reasonable amount of energy? 2

Do you feel in control of your job? 4

Do you feel you are coping well in the classroom? 4 (except the first graders)

Do you receive appropriate support when you need it? 5

Do you get on well with your pupils? 5

Do you get on well with your colleagues? 5

Do you get on well with your managers? 5

Do you feel free from the threat of bullying/harassment at school? 5

Do you manage to leave work ‘on time’ fairly regularly? 5

Do you find your job satisfying and fulfilling? 5

Do you have a life outside work? 5

Do you intend to remain in teaching for the foreseeable future? 5

Do you look forward to returning to school after a weekend or holiday? 5

Now add up your score.

Instructions: Rank the following statements from 1 to 5:

1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Ambivalent, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree
### DEMANDS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My physical working conditions are acceptable</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Our rest facilities are old and in bad condition</td>
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<td>My total working hours are acceptable</td>
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<td>There are too many after school meetings</td>
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<td>Unreasonable deadlines and time pressures are often imposed on me</td>
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<td>Inspections cause me excessive pressure</td>
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<td>The balance between work and home life is about right</td>
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<td>The school values the time we put in at home</td>
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<td>I am able to take a proper break during the school day</td>
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<td>Lesson planning requirements are over-burdensome</td>
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### CONTROL

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<tr>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>I have opportunities to express my ideas and points of view</td>
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<td>I have to neglect some tasks because I have too much to do</td>
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<td>There is too much classroom observation</td>
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<tr>
<td>I am encouraged to use my skills and initiative to do my work</td>
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### SUPPORT

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I receive appropriate training</td>
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<tr>
<td>I do not have enough support in dealing with bureaucratic paperwork</td>
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<tr>
<td>My managers are supportive</td>
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<tr>
<td>I regularly receive positive feedback on my work</td>
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### RELATIONSHIPS

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<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have a good relationship with my manager</td>
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<tr>
<td>I get on well with colleagues</td>
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</table>
Management promotes positive behaviours at work to avoid conflict and ensure fairness in the workplace

Staff are afraid to complain in case they are ‘picked on’

I regularly have to deal with disruptive pupils

I have to deal with violent pupils

I am concerned about violence from aggressive parents

ROLE

1 2 3 4 5

I’m clear about what is expected of me at work

My skills are well-used

I feel valued in my role

CHANGE

1 2 3 4 5

I find it difficult to cope with the pace of organisational or curriculum change

I find the introduction of new initiatives daunting

Changes are accompanied by appropriate support and training, where necessary

Please list any issues causing work related stress which are not addressed in the questions above:

-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------
-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------
-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------
-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------
-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Please return completed questionnaires to: Mariam Merkviladze

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey.

Appendix 2. Detailed Survey results
Table 1: Are you experiencing, or have you experienced any of these stress symptoms in the last year?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stress Symptom</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Headache/migraine</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High blood pressure</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor sleep</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indigestion</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depression</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heart diseases</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Exhaustion 2%
Inability to concentrate 5%
Change in appetite 12%
Erratic mood 4%
Low self-esteem 12%

Table 2: While working do you feel ...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feeling</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Irritated</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angry</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frustrated</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpless</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxious</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Questionnaire responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Ambivalent</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 My physical working conditions are acceptable</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Our rest facilities are old and in bad condition</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 My total working hours are acceptable</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 There are many after school meetings</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Unreasonable deadlines and time pressures are often imposed on me</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Inspections cause me excessive pressure</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 The balance between work and home life is about right</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 The school values the time we put in at home</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 I am able to take a proper break during the school day</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Lesson planning requirements are over-burdensome</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 I have opportunities to express my ideas and points of view</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 I have to neglect some tasks because I have too much to do</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 There is too much classroom observation</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 I am encouraged to use my skills and initiative to do my work</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 I receive appropriate training</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 I do not have enough support in dealing with bureaucratic paperwork</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 My managers are supportive</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 I regularly receive positive feedback on my work</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 I have good relationship with my managers</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 I get on well with colleagues</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
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<tr>
<td>21 Management promotes positive behaviors at work to avoid conflict and ensure fairness in the workplace</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 Staff are afraid to complain in case they are &quot;picked on&quot;</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 I regularly have to deal with disruptive students</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 I am concerned about violence from aggressive parents</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 I am clear about what is expected of me at work</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 My skills are well-used</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 I feel valued in my role</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 I find it difficult to cope with the pace of organizational or curriculum change</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 I find introduction of new initiatives daunting</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CLASsROOM MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION AT THE FOREIGN (ENGLISH) 
 LANGUAGE LESSON

Ekaterine Nakhutsrishvili
Iakob Gogebashvili Telavi State University
ekanakhutsrishvili@gmail.com

ABSTRACT
The paper deals with classroom management and organization at the foreign (English) language lesson. If we want to manage classrooms effectively, we have to be able to handle a range of variables. These include how the classroom space is organized, whether the students are working on their own or in groups and how we organize classroom time. We also need to consider how we appear to the students, and how we use our most valuable asset - our voice. The way we talk to students – and who talks most in the lesson – is another key factor in classroom management. Successful classroom management also involves being able to deal with difficult situations such as when students are uncooperative and when they do not want to talk. The factors promoting classroom management and organization are usage of modern technologies and interactive methods at the foreign (English) language lesson. Technological aids are a common feature of the English classroom worldwide. Modern technologies cover video, audiotape, computer, and projector. All the above-mentioned give students more freedom, help them in organizing knowledge by themselves. As for interactive methods, they cover role-plays, class discussion, projects and mental work. These methods promote real interaction between students that represents the main condition for effective classroom management. Though it is very difficult to organize and manage classroom successfully, it is not so for every teacher. From the three types of teachers (authoritarian, authoritative, liberal/permissive) only liberal ones cannot manage to plan and organize the lessons on a high level, while classroom management is well organized at authoritative and authoritarian teachers’ lessons. These items are analyzed in the research carried out for revealing the best classroom management samples on school and university level.

Keywords: Classroom, teachers, behavior, management, methods

INTRODUCTION
Teaching is an active and purposeful interaction between a teacher and a student. It is an organized process of giving special knowledge to students by teacher and mastering this knowledge by students. The main figure of teaching process is a teacher. According to Harmer (2007: 23), “good teachers are born, not made” and it does seem that some people have a natural affinity for the job. They are called real teachers, those who pay a great attention to the teaching and learning processes and do their best to be successful teachers and try to bring up educated generations.
Classroom management means using different groupings of students – such as pairs, groups and lockstep – so that a collaborative atmosphere is created, the maximum number of students actively participate in activities and there is no disruptive behavior in class. Class management also includes the ability of a teacher to adopt the most appropriate role for each situation, and in this way enhance the teaching and learning process.

**METHODS AND PROCEDURES**

Teachers usually have to work hard to manage their classes properly in order to carry out what they have planned and to achieve the aim of better communicative competence for their students (Tsitsishvili, Nizharadze, Darchia, Tevzaia, & Tkavashvili, 2008: 68). From that point of view, the teacher of authoritative style has an obvious advantage in comparison with authoritarian and liberal ones. The peculiarities of authoritarian and liberal (anarchical) styles of teaching are distant relations among a teacher and his/her students, lack of trust between them, teacher's indifference regarding school problems, her/his dominance in the classroom. Their alternation is the so-called authoritative style of cooperation. An authoritative teacher is oriented on rising student's subjective role and mutual understanding. As a result of open discussion of the problem, students along with teachers make a decision. Such kind of a teacher is characterized by having an active and positive relationship towards students, besides s/he evaluates students’ abilities adequately, shares their success or failure and so on. With the outward progress of their work, authoritative teachers cannot compete with their authoritarian colleagues, but the social-psychological atmosphere in their class is more positive. Students trust teacher and each other. Their relation bears communicative nature. Though it is true that at the lesson teacher cannot completely reject some authoritarian ways of interrelation, but in any case s/he should be oriented on authoritative style (Malazonia, 2001: 133).

It should be mentioned that classroom management covers three aspects of teaching and learning: motivation, constraints and the teacher's role. All teachers have, at least once, been faced with a lack of student motivation to learn, or laziness to do tasks that they have set. In order to organize the class and to build up students’ interest, a teacher needs class management skills.

Constraints, such as old and uninteresting textbooks, immovable desks, big groups, small classrooms, students of different levels in one class, are a reality in Georgian schools. It is a teacher's responsibility to overcome these problems, if s/he wants to be successful with her/his students, and to gain respect with her/his colleagues.

The teacher's role is another important aspect of classroom management. Teacher adopts different roles in class. She may be a controller, an organizer, an assessor, a participant, a resource, a tutor, or an observer, depending on the teaching/learning situation. Though sometimes she becomes a facilitator. According to Tylee (1999), the teacher, who is variable in the classroom context, is charged with the function of acting as an intermediary between the variables outside the classroom and the students to assist the students in their learning. The function of being an intermediary means that the teacher has the role of facilitating student learning. In order for teachers to facilitate student learning, several things need to occur. The processes that the teacher as facilitator needs to undertake are as follows:

- Assess the students;
Plan the learning;
Implement the plan; and
Evaluate the process.

"Facilitator" is a student-centered teacher’s role, when control of the classroom is basically handed over to the students. The only one important aspect of the roles that a teacher adopts is "control". Nowadays, the word "control" has acquired a somewhat negative meaning and is often associated with old-fashioned and non-communicative classes. It should be borne in mind, however, that teaching is a controlled activity which aims to promote learning and a teacher is a controller all the time. However, this role is sometimes obvious and sometimes it is less visible. Teaching is a controlled activity because a teacher has to work with different kinds of learners and uses various types of activities, and the lack of control might demoralize learners and eventually lead to a loss of interest in learning the language. Creating a communicative atmosphere in the classroom should not be confused with an absence of control on the teacher’s part. Even during the most communicative kind of activity, when the teacher might be standing aside and apparently passive, she should be in control of what is going on, so that she can help learners when needed or stop the activity if it goes wrong. This means that a teacher has a central role in maintaining the best possible conditions for learning, while learners have a central role in their learning. The role of controller for a teacher does not necessarily mean that s/he is talking most of the time. Nor does it mean that s/he should be the only speaker, or not allow learners to work independently and use English in a communicative way, or reduce their initiative.

Practical classroom experience has proved that "control" does not exclude "communication" at all. It is a teacher’s job to reduce her talking time and to give more opportunities for students to practice English, but it is also a teacher’s responsibility to ensure that learners accept and use these opportunities. A teacher who has effective control over what happens in class can achieve this. To sum up, no matter how visible the role of controller is, the teacher should maintain this role in every situation, if s/he wants her teaching to be effective and if learning is going to take place (Tsitsishvili, Nizharadze, Darchia, Tevzaia & Tkavashvili, 2008: 68).

If we want to manage classrooms effectively, we have to be able to handle a range of variables. These include how the classroom space is organized, whether the students are working on their own or in groups and how we organize classroom time. We also need to consider how we appear to the students, and how we use our most valuable asset - our voice. The way we talk to students – and who talks most in the lesson – is another key factor in classroom management. Successful classroom management also involves being able to deal with difficult situations, such as when students are uncooperative and when they do not want to talk.

Our physical presence can play a large part in our management of the classroom environment. And it is not just appearance either. The way we move and stand and the degree to which we are physically demonstrative can have a clear effect on the management of the class.

Teachers need to consider how close they should be to the students they are working with. Some students are uncomfortable, if their teacher stands or sits close to them. For some, on the other hand, distance is a sign of coldness.
Teachers should be conscious of how close they are to their students, should take this into account when assessing their students’ reactions and should, if necessary, modify their behavior.

In order to manage a class successfully, the teacher has to be aware of what students are doing and, where possible, how they are feeling. This means watching and listening just as carefully as teaching. This will be difficult, if we keep too much distance or if we are perceived by the students to be cold and aloof, because then we will find it difficult to establish the rapport.

The teacher’s physical approach and personality in the class is one aspect of class management to consider. Another is one of the teacher’s chief tools: the voice. When considering the use of the voice in the management of teaching, there are three issues to think about: audibility, variety and conservation. The issue of how to talk to students becomes crucial, when we give them instructions. The best activity in the world is a waste of time, if the students do not understand what it is they are supposed to do.

There are two general rules for giving instructions: they must be kept as simple as possible, and they must be logical. When teachers give instructions, it is important for them to check that the students have understood what they are being asked to do. This can be achieved either by asking a student to explain the activity after the teacher has given the instruction or by getting someone to show the other people in the class how the exercise works. Where students all share the same mother tongue, a member of the class can be asked to translate the instructions into their mother tongue as a check that they have understood them.

Another essential thing about classroom management is that teachers need to provide variety, and then clearly we have to include different stages in our lessons. When we enter the classroom, we need to start the lesson off in such a way that the students’ interest is aroused, so that they become engaged. We do not always need to explain exactly what we are going to do, particularly, if we want to maintain an element of surprise. But even in such cases, a clear start of the lesson is necessary just as a good play starts with the rise of a curtain.

When an activity has finished and/or another one is about to start, it helps, if teachers make this clear through the way they behave and the things they say. It helps students if they are made clearly aware of the end of something and the beginning of what is coming next. Frequently, teachers need to re-focus the students’ attention, or point it in some new direction.

All teachers are nervous about the possibility that their students will start behaving improperly. Problem behavior can take many forms: constant chattering in class, not listening to the teacher, blunt refusal to do certain activities or to do what they are told to, constantly being late and even rudeness. There are a number of ways teachers can react to such problem behaviors. These are:

1. Remember that it is just a job – teaching is a job, not a life style and in order to act professionally we need to keep calm and respond as objectively as we can.

2. Deal with the behavior, not the student – when problem behavior occurs, we should not humiliate the student, we need to act immediately and stop the behavior from continuing.
3. Go forward – the best way is to work out what will happen next. Rather than focusing only on what a student has done, we need to see how their behavior can be improved in the future.

4. Use any means of communication – we can talk to students individually.

Many teachers have come across students who do not seem to want to talk in class. Sometimes this may have to do with the students’ characters. Sometimes it is because students are simply not used to talking freely in a classroom setting. Perhaps they suffer from a fear of making mistakes and therefore ‘losing face’ in front of the teacher and their colleagues. Whatever the reason, it makes no sense to try to force such students to talk. There are other much better things to try: use pair work; allow them to speak in a controlled way at first; use ‘acting out’ and reading loud; use role-play; use recording (Harmer, 2007: 34-37).

All teachers have faced situations, when it becomes difficult to handle the undisciplined behavior of one or more students. Undisciplined behavior can spoil the most effective activities and the best lessons, if it is not dealt with on time. A good teacher does not wait for the problem to arise. S/he predicts and prevents the problems.

One way of preventing bad behavior is to work out a code of conduct to which both teacher and students adhere. A code of conduct is the agreed behavior – agreed between a teacher and her/his students – which mentions all the aspects of the teacher/student relationship, including arrival time, shouting out answers, returning homework, chewing the gum, and time to ask questions. It should be discussed and agreed in the first class of a course, but will be different in its content for different age groups. And it can be a written agreement, as well as being oral.

Another way of maintaining discipline is to plan lessons carefully, and to organize tasks which will keep your learners’ attention and involve them actively in communicative activities. However, even the most perfect code of conduct cannot always prevent disruptive behavior. When this happens, it is important to deal with it immediately, but without confrontation, anger or threats. Remember, there are many reasons for undisciplined behavior: lack of motivation, insufficient materials and teaching aids, a poor attitude to learning, the school policy and the national curriculum can all have an adverse effect on how students behave in the classroom. However, it is the teacher who can and should deal with it, by motivating unmotivated students and bringing creative ideas to the classroom (Scott & Ytreberg, 2007: 9-10).

So, the future teacher should know what kind of teachers the students want to see. According to the investigations, students give priority to the teacher, who

- does not give additional work to the students, who finished class work before everybody else;
- is not bounded with teaching program, uses supplementary materials;
- does not say always “no” for everything to the students;
- supports students’ interesting ideas;
- has a sense of humor;
- effectively controls students’ work and objectively evaluates the degree of the done work;
- knows his/her subject well;
• explains and teaches by providing age;
• is not pretentious and whisperer;
• does not have favorites;
• s/he is dressed tastefully and looks young in all ages (Japaridze, 2005: 147; Nargizishvili, Nargizishvili-Mikadze, 2006: 24).

The factors promoting classroom management and organization are usage of modern technologies and interactive methods at the foreign (English) language lesson. Technological aids are a common feature of the English classroom worldwide. Modern technologies cover video, audiotape, computer, and projector. All the above-mentioned give students more freedom and help them in organizing knowledge by themselves. As for interactive methods, they cover role-plays, class discussion, projects and mental work. These methods promote real interaction between students that represents the main condition for effective classroom management (Vasadze, 2000: 85).

Though it is true that it is very difficult to organize and manage classroom successfully, but it is not so for every teacher. From the three types of teachers (authoritarian, authoritative, liberal/permissive) only liberal one cannot manage to plan and organize the lessons on a high level, while classroom management is well-organized at authoritative and authoritarian teachers’ lessons. These items are analyzed in the research given below.

RESEARCH

The research was held on school and university level. Its goal was to reveal the best classroom management samples on both levels. The research was based on researcher’s private observation of different types of teachers (authoritarian, authoritative, liberal/permissive) on school and university level. The researcher attended every lesson and applied a check-list, according to which the classroom management was assessed.

The check-list comprised several items for identifying student/pupils’ motivation; general activities and sources of using modern technologies at language classes with different teachers.

RESULTS

The results of the research revealed the following: classroom management is well-organized at authoritative and authoritarian teachers’ lessons. The motivation and educational level of students/pupils at those lessons was higher, than with liberal/permissive teachers, where the situation was chaotic. The liberal/permissive teachers could not manage to plan and organize the lessons on a high level and for somehow conducting the lessons, the permissive teachers used to give students all the freedom of action. This freedom caused a decrease of motivation and interest towards the pupils’/students’ participation in the lesson.
CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it might be said, that during the research, which was held on school and university level, it was revealed that from the three types of teachers – authoritarian, authoritative and liberal/permission the two types – authoritarian and authoritative teachers in comparison with liberal ones are considered to be successful in managing and organizing classrooms. Besides, it should be mentioned, that, though authoritarian and authoritative teachers conduct lessons in different ways, they both achieve success in the teaching process. For example, authoritarian teacher evaluates her role in the teaching process. She keeps distance, as a rule, insists on obedience without words, and clarifies the list of measurements without asking students. In spite of such relation, an authoritarian teacher conducts organized lessons and students attend them. The problem is that the authoritarian style of management is often accompanied by conflict situations. Authoritative style is opposed to the authoritarian one, because such kind of a teacher is close to learners, but this relation bears a moderate nature. Students have the freedom of thinking. This style of management excludes conflict situations and promotes cooperation between a teacher and a student. As for liberal teachers, according to the experiment, it is clear, that they cannot achieve their aim, because liberal teacher tries to be maximally close to children. Such kind of teacher is equal to them, that is why s/he loses the function of a leader. In addition, s/he is very compliant, who forgives everything and of course, it is impossible to teach students without demand. Liberal/permission style of teaching absolutely lacks effectiveness and, finally, it brings only harm to school/university.

To sum up, in order to study a teacher’s style it is not enough to observe lessons. We also need to interview the teacher in order to find out what beliefs underlie her/his actions, how s/he views one’s role in the process of teaching.

Thus, it is clear that there are no ready-made recipes containing all ingredients necessary for becoming a good teacher. As it has often been claimed, teaching is more an art than a science and everyone has to find their individual routes to mastering this art.

REFERENCES:


ABSTRACTS OF UNPUBLISHED PAPERS PRESENTED AT THE CONFERENCE

CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN GEORGIA

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There have been numerous higher education institutions (HEIs) that applied Total Quality Management principles to a certain extent. The literature suggests that there have been successful implementations along with bad experiences since its first implementation three decades ago. There is no agreement on a certain list of critical success factors (CSFs) for TQM implementation, but there are undoubtedly overlaps among the proposed CSF factors in the literature. CSFs are areas that form a checklist for successful implementation of any quality system. HEIs, in this case, will obviously need to determine their own priorities in their planning and application of TQM.

The application of TQM requires a holistic approach including but not limited to institutional structure, teamwork, communication with all the stakeholders, revision of quality documents, and strategic planning.

This study provides results of a structured survey carried out at 15 HEIs in 8 cities of Georgia with 325 participants ranging from students to the Rectorate level. We have attempted to identify the perception of the CSFs we have obtained from the literature. We have analyzed 21 titles under 13 CSF titles, namely: (1) leadership, (2) strategy, (3) customer focus, (4) education, (5) stakeholders, (6) HR, (7) resources, (8) training, (9) teamwork, (10) system, (11) communication, (12) processes, (13) improvement. The analysis showed that the private universities are slightly in a better condition than the public ones in the CSF items of education, leadership, stakeholders, strategy, teamwork, and system, but not different in the items of improvement, communication, customer focus, resources, HR, training, and processes. We sorted the CSFs from most problematic to not problematic based on statistical results as following: HR, Resources, Training, Processes, Leadership, Customer Focus, Improvement, Education, System, Strategy, Teamwork, Communication, and Stakeholders.

Key Words: Critical success factors, total quality management, higher education
Much bias is being practiced against Non-Native English Speaking Teachers (NNESTs). Large numbers of English department graduates who are not native speakers of English find themselves less favored when compared with their native counterparts, as many job advertisements in the EFL world promote Native English Speaking Teachers (NESTs) only. Some recruiters prefer a non-qualified native speaker with no experience to a non-native qualified teacher, claiming that the native speaker is a better model for the learners, where in fact it is mostly a matter of prestige.

Here arises the question of authenticity: is the native speaker an authentic model for the English language learner? Statistics say that non-native English speakers outnumber native speakers around the world. Even a learner who intends to live in an English-speaking country - the US, UK, Canada, and Australia will have to communicate with many people who speak English varieties that are affected by their first language. It is therefore debatable that the goal of learning English is to speak only with native speakers. If we want to look at the role of English as an international language of trade, culture, sports,...etc. that is owned by everyone worldwide, we must be able to learn an English that enables us to communicate with the authentic models including, Singlish, Chinglish, Indian-English, Spanglish, and other varieties speakers.

This paper will examine the appropriate training that NNESTs should undertake to be ready for the EFL classroom and emphasize their role in international contexts as authentic models of the future language experience of EFL learners. It will also highlight how NESTs must adapt their language skills and cultural awareness to the standards set by world Englishes. English language teachers, regardless of whether they are natives or non-natives, should be adequately trained to respond to the needs of the international English language learner.
SOCIAL DIMENSION OF THE BOLOGNA PROCESS FROM GEORGIA’S PERSPECTIVE

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Agreement between European countries and corresponding ministries of education, which is formerly known as Bologna Process, aims at expanding European idea of University through creating European Higher Education Area. Understanding of modern university is largely based on European concept which in turn originated from Humboldtian ideal of University – closer link between research and teaching, guaranteeing academic freedom, and supporting scholarly knowledge and applied science. Thus, social nature lies right in the core of the concept of university; accordingly, the social dimension of education should be the fulcrum of the Bologna Process whose manifested vision is a broader access to education, equality of member states supporting students’ social mobility, harmonization, and compatibility of national education systems and comparability of qualifications. It is interesting to observe if member states share the same perception of social dimension of the Bologna Process, on the one hand, and if they enjoy equal rights in European Higher Education area, on the other hand, in their attempts to support this dimension. Georgia’s case will be discussed to reflect on the social nature of the Bologna Process.

Key words: Bologna process, European Higher Education Area, social mobility, national education systems, credit transfer, student mobility

THE IMPACT OF READING FOR PLEASURE ON GEORGIAN UNIVERSITY EFL STUDENTS’ READING COMPREHENSION (IBSU CASE)

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Reading is one of the most significant skills, particularly for EFL students. Many students today do not have the reading skills needed to do effective work in their courses. This paper explores reading for pleasure, its importance and effects on reading comprehension. Pleasure reading helps students to communicate, listen and, most importantly, to express themselves freely and it also allows them to acquire specific language skills. That is why reading for pleasure is definitely important. An experimental study using reading for pleasure was carried out at international Black Sea University for eight weeks with 42 English Philology freshman students. The experimental group was given texts for their selection: newspaper articles and graded readers on various topics which students were interested in, while the control group has just read the reading excerpts and texts which are given in their course book. Pre- and post-tests were implemented to determine the degree of improvement of students’ reading comprehension skills. The experimental group showed better improvement of comprehension skills. As a result of conducting this research, reading for pleasure created positive attitudes towards learning a foreign language. The study demonstrated a measurable positive effect of reading for pleasure on students’ language acquisition.

Key words: pleasure reading, language acquisition, reading comprehension
CREATIVITY IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING TO YOUNG LEARNERS

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Creativity is increasingly becoming an important part in the field of education. Creative teaching is crucial both in life and in teaching and learning a language. This paper sheds light on the significance of integrating creativity in English as a Foreign Language Teaching, as it develops learners’ creative thinking skills, which are so valued in the 21st century. It is worth pointing out that every language learner has a different level of creativity and it is teachers’ task to stimulate this potential in students, as they all come with it to the class. Furthermore, the paper discusses some supporting and suppressing factors to teachers’ creativity which are important to bear in mind. Comparing to private schools in Georgia, public schools lack creativity in English Language Teaching. Both teachers and students are not sufficiently encouraged to be creative in their learning and teaching. The teaching materials in Georgian public schools are commonly followed as the script and not as the resource which could be used in a more creative way by teachers. Therefore, the goal of the paper is to raise awareness among ELT teachers concerning the significance of creativity in EFL classroom. A survey was carried out in Georgian public schools in Tbilisi among EFL teachers. The quantitative study reveals the current situation in Georgian public schools in terms of creativity. Namely, 75% of teachers agree that creativity plays a crucial role in EFL teaching, which reveals that theoretically they are aware of this notion, moreover, 20.83% of participants are aware of the significance of creating autonomous learning environment and exploring unusual uses of objects to turn them into effective teaching material in order to implement creativity in their teaching, but the picture of practical application of it in their teaching is lower - only 41.67% of them sometimes engage their students in the creative activities that leads learners to be less engaged in creative activities. Besides that, there are some factors which restrain teachers’ creativity. The study shows that some changes are needed to encourage English as a foreign language teachers to be creative in order to make both teaching and learning more effective, interesting and engaging.
REFLECTING THE ROLES OF TEACHERS IN ELF CLASSROOM

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The purpose of this paper is to discuss teacher roles in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms. Nowadays, teachers in language classrooms are classified into three types according to their attitudes and behaviors towards learners: authoritarian, democratic or permissive. The paper emphasizes democratic teaching as the most efficient one in contemporary pedagogy. The goal of the democratic teaching is to promote independent learning through task-based, enquiry-based and problem-based activities. The paper draws upon basic characteristic of a democratic teacher such as being a good listener, having and communicating high expectations for students’ learning and behavior, establishing clear classroom procedures, showing empathy when necessary as well as creating rapport in the classroom. Being responsible and efficient teachers requires not only to teach some particular subject, but also teach how to learn. When teachers make their students independent and autonomous learners, they themselves acquire new information and knowledge without any help from the outside. Students in EFL classrooms held by democratic teachers are always distinguished according to their ages and learning styles. Attribution Theory differentiates learners in terms of motivation; even more, one of the prime features of attribution theory is to show special care and love, as well as interest toward these students not only in the classrooms but also out of the learning environment. The paper also discusses the following teacher roles: planner, manager, observer, facilitator, rapport builder, assessor, diagnostician, and language recourse. Furthermore, the paper examines lesson stages, such as writing lesson objectives, writing main and subsidiary aims, elicitation, engagement, presentation, and practice. A survey was conducted to link lesson stages with teacher roles. The results of the survey determine the most effective teacher role for the particular stage of the lesson. The connection between teacher roles and gender, as well as teacher roles and student age are also mentioned in the survey.

Key words: Teacher roles, democratic teacher, EFL, attribution theory