



IRCEELT-2017

**THE 7th INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH CONFERENCE ON
EDUCATION, LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE**

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Welcome to the 7th International Research Conference on Education, Language and Literature (IRCEELT 2017) which is held on 21-22 April 2017 at International Black Sea University, Tbilisi, Georgia.

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ESP AND CONTENT AREA TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND PRACTICES ABOUT SCIENTIFIC VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION

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Abstract

This study investigates the beliefs and practices of English for Specific Purposes Teachers (ESPTs) and Content Area Teachers (CATs) when they teach English Technical Vocabulary (ETV) in a Saudi Arabian industrial college known as Yanbu Industrial College (YIC). The central motive of this work is twofold: (a) the question of who should teach ETV items in an industrial domain - whether it is the job of ESPTs or CATs, or the task of both parties; and (b) the issue of how ETV items should be taught - direct versus indirect vocabulary teaching strategies that practitioners usually employ in order to achieve their goals. These issues were examined through the following seven research questions: To what extent do ESPTs and CATs at YIC view ETV teaching as a problematic issue? Do ESPTs and CATs teach ETV directly, indirectly or both? How similar are the Vocabulary Teaching Strategies (VTS) that ESPTs and CATs use in teaching ETV items? Are there any within-group differences among ESPTs and CATs in their teaching of ETV items? Do ESPTs and CATs hold the same beliefs on who should teach ETV items and how they should be taught? Do ESPTs' / CATs' stated beliefs on teaching ETV items match their actual classroom practice? Methodologically, six ESPTs and six CATs in four subjects (electrical, electronics, mechanics and management) were pre-interviewed, observed and post-interviewed over almost a full semester at the college. A brief document analysis has been conducted as well. The results indicate that ETV teaching is more challenging to ESPTs than CATs. It was also found that both parties teach directly and indirectly, and overlap in the strategies they use to teach ETV items. Although ESPTs and CATs view ETV teaching as being reciprocal and value the collaboration between the two parties, CATs believe that they are more responsible for this task. Finally, both congruence and tensions were found and discussed between beliefs and practices by both parties.

Keywords: English for Specific Purposes, Subject teachers, Beliefs and Practices

1. Introduction

The issue of who should teach English technical vocabulary (hence ETV) items and how they should be taught are two vital topics through which linguists and other scientists, at any ESP domain, can measure and weigh the level of cooperation and learn teaching between each other. The issue has been widely debated among the specialists in the field until it was seen as a dilemma. The outcome of these debates seems to identify three beliefs among researchers and teachers as to

who should teach ETV items. One camp believes that ETV is entirely the job of the content area teachers (hence: CAT), while the other believes that this is the job of the English for Specific Purposes teachers (hence: ESPT). The more pragmatic camp followers believe that it is the job of both parties with each party responsible for teaching ETV from a certain stance

On the other hand, researchers, lexicographers, and methodologists argue about the two approaches of ETV items instruction that seem to control this matter. Direct Vocabulary Teaching (DVT), rich instruction, or 'rich scripting' (McWilliam, 1998) goes beyond definitional information with the purpose of getting students actively involved with the word's meaning. We also argue that this type usually leads to students learning words. Indirect Vocabulary Teaching (hence: IVT), in turn, is the teaching or training of students on how and when to use some strategies so that they can independently use them in learning and increasing their lexical repertoire. IVT has been given different labels across various vocabulary studies, such as, 'strategy instruction', 'kanier-to-learn training', and 'learner training',

This article is interested in 'teaching' in the sense of the delivery of material; the stage of presenting (i.e., teaching novel ETV items) and practising (i.e., reviewing previously taught ones) will be the focus of this work. The impact of the other teaching aspects (e.g., the impact of tests, the impact of words selected and the impact of after-class vocabulary activities) will be addressed when additional explanations are needed about the stages of presenting and practising. It is also important to mention that the concepts involved in teaching vocabulary do not always operate in isolation nor call for other teaching relations. Teachers, students, textbook or course book, techniques and tests are among the essential aspects that interlink to the term "teaching". In brief, there are diverse and extensive relations that occur as a result of teaching vocabulary.

2. Reviewing relevant literature

2.1. Who should teach ETV items?

As mentioned earlier, teaching ETV items in any ESP field has been viewed as the job of ESPTs. CATs or both parties. Considering ETV items instruction as the task of CATs promotes the specialised knowledge with which they are equipped, and valuing their roles as superiors in the domain. In this regard, Byrd (1979, p. 15) wrote:

"It would smack of the widest sort of intellectual arrogance and ignorance to think that a specialist in USE could brush up his physics and start leading his students through the physics texts and journals."

Different reasons have been provided for this view. Memory (1990), for example, argues that if CATs did not teach ETV, some of these words would not be learnt by some students, which would consequently make the textbook become increasingly difficult and prevent those students' understanding and learning from it. Although this view carries a lot of accuracy, it assumes that learning does not occur in any other ESP context except from ETV items. Spack (1988) claims that ESPTs are overloaded with student numbers in classes and struggle with their teaching loads, which makes it difficult for them to teach technical words. Similarly, it can be argued that CATs sometimes have similar responsibilities and may face the same obstacles. Other researchers (e.g., Jones, 1990; Koh & Wong, 1990; Boyd, 1991) stress that ESPTs lack the

proper content knowledge and should take care of the linguistic aspects instead. However, because it is difficult to separate language from content, Chamberlain (1980) and Hutchinson and Waters, (1987) argue that ESPTs can help linguistically in the ESP context as we will discuss in the pragmatic view below.

Pritchard and Nasr (2004) carried out a study about improving reading performance among Egyptian engineering students who were dissatisfied with the inadequacies of the English teaching they received in their college. An experimental group (N=66, 2 classes) and control group (N=70) participated in the study and pre- and post-tests showed some progress in the performance of the experimental group. Among the findings of the study was the fact that the ESPT has been deemed to be an information provider in the classroom, but there are limits in the extent to which this can be achieved in the ESP field.

The second camp views teaching ETV at an ESP context as the job of the ESPTs; this camp is quite small compared to the first one. Hyland (2002), for example, argues that the ESPT needs to understand subject-specialist topics and synthesise the information in order for it to be presented accurately. Other researchers (Kennedy, 1980; Koh, 1988) believe that language cannot be divorced from content and therefore that ESPTs need to teach ETV items. Fraser (2005) claims that ESPTs need to: (1) know the different categories of a lexis in a specialised context; therefore, knowing ETV generally alone is not enough, but instead know the different types of ETV, such as fully technical, cryptotechnical, and non-technical; (2) know the students' subject matter by investing a significant amount of time in acquiring subject knowledge and (3) take advantage of the corpora in making their own specialised investigations.

The last camp is the largest of the three and is the one for which I argue due to its optimality. The proponents of this trend (e.g. Chung & Nation, 2003; Nation, 1990; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; and Dudley-Evans & St. Johns, 1998) view ETV teaching as a joint task of ESPTs and CATs. According to Dudley-Evans & St. Johns (1998), the ESPTs job is to ensure that the students understand the ETV that appears as carrier content for an exercise, to check if the students understand the language presented by the CATs, and to cooperate with the students. They go on to argue that general vocabulary, which has a high frequency in a specific field, should be taught by the ESPTs, then by the CATs. Chung and Nation (2003) stress that despite the limitations that ESPTs face in teaching ETV, they should be prepared to help the students to: (1) gain the more general skills of recognising ETVs; (2) interpret definitions; (3) relate sense to core meaning and (4) learn ETV word parts. Nation (1990) argues that ESPTs can help the learners with the Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLSs) that help them to learn the required ETV while the actual direct teaching remains the job of the CATs. This last argument has been widely accepted and I believe that it clearly draws the separating line between the task of the ESPT and that of the CAT.

Drawing the students' attention to the meaning of the ETV attracted more attention in the literature compared to the two other aspects, namely form and use. Sutarsyah, Nation & Kennedy (1994), for instance, argue that drawing the students' attention to the obvious meaning(s) of the ETV is the job of the ESPT. According to them, this can be done by drawing the students' attention to the narrower meaning of the ETV and by highlighting the parts of the meaning that are needed for use in a specialised context. This view goes in parallel with what Chung and Nation (2003) described above, as relating sense to core meaning when ESPTs teach ETV items.

2.2. How ETV items should be taught?

The literature basically identified two types of vocabulary teaching approaches, i.e. direct and indirect vocabulary teaching. As DVT goes, Graves (2009) argues that rich instruction was supported by the five key principles from L2 teaching, which claim that: (1) instruction of vocabulary builds on what the students already know, therefore, using direct strategies like translation and cognates were successful in developing learners' vocabulary; (2) instruction is personalised to learners' needs: one example can be using student-friendly language; (3) vocabulary instruction is taught in a meaningful context, e.g. guessing from the reading context; (4) instruction of vocabulary is in-depth and comprehensive in the sense that it goes beyond surface-level definitions to cover a variety of vocabulary components, such as spelling-meaning connections and synonyms and antonyms and (5) the learning process takes a long time and the existence of the instruction, side-by-side, gives students the necessary academic support.

Hiebert and Kamil (2005) present the National Reading Panel project (NRP), held in the year 2000 in the United States, which extensively synthesises the results of instructional research on vocabulary from fifty studies that meet the quality requirements, and included seventy-three samples of students. Among the specific conclusions regarding direct vocabulary instruction that NRP provided are: (1) that there is a need for direct instruction of vocabulary items for a specific text and (2) dependence on a single vocabulary instruction method will not result in optimal learning. A variety of vocabulary instruction methods would be more effective in this respect.

A large number of articles on how to teach vocabulary directly (e.g. Scott & Nagy, 2004; Hiebert & Kamil, 2005; Baumann & Kameenui, 2004; Nation, 2001) has been written. Mezynski (1983) and Stahl & Fairbank (1986), for instance, are two studies that reviewed the direct instruction of vocabulary and concluded that, in order for it to be effective, it first needs to present multiple exposures of the words being taught: this is usually achieved by using recycling and repetition strategies. Secondly, it should involve breadth of information: this usually occurs when definitions are used jointly with other VTSs, like text guessing, exemplifications and the like. Finally, it should also involve depth. The depth of direct vocabulary instruction occurs when the student thinks and interacts with the word. Having both depth and breadth present in rich instruction of vocabulary will usually "establish networks of connections from the new words being learned to words, experiences, and ideas they already have" (McKeown & Beck, 2004:16).

The type of vocabulary that should be taught directly is of great importance in direct vocabulary teaching. The notion of 'tiers' is quite relevant to our discussion here. In Table 1 Nation (1990) stresses that a certain amount of time should be spent on teaching high-frequency words until the students have learnt them. He argues that academic vocabulary should be taught if the student is in upper high school or in tertiary education. He also advises that technical vocabulary should be taught directly by the subject teacher instead of the ESPT who can help mainly in the vocabulary learning strategies. By contrast, he cautions against teaching low-frequency vocabulary.

Table 1. Types of vocabulary, their features and implications for teaching. Source: Nation (1990).

Type of vocabulary	Number of words	Frequency	Implications for teaching and learning
High-frequency words	2.000	Occur frequently in all kinds of texts	Spend a lot of time on these words. Make sure they are learnt.
Academic vocabulary	800	Occurs frequently in most kinds of texts	If students are in upper secondary school or in tertiary education, spend a lot of time on these words. Make sure they are learnt.
Technical vocabulary	About 1.000 to 2,000 for each subject	Sometimes occurs frequently, in specialised texts	Learning the subject involves learning the vocabulary. Subject teachers can deal with the vocabulary, but the English teacher can help with learning strategies.
Low-frequency vocabulary	About 123.000	Does not occur very frequently	Teach strategies for dealing with these words. The words themselves do not warrant teaching time.

On the other hand, IVT, which revolves around training the students in using certain VLSs to learn ETV items independently, has also been highlighted in the literature. Rivers (1983) argues that language teachers can help students by giving them ideas on how to learn these words effectively. Gardner and MacIntyre (1992) believe that learning strategies are the milestones in language learning, since they help students retrieve and store material as well as facilitate learning by structuring its environment. Oxford (2001) claims that strategy use correlates with students' proficiency. With all these benefits sketched out, the good teacher is the one who teaches his/her students "how to learn, how to remember, how to think, and how to motivate themselves" (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986, p.315). Rasekh and Ranjbari (2003) argue that strategy instruction improves both the learning product (i.e. what to learn) and the process (i.e. how to learn). This happens, according to them, because vocabulary instruction enhances the students' awareness of how to learn effectively as well as to motivate them.

How the teacher indirectly (i.e. by teaching VLSs) teaches vocabulary is another vital topic in the ESP context. I believe that in order for VLSs to be considered as indirect vocabulary teaching, the teacher needs to create opportunities for such learning. This means that the teacher can encourage certain vocabulary activities, like bringing additional reading texts and training the students on using the strategy of guessing the meaning from the context. Outside the classroom, the teacher may ask the student to surf the Internet or go to their institution's library to look for particular technical words of Greek or Latin origin after training them on the word part strategy. Duke and Pearson (2002) identify five stages for teaching vocabulary indirectly and for transforming the strategy from the teacher to the students, as follows: (1) the teacher provides an explicit description of the strategy - when and how it should be used; (2) the teacher and/or student model the strategy in action; (3) collaborative use of strategy in action should follow; (4) students' use of strategy with gradual release under the guidance of the teacher and (5) students' independent use of strategy.

2.3. VTs and VDV for ETV items instruction

One of the important issues in teaching ETV items is which VTs and/or VDV should be used in a task that is vocabulary-focused (i.e. intentional vocabulary teaching), or a task which is not vocabulary-focused (i.e., incidental vocabulary teaching). However, deciding which VTs and/or VDV should be used by ESPTs and CATs is another form of the requisite collaboration when teaching ETV items.

Though a plethora of articles has been written about Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLSs), few empirically-oriented studies have been carried out about VTs. Consequently, no specialised taxonomy has been developed about VTs and all that is available about VTs is no more than honest advice from experienced researchers and teachers (cf. Öztürk, 2006).

For the sake of simplicity in this article, we will divide VTs into vocabulary for presentation and vocabulary for practice. The former are those concerned with introducing novel ETV items (e.g., definitions, exemplifications and real objects) while the latter are about already taught words (e.g., semantic mapping, synonyms and antonyms, and memory images). The presentation and practice VTs can be used directly and/or indirectly (see section 2.2), intentionally or incidentally, as we demonstrated earlier in this section, and may target different aspects of the lexical information of the ETV items. For example, if an ESP and/or CAT defined an ETV item for the first time in a task that is not vocabulary-focused to show the meaning to his students, we can say that the definition has been used incidentally and directly for meaning presentation. Equally, when word parts technique is used by a teacher to show the different parts of an ETV items in a task that is vocabulary-focused and in a revision class, it is a safe bet that word parts have been used intentionally and directly for form practice.

On the other hand, we need to know that VTs do not work in isolation of one another. Therefore, two or more techniques might couple up to help the teacher explain some particular information about a certain idea. Similarly, they could substitute for one another. Thus, a teacher in certain circumstances might prefer translations over definitions or semantic mapping over synonyms and antonyms.

VDV are not strategies in themselves, but rather a medium for transferring them. Therefore, VDV, such as audio-visual aids, flash cards and wall charts can all support the use of the main VTs.

2.4. Collaboration between ESPTs and CATs on the issue of 'who' and 'how'

This section looks closely at the pragmatic camp views about how collaboration should be exploited between ESPTs and CATs. Johns and Dudley-Evans (1980, p.7) believe that collaboration between ESPTs and CATs in overseas ESP contexts is a necessity, not a choice, and argue that:

"an overseas student's failure to keep pace with his course or with his research is rarely attributed to 'knowledge of the subject' or 'knowledge of the language' alone: most often, these factors are inextricably intertwined. If this work is separate, it is difficult for the subject teacher, and even more so for the language teacher, to take account of that intertwining".

They claim that such collaboration provides the students with immediate assistance with many linguistic difficulties as they arise in the subject class, and content challenges as they arise in the language one. However, I need to say that not all difficulties can be overcome by having both teachers responding immediately in the same class. Sometimes the ESPTs are likely to face certain linguistic difficulties that have some relation to the subject area, which cannot be solved immediately. By contrast, it can be claimed that pre-planned and well-prepared collaborative classes between both parties have more chance of cultivating better results in the ESP and content classes. I also believe that successful collaboration depends on the interaction between one or more of the following partners: the ESPT, the CAT, the student and the context. The idea of collaboration can also be exploited better by insisting that the students start their subject classes after grasping sufficient English to face the demands of their area of expertise (Dudley-Evans & Johns, 1980). Tabtabaei (2007) believes that ESPTs' success in team teaching depends on a mutual understanding between the parties about the students' needs analysis, syllabus design, material preparation and time given. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) argue that CATs and ESPTs can play the role of collaborators through three stages, which are: cooperation, collaboration and team-teaching. The cooperation stage, according to them, stands for the simple phase where the ESPT takes the initiative and enquires into the students' subject areas as well as into the tasks defining their target situation. Collaboration implies the mutual interest of both parties for the sake of the students. Collaboration usually takes different formats, as (1) CATs provide the topic, i.e. 'real content' to introduce the linguistic side - the "carrier content"; (2) ESPTs prepare students linguistically to have the necessary competence in academic situations, and (3) CATs guide ESPTs in selecting the topic relevant to the subject-matter. Team-teaching is the last resort where both types of teacher work jointly and each party focuses on his/her area.

Chamberlain (1980) stresses that collaboration between the ESPTs and CATs should not be simplified as merely collaboration between one type of ESPT and one type of CAT. Rather, he argues that it involves: (1) collaboration between recruited ESPTs themselves; (2) collaboration between local ESPTs themselves; (3) collaboration between ESPTs and recruited CATs and (4) collaboration between both recruited and local ESPTs and CATs. However, this division seems to concentrate on collaboration from two different areas, which are the nativity and type of the teacher. The issue of nativity can, in my opinion, be criticised by saying that not all recruited teachers are native speakers.

Neither should collaboration be seen as always being a problem-free task. Widdowson (1978) believes that team-teaching is costly in terms of time and is more situated at the secondary level than at the tertiary level. Moreover, I think that collaboration needs each party to eliminate from themselves the authoritative spirit, and to be prepared and ready to collaborate whenever and wherever needed. Each party also needs to know precisely what is needed from him/her when a classroom-based collaboration is in action, which is usually an inconvenient task for some teachers, and YIC is no exception in this matter.

3. The study

3.1. Study framework and design

Because triangulating methods reduce observer and interviewer bias and enhance the validity and reliability of the information (Johnson, 1992), I used the pre-observation semi-structured interview to investigate the practitioners' beliefs on several issues, i.e. beliefs on ETV teaching strategies and techniques, the roles of ESPTs and CATs and the impact of other

wider issues on the act of teaching technical vocabulary. Observation in this study examines the actual practices of teachers in their classrooms. The post-observation interview, i.e. stimulated recall, connects the beliefs to the practices and seeks out further interpretations from the participants.

Figure 1: Study design

(Pre-observation semi-structured interview) *Investigating beliefs.*

Mostly 2 weeks before the observation

(Semi-structured observation) *Investigating practices*



(Post-observation email interviews) *Investigating beliefs and practices*

3.4. Main study

3.4.1. Study participants and target population

The target population of this study was the ESPTs (totaling roughly 60 male ESPTs with only six selected for participation) and the CATs (totaling roughly 120 male CATs with only six selected for participation) at YIC. Appendix (A) displays and summarises the participants' profiles. The participants specialised mainly in four different disciplines, which are electronics, electricity, mechanics and management with different teaching experiences.

3.4.2. Permission obtained

Two types of permission were obtained prior to conducting this study. The first permission was obtained through the authorities - 'gatekeepers' - of the college. The second permission was a thorough informed consent form, which I obtained from the University of Essex, who approved my application as ethical prior to conducting the study. All the must-be-known information was prepared in a two-sheet form by the researcher. The participants were carefully introduced to the nature of the study. However, they were not informed about the focus of this study "for fear that it might affect their behaviors" (Wu & Badger, 2009, p.32).

3.5. Data Collection

3.5.1 Pre-observation semi-structured interviews

This instrument was employed prior to the classroom observations essentially to examine the participants' beliefs (see figure 1) from different angles. Among the other objectives of the pre-interviews are: to obtain the initial general background information for both ESPTs and CATs; to check the extent to which ESPTs and CATs view teaching technical

vocabulary as a problem; and to investigate the information on the wider (non-linguistic) issues that influence both parties' beliefs about collaboration and, therefore, inform their practices.

The pre-interview questions were divided mainly into three parts. Part two of this instrument was the essence of this work since it includes actual beliefs regarding the teaching of ETV items by ESPTs and CATs. Therefore, the issues of teachers' beliefs on who should teach EVT items, and ESPTs' and CATs' beliefs on how ETV items should be taught, were all addressed. To this end, the following two main questions were asked:

- a. In your opinion, who should teach ETV: ESPTs and/or CATs?
- b. Why should ETV be taught by those you mentioned?

The two main questions were then followed by other questions from pre-designed prompt cards to find out more about the participants' beliefs.

3.5.2. Semi-structured observations

The observation sheet was designed to contain both a checklist and space for free field notes to check the participants' practices. As far as the researcher role is considered, I decided to be a non-participant observer. Nearly every participant was observed three times. The researcher was basically observing the ESPTs and CATs with the intention of comparing their actual practices with their previously stated beliefs. However, his presence, as a non-participant outsider (i.e. not a member of staff in the college or broadly within the Royal Commission of Yanbu Industrial City with no evaluative purposes, made the participants feel more comfortable and reduced the risk of 'observers' paradox'. This can normally lead to observing more natural behaviours. All the lessons were fully audio-recorded. Recordings were used for more careful revision afterwards. Each recording took approximately 50 minutes for one lecture or approximately 90 minutes if there were two lectures combined. No breaks took place between lectures.

3.5.3. Post-observation semi-structure E-mailing interviews (stimulated recall)

After having a cursory look over the participants' pre-observation interviews and observation records, the researcher immediately post-interviewed the participants in order to compare their beliefs with their practices. The researcher was forced to email the stimulated recall interviews to the participants because they were fully occupied with certain office work in preparation for the APTE assessment. They were specifically awaiting an overseas team, which was coming from the U.S. for this purpose and they did not have time for long post-interviews in the college. Moreover, the time given to the data collection by the study sponsor was quite limited. The participants and I agreed to have email post-interviewing asynchronously (i.e. I would email them the interview questions and audio files and would wait for their replies later at an agreed time rather than immediate 'chat-like' responses).

3.6. Data analysis

3.6.1. Data transcription, reduction and coding

After the study instruments had been designed, piloted, modified and used to explore the research questions, the data were ready for the transcribing process. In the transcribing stage, participants' interviews, observations (the field notes part) and stimulated recalls were all transferred into written texts.

Prior to looking at the data transcripts, I set up some essential rules to systemise the data analysis stage; I employed some advice from the literature (e.g. grounded systematic analysis, Creswell, 2007; 'start list', Miles and Huberman, 1994, and Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; qualitative content analysis, i.e. mainly coding for themes, looking for patterns and making interpretations (Dornyei, 2007, p. 246). I also used my own model of data analysis, which fits the purpose of the study. This decision totally conforms to Cohen and his colleagues (2007, p. 461) argument that "there is no one single or correct way to analyze and present qualitative data; how one does it should abide by fitness to the purpose." The data were then reduced by eliminating unnecessary parts. This procedure conforms to Dornyei (2007), the main objective of data reduction being to prepare the data for analysis by reducing the number of variables to a manageable size. Data reduction was then followed by data coding, which features different stages, such as the: chunking stage, summarising stage, and transferring and stacking stage. Finally, the emerging codes were revisited for further interpretation and sharper refining.

4. The findings

The participants' beliefs about the issues of *who* and *how* have been derived from different sources and due to space limitations, we will focus only on the findings taken from the workshops they attended, on the one hand, and the informal meetings they had with their same type colleagues, on the other. Some other inevitable findings will be presented when needed.

4.1. Practitioners' workshop-based beliefs about the issues of who

ESPTs said they attended workshops that informed their beliefs about the issue of who should teach ETV items. These workshops addressed the two following topics:

1. Teaching ETV as a controversial task.
2. ETV teaching as the job of CATs.

The first topic, according to a few ESPTs, was addressed during their MA studies or in organised workshops.

ESP JB, for example, attended a seminar on the issue of 'who' and said:

"I went to a conference in Oregon and we covered some material there about who should teach technical vocabulary also, because we were doing ESP." (ESP JB)

Some ESPTs, who attended workshops that addressed the issue of 'who should teach ETV', revealed that CATs were sometimes seen to be more responsible for this task. They also demonstrated that they were satisfied with, and convinced by, the overall outcome(s) of these sessions, which view teaching ETV items as the job of both parties.

On the other hand, a very few CATs said they attended a short course on who should teach ETV items. CAT AN, for example, mentioned:

"As I told you, I attended one of these courses in my country; it was part of the curriculum in teaching methods."
(CAT AN)

In a follow-up question about his opinion about the outcomes of that course, he added that he agreed with the recommendations of that course, which views ETV teaching as the job of CATs rather than of LISPTs.

"They told us clearly that it will go to the side of the CAT people only." (CAT AN)

However, what makes CAT AN's experience different is considering ESPTs not to be responsible for teaching ETV items at all, which is a view that is contrary to everyone else in this study.

4.2. Practitioners' workshop-based beliefs on the issue of how

The study found that ESPTs who attended workshops or sessions on how to teach ETV items or vocabulary in general have the following two beliefs:

1. They agree with the outcome(s) of these sessions that ETV teaching should be started by ESPTs until the students reach a certain level, which enables them to enroll in the content area classes; then, the task should be transferred to the CATs. ESP JB, for example, said:

"I agree. Weak students definitely should have ESP first. They probably should take some kind of ESP or they should do some self-study and if you can get the books beforehand, give them to the students and then let them work with the book before they go to content classes." (ESP JB)

In a follow-up question, ESP JB mentioned that '(he booh' he meant are the technical English books and information sheets, not those which the students will study in the subject classes. Viewing ESPTs as primary providers by ESP JB seems to be in conflict with the view of CAT AN in the previous section which sees no value at all from ESPTs teaching ETV items.

2. They also reported that they were sometimes obliged by the workshop organisers, who have close contact with YIC administration, to follow the advice of these workshops and sessions, although they believe the advice given is not always reliable.

On the contrary, all CATs reported that they have never attended any workshops or sessions specifically on how to teach ETV items in particular, or how to teach vocabulary in general. CAT ZU said:

"We used to have two or three workshops regarding curriculum development and all those relevant issues. So, we normally attend but we never come across technical issues, you know, like technical vocabulary." (CAT ZU)

4.3. Practitioners' beliefs among themselves on the issue of who

The study found that ESPTs have discussed this issue of who should teach ETV items through informal chats (no formal meetings took place) in their spare time. The outcome(s) of these chats among ESPTs showed two opinions, as follows:

1. It is the job of both ESPTs and CATs, with CATs doing most of it.

Some ESPTs said they believed that teaching ETV items is a joint task between both types of teachers. Nevertheless, CATs are subject experts and, therefore, they should undertake most of this task.

"What happened is we try just to teach the basic stuff that relate to these words according to their context and stuff. After that, you know, we don't deal with the extra stuff - that's their domain over there." (ESP MD)

In his answer to a follow-up question, ESP MD explained that by the '*stuff*' he meant the basic lexical information about the novel ETV item, such as its simple definition which avoids purely technical vocabulary, its translation, or its basic form knowledge, like how to pronounce it, spell it or write it. ESP MD also confirmed that he said '*after that*' to show that ETV items' basic stuff should be taught firstly by ESPTs, then the CATs should deal with the word properly in their classes.

2. No opinions were given.

Some ESPTs said they did not discuss this issue with their colleagues for different reasons, such as the sensitivity of the topic, time shortage and viewing it as not being an important issue. As far as the sensitivity of the topic goes. ESPT MD said:

"Those topics are taboos here because some people aren't open and may say, Okay. "Who are you to say who is going to teach what?' So, why should we discuss that?" (ESP MD)

On the other hand, CATs showed also two beliefs on the issue of who should teach ETV items, as follows:

1. ETV teaching is basically the job of CATs. ESPTs can help in equipping the students with the basics of the ETV item meaning(s). According to some CATs, the '*basics*' of the meaning involve both the simple definitional and simple encyclopedic information. CAT AN, for example, demonstrated that ESPTs can explain the meaning of 'transformer' with a translation into Arabic or a definition as a 'piece of equipment that changes one voltage into another', leaving the CAT to deal with the concepts of voltage and how it relates to current change and the details of how transformers are made (large ones with coils of wire in oil-filled tanks, or small ones with semi-conductors etc.).

CATs did not stress the issue of who should start this job (i.e., ESPTs or CATs) but instead they valued cooperation in this matter. To clarify why ESPTs should only deal with the basics of meaning, CAT AL pointed out that diversity within every content area requires specialised teachers, which is a difficult task for English language teachers:

"Because we have different specialisations like economic, accounting, finance, management, materials, office, there are so many things. So. I believe we are able to relate the meaning of these technical words with our technical fields which is normally difficult for the English teacher to do." (CAT AL)

2. Like ESPTs, a few CATs did not give any opinion on this issue but just mentioned that they did not discuss it with their CAT colleagues therefore they have no beliefs regarding this issue.

4.4. Practitioners' beliefs among themselves on the issue of *how*

The study found that the issue of how ETV items should be taught was discussed informally among ESPTs. The purpose, according to most of them, was to exchange ideas and transmit experiences to each other. A few of them stated that they sometimes talk about the suitability of some techniques to their students. In general, the interviews revealed the two following findings:

1. Some ESPTs believe in using certain ETV techniques, such as recycling, repetition and building word lists.
2. Some ESPTs believe that the issues of selecting, which are outside the scope of this study, and presenting ETV items, are always involved in teaching them. According to one ESP participant, teaching ETV items does not only mean using the proper technique(s), but also involves considering other aspects, like students' readiness and the contextual constraints.

"When we do get together, we talk about different techniques and different ways other teachers teach and we do get into the, what you call, the uses of technical vocabulary and how it should be presented and how it should be repeated, how it should be recycled and that kind of thing. We also talk about the students and whether they are ready for these techniques and whether we can use them or not." (ESP JB)

CATs, in turn, have their own beliefs on how ETV items should be taught. Again, they mentioned that this issue was mainly discussed informally. The study found that CATs have three opinions regarding the issue as follows:

- 1 - A very few CATs said they discussed using with their colleagues techniques such as: dictionary use, speaking activities, synonyms, collocations, associations and body actions, and said that they believe they are useful. A few CATs talked about discussing the usefulness of using unified teaching techniques among CATs.

- 2 - Like ESPTs, most CATs mentioned that they discussed the issues of selecting and presenting ETV items informally with their colleagues. At the level of selection, for example, one CAT participant said:

"Sometimes when we meet together we say, 'okay these words will be taught next year in this and that field.' When we agree about these words and these particular phrases, we informally say it has to be taught properly." (CAT AN)

- 3- A few CATs believe that they do not, and will not, discuss this issue because it is time-consuming, on the one hand, and because every CAT is aware of what he should do, on the other.

"Actually education has said its word in this regard. (The) CAT knows how to teach technical words" (CAT ZU)

4.5. Practitioners' practices on the issue of *who* and *how*

The classroom observations revealed an adequate overlap in teaching ETV items between ESPTs and CATs. Both parties taught these types of word directly and indirectly. The frequency of use of different VTS and VDV was classified basically into:

- A. Frequent techniques:** This refers to techniques used more than three times in a single lesson. They are divided into Most-Frequent Techniques (MFT) and Less-Frequent Techniques (LFT). (MFT) refers to techniques used frequently by all participants while (LFT) refers to techniques used frequently by the majority (but not all) of the participants.
- B. Used techniques:** This refers to techniques used three times or less by the participants in a single lesson other than the frequent techniques. They are also divided into Most-Used Techniques (MUT) and Less-Used Techniques (LUT). (MUT) refers to techniques used three times by some participants in a single lesson whereas (LUT) refers to techniques used less than three times by some participants.

Table 2 summarises the findings of the classroom observations regarding the use of these techniques by both ESPTs and CATs.

Table 2: Frequent and used techniques by ESPTs and CATs taken from the classroom observations

ESPTs Frequent techniques		ESPTs Used techniques		CATs Frequent techniques		CATs Used techniques	
MFT	LFT	MUT	LUT	MFT	LFT	MUT	LUT
Pictures, body actions, definitions	Dictionary use, translations, synonyms and	conversations and dialogues	Associations, real objects, word parts	definitions	Synonyms and antonyms, recycling, pictures	Board drawing	Body actions, word parts, memory images

5. Discussion

The initial views that teaching ETV items is a joint task between both parties, with CATs more responsible regarding it coincide with many proponents of the pragmatic camp (e.g., Jones, 1990; Koh and Wong, 1990; Boyd, 1991; Chung and Nation, 2003; Nation, 1990; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans & St. Johns, 1998) who all stress that ESPTs and CATs can share the job of teaching ETV items since it cannot be done effectively by one party. They believe that ESPTs lack the proper content knowledge and therefore they should take care of the linguistic aspects of the ETV items. This also conforms to Nation (1990) who argues that ESPTs can help the learners with the VLS that help them to learn the required ETV (i.e. IVT) while the actual DVT remains the job of the CATs. Conversely, this trend contradicts Hyland (2002)

who emphasises that ESPTs need to understand subject-specialist topics and synthesise the information in order for it to be presented accurately.

The issue of the workshops regarding 'who should teach ETV revealed a mismatch between the ESPTs' self-reported practices and their stated beliefs. Although most ESPTs reported that they agree on the advice of those workshops that view teaching ETV as mainly the job of the CATs, as discussed before, they showed noticeable enthusiasm in listing different techniques that they believe they should use directly which is usually the job of the CATs. The same level of inconsistency continued to appear in the issue of 'how F.TV items should be taught'. For example, most of the ESPTs believe in the advice that they should teach ETV items to a certain level and hand the rest over to the CATs. However, this belief mismatched their self-reported practices since they reported that they engage themselves in advanced teaching levels using direct and more specialised techniques for this purpose. CATs were more consistent in this regard since they mentioned that teaching ETV items is their job regardless of the very few sessions they attended during their career.

The final point that needs to be discussed is the noticeable agreement between ESPTs and CATs that DVT strategies for meaning presentation and practice should be used. This actually confirms the findings of the self-reported practices from different angles. To mention a few, it emphasises that teachers believe they should use different strategies based on the nature of their lessons and may consequently end up teaching ETV items directly and indirectly; it shows that teachers need to concentrate on different aspects of the ETV items and finally, it emphasises the fact that both parties sometimes use individual, joint or preferred VTVs and VDV based on the contextual and situational factors in their educational setting.

6. Conclusions, pedagogical implications and future research

It goes without saying that collaboration in teaching ETV items between language and subject teachers in any ESP context is a critical issue which provides a systematic road map for teaching these types of word effectively, both inside and outside the classroom. This study suggested some pedagogical implications to exploit the findings about collaboration between ESPTs and CATs at YIC from different angles.

First of all, following Chung & Nation (2003), ESPTs are encouraged to deal with the linguistic aspects of the ETV items and to equip the students with the necessary VLS so that they can learn new technical vocabulary independently. Similarly, CATs are encouraged to take care of the subject-knowledge aspects of the same ETV items and to be involved directly in teaching them.

Secondly, knowing what each party should do is, by itself, insufficient; therefore, team-teaching suggested by different researchers (e.g., Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998) seems to provide an ideal solution for the challenges each party faces since it familiarises each party with his/her role and responsibilities.

Thirdly, teachers in the target context seem to experience poverty of communication. Many participants revealed that no formal or informal gatherings take place between ESPTs and CATs; equally, rare informal chats seem to occur between the teachers from the same areas of expertise. Thus, exchanging ideas, improving teaching methodologies and detecting areas of strengths and weaknesses of the students, are just a few examples of the areas that will be affected by

such ignorance. Teachers and officials within the college are highly encouraged to rethink the many benefits associated with sitting around the table to discuss different instructional issues of mutual interest.

Finally, it is highly advised that CATs need to understand that they perform a joint task with ESPTs in which each party integrates with, and complements, the other. Therefore, CATs are warned that failing to eliminate authoritative behaviours will gradually hinder the overall objectives of the collaborative teaching between them and their ESPT colleagues.

Future requisite research about this under-researched area is enormous; however, it can be a reliable idea to conduct a future study that scans all the overlapping ETV items between ESP and content area courses. Though this work requires much time and may be hindered by the frequent changes of the textbooks, it opens the door for establishing real cooperation, collaboration and team-work between the two types of teacher. It will also help the practitioners to select shared vocabulary based on a real needs analysis, which is central to any ESP context.

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Appendix: A Participants' background information

Participant	Type	Degree held	Teaching experience	Major	Nationality	Module observed at YIC
ESPNS	ESPT	BATEFL	12 yrs	TEFL	Jordanian	OO Technical English
ESPNL	ESP	MSc. in ESP	18 yrs.	ESP	Jordanian	Business English 012
ESPJB	ESP	Bain Education & TESOL Certificate	19 yrs.	TESOL	American	001 Technical English
ESPPM	ESP	BA in Social Sciences	27 yrs.	Social Sciences	British Technical	002
ESPWH	ESP	Bain Linguistics	7 yrs.	Linguistics	Saudi	012 Business English
ESPM D	ESP	MA in Language & Literature	8 yrs.	Language & Literature	American	001 Technical English
CATZU	CAT Elect.	BA in Electronics	21 yrs.	Electronics	Indian	Electronic Troubleshooting & Maintenance
CAT AN	CAT Elect.	BA in Electrical Power	18 yrs.	Electrical Power	Indian	Electrical Troubleshooting
CATMZ	CAT Mech.	MA in Mechanical Engineering	18 yrs.	Manufacturing	Indian	Machine Process (II)
CATAL	CAT Econ.	MA in Finance	3.5 yrs.	Economics	Pakistani	Introduction to Economics
CATVN	CAT Mang m.	Ph.D. in Management	10 yrs.	General Management	Filipino	Industrial Supervision
CAT KU Mech.	1 CAT	MA in Mechanical Engineering	12 yrs.	Mechanical Engineering	Indian	Equipment Maintenance

**MISCONCEPTIONS OF DRAMA AS A TEACHING TOOL IN THE ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN
LANGUAGE TEACHING SPHERE (A CASE STUDY OF TWO PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN TBILISI-
GEORGIA)**

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Abstract

Many educators in schools have misconceived the use of drama as a tool in teaching English Language in classrooms. Meanwhile, educational drama as a pedagogy reaches beyond the stage through to the classroom (Anton, 2010). Drama has the power to be used as a tool for cross-curricular explorations; also, "drama can occupy a place in the curriculum: (a) as a separate subject; (b) as a method for teaching other subjects; or (c) as a component subject in an integrated approach to planning. Of course, there is a close affinity between (b) and (c), but it is worth thinking about these separately, because more possibilities are opened when drama is conceived as a subject of integration" (Bax, 2000). The subtle difference is that a "more integrated approach will pay a due attention to the learning outcomes of both subjects, seeking to blend them" (Fleming, 1994). A study was conducted on the perceptions of teachers and administrations as regards the use of drama in teaching ESL and the findings are such as a result of limited knowledge. This research, however, shows that there has not been enough knowledge on the issue among the teachers there are few skilled teachers who consider using drama as a tool in teaching English language in schools in Tbilisi-Georgia.

Keywords: educational drama, pedagogy, English language teaching, curriculum, educators, methods of teaching

Introduction

The use of drama in the teaching of languages in general is not a new approach—it can be traced back to the 19th century (Schewe, 2007). Since the late 1970s, with the increasing prevalence of the Communicative Approach, the method has been an integral part of foreign language teaching – for the area of English as a foreign language, see, for example, Via's (1976) *English in Three Acts*. The author draws on his teaching experiences in Japan with his theatrical company Model Productions and the related Model Language Studios. Today it is evident that many educational administrators in schools, colleges and Universities, as well as Language Institutes have not explored the full capacity and advantages that drama has to offer in teaching English as a second language or as a foreign language and so learners do not benefit sufficiently from what it has to offer.

To many, drama is simply a reenactment of 'real life or imagined experiences' that is written out as in a play text or that is performed on stage or in any location. Even though this is an appropriate definition of what drama is, it is only the basics and having this mentality means limiting the scope of what drama is all about. Drama is more than the play text; performance is only the outcome of the whole process.

Drama is a whole process. Scholars have shed light on this, for example, Anton (2010) explains: "Drama in education (DIE) as a generic title for the use of *process drama*, through which themes, ideas and characterizations are explored by utilizing a variety of drama techniques including role play, the making of tableaux or still images, whole group improvisations the devising of short prepared improvisations (for which children work in small groups and presents to others), questioning in role or hot-seating of characters, and so forth" (Anton, 2010, p. 242).

Teaching has got an additional potent method which is found in drama and drama has moved from its conventional place (the theatre) to the classroom because of its distinctive potential to engage reflective, constructivist and active learning in the classroom as well as enhance oral skills' development (Di Pietro, 1987; Via, 1976; Heathcote cited in Wagner, 1976; Mezirow, 1990).

From these two points of view we understand that drama is a process, a process with a goal. Therefore, drama should not be limited to the goal or outcome that most people, especially education administrators, have about it. It is crippling to see how those who manage educational process debase the value and the effect that drama has in learning languages; the English language inclusive.

What then is the way out for language educators and education managers? The way to empower students' learning the English language is to inculcate drama in the EFL curriculum. In the UK, there is a clear distinction between teaching English in British state schools and TEFL, because they are two worlds apart. To teach English to native speakers is different from teaching to foreigners and so different methodologies are adopted. But now "there are certainly, signs of more communication-TEFL teachers are realizing that they can learn from good practice in British state schools, for example in the teaching of drama, the use of drama in teaching language, in the teaching of literature, the use of the nature of English itself" (Bax, 2000, p. 119).

Methodology

Model of the Study

A qualitative research method was used in the current study. The aim of qualitative researchers is to concentrate on the place of an enquiry - on the social phenomena and to help project the feelings and perceptions of the participants under study. This direction is stirred from the understanding that knowledge is derived from the social setting, so having a grasp of social knowledge is a legitimate scientific process (Marguerite, Dean, & Katherine, 2010).

According to Bell (2005), "the case study approach can be particularly appropriate for individual researchers because it provides an opportunity for one aspect of a problem to be studied in some depth." The focus of this study was to ascertain the attitudes of private school teachers towards using drama as a method of teaching the English language in classrooms. The researcher has chosen this case study because it gives him the opportunity to explore the feelings and perceptions of the participants under study.

Participants

The participants of the study were selected via maximum variation sampling that is one of the purposive sampling techniques. Maximum variation sampling consists of choosing participants or sites that are very distinct or different (Schreiber & Asner-Self, 2011). The participants consisted of 10 private school teachers - from two different schools, located in city of Tbilisi, Georgia. They are teaching both at primary and high schools levels.

Data Collection Tools

The major data collection tools used in qualitative research are observations, interviews, phone interviews, personal and official documents, pictures, drawings, diaries, emails, and other informal documents (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006). In the current study, the data were collected through semi-structured interviews in April 2017. Semi-structured interviews are designed to have a number of interviewer questions prepared in advance but these prepared questions are designed to be sufficiently open that the subsequent questions of the interviewer cannot be planned in advance, but must be improvised in a careful and theorized way (Wengraf, 2001). The following questions were asked to the participants during the face-to-face interviews:

- 1- What do you know about the drama method?
- 2- What do you think about the use of drama as an education method in EFL teaching courses?
- 3- How do you employ it in courses? (Preparations)
- 4- What are the effects of drama on students? (Advantages and disadvantages)
- 5- What are the contributions of drama to teachers?
- 6- What teachers should do in order to effectively use this method? What are your suggestions?

Data Analysis

In qualitative data analysis, certain steps are followed: select an interview or set of field notes to review; review the data and think about ideas, behaviors, or other issues that seem important; highlight the part of the data (for example, segment of text or images) that relates to this idea and create a code word or phrase; write the code in the margins; continue

creating codes for the entire interview or field note; make a list of all codes created for this data set (Marguerite et al., 2010).

In order to establish internal validity, the developed interview form was analyzed by the researcher. Then the items of the form were reorganized based on the views of the researcher and the form was finalized. In order to establish external validity, the form was used in a pilot study with one teacher. The answers given to the items were recorded and transcribed. Then the correlation between the items and the answers was analyzed in terms of the appropriateness of the items.

After the interviews with all the participants, the audio recordings were transcribed. According to the descriptive analysis method, these transcripts were analyzed by the researcher independently and then coded. The findings of the coding are outlined and explained below.

Findings of the First Theme

The first theme of the study concerns the answers of classroom teachers to the question “what do you know about the drama method?” Table 1 shows the sub-themes and relevant frequency.

Table 1. Definition of Drama. Knowledge of the drama method developed by the participants

Drama Perceptions of participants	frequency
Role Play	6
Learning by doing and experiencing	3
Play performance	1
Re-enactment of events /Story telling	1

Many participants in the study seem to have little knowledge on the drama method as the only drama activity they are aware of is role plays. They tend to use it to teach vocabulary, also the learning and doing method. Largely, their concept of drama is only limited to play performances and re-enactment of events and storytelling.

Findings of the Second Theme

The second theme of the study concerns the teachers’ answers to the question, “what do you think about the use of drama as teaching method in EFL?”

Table 2 shows the sub-themes and relevant frequency.

Table 2. The use of drama as an education method in teaching EFL classes

Views of the participants regarding the use of drama as an Education method in EFL	frequency
Helps to practice adopt real life situations	3
As a supplement to using technology	2
Effective in teaching different skills	1
Tool for motivating students learning	1
No idea	1

Some of the participants stated that drama especially role plays helps pupils to take up real life characters and in the process, aids their learning Some participants argue that it would only be useful to teach speaking skills. Others argued that the use of drama in teaching English lessons depends on the nature of the units. They added that it is suitable for some units, but not all. However, there are also some participants who argued that the drama method can be employed for all study topics depending on how it is designed. Finally, a participant doesn't even have a clue about the drama method.

Findings of the Third Theme

The third theme of the study concerns the answers of classroom teachers to the question, "How do you employ it in courses?"

Table 3. The sub-themes and relevant frequency

Views of the participants regarding effects of drama on teachers	Frequency
Without Preparation	1
Preparation	3
Forehand notice of drama performance	1
Speaking lessons (Role Play)	1
Teacher's guide	2
Differing approach	1

One participant employs drama activities spontaneously without having really to prepare for it ahead of the classes. While others peg it as an activity in their lesson plan either to teach vocabulary or enhance their speaking classes. Other participants follow the teacher's guide of the course textbooks used for ideas Meanwhile other participants seldom use it in their approach to teaching rather they use other teaching methods.

Findings of the fourth theme

The fourth theme of the study concerns the answers of classroom teachers to the question: What are the effects of drama on students? (Advantages and disadvantages) "

Table 4. The sub-themes and the relevant frequency

Views of the participants regarding effects of drama on teachers	Frequency
Advantages:	
Increased motivation for learning	2
Facilitates learning	2
Builds speaking confidence	4
Develops creativity & opportunities	4
Engagement of students' mind & body	4
Disadvantages	
Can be chaotic	4
Trouble in class management	2
Consumes time	2

One of the participants listed the following advantages of using drama in the class while teaching English to pupils: aiding auditory and kinesthetic learners; bringing pupils to practice what they have learnt in class through re-enactment of real life situations; while building confidence in the seemingly shy pupils are able to speak better English in public.

Other participants listed other advantages like motivation and pupil's active involvement while they all agreed that such classes can be chaotic due to the lack of good management.

Findings of the Fifth Theme

The fifth theme of the study concerns teachers' answers to the question: "What are the effects of drama on teachers?"

Table 5. The sub-themes and the relevant frequency

Views of the participants regarding effects of drama on teachers	Frequency
Apprehension of pupils by teachers	2
Information on their pupils' creativity	2
Feedback on pupils' learning	2
Adaptation to a system of problem solving	3
No answer	1

One participant mentioned that many teachers do not use drama method of teaching and are still stuck with the Grammar-Translation Method, especially in the public schools, probably because they do not know about it or lack the skill to use it in their teaching.

One participant spoke about the advantage teachers have in the process of using drama method in EFL teaching, in particular, role plays, as they ascertain their pupils' speaking skills and creativity.

Lastly, another participant sees role play as a source of getting feedback from pupils concerning what has been taught in classes.

Findings of the Sixth Theme

The sixth theme of the study concerns the teachers' answers to the question: "What should be done to improve the efficacy of drama in classrooms?" Table 6 shows the sub-themes and the relevant frequency.

Table 6. Views about the Effective Use of Drama in English classes

Participants' views regarding effects of drama on teachers	frequency
a) Suggestions for school administration	2
Should encourage teachers to use drama in teaching EFL	2
Should provide appropriate materials to help aid drama usage	
b) Suggestions for teachers	
o They should include it in their syllabus	2
o They should be prepared to use drama in teaching	2
o They should be trained on drama usage in teaching	2
o They should read and use books on drama application in education	1
o They should learn to manage drama activities in class	3
c) Suggestions for Ministry of Education	
o Drama should be included in school curriculum	1
o Drama method should be included in teaching	3

One of the participants mentioned that teachers should be prepared to use drama in teaching. They can do this by learning about the pupils' cultures in order to decide which approach to use while thinking of engaging them with drama in EFL classes.

Another participant who also happens to be an EFL administrator encourages other administrators to introduce more of drama activities and methodology to their English syllabus; she thinks that administrators should support teachers in achieving it while teaching through in-house trainings or sending teachers for special trainings to help them.

Finally, this participant urged the Ministry of Education to carry out extensive research on how drama can be used as a method and, in turn, train teachers to use it in their classrooms, especially in public schools and, lastly, to inculcate it in the school curriculum.

Conclusions and Discussion

The findings of the study which aimed to identify teachers' views on the use of drama as a teaching method in classrooms show that the participants regard drama largely as role plays. On the other hand, the participants also conceptualized drama as learning through doing and play.

The findings also show that drama method sometimes is confused with theatrical performances which could be limiting in its application to English language teaching. Regarding the use of drama method, the participants reported different ways of using it. Some of them inform the students before using it in classroom, others make preparations for role plays in their lesson plans, while others use some form of drama without any preparation whenever they feel that the use of drama method is appropriate.

The participants stated that teaching through drama method has both positive and negative effects in the classroom, but positive ones by far exceed the negative ones. The negative aspect could only arise when there are little or no skills in managing the class.

Regarding the effects of drama method use on teachers, the participants stated that it may have positive or negative effects. As a positive effect, it was reported that the use of drama method makes English lessons more exciting, especially for pupils. On the other hand, some participants stated that during drama method activities teachers become guides to the students' other than taking their teaching roles. This report supports the finding of Toivanen et al.'s (2011) study in which they argued that teachers have active roles to play during drama activities.

Participants provided several suggestions on how to improve the effectiveness of the drama method. These suggestions are for school administrations, teachers, and the Ministry of Science Education of Georgia. These suggestions may help to solve the problems faced during the teaching of English in classrooms. They outline ideas such as to carry out extensive research on how drama can be used as a method and in turn train teachers to use it in their classrooms, especially in public schools and lastly inculcate it in the school curriculum.

Overall, it is clear that the knowledge and application of drama method is only limited to role plays and performances, there is no room for engaging reflective, constructivist and active learning in the classroom as well as

enhancement of oral skills as expressed by (Di Pietro, 1987; Via, 1976; Wagner, 1976; Mezirow, 1990). Role plays and performances as explained by the teachers are not well done and not enough to help pupils reflect on their learning because it all seem like fun alone to them.

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PERFECTIONISM AND SELF-HANDICAPPING BEHAVIORS OF GIFTED STUDENTS

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Abstract

Based on the possible connection between gifted students' self-handicapping behaviors and perfectionism, the present study reviews the research literature and examines the possible reasons behind self-handicapping. The main questions behind the literature review are:

- Is there an association between perfectionism and self-handicapping?
- What are implications of self-handicapping and perfectionism for gifted learners?
- What kind of interventions, services, or strategies can help to overcome self-handicapping behaviors?

Keywords: Gifted Students, Neurotic, Healthy Perfectionism, Self-Handicapping, Perfectionism.

Introduction: Perfectionism

Perfectionism is a personal tendency to do something perfectly, considered as a common characteristic among gifted students (Hebert, 2010; Neumeister, 2007; Parker, 2000). Based on the literature, it is controversial whether perfectionism is a positive characteristic and needs to be nurtured or it is a destructive factor for gifted learners (Greenspon, 2000; Hebert, 2010). The main motivation behind the discussion is different categories of perfectionism and their implications for gifted students.

Healthy and unhealthy, or called neurotic, perfectionism is a commonly accepted category by researchers and applied in perfectionism studies. According to Silverman (1999), healthy perfectionism is a positive characteristic which can facilitate students' achievement, self-esteem, and development for excellence, whereas unhealthy or neurotic perfectionism undermines students' achievement and self-concept and can lead to procrastination, anxiety, stress, and avoidance behaviors. While healthy perfectionists enjoy dealing with highly challenging tasks and seek excellence, neurotic perfectionists do not have the same experience, since performance is never good enough based on their unrealistic expectations (Greenspon, 2000; Hamachek, 1978, as cited in Parker, 2000; Kearns et al., 2008; Hebert, 2010).

Hewitt and Flett (1991) proposed a different categorization that suggest three dimensions of perfectionism: self-oriented, other-oriented, and socially-prescribed. Perfectionists with self-orientation set high standards for their performance and evaluate their achievement based on these self-set standards. Other-oriented perfectionists have very high expectations from people in their lives, and lastly socially-prescribed perfectionists perceive other people as having perfectionist standards for themselves. Perfectionism may have both healthy and unhealthy implications for these dimensions, but obviously other-oriented and socially prescribed perfectionism are more detrimental for social development and interactions.

The study by Parker (2000) shows that most of the gifted students have a healthy perfectionism, a smaller percentage is non-perfectionist, but still a significant amount of gifted students suffer from unrealistic expectations and unhealthy perfectionism. In terms of academic success, they push for the highest grades and even may not be satisfied with a possible highest test score (Adelson, 2007), which in turn may lead to some social and emotional issues for gifted students, such as anxiety, depression, stress, low self-esteem, suicide, etc.

Self-Handicapping

Self-handicapping is defined as creating impediments or obstacles to successful performance that enables individuals to deflect the cause of low performance away from their ability on to the created impediment (Covington, 1992). Some examples of self-handicapping are procrastination, getting drunk, leaving little time to study before an exam, lack of sleep, and over-involvement with friends (Urdu, 2004). The main difference between self-handicapping and other attributions is that these behaviors or lack of behaviors occur prior to or simultaneously with the performance task, differently from other attributions, such as making excuses or external factors (Urdu & Midgley, 2001; Urdu, 2004). Self-handicapping behaviors reflect a planned behavior by getting the individual involved with a distraction created purposefully without a resistance (Martin et al., 2003).

Self-handicapping can function either as a self-presentation or a self-protecting strategy. Self-handicapping as a self-presentation strategy serves to manipulate others' perceptions to avoid revealing a lack of ability, yet self-handicapping in the form of self-protection strategy is used to protect personal self-esteem (Urdu & Midgley, 2001). Self-handicappers may believe that through using these strategies they can protect their self-worth or image in public, and mask the relationship between poor performance and evaluation of person's ability (Chen et al., 2009). In both cases, individuals focus on covering up their possible failures instead of enhancing their skills and reversing the low performance.

Students' self-handicapping behaviors can be sorted within two categories: behavioral and self-reported self-handicapping. Behavioral handicapping refers to an actual behavior, such as lack of sleep or alcohol consumption; whereas self-reported handicapping refers to non-behavioral attributes, such as claiming general anxiety, stress, test anxiety, or health problems (Leary & Shepperd, 1986). Although both kinds of strategies are used to protect the individuals' self-

esteem, it has been suggested that behavioral self-handicapping has a more destructive impact on academic outcomes than self-reported handicapping, which has no or limited impact since it allows the chance of achievement (McCrea & Hirt, 2001; Lovejoy & Durik, 2010). Since self-reported handicapping does not include self-sabotage, it provides safer grounds for individuals in respect to future performances, and gives a sense of security when encountering failure (Lovejoy & Durik, 2010). On the other hand, it was found that self-reported handicapping is less effective in protecting self-esteem and the sense of ability when compared to behavioral handicapping (McCrea & Hirt, 2001). We may conclude that having self-reported handicapping is more preferable in academic settings and less inimical for academic outcomes.

Individuals can use self-handicapping for different purposes. Generally, in the case of expected failure, individuals attempt to use self-handicapping because of fear of failure or to avoid the negative implications about their ability that a failure situation indicates (Covington, 1992). Moreover, it can be used as an esteem-protective strategy or esteem-augmenting strategy (Urda & Midgley, 2001). Through deflecting others' attention from low ability and creating an excuse in case of expected failure, people can protect their general and domain-specific self-esteem. If they achieve a task despite the obstacles they created, they can augment their self-esteem (McCrea & Hirt, 2001; Urda & Midgley, 2001).

In addition, Elliot and his colleagues (2006) pointed out that self-handicapping can facilitate performance by reducing pressure on evaluations and provide a sense of security. They suggest that self-handicapping may not be harmful as expected for some students, who may be involved in purposeful self-handicapping to enhance their self-esteem and decrease the pressure they experience. Even if self-handicapping has a partial positive impact on protecting self-esteem, it still leads to a belief among self-handicappers that they are lazy and not honest with others (Covington, 1992). Hence, using self-handicapping can undermine self-esteem, personal well-being, students' adjustment to new tasks, and achievement over the long run (Covington, 1992; Elliot et al., 2006).

Gender differences are an important indicator of variance in students' self-handicapping behaviors. In general, male students have greater self-handicapping tendencies than female students (Midgley & Urda, 2001; Hirt, McCrea, & Boris, 2003; Kimble & Hirt, 2005). While male students are more involved in behavioral self-handicapping, female students are more likely to claim self-reported handicapping (McCrea & Hirt, 2001). The possible reason why male students attend to use of self-handicapping more than girls is that they are threatened by possible failure, and are involved in competitiveness more than girls (Kimble & Hirt, 2005). The study by Hirt, McCrea, & Boris (2003) also argues that in case of failure, people tend to attribute it to the insufficient effort for men, but lack of ability for women; thus men are more likely to use self-handicapping to manipulate others' attention from their ability. Since attempting self-handicapping does not provide the same benefits for women, they are less likely to attempt to use it.

Relationship between Perfectionism and Self-Handicapping

Perfectionism is considered one of the underlying reasons behind gifted students' self-handicapping behaviors (Kearns et al., 2008; Stewart & De George-Walker, 2014). Based on their observation on students, Kearns and his colleagues (2008) argue that all perfectionist students may not apply self-handicapping behaviors, but they have a higher tendency to use such behaviors. Their model of self-handicapping proposes that perfectionism with other factors, especially fear of failure, leads to the belief that they will not perform well enough, so they self-handicap intentionally to mask their possibly coming failure.

Perfectionist gifted students who are concerned about self-image are more likely at risk of self-handicapping. These students want to be perfect and also perceived as a perfect students by others. If they have doubt about whether they will meet their expectation, then they may prefer to eliminate themselves. This gives them a chance to say "they could have won and been perfect" (Adelson, 2007). In terms of different dimensions of perfectionism, the study by Hobden and Pliner (1994) revealed that students with high self-oriented or socially-prescribed perfectionism are more likely to exhibit self-handicapping behaviors than others. While self-oriented perfectionists use self-handicapping for self-protection, socially-prescribed perfectionists self-handicap for the purpose of self-presentation (Hobden & Pliner, 1994).

Although the association between unhealthy perfectionism and self-handicapping, in my knowledge, has not been much addressed in research literature, it is more likely that gifted students with unhealthy perfectionism would exhibit self-handicapping behaviors more than students with healthy perfectionism. Based on the literature, maladaptive perfectionism is associated with stress, anxiety, shame, and depression symptoms (Ashby, Rice, & Martin, 2006), which in turn may lead to self-handicapping, and there is no reason to self-handicap for students with healthy perfectionism as they have advanced intellectual potential and clear, consistent, reachable goals.

Procrastination is considered as a kind of self-handicapping behaviors, which mostly leads to lower performance for gifted students. When a perfectionist gifted students have fear of failure about a given task, they may prefer not taking action because the task would not meet the criteria in their mind or leave little time to study, which is not enough for an outstanding performance (Adelson, 2007).

Conclusion

Perfectionism with unrealistic expectations and unreachable goals may lead to self-handicapping behaviors among gifted students and undermine their overall academic performance and self-esteem. Healthy perfectionism, which is striving for excellence, does not have such destructive impact, but neurotic, self-oriented, and socially-prescribed perfectionism may have negative implications for gifted students and evoke self-handicapping behaviors to mask their possible poor performance. To eliminate such behaviors and negative influences of perfectionism, these two characteristics should be considered together for successful counseling services.

First of all, since gifted students have a high intellectual ability, they may accomplish a given task, which may be considered a perfect one for regular classroom students, so teachers or counselors need to understand the difference between advanced goals that gifted students can achieve and unreachable and unrealistic goals (Greenspon, 2000). Then, providing a safe learning environment that makes students feel supported and is flexible enough with risk taking, is an essential way to help perfectionist gifted students. Students should also be involved in challenging learning experiences, but instead of competition, an enjoyable learning experience with challenging tasks is more useful to teach them something new. Emphasizing process and effort rather than the final product is another effective strategy, which implies for teachers that they should use effort-oriented feedback, such as 'you showed a great progress', and avoid strict judgments about the final products (Adelson, 2007). Using biographies of artists or inventors may also help to understand that many scientists and artists who showed an outstanding performance failed many times and devoted a significant amount of time to their masterpieces.

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EVOLUTION OF TEMPORAL MENTALITY IN WESTERN CULTURE AND ITS REFLECTION IN CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH

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Abstract

Time is becoming an increasingly popular research topic in contemporary Humanities due to its central role in shaping and structuring subjective human experience. New research paradigms and conceptual apparatuses enable us to approach the issue of temporal experience from a new angle, focusing on its embeddedness in culture. Multiple research, conducted at the interface between Psychology, Sociology, History, Philosophy, Culture Studies and Linguistics convincingly demonstrates the relativity of time, its inseparable connection with culture, which shapes it by determining its flow, principles of its structuring, its meaning and value. The complex of culturally specific ways of perceiving time can be termed "temporal mentality". Contemporary western culture has a linear, monochronic concept of time, interpreting the latter as a line, which connects the past, the present, and the future. This vision, however, is the most general, basic notion, which allows for considerable variation as to the division of the time line into segments, the particular significance attributed to each of them, correlation between what is seen as "objective" time flow and subjective temporal experience and other culturally relevant phenomena, all of which appear to be subject to historical change. The paper aims to reveal current trends in the development of English temporal vocabulary in connection with the evolving temporal mentality. It shows the rapidly increasing saturation of temporal vocabulary with the semantics of eventfulness and defines the role of bodily experience in perceiving and verbalizing time. It demonstrates the scope of language creativity in denoting time and reveals new types of conceptualizations co-existing with the traditional and well-studied TIME IS SPACE metaphor.

Keywords: Temporal experience, temporal mentality, time concepts, metaphor

Introduction

Dave Barry, a famous humor columnist, wrote, "Aside from Velcro, time is the most mysterious substance in the universe. You can't see it or touch it, yet a plumber can charge you upwards of seventy-five dollars per hour for it, without necessarily fixing anything" (Barry, n.d.).

Although light in tone, this quote successfully grasps one of the most fundamental properties of time – its elusiveness. Lying at the core of human experience and largely shaping our existence, time does not provide us with any material content which would make it tangible. We can only get a very indirect, ‘roundabout’ access to time as an ontological entity through observing changes, ranging from very obvious cyclical daily and yearly rhythms to subtle and gradual transformations of our bodies throughout our lifetimes. As V. Evans points out, our temporal experience is closely linked to processing changes, because things do not happen at the same time (Evans, 2015, p. 92). However, time is *how* things happen rather than *what* actually happens (Ibid.), and the *how*, unlike the *what* is rarely obvious and even more rarely comprehensible. Devoid of a specific referent in objective reality, time is construed logically, and, as any construal, is shaped by a variety of environmental factors, chief among them being the specific culture that generates notions of time and imposes them on its representatives.

Multiple research (Hall, 1983; Greenhouse, 1996; Wittmann, 2016), conducted at the interface between Psychology, Sociology, History, Philosophy, Ethnography, Anthropology, Culture Studies and Linguistics, convincingly demonstrates the relativity of time perception and time conceptualization, the imbeddedness of time in cultural experience. Culture shapes time by determining its flow, principles of its structuring, its meaning and value. The culturally specific ways of perceiving time are distinct enough to allow for the introduction of the term “temporal mentality” denoting the complex of ideas and notions pertaining to time.

The linear conception of time and its evolution in the western culture

As was convincingly demonstrated by E.T. Hall (1983), the basic tenet of contemporary western temporal mentality is the linear, monochronic concept of time. It means that time is interpreted as a line, which connects the past, the present, and the future.

Natural though it might seem, this concept of time is a relatively recent social and cultural construal, which came to Europe with the advent of Christianity. Christianity, following the Jewish tradition, sees the origins of time in Creation and its end in Judgment Day. The geometric connection between these two end points gives a line, thus logically promoting the linearity of time. According to C.J. Greenhouse, before Christianization, European temporal mentality was strongly based on oppositions like *day* vs. *night* and *summer* vs. *winter*, which contributed to the perception of time as something moving in a pendulum fashion (Greenhouse, 1996, p. 23). This understanding has left linguistic traces in contemporary English in expressions like *day in and day out*. Certain social practices, such as seasonal labor operations, annual festivities and celebrations, as well as natural circadian rhythms regulating basic bodily functions prompted the idea of temporal circularity, represented at the verbal level by expressions like *spring came round*. The entrenchment of the new linear conception of time did not obliterate the extant alternative interpretations, or counter-formulations, of time in the collective cognitive space and did not preclude traditional, well-established verbal patterns. However, it began to predominate in the western mentality shaping it in a very specific, very distinct way.

It must be noted from the start that this entrenchment was craftily engineered, controlled and directed in Europe by the Church, as well as social and political elites. Greenhouse writes of the 'social relevance' of the linear concept of time in Europe. Linearity, seen as "an irreversible progression of moments" (Greenhouse, 1996, p. 20), instills the idea of sustainable progress and helps to promote social and religious institutions presenting them as furthering the development of humankind. According to Greenhouse, "linear time was popularized in the West by the church in an active course of conversion, by monarchs engaged in building nation-states, and eventually by other elites who found in an image of unidirectional progress the central symbol for their legitimacy" (Greenhouse, 1996, p. 23).

Another important point is that the linear conception of time appeared to have a great potential for the European economy, as it greatly contributed to optimizing labor in the emerging capitalist states in the late Middle Ages. Laborers began to be paid wages in proportion to the 'length' of time spent on performing this or that industrial function. The hourly wages, alongside other economic factors, brought forth a strong cognitive association between time and wealth, contributing to the entrenchment of the well-known conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY. This metaphor first 'surfaced' in Th. Wilson's *Discourse upon Usury* in 1572, where time was described as 'precious' and was explicitly verbalized by Benjamin Franklin in his *Advice to a Young Tradesman* in 1748 (Pangle, 2007, p. 16). Nowadays this conceptual metaphor can be represented at the verbal level with a variety of money-associated vocabulary, demonstrating vast possibilities for verbal creativity: *Everyday is a bank account, and time is our currency* (Rice, n.d.); *Time is the coin of your life. It is the only coin you have, and only you can determine how it will be spent* (Sandburg, n.d.).

The linear conception of time was further reinforced by certain inventions and social developments from the late 12th century on. Particularly notable is the invention of the mechanical clock in 1354, which, unlike its predecessor, the water clock, could measure time in much smaller units (minutes and seconds) and was extremely accurate. Of particular importance is the fact that clocks were placed in the most conspicuous landmarks in towns, like cathedral towers, and put the life of the whole community in sync, instilling the value of punctuality. Time gained an important collective dimension and began to play a significant social function, disciplining the community. The need for synchronizing individual life histories and unfolding them into clear and mutually compatible linear sequences ultimately led to the introduction of standardized time systems dating from 1847 (the so-called railway time in Great Britain) (see Robinson & Godbey, 2000, p. 32-34). The most recent attempt at further unifying the time to a truly global scale is the so-called Internet Time, proposed by the Swatch company in 1998. The idea was to divide the day into 1,000 parts called 'beats' and to count it regardless of the officially established time zones (see Levinson, 2006, p. 160). It is undoubtedly convenient for making appointments for communicating via the Internet or for International Internet gaming. The Swatch project demonstrates vast possibilities for social and cultural construal of time and its dependence upon the needs and requirements of the society.

The need for a reliable abstract model of time is particularly urgent now that all the natural temporal cyclicity is blurred. With glaring lights round the clock, 24-hour-a-day availability of shopping, travelling and entertainment, working

and communicating 24/7, all the natural bodily rhythms that previously formed the basis for temporal experience have lost validity and our reliance on the abstract linear model of time is getting ever stronger.

It is noteworthy that earlier the principle of linearity was applied to human life, presenting it as irreversible movement along the path 'from the cradle to the grave'. Its irreversibility became heavily loaded cognitively, endowed with a wide range of epistemological and axiological meanings. It seems appropriate to refer to N. Ryabtseva who wrote that time as a category is not only parametric, but axiological, heuristic and creative as well (Ryabtseva, 1997, p. 82). Chief among the axiological meanings is the value of each unique and irreversible fragment of the life line, the urge to use the allotted time efficiently, to fill each moment of life with meaningful activities, to set goals and achieve them, to reach the endpoint of life with a feeling of fulfillment. This general outline, which has remained valid for the last several centuries, has been constantly modified and reconsidered, and the exact meaning of each imperative listed above is subject to historical and cultural change, as well as individual variation. Thus, the traditional Christian values meant living virtuously, using each moment to do the good and proper things, sacrificing the pleasures of the moment for the more important eternal bliss. The contemporary attitude to the phenomenon of time irreversibility is "a hedonistic capacity to live for the moment" (Wittmann, 2016, p. 15). This capacity rests upon the urge to continuously gain new experiences and indulge in sensorial pleasures. It presupposes a certain 'attunement' to the multiplicity of unfolding opportunities. In the words of J. Steinbeck (1952), time should be "splashed with interest, wounded with tragedy, crevassed with joy". A 'fulfilled' life is no longer a virtuous and pious moment-to-moment preparation for eternity; rather, it is a succession of ever-changing impressions, the speed and intensity of change being the main marker of success.

This axiological shift, together with new technological advances, has contributed to what T.F. Alexina (n.d.) calls 'demassification of time'. Social time, lived along the shared lines and filled with shared activities and events, has become only part of temporal experience. Another important part is individual, subjective sense of time, based on highly individual life experiences. Time has become personal property which can be used and described in an infinite number of ways. It can be *taken, given, spent, lent, borrowed, spared, shared, saved, wasted, squandered*, etc.

The subjective character of time experience is actively explored not only by contemporary science, but also by art. Literature and cinematography, in particular, vigorously engage in experimenting with time, presenting it as reversible, compressible, existing in parallel realities, etc. (see Gallagher, 2002, p. 11-12). The products of this experimentation are aimed at the general public and further destabilize the already unsteady cognitive space of time, promoting variability of time perception and time conception in the western temporal mentality.

Verbal representation of temporal concepts in contemporary English

The peculiarities of time perception, features of temporal mentality and changes that it undergoes are naturally reflected in language. The intangibility of time, the lack of material content force us to seek conceptual landmarks in our physical

environment in order to grasp it mentally and put it in words. The main cognitive mechanism that allows for this kind of transfer is metaphor, the most important source domain being space.

TIME IS SPACE is the most commonly recognized metaphor that serves as a means of conceptualizing time. Within its framework, there is a multitude of specific metaphors and significantly different verbal representations. First and foremost, time itself can be represented as a spatial entity, which possesses dimensional characteristics. The linearity of time prompts an emphasis on length. Thus, we speak of *long hours*, *a short time*, *the length of time* needed for something, *prolonged* activities, *extending* membership, etc. We tend to visualize time as a path or a road – spatial objects, whose most essential characteristic is linearity. Since 1876, we have used the term *timeline* to denote the sequence of historical events (Online Etymology Dictionary, n.d.). Furthermore, time can be conceptualized in terms of spatial location: as a space lying in front of or behind the observer depending on his / her position on the timeline. Thus, the future is commonly seen as located in front of the observer, whereas the past is described as situated behind the observer: *As the country prepares for presidential elections and the U.S. and other international forces aim to withdraw later this year, many wonder what kind of future lies ahead for young women like Soheila and the women who work to protect them (COCA); You should be able to leave the past behind you, not track it into your new life on your shoes (COCA).*

The static position of time, however, is a relatively rare conceptualization, while a much more common interpretation is TIME IS MOTION THROUGH SPACE. This conceptual metaphor allows for at least two types of interpretations, depending on the center of activity. On the one hand, agency can be ascribed to time itself which thus becomes a moving entity: *Time of this technology is approaching* (COCA); *Don't expect to see me again, until your time has come* (COCA. The woman who fooled death five times). On the other hand, the agent can be seen as the observer moving along the timeline: *Elderly people, as they approached the time of crossing to the Darkening Lands, wanted interpretations of their dreams* (COCA); *We're nearing the time for the Mass to begin* (COCA).

It must be noted that ascribing agency to time, we open vast possibilities for cognitive and verbal experimentation, as the abstract character of time does not impose rigid limitations on the conceptualizer. The agency of time generally means that it is an active power that “makes things happen” (Greenhouse, 1996, p. 1). This type of agency lies at the core of a multitude of metaphors found in classical literature since Shakespeare. Time is presented as a *reaper*, *devourer*, *evaluator*, *destroyer*, *healer*, *ruler*, *teacher*, *enemy*, etc. This type of conceptualization is still in demand and provides us with a plethora of opportunities to exercise our creativity. Cf. *Time's the thief of memory* (S. King. The Gunslinger); *<...> time is our gambling partner on the other side of the table and it holds all the cards of the deck in its hand, we have to guess the winning cards of life, our lives* (COCA) *Time is a storm in which we are all lost* (COCA). In this particular case, however, the agency of time enables us to profile different aspects of movement, such as speed, force / energy, continuity, harmony, steadiness and others (see Cardini, 2008, 541-546).

The aspect that appears most relevant when describing time is speed. It is closely related to the subjectively felt intensity of temporal experience. It is well known that perception of time flow depends on a wide range of factors, such

as the functioning of our bodies and the types of situations we find ourselves in. The subjectively felt movement of time slows down when we experience extreme emotions, do unfamiliar work, feel bored or cold and focus on ourselves rather than on the world around us. On the contrary, time subjectively speeds up when we perform familiar actions, find ourselves in new situations which cause positive emotions, get a lot of sensory impressions and feel hot. Thus, as V. Evans points out, time experience appears from within, as an experiential byproduct of how we interpret and process events (Evans, 2015, p. 65). As H. Van Dyke, an American Presbyterian clergyman, educator, and author, perceptively observes, "Time is too slow for those who wait, too swift for those who fear, too long for those who grieve, too short for those who rejoice, but for those who love, time is eternity" (Brainy Quote, n.d.).

The movement of time can be described in neutral terms which are not evocative of the type of the moving object: *Much later – it amazed her how time sped up more and more, the older she got – the grandkids came along* (COCA); *It was one of those moments when time slowed down and Amber suddenly had a very keen awareness of everything* (COCA).

However, a much more productive cognitive and verbal strategy is to animate time, endowing it with an ability to move like a living being. Time can be described as *crawling, creeping, pacing, treading, running, racing, galloping, trotting*, etc.: *Time crept very slowly to me that night* (COCA); *You lived in the present, fascinated by its every turn – and time crawled* (COCA); *Time raced by at the velocity of light* (COCA); *Some time of it later, he stops. <...> Speaks again about the mystery of time galloping by* (COCA).

Zoomorphization or anthropomorphization of time can be further reinforced with similes or explicit comparisons. An illustrative example of this type of strategy is Christian Morgenstern's poem "Time", in which time is consecutively likened to a number of living beings depending upon the speed with which it moves:

There's a way that's precise
To know the time in a trice:
Just take your watch to hand
And watch where the two hands land.
Then it will go, slow and meek,
Just as does an obedient sheep;
Step for step, graceful and cool,
Like a girl who went to finishing school.
But if you get lost in reverie,
Then it will dart forth speedily,
As if upon the swift ostrich's feet,

A stealthy puma, not missing a beat.

Then you take another glance;

But what's this, after the trance?

With an innocent smile, light and breezy,

Time treads slowly, soft and easy.

(Cited by: Wittmann, 2016, p. 65)

Another aspect of movement that appears relevant for the conceptualization of time is continuity. Time can be described as *flowing* when it progresses in a predictable way and as *jumping* when its smooth movement is interrupted or interfered with: *Time jumped forward again and it was supper* (W. Barton & M. Capobianco. Iris). Jumping, as well as leaping, time is a popular metaphor for distorted sequences of events in contemporary cinema, which often resorts to the so-called flashbacks, incorporating episodes from the protagonist's past into the present.

Lack of continuity and harmony in the flow of time can be described with words that denote motion deviating from the generally accepted kinetic norms (see Mani & Pustejovski, 2012). Time is described as *limping, staggering, stumbling*, etc.: *But that hint was not taken up and they continued to sit on the bench as time limped by* (COCA); *Then Ran was walking across the courtyard towards her and time stumbled back into motion* (COCA).

Contemporary discourses provide numerous instances of cognitive and language creativity associated with the use of motion verbs to denote the progression of time. Among them are descriptions that employ verbs denoting motion accompanied by sound (A5 in Cardini's classification) (Cardini, 2008): *Gabriel looked to Marla's side of the bed, his movements slow and drugged, as time creaked by with seconds turning into minutes* (Priest. Don't smile); *All at once time buzzed about him, eager to move forward again* (COCA).

Collocations as a means of conceptualizing temporal experience in contemporary English

As it is well known, contemporary western culture is a culture of acceleration. Using time wisely and efficiently means doing things quickly, preferably in parallel mode, by multitasking. Time allotted for an activity does not only have a limit; it is marked by a *deadline*, the word itself emphasizing the imperative character of time management and its crucial role in human life. It is not surprising therefore that the progression of time is often described in terms of abnormally fast motion: *time hurried on by a speed that is astonishing* (COCA). Contemporary English has come up with a collocation *hurry sickness*, which denotes "a behavior pattern characterized by continual rushing and anxiousness; an overwhelming

and continual sense of urgency" (Dictionary.com) Hurry sickness as a common malaise can be seen as a consequence of the particular course of evolution that the western temporal mentality has taken.

To counterbalance the growing preoccupation with speeding up time and to reduce the stress associated with it, contemporary western culture actively promotes the concept of mindfulness. Mindfulness is an increasingly popular practice of focusing on the lived-in moment and being aware of one's thoughts, feelings, bodily sensations and surrounding environment. Mindfulness emphasizes the intrinsic value of the moment, the need for slowing down and feeling the uniqueness of each instant, we live through (Hasson, 2013).

This newly discovered meditation practice correlates with a very interesting and quickly developing linguistic trend in contemporary English – an exponential growth in the number of collocations with the noun *moment*. Word combinability, as some scholars point out, is an "important conceptualizer" (Sal'kova, 2012, p. 367), and newly emerging collocations reflect complex cognitive processes which are related to the perception of time.

The history of the word *moment* itself is illustrative of the changes in the western temporal mentality. In the Middle Ages, a moment was a unit of measuring time which equaled 90 seconds. It was divisible into 12 ounces 7.5 seconds each, which were further divisible into 47 atoms (Dictionary of Units of Measurement, n.d.). By now, *moment* has lost chronological exactness and is interpreted simply as a very short period of time. Moreover, it has lost its divisibility, which is proved by the fact that it cannot be sliced into smaller fragments linguistically. A convincing example is provided by F. Landman, who shows that linguistically "moment" can be divided only into an infinite number of "moments": «*Yesterday afternoon between 12 and 2 I was sleeping; I woke up when you called me; in fact, at the moment you called me I woke up; more precisely, at the moment that the telephone first rang, I woke up; in fact, I woke up at the moment the telephone first started ringing; to be more precise, I woke up when the first sound of the first ring started, etc.*» (Landman, 1991, p. 139).

Thus, the word *moment* has obviously migrated from the sphere of objective social time into the sphere of phenomenological time to reflect subjective experience. This migration correlates with the above-mentioned demassification of time, which necessarily presupposes its saturation with subjectively meaningful experiences. It is noteworthy that many up-to-date dictionaries define *moment* not just as a point in time, but as a "particular point in time when something happens; a point in time when something important, special, or unusual happens" (Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners, 2002, p. 917). This semantic shift contributes to a growth of attributive collocations which describe a certain fragment of life experience. The attribute explicates the type of experience showing what particular types of events are deemed meaningful in the contemporary Anglophone culture.

It appears that the most significant type of event is one of a somatic, or bodily, character, which is to be expected within the context of subjective experience. Contemporary discourses abound in collocations like *heart-racing / heart-thumping / heart-stopped / heart-still / heart-bursting / heart-clenching / stomachwrenching / gut-gripping / muscle-cracking moment / testicle-shriveling / testicle-clench / neck-vein-popping moment / goosebump / spine-tingling / hair-raised, etc. moment* (COCA). Each of them describes a bodily event which takes place at a certain moment of a person's

life, is embedded in the more general event the person is involved in, forms part of the personal life history and is located on the personal timeline. Collocations of this type grasp “the corporeality of the moment” (Wittmann, 2016, p. 56). Another group is comprised of collocations which represent a person’s physiological state: *nauseating / insomniac / dizzying / vertiginous / sickening / queasy, etc. moment* (COCA). The attribute can explicate the emotional state of the person registered at a particular point in time and associated with some event: *terror-filled / panicked / transfixed / anguished / dispirited / discomfited / stupefied/ awkward / tense/ thrilling / saddest / embarrassing / humiliating / bittersweet / euphoric / perplexed / exhilarating / dreadful / pleasurable / melancholic, etc. moment* (COCA). Subjective mental experience is reflected in collocations which describe the moments of insight, emotional awakening, and changes in the flow of mental processes: *libidinal / aha / oedipal / brain-fogged / absent-minded, etc. moment* (COCA).

The most intriguing trend, however, is the growth of collocations with proper names. Representative of them is *goldilocks moment* which refers us to the famous fairy-tale *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*. Of all the multiple events, described in the fairy-tale, the one that was made salient to result in the emergence of the collocation, was the sensation that Goldilocks experienced every time she used the Little Wee Bear’s possessions: not too cold, not too hot; not too hard, not too soft, etc. *Goldilocks moment* denotes a moment when a person feels full comfort and satisfaction, when he / she gets exactly what he / she wants.

The collocation *Goldilocks moment* is obviously a product of metaphorization, with metonymy (name of the protagonist for the experience) lying at its basis. Another example of the kind is *pinocchio moment* which denotes the experience of getting caught in a lie.

Metaphors can also be built upon common nouns which evoke certain culturally sanctioned associations. An example of this kind is *platypus moment*. From the European and North American point of view, the platypus is a creature that cannot exist in reality: it is a semi-aquatic mammal with a duck’s bill that lays eggs and has venomous spikes. Its singularity and lack of any correspondence to the traditional notions of mammals have become its salient features, which enables the English language speakers to use the platypus as a metaphor of an unplanned and unexpected discovery, which is difficult to believe in.

Collocations with the noun *moment* can describe events which lie beyond individual experience but require a subjective culturally sanctioned evaluation. For instance, they can characterize a certain event from the point of view of its generally acclaimed significance (*gutenberg moment* – a turning point in the history of culture); denote a certain type of political event, which requires certain actions (*sister souljah moment* – a politician’s public repudiation of an extremist person or group, statement, or position perceived to have some association with the politician or the politician’s party (Shabazz, 2014); point to a crucial moment in the development of legal or religious thought (*grotian moment* – a collocation which commemorates Hugo Grotius, who was the founder of the modern international law, and denotes a moment of active development of legal thought (Encyclopaedia Britannica, n.d.); *perkinsian moment* – a turning point in the development of religious thought, associated with the name of William Perkins, a famous 16th century

Cambridge theologian, who was a key figure in the establishment of Protestantism (Digital Puritan, n.d.). Collocations of this type employ a wide range of proper names. Among them are famous historical figures (kennedyesque / rooseveltian / michelangelo / churchillian / aristotelian, etc. moment), modern politicians, scientists, writers, artists, etc. (proustian / simpson-bowles / wordsworthian, etc. moment), names of books and movies, as well as names of their characters (barbarella / zorro / brigadoon / Algernon, etc. moment, etc.), names of places where significant events took place (srebrenica / athena, etc. moment) (COCA). They all refer us to certain events prescribing to see them from a certain angle and evoke very specific culturally determined associations.

I tend to believe that collocations of this type reflect at least two essential features of contemporary temporal mentality: (1) an inseparable cognitive link between time and events it is filled with and (2) a tendency to focus on the moment and to assess the meaningfulness of life on the basis of the quantity and quality of mentally registered and evaluated events.

Conclusions

I do not pretend to be exhaustive, as the topic is far too vast and complicated to be covered in a single paper. However, even a brief overview provided in the paper enables me to make a number of conclusions.

Temporal experience, lying at the basis of all human activities, is firmly embedded in culture, which plays a prescriptive role in its interpretation and verbalization. Views of time, including its parametric, axiological, heuristic and other aspects, are largely shared by all members of a certain cultural community, which enables us to speak of a temporal mentality specific to a certain culture. Temporal mentality is shaped by a wide range of cognitive, ideological, economic, technological and other factors that reflect the needs of a particular society at a certain stage in its development. Temporal mentality is subject to historical change, which results in the revision of the previously formed conceptions. They are not necessarily discarded, but can be pushed to the periphery of the collective cognitive space and can leave linguistic traces in contemporary discourses of time.

Peculiarities of time perception, features of temporal mentality and changes that it undergoes are necessarily reflected in language. The abstract character of time forces us to resort to metaphor as a means of its conceptualization. Metaphors are shaped by culture and once entrenched, direct cognitive and verbal activities of its members, at the same time leaving room for cognitive and verbal creativity. Creativity primarily consists in the ability to "see" and put into words previously undiscovered aspects of the metaphorical source domains. However, the tendency towards demassification of time, which is widely observed in the contemporary western culture, contributes to unusual experimentation with time concepts, which may bring forth new conceptualizations, including those that form collocations.

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Abbreviations:

COCA – Corpus of Contemporary American English. Mode of access: <http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/>

THE ATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE'S INFLUENCE ON THE 'ENGLISHES' OF THE CARIBBEAN

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Abstract

This paper explores the influence that the establishment and subsequent consequences of the Trans- Atlantic slave trade had on the development of the 'Englishes' of the Caribbean Sea. This trade saw millions forcibly displaced from Africa to the British colonies in the Caribbean and created an environment where a multitude of 'Englishes' developed. The trade with the colonies brought economic success to England encouraging sustained political control and linguistic influence on the region. In this context, 'Englishes' is used as an all-encompassing term for English-based Creoles, Englishes on the Creole spectrum, de-creolized Englishes, Ebonics, and standard Englishes.

Keywords: official language, Creole varieties, pidgin languages, Standard British English, English as an international language, Ebonics

English is an official language in 23 Caribbean countries and there are at least 19 English based Creole varieties spoken in the region. (Deuber, 2014) Additionally there exist many other varieties of English that fall somewhere on a continuum between Standard British English, and English-based Creoles. The so-called standard Englishes have had an impact upon Creole varieties and vice versa. This has led to an astoundingly rich and diverse range of Englishes in the region that has witnessed transformations and their effects from civilizations of American Indians, to European colonization and slave-based plantation economies, to independence and the banking and tourism-based economies of today. English-speaking colonists and post-colonial influences namely; public education, missionaries, and the spread of English as an international language have certainly had a vital role in the language development of Caribbean Englishes. Albeit most of these could be interpreted to be the byproducts of the Atlantic Slave Trade, where it can be argued that many of the Caribbean Englishes first emerged. Therefore, the institution and consequences of the Atlantic Slave Trade presented one of the largest influences on the development of the 'Englishes' of the Caribbean.

Within the Caribbean region, there are numerous English-based Creole languages. Creole languages can be distinguished from pidgin languages in that the former is learned as a native language. Pidgin languages often develop when there is a need for communication but no common language. Often due to lack of trust, instead of learning each other's native languages, a simplified language is developed. The vocabulary of this language will be primarily taken from

the language of those with more power, yet there may still retain characteristics from another group, or groups. (Holm, 1994) When Africans from a diverse array of geographic, ethnic, and linguistic backgrounds were forced onto ships together for the middle passage and then later in the Caribbean as slaves, there would have existed a need to communicate with the British sailors and other Africans. Pidgin languages were most likely first formed on both this journey and their development sustained by new slaves in the British colonies. The ensuing generations would have grown up learning these pidgin varieties as a native language. The English-based Caribbean Creole languages are rooted in forms of Pidgin English and borrow elements from some European and African languages.

English-based Creoles and more standard Englishes co-exist in the Caribbean with a plethora of variations in between known as the Creole continuum (Deuber, 2014). These variations are sometimes used, more or less depending on the formality of a situation and sometimes assumptions are made in regards to the social status of the users on the variety of English used. This dynamic was exemplified in Jamaica whereupon becoming a British colony in 1655. Initially, Standard British English was considered the 'language of prestige and power'. Conversely the then developing Jamaican Creole, also known as Patois, was regarded as a "fragmented language of a fragmented people" (Beckford Wassink, 1999), one, whose cultural and linguistic worth would not be acknowledged until later.

The Atlantic slave trade while instigated by the Portuguese in the 1500s, was proliferated by the British, who required chattel slave labor to sustain the emergent demand for sugar. Over 25,000 voyages were made, bringing upwards of 20 million people from Africa to the Americas in what was to become the largest forced migration in history (Welch, 2008). It is sometimes referred to as the triangle trade due to the shape carved by the trade routes. Guns would be sent from Europe to the West African coast, then slaves would be sent from Africa to the Caribbean and finally sugar would be exported from the Caribbean to Europe.

The British colonies in the Caribbean received 7/8th of all the slave imports (Sheridan, 1972). At first there were numerous types of cash crops produced in the Caribbean, namely timber and tobacco. Timber, while a popular export of the Cayman Islands (Williams, 2011), was effectually less popular on other islands. Correspondingly, tobacco proved more profitable on the plantations of the southern continental United States. Harvesting sugar cane is exceedingly labor-intensive, thus sugar's previous classification was a delicacy. This would drastically change with the systematic use of chattel slavery on plantations. Sugar exports to England and Europe would increase exponentially, eventually becoming the single most profitable crop in the British Caribbean. Sugar consumption per person per year in England increased from 6.5 lbs. in 1710 to 23.2 lbs. in the early 1770s (Richardson, 1987). No longer a luxury item, sugar was incessantly promoted by companies like the West India Lobby in concurrence with bitter teas from Asia which were imported by the British East India Company. Due to this lobbying system, as demand for tea increased, so too would demand for sugar, which was needed to sweeten tea (Mintz, 1985).

The demand for sugar fed the insatiable appetite for slave labor and ensured the British would maintain an active role in the slave trade for centuries. Thomas Cooper addressed the British parliament in 1781 and lamented that the British

role in the slave trade continued solely to supply the West India planters with hands to cultivate the islands in order to furnish the inhabitants of Europe with sugar (Cooper, 1781). The slave trade would not be officially abolished until the 1800's and slavery and its legacy would continue to influence life and language in the Caribbean long afterwards.

The abolition of slavery saw a fervent drive by particularly the Anglican and Methodist churches to convert the newly freed populace. Sheena Boa contends that some of the enthusiasm fostered by Anglican missionaries in particular, may have come from their desire to retain and enforce systems of race, class, and gender hierarchies (Boa, 2001) among the newly liberated and to keep the islands as British as possible. Churches offered a connection to the English language and culture and helped to maintain a linguistic dominance even post slavery.

Standard English influences have led to the decreolization of some Englishes. Many scholars refer to these varieties as Ebonics, stipulating that terms such as Creole, and dated terms such as "black dialect" detract from Africans' agency in their language creation (Blackshire-Bely, 1996). Standard English continues its impact as the official language of 23 countries in the Caribbean. In these countries, it is taught in public schools and used in public sectors such as the government and media (Winer, 1993). In the modern-day Caribbean, Standard English varieties continue to exert an influence not just with the British English of the schools but within the economically profitable spheres of tourism and banking which invite the influence of American English due to geographic proximity.

Thus, the Atlantic Slave Trade presented one of the largest influences on the development of the 'Englishes' of the Caribbean. English-based creoles have their roots in the history of the Africans forced into slavery, in the history of the middle passage and British trade, and in the history of the plantations. Englishes in the Caribbean are incredibly diverse and exist on a continuum that includes standard varieties, English-based creoles, and Ebonics. This diversity of Englishes has been influenced by the slave-based economic success that led to sustained colonization and the establishment of Anglophone governments, schools, and missionaries. While the situation for language development was created by the slave trade, the people living in the Caribbean through ingenuity, adaptability, and strength have participated in the development of a rich array of Englishes that are of great linguistic, historic, and cultural value.

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**CULTURAL CODES OF THE MODERN GEORGIAN AND ENGLISH LANGUAGES IN
PHRESEOLOGICAL UNITS OF THE CONCEPT "TIME"**

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Abstract

The paper deals with cultural codes which were revealed from the analysis of objective phrase units of the concept "time" in the modern English and Georgian languages. The following types of cultural codes are discussed: anthropomorphic cultural code; biomorphic cultural code; cultural code; religion-cultural code; temporal-cultural code; spatial-cultural code; quantitative-cultural code; colour-cultural code; and anthropology's cultural code. The article deals with analyzing these codes, gives examples in the Georgian and English languages. It presents interesting views and opinions about 'time' concept. The analysis of the phraseological objectives of "time" concept in the modern English and Georgian languages revealed that the frame network of "time" presents whole space of elements characterized by universal and national awareness. The English and Georgian languages' awareness 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 in the analysis of the phenomenon "time" implies language objectification of universal (identical) vectors of the knowledge by national cultural codes reflected in phraseological units. The study concludes that the 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 the terms of universal categories. The differences between study 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 the principles for the study of the specific character of the nation's disposition; even for the universal categories.

Key words: cultural codes, phraseological units, concept of time, Anthropomorphic cultural code; Biomorphic cultural code; Cultural code; Religious-cultural code; Temporal-cultural code; Spatial-cultural code; Quantitative-cultural code; Colour-cultural code; Anthropology's cultural code.

It is known that values and anti-values (kindness, evil, justice, injustice, freedom, etc.) recognized by humanity are based on human experience. Universal values can be divided into two types:

- Cardinal values, which are the preconditions for the realization of other values (human life, health, dignity, freedom);
- Sub-cardinal values, which are considered a necessary condition for the realization of cardinal values.

The study from axiological perspective of phraseological units gives possibility to describe those people who speak a particular language according to the system of values. Marks existing in our consciousness present one of the most important elements of our cultural codes grid.

From the analysis of objective phrase units of the concept "time" in the modern English and Georgian languages, the existence of the following types of cultural codes were revealed: Anthropomorphic cultural code; Biomorphical cultural code; Cultural code; Religious-cultural code; Temporal-cultural code; Spatial-cultural code; Quantitative-cultural code; Colour-cultural code and Anthropology's cultural code (Lotman, 2004).

Anthropomorphic cultural code with the help of which human and its body are presented, for example:

- "Smb. is a fresh hand at smth" - „ახალბედა“;
- "Wet behind the ears" - „გუმინდელი ღლაპი“;
- "Hand over fist" - „სწრაფად“; „თვალსა და ხელს შუა“;
- "In a twinkling of an eye" - „თვალის დახამხამებზე“;
- "At breakneck pace" - „კისრისტეხვით“;

Biomorphical cultural code by which the representation of animals, birds, insects and plants occurs, for example:

- "There's life in the old dog yet"; "An old dog barks not in vain" - „ბებერი ძალი ტყუილად არ იყეფებს“; „ბებერი ლომი“; „ბებერი ხარი“; „ბებერი ხარის რქა უკეთ ხნავსო“;
- "Pigs might fly" - „არასდროს“;
- "It is easier for a camel to pass through the eye of a needle" - „მეუბღებელია, რომ ოდესმე მოხდეს“;
- "A cow may fly" - „არასდროს“; „როცა ვირი ხეზე ავა“;
- "As slow as a tortoise" - „კუსავით ნელი“;
- "As slow as a snail" - „ლოკოკინასავით ნელი“;
- "Grow like mushrooms" - „სოკოსავით მრავლდება“.

Cultural code which means symbolization of some phenomena into natural phenomena, for example:

- "Flew like a bolt of lightning" - „ელვის სისწრაფით“;
- "X hit Y like a thunderbolt" - „მეხივით გავარდა“;

Following phrasal verbs in the Georgian language belong to **religious-cultural code**:

- „აღდგომა და ხვალეო“, „ალილო და ხვალეო“ - ამასაც მალე ვნახავთ, ესეც მალე გამოჩნდება;

"Time is silent character of Bible which defines its character. Characteristics of time perception determines feature of biblical narrative. Greeks and Jewish lived not in different times, but in different ages. We will just add that not only Greeks and Jewish, but also its similar and neighboring people live in different time or with a different sense of living. It is fact that time perception fundamentally distinguishes between religions and cultures" (Kiknadze, 2009).

Temporal-cultural code by which the representation of existing time occurs. The question "when?" is actual in all societies. One thing is clear that some determining factors of time existence are universal and it is equally typical for all societies, while other factors in terms of cultural view are unique ones. The main components of time in the Georgian and English languages on are formed by temporality with time determination and its localization. Time, which takes what it belongs to, spring and the reviving of nature, an increase of age and a feeling being old – all these feelings link with the question – 'when?' For example, time when we get older, when I was born, when I will die. Determination of the time and time frames are the main aspects of the time 'when?', while in the process temporality takes a leading role.

When we say that 'time takes its own' and people get old, we give additional aspects to time with repeatability and straight linearity. Each cycle forms the frameworks within which we organize, plan and regulate our daily lives.

Thus, the aspects of determining time and time frameworks are combined with temporality, as well as temporality is linked with time determination and time frameworks.

The following phrasal verbs belong to **spatial-cultural code**:

„მზისქვეშეთი“, „საწუთრო“, „წუთისოფელი“.

In the English language, the following phraseological units belong to **spatial-cultural code**:

"Under the sun" ("There is nothing under the sun", "Be just around the corner" (ძალიან სწრაფად მოსახდენი რამ).

Quantitative-cultural code by which the representation of measurement units happens: "Sands of time"; „ერთი ამოსუნთქვა“ (both units mean a shortest period of time).

Time is which humans follow. It is part of human reality. As Gumiliov (2009) states: "Even the most primitive nations without a conditional time count system distinguish between day and night, year, so called "Living Chronology" by their life dates, and at the end, by cycle: a week, a month, for 12 years, where each year carries concrete animal's character.

According to Comparative Ethnography, counting the linear time starts when an ethnos begins to feel its history not as a special event, but in contact with the history of the surrounding countries. With the accumulation of knowledge, in the human mind arises a quantum time or time division into eras; very unequal with its length but equivalent to events and facts. Here the category of "time" relates to causing reason of the category of "power" – hasten (in particular case - historical process). Such kind of diversity of counting system shows that it is caused by quite serious ethno-psychological changes (Gumiliov, 2009).

Defining the words dealing with 'time' in the Georgian and English languages has become the most widely used nouns in the word. It is not surprising that our everyday communication is full of words denoting time. The same word is used in many, very different contexts. People are talking about time on the clock and winter time, starting time and a bad time, appropriate time for action and relationship. We speak about the time of things and processes, time which flies and about time that takes its own. We freely move inside these feelings of time and we perceive them so that we do not think much about these differences.

It is clear that there will be an effort to give various meanings to general terms. Time is not only measured by clock. Time is multidimensional: it is represented in physical processes and social traditions, abstract calculations of mathematics and specific relationships between people. People measure it with the help of clock units, movement of heavenly items, regular events and changes based on their own body. People use time as a way of exchanging goods and services or as a form of payment, as well as resource of organizing nature, society, people and their institutions. All these areas have their own boundaries within which action choice has to occur.

A minute, hour, week, day, moon phase, year, Christmas and Easter holidays, production cycle and growing up, generations and duration of human life - all these create boundaries of time and within this framework people regulate their everyday life. Parameters of birth and death, rhythms of nature and repetitive patterns of socially caused events together form the matrix of time through which we manage to live in time.

Rationalization of time and linking it with the clock makes great influence on social life of the industrial societies and inspiring those aspects of time that is common to us and other communities. We must perceive change of time and control as specific phenomenon of industrial and industrialized societies.

Frames of time, determining time, temporality and rate are general patterns for all humanity. Clock time, which changes the importance of time in practice, as well as its complex structure, it inspires whole mankind in various levels. However, according to any or all of these aspects, certain cultural signs can differ from each other.

Colour-cultural code by which happens representation of icons linked with the colour symbolic:

- "the old gray mare" - „ხანში შესული ქალი“;
- "dark ages" - „შავი დრო“; „შავი დღის დადგომა“;
- "once in a blue moon" - „იშვიათად“;
- "be green" - „გამოუცდელი“;
- "paint the town red" - „კარგი დროის გატარება წვეულებაზე“;
- "when the moon turns green cheese" - „არასდროს“.

Anthropology's cultural code implies symbolization of some phenomena by its name.

- "Before you could say Jack Robinson" - სწრაფად;

- "when queen Anne was alive" - „თავის დროზე“;
- "Queen Ann is dead!" - „ძველი ამბავია!“;
- "When Adam was a boy" - „ადამის ჟამიდან“; „ადამ და ევას დროიდან“.

Conclusion

Cultural codes existed in human consciousness implicitly includes the mental and cultural orientations. The best way of identifying the orientation is language, especially the phraseological fund. Language and communicative action are important forms of representation of values.

Study of phraseological object of cultural codes is associated with those aspect of the world which is closely linked with the cultural-historical patterns. Analyze of phraseological objects gives possibilities of universals and unique objects' identification.

From the analysis of objective phrase units of the concept "time" in modern English and Georgian languages, the existence of the identical type of cultural codes was revealed. As for the difference are revealed in the internal form (icons and lingo-cultural Remy) level of identical cultural codes. Exactly this inner form of objectivity reveals the inner spiritual culture of nation's identity, differential psychology of language and nation.

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A FRAMEWORK FOR PHENOMENOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS AND CLASSIFICATION OF TROUBLESOME KNOWLEDGE IN THE ENGINEERING DOMAIN

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Abstract

The design of effective teaching and learning activities must create an experience able to elicit the intended learning outcomes of the educational unit. For this purpose, it is then fundamental to account for the different ways students can experience the specific content taught. This paper introduces a structured approach to perform phenomenographic studies aimed at disclosing the most common student perceptions of a given topic and highlight the patterns that can bring students with poor understanding of the target concept to a more sophisticated perception. The method has been formulated based on specific cases in the production engineering domain. In detail a phenomenographic study the first step is to describe, as a knowledgeable person would do, both the subject of the study and its domain. This description is then considered the target perception of the focal topic. In the second phase the students that have already been assessed for the educational unit in exam must be interviewed with open question about both subject and domain. Their answer must be plotted according to sound parameters along two dimension (again subject and domain related) of increasingly sophisticated level of understanding. The result of such interview must be then classified in clusters of understanding that will give the different common perception of the students about the given topic. Finally, the relation among the cluster must be studied with the aim of disclosing suitable teaching and learning activities to help students migrate to a perception cluster close to the above-mentioned target perception.

Keywords: Phenomenology, Methodology, Engineering education

Introduction and background

Modern pedagogical paradigms, such as constructivism, highlight the importance to focus the course design effort around what the student does rather than around what the teachers do. The process of creating new knowledge in one's minds follows two well-defined patterns: *assimilation* and *accommodation*. While assimilation is a process of integration of new knowledge into pre-existing one, accommodation is a more disruptive process of re-evaluation and reframing of

pre-existing knowledge based on new information (Piaget, 2010). Assuming that all the student in a prospect educational unit (hence EdU) have different pre-existing knowledge this simple classification is sufficient to hint at the complexity of designing EdU that are able to robustly deliver the intended learning outcomes. Successful strategies to tackle this issue are based on exposing the focal learning objectives from different perspectives and in different contexts to the students. This allows the learner to disclose the variation pattern and build reliable structured knowledge (Marton & Trigwell, 2000). These mental links are fundamental to access the *relational* and *extended abstract* levels of qualitative understanding as described in the SOLO taxonomy (Biggs & Collis, 1982). This lead to formulate the teacher mission as *providing the basic notions and eliciting the process of building such links though a well-aimed learning experience*.

In view of the above, in order to fulfil this constructivist pedagogical approach one needs to account for the internal mechanisms related with the transfer of notions, but also with the pre-existing knowledge of the learner. A deeper and more structured knowledge of both the issues is the fundamental condition for improving the efficiency of such a complex process (Perkins & Salomon, 1988). This knowledge is the condition to produce well-designed instructions and learning activities working at different moments during the learning process (ibid). Most of the teachers rely on their knowledge of a given topic and on their pedagogical background to devise correct teaching and learning activities: this means that they implicitly refer to an average mental model of the pre-existing knowledge and its pattern of evolution for the target student in the related EdU. This, in turn, introduces potential biases in the course design. The fitness of the aforementioned mental model adopted by the course designer is thus a key element for delivering a suitable learning experience.

One important approach to understand the students' perception of a given topic, and consequently the likely evolution is the phenomenographic approach proposed by Marton (1981; 1986). Phenomenography focus on the variation of how people experience constructs and phenomena in a given discipline. The underlying assumption in this studies is that if one is able to identify and classify all the different perceptions related to a given object, then it is possible:

1. Describe the misconceptions and highlight the related causes.
2. Devise strategy to tackle such misconception: remove them or simple prevent that they emerge.
3. Identify, using 'kind of knowledge' (Bloom, 1956) and 'level of understanding' (Biggs & Collis, 1982) taxonomies, a pattern of perceptions from the less to the more sophisticated.

It is clear that such results are a good input to course designers as they provide a less objective model of pre-existing knowledge and consequent evolution patterns. The resulting learning experience would be immune from the designer biases.

Although the theoretical backbone of phenomenography is vastly defined and described in literature, the analysis of the related literature reveals that the approach still lacks of practical implementation. There are only a few contributions that hint at actual exploitation, as intended by the authors of this work (Adawi & Linder, 2005; Maffei, Akilloaglu, & Lohse, 2014; Maffei et al., 2014). One possible reason is the lack of a clear handbook-like description of how to implement

phenomenographic studies: this work aims at filling this gap by building up on some of the available contributions in the, familiar to the authors, domain of production engineering. The resulting model of a phenomenographic study is meant for course designers that want to ground their work on objective description of student pre-existing knowledge and related evolution patterns.

Input and method

The work is based on the analysis of two peer reviewed and published phenomenographic studies in the domain of production engineering (Maffei, Akilloaglu, & Lohse, 2014; Maffei et al., 2014) with consequent extrapolation of principles and guidelines that convey in a model for such a research endeavour.

The following Table 1 and 2 summarizes the focal studies.

Table 1 Summary of Study 1 (based on Maffei, Akilloaglu, & Lohse, 2014)

Title:	Analysis of the student perception of the link between product and production system: towards effective strategies to teach the holistic nature of product design.		
Focal concept:	Relationship between the product design and the production system design.		
Correct perception:	As described in Boothroyd, Dewhurst, & Knight (2010).		
High level questions:	Content or object:	What is DFA? This question refers to the conceptual dimension of the analysis. In other word, its target is the perception of the DFA as a single object.	
	Context or domain:	What is the domain of DFA? This question refers to the spatial dimension of the analysis. The aim here is to expose the way such construct is put in context.	
Reference courses:	Course Relevant Topic	Period/Level	Total Student/ Survey's participant
	Assembly System Design	Autumn 2012 / MSc	35/23
	Design for Assembly	Summer 2012 / Industrial	7/7
Description of the perceptions:	1. Mechanical application of the rules and guidelines: the few students in this cluster are able to describe how to give points and times correctly by applying the Boothroyd tables or similar constructs (sometimes only for a reduced subset of the proposed rules). If stimulated they can think of a correct technical explanation, but it is quite clear that they have not acquired it during the course, or at least they have not considered it important. In		

conclusion, the learners in this category have a very limited perception of the domain: DFA for them is a set of tables or score cards which must be used to evaluate and improve the design of a product.

2. **Technical:** the learners in this group have achieved a correct perception of how DFA methods work. In particular, they are able to provide full technical explanation of the technical tools offered by the proposed methodologies. In spite of this sufficient knowledge of the how, the interviewed students here seem not to be fully aware of the what and the why. In particular, the students in this cluster are generally conscious that DFA is connected somehow to the effective design of the required production system but they are not able to clearly address the reasons and meaning of such broader scope. In other words, learners see the issues not related with the product as secondary and subordinate part of such a body of knowledge.
3. **Advanced Technical:** learners in this cluster have a very similar conception in respect to their colleague in the previous group. Nevertheless, they have significantly deeper technical knowledge of the reasons behind DFA structures and procedures. In particular, the production system is correctly presented as a co-cause (together with the product) for the formulation of such body of knowledge. Consequently, the relation between a particular design choice and the manual worker action (or the automatic solution) is clear but limited to the technical perspective.
4. **Technical Economical:** the students in this cluster perceive DFA mainly as a cyclical approach to product design, where the aim is to improve the conceptual solution with reference to the assembly process. In addition to that, they show awareness of the limitation of these tools. In detail, the interviews disclose a certain capability to spot trade-offs with other parts of the production process and describing strategies to cope with them. Along with the assembly requirement, most of the relationships of the design process with material selection or components' manufacturing are clear and correctly framed into a technical and economical context.
5. **Strategic:** the learners in this cluster show a holistic perception of the topic. Such conception embeds all the underlying technical and economic aspects into a sound strategic and tactical context. Their perception is very similar to the way expert people describe this topic: learners here understand DFA as a tool that they can use within a broader context concerned with the alignment of product and manufacturing strategy.

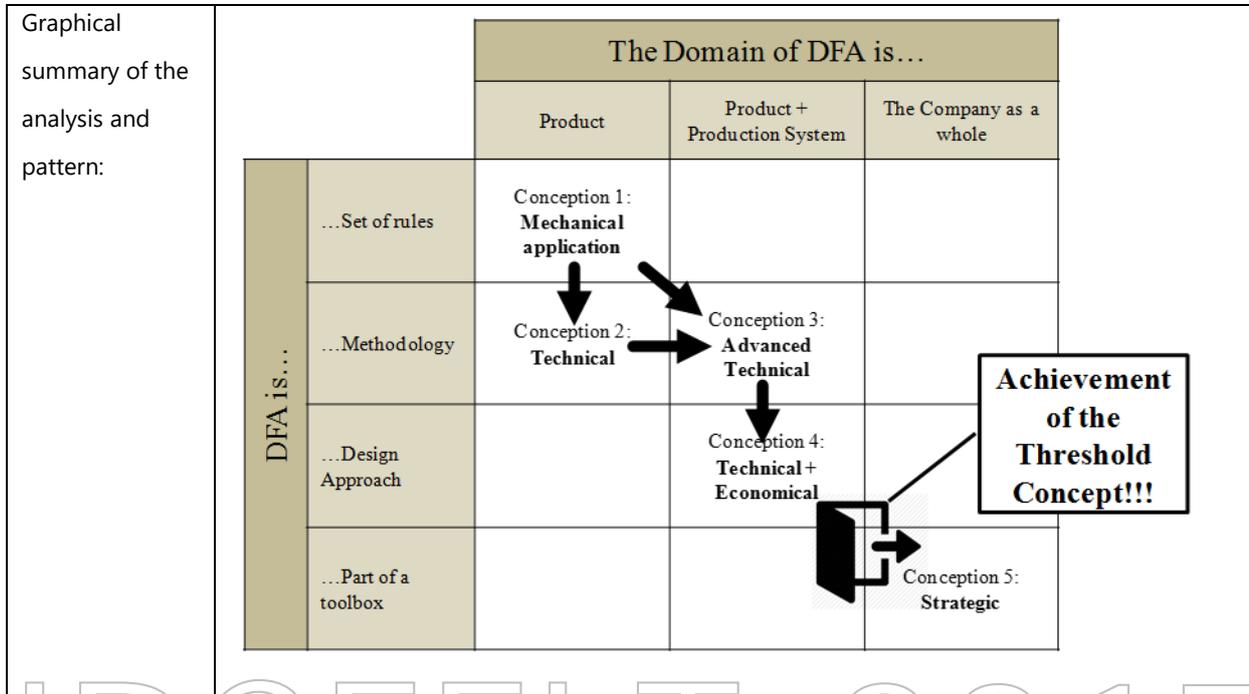


Table 2 Summary of Study 2 (based on Maffei et al., 2014)

Title:	Characterization of the Student Perception of the concept of Flexibility in the Manufacturing domain: highlighting the Patterns of effective learning		
Focal concept:	Production flexibility		
Correct perception:	As described in Carlsson (1989); Saleh, Mark, & Jordan (2009); Upton (1995); & Whitney (2004).		
High level questions:	Content or object:	What is flexibility?	
	Context or domain:	What is the domain of flexibility?	
Reference courses:	Course Relevant Topic	Period/Level	Total Student/ Survey's participant
	Production automation	Spring 2013 / MSc	37/29
	Integrated production	Autumn 2012 / Industrial	35/23
Description of the perceptions:	1. Simple technical: the few students in this cluster are only able to describe some isolated technical applications of the concept. This quantitative knowledge is often not well linked to other knowledge, thus appears rather uni-structural. They perceive flexibility as something		

	<p>limited to the improvement of the production system. If stimulated by the interviewer, they can broaden their perspective including the product as the main cause for the flexibility demand. Nevertheless, it appears rather clearly that their perception of the domain is quite limited and static: pre-structural according to the SOLO taxonomy.</p> <p>2. Advanced technical: this group of students is very similar to the previous one in relation to their perception of the domain. In spite of this poor understanding of the <i>when</i> and <i>why</i>, the group seems more conscious about the <i>what</i>. In particular, there is a significant difference in the way they experience the concept of flexibility. Learners in this cluster, in fact, refer to flexibility not as a fixed set of technical solutions, but they rather describe flexibility as an approach to make the production system more efficient and effective given some demanding initial conditions. The students here are implicitly aware of how flexibility enables the exploitation of economies of scope for the organization.</p> <p>3. Technical Economical: this cluster is characterized by a broader perception of the domain of flexibility. In particular the concept of economies of scope is explicitly mentioned and well-placed in the context of possible synergies between product and production system. The knowledge in this cluster is multi-structural and the learners are aware of the technical and economical limitations of most of the concept's instantiations.</p> <p>4. Strategic: the students in this group have a significantly broader and most sophisticated perception of both the concept of flexibility and its domain. They showed a reliable acquisition of the quantitative knowledge and revealed personal development of such constructs into a qualitative framework. In particular, all the technical and economic aspects are known and correctly framed within the organization as a whole. Flexibility is a global strategy to face turbulent markets, and can be implemented at any level in the organization. The technical manufacturing solutions are correctly referred to objects in the domain of strategy. The consequent alignment of manufacturing strategy with the overall strategy of a firm is well understood and explained.</p> <p>5. Holistic. The perception in the previous cluster is generally recognized as an excellent way of experiencing the concept of flexibility by production engineers. Nevertheless, as seen in the background of this work, from the general point of view of the whole organization flexibility must be understood as the driver for the development of successful companies which operate in turbulent markets. A few students clearly showed they were partially aware of</p>
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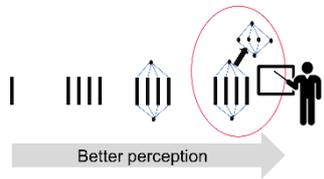
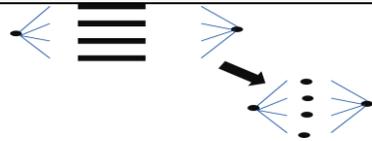
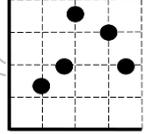
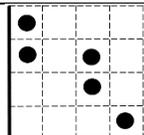
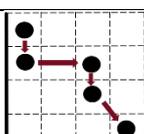
	this, so even if the actual courses were not aimed at directly teaching such aspects, they acquired such perception by integrating what they learnt in their previous knowledge.				
Graphical summary of the analysis and pattern:	The domain of Flexibility is...				
		Production System	Product and Production System	The Company as a whole	The company and the network
	Flexibility is...	Conception 1: Simple Technical			
	... Set of technical solutions for increasing some capability of a manufacturing organization	Conception 2: Advanced Technical	Conception 3: Technical Economical	External Knowledge	
	... way of efficiently harmonizing demanding product requirements with production resources in order to achieve economies of scope			Conception 4: Strategic	
... capability of well-designed production installation, to cope with changing conditions in different contexts				Conception 5: Strategic Holistic	
... mind-set that must shape the design of organizations which find their competitive advantage in rapidly adapt and react to external changes					

Proposed methodology

The two studies presented above focused on specific, troublesome concepts in the domain of production engineering. The first step has been the one of establishing the **correct perception**. This is usually inferred by the literature or is coincident with the teacher’s own perception. The correct perception is then decomposed into different aspects that convey in the definition of a **questionnaire** able to address all this aspect through a set of open questions that push to reflection. This is then used as base for interview aimed at investigating both the focal *object* (or **content**) and the *domain* (or **context**) where the focal concept was studied. By applying such a phenomenographic approach based on unstructured interviews to students that had attended the course where these concepts had been taught, the authors have identified the **clusters of common perceptions** that different groups of students showed. The resulting clusters have been classified using the taxonomies for ‘level of understanding’ (Bloom et al., 1956) and ‘kind of knowledge’ (Biggs & Collis, 1986) into more and more sophisticated perceptions which the order represent the pattern towards acquiring the correct perception.

The following Table 3 summarize the proposed method for phenomenographic studies

Table 3 Summary of the proposed approach

Step	Description	
1	Identify a troublesome concept and establish through own knowledge or literature review the correct perception.	
2	Decompose the correct perception in the knowledge single building blocks necessary to achieve it	
3	Devise a questionnaire target content and context of the analysis	
4	Interview students that have taken a course dealing with the focal topic by addressing all the aspect identified in the step 2 and their relationships necessary to build abstract knowledge	
5	Plot the results along the two dimension of content and context and identify the cluster of perception	
6	Describe the cluster of perception	
7	Using the Bloom and SOLO taxonomy identify the pattern of good learning	

Additional step not covered by this analysis

8	Implement the identified pattern in course design	
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Discussion and conclusion

The proposed model addressed the identified gap by providing a structured, handbook-like, reference model for phenomenographic studies. In order to improve and further validate the model, it is necessary that more authors engage it in different disciplines and with different purposes. Another important aspect is the extension of the scope of model to include also specific suggestion on how to implement the revealed patterns in effective course design as well as measuring the impact of such an approach if compared with traditional ones.

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LESSONS LEARNT FOR ONLINE LEGAL ENGLISH COURSE

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Abstract

In the recent decade Legal English has been acquiring more and more demand in Armenia due to the increased internationalization of ties, in general, and the ratification of the European Convention on Human Rights in 2002 and the right to apply to the European Court of Human Rights, in particular. Increased need and awareness of Legal English urged many EFL professionals to turn to Legal English considered in the overall context of ESP sharing the most important aspects of need analysis, syllabus design, course design and materials selection and development. Nevertheless, lack of time and need to work overtime, as well as minimum English language requirements in their higher studies deprive the legal professionals to be competitive in the international legal practice. Thus, it was high time to provide online courses in Legal English. The article discusses the lessons learnt in providing an online Legal English course, how to make study materials motivating, how to balance between the student workload and the study materials, how to integrate learning facilities to make the LMS more functional and the importance of the instructional feedback.

Keywords: online education, Legal English, online course, teaching methodology, Legal English vocabulary

Introduction

Recent learning technologies have led to new opportunities in the field of English language instruction for people with limited time resources. Though being in the spotlight of modern education, online teaching still poses challenges for educators, ranging from a high rate of dropouts (Onah, Sinclair, Boyatt, 2014), the argument whether online learners perform so well as those engaged in face-to-face education (Dutton & Perry, 1999) to the relevance of designing lesson plans for the virtual environment.

In the present paper an attempt is made to address the generic and specific problems experienced and lessons learnt for designing and teaching an online Legal English Course providing some solutions and alternatives to teaching activities used in a brick and mortar classroom environment.

Context

In 2014 with the funding of Competitive Innovation Fund "Organizing Further Education in Form of Distance Learning" project was launched at International Scientific-Educational Center, National Academy of Sciences of the Republic of Armenia (ISEC NAS RA). The wider objective of the project was to organize distance learning in the context of lifelong education at ISEC NAS RA and aimed to improve virtual learning platform and its efficient application.

The specific objective of the project was to introduce the culture of distance learning at ISEC NAS RA and in Armenia, in general, to build online courses and to organize distance learning in several target directions taking into account current and perspective demands in education and employment markets and to introduce lifelong education models to wider layers of society such as graduates, the unemployed, housewives and people with special needs. The project meant to offer online courses, which would make their participants more competitive and employable in the current labour market, as well as would equip them with latest knowledge and skills needed to be successful in their career paths.

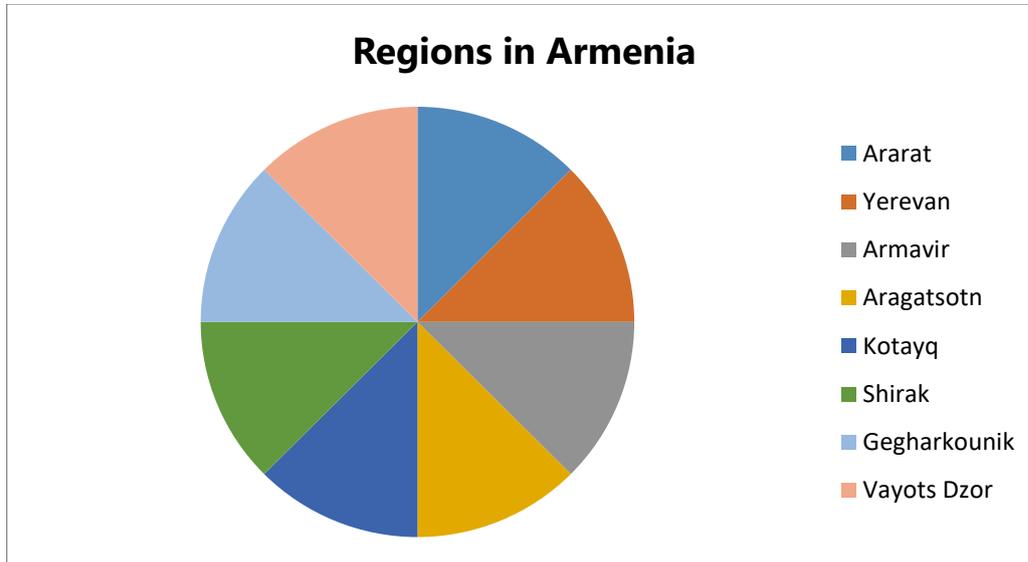
The project was launched with needs assessment carried out through surveys to find out the attitude of the potential stakeholders towards online courses before the very implementation of the project. The tasks of the needs assessment were to reveal the extent of awareness of different layers of society of distance or online education, as well as to find our specific themes and topics needed for the subjects to find their places in the labour market or to get promotion at their workplaces.

The following target groups were outlined:

- Graduates of HEIs, who were not employed because of certain lack of knowledge and skills,
- Newly graduates and students in their final years of studies,
- Employed people with higher education background, who needed to update their knowledge for their further promotion,
- People with special needs (physical disabilities).

The focus was on people aged 20-50 taking into consideration the features of online/distance education.

The needs assessment was carried out in Yerevan and in seven regions of Armenia with a particular emphasis on Employment Centers located in different regions of Armenia.



The needs assessment resulted in having the following results:

1. The majority of focus group participants attached value to the need for additional knowledge to find a job or to have a promotion at workplace to a certain extent.
2. Employers valued professional skills, working experience, communication skills and knowledge of languages when hiring new staff.
3. The research listed the courses, which are of interest to almost all participants regardless of their profession and occupation. Among these courses, top-ranked courses were as follows:
 - Communications Skills
 - English (ESP, General English at different levels)
 - Marketing
 - IT Skills
 - Time Management
 - Project Management
 - PR and HR

So at the end of the needs assessment taking into account the potential of human resources the following online courses were offered:

- Language Courses, e.g. Legal English, Business English, Business Russian, General English, Elementary English

- Internet Marketing, PR, Project Management, Tourism Management, Ethics and Intercultural Communication, Marketing, Business Management
- Accountings, Linux, C++ etc.

Over 700 participants, including from Diaspora (France, Russia, Germany), NKR and regions in Armenia took part in 20 online courses offered by ISEC NAS RA with the completion rate of around 300 participants.

Virtual Learning Environment

As a virtual learning environment (VLE) Moodle (n.d.) was used, which is a free and open-source software learning management system developed on pedagogical principles. Moodle is used for blended learning, distance education, flipped classroom and other e-learning projects in schools, universities, workplaces and other sectors. Moodle could be accessed at any time convenient for the users, while interactive webinars were conducted via BigBlueButton, which is another open source web conferencing system developed primarily for distance education. All the courses were short-term certificate courses with maximum duration of 6 weeks taking into consideration the international standards and feedback.

Legal English Online Course

The Introduction to Legal English online course developed within this project also had a duration of six weeks. Each week an interactive webinar for two hours was held with the course participants to develop the speaking skills of the participants and to give floor to post-lesson discussions, while Moodle functions and activities were extensively used to make online learning process more attractive and enjoyable.

The topics offered each week tried to cover different branches of law starting from criminal law, employment law to contract law, nevertheless, the main focus was to teach Legal English vocabulary, as the legal language is an integral part of the legal system of each country determined with its unique logic and peculiarity. Moreover, the language of law is essentially connected with the legal system and culture of society at the certain period and is considered to be a social phenomenon. Arguably, Legal English differs from other areas of professional English, such as Business English or Medical English, in that the particular legal systems in the individual countries are different from each other, a situation that is made even more difficult by the existence of the Anglo-American tradition of common law as quite distinct from the Continental law systems found in the rest of Europe. However, it should be pointed out that teaching ESP is not to be equated with content teaching in English, i.e. ESP teachers are not supposed to teach the subject (e.g. a specific branch of law) itself (Chovancova, 2014).

Legal English, both in its oral and written form, comprises specialized terminology. According to David Mellinkoff (1963), legal English lexis includes Latin, French and Anglo-Saxon words and phrases, rare words from Old and Middle English, professional jargon and formal expression, reflected throughout contemporary usage, and which makes it a 'hard nut to crack' to modern learners. The aim of teaching students professional Legal English is to train them specific skills so that they can use them in a professional manner. This presupposes 'providing learners with the specific vocabulary and structures and enhanced linguistic modalities they want and need to succeed.' (Belcher, 2004, p. 173). Legal courses used in higher education focus on accurate use of the legal vocabulary and style, outlining the correct use of language range and structures. Teaching Legal English vocabulary is particularly difficult taking into consideration different aspects of its polysemy and synonymy. The course was designed for A2 to B1 learners according to Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001), which made teaching more challenging, as ESP (English for Specific Purposes) is supposed to be taught starting from intermediate and higher levels.

Online Teaching Challenges and Solutions

Gibson (1998) identifies student-related factors, educational factors and situational factors accounting for the students withdrawing their participation from distance courses. When student-related factors include the learners' educational preparation, motivation, student learning style, educational ones deal with the quality and complexity of educational materials and the provision of tutorial support. Finally, situational factors are related to the changes in life circumstances, family and work.

Other reasons for the high rate of dropouts in online courses cited by researchers (Onah et al., 2014) include lack of time, insufficient instructor support, computer illiteracy and course complexity. All of these factors impede with the learners' motivation and discourage their participation in online courses.

One of the ways to make any online English Course more attractive and appealing is to use as many multimedia activities and Moodle activities as possible, besides the standard ones like quizzes and forums designed for pre- and post discussions. One of powerful tools to create vocabulary lists by students and to activate their scheme in Legal English is to use wikis, which are a simple, flexible tool for collaboration. They can be used for everything from simple lists of web links to building entire encyclopedias. Activating schema is important at the very beginning of each lesson to activate students' experiences with and knowledge of the topic of the listening/reading and doing this immediately engages your students and sets them up for more successful listening/reading comprehension.

At the beginning of each week a wiki was created to analyze the background knowledge of the students in the particular branch of law, for example, 'Naming Branches of Law' in Week 1, 'Naming Crimes' in Week 2 dedicated to Criminal Law with the following classification - Crimes against Property and Crimes against Humanity. During the whole week students had an opportunity to supplement their lists and at the end of each week there was a complete list of

specific vocabulary created by students themselves, so in this way the students were completely responsible for their own work, while another great advantage of a wiki is that all edits are clearly visible and reversible.

Example of created wiki lists:

Crimes against Humanity: Murder, massacres, assassination, manslaughters, dehumanization, genocide, human experimentation, kidnapping, unjust imprisonment, slavery, torture, rape.

Crimes against Property: burglary, robbery, larceny, theft, mugging, motor vehicle theft, arson, shoplifting and vandalism.

Developing Pronunciation Skills

Developing pronunciation skills is another challenge for any online course, which is usually overlooked stressing out more the importance of developing speaking skills during webconferences because of time-limit and large number of participants, as well as dominating leaders in the speaking activities.

Pronunciation plays an essential role in Legal English as many words in Legal English are spelled in the same way, but pronounced differently based on their word form, i.e. whether it's a noun or verb thus attaching different meaning and use in the sentence.

For the purpose of shaping finer pronunciation skills with the course participants, Vocaroo online tool was used, which is one of the easiest podcasting tools and is great for simple recording that both the teacher and the students can do. The voice messages can be shared on Moodle forums, by just by copying and pasting the link to the audio, while recordings are available for a few months (three months usually). The course participants were assigned to pronounce, record and post a recording with a set of sentences where there is clear difference between word forms and stress patterns. Below is an example:

The islands **export** sugar and fruit. Export (v) [ɪk'spɔ:rt]

Then the fruit is packaged **for export**. Export (n) ['ekspɔ:rt]

Under the terms of the contract the job should have been finished yesterday. Contract (n) ['kɒntrækt]

Several computer engineers **have been contracted** to the finance department. Contract (v) [kən'trækt]

It was suspected that the drugs had been brought into the country by boat. Suspect (v) [sə'spekt]

He is the **prime suspect** in the case. Suspect (n) ['sʌspekt]

When teaching Legal English vocabulary, a particular attention shall be paid to the difference in meaning of the words in singular and plural forms, as they may sometimes mean completely different concepts and notions in Legal English, for example:

Damage vs. Damages

Damage means 'loss or injury to a person or property'. It is an uncountable singular noun and has no plural form.

E.g.: The cost of the damage to the US caused by Hurricane Ike was estimated at USD 18 billion.

Other words, which could be used instead of damage: **loss, injury**

Damages mean 'money claimed by, or ordered to be paid to, a person as compensation for loss or injury'. It is an uncountable plural noun and has no singular form.

E.g.: The Claimant wishes to sue Acme for damages as a result of a loss sustained by the Claimant after Acme's failure to perform its obligations.

Other words, which could be used instead of damages: **compensation, satisfaction**



Term vs. Terms

Term means 'a specified period of time, e.g. the term of a contract, lease, loan or office'. It is an uncountable singular noun and has no plural form.

E.g.: The term of agreement is 5 years.

Other words, which could be used instead of term: **duration, validity**

Terms means 'the conditions of a contract, agreement, arrangement, or activity'. It is an uncountable plural noun and has no singular form.

E.g.: He may be in a position to offer generous credit terms once we have approved the account.

Other words, which could be used instead of terms: **conditions, provisions**

Doublets vs. Triplets

One of the linguistic peculiarities of English legal language is the use of doublets and triplets. Doublets are two synonyms used together while triplets are three synonyms used together.

Tiesma (1999) cited in Cao (2007) mentioned that like other Germanic tribes, Anglo-Saxons made extensive use of alliteration in the legal language, and this style is found in today's ordinary English: 'aid and abet', 'fame and fortune', 'might and main', 'new and novel', 'part and parcel' and 'safe and sound'. This tradition of doublets and triplets were later expanded into word strings or more than two or three words of synonyms (Cao, 2007). In short, the linguistic feature of word strings in the English legal language was developed in the long history of the Common Law. It is related to the notion of the so-called 'preventative law', that is, to prevent the parties from having to litigate later on (Dick, 1985) in Cao (2007).

Commonly used legal word strings (doublets and triplets) that essentially have one meaning include (cited in Dick (1985) and in Cao (2007):

Doublets	Triplets
authorise and direct	assign, transfer and set over
bind and obligate	build, erect or construct
deemed and considered	cease, desist and be at an end
final and conclusive	costs, charges and expenses
full and complete	obey, observe and comply with
furnish and supply	place, install or affix
over and above	rest, residue and remainder
release and discharge	give, devise and bequeath
finish and complete	documents, instruments and writings
full force and effect	changes, variations and modifications
have and hold	business, enterprise or undertaking
null and void	bear, sustain or suffer
power and authority	advice, opinion and direction
save and except	

When disputes arise, courts may be asked to interpret each such individual word, and give them different meanings. Thus, when teaching it is not always possible or advisable to combine the synonyms into one word (Cao, 2007).

Project Based Learning (PBL) in VLE

Project Based Learning is a teaching method, where students gain knowledge and skills by working for an extended period of time to investigate and respond to an authentic, engaging and complex question, problem, or challenge. This teaching

method perfectly fits in teaching Legal English online and stimulates collaborative working among students. The simplified version of the European Convention on Human Rights was taken as an authentic piece of text, where the course participants studied the interpretation of the articles, precedents and later they were assigned to go to the HUDOC database of the European Court of Human Rights, which provides access to the case-law of the Court (Grand Chamber, Chamber and Committee judgments and decisions, communicated cases, advisory opinions and legal summaries from the Case-Law Information Note), the European Commission of Human Rights (decisions and reports) and the Committee of Ministers (resolutions) and to find more precedents of the violations of the same Article discussed during the webconference or in the forums, e.g. violation of Article 1 - right to life.

Giving Feedback in Online Courses

Formative Feedback

In online learning and teaching formative feedback is more valuable to student learning than the final assessment. Formative input enables instructors to promote deeper learning by promoting students to dig deeper and expand and clarify their argument or position while the student is engaged in the learning process. Instructors that foster depth of learning with this kind of real-time feedback, push their students to dig deeper and think more critically. Giving feedback in online education is not just writing in the forums and commenting them, but using user-friendly ed-tech tools, for example, giving audio feedback. By using voice recording and screen casting tools (for example, Vocaroo and Jing screen capturing software), it's possible to provide more personalized and more efficient feedback in an acoustically and/or visually supported manner. Intonation and voice tone both help to convey feelings, which in turn really help to create online instructor's presence and build rapport. Finally, since students can decide when, where and how often they listen/watch, an element of choice is added, a step towards promoting learner autonomy.

Feedback via Screencasts

When students write or make comments in the forums, they naturally make mistakes, and in an online environment the task of correcting errors and giving feedback is of an ethical issue, as well. Whether an online instructor shall make comments publicly or one-to-one? One solution to this problem may be downloading comments into a Word file and commenting naturally on the mistakes, as an instructor would to a student face-to-face. Jing may be used to provide digitised group feedback to the students on language errors (documented in a Word file) from their online forum postings, which means course participants have an opportunity to watch a video of the online instructor talking them through and simultaneously onscreen correcting the errors in the opened Word document. The link to this screencast can be embedded in the course on the VLE for the students to access whenever and as often as it suits them; it can also be mailed to them.

Conclusion

Teaching Legal English online is very challenging due to its system-bound specific vocabulary and due to problems encountered during online teaching and learning such as technical problems, insufficient language knowledge, insufficient interaction patterns, lack of attention/appropriate feedback, strong learners tending to dominate, but the abovementioned techniques and methods equip any online ESP instructor with knowledge to overcome all the difficulties, that may arise in teaching Legal English online.

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LEXICAL ESTABLISHMENT AND STRUCTURAL TEMPLATES OF COINAGES IN IRAQI ARABIC

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Abstract

The present article deals with an influx of coinages which are employed in the different domains of life and being established as Arabic words and ignoring their source languages. Their access to the Arabic language came due to importing new industrial products with their mosaic labels which let people hire them in their daily interlocutions. When such diversified products are exported to Arab countries – specifically Iraq, the Iraqis recruit the same labels as came from the origin country without finding any Arabic equivalent words for them. In doing so, they became borrowed words to Iraqi Arabic and some people think that they are already Arabic words.

The aim of this research is to investigate those words and classify them into fields, then check up how people use them and how some of them turned to be slang not standard. Exploring such words also requires knowing whether they underwent morphophonemic changes of their structural templates or semantic shifts. A gloss of various words is employed in order to endorse the value of the study and give it more elegant flavor.

Key words: Neologism, coinage, Acronyms, borrowing, slang.

Introduction

The proliferation of producing novel words obliges some linguists to explore how these sounds are created morphologically. Structurally, coinages are grounded on certain templates, namely, forming a word is either to be a compound word throughout combining two or three words together to have a new word or acronymization, i.e., taking the initial letters of a group of words and keeping them as one word. Another method is through adding affixes to the base words in order to have new words or borrowing words that entered Arabic with their labels as industrial or technological products. Semantically, coinages have taken a wide range of use in different tracks of life – especially in industry and trade. Words became brilliant brands or trademarks and they are found on the products, for instance, the word 'Dell' is a brand of a kind of laptop where everybody knows that it refers to a computer device.

The goal of this article is to examine lexical coinages and to understand how they are morphologically composed and how semantically they entered to the Iraqi Arabic dialect and some of them turned to be slang words, also the extent to which they influenced the standard Arabic and became threats to it. Methodologically, the word formation processes including compounding, creating acronyms and initialisms are presented thoroughly in order to let the reader assess the significance of such processes in framing new words. To achieve this study, a suitable model has been adopted to make the research paper more valuable. Booij's (2005) model of label function of coinages has been followed. This model depends on the Booij's (2005, p. 14) assumption "Creating a word label for a new kind of entity, event, or property may have the additional pragmatic advantage that it draws attention to the new concept involved". However, different words of various fields of life were cited for the purpose of analysis and discussion.

1. Methods of Coining New Words

The rapid progress in technology and industry was accompanied by coining new words for products manufactured for the first time which should be given new names. Word formation processes are productive in different fields of life – especially coinage, which pervades to the fields of computer, internet, industry, and technology. To originate new words, certain word formation procedures are required. The most significant procedures employed in inventing new words include acronyms, abbreviations, compounds, and eponyms, which are all explained below.

1.1 Acronyms and Abbreviations

To begin with explaining acronym, this requires defining it as one of the productive word formation processes in English – especially in American English. American people use this process in many fields, even in the social media, particularly Facebook and Twitter. Acronyms and abbreviations are highly used nowadays.

Harley (2006, p. 96) defines acronym as "a collection of initials that are pronounced as a single phonological word according to the spelling and conventions of English". This plainly shows that to form a new word one is supposed to take the first letters of a group of words and group them together and pronounce them together as one word, but not separate sounds. In this case, this word has a new meaning, such as 'Aids' which is formed from the beginning letters of the words: Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome. Phonemically, the grouping of such sounds together is pronounced /eidz/, as one word.

On the other hand, the process of abbreviation or some linguists prefer to call it initialism or rarely called alphabetism is different from acronym in the aspect of pronunciation because sequencing the first letters of a group of words is not to pronounce them as one word rather they are pronounced as separate sounds as in the word 'FBI' which is pronounced /ef bi: ai/. This word has been made of the initial letters of **F**ederal **B**ureau of **I**nvestigation. Therefore, Crystal (2008, p.1)

reveals that those initialisms "reflect the separate pronunciation of the initial letters of the constituent words, such as TV and COD".

1.2 Compounds: Combining Words Together

In English and other languages, new words can be formed from already existing words and this process is morphologically called compounding (Akmajian et al., 2010, p. 35). They (ibid.) add that through this process individual words are joined together to form a compound word, such as the word 'ape' can be joined with the noun 'man' to become 'ape-man'. One can notice that the word 'ape' is a noun and the word 'man' is a noun, too and this proves that compounding is governed by syntactic patterns, which means there are rules to be followed when forming new words. One can see patterns, such as Noun + Noun or Adjective + Noun or Verb + Noun or Preposition + Noun, etc. The table below explains some American products with their trademarks which are consumed by the Iraqi people.

Table 1. Compound Words with their Trademarks

No	Borrowed Words	Their Patterns	Brands
1.	Cornflakes	Noun+Noun	
2.	Diet Pepsi	Noun+Noun	
3.	Toffee crisp	Noun+Noun	
4.	Kit kat	Noun+Noun	
5.	Dairy Milk	Noun+Noun	
6.	Red Bull	Noun+Noun	

7.	Temmy's Nutri fit	Noun+Noun+Adje-ctive	
8.	Juicy Fruit	Adjective +Noun	
9.	Dr Pepper	Noun+ Noun	
10.	Lychee Juice	Noun+ Noun	

In terms of free morphemes, Gramley and Patzold (2004, p. 39) state that compounds consist of two or more free morphemes which can be either simple as in the word 'book token' or complex as in the compound word 'childhood sweetheart'. Morphologically, compounds could be hyphenated, such as the words 'reach-me-down' and 'forget-me-not' or could be non-hyphenated as in the word 'whiteboard'.

1.3 Eponym: Lexical Innovation

Eponym is defined by Stageberg (1981, p. 127) "the forming of a common noun, a verb, or an adjective from the name of a person or place". He (ibid.) cites a practical example: the word 'frisbee', for instance, comes from the Frisbie Bakery in Bridgewater in Connecticut in the USA, and then became a flying disc called 'frisbee'.

Baldick (2001, p. 86) clarifies the term 'eponym' as "a term applied to a real or fictitious person after whom a place, thing, institution, meal, or book is named". The word 'Nike' is a name of god according to the Greek mythology, but today it has been used as a famous trademark for clothes, footwear and other accessories and 'Nike' is a name of a corporation specialized in designing the aforementioned products. Stockwell and Minkova (2001, p. 15) explicate that all "eponyms necessarily involve some degree of change in the meaning of the word in the sense that the word 'watt', for instance, refers to a unit of measuring electrical power named after its inventor James Watt and no longer refers to the Engineer Watt himself". Some of the top brands which are concerned with clothes designing, making and fashion, are listed with their logos in the following table:

Table 2. Eponyms of some Top Products with Their Brands

No	Eponyms	Origins	Brands
1.	Calvin Klein	A name of a corporation for making clothes, its name was taken from its founder.	
2.	POLO	A name of team sport but today is a corporation for fashion.	
3.	Nike	The name originally refers to the Greek Goddess of victory, but at present is a name of fashion incorporation and other activities.	
4.	Adidas	A name of sport fashion corporation and its products were named after the company's name.	
5.	Boss(Hugo Boss)	A name of fashion corporation and it was named after its founder Hugo.	

2. Domains Undergoing Coinage

The creativity of coinage makes it a distinguished process because it adds many words to language. In American English, adding and establishing new words requires entering them to Merriam Webster and the American Dialect Society which includes many notable linguists as notable members. This society is concerned with establishing neologisms and each year adds some words to language, such as the word 'hashtag' which is listed as a neologism and became an English word in 2014 and people started to use it as a word which means 'marking a given topic'. No doubt, Merriam Webster Dictionary is the most significant source of adopting words and entering them to the American English in particular and the English language in general.

As regards coinage, it is very productive in the fields of technology, industry, computer software programs, advertisements, trade and internet. The process of coinage is continuing, i.e., several words are created per year and could be per month.

2.1 The Domain of Industry

To produce new commodity, it should be given a new name and this, in return, means a new word will be coined. The field of industry is always productive in creating new words. Bauer (2003, p. 41) proves that coinage appears for the need for labeling something new, that is why he states "For a coinage to occur, there has to be a need, a real or perceived gap in the speaker's lexicon". One can find many examples for products newly made, such as the Phone Mobile tool 'I phone', 'I pad', 'Galaxy Phone', 'Nokia', 'Smart phone', 'Black Berry', 'Samsung', 'Apple', 'Xiaomi', etc.

Many manufacturers name their products after the name of their companies and corporations and this process is called 'eponym' where a name of person or place is given to certain things. Therefore, Samsung manufactured many merchandises and called them Samsung, such as 'Samsung Refrigerator', 'Samsung Air conditioner', 'Samsung Mobile Phone', 'Samsung Recorder'. LG is the abbreviation for the words 'Life is Good' and this is the name of LG Company, which is specialized in manufacturing televisions, refrigerators, and freezing boxes.

2.2 The Domain of Technology

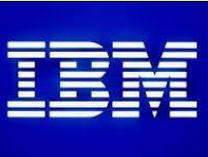
Technology refers to different sciences, including engineering with its different branches, biology, chemistry, physics, medicine, etc. Now sciences have developed greatly and new discoveries have been reached with producing highly developed devices. In the field of space, NASA produced missile systems that enable their engines to go further to the outer space. In their future planning, they would invade the Mars planet during the 2030s and this, in fact, requires technology that is more advanced to achieve that goal.

One could say that every year or maybe less, a new scientific invention could be discovered and this, of course, is given a label or a name with a brand or an eminent mark. The table below bears the most distinguished technological brands in the world.

Table (3) Technological Coinages and their Arabization

No	Borrowed Words	Their Arabization	Brands
1.	CISCO	سيسكو	



2.	Google	غوغل	
3.	Apple	ايل	
4.	IBM	أي بي أم	
5.	Amazon	أمازون	
6.	Oracle	اوركال	
7.	Sony	سوني	
8.	Samsung	سامسونج	
9.	Microsoft	مايكروسوفت	

10.	Intel	انتل	
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Examining the coinages found in the field of technology, one can find words that have different morphological word formation processes, such as the word 'Microsoft' which is a compound word consisting of two words 'micro' and 'soft' which is a widely used program in computer system. Acronyms and abbreviations are also observed in the area, such as the word 'Lan' which is an acronymic word pronounced as one word /lan/, while abbreviation is noticed in the word 'IBM' which is pronounced /ai bi: m/, coined from the initial letters of the three words "International Business Machines". The words 'Google', 'Apple' and 'Amazon' are undergoing semantic shift throughout changing their semantic fields from one to another. As a result, this generates or coins new words in the sense that the word 'Google' originally was used in mathematics referring to a number, but later was used in the field of internet meaning 'searching for something in the servers'. 'Amazon' is a name of a known forest in Brazil, but this name was eponymized in the field of internet and search, i.e., it was used to mean a kind of electronic library.

2.3 The Domain of Internet

The invention of internet in 1990 in America led to a revolution in the progress of all natural sciences. Accordingly, many words were coined and are still in the process of coining in the field of internet. Yule (2010, p.54) points out that "the most salient contemporary example of coinage is the word 'google' which is originally a misspelling for the word 'googol' meaning 1+100 zeros". He (ibid.) further adds: "in the creation of the word 'Googleplex', which later became the name of the company (Google) and later this word was widely used as a verb which means 'to use the internet to find information'".

Notably, one can notice the amount of words coined in the field of internet, such as 'e-mail', 'inbox', 'spam', 'yahoo messenger', 'mail dream', 'trash', 'attach', 'compose', etc. The invention of the social media devices added many words to language. First, 'Facebook' was invented in 2006 in California USA. Instagram, Twitter, Snap chat, 'Alochat' and others were recently created and are being used as devices of communicating and telephoning among people in near and distant places.

2.4 The Domain of Commerce

The field of trade is full of word manufacturing as the process is ongoing because the new productions of new goods need new names, which are not familiar to the consumers of such merchandises. Stock and Minkova (2001, p. 6) declare,

"Frigidaire is a clever coinage for a particular brand of refrigerating device". As they (ibid.) add, "Kleenx is a similarly catching propriety commercial name based on cleaning up process and the pseudo-scientific suffix (-ex)".

Yule (2010, p. 53) believes that "the most typical sources are invented trade names for commercial products that became general terms for any version of that product". For example, the word 'xerox' became a trademark of copying machine in the whole world and even some people or tradesmen prefer saying 'xerox' instead of saying 'copy machine'. The word 'panadol' is a kind of pills used to alleviate the 'headache', which is a widely known medical product.

Likewise, Baugh and Cable (2002, p. 287) explain that the word "zipper is a word coined by the B.F. Goodrich company and registered in 1925 as the name for a boot fitted with a slide fastener, has become the universal name for the fastener itself."

Table (4) Commercial Coinages and their Arabization

N	Borrowed Words	Their Arabization	Brands
1	Pepsi	بيبيسي	
2	Coca Cola	كوك كولا	
3	Pizza Hut	بيتزا هات	
4	Lipton	ليبتون	
5	Burger King	بيرجر كنج	
6	Fanta	فانتا	

7	Lay's	ليز	
8	Nescafe	نيسكافي	
9	Maggi	ماغي	
10.	7up	سفن أب	

In Iraq and the whole Arabic world, the words mentioned in the table above starting from the word 'Pepsi' ending with the word '7up' are names of notable brands of commercial products, which entered the Arabic countries with their names and neither the governments nor the merchants or people changed their names by Arabic suitable words. The word 'Nescafe' is a Swiss word, which is defined by Wikipedia (2017), as "a brand of instant coffee made by Nestlé Company. It comes in many different forms. The name is a portmanteau of the words 'Nestlé' and 'café' ". It is transliterated into Arabic /neskafi/ yet there is an appropriate Arabic word for it that can be used in any context of situation.

3. Borrowing from Other Languages: A Source of Lexical Invention

In Iraq, people transliterate the word 'parliament' as pronounced in English because this word is already a borrowing word which came to Arabic just like other borrowings. The question that should be posed here in this context is: why do Iraqis use the word 'parliament' in their formal and informal talks in spite of existing its Arabic equivalent 'majlis alneiabi'? Anyone might answer by stating that this word had been transferred to our community through the British occupation of Iraq in the 1920s and still people adopt it, believing that it is already an Arabic word. The problem that can be noticed is that educated people and academic persons and even linguists, specialized in Arabic, use the borrowed word albeit they know that Arabic has an equivalent term for it and there is no need to use the English one. So the other question that should be posed in this context: why do Iraqis say 'bicycle' though there is a lexical equivalent term for it in Arabic (دراجة هوائية)? The answer is that the type of the product imported from the western countries affected people and they liked it and its name altogether. In addition, academicians and linguists have no role in keeping the language away from borrowing or from linguistic invasion.

Bussmann (1996, p. 44) defines the term borrowing as: "Adoption of a linguistic expression from one language to another language, usually when no term exists for the new object, concept, or state of affairs". Arabic had borrowed many words from different languages, but the most significant languages from which Arabic borrowed words are English, Turkish and Persian languages. Many years ago, the Persian and Ottoman armies occupied Iraq for long periods in the sense that the Ottoman Empire invaded Iraq and stayed for around four centuries; therefore, many words had been borrowed and are still used by the Iraqis, such as 'khashoga' which means spoon, 'kendra' which means man's shoes, 'estemara' which means 'application form', 'kabab' which means 'minced drilled meat' or 'tecka' which means 'small drilled pieces of meat', etc.

Many words, that are still used in our daily life, had been borrowed from the Persian language in the field of food, clothes, social issues and domestic appliances, such as 'belam' which means a boat, 'berda' which means 'curtain', 'dugma' which means 'button', etc.

Borrowing occurs for specific reasons; either due to the occupation of one country by another (both have different languages), or through language contact between two languages via traveling or for commercial causes. Consequently, Harley (2006, p. 107) declares that "Borrowing occurs when a community that speaks one language comes into contact with a community that speaks another language, and adopts a word from that community, as English borrowed 'spaghetti' from Italy or 'karate' from Japan."

4. How Some Loans Became Slang in Iraqi Local and Their Effect on Standard Arabic

In Iraq many words were taken from other languages in different ways and some of them became colloquial and slang words. Some of them have undergone phonetic and semantic changes when entered to Iraqi Arabic. For example, the word 'tomato' is pronounced /tə'mɑ:təʊ/ when entered to Arabic, it is now pronounced /ʔamatə/. Semantically, the Turkish word 'tuz' /tuz/ which means 'salt' now means a derogatory term used to describe unacceptable things.

Algeo (2010: 248) views borrowing through the following quotation "When speakers imitate a word from a foreign language, they are said to borrow it, and their imitation is called a borrowing or loanword".

The question that should be raised in this context of situation is why Arabs use loan words exported from foreign countries though they have equivalent words? The standard English or French words entered Arabic and turned to be slang, not standard. This could be good because they would not be standard and could not be good because they became part of slang or colloquial Iraqi Arabic dialect and slang is more pervasive than the standard Arabic, and used in daily life talks comprehensively. The table below lists of some words borrowed from other languages which became Iraqi slang expressions.

Table (5) Loans Turned into Iraqi Slang Words

No.	Borrowed Words	Source Lang	Their Standard Arabic	Their Iraqi Slang	Their Field
1.	Wire	English	سلك	واير	Electricity
2.	Garage	English	مرأب	كراج	Estate
3.	Jug	English	قارورة مياه	جك	Domestic Tools
4.	switch	English	مفتاح	سويچ	Tools
5.	Cigarette	English	سيجارة	جكاره	Tobacco
6.	Kundura(shoes)	Turkish	حذاء	قندره	Clothes
7.	Kaşık(spoon)	Turkish	ملعقة	خاشوكة	Domestic Tools
8.	Kebab(drilled meat)	Turkish	كباب	كباب	Food
9.	şiş kebab	Turkish	سيخ كباب	شيش كباب	Food
10.	Gümrük(customs)	Turkish	جُمْرُكْ	كَمْزُكْ	Border
11.	Hatun(mistress)	Turkish	امراة ، سيدة	خاتون	Nicknames
12.	Takia(cap)	Persian	طاقية	طاكية	Clothes
13.	Shekar (sugar)	Persian	سكر	شكر	Food
14.	Tawa(pot)	Persian	تاوه	طاوه	Domestic Tools
15.	Turshi (pickle)	Persian	ترشي	طرشي	Food
16.	Maiz(table)	Persian	طاولة	ميز	Domestic Tools

5. Conclusion

The study of the semantic jargon and the morphological building up of the English coinages have shown that inventing new words could take the form of compounding two words or more together or one existing word combines with prefixes or suffixes or framing new words through the process of forming acronym or initialisms by taking initial letters of a group of words or through loans imported from other languages, but to be subjected to phonetic or morphological or semantic modifications.

Generating an infinite number of new words in the aspects of internet or computer programs or industry or technology comes due to producing new products or commodities that are given specific names which are to be famous

brands. The field of internet, for example, is full of jargonized words, such as 'Twitter', 'Whatsapp', 'Instagram', 'Pinterest', and 'Snapshot'. When the Iraqi receive a foreign new word, they can find an Arabic equivalent but they do not use it at all; rather they keep using the foreign one. For example, the word 'e-mail' which means the electronic post and its Arabic equivalent is (بريد الكتروني), still people say the English word 'e-mail'. Products are imported to Iraq and their names are borrowed all along the products, exported from the producing corporations to be established as new words, such as the word 'lenovo', which is a kind of laptop or mobile.

Iraqi Arabic dialect had borrowed many words from the English, Turkish and Persian languages because of their previous occupations of Iraq or due to language contact and trade exchange. The loans, which were used by Iraqis, influenced the Arabic language and its entity where some of them became slang words, yet Iraqis have equivalents, but they prefer using the words that came from other languages – specifically those words that stand for the brands or labels of the goods. Thus, the Iraqi people imported not only the goods, but also new words.

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INTEGRATING COMPUTERIZED LEXIS-BASED INSTRUCTION AND ZPD-ACTIVATED LANGUAGING TO ENHANCE IRANIAN L2 SSTUDENTS' LEXICAL ACHIEVEMENT

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Abstract

Recent L2 research has witnessed the integration of computerized instructional course modules and lexis-based views of language emphasize teaching or learning of multiword lexical chunks. Besides, L2 education has welcomed the application of sociocultural notions, such as collaborative dialogue and social mediation. This study sought, firstly, to examine the effect of lexis-based instruction employing software programs and, secondly, to probe the possibility of integrating ZPD-based language learning into the lexical view. A cohort of 75 Iranian junior high-school students participated in this pretest-posttest quasi-experimental study. The control group was taught only using their mainstream EFL textbooks focusing on discrete vocabulary items without any use of computer-mediated platforms. The lexis group, however, received instruction on L2 lexical chunks (e.g., concordances, polywords, or formulaic sequences) mainly using a teacher-designed multipurpose lexis software, or LexisBOARD, which offers further practice or feedback affordances through lexical exercises and quizzes for self-assessment. Meanwhile, the ZPD group was taught through ZPD-activated collaborative dialogue, or language learning, using output tasks besides the LexisBOARD applications. Students' verbal interactions were audio-recorded and transcribed for subsequent qualitative analysis while they were using language to mediate lexis tasks. Subsequently, ANCOVA results indicated that the lexis group made greater vocabulary gains as compared to the control group, pointing to the effectiveness of the lexis-based view (using LexisBOARD). More specifically, completing the collaborative tasks in pairs, the ZPD group developed a greater task-completion accuracy than the lexis group, but did not necessarily achieve significantly greater gains of vocabulary knowledge. Further, the results showed differential effects for task types in that the dictogloss task was most effective in promoting negotiation and learning. The findings have implications for implementing corpus-based software programs and ZPD-based activities in L2 classrooms.

Keywords: Collaborative output tasks, Concordances, Lexis-based instruction, LexisBOARD, Lexical chunks, ZPD-based languaging

1. Theoretical Background

The notion *lexis* refers not only to single vocabulary items, but also lexical combinations which are stored in language learners' mental lexicons as unanalyzed chunks which, according to Lewis (1993), form the basis of language. Language production is, then, simply piecing together these ready-made units appropriate for a particular language use situation (Nattinger, 1980). These formulaic chunks are often fully fixed in terms of their lexical constituents and, in many cases, the meaning of the whole is completely different from the sum of the meanings of its parts (Side, 1990). Other concepts used to refer to unanalyzed wholes are *lexical phrases* (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992), *speech formulae* (Peters, 1983), *gambits* (Keller, 1979), and *lexicalized stems* (Pawley & Syder, 1983).

To usage-based theorists, lexis is a point of departure for the emergent language learning process. From this theoretical perspective, lexis-based language learning involves the automatization of frequently occurring sequences of linguistic elements which, through language experience and frequency of use, have now gained the status of grammaticized linguistic constructions (Dörnyei, 2009; Tomasello, 2000). This lexis-oriented grammaticalization process, according to Tomasello (2000), has been at work diachronically at macro level, whereby grammatical structures of modern languages phylogenetically emerged from functional language use, and also synchronically at micro level of a child (or L2 learner), mastering the syntactic structure of language. Tomasello (1998) speculates that children cannot acquire the grammatical rules of L2 by starting with individual words, acquired in isolation, and then slotting them in meaningless rules and structures. Instead, they begin acquisition with comprehension and production of whole, meaningful utterances. Then, they extract words from utterances and, at the same time, find language patterns and abstract meaningful grammatical structures across utterances. In essence, language "consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar" (Lewis, 1993, p. 89).

The centrality of lexis to meaning making attempts and, thus, to communicative ability in item-based language learning views conveys a *greatly diminished* role for *sentence grammar*. Nonetheless, the notion that every word has its own grammar suggests that any language teaching approach based on the centrality of lexis is in many ways more grammatical than the traditional grammar-based syllabuses (Lewis, 1993). Lewis (1993) bases his lexically-based language teaching (LBLT) approach on this notion and further argues that "without grammar little can be conveyed; without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (Lewis, 2000, p. 8). In a similar vein, Larsen-Freeman (1991) argues that grammar is just one of the several dimensions of language that deals with the forms of language, whereas such forms are literally meaningless without a second dimension, namely, semantics, which comes about through lexis.

This lexis-based view of language learning is basically a radical departure from traditional grammar-based views that grammatical structures originate in the grammar component of the human genome or that language learners' early utterances are organized around system-wide syntactic schemas (Tomasello, 2000) and, thus, awaits further theorizing and research. This perceived need for more focused research on the application of lexis-based theories becomes more exigent in the modern technology era when teachers and learners witness a huge proliferation of corpus-based lexis

parsing (or processing) software applications that can assist them in teaching or learning L2 collocations, concordances, or formulaic sequences.

Classroom-accessible software accessories and database resources foster greater attention to concurrence and recurrence of multiword lexical strings in authentic language use and, consequently, provide effective opportunities for meaning-focused production of language. Recent L2 research, however, recommends the use of those pedagogical activities which emulate form-focused production of language patterns in appropriate contexts (Nassaji & Fotos, 2007; Pica, 2007; Williams, 2005). In this regard, classroom tasks which require learners to work together to collaboratively produce output have been suggested. These pedagogical activities provide effective opportunities for peer feedback and scaffolding, social interaction and negotiation of meaning, internalization and consolidating L2 knowledge, and problem-solving and attention to form, all of which are implicated in L2 learning (Kowal & Swain, 1994, 1997; Lapkin, Swain, & Smith, 2002; Swain, 2001a, 2001b, 2005; Swain & Lapkin, 2001).

The rationale for the facilitative role of collaborative output activities in second language acquisition (SLA) originates in the sociocultural theory (SCT) of mind (Swain, 2005). The SCT views L2 learning as a cognitive process mediated through language (Lantolf, 2000). According to the sociocultural framework, when learners work together to produce language collaboratively, they use language not only to convey meaning, but also to develop meaning (Swain, 2005). In other words, doing collaboratively on various output tasks, learners not only produce language output, but the assistance they receive from their peers can scaffold them in making their meanings more precisely and appropriately (Kowal & Swain, 1994; Swain, 2005). The process of language production through metalinguistic talks derived from students' collaborative dialogues (languaging), according to the SCT, is then a process of language learning (Lantolf, 2000). Meanwhile, in the SCT, languaging takes place within zone of proximal development (ZPD) which refers to one's developmental progress in future achieved in corporation with others. In simpler terms, it is within the ZPD where future development is achieved through collaborative dialogues with expert partners (Vygotsky, 1978).

2. The Study

Although Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) textbooks have recently been revised, the way L2 vocabulary is presented (or reactivated) is still problematic (at least) from the vantage point of the lexical approach and SCT, which motivate this study. In these textbooks, vocabulary is largely treated as a stock of individual words with fixed meanings rather than concurring or recurring lexicalized chunks, items, or formulae supposed to underlie learners' grammaticalization processes. Further, sentence grammar (e.g., substitution or transformational drills) still receives too much emphasis, whereas L2 collocations, gambits, cognates, or other multiword lexical strings are paid almost no principled attention throughout the course books (Poorebrahim, 2007). Further research, thus, is needed to explore a methodological focus on formulaic chunks using multicomponential computer-assisted lexis platforms. This issue was addressed by the current study within an EFL classroom in Iran.

Another problem existing in current Iranian EFL textbooks is that they do not contribute to L2 learners' productive vocabulary use. For Iranian EFL learners, a major challenge is, then, the imbalance between their receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge. That is, they can comprehend a large amount of vocabulary in context, but a small number of words can be reactivated in their production. Ringbom (1987) argues that the gap between receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge arises from the difference between comprehension and production processing modes which constitute the basis of receptive and productive vocabulary learning. Comprehension is a *data-based* process which requires an appropriate external stimulation, whereas production is a self-regulatory mechanism which requires speakers/writers to activate the impulses themselves. Thus, productive vocabulary learning is much more difficult than receptive vocabulary learning in that the former requires speakers'/writers' greater control and task effort (e.g., to choose between a number of activated items or between different forms of the same item), whereas the latter only requires an external stimulation (e.g., a specific context). The gap between Iranian EFL learners' receptive and productive vocabulary learning would not constitute a problem if it did not affect their effective communicative ability. However, according to Poorebrahim (2007), Iran's school systems often test the comprehension mode of learning (i.e., what students know about language), rather than the productive self-activated mechanisms (i.e., what they can do through language). This, consequently, does not contribute to the communicative ability of Iranian EFL students and they cannot reactivate the external stimulation they receive in productive language use.

These inadequacies, therefore, constituted the focus of the present study. The present study, thus, sought to address the following research questions:

1. Does lexis-based EFL instruction (delivered through the teacher-designed LexisBOARD computer software) have any significant effect upon Iranian junior high-school L2 students' vocabulary achievement?
2. Does ZPD-activated collaboration (delivered through collaborative output tasks) significantly influence the effectiveness of lexis-based EFL instruction upon Iranian junior high-school L2 students' vocabulary achievement?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

A total number of 80 Iranian students at grade three of junior high school participated in the main instructional phase of the current quasi-experimental (control-group, pretest-posttest) study. An online Preliminary English Test (PET) was initially administered to the three groups to ensure the homogeneity of the groups in terms of language proficiency. Five supposedly outliers were disregarded, and, thus, the data analysis included 75 students in total. There were 25 students in the lexis experimental group, 25 in the ZPD experimental group, and 25 others in the control group. They were all female students within the age range of 15 to 16, and their L1 was Persian. They attended their EFL classes two days a week,

receiving 4 hours of instruction each week. The students attended three EFL classes in a (junior) high school in a southwestern city (i.e., Lordegan) in Iran. None of them had been to an English-speaking country, not attended any English language institute.

3.2. Materials and Instruments

A lexis-based pretest was initially administrated to control the participant's prior lexical knowledge. The target vocabulary items were from amongst those supposed to be covered later in lexis-based, ZPD-based, and grammar-based instructions. In terms of format, the test items were a combination of the lexical exercises suggested by Lewis (1993, 2008) and the output activities which were suggested for collaborative production, for instance, fill-in-the-blanks or completion, matching, short answer items, sentence recognition, cloze test, editing, and writing sentences incorporating target words. The constructed test was, then, examined for reliability and validity. The validity of the test was ensured basically through content validity. To this end, a detailed (achievement) test specification was, first, designed based on the content of the syllabus. Then, 70 items were constructed benefiting from two experts' judgments. The test was piloted with 30 female Iranian EFL students at the same level in a different high school. Based on the results obtained from the item analysis stage, the items with acceptable item difficulty and item discriminability were included in the test. The intrarater reliability of the test was estimated to be 0.92, having the rater re-examine the pretest papers after a week. The reliability of the pretest estimated by Cornbach's alpha coefficient was also found to be 0.86.

For implementing the lexical approach in the lexis group, the multipurpose LexisBOARD computer platform was designed which provided the participants with concordances of authentic (spoken and written) language as well as other software and online affordances. The aim was to design an appropriate resource which was easy to use and localized based on the participants' needs and interests. In Iranian high schools, much emphasis is put on students' development of EFL reading skill (Mirzaei, Rahimi, & Heidari, 2013). Further, as noted above, learning, practicing, and testing words in the form of Present-Practice-Produce are common activities in Iranian EFL classrooms. Therefore, LexisBOARD offered different software accessories and database resources whereby the participants could engage with L2 lexical items (needed for their educational level) within multiword chunks in the form of an "Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment cycle" (Lewis, 1993, p. vii). Moreover, to cater for different tastes, a rather diverse set of practice, test, quiz, and feedback affordances were available for individual experimentation with L2 lexis. Although a corpus does not tell users meanings of lexical items or phrases, LexisBOARD was a combination of a dictionary and a corpus which provided students with different meanings of the target vocabulary based on the context of use they chose or concordance lines of words and chunks. Different word meanings and the authentic language use were extracted from Collins COBUILD Dictionary (2006), and the examples of concordance lines were taken from British National Corpus (BNC, 2007). Meanwhile, LexisBOARD also provided this possibility for users to be linked to the original database from which the concordance lines have been taken and do further explorations (See Appendix for typical LexisBOARD displays).

3.3. Procedure

After administering the pretest, the control group was instructed through traditional Iranian EFL textbooks. Each Iranian EFL textbook lesson contained a main dialogue (1-2 Min in length, ranging from 5 to 11 turns), followed by sentence patterns and grammar exercises which occupied most parts of each lesson. Afterwards, a reading passage mainly focused on the structural rules of each lesson in context and elicited the target patterns through the reading comprehension questions followed it. Then, a list of single words was provided at the end of each lesson which the participants were supposed to use according to their knowledge of grammar. With the experimental group, although the LexisBOARD software was designed so that it would be easy to use, the teacher trained the participants for two sessions and constantly provided know-how updates for new features of the computer platform. Care and patience were exercised to ensure all the participants built autonomy using the software applications and experimented different accessories with interest. The lexis group was taught by use of LBLT techniques through the designed data-driven LexisBOARD for a duration of 15 weeks. In brief, the following LBLT techniques suggested by Lewis (1993) were implemented to increase the participants' knowledge of lexical units:

- Intensive listening and reading in L2,
- L1 and L2 comparisons and translations carried-out chunk-for-chunk rather than word for word,
- Repetition and recycling of activities,
- Guessing the meanings of new vocabulary items from context,
- Working with corpus-based dictionaries and other reference tools,
- Noticing lexical patterns and collocations.

The ZPD group was taught using ZPD-activated collaborative dialogue, or languaging. Using their metacognitive to speak about their learning experience, the participants tried to consolidate and internalize their understanding of the target lexis. Besides, the self-reflexive affordances the computer-aided LexisBORAD offered them ensured their noticing of concurrence and recurrence of lexical items in different polyword, collocational, colligational, and formulaic patterns.

While the students were performing on the output tasks collaboratively, their verbal interactions were audio-recorded. Their recorded interaction were, then, transcribed and analyzed in terms of "language related episodes" (i.e., the situations in which learners self-explained, self-corrected, or analyzed the language they produced; Nassaji & Tian, 2010, p. 399).

4. Results

In order to ensure the normality distributions of the pretest and posttest scores and also have general estimates of the groups' vocabulary achievements, descriptive statistics (i.e., the means, minimal and maximum scores, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis) of the groups' **performances were first computed. Table 1 shows the results:**

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Groups' Pretest Post-test

Group	Test	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Grammar-Based	Pretest	25	6.50	15.00	11.80	2.43	-.47	-.63
	Posttest	25	10.00	15.50	12.16	1.23	.17	1.26
Lexis-Based	Pretest	25	8.00	17.00	12.00	2.37	.44	-.62
	Posttest	25	10.00	19.00	15.76	2.50	-0.38	-.83
ZPD-Based	Pretest	25	8.00	15.00	11.70	1.89	-.19	-.07
	Posttest	25	11.00	18.50	16.60	2.56	-1.48	.77
Total	Pretest	75	6.50	17.00	11.84	2.24	-.03	-.47
	Posttest	75	10.00	19.00	14.71	2.56	.55	-1.47

As displayed in Table 1, the Kurtosis and Skewness values of the participants' scores on both pretests and posttests were well within the range of ± 1.5 which indicated an acceptable normality distributions. Regarding the participants' vocabulary pretest scores (Min = 6.5 and Max = 17), the mean scores were roughly the same, 11.7, for the ZPD group, 11.8, for the control group, and 12, for the lexis group, respectively. Afterwards, a one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to compare the longitudinal effects of both instruction types on students' vocabulary posttest performances (i.e., dependent variable in the ANCOVA), while simultaneously controlling for pretest differences as the covariate in the analysis. The grouping or independent variable in the analysis was type of instruction (i.e., lexis-based, ZPD-based, or grammar-based). Specifically, the ANCOVA examined whether the difference between posttest mean scores of the groups was statistically significant or not.

Table 2: ANCOVA Results for the Groups' Vocabulary Achievements

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Squared	Eta
Corrected Model	336.92	3	112.30	31.16	.00	0.58	
Intercept	206.85		206.85	57.39	.00	.46	
Pretest	75.35	1	75.35	20.90	.00	.24	
Group	260.43	1	130.21	36.13	.00	0.52	
Error		2					
Total	237.86	66	3.60				
Corrected Model	15730.50	70					
	574.78	69					

a. R squared = 0.58 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.56)

The ANCOVA results in Table 2 demonstrate that the evidenced difference between the groups' post-instruction vocabulary test scores was not statistically significant, $F(2, 66) = 36.13$, $p < 0.0005$. Further, the obtained partial eta squared (0.52) was not significant indicating that the variance in the dependent variable (posttests) is not explainable by the type of instruction employed for the groups. In simpler terms, the (non-collaborative) lexis-based instruction, emphasizing lexical patterning of multi-word lexical expressions through the use of LexisBOARD, and (collaborative) lexis-based instruction, emphasizing output production of multi-word lexical expressions through the use of collaborative output tasks did not differ significantly. In other words, collaborative tasks did not lead to significantly greater gains of multi-word lexical knowledge than individual tasks, pointing to the superiority of practicing and learning L2 vocabulary when lexical items are seen in larger, more holistic ways. Doing the tasks collaboratively, however, students had a greater accuracy of task completion than completing them individually. That is, social mediated communication which created affordable learning opportunities to support both meaning-oriented communication and focus-on-form reflection led to a greater accuracy of task completion than computer-mediated communication which mainly focused on the role of meaning-oriented communication.

In order to examine which instruction was most effective, a set of Bonferroni-adjusted pairwise comparisons was run; the results of which are displayed in Table 3:

Table 3: Post hoc Pairwise Comparisons for Different Groups

(I) Instruction (J) Instruction	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
				Upper Bound	Lower Bound
Grammar-Based & Lexis-Based	12.18 ^a	.38	.000	11.42	12.93
Lexis-Based & ZPD-Based	15.68 ^a	.38	.000	14.92	16.44

ZPD Lexis-Based & Non-ZPD Lexis-Based	16.66 ^a	.42	.000	15.81	17.51
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- b. Note: Based on estimated marginal means
- c. a. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
- d. b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

As displayed in Table 3, further inspection of the post hoc (Bonferroni-adjusted) pairwise comparisons demonstrated that the lexis group made noticeable vocabulary achievements compared to the control group. In simpler terms, the (noncollaborative) lexis-based instruction, emphasizing lexical patterning of multiword lexical expressions through the use of LexisBOARD, can significantly improve Iranian junior high-school L2 students' vocabulary achievement.

The transcriptions of the ZPD students' audio-recorded interactions were analyzed to see whether there was any difference between task types in the nature of interaction and opportunities for attention to form. To this end, the students' interaction was analyzed in terms of language related episodes (i.e., feedback, self-correction, self-expression, and the language context of target lexical phrases). Further, it was probed whether these tasks made students to attend to form, meaning, or both of them. As a whole, the amount and type of language produced by students were analyzed.

The results showed that the dictogloss task led to greater instances of metalinguistic talk about the target lexical phrases than other task types. But the editing task had the greater instances of form-focused feedback because this task naturally required the participants to provide the accurate response. Meanwhile, the results showed that most of the participants' participation in the tasks consisted of confirmation and repetition of each other's productions. In short, 54% of the turns in the task types consisted of confirmation and repetition, whereas 24% of the turns consisted of metalinguistic explanation, and 22% of the turns consisted of form-focused feedback. These results have been demonstrated in Table 4:

Table 4: Students' Turns in Collaborative Output Tasks

Source	Tasks					
	Cloze	Editing	Dictogloss	Jigsaw	Picture Description	Total
Form-Focused Feedback	14 (18%)	23 (36%)	17 (28%)	18 (21%)	7 (11%)	79 (22%)
Metalinguistic Explanation	8 (10%)	6 (10%)	31(51%)	23 (27%)	15 (22%)	83 (24%)
Confirmation and Repetition	55 (71%)	34 (54%)	13 (21%)	44 (52%)	45 (67%)	192 (54%)
Total	77 (22%)	63 (18%)	61(17%)	85 (24%)	67 (19%)	353 (100%)

The total percentage of each task type shows that the dictogloss has been the most difficult task and the jigsaw task the easiest one. In short, 24% of the participants answered jigsaw task, whereas 17% answered dictogloss task.

The extracts below from the transcriptions show examples of the participants' interactions in the five task types. Episode 1 was extracted from a cloze task and Episodes 2, 3, 4, and 5 came from an editing task, a dictogloss task, a jigsaw task, and a picture description task, respectively.

Episode # 1:

Cloze task: My mother just said, "Well, you'll soon come over it. You'll just have to get a ..."

Student A: Well, you'll soon come over it. You'll just have to get a ...

Student B: get what?

Student A: Maybe get a job?

Student B: Yeah, get a job

Student A: So, you'll just have to get a job.

The above task required the participants to supply the missing phrasal verb *get a job* in the cloze utterance *Well, you'll soon come over it. You'll just have to get a _____*. As can be seen, there is not much interaction going on between the two participants during the cloze task, and the participants' responses are mainly in the form of confirming and repeating each other's suggestions. (The continuity of the sentence is shown with [...]).

Episode # 2:

Editing task: Ok. Have your time. If you need help, let me know.

Student A: Ok. Have your time. If you need help, let me know.

Student B: Let me see. Have your time? Yeah.

Student A: Huh. It seems there's no problem.

Student B: Um. So, have your time?

Student A: Yeah. Have your time? If you need help, let me know.

Episode 2 was taken from an editing task in which two students are attempting to correct the erroneous verb *have your time* (the correct phrasal verb is *take your time*). The participants go back and forth a number of times discussing and providing form-focused and corrective feedback about their choice before they decide whether it is correct or wrong. The participants here do not arrive at an accurate decision, but there are several instances of form-focused negotiation, questions, and answers about the target form in lines 3 and 4.

Episode # 3:

Dictogloss task: It was very hot and we went fishing and then went swimming in the river.

Student A: It was very hot and we went fishing and then went swimming in the river.

Student B: It was very hot can be reconstructed as it was summer.

Student A: Yeah. So, it was summer and we went swimming in the river.

Student B: Huh. We went swimming in the river.

Student A: And, then what?

Student B: Then, we went fishing and took a fish.

Student A: Ok.

Student B: So, it was summer. We went swimming in the river and got a large fish.

In Episode 3, the task required the reconstruction of a text which requires phrasal verbs *go fishing* and *go swimming* in the utterance: *It was very hot and we went fishing and then went swimming in the river*. In this example, there is some interaction between the two participants, but they do not arrive at an authentic use of the lexical phrases (e.g., learners used *take a fish* instead of *catch a fish*).

Episode # 4:

Jigsaw task: Let's get the early train. It doesn't take more than one hour to arrive in (e.g., Paris, New York, etc.).

Student A: Let's gets the early train.

Student B: Yeah. And then ...

Student A: Then what?

Student B: Then, it takes more than one hour to arrive in ...

Student A: No, it makes more sense to say it doesn't takes more than one hour to arrive in ...

Student B: That's right.

Student A: So, let's gets the early train. It doesn't takes more than one hour to arrive in ...

In Episode 4, the task asked the participants to make a story with the phrasal verbs *let's get the early train* and *take more than one hour*. In this example, there is some interaction between the two students, but still the contributions are mainly in the form of pausing and confirming. Further, there have been seen some erroneous grammatical structures (e.g., learners used *gets* instead of *get* or *takes* instead of *take*).

Episode # 5:

Picture description task: Last Saturday, Jack and his friends gave a birthday party ...

Student A: Look at the picture, there are a lot of presents there.

Student B: So, Jack's friends gave him a lot of presents.

Student A: Yeah. And, the cake on the table ...

Student B: Oh, the cake on the table what?

Student A: Hum. Then, Jack brought a birthday cake for his gusts.

Student B: And, they had a great time.

Student A: It's better to say 'they had a great time and enjoyed themselves.'

Episode 5 was extracted from a picture description task in which two participants are attempting to describe a picture which examines the correct use of the lexical phrase *give a birthday party*. The participants provide corrective feedback and confirmation about their choice before they decide whether it is correct or wrong.

5. Discussion

The findings showed that adoption of a lexis-based view to teaching language skills, especially vocabulary, could be advantageous to a considerable degree, raising learners' awareness of concurrence and recurrence of lexical items in real language use. The design and use of LexisBOARD software also indicated that computerized platforms and corpora offer practical, down-to-earth choices and affordances to put lexis-oriented view to practice in L2 classrooms. Particularly, the findings supported the efficiency of ZPD-activated languaging, or collaborative dialogue, on the development L2 learners' productive vocabulary use. The qualitative analysis of the audio-recorded collaborative dialogues provided further support for the potential value of collaborative output tasks, especially the dictogloss task which emulated more productive vocabulary use, in L2 learning. In sum, if lexis is to play its rightful place in L2 teaching, it is, thus, suggested that the application of both LBLT and SCT to SLA provides a productive line of inquiry for L2 research and pedagogy to account for emergent item-based views and the development of higher psychological processes.

On a pedagogical level, the postintervention improvement witnessed in the experimental group's vocabulary knowledge can be taken as evidence to further support, firstly, the use of the lexis-based approach as the main methodological framework and, secondly, the interface of lexis and corpus-based technology. As Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) and Lewis (1993) note, both research and experience have shown that all learners initially use a large number of unanalyzed chunks in certain predictable social contexts. Recent research now suggests that use and subsequent noticing of lexis properties are basic to language acquisition (Lewis, 1993). It is surmised that the mind stores useful lexical clusters or multiword expressions as holistic units which are later more easily retrieved and processed than the same word

sequences generated through slotting in vocabulary in syntactic patterns (Schmitt, Grandage, & Adolphs, 2004). This ease of access to formulaic sequences prepackaged in memory, in turn, allows for more fluency and subtle cognitive processing of language patterning. Boers et al. (2006) findings added support to this notion, demonstrating that the participants' noticing and subsequent use (or intake) of formulaic sequences (a process they call *phrase-noticing* or *chunk-noticing*) significantly contributed to their perceived oral proficiency. Similarly, Taguchi (2007) found that chunk learning (or memorizing) increased sensitivity to discourse features and, over time, served as a basis for creative discourse construction.

Furthermore, the instructional as well as self-reflexive affordances the computer-aided LexisBORAD offered to the participants helped them and the teacher overcome the menacing chaos initially conveyed by an intention to work with *boundless lexis* as the basis of instruction. LexisBORAD, in the first place, enabled the teacher to keep track of the vocabulary reservoir needed for that very educational level of interest. In the second place, the software simultaneously made it easy to ensure the participants' noticing of concurrence and recurrence of lexical items in different polyword, collocational, colligational, and formulaic patterns. More importantly, offline dictionary as well as online corpora accessories were available for further learner explorations or self-regulation. This way, learning tends to become more individualized aligning instructional affordances with students' real needs. Students, in turn, become research fellows whose learning is driven by access to genuine linguistic data and, in the long run, feel more responsible for their own learning. In this study, for instance, the participants used LexisBOARD to verify their intuitions about the use (real-life examples) of lexical items without completely resorting to dictionary for mere subjective meanings. The findings concur with other research attempts which have sought to make a case for the lexis-computer interface (e.g., Chen & Baker, 2010; Cobb, 2007; Fuentes, 2001).

This study also set out to implement a ZPD-activated lexical instruction in an EFL classroom to compare its effect on L2 vocabulary achievement with that of the ZPD-free lexis-based instruction. To recap, ZPD-activated languaging encouraged students' language production, especially in the form of collaborative dialogue, through form-focused negotiation of meaning or metalinguistic talks while they were performing on various output tasks in pairs. Besides, the multipurpose LexisBOARD software as a computer-aided platform ensured the participants' noticing of concurrence and recurrence of formulaic phrases in authentic language use. The efficiency of collaborative tasks in output production was determined by how successfully the participants completed the tasks and also through performance on a pretest-posttest vocabulary test. The results demonstrated that ZPD-activated languaging, eliciting collaborative production of the target phrasal verbs, led to L2 participants' considerable vocabulary improvement and induced their further (re)production of language in the form of collaborative dialogue within a microgenetic domain. Producing language collaboratively, the participants also gained a greater accuracy a greater accuracy of task completion. In short, teaching within a group's ZPD led to deeper, more conceptually based understanding of L2 vocabulary. This is an important finding as it can have different psychological and pedagogical implications for the SCT view that the collaborative acquisition of language is a key to the higher levels of linguistic competence

6. Conclusion

This study first set out to implement a computerized lexis-based instruction in an EFL classroom to compare its effect on L2 vocabulary achievement with that of the mainstream noncomputerized grammar-based teaching methodology. To recap, the multipurpose LexisBOARD software was designed as a computer-mediated platform to put theoretical premises of Lewis' lexical approach to practice (and test) through both static (e.g., exams) and dynamic (i.e., connected to online corpora) affordances. The results demonstrated that the computerized lexis-based instruction, drawing upon unanalyzed chunks and other conventionalized multiword lexical phrases as its basic units of analysis, led to L2 participants' considerable vocabulary improvement over a semester-long course. This is an important finding as it can have different theoretical and pedagogical implications for the ever-growing lexis-based research. On a macropsycholinguistic level, this noticeable increase in a group of learners' mental lexicon (practicing L2 lexis through a computer platform) further supports the emergentist usage-based theories (inspiring the lexical approach) in that language competence is not so much dependent on a *core grammar* as on a structured inventory of recurrent linguistic constructions (Dörnyei, 2009). The end result of this usage-based process would be further lexical automatization and, in turn, turning discursive but recurrent sequences of linguistic elements into "grammaticized linguistic constructions" (Tomasello, 2000, p. 162). It is important to note that this study only focused on the contribution of lexis to L2 vocabulary achievement and further experimentation is needed to explore the lexico-grammar notion (DeCarrico & Larsen-Freeman, 2002; Schmitt, Dörnyei, Adolphs, & Durow, 2004), or whether lexis-based language teaching practically results in any *grammaticalization*, as is assumed by the lexis-based view.

The study also witnessed significant postintervention improvement in the ZPD group's vocabulary knowledge, which can be taken as evidence to further support, firstly, the use of the ZPD approach as a useful methodological framework and, secondly, the interface of ZPD-activated lexical instruction and corpus-based technology. To recap, besides collaborative output tasks which emulated the participants' form-focused negotiation of meaning, having access to the computer-mediated LexisBOARD software ensured their consciousness-raising of L2 lexical patterns. The findings, finally, add support to the efficiency of computer-mediated setting in socially mediated L2 learning.

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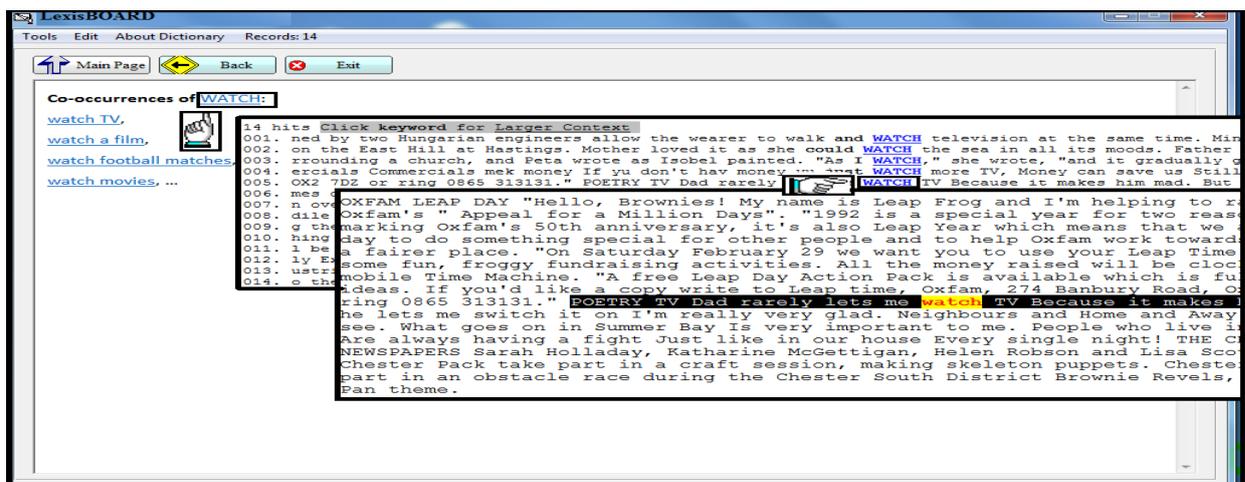
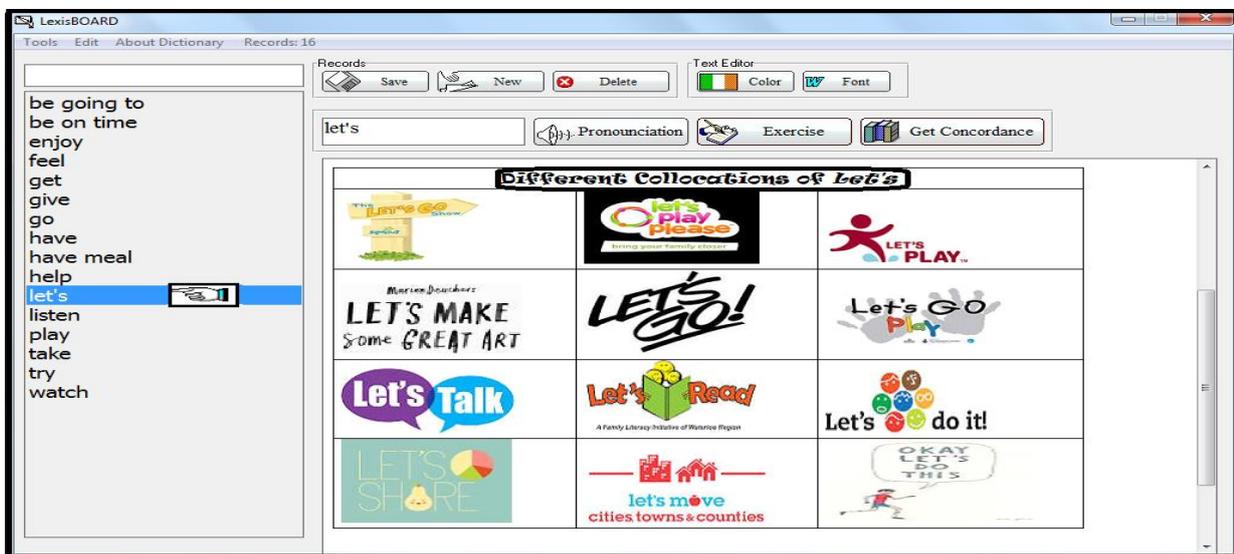
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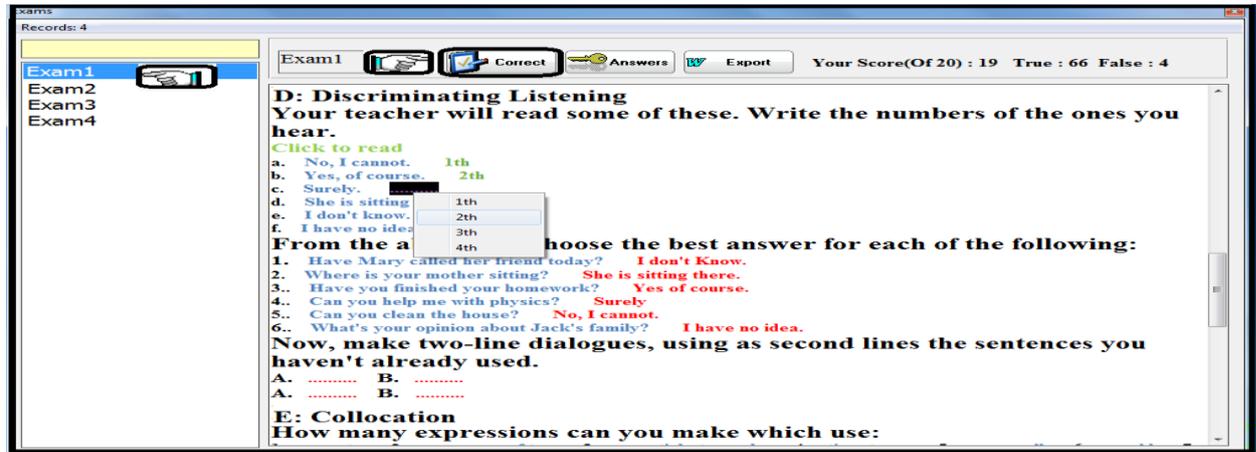
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Appendix: LexisBOARD's displays of lexis-based instruction.





The screenshot shows an online exam interface with a sidebar on the left containing a list of exams (Exam1, Exam2, Exam3, Exam4). The main content area displays the following text:

Exam1     Your Score(Of 20) : 19 True : 66 False : 4

D: Discriminating Listening
Your teacher will read some of these. Write the numbers of the ones you hear.

Click to read

- a. No, I cannot. 1th
- b. Yes, of course. 2th
- c. Surely. 3th
- d. She is sitting. 1th
- e. I don't know. 2th
- f. I have no idea. 3th

From the a... choose the best answer for each of the following:

- 1. Have Mary called her friend today? I don't know.
- 2. Where is your mother sitting? She is sitting there.
- 3. Have you finished your homework? Yes of course.
- 4. Can you help me with physics? Surely
- 5. Can you clean the house? No, I cannot.
- 6. What's your opinion about Jack's family? I have no idea.

Now, make two-line dialogues, using as second lines the sentences you haven't already used.

A. B.
A. B.

E: Collocation
How many expressions can you make which use:

IRCEELT-2017

CREATIVE WRITING THROUGH STORIES

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Abstract

Teaching writing has always been a challenge. It is often considered a boring activity by both teachers and students. It is a complex skill demanding paying attention to both fluency and accuracy as well as to the plot of the story. In this paper teaching writing will be looked at from different angles. It will be shown how stories can be used for developing students' creative writing skills and increasing their motivation. Some of the ways helping students develop their creative thinking skills and improve their imagination will be discussed. They will also assist their students gain the skill of editing their stories and evaluating their friends' ones. A teacher can only be a facilitator in such an interactive lesson. After viewing one sample story, teachers will be able to use this technique in their classrooms with students of different levels, from elementary to advanced one.

Keywords: creative writing, fluency, accuracy

Teaching writing has always been a challenge. It is often considered a boring activity by both teachers and students. It is a complex skill demanding paying attention to both fluency and accuracy as well as to the plot of the story. In this paper teaching writing will be looked at from a different angle. Participants will see how stories can be used for developing students' creative writing skills and increasing their motivation. Teachers will also find out about some of the ways for helping students develop their creative thinking skills and improve their imagination.

Students learn better if they have a positive attitude towards the course and are motivated to learn. Stories are fun and can create a desire to continue learning. Children enjoy listening to stories in their mother tongue. Children always prick their years when they hear the words 'once upon a time' as they know that something very interesting, something connected to their world is going to be told. So, why not use stories to make language classes more interesting and develop students' language skills?

How can we use them?

Stories can be used at any level from beginner to advanced. They have always been an aid in teaching a foreign language. Carefully selected stories can be used to develop thinking strategies, such as comparing, predicting, and problem solving.

They can also develop strategies for learning the language. Stories exercise students' imagination and are used for linking fantasy and imagination with child's real world. Morgan and Rinvolutri (1998) mention that stories can be used for developing students' listening comprehension, asking follow-up questions, retelling, and working on students' grammar skills. Wilhelm & Wilhelm (1999) warn teachers to pay attention to the language difficulty level while selecting stories. The tale itself has to be simple, with a few characters. Tales teach students problem solving and develop their critical thinking.

As children like listening to stories, teachers also can take it to the next level and have them write and then tell their own stories. This is a wonderful way to boost students' creativity and imagination. Writing stories also tests and enhances students' abilities to spin words and sentences and come up with something original.

The art of writing is a powerful tool to express a variety of feelings, thoughts, facts and emotions. This helps students become strong readers and develop their extensive vocabulary. Creative writing activities are useful in helping students develop their writing skills. Creative writing is more than just stringing words together to form coherent sentences. A creative writer needs to master a lot of skills: planning a logical storyline, selecting the right words, developing memorable characters, editing and proofing his own work. It is a good idea to ask students write a story according to a series of pictures (Morgan & Rinvolutri, 1998).

The six traits of effective writing are:

- Ideas
- Organization
- Word choice
- Voice
- Sentence fluency
- Conventions.

These six traits are the key characteristics one needs to have in order to become a good writer, they also help a teacher judge whether the writing is good or bad, interesting or not (see Creative writing activities, n.d.).

Teachers' special interest should go to interactive writing activities. They are an effective way of practicing writing in groups. Those students who have difficulties in writing on their own can benefit from fun writing activities for the classroom. Writing activities involving groups encourage brainstorming and sharing creative ideas as well.

How to start?

The first step in story writing students can take is changing the plot of some already known story.

The presented activity is based on a well-known story of **Three Little Pigs**.

- Divide the class into groups of three to four.
- Show the picture/PP slide of Three Little Pigs to the students and ask them what they know about the story.
- Begin telling the story with the changed plot.

(Once upon a time there were three little pig brothers. Although they were brothers, they were very different).

- Stop where the story tells us about one of the little pigs, Naf-Naf.
- Ask students to think of as many adjectives as possible describing an industrious student and then put them on the board.
- Ask them to describe Naf-Naf and his day at school, his relationships with teachers and friends.
- Go on telling the story until you come to Nuf-Nuf. Tell them he was not really bad and wanted to please his parents but he was clumsy and often appeared in funny and silly situations.

- Stop and ask students to think of the idea that could show his clumsiness. Think of some funny examples.
- Start telling about Nif-Nif.
- Ask to think about some naughty things students usually do at schools and at home as well. Students write about Nif-Nif.
- Tell students that soon the little pigs left school and it was time to learn some trade. Their father wanted them to stay together and sent them all to a shipbuilding school.
- Tell about the shipbuilding school. How they did there. (Some time passed and at last it was time to leave school and take school leaving exams. Show them the pictures of a simple fishing boat, a yacht and a big modern liner.
- Ask them to write about the testing day and end the story.

When the stories are ready, ask students to put them up on the wall and evaluate them. Groups cannot evaluate their own writings.

From changing stories teachers can move on to making up stories. Give students the idea or give them a chance to suggest the plots themselves. Here is another activity that helps students develop their creative thinking strategies and encourages learner involvement.

The Spoiled Honeymoon?

(For higher level students)

- Suggest the beginning of the story. (Susan and Bob are a newly married couple who go travelling to some exotic country. Unfortunately, their plane crashes and they appear on an island. The island is inhabited by some aboriginal tribe who have never seen white people. Susan could save only two things, a lipstick and a mirror. Bob had a can of beer and a flashlight).
- Divide the class into groups of four.
- Give each group their part of the day to write about.
 - I. Group 1- from time of plane crash to 12:00.
 - II. Group 2-from 12:00 to 4:00 p.m.
 - III. Group 3-from 4:00 to 8:00 p.m.
 - IV. Group 4 night

Groups write about their part of the day. Ask them to try to make them adventurous and humorous.

- Rearrange students in the groups so that each group has one member from previously formed groups.
- Ask them to make at least two changes to their stories and sequence the parts.
- Groups read the stories first for editing, then for proofing.
- Ask them to present their stories.

Thus, writing and in particular story writing can become not only a useful, but also an enjoyable activity.

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**ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE PREPARATORY LEVEL STUDENTS' ATTITUDES
TOWARDS THE USE OF VIRTUAL REALITY IN CLASSROOM PRACTICE (IBSU CASE)**

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the prep class university students' attitudes towards virtual reality tools. Also it was aimed to find whether there is a difference in the students' attitudes towards traditional activities and virtual-reality-supported ones. The participants of the study, 28 university students, not majoring in English, who had two-hours of writing lessons per week, used a virtual learning environment. In order to investigate the attitudes, the participants were administered a readiness scale at the beginning of the study. At the end, one questionnaire was administered, and twelve participants were interviewed. The results show that the tools in virtual learning environment have significant positive effects according to the participants' opinions. The students significantly have positive attitudes towards the virtual reality tools, although they have not had enough experience of virtual reality gadgets. Also the students do not have very positive attitudes towards traditional activities.

Keywords: Virtual Learning Environment, Virtual Reality, Virtual Environment

Introduction

In developing societies, people should keep pace with various technologies. Information is in a continuously changing situation for societies in the information age, so modern societies do scientific research in order to find new methods and techniques in terms of learning and teaching. Old methods and techniques rapidly lose their efficiency in the education area. When it was seen that the traditional approaches were insufficient to resolve the problems within this area, Virtual Reality (VR) which brings a new perspective to education methods was introduced in order to benefit from technological possibilities. By using VR as computer-assisted education technology, in the future, it is predicted that VR can take the place of other education technologies and methods (Kayabaşı, 2005).

There is no general definition of VR concept. For this reason, researchers interested in VR try to define this concept according to the virtual systems they design and/or interaction methods or devices they use. In this paper, a dictionary method frequently used in the literature is followed to form a basis for VR by defining primarily virtual, real, and reality.

Virtual: "Describes something that can be done or seen using a computer and therefore without going anywhere or talking to anyone" (Cambridge Dictionaries Online, 2017). Anything designed on computer can be considered as virtual in terms of computer terminology.

Real: "Actually existing as a thing or occurring in fact; not imagined or supposed" (Oxford Dictionaries, 2017).

Reality: "The state of things as they are, rather than as they are imagined to be" (Cambridge Dictionaries Online, 2017).

By following the dictionary definitions, VR can be shortly defined as a generated environment or technology which is three-dimensionally formed with all sorts of existing/non-existent creatures, objects or places designed in computer environment similar to their origins and which is perceived as if it was real.

Theoretical Framework

As reported by Pinho (2004), VR is categorized by three rudimentary dimensions; first one is 'Immersion' which is given as follows: the user has the real sensation of being inside the virtual world of the computer. Devices that make this sensation: digital helmets and digital cave. Second one is 'Interaction' which is explained as the user manipulates virtual objects. Devices that make this sensation: digital gloves. Last and third one is 'Involvement' which is expound as exploration of a virtual environment, it is as if the user is taking part in the virtual world and he / she can interfere directly in the result of the application, the user can navigate on the virtual environment in a passive or active way.

Virtual Reality offers us with reflective changes in the way that we study, teach and learn languages all over the world due to its huge potential to present entirely immersive environment. 3D virtual technology is used to create an immersive and interactive environment to facilitate or aid learning. 3D virtual learning environments (3D VLE) nowadays is also being used in education because of its high motivation and positive learning outcomes on students (Nonis, 2005, p. 1). Also, Mikropoulos & Natsis (2011) reviewed empirical research on the educational applications of VR during 10 years (1999-2009). In this work, after studies held in two stages according to six keywords: "educational virtual environment", "virtual learning environment", "virtual environment", "virtual reality", "education", and "learning", 53 research studies scientifically supported through tests and surveys were mentioned. The investigated studies are evaluated under specific topic titles. Developed VEs generally included science, technology and mathematics topics. Beside these, studies related to historical and cultural topics were also faced. These studies were developed by interdisciplinary groups consisting mostly of scientists, teachers and educators. 16 of the applications used immersive or semi-immersive systems, four used CAVE, and the rest used desktop VR systems. As data collection methods, questionnaires (open/close tests, multiple choice questions), observations, interviews and task completions in EVEs were benefited from. As the target audience, the investigated EVE systems include students from elementary school to university. Although visual representations were used in all systems, some of them contained auditory and haptic systems. As interaction method and devices, mouse and keyboard were mostly preferred, but it was seen in one of the studies that data-glove was used as navigation and

manipulation device for virtual objects. Although the benefits of VE in education were investigated in all studies, only 17 of them stated the benefits, such as enjoyment, usability enthusiasm, motivation, interest and willingness to use. As a result, both students and teachers supported the utilization of VR in education.

In the light of what has been reviewed so far, there is a need to investigate and increase these perceptions for the purpose of reaching a consensus as to which aspects of VR Technology should be considered as an educational tool and to what extent these considerations should be integrated into the actual classroom atmosphere. An extended analysis of these perceptions is important for two more reasons. The first one is that investigating student perceptions towards the integration of VR Technology as a language teaching tool gives us a chance to understand how VR gadgets can be exploited by teachers. The second is that through analyzing student perceptions, it may be possible to see how successful students are doing with VR Technology in classrooms that make English writing courses more effective.

Methodology

The main objective of this study is to find out the EFL prep students' perceptions about the use of VR tools in English writing course. These perceptions may reveal the true nature of the students' stance towards Virtual Reality. It is also expected that the findings will help to see whether the use or the integration of VR tools to an EFL context is possible. As a result of this study, it will also be possible to see whether EFL teachers consider VR as an important classroom tool to be used in EFL classrooms or merely an alternative to Old-school English Teaching materials.

This study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What is the general conception of students about VR-based writing course?
2. What features of VR tools do EFL prep students consider as important?

Research Design

The present case study was carried out to seek ways to integrate Virtual Reality tools into the course of English Writing. 28 EFL students were the participants of this case study. Two hours each week, they experienced virtual reality aided extensive writing course. The purpose was, first of all, to create an adult learning experience for the subject students in line with the Kolb's (1984) 'experiential learning cycle' that is based on the premise that adults learn through concrete experience, observation.

Participants and Setting

This study was conducted in the year 2017 with twenty-eight (28) EFL students, in Intensive English Program (IEP) in the School of Languages, at International Black Sea University, Georgia. In the selection of samples purposive sampling was used and thus the participants were selected by the researcher upon the availability and willingness criteria. All the subjects were taking grammar, reading, writing and listening at B1 level of English preparatory class.

Table 1. Demographic Information of Student Participants (Subjects).

		No	%
Sex	Female	10	35
	Male	18	65
Age	17-20	3	10.7
	21-25	22	78.6
	26-30	3	10.7
	31-above	0	0

The experiment was held at the School of Languages of International Black Sea University in Georgia, in the spring term of the academic year of 2016/2017. It lasted for 8 weeks with two hours of weekly sessions. 28 EFL prep students, aged between 17 and 30, participated in the experiment. None of the participants had previous experience or knowledge of Virtual Reality. Google Cardboard was introduced as a VR gadget to participants and shown to them as a mean of technology to aid their writing performance. Systematization of the experiment that was applied is shown in table 2.

Table 2. The Workshops Sessions and the Content in a Weekly Basis.

Duration	Systematization	Content
Week 1	Introduction	Virtual Reality and Learning with it
Week 2	Exploitation	Use of VR for descriptive essays
Week 3	Exploitation	Use of VR for descriptive essays
Week 4	Exploitation	Use of VR for compare-and-contrast essays
Week 5	Exploitation	Use of VR for compare-and-contrast essays
Week 6	Exploitation	Use of VR narrative essays

Week 7	Exploitation	Use of VR narrative essays
Week 8	Discussion and Transformation	Discussion of the benefits of using VR-based materials through Google Cardboard in Language Classrooms

The first workshop session has shown that the students were tightly interested in and surprised about how immersive Virtual Reality Technology was and they wanted to learn more with VR. For example, all subject students were amazed when they first wore head mounted display (HMD) that was showing the street of Paris in France. This and other surprising findings may prove that it can be used as teaching material even from the point of view of positive motivation towards to course content. During the transformation stage, the participants were asked how they felt about VR experience.

Data Collection Instruments

In the course of this study, two different instruments were utilized to collect data in the research, the first one was a 12-item questionnaire adapted from Rahimi, Golshan, & Mohebi (2014, p. 5). The participants were supposed to answer the questions based on a three-point Likert scale: 1= Disagree, 2= No Idea, 3= Agree. After filling in the questionnaire one discussion session was held and an interview composed of open-ended questions was conducted with the subjects. The interview took approximately 3 hours altogether with all participants after the workshop sessions and all the subjects interviewed one by one approximately for 10 minutes for each. The answers were rather short, so the process of transcription was not long. In order to ensure the reliability of the interviews same or similar questions were restated during the course of each interview.

Limitations of the Study

This research study has certain limitations: The sample was limited to EFL prep students from a single institution in Georgia. All participants had the same level (B1) of language skills. Because the sample was composed of 28 participants, it cannot be used for making broad generalizations.

Findings

This study was held to investigate EFL prep students' reflections towards the use of VR in EFL writing classrooms. In the interview, students' individual opinions about VR, and how they viewed this technology as a language learning material were questioned. Almost all participants, 26 out of 28, mentioned that the application of VR would add fun to the language learning process, yet there is no clear consensus whether VR use in classroom settings may cause some problems and

difficulties for students. Some other points the students mentioned as to their personal attitude toward VR are summarized in table 3.

Table 3. Student Attitudes about VR

Points of View	Positive Feedback
1. VR would add fun to the leaning process.	26 out of 28
2. VR is attractive and motivates me	24 out of 28
3. VR could be an ideal tool for assigning homework. VR would be the homework which is not demanding and not boring.	20 out of 28
4. VR is a good tool to learn and practice writing	21 out of 28
5. VR helps me to take an active role in my learning	14 out of 28
6. VR leads me to deeper learning.	17 out of 28
7. VR teaches me natural language.	19 out of 28
8. VR is the best source for practice.	15 out of 28
9. VR doesn't distract my attention from language learning.	18 out of 28
10. VR is much better than the traditional way of explaining style that you experienced before.	28 out of 28

The participants in the interview were asked about their experiences with VR technology in general. Nearly all participants stated that generally they found the VR tools useful. They all stated that *it triggers the learning and also increases the motivation to learn*. Interview questions were conducted with 5 volunteered participants to obtain their opinions about the VR learning tool. The results of this study show quite clearly that students' positive attitude towards the use of virtual reality in classroom setting was significantly high. Based on the interview results, all respondents revealed a very positive impression on the application of VR and expressed a willingness to use it in the future as an educational tool in their learning. Enhancing motivation, facilitating the understanding, and creating meaningful learning were the mostly mentioned advantages of virtual reality, but also its drawbacks were mentioned.

Conclusion and Recommendations

In this qualitative case study, the data were obtained through a questionnaire and an open-ended interview. For the first research question, the students answer that they possess very positive and promising attitudes toward VR, and they are willing to use it in their learning. Thus, virtual reality is needed to be popularized among language teachers in order to establish firmly more enjoyable foreign language teaching. VR has the potential to connect students with the world and each other in ways that have never before been used. In response to the second research question, virtual reality is a useful tool to be used in the writing classrooms because of its immersive and enjoyable atmosphere.

Consequently, this study highlighted that virtual reality may be an efficient aid for writing classes. Students paid more interest to class activities when VR tools were used in class. It is hoped that more language teachers will be familiarized with the potential benefits of virtual reality tools that are likely to bring more freedom and flexibility into the classroom practices but also it is significant to remind that there may be some disadvantages as side effects of using VR in classroom practice. They and the ways to overcome them need a special investigation.

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**ARTICULATION, MOBILITY AND EDUCATIONAL PATHWAYS, BETWEEN TVETS AND UOTS,
AS DESCRIBED BY THE NATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK OF SOUTH AFRICA**

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Abstract

This paper will discuss the higher education system in South Africa with reference to the newly implemented National Qualifications Framework (NQF), and the articulation possibilities between the qualifications contained therein. The NQF is an integrated system for the classification, registration and articulation of qualifications, and comprises three sub-frameworks for Higher Education, General and Further Education and training, and Trades and occupations. One of the key objectives of the NQF is to facilitate access to education as well as articulation, mobility and progression between qualifications or pathways. Articulation of students between Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) colleges and University of Technology (UoTs) should be a straightforward and common occurrence but this is not necessarily the case. Previous Initiatives to improve articulation between the TVET Colleges and UoTs have proved challenging. In addition to the general frameworks of articulation as defined by the NQF, this paper will also describe a programme of research entitled Developing understanding of the enablers of student transitioning between TVET Colleges and Higher Education Institutions, recently undertaken by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) and Durban University of Technology (DUT). This project attempts to address gaps in the understanding of articulation and learning pathways, specifically to improve articulation between the TVET Colleges and UoTs and understand the factors that promote such successful articulated learning pathways where they exist.

Keywords: National Qualifications Framework, articulation, Technical and Vocational Education and Training, Higher Education

THE NQF

A National Qualifications Framework (NQF) is a formal system describing national qualifications with the purpose of improving the transparency and comparability of these qualifications. Currently 150 countries have developed, or are in the process, of developing National Qualifications Frameworks (Deij et al., 2015). A typical NQF encompasses all qualifications types, at all levels in the higher education, secondary education and vocational education and training sectors. NQFs should encourage lifelong learning and promote and facilitate eased vertical and horizontal progression between qualifications. This should be achieved through the reduction of barriers, as well and the recognition qualifications obtained through formal and non-formal learning contexts (Singh & Duvekot, 2013).

South Africa's first democratic government, elected in 1994, was tasked with dismantling the apartheid system that institutionalised racial segregation and created one the most unequal societies in the world. The Bantu Education Act of 1953, had created a segregated system where black children were given inferior education, to prepare them for an "inferior place in society" (Davenport & Saunders, 2000). The establishment of an NQF that could address some of the educational, social and economics legacies of apartheid was seen as fundamental part of the transition to democracy. The NQF would have to democratise education, integrate the fragmented vocational and training education systems whilst at the same time increase access to education by creating equal opportunities for all (Mukora, 2008). The ambitious nature of the South African NQF would see it recognised as one of the world's most ambitious frameworks (Allais, 2010).

The NQF was established under the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act No. 58 of 1995 (RSA,1995), with its objectives defined as follows:

- To create an integrated national framework for learning achievements
- To facilitate access to, and mobility and progression within education, training and career paths
- To enhance the quality of education and training
- To accelerate the redress of past unfair discrimination in education, training and employment opportunities
- To contribute to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large.

The NQF was originally intended to encompass all learning, at all levels in all sectors, but the draft legislation did not go into detail as to how the NQF would be developed (Van Koller, 2010). Once published, contestation and criticism from, and between various stakeholders emerged (Allais, 2007; Lugg, 2009), leading to a review process that culminated in the *Joint Policy Statement (MoE, 2007)* and the promulgation of the NQF Act 67 of 2008 (RSA,2008). This act saw the NQF split into three sub-frameworks, each with an independent council tasked with the development and quality

management of the relevant sub-framework and associated qualifications. The sub-frameworks and associated councils are listed below.

- The Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework (HEQSF), overseen by the Council on Higher Education (CHE)
- The Occupational Qualifications Sub-Framework (OQSF), overseen by the Quality Council for Trades and Occupations (QCTO)
- The General and Further Education and Training Qualifications Sub-Framework (GFETQSF), overseen by Umalusi.

The vocational training sector

The latter part of the 19th century saw the establishment of technical and vocational schools, and colleges, in South Africa, to cater to the mining and railways industries demand for artisan and skilled personnel. Nursing, teacher and theological training was, at this time, largely provided by churches or missionary societies (Du Pré, 2010). In 1920 fewer than 8 such technical colleges existed, but by 2003 there were 152 (Maharaswa, 2013).

The technical colleges were renamed Further Education and Training (FET) colleges, by the FET Act 98 of 1998 (RSA, 1998). In the interests of increased efficiency, and improved access to intermediate level skilling opportunities, these technical colleges consolidated into 50 FETs across 264 Campuses. In 2013 FET colleges were once again renamed, this time as Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Colleges after publication of the White Paper for Post-School Education and Training (DHET, 2013b).

These new TVET colleges were already suffering from pressures caused by the mergers as well as a significant downward shift in the age of their students when a new curriculum was introduced in 2007 (Akoojee, 2008; Wedekind, 2013).

The nationally prescribed curriculum in place at the time was a series of National Certificates commonly known as 'Nated certificates' or 'N courses'. There were three certificates offered, at a secondary school level equivalent, namely; N1, N2 and N3 and three post-secondary school level diplomas, namely; N4, N5, and N6. These were offered in three month blocks, or trimesters, followed by national examination. The original intention was that students would complete a trimester at college and spend remainder of the year in the workplace gaining the experience, that together with a N certificate, was required to sit the trade test to qualify as an artisan.

The intended replacement qualification, the National Certificate Vocational (NCV) was developed by the then Department of Education. These qualifications were intended to be more substantial than the N courses and would be offered, full time, at a year duration at each level. The NCV is offered at levels 2, 3 and 4 of the NQF. The primary purpose of the NCV is to impart the necessary knowledge, practical skills and applied competence to students such that they are

employable in a particular occupation or trade. As such they integrate both practical skills and academic knowledge, or theory, into the curriculum. (Umalusi, 2013). A further purpose of the NCV was that completion at level 4 should allow access to higher education.

The NCV programmes cover significantly greater content than the N courses and show better alignment with the NQF in terms of level and cognitive demand (Matshoba & Burroughs, 2013). Notwithstanding this, the ability of the NCV to directly respond to the priority skills demands of the South African economy has been brought into question (Allais, 2012; McGrath & Akoojee, 2009). Further, the capacity of the TVET colleges to deliver quality NCV programmes (Wedekind, 2013) has also been questioned.

There was significant resistance from industry, particularly in the engineering sector, due to a lack of confidence in both the content and the manner of implementation of the NCV (Marock, 2011). A particular stumbling block was the inflexibility caused by the cessation of the block release system, and the NCV not catering to part-time students (Matshoba & Burroughs, 2013). The phase out the N1 to N3 engineering programmes was halted in 2010 and the N courses now run in parallel with the NCV at many TVETs (Marock, 2011).

Table 1. NQF as relating to Secondary and Higher Education

Level	Sector	Provider		Qualification type		Qualification type	Level	School	TVET	
10	HEQSF		University	Diploma	Degree	Doctoral Degree	10	NSC	NCV	NATED
9						Masters Degree	9			
8						Honours Degree	8			
						Postgraduate				
7						Bachelor's Degree	7			
						Advanced Diploma				
6	GFETQSF	School	TVET	Certificate		Diploma	6			
						Advanced Certificate				
5						Higher Certificate	5			N4-N6
						National Certificate				
4							Grade 12	NCV 4	N3	
3							Grade 11	NCV 3	N2	
2							Grade 10	NCV 2	N1	
1							Grade 9			

The higher education sector

Prior to the advent of democracy the higher education sector consisted of Universities and Technikons. Universities generally offered degree courses that were mainly theoretical in nature. Technikons were intended to produce skilled personnel, to meet the needs of the economy, and offered diplomas that were more vocational in nature (Kraak, 2006). Technikons programmes usually included a period of experimental, or work integrated learning, in their curricula.

Most Universities and Technikons evolved from the technical colleges, with the universities breaking away during the 1920's and 1930's. In 1967 four Colleges of Advanced Technical Education (CATEs) were established, from already existing colleges, with another two being added by 1969 (Winberg, 2005). They originally offered the secondary level N-courses (Du Pré, 2010), but as they developed their designation was changed to that of Technikon. Their offerings changed to that of National Diplomas and since 1993 grew to include limited bachelor, masters and doctoral degrees as well.

In 2004 there were 21 universities and 15 Technikons in South Africa which, over the following few years, were merged to form 26 universities. They comprise of 11 traditional universities, nine universities of technology and six comprehensive universities. The Universities of Technology (UoTs) were formed by the merger of Technikons and retained their technical and vocational nature. Comprehensive universities were formed by the merger of traditional universities and Technikons and offer both theoretical programmes as well as technical and vocational programmes (Branson, Hofmeyr, Papier, & Needham, 2015).

Articulation

As mentioned earlier, one of the key objectives of the NQF is to facilitate access to education, as well as articulation, mobility and progression between qualifications. Articulation should be seen as a means of opening rather than closing the pathways to higher education (RSA, 1995).

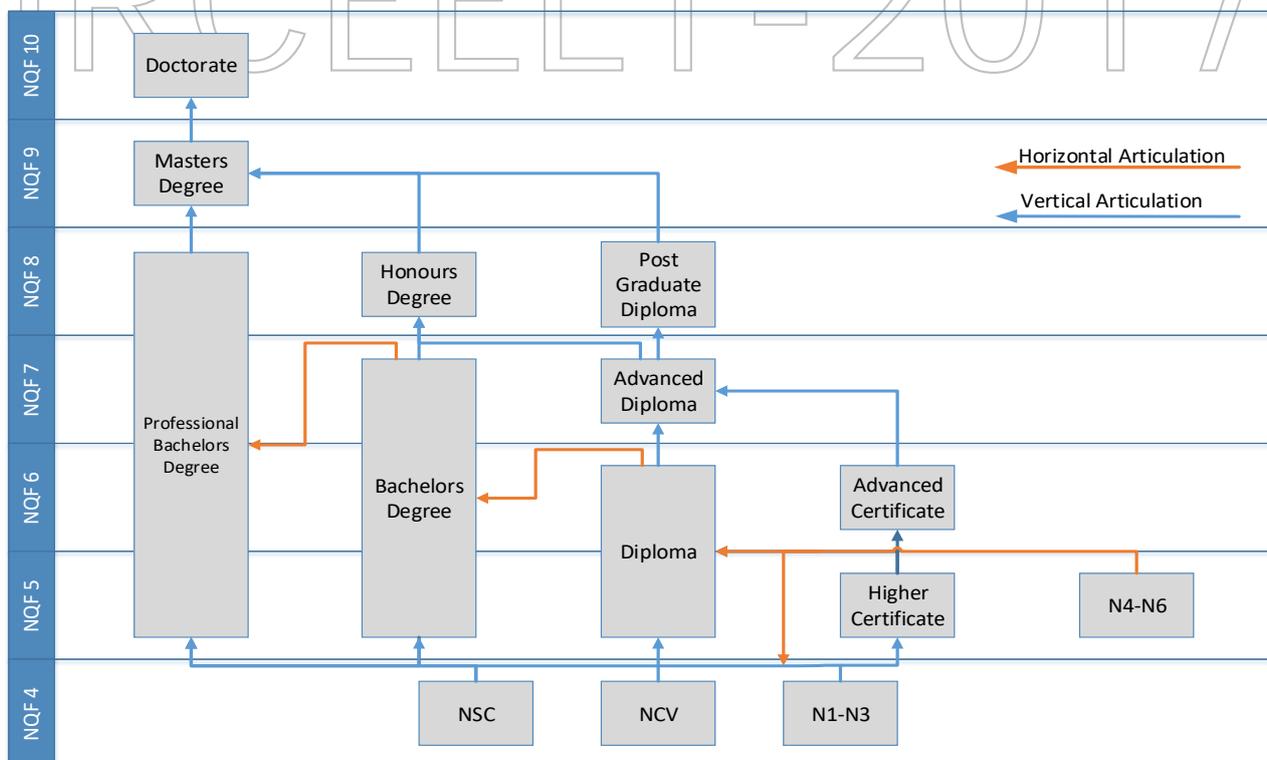
This recently promulgated policy on articulation describes articulation as 'systemic articulation' or a 'joined up' system incorporating qualifications, professional designations, policies, and various other official elements aligned to, and supportive of, learning and work pathways. Simply put, articulation relates to both student transitions, from one qualification to another, (either within or between institutions) and the curriculum structures put in place to facilitate such transitions. These structures may, or may not, include intra or inter institutions agreements for Credit Accumulation and Transfer (CAT). For the purposes of this study articulation is understood as the enabling of mobility within and between the various learning programmes and institutions (including colleges, universities and workplaces) that comprise the post-school education and training system.

Articulation of students between TVET colleges and Universities of Technology (UoTs) should be a straightforward and common occurrence but this is not necessarily the case. Previous initiatives to improve articulation have proved challenging (HRDC, 2014). Further, considering the ill-preparedness for higher education of the majority of school leavers and the role that TVETs should play in facilitating the transition between the two, then the issue of improving articulation becomes critical (Oosthuizen, Garrod, & Macfarlane, 2009).

The most common pathways of student transition from TVETs to university, or UoT, degree or diploma programmes, should be via the NCV or the N-course. The NCV pathway, although clear on the NQF, is often beset by a lack of curriculum alignment, at a program level, between NCV programmes and the HEI programmes into which the pathway should lead. Such is the lack of alignment that it often impedes articulation opportunities to the extent of preventing students from progressing to higher education (Branson et al., 2015; Malale & Gomba, 2016). Both Malale and Gomba (op.cit) and Powell highlight specific instances where students registered for NCV programmes, with the sole intention of utilising the NCV to gain access to university, were denied because of curriculum disjuncture (Powell & McGrath, 2013). Many TVET lecturers are disillusioned with the NCV precisely because of the lack of articulation pathways available to students (Blom, 2016).

Most universities do not recognise the N-courses for articulation purposes at all (Mbanguta, 2002), and whilst some UoT programmes recognise the N courses for articulation purposes, this is not a general practice (Perold, Cloete, & Papier, 2012; Simkins, 2013). Engineering programmes at UoTs, generally have better developed pathways that often include credit transfer for students wishing to articulate into diploma programmes from the N-courses. This is not to say that these pathways are without barriers, merely that engineering programmes articulation processes should be investigated to identify good practice where it exists.

Figure 1. Some of the Articulation Pathways Available on the NQF



Research Project: Considerations and Question

As mentioned previously, articulation, within and across, the institutional and qualification landscape is one of the key objectives of the NQF, and features frequently in legislation relating to the education sectors. **SAQA** is the statutory body mandated to oversee the development and implementation of the NQF. One of its roles is to conduct, commission, and publish research on matters related to the development and implementation of the NQF.

As mentioned in the abstract, DUT, in partnership with SAQA, has recently undertaken a research project entitled ***Developing understanding of the enablers of student transitioning between TVET Colleges and Higher Education Institutions***, that intends to build upon the work carried out in previous SAQA projects. This project attempts to address gaps in the understanding of articulation and learning pathways, specifically to improve articulation between the TVET Colleges and UoTs and understand the factors that promote such successful articulated learning pathways where they exist.

A key component of the project is to attempt to better understand the development of collaborative/cooperative relationships between TVET Colleges and UoTs. The White Paper on Post-School Education and Training (DHET,2013b) aims to strengthen relationships between HEIs, TVETs and the workplace, but this and other attempts, to improve the implementation of the articulation imperatives of the NQF between TVETs and HEIs have met with limited success. There are a few successful articulation practices currently being implemented and understanding the enablers of this success is imperative.

Collaborative relationships are especially important now that UoTs are in the process of curriculaing and/or implementing new programmes aligned to the Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework (DHET,2013a). The UoTs have expended considerable time developing these qualifications, but it is believed that this process has, on the whole, been undertaken without significant consultation with the TVETs, and also with little regard being given to articulation pathways for their students. A significant number of UoTs, especially in engineering faculties, will be replacing their diploma programmes with degrees. This is of particular concern as articulation from the N-courses into the UoT diplomas is currently the backbone of the articulation pathways in many of these faculties. It is believed that developing strong relationships between these institutions is one of the first steps that need to be taken in order to develop the strong articulation pathways envisaged by the NQF.

The overarching question that this project will attempt to answer is *"How can collaborative relationships between TVET Colleges and UoTs be developed, which will enable, enhance, and promote student transitioning between TVET Colleges and HEI?"*

The following specific questions will be addressed:

- What successful models exist in South Africa for learner transitioning between TVET Colleges and UoTs?
- Why are these models successful?

- How can they be taken to scale?

The proposed research seeks to:

- identify, analyse and document successful models and relationships for student transitioning between TVET Colleges and UoTs, in order to create a baseline of practices;
- identify and explore the potential for developing collaborative models in three types of scenarios: developed, emerging and latent, in order to take successful models/ relationships to scale; and
- identify the nature of activities and support that institutions, staff, and students need for successful transitioning.

Theoretical Framework

A mentioned previously, the development of collaborative relationships both within and between the different parts of TVET colleges and UoTs is viewed as a significant part of this project. The theoretical framework should thus be able incorporate a relationship building process, such that these relationships can be formed, maintained and sustained, for the purpose of student transitioning.

Participatory action research (PAR) is a robust framework that is well suited to further both science and practice. It was developed utilising the following disciplines and principles: social research methodology, sociotechnical systems thinking with regards to organisational behaviour, and active participation in decision making (Whyte, 1991). PAR involves researchers and participants, and/or practitioners in the design, implementation and dissemination stages of a research process that leads to individual, collective or social change (McIntyre, 2007). This means the participant/practitioner is actively involved in the co-construction of knowledge. Kindon et al describe PAR simply as research by, with, and for people affected by a particular problem, which takes places in collaboration with academic researchers (Kindon, Pain, & Kesby, 2008). PAR provides a framework to develop constructive cooperation between TVET Colleges and UoTs grounded in real community needs.

A combination of ecosystems, relational agency, grounded theories and epistemic injustice are all also applicable to this project. The ecosystems theory is used to study the complex relationships between individuals, communities and wider society. It can thus be used in highlighting the interactions within and between TVET Colleges and UoTs at an institutional, staff, and student level. Relational agency theory is used to understand and engage with the motives of 'others'(Edwards, 2005) and so will be applicable when assessing the extent to which motives of the institutions, staff and students promote or hinder articulation, integration, and joint work. Grounded action research provides a means of implementing actions developed from the grounded theory. It is a process of continual discovery, learning, rediscovery, and relearning (Simmons & Gregory, 2003). Its purpose is to develop an operation theory from the grounded theory and

hence to create and apply practical solutions to social problems. This framework will allow the freedom to refine the investigation as it progresses as well as to implement potential solutions and determine their efficacy. In Miranda Fricker's (2007) *Epistemic Injustice: Power and the Ethics of Knowing*, she describes two dysfunctions prevalent in epistemic practices, namely testimonial injustice and hermeneutical injustice. To truly counter epistemic injustice in scholarly research, individuals outside the academy, when appropriate, should be involved in partnership, in all stages of research. Utilising epistemic injustice as a lens will ensure that the voices of TVET staff, students and other participants are not marginalised with relation to decisions and process relating to the determination of enablers of articulation pathways.

The study will be guided by the following principles of Action Research (McNiff, 2013).

- Participation of sample groups in problem-solving and decision-making.
- Encouraging self-reflection and reflection on action; processes of dialogue and connectedness to the whole or bigger picture of education and training.
- The relationship between participants will be that of subject-subject partnership and not a hierarchical one of 'researcher' and 'researched'.
- Data-gathering will be done by the participants themselves. Action Research involves learning in and through action and reflection. Encounters and relationship with others are viewed as opportunities for learning and growth.
- The Action Research values of integrity, social justice and respect will guide the research processes.
- The Action Research approach creates spaces of tolerance to negotiate differences.

Methodological Approach

The project will utilise case studies where three distinct scenarios are proposed to frame the samples selected.

These are:

- **Developed scenario**, where systems for articulation and integration of learning pathways have been implemented and operation for some time.
- **Emerging scenario**, where cognisance of articulation arrangements was taken into account during the development of programmes that have recently been, or are about to be offered.
- **Latent scenario**, where cognisance of articulation arrangements was taken into account during the development of programmes, but these arrangements were implemented and later suspended, or not implemented at all.

Two cases will be selected for the developed scenario, one that involves a professional body and one that does not. The first case will be in Engineering and encompass three disciplines, namely Electrical, Electronic and Mechanical Engineering, from institutions at a national level. The following three HEIs were chosen so as to include a traditional university, a UoT and a comprehensive university: Durban University of Technology, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University and the University of Cape Town. The second case will come from the Accounting and Informatics, and the Management Sciences faculties at DUT, where most programmes are not regulated by professional bodies. Systems for articulation are generally disregarded, misinterpreted or unknown within these faculties, however The Hospitality and the IT programmes stand apart and are thus included in the case.

The emerging scenario will follow a similar model, choosing one case involving a professional body and one that does not. The first case will be the Community Development programme, at DUT, which took articulation imperatives into account whilst developing the curriculum, and whose professional body is in the process of being established. The second will be in Art and Design, as DUT, where a process has begun to formalise articulation arrangements. Both should provide a rich sample. The University of Venda will be offering Engineering programmes, for the first time, in the near future and will be included, if possible, as experiences drawn from a brand new programme could prove informative. If articulation imperatives are included within the design of the programme, this too can be included in the emerging scenario.

The latent scenario will again follow the model with one case involving a professional body and one that does not. The engineering case will deal with a second-chance learning centre that offers students, many with learning disabilities the opportunity to prepare for a trade and/or to articulate into a TVET or UoT programme. The other case will be a learning programme from the Footwear and Leather Sector.

Closing Remarks

If this project addresses gaps in the understanding of articulation and learning pathways, and uncovers the factors that promote successful articulated learning pathways, it will contribute to goals of the NQF. Removing obstacles that hinder access, articulation, mobility and progression of students can only positively contribute to the development of a more socially just society.

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**THE EVALUATION OF OUTPUTS, OUTCOMES AND IMPACTS OF THE LOCAL LEARNING
ENRICHMENT NETWORK PROGRAM OF CHILDREN AND TEENAGERS IN THE
NORTHEASTERN AREA OF THAILAND**

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Abstract

The objectives of this research were 1) to evaluate the successful, development, and sustainable of the Local Learning Enrichment Network (LLEN) Program in the northeastern area; 2) to study the factors affecting the outcome development, the research impacts; and 3) to analyze the factors affecting the research successful. This evaluation included only 7 research projects in the northeastern area under the Thailand Research Fund (TRF) with completely research reports from 4 provinces, Khon Kaen, Nakhon Ratchasima, Maha Sarakham, and Ubon Ratchathani. The evaluation results indicated that: 1. The evaluation results of the LLEN program successful in the northeast area indicated that: 1) all research projects of the investigating local resources met the criteria of all indicators. All research project outputs were corresponded with research objectives. 2) All research projects developing the local learning enrichment network met all four criteria. 2. The evaluation results of the development and sustainable of the LLEN program in the northeastern area indicated that all research projects met all four criteria. The networks still operated continuously. The networks utilized the research results such as the development of instructional media. The networks had an impact on students, teachers, schools, researchers, communities, and society. All research projects had the congruence among research objectives, outputs, outcome and impacts. 3. The factors affecting the outcome development continuously composed of four factors: researchers' team, teachers, students, and network partners. 4. The factors affecting research impacts composed of five factors: researcher team, administrators, teachers, students, and network partners. 5. The factors affecting the research successful composed of five factors: researchers, administrators, teachers, network partners, and management. The problems and obstacles of research operation composed of three factors: administrators, teachers and network management.

Keywords: Evaluation of Outputs Outcomes and Impacts, Local Learning Enrichment Network Program, Primary School and Secondary School Students, Northeastern Area of Thailand

Introduction

Thailand has suffered quality crisis of basic education for a long time despite the two decades of attempt to reform. The Ministry of Education invested a large amount of money in teacher development, improvement of curricula, learning and teaching materials, IT introduction as well as restructuring education institutions. These attempts, however, failed to find satisfactory success. This can be seen in PISA results 2009 that 15-year-old Thai students' scores were below the international average in all three subjects tested comparing to the first test in 2000 and the results tend to plunge further. In the regional breakdown, students in Lower Northeast scored very low in reading equivalent to 1 proficiency level (the lowest). Their mathematics knowledge also fared lower than their peers as they ranked the lowest of all regions (PISA Thailand, the Institute for the Promotion of Teaching Sciences and Technology, 2010: 2-12).

In collaboration with basic and higher education institutions as well as other organizational partners in each area, The Thailand Research Fund (TRF) funded the Area-Based Collaborative Research through Local Learning Enrichment Network (LLEN) from 2009-2012 in four provinces including Khon Kaen, Nakhon Ratchasima, Maha Sarakham, and Ubon Ratchathani. The research has been completed (Chongsatayoo and Jittjang, 2012: 3). TRF conducted the evaluation of outputs, outcomes and impacts of the LLEN program of children and teenagers in the northeastern area to evaluate the utilities of outputs, outcomes and impacts of the LLEN, their target groups and their impact on society. The evaluation results shall be used to improve TRF's work in the future.

Research Objective

The evaluation of outputs, outcomes and impacts of the Local Learning Enrichment Network (LLEN) Program of children and teenagers in the northeast area under Thailand Research Fund (TRF) had five objectives:

1. To evaluate the successful of LLEN program in the northeastern area.
2. To evaluate the development and sustainable of the LLEN programs in the northeastern area on the issues of LLEN progression, research utilities, research impacts and the correspondence of research objectives with research outputs, research outcomes, and research impacts.
3. To study the factors affecting the outcome development continuously.
4. To study the factors affecting the research impacts.
5. To analyze the factors affecting the research successful.

Methodology

This research focuses on the evaluation of output, outcomes and impacts of the LLEN in the northeastern area. The evaluators employed evaluation research methodology based on Objectives-Oriented Evaluation by Ralph W. Tyler (1950 as cited in Fitzpatrick, Sanders & Worthen, 2004: 72-75). The results can be used as success criteria for the project.

Participants

Participants were composed of the researchers and stakeholders of LLEN program in the northeastern area in four provinces; ten persons from Khon Kaen, ten persons from Maha Sarakham, nine persons from Nakhon Ratchasima and eleven persons from Ubon Ratchathani, totaling 40 persons.

Research Design

An evaluation research design was used in this research. The qualitative data were collected through document, observation, focus group, and field trip in the research area.

Procedures

The data for LLEN program evaluation in the northeastern area derived from:

1. To study research document of LLEN program in the northeastern area in seven projects from four provinces including Khon Kaen, Nakhon Ratchasima, Maha Sarakham, and Ubon Ratchathani (Narot et al., 2009; Manyum et al., 2009; Luangna et al., 2009; Narot et al., 2012; Kupittayanant et al., 2011; Chansirisira et al., 2011; Luangna, A. et al., 2012) to evaluate output of the LLEN program and constructed questions for focus group.
2. Focus Group were conducted to explore the successful of LLEN program, the development and sustainable of the LLEN programs on the issues of LLEN progression, research utilities, research impacts and the correspondence of research objectives with research outputs, research outcomes, and research impacts, the factors affecting the outcome development, research impacts, and the research successful. It consisted of 13 researchers and 27 stakeholders of LLEN program in the northeastern area in four provinces, totaling 40 persons.
3. To collect empirical data by observation the development and sustainable of the LLEN programs in real situation.
4. To collect data by In-depth interviewing one LLEN program coordinator to explore the factors affecting the outcome development, research impacts, and research successful and obstacles.

5. Group discussion with 15 leaders/representatives of LLEN program to verify the data compiled from the real situation.

Data Analysis

In this research, the qualitative data were analyzed through the content analysis involving the coding for the theme, looking for pattern, and making interpretations. The quantitative data were analyzed by descriptive statistics involving the calculation the project numbers and compare with the evaluation criteria.

Results

1. The evaluation results of LLEN success in the Northeastern area comprise 2 parts; local resource exploration and network development

1.1 Resource exploration: it was found that all participating provinces in the Northeast met the criteria of all indicators of LLEN for the northeastern area. Each province had information on local resources, local needs for education developing, opportunity and collaboration of local personnel and organizations for developing education. Projects were proposed using information gained from exploration. The outcomes met all objectives of the research.

1.2 Network Development: Local Learning Enrichment Networks in five provinces met four criteria 1) Network Form: the networks were composed of various local partners with the university researchers as a core team. 2) The network objectives corresponded to the LLEN program objectives. 3) Networks partners participated in the operation of developing teachers, students, networks, and innovations. 4) The research operations succeeded in fulfilling the research objectives.

2. The evaluation results of the development and sustainability of the LEEN program in the northeastern area covered four criteria.

2.1 Progress and Development of existing research: The networks made progress and were continuously supported by the local partners including researchers, universities, teachers and local administrative authorities. This could be seen from an informal teacher network for exchanging experiences, network of researchers from different faculties and network of researchers and teachers.

2.2 Utilization of the outcomes: the research results were utilized concretely. By developing instructional media, some teachers won prizes on provincial level and were given chances to disseminate their works on national and international levels. Universities also expanded their Center of Academic Development for Learning (CADL) more systematically. Researchers and teachers expanded knowledge to other schools and researchers learned how to work in the area. The

networks had an impact on students, teachers, schools, researchers, communities, and society. All research projects were congruent with research objectives, outputs, outcome and impacts.

2.3 Research Impacts: The research results were disseminated to target groups in other organizations and were acknowledged. Participants gained trust from schools to carry out other projects. University policy has been changed as a result. There have been more qualified teachers. Participating schools were recognized for their academic quality. Students who developed the knowledge further also won prizes on provincial level.

2.4 The congruence of objectives, outputs, outcomes and impacts: All research projects were congruent with objectives, output, outcomes and impacts. It can be concluded that every province in the northeastern area met the criteria.

3. The factors affecting the outcome development continuously composed of four factors: 1) Researchers found themselves capable of managing research project. 2) Administrator recognized the importance of developing students based on LLEN concept. 3) Teachers who participated in the project have developed a good relationship. Recognizing the importance of the project, they also fostered determination for self-improvement, and 4) Network partners supported and cooperated well with one another.

4. The factors affecting research impacts in the northeastern area included five factors: 1) Researchers: It was found that the systematic planning of the university as a core player and close cooperation with teachers in form of giving them suggestions contributed greatly to experience exchange. 2) Administrator recognized the importance of the LLEN program and supported teachers to improve themselves so that they could use knowledge to improve their students. 3) Teachers shared their knowledge with their peers to improve learning quality in the area. Teachers showed eagerness and determination to improve themselves. The researches they conducted to gain knowledge and create innovation were well-received. 4) Students became more eager to learn. They also shared their knowledge with their peers and developed the idea so effectively that their projects won prizes on international level, and 5) Network partners took part with learning improvement in form of financial and non-financial supports.

5. The factors affecting the research success of the LLEN program in northeastern area are composed of five factors: 1) Researchers had commitment, good interpersonal skill and good understanding about the project. The leader commanded management skills including planning, assessment, follow-up, giving assistance to participating teachers and last but not least networks that attracted partners to participate. 2) Administrator were good networkers and cooperative, having a good understanding about the project. They supported teachers to participate in the project for their self-improvement. 3) Teachers were committed to develop themselves outside working hours for benefit of students. As a result of their good relationship, teachers established a teacher network to share their experiences. 4) Network partners

in public and private sectors as well as parents supported the LLEN program, and 5) Systematic Management of TRF and LLEN program coordinator. There were coordinators who were competent in giving suggestion, follow-up and knowledge management. A Steering Committee was also established to give suggestion to the project and steer it to the right direction.

6. The factors affecting the research obstacles of the LLEN program in northeastern area were caused by three

factors: 1) Administrator: Change of Administrator led to discontinuity of the project. Some administrator failed to recognize the importance of the project, not supporting teachers to participate continuously. 2) Teachers: Transfer and change of teachers also led to the discontinuity of the project. Some teachers showed willingness to improve themselves but lacked suggestion. However, teachers of older generation were not willing to embrace new concept or failed to recognize the importance of self-development, and 3) Educational Management: Teaching materials and venues were not in a ready state. Some venues were flooded and there was a lack of budget for activities.

Discussion

1. The LLEN program was successful as every province had developed project proposals based on local resources, locals needs for education development, opportunity and cooperation of local personnel and organizations for developing education. *The availability of resources helped LLEN meet objectives indicated in resource exploration in the northeastern area. According to Vongvanich (2015: 29), the research to determine the need is the answer to the question about how resources are utilized. Using empirical data in decision making ensures that current operations meet exact needs of the target group. It is also useful for planning organizational development and prevents delay and waste of resource if the services were not delivered as they were intended. In this case, the project developed networks of partners from different sectors with university as a core player. Network partners were involved in achieving project's objectives including teacher and student development, innovation and network development. This involvement contributed to success of the research project and also corresponded to the research by Sawangjit and Suwathanpornkul (2013: 134), wherein outcomes and outputs of public participation were synthesized. The research found out that there are three groups involved in education* 1) intra-institutional group namely administrator, teachers and learners in education institutions 2) external group such as local sages, committee of education institutes, village leaders, community leaders, religion leaders, farmers, guilds/state enterprises, health volunteers 3) supporting group besides school/education institute such as district public health centers, local administrative authorities, mosques, temples and learning centers in communities. These groups contributed to continuous implementation of the LLEN program both in formal and informal ways. The results from the LLEN program have been applied for teachers' self-development, student and network development. There were also impacts on researchers, administrator, teachers and network partners. Upon the program completion, LLEN networks still have worked continuously in other

research and development projects as network partners became aware of their responsibilities and developed sense of belonging in the project. According to Sawangjit and Suwathanpornkul (2013: 134) outcomes of local development research after the end of the project can be that community becomes aware of the importance of education management and develops sense of possession for community resource. Community members take an interest in managing and exploring local resources by themselves. By doing so, a relationship was forged among network partners, bringing them closer. In parallel, administrator and teachers change their attitudes and transform into learning manager, involving public participation in learning process. As a result, students become more engaged in learning and open to other people’s ideas. Local administrative authorities participate in learning and support resources in form of time, place and budget for learning management in community.

2. Success factors of the LLEN program in the northeastern area are TRF, LLEN program coordinator, researcher’s team, teachers, administrators, and network partner’s namely local sages and organizations such as governmental and private agencies, foundations and state enterprises. These stakeholders contributed directly and indirectly to the success of the LLEN program in the northeastern area as seen in the following figure 1.

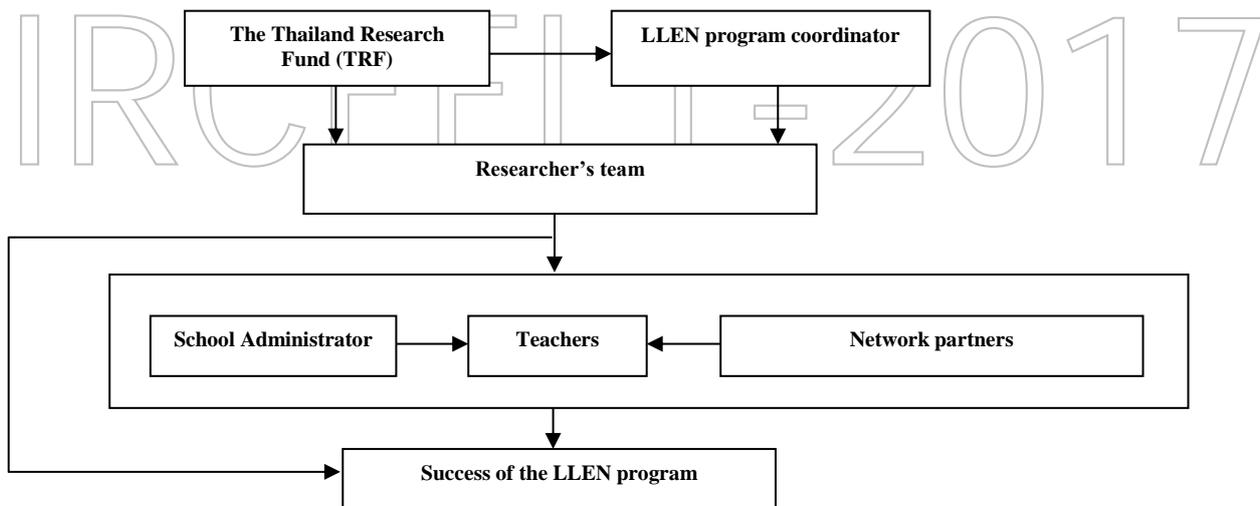


Figure 1 Success Factors of the LLEN program in the northeastern area

According to Boonsirirak (2010: 11-24), there are 8 variables that influence the strength of network; learning, leadership, management, participation, continuity of activity, resource support, communication and common interest. On top of that, component variables of the network strength are self-sufficiency and self-actualization.

Recommendations

1. To ensure the success of research and network development project, there should be a specific research to determine exact needs and demands of target group.

2. Universities should develop clear policy, strategies on resources and budget as well as promotion for personnel who deliver service to community.
3. Researchers should adopt more collaboration concept focusing on good relationship and cooperation between researchers and local network partners.
4. It should be stated in the policy of Ministry of Education that Elementary and Secondary Educational Service Area Offices establish the network by using their existing resources to develop teachers and students. Execution and Administration should be decentralized to locals and education institutions.
5. To develop teachers, which also develop students, there should be mentors who provide assistance and monitor teachers closely.
6. Networks of the LLEN program in the northeastern area can be conducted in two forms according to respective context.

Model 1: Network with university researchers as a core supporting team to strong teachers' network, and supported by network partners from every sector. The model of the networks involves researchers from university, supporting academic matters and coordinating with local teacher networks. Strong teachers' network coordinates with the teacher and the network partners in the area. Network partners serve as policy advocates, and budgets, and training venues, and continuously monitor the operation of teacher network and support academic matters. The governmental agencies support guest speakers and learning resources. The school network acts as a policy advocate for teachers to participate in teacher and student development projects such as network model of Nakhon Ratchasima, Maha Sarakham, and Ubon Ratchathani as seen in the following figure 2.



Figure 2 The network development model with the university's research team as a core supporting team to strong teachers' network and support by network partners

Model 2: Network with researchers from higher education institutions as a core team supported by local administrative authorities and partners from every sector. The model of the networks involve researchers from university, supporting academic matters and coordinating with local administrative organizations in the area. Local administrative organizations are actively involved in giving supports by advocating policies, allocating budgets, and providing training venues strongly and continually. All network partners, such as teachers, school, educational service area, governmental agencies, private agencies, and knowledgeable community members, are involved in developing learning management for students such as Khon Kaen network model as seen in the following figure 3.

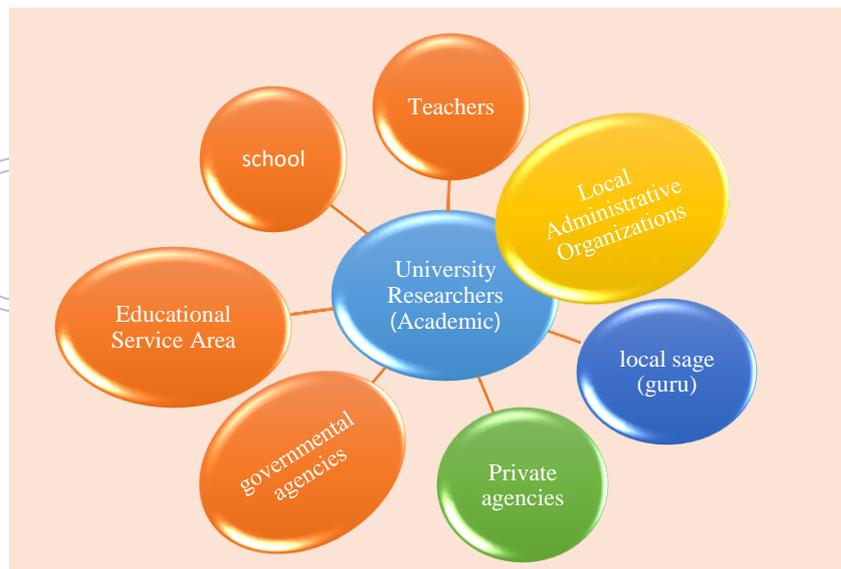


Figure 3 The network development model with the university's research team as a core and support by strong local administrative organizations and network partners

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COMMODIFICATION OF EDUCATION IN IRAN

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Abstract

Over the last two decades, a complicated set of factors like over-expansion of the Iranian higher education system, high rate of unemployment among educated people, personal demand for academic accomplishment on the young high school students' part, among others, have contributed to creation of what may be called "commodification of education in Iran." For centuries, education has been praised as a virtue in itself. Great philosophers have proudly called themselves "teachers" and education was thought of as a kind of gift to young gifted people. But, in our world, in which everything, including even human feelings, have become commodified, education has not been an exception. This paper, therefore, endeavors to provide a picture of how and why education has become commodified in Iran in the last two decades.

Keywords: Commodification; Education; Iran; Cultural Critique; Academic Integrity

Introduction

One day in January 2017 I was passing through the main hall of the Faculty of Social Sciences at the University of Tehran. Someone called my name, and I stopped. A young woman approached me and said she was looking for someone to write her thesis and she had chosen me. I looked in her eyes; she quickly replied "I do not mind paying a good deal of money. I only want the best quality." I wanted to give her a strong response, but I politely rejected her offer instead; after all, I was sure she did not even know that her offer was indecent. In a society in which the education is commodified, it may seem quite proper to pay a university professor for writing one's thesis.

Traditionally, people take education as something that is supposed to serve the public good and commodification undermines this aspiration by distorting the traditional role of education in human development. When we encourage people to primarily look after their own economic interest, their concern for fellow human beings concurrently decreases, and the foundations of ethics become eroded (Rizvi, 2016). When everything is converted into money, or is shown to be capable of being converted into the money, the rules will change.

There have always been people who pay others to receive educational and scientific services. But a complicated process by the recent decades has led to a phenomenon which I will call "commodification of education."

Commodification by its definition is universal and has special characteristics, but there are always features that are local and here I want to have an exploration on the causes and consequences of commodification of education in Iran.

Global Trends

Iran is a country which has an ideological government and the state continually tries to keep Iran outside those global trends which are seen harmful to the philosophy of Islamic establishment. Yet, the capitalist rules are omnipresent and potent and therefore the same rules that govern commodification of education in other places, more or less govern commodification of education in Iran, although there are some variations.

The dissatisfaction with the financial performance of government-supported institutes in the 1980s led policymakers to embrace the advantages of free markets, and to commercialize many state sector activities including education. Many states began to reduce financial support for higher education, and they now encourage competition and demand financial self-dependency (Lawrence & Sharma, 2002). Plainly, this new trend in education involves the replacement of bureaucratic-professional regimes of academic routine and provision with commercial regimes or, in other words, the marketization of education and the imposition of business methods into the organisation and management of colleges and universities. In light of such changes, therefore, we see an increasing blurring of the divide between the public and the private universities which means that education is becoming commodified (Ball, 1999). The rise of the so-called process of "dumbing down" in the Western educational system coincides with the era of commodification of education and this is not accidental.

Commodification processes do not only specify the manner in which educational institutes are funded and administered, they have the potential to redefine what education is. They can transform the organizational culture of educational institutions. Market routines often lead to the creation of a different conception of curriculum, teaching and learning than those based on the perspective on education as a public good. When commodified, education inevitably serves personal interests ahead of those of society at large. It begins to regard the acquisition of knowledge and skills in terms of the human capital that wealthy people can exchange in the labour market, or use to acquire a social status (Rizvi, 2016). Today "customers" who search the world for the best offer more and more view education as an investment and expect pay-off from their investment (Lawrence & Sharma, 2002). As education is now subject to economic rules, the supply-demand rule also applies to university systems across the world, including Iran.

Inappropriate Expansion

I explained earlier in this paper that global trends in commodification of education also are more or less visible in Iran. Over the past century, the education system in Iran has been ever-expanding. To some point, this expansion has been

made to help this developing country produce enough experts to meet the requirements in different fields. From several hundred students in only one university in the early 1930s, the tertiary education sector in Iran is now huge with more than 4.5 million of students studying in over 2500 colleges and universities across Iran. The demand for higher education certificates has been on the rise in Iran (there are cultural, historical, social and economic factors active in this respect which are beyond the scope of this paper), and therefore the laws of capitalism here favor more expansion. Furthermore, the political rivalry exacerbated the situation. After Ahmadinejad's administration found that Hashemi Rafsanjani's allies at Azad University and all of its branches were expanding their establishments and almost all high school graduates could find a seat in one of Azad University branches, they tried to respond by expanding state-owned Payame Nour University to attract future university students. And, there are now more Iranian students in foreign countries than were at any other time in history. The first Iranian students who were sent to the West to study useful sciences were supported by Abbas Mirza in the early 19th century and for the next coming decades Iran continued sending students to the developed world. But today more than 60000 Iranian students are studying abroad and, based on my personal experience and interactions, most of them are incompetent and are studying in universities that everyone who is admitted will graduate.

Many of those incompetent students in Iran and abroad are incapable of fulfilling their daily assignments (again, I have a wealth of personal experience and interactions with them) and therefore they need somebody to do it for them. Moreover, the overexpansion of higher education in Iran has been accompanied by massive employment of professors; there are now many professors in Iran who are incapable of publishing academic papers. These incompetent professors enslave graduate students to publish academic papers with their name in order to pass their courses. Some of them are not that cruel and accept to pay for the academic services which are offered in the market.

Jobless Graduates

The overexpansion of tertiary education in Iran – and in the world - helped many people to become rich, but it has left many people with BA, MA, or even PhD certificate jobless and without any horizon of hope to find a job in the academic sector or somewhere else. Based on official figures, more than half of the unemployed young people in Iran have a higher education degree. Even worse, now there are over 50000 Iranians with a PhD degree who are unemployed and each year 15000 more PhD graduates join them (certainly I think a considerable number of these people are incapable of doing academic work because the system that enrolled and nurtured them is flawed). These people should do a living and many of them are now in the ghost writing industry. I have done a survey on a group of these ghost writers and their accounts of why, what, how and for whom they work is shocking and is worth of more scrutiny (See Shahghasemi and Akhavan, 2015 for more details).

I have had some job offers from institutes which do this business without any sense of shame. These economic institutes or factories that produce scientific commodities (articles, theses, research papers and class assignments) have

generated a new form of capital based on the standard production of the so-called scientific products and have employed their own research workers in universities (Kazemi & Dehnavi, 2017). Many of these papers and theses are not worth reading, but sometimes I have seen works in this industry that are marvellous and reflect a sophisticated and scientific mind behind them. Here we can distinguish two kinds of commodification: the commodification of students and research. Kazemi and Dehnavi (2017) wisely called this process 'the proletarianization of the academic community', which has reduced universities to a place for the production of mere commodities (Kazemi & Dehnavi, 2017).

Corrupt Powerful Men

Iran is a country in which knowledge is very much revered. This is not to say that there is a culture in the world in which people do not see knowledge as something valuable, but the extent to which the Iranian poets, writers and sages during centuries have praised knowledge and teaching has been extraordinary. In this culture, therefore, the more power one has, the more he / she is expected to know. That is why many Iranian top ranking officials see themselves obliged to have a prestigious teaching position. But becoming a professor is not that easy and that is why powerful men (I use "men" in the general sense that might include women; and I should note that many powerful people in Iran are male) seek academic commodity to claim and attain such positions.

Over the last decade there have been numerous instances of scandals in which top ranking officials in Iran have been accused of academic cheating and their papers have been retracted. I can say for sure the majority – if not all - of them did not have the slightest idea what they had published was a kind of plagiarism. The fact is that these people mainly have assistants who do their academic works or facilitate buying academic commodities. This is their weak point because these assistants are mainly opportunist individuals who approach powerful men to get privileges and have no motivation or integrity to produce science. Despite these scandals, these powerful men still continue their work because as head of the National Organization for Educational Testing in Iran, Ebrahim Khodaie mentions, academic cheating is an almost new subject in the field of education in Iran (Khodaie et al., 2011) and there is still no clear decision on how to deal with these cases. Fortunately, the governmental bodies have recently taken steps towards tackling this issue, but we should wait to see if these measures are practical.

Educational Certificate as a Luxury

Iranian culture is perfectionist in many senses and, as I already said, having knowledge or a certificate that one has knowledge, is now a luxury commodity in the Iranian society. Previously I have published a couple of articles about how Iranian people and particularly Iranian women value beauty. Tehran is known as the "capital of the nose job" in the world and, after Saudi Arabia, Iran is the biggest market for cosmetics in the world.

In the Iranian culture, women are not supposed to work and men are seen responsible to be the sole provider in the family. Therefore, many women have time and financial possibility to pursue higher degrees. The number of women in the Iranian universities are much more now than the number of men. Many of these women (again, I should note that by the word "women" I mean the majority of those who want to buy academic commodities) are enjoying studying in universities in which there is no serious academic evaluation and therefore the shallow works they buy from ghost writers easily get an A plus. "Customers" sometimes are online and no personal visit is made. I have talked to ghost writers who work with women and men who are studying abroad. The students are studying in India, Malaysia, US, UK or somewhere else, but the dissertations are designed and completed in Iran.

Higher Education as "Future"

Each year hundreds of thousands of high school graduates in Iran participate in a cross-country exam to enroll in their favorite majors. Being accepted in majors like Medical Sciences, Dentistry or Pharmacy will give the students a promising financial future. While an Iranian teacher can make only \$ 300 a month, a medical doctor makes about 15 times more. Therefore, parents are very eager to push their children in these top ranking majors. This is where imposters appear again. They promise that their services give young students a better opportunity to participate in the cross-country exam and Iranian parents spent dozens of millions of dollars each year in this industry. I personally know some people who had marvelous achievement in cross-country exam without buying any educational services from any educational corporation, but then accepted to get money and claimed publicly that their achievement was due to an educational company. Moreover, many jobless graduates are employed in these corporations to support students in their study plans while marketing corporation products.

Disciples as Customers

These all factors contribute to commodification of education in Iran. Historically, education has been viewed as something transcendental, sacred and emancipatory. The endeavor to convert education into commodity is as old as the history of education itself. We can see the first instance of this clash back into the classics. As Xenophon suggests, the difference between Socrates and his sophistic opponents is the difference between a lover and a prostitute. Xenophon held that based on Socratic paradigm the sophists are prostitutes of wisdom because they sell their wares to anyone with the capacity to pay (Duke, 2012). In our world in which everything including education and human feelings have been commoditized, this is the time in which "prostitutes of wisdom" can claim victory.

The commodification of education in Iran is now at the highest point. Everyone knows that everything has a price and the one who pays the price will be able to get the commodity. But this is not to say that there is no hope in the future. There are some state committees that are trying to keep things in order and many professors and students have been

punished for academic misconduct. After the Iranian reputation was damaged by academic scandals, tens of top ranking professors in Iran established a website named Professors against Plagiarism to show the world that there are numerous people in Iran who are against academic misconduct by few. The number of research on academic misconduct in Iran has been on the rise. The state is now trying to delimit the number of seats at universities in order to make them competitive and, therefore, small universities will not have to compete for students. There are also endeavors to delimit the list of global universities which are recognized as credible by the Iranian official bodies. In the near future, only graduates of good universities in the world will be able to apply for their certificate in Iran and with wise, young and motivated professors in the Iranian universities, maybe some reversals will become possible.

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LOGOEPISTEM AS A FIXED LINGUISTIC UNIT IN CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

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Abstract

The aim of the paper is to explore a language as the best bearer of the national code of the ethnos within its cultural as well as national diversified character within the logoepistem as the ethnolinguistic phenomenon. The urgency of the research is caused by the increasing interest towards the intercultural and social communications. Language is not only releasing the information, but also it bears the inner organization of the fixed knowledge of the universe. Thus, language bearers create their own worlds. The research methodology is based on contrastive-comparative method of linguistic study of systematically different languages (English and Georgian). A language is described as a picture made of different colors of mythology, metaphor and other constituents. Our world vision is discussed under the influence of the world language picture. Every single language is acknowledged as a national independent system. So that it conditions the world vision of the bearers of the given language. For many scientific conceptions the central figure of modern linguistic research is a human being. It is impossible to draw the thorough picture of the ethnolinguistic consciousness. Thus the paper aims at studying the concept of a human being to describe the general characteristic features of a linguistic phenomenon of a concept in English and Georgian. The phraseological or fixed linguistic comparison of a human being makes a strong bias for the theoretical and practical research of fixed linguistic comparisons. Our choice can be justified by the universal nature of the concept revealed in form of a logoepistems. The formation of the concept of a human being is based on the inner language links. They reflect different angles of a human's existence. In result of the research activities the interpretation of the ethnolinguistic phenomenon of a man is reflected within four valleys - physical, intellectual, solely and social ones. Thus, the outcomes of the text-based analysis has shown that the world picture studies are closely connected to the picture of a conceptual worldview. It reflects a human's mentality, his life conditions and his approach towards the universe in systematically different languages.

Introduction

The aim of the article is to explore a language as the best bearer of the national code of the ethnos within its cultural as well as national diversified character within the logoeπισtem as an ethnolinguistic phenomenon. The urgency of the research is caused by the increasing interest towards the intercultural and social communications. Language is not only releasing the information, but also bears the inner organization of the fixed knowledge of the universe. Thus language bearers create their own worlds.

Methods

The research methodology is based on contrast-comparative method of linguistic study of systematically different languages (English and Georgian). A language is described as a picture made of different colors of mythology, metaphor and other constituents. Our world vision is discussed under the influence of the world language picture. Every single language is acknowledged as a national independent system. So that it conditions the world vision of this language bearers.

For many scientific conceptions the central figure of modern linguistic research is a human being. It is impossible to draw the thorough picture of the ethnolinguistic consciousness. Thus, the article aims at a study of the concept of a human being to describe the general characteristic features of a linguistic phenomenon of a concept in systematically different languages.

Stable lingual comparisons help to draw a comparative linguistic analysis on the national cultural grounds of the ethnic mentality. The subject of mentality is not of individual character, but of social medium. Both are revealed in verbal language (verbal culture of a society) and sign language, as well as in behavior, customs, traditions and beliefs. Therefore, the culture of various peoples is reflected in the actual world surrounding them, conditions of life, their mentality, national character, morale, vision of the world and language. Language has a function to comprise common human values transmitting and carrying the peculiarities of ethnic mentality from one generation to another.

Procedure

Intercultural communication is a form of global communication. It is used to describe a wide range of communication problems that naturally arise within an organization made up of individuals with different religious, social, ethnic, and educational backgrounds. As a separate notion, it studies the situations in which people of different cultural origin interact. Apart from the language, intercultural communication focuses on social attributes, thought patterns, and the cultures of different groups of people. It also involves understanding different cultures, languages and customs of people from other countries. Intercultural communication focuses on linguistic strategies to decrease or increase communicative distances.

People from different cultures encode and decode messages differently, increasing the chances of misunderstanding, so the adequate consequence of recognizing cultural differences should be to assume that everyone's thoughts and actions are not just like ours. Frequent repetition of certain relations creates the so-called category of experience in a person's mind. Essentially, it is a notional category which can be expressed in a language, and how this category can be expressed in a language depends on lingua creative thinking. Lingua creative thinking is capable of choosing the means of expression, it might determine the semantic volume of a category, the peculiarities of its combination, etc. These materials are primarily aimed at introducing the main national concepts of English, Georgian and Russian origin related to the major categories of human life, as well as at presenting the systemic links between those concepts that form common national world view reflected in logoepestisms.

Human culture, social behavior and thinking cannot exist without a language. Being a social and national phenomenon and a means of human communication, language cannot help bearing the imprints of ethnic and cultural values as well as the norms of behavior of the given language community. All is reflected in the stereotypes of the language, in particular, in comparative logoepestisms (in stable lingual comparisons).

Our aim is to study definite types of human consciousness through a language. It is of great interest to study language and mentality. A man is determined as a carrier of a definite national mentality. Along with all the other segments, language is essential in the process of formation of mentality.

In accordance with the general purpose, the study includes the resolution of more particular goals:

A range of major problems pertaining to the interpretation of the concept "man" through comparative logoepestisms has been raised and made a subject of a comprehensive linguistic study for the first time.

The logoepestism survey comprises the study of universal and national-cultural characteristics of the concept "human being". As the matter of the research appears to be wide in its range, a number of various methodologies can be employed: conceptual modality, analysis, generalization, descriptive method and comparative-contrast typology of cross-cultural studies are a short list of research methods. For exploring the issue the above-mentioned analysis is vitally important. For example, observational and descriptive methods made it possible to analyze the units and distinguish individual and common linguistic comprehension from each other. Semantic modality made it possible to estimate the concept "human being" systematically with its immediate constituents. Cross-cultural studies enabled us to identify the peculiarities of the compared cultures with their unique as well as common features.

The practical material of the research, i.e. its empirical ground, is explored from the English, Georgian and Russian linguistic corpora, which are confirmed by corresponding dictionaries and scientific sources. For example, the dictionaries of fixed comparatives by L. Lebedeva (2011) and A. Nazarian (2002). Also the phraseological dictionary - Willstach's (2010) *Dictionary of Similes*, Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Idioms (1995) and Brewer's Dictionary of Phrase and Fable (2013). The material presented in these dictionaries and its further exploration makes it possible to identify the conceptual and

semantic fields of a "human being" as a system of certain notions. The named concept is universal and makes a flexible ground for comparing lingual expressions related to the concept of a "human being" belonging to languages with different structures.

The mentioned presupposes the necessity of using complex methods of analysis within which it has become possible to connect linguistic, cultural and philosophic approaches. In order to prove our suppositions, we implemented the methods of: observation, description, generalization and analogy; associational experiment and conceptual modeling as well as comparative-typological, cross-cultural and confrontational analyses. All this made it possible to interpret the object under study from different points of view. By means of using the experimental research method of stable lingual evaluations, we can manage to disclose some specific ethno-cultural features of comparisons.

It is well known that nowadays the echo of the past is maintained in proverbs, metaphors, cultural symbols, etc. It is also vivid that the major portion of information concerning the perception of the world is transferred through language. Thus, the world is perceived as a unity of intellectual, spiritual and social characteristics of a human being, rather than a unity of objects.

The anthropological paradigm aims at studying languages with their links within the surroundings. Thus, the traditional fields of Semantics and Syntax were replaced by Pragmatics. It conditioned the studies of interactive relations to identify the speech initiatives. A human being, who is trying to achieve the goal with the help of a lingual code, is in the background of any lingual unit provoking the desired interest among the listeners. The traditional concept apparatus (the addressor → lingual code → the addressee) is enriched with the speech act aims and results. The speech act is discussed as the means for achieving goals with the help of lingual codes. The lingual personality is a part of the anthropological paradigm which contributed to the process of transforming the lingual personality into the cultural one. Thus, the so-called cultural units have become very popular. They combine linguistic as well as extra-linguistic entities. Linguo-cultural units are those specific items which modify the functioning of ethnic mentality and form the representational content.

Results

The foregrounding of cross-cultural relations appears to be the bias for communicative conflicts. Accordingly, the creation of the theory of cross-cultural relations is connected with the fixation of ethno-cultural peculiarities as well as the use of various methods for interpreting cultural relations. They are connected to the associative thesaurus building through lingual communication (Kiss et al., 1973; Karaulov, 1994).

Thus, a man might be acknowledged as an individual within the framework of a certain culture and a conveyer of the corresponding ethno-lingual stereotypes. So, the hypothesis of qualifying the language as the provider of a man's abilities might be amplified in transforming the functional forms of mentality.

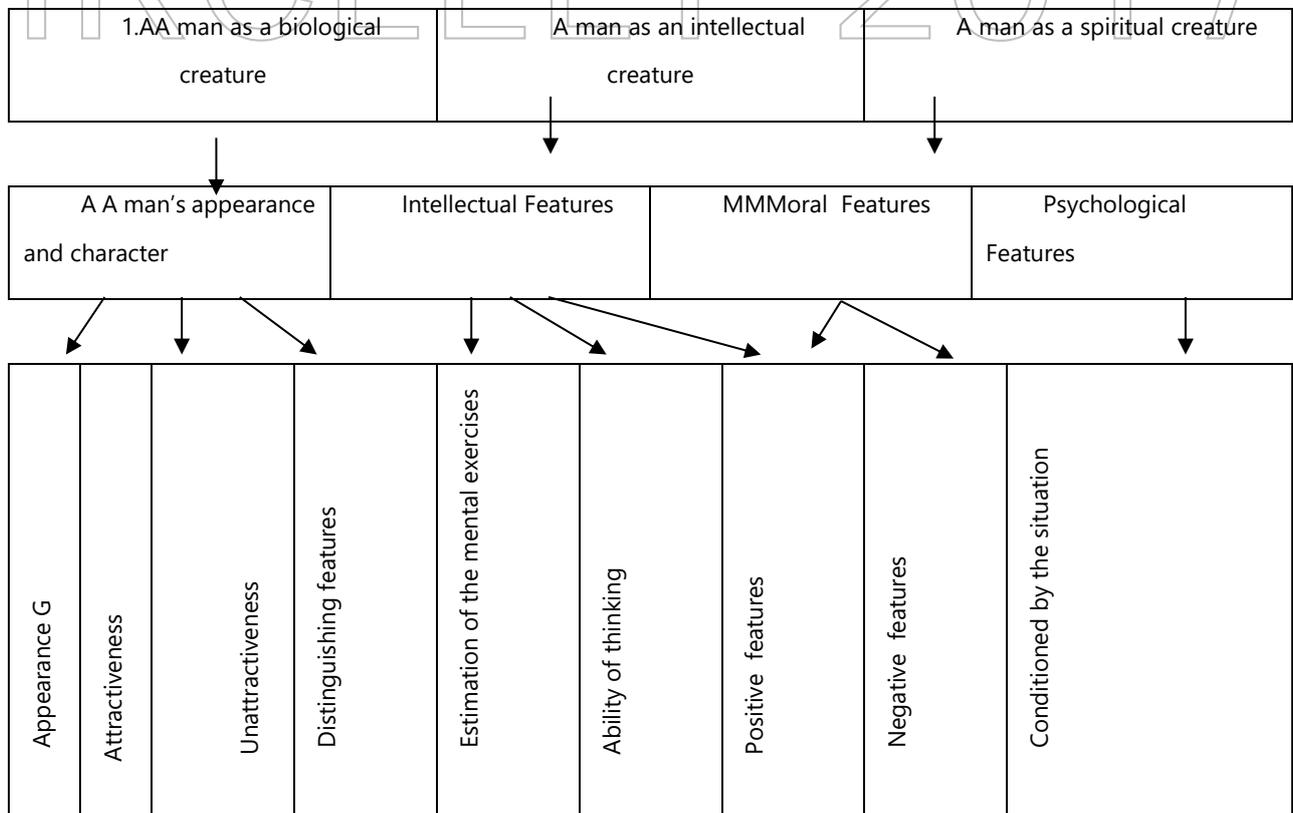
The phraseological or fixed linguistic comparison of the concept “human being” creates a strong ground for theoretical and practical research of fixed linguistic comparisons. Our choice may be justified by the universal nature of the concept.

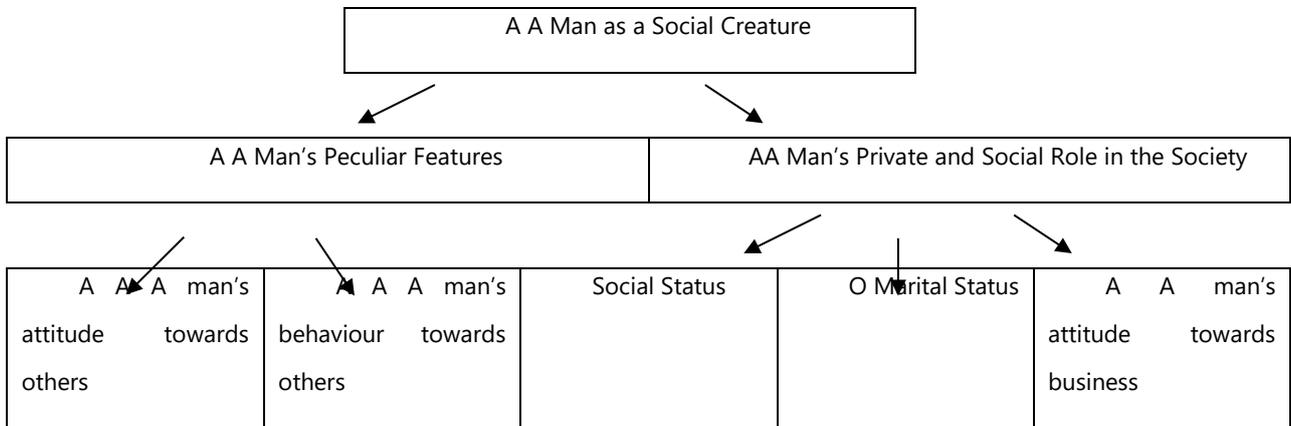
The formation of the concept “human being” is based on the linguistic performance of a man connected with the four main components of the concept. They reflect different angles of a man’s existence in the universe, his physical, intellectual, spiritual and social activities. The interpretation of the ethno-lingual phenomenon is reflected within four fields:

- Field 1 - a man as a biological creature;
- Field 2 - a man as an intellectual creature;
- Field 3 - a man as a solely creature;
- Field 4 - a man as a social creature.

The conceptual sphere of a man might be represented in the form of a figure (see the figures below). It reflects various angles of the research phenomenon.

The Concept Sphere “human being”





The first microfield – “a man as a biological creature” – reflects the unity of biophysiological or natural characteristics. The description of a man’s appearance means the fixation of his anatomic signs. They distinguish a man in his surrounding.

The second microfield – “A man as an intellectual creature” – studies the phenomena of a man’s speech and understanding abilities. The basic system which creates a man as an intellectual personality comprises the segments of knowledge, belief, understanding, memory, etc.

The third microfield – “a man as a spiritual creature” – represents a man who is capable of expressing thoughts, estimating his own emotions and his attitude towards himself.

The fourth microfield – “A man as a social creature” – reflects his interrelation with other human beings, self-guidance, attitude towards others’ businesses, social institutions and “social acts”, in general. Fixed linguistic comparisons help to evaluate a personality via his / her approach towards the ethnic reality. This appears to be the subconscious knowledge and the cultural experience of a man in the universe.

A concept – “man” within three different ethno cultural reality is represented within the universal as well as national-specific variants. They sometimes cause certain problems for the successful communication as they are connected to the corresponding axiological systems.

Conclusion

Thus the ethno specific biological, intellectual, solely and social characteristics are determined with the corresponding world vision. They are reflected in ethno-cultural sings and in precedential names. The universal characteristics are caused by the universal character of a man and the connection with the common source.

The drawn analysis on differences enable us to distinguish the difference between the comparatives which are revealed in items of one ethnic group's consciousness and are the lingual consciousness acts.

In the cross-cultural communication process the cognitive base for communicants is various. It causes the inadequacy between value correspondence, behavior axiology, the lack of thesaurus. Thus, in cross-cultural estimation the register and interrelations usually play important role.

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**GRAMMATICAL TENSE ALTERNATION WHILE CHANGING DIRECT INTO INDIRECT SPEECH
IN GEORGIAN AND ENGLISH LANGUAGES (BASED ON THE STORIES BY ILIA
CHAVCHAVADZE AND CHARLES DICKENS)**

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Abstract

The paper deals with the grammatical tense issue while changing Direct into Indirect Speech in the Georgian and English Languages, which to totally different language systems. The similarities and differences regarding the Speech have been defined on the comparative-typological basis of analyzing materials ("The Sportsman's Story" (Mgzavris tserilebi, "Is That a Man?!" (Katsia adamiani?!)) by Ilia Chavchavadze and "Nicholas Nickleby" by Charles Dickens). The materials were searched through internet (www.nplg.gov.ge and www.iberiana.wordpress.com). The purpose of the research was to compare the two languages from the above point of view and make structural analysis. The constructions of Direct and Indirect Speech represent the capacious and complex syntactic subsystem, which attracts the attention of Georgian and English linguistics. We speak, communicate or make relations with people through languages. A speaker may tell his/her own or another person's speech word for word or in a modified form. Based on the research carried out by the authors, it was confirmed that the English Language gave us more examples than the Georgian one in connection with indirect speech which is caused by the features of English grammar. Namely, in English Grammatical tense alternations take place while changing direct speech into indirect one. The mentioned issue is not characteristic of the Georgian Language. Thus, the authors think that the results of their study are valuable for English-speaking learners Georgian and Georgian-speaking learners of English as well as those who are interested in comparative researches of various languages.

Keywords: Speech, grammatical tense, tense alternation, direct speech, indirect speech, typological comparison, English language, Georgian language.

Introduction

Language is the tight and natural relation of form and function. That is why studying different lingual occurrences should be made on the basis of form and function interrelation. They are studied via comparison.

Comparative researches help us to observe lingual processes and share the laws ruling these processes, that is why contrastive linguistics is the field where the ways of theory and practice cross each other. Comparative study of kindred, as well as non-kindred languages gives us an opportunity to reveal the peculiarities of the target languages more vividly and obviously. The only way for defining the grammatical structure of languages completely is the comparative analysis of the given languages. Inter-lingual contrastive analysis is more efficient in most cases, than the intra-lingual one. The reason is that it helps us in elucidating those peculiarities of different languages that would be difficult to be found out by intra-lingual studies only. Comparison as the method of revealing similarities and differences among the target occurrences represents the main source of study in historical-comparative linguistics, as well as in typology (Megrelishvili, 2009:52).

The given work deals with theoretical and practical aspects of comparative-typological research. The essential issue, such as the Direct and Indirect Speech of non-kindred languages, namely, English and Georgian are studied and analyzed.

The work aims to make a comparative and structural analysis of Direct and Indirect Speech in Georgian and English languages. The following texts were selected for analysis: Ilia Chavchavadze's "The Sportsman's Story" and "Is that a Man?!" (Chavchavadze, 1948). Their English translation is available on the internet (Ilia Chavchavadze's Works, 1987), (the translation is done by Oliver and Marjory Wardrops, London, 1981, 1984, and the copies were brought to Tbilisi and prepared for publication by Guram Sharadze). Another text is "The Life and Adventures of Nicholas Nickleby" by Charles Dickens (2006) searched via the internet and its Georgian translation (Dickens, 1967).

Comparative Text Analysis

We communicate with the help of language. While speaking, the speaker can give the information word for word or in a modified form. In order to report others' words, children should learn how to point out to the listener whether the vantage point is that of the original discourse (direct speech) or that of the present reporting (indirect speech) (Goodell & Sachs, 1992:395). In direct speech we repeat the original speaker's exact words but in indirect speech we give the exact meaning of a remark or a speech, without necessarily using the speaker's exact words (Thomson & Martinet, 2001: 269).

When reporting speech, grammatical changes must often be made in order to keep the original meaning of what was said. The most common changes occur in verb tenses:

- If the verb in main sentence is in present or future tenses, the tense is not altered while changing direct into indirect speech (Goksadze, 1984:238), e.g:

- ✓ mets vityvi: qisti kidev saokhunjo alersia (Ilia Chavchavadze "Is that a man?!". Chapter 1. p. 104).
- ✓ I say: a blow is after all, a kind of caress.

But in some cases the translator uses the altered form of the grammatical tense in English versions of Ilia Chavchavadze's story. Present Simple is changed into Present Perfect:

- ✓ magram es unda itsode shen, mkixvelo, rom me amisa qvemore khelis momtsereli mkitkhvelis gasartvelad ar vtser am ukheiro motkhrobasa (Ilia Chavchavadze "Is that a man?!". Chapter 2.)
 - ✓ But you ought to know this, reader, that I **have not written** down this simple story to amuse you.
- If the verb in the main sentence is in the past tense, the tense is altered while changing direct into indirect speech due to the verbs about tense alternation. The Present Simple is changed by the past simple (Kaushanskaya, 1963: 302), e.g:
 - ✓ 'It is most demnebly particular,' said Mr. Mantalini.
 - ✓ jojkheturad seriozuli saqmea, _ ganatskhada mister mantalinim (Charles Dickens." Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 34).
 - The Present Continuous is changed into the Past Continuous (Kaushanskaya, 1963, p. 302). e.g:
 - ✓ Newman pointed to the empty glass, as though it were a sufficient refutation of the charge, and briefly said that he was going downstairs to supper.
 - ✓ niumenma datsariebul tchiqaze miutita, titqos am braldebis uarsayofad esets kmaroda, kholo mere mokled ganatskhada, vakhshmad mivdivaro (Charles Dickens." Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 14).
 - The Present Perfect is altered into the Past Perfect (Каушанская. 1963, p. 302). e.g.:
 - ✓ dro gamoitsvala, _ ityoda kholme aghmoofkhvrit luarsabi, _ dro gamoicvala (Ilia Chavchavadze "Is that a man?!". Chapter 2).
 - ✓ "Times have changed" Luarsab used to say with a groan, "times have changed."
 - ✓ 'I have made up my mind,' said Madame Mantalini, as tokens of impatience manifested themselves in Ralph's countenance, 'to allowance him.'
 - ✓ gadavvyvite pensia davunishno, _ swrafad daamtavra qalbatonma mantalinim, radgan ralfis saxeze moutmenlobis nishnebi sheamchnia (Charles Dickens." Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 34).

- ✓ misis kenuigsma moigona _ ramdenjer utqvams chemtvis mister kenuigss, miss pitoukeris saqcieli tvalshi ar momdiso, da, mikvirs, ise rogor damabrmava im sazizgharma arsebam, rom veraferi shevnishneo (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 52).
- ✓ Mrs. Kenwigs remembered that Mr. Kenwigs had often said that he was not quite satisfied of the propriety of Miss Petowker's conduct, and wondered how it was that she could have been blinded by such a wretch.

The Georgian version of the last sentence is given in the form of the direct speech and the translator uses the Georgian particle "o" which is used with indirect speech:

- The Present Perfect Continuous is changed into the Past Perfect Continuous (Kaushanskaya, 1963, p. 302).
- The Past Simple is altered into the Past Perfect (Kaushanskaya, 1963, p. 302).
- ✓ Squeers chuckled vastly on the receipt of these flattering compliments, and said, she hoped she had tamed a high spirit or two in her day.
- ✓ am qatinaurebze misis skvirsi gulianad akriaxda da ganaxada, imedi maqvs chems sicocxleshi erti-ori yoylochina mainc meyoleba motvinierebulio (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 9).
- ✓ Mrs Nickleby, but rather exalted her opinion of her own cleverness; therefore, merely stopping to remark, with much complacency, that she had fully expected him to be surprised, she entered on a vast quantity of circumstantial evidence of a particularly incoherent and perplexing kind; the upshot of which was, to establish, beyond the possibility of doubt, that Mr. Frank Cheeryble had fallen desperately in love with Kate.
- ✓ da am gaktivvebas sulac ar sheuwuxebia misis niklbi, piriqit, kidev ufro maghali warmodgena sheuqmna sakutar gamtchriaxobaze. didi tvitkmayofilebit shenishna, vicodi, gagikvirdebodao, da uamravi, domxalivit areul-dareuli, damadasturebeli sabutic dausaxela; ris shemdegac uyoymanod da etsvis sheutanlad daaskvna _ mister chiribils keiti uyvarso (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 55).

If the past simple in direct speech expresses the act taking place at a peculiar time, then the tense is unchanged and altered in the same form into the indirect one (Kaushanskaya, 1963, p. 302).

The same can be said about the real life issues or the historical facts (Goksadze, 1984, p. 239).

Also, if the speaker speaks about real cases, the tense stays unchanged, but if the speaker is not sure in his/her speech, the time is changed (Goksadze, 1984, p. 240).

The speaker gives the recently gained information without changing the tense (Goksadze, 1984: 240).

The past simple tense remains unchanged after the word "since" (Каушанская, 1963: 303).

The Past Perfect, Past Continuous and the Past Perfect Continuous stay unchanged (Kaushanskaya, 1963, p. 302).

But very seldom the Past Continuous may be changed by the Past Perfect Continuous (Kaushanskaya, 1963, p. 302).

But in the stories selected by us the mentioned cases are not represented.

As for the future tenses, all the future tenses are changed into the future in the past tenses. The Future Simple is changed into the Future in the Past Simple (Kaushanskaya, 1963, p. 302). e.g.:

- ✓ 'I'll walk with you part of the way, my dear,' said Miss Knag.
- ✓ mets tqventan ertad tsamoval, chemo dzvirfaso, _ utxra miss negsma (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 18).
- ✓ Mr. Bonney then presented himself to move the first resolution; and having run his right hand through his hair, and planted his left, in an easy manner, in his ribs, he consigned his hat to the care of the gentleman with the double chin and said he would read to them the first resolution.
- ✓ amis shemdeg, pirveli rezolutsiis shesatanad gamovida mister boni, romelmats marjvena xeli tmaze gadaisva, marcxenati doinji shemoiyara, qudi ghababiani jentlmenis mzurvelobas miando da ganaxada, pirvel rezolutsias tsavikitxavto (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 2).
- ✓ I resolved that whatever might betide me, I would ask the poor man himself who he was.
- ✓ gavizrakhe, rom titon glaxas, rac unda damemartos, gamovatqmevino tavis i vinaoba (Ilia Chavchavadze "The sportsman's story". chapter 2).

The Future Continuous is changed into the Future in the Past Continuous (Kaushanskaya, 1963, p. 303).

The Future Perfect is changed into the Future in the Past Perfect (Kaushanskaya, 1963, p. 303), e.g.:

- ✓ Then she began to reflect what a comfortable sum it would have been just then.
- ✓ mere TavSi gauelva, ra kargi iqneboda, es Tanxa axla mqondeso (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 3).
- ✓ Which so exasperated Mrs. Kenwigs, that that lady assured her visitors, in private, that if it hadn't happened that the supper was cooking at the back-parlor grate at that moment, she certainly **would have requested** its representative to withdraw.
- ✓ aman ise gaabraza misis kenuigsi, rom stumrebs saidumlod eubneboda _ akhla rom vakhshami pirveli sartulis ukana otaxis ghumelze ara mzaddebodes, im otakhis patrons garet mivabrdzanebdio (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 14).

The Future Perfect Continuous is changed into the Future in the Past Perfect Continuous (Kaushanskaya, 1963, p. 303).

If the sentence in direct speech contains connective mood, the tense is unchanged while altering into the indirect speech. However, there is an exception, when the modal verb *may* is changed by *might* if the verb in the dominate clause is in the past tense (Kaushanskaya, 1963, p.303). e.g:

- ✓ veghar momitmina gulma, vstqvi, rac unda iyos, mival, iqneba vatqmevino rame (Ilia Chavchavadze "The Sportsman's Story", chapter 2).
- ✓ I said: whatever may be, I will go and perhaps I shall persuade him to tell me something.
- ✓ She fell first to deploring her hard fate, and then to remarking, with many sobs, that she never knew in his lifetime how the money went, but that if he had confided in her they might all have been better off that day.
- ✓ misis niklbim jer tavis i kruli bedis gamotireba daitsyo, mere qvitini auvarda: chems sitsoxleshi imis tsarmodgena ara mqonia, fuli rogor modioda, torem chemtvis rom moendo es saqme, akhla aset dgheshi ar viqnebodio (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 3).
- ✓ Mr. Ralph Nickleby suggested that if they lost time, some more fortunate candidate might deprive Nicholas of the stepping-stone to fortune which the advertisement pointed out, and so undermine all their air-built castles.
- ✓ magram uetsrad mister ralf niklbim shenishna: ase tu dahkargavdnen dros, vin itsis, iqneb vinme ufro ighblian kandidats gaeswro nikolasistvis im bednierebis gzaze, rasats gantskhadeba iutsyeboda, da dziri gamoetkhara ocnebashi nagebi koshkebisatvis (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 3).

If the author's words express the past tense, modal verbs change tenses and are altered into the past tense (Kaushanskaya, 1963, p. 305), e.g.:

- ✓ But she can earn money herself, Peg,' said Arthur Gride, eagerly watching what effect his communication produced upon the old woman's countenance: 'she can draw, paint, work all manner of pretty things for ornamenting stools and chairs: slippers, Peg, watch-guards, hair-chains, and a thousand little dainty trifles that I couldn't give you half the names of. Then she can play the piano, (and, what's more, she's got one), and sing like a little bird.
- ✓ Tvitonve gaaketeb s fuls, peg, _ utxra artur graidma da dedabers chaashterda, aba chemi sityvebi ra shtabetchdilebas moakhdens, _ khatva icis, patar-patara samkaulebis keteba sheudzlia skamebisa da taburetkebisatvis; fachuchebs shekeravs, saatis dzetskvebs gaaketeb s, tmis dasamagrebels da atasobit

amisTana raghacas, ver chamogitvli. pianinosac ukravs (rac mtavaria, aqvs kidec pianino), patsatsina chitivit galobs (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 51).

- ✓ This fit of wandering past; he solemnly commended them to one who never deserted the widow or her fatherless children, and, smiling gently on them, turned upon his face, and observed, that he thought he could fall asleep.
- ✓ mere, bodvam rom gauara, sasoebit sheavedra col-shvili mas, visats arasodes ar gastsiravs qrvivsa da obols, alersianad gaughima samives, gadabrunda da tqva, vgoneb damedzinoso (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 1.).
- ✓ misi brtsyinvaleba tavis tavzed hkhedavda tavis brtsyinvale gonierebit, rom am mnishvnelobas katsi ustsavleladats kargad asrulebs, nametnavad jogis da ymis patroni, ymisa _ romelsac jogshi didi ganskhvaveba ara aqvs (Ilia Chavchavadze "Is that a man?!". Chapter 2).
- ✓ "His Highness saw in himself, with his serene wisdom, that an untutored man could fulfill this function perfectly well, all the more if he is lord of herds and serfs, serfs who do not differ much from the herds".

But the modal verbs which have only one form (must, ought to, should) are unchangeably altered into the indirect speech if the verb *must* expresses advice or supposition (Kaushanskaya, 1963, p. 305). e.g.:

- ✓ 'You should see it from MINE,' replied Nicholas, with a smile.
- ✓ neta tqvents gadagakhedat chemi otakhis fanjridan _ utxra nikolasma ghimilit (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 40).
- ✓ With these two reflections uppermost in her mind, Miss. Squeers made the best of the matter to her friend, by observing that Mr. Nickleby was such an odd creature, and of such a violent temper, that she feared she should be obliged to give him up.
- ✓ am fiqrebit motsulma miss skvirisma tavi tsarmoidgina ufro karg mdgomareobashi da megobars utxra, mister niklbi iseti akhirebuli katsia, iseti shmagi hkasiatisaa, rom vaitu akhla me momikhdes mistvis khelis kvrao (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 12).
- ✓ 'We must. We certainly must have a quarrel with Tim Linkinwater,' said the other.
- ✓ wavechxubot! _ namdvilad unda vechxubot tim linkinoters, _ kveri daukra meorem (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 35).
- ✓ "However, as she very logically remarked, there must have been SOME young person in that way of business who had made a fortune without having anything to begin with".

- ✓ Tumtsa, rogorts savsebit logikurad shenishna, xom usatuod unda yofiliyo iseti akhalgazrda qali, romelic dasatsyisshi arafri patroni iqneboda, magram mere, am saqmes rom mohkidebda khels, gamdidrdeboda (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 11).
- ✓ But we must warn you that if we go in we must be careful.
- ✓ es ki unda mogaxsenot, rom, tu vetsvevit, frtxilad unda viyvnet (Ilia Chavchavadze "Is that a man?!". Chapter 1).
- ✓ Miss Knag here relapsed into softness, and the young ladies renewing their attentions, murmured that she ought to be superior to such things, and that for their part they despised them, and considered them beneath their notice.
- ✓ miss negi isev dasustda, kholo qalishvilebi, romeltats kvlav daitsyes mis garshemo fufusi, chahbutbutebdnen, rom igi aset rameebis zemodan unda dastsqerodes, rom matac tavis mkhriv, ezizghebat aseti ram da yuradghebis ghirsadac ki ara tvlian (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 18).
- ✓ Though, must is changed into had to if it expresses need (Kaushanskaya,, 1963, p. 305).
- ✓ Must is altered into was to if it expresses order (Kaushanskaya, 1963, p. 305). e.g.:
- ✓ "Mr. Nickleby looked very indignant at the handmaid on being thus corrected and demanded with much asperity what she meant; which she was about to state".
- ✓ mister niklbim aseti shestsorebis gamo mtsyralad shekheda gogos da mkvaxed hkitxa, ras roshavo (Charles Dickens."Nicholas Nickleby". Chapter 3).

Conclusion

Unlike the Georgian language, the English language is characterized by grammatical tense alternation while changing direct speech into indirect one.

If the verb in the dominate clause is in the past tense, the tense is normally changed according to the tense alternation rule: all the present (Simple, Continuous, Perfect, and Perfect Continuous) tenses are changed into the past tenses (Simple, Continuous, Perfect, and Perfect Continuous).

All the future tenses (Simple, Continuous, Perfect, and Perfect Continuous) tenses are changed into the future in the past tenses (Simple, Continuous, Perfect, and Perfect Continuous).

After comparing two different languages typologically, the research revealed much difference and no similarity.

It should be worth mentioning that the samples of indirect speech were revealed more in the story “Nicholas Nickleby” by Charles Dickens than in the stories by Ilia Chavchavadze, which was caused by the fact that English language is characterized with the grammatical tense changes while making direct speech into indirect one, which is absolutely foreign for Georgian language.

From the stylistic viewpoint it is possible to use direct as well as indirect speech equally in Georgian and English languages.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL PECULIARITIES OF SELF-ASSESSMENT DURING ADOLESCENT YEARS AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES

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Abstract

The paper deals with analyzing psychological aspects of self-assessment during adolescent years. Being based on exploring and comparing various researches concerning the issue, the study summarizes most recent findings in this respect. The main aim of the paper is to shed light on positive and negative aspects of self-assessment by adolescents and its effects on and outcomes for their psychological well-being and learning.

Keyword: assessment, educational purpose, psychological peculiarities

Self-assessment in foreign language learning and teaching has recently emerged as an essential part of it. However, its significance is not fully comprehended and hence its potential still remains untapped. Numerous researches confirm the effectiveness of self-assessment both on a wide educational scale and specifically in foreign language teaching. Self-assessment and self-repair skills enhance learners' meta-cognitive abilities, help them pave their way in FLL more independently, raise their awareness of their own progress in language acquisition and learning, thus has an overall positive effect on learning outcomes (Sedikides & Strube, 1997).

Nevertheless, there is a question to be posed. At certain ages how much beneficial or just the opposite, harmful or detrimental self-assessment procedures can be for students. The aim of our research is to explore the psychological specificities of self-assessment among adolescents, i.e., students aging approximately 12-17. Such a research and awareness in this respect are obligatory for educators in order to avoid possible pitfalls and hazards when using self-assessment with students of such a vulnerable age, and, on the contrary, in order to aptly use its benefits by activating the psychological aspects of self-assessment, stimulating learner thinking, motivation, self-esteem, both high and low order thinking skills.

The first question to pose is whether self-assessment procedures are beneficial or harmful for adolescents' psychological well-being.

The second question concerns psychological aspects which are involved in self-assessment process.

And the last question - how much self-assessment is beneficial for improving certain skills and competences at school?

For the correct understanding of the theories and ideas presented below, it is essential to have at least a basic awareness of the processes connected with self-assessment: "The self-enhancement, self-verification, self-assessment, and self-improvement perspectives are all concerned with "something" that people seek to enhance, verify, assess, or improve. We assume that this "something" is the self-concept.....The self-concept (oftentimes abbreviated as "self ") contains knowledge about personality traits, abilities, values, beliefs, expectations, motives, life events, relationships with significant others, possessions, and appearance. It contains also knowledge about the views of one's self that are held by others, which may only partly overlap with one's own views; nevertheless, self-evaluation can be directed at modifying others' views of the self (impression management)" (Sedikides & Strube, 1997, p.212-213).

Psychological researches clarify that in adolescents' attempts to self-assess take place as a process. During an early period of this formative stage (of 11-12) pupils have a very low ability to evaluate themselves critically; however, this capacity starts to move up a gear step by step. As this is a period of vertical development a teenage brain manages to combine various facets of self, and thus this process contributes to conducting different forms of self-assessment. During late adolescence (aged 16-17) with the final formation of the brain's frontal lobe, a young person is able to conduct reasoning, solve problems, contemplate, attach priorities to things, self-evaluate, plan for a long period of time, control feelings and emotions, though during the years preceding this period a pupil is hardly able to do the above and if s/he manages the procedure, it is extremely complicated for them (Teipel, 2016). Thus, at this age pupils can start thinking in a more abstract way, are able to formulate a hypothesis, see cause and result of various phenomena, organize not only concrete, but also abstract thoughts on "shelves", synthesize ideas and even apply criteria and principles in different cases and situations (Erol & Orth, 2011).

Why are people prone to self-assess in general? Behind it motivation is hidden. This sort of motivation concerns a human's fundamental wish to see a true self, to exactly know their own pluses and minuses, even if the information about oneself is not anyhow positive. Such an attitude is based on the psychological demand not to possess misleading or deluding information about oneself. On the one hand, in case of eliciting positive self-evaluation a person experiences pleasure and, on the other hand, in case of negative assessment outcome, a human ventures to somehow redress the anxiety caused by it, and, ultimately, again experience satisfaction (Sedikides & Strube, 1997).

Research concerning codependence between self-esteem and achievements in academic settings is controversial. On the one hand, pupils during adolescence are greatly interested in their points and marks. Thus, if they obtain information both from themselves and others concerning their mastery level, they combine the two, in this way they do not wholly depend either on their own subjective judgment or on others' more objective evaluation (Hair & Graziano, 2003; Thompson, 2006). The result of reconciling both sides about their self-efficacy has a positive effect on their self-esteem. However, there are studies which do not indicate such a strong correlation between self-esteem and academic

achievements during adolescence. Moreover, it is proved by researchers that high self-esteem does not cause any improvement of self-efficacy (Lightsey et al., 2006).

What is not debatable is that to develop self-assessment ability is essential during teenage years in pupils, such practice is exercising in meta-cognition. It develops various mental abilities, assists learners in managing self, and these skills are vital for successful learning (Xiao, 2007).

Researchers also claim that during adolescence age peculiarities themselves contribute to the implementation of self-assessment and development of the skill as at this age humans strive to become independent, they are focused on their future, thus, the desire towards self-assessment and subsequent self-improvement is formidable (Thompson, 2006).

However, there is one caution to be sounded. If self-assessment criteria are not clear to learners, are irrelevant and incompatible and inconsistent with each other, at this age humans easily get lost and it may lead to the crisis of identity and self (Sedikides & Strube, 1997).

In order to verify some of the statements presented above a short survey was applied among secondary school pupils aged 16-17. The questionnaire compiled was short and simple and aimed to elicit learners' attitude towards self-assessment. In total 24 pupils participated in the procedure. To the question about their feelings and emotions if asked to self-assess 10 of them (41.66 %) responded that they would be positive towards the process, while the rest had no idea how it would make them feel. The absolute majority (20 pupils - 83.33 %) claimed that if after self-assessment they concluded that they studied badly, it would cause negative feelings in them, the rest are divided into two equal parts: two of them would not experience negative emotions in such a case and the remaining two had not any idea how they would feel. When asked if self-assessment would make them feel a more confident pupil, exactly the same picture as above was obtained - 20 pupils gave a positive answer, two - negative and two - no notion about the question. When the question was reversed and the pupils were asked if negative outcome of their self-assessment would make them less self-confident, 14 pupils (58.33 %) claimed that it would, whereas eight pupils (33.33%) thought that negative results of their self-assessment would not discourage them and they would not become less self-confident and the remaining two pupils were not clear about such a hypothetical situation. See the figures below illustrating the results.

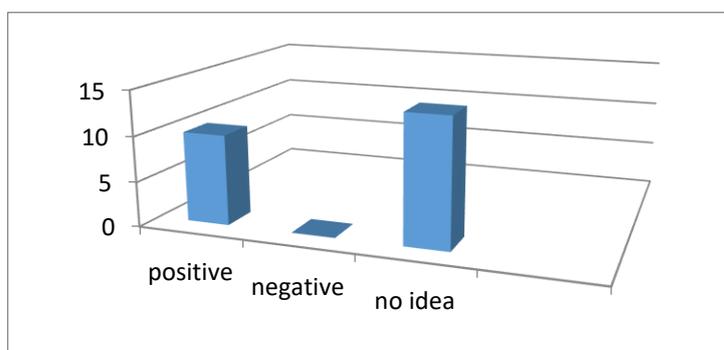


Figure 1. What feelings and emotions would you have if asked to self-assess?

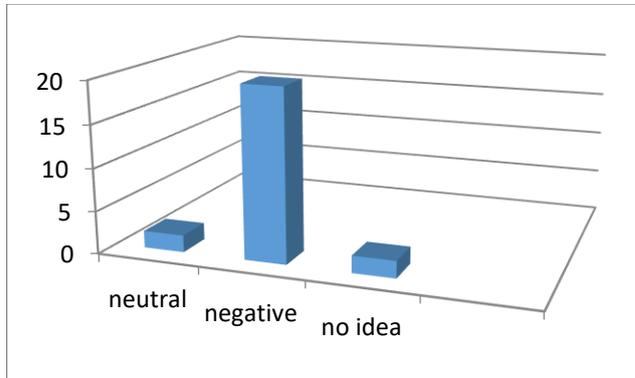
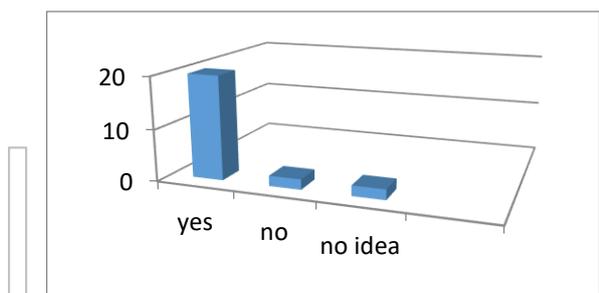


Figure 2. What feelings and emotions would you have in case of negative outcome of your self-assessment?



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Figure 3. Will positive outcome of your self-assessment make you a more self-confident person?

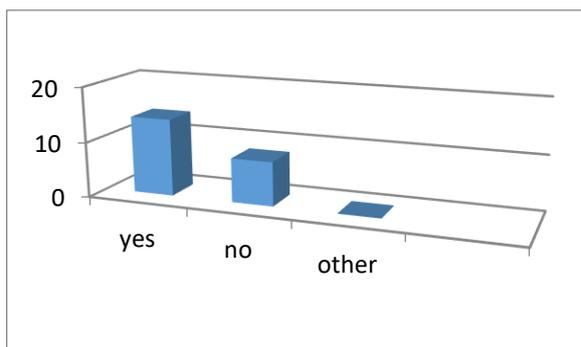


Figure 4. Will negative outcome of your self-assessment make you a less self-confident person?

In conclusion it can be stated that self-assessment has definite benefits for adolescents for educational purposes – it enhances mental processing abilities in learners, assists in better and more objective understanding of self, and contributes to more or less comprehensive analysis of a person’s own academic achievements. Thus, it can be applied, especially, if students are given clear parameters for self-assessment.

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USING SELF-ASSESSMENT IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE WRITING CLASSES AT HIGH SCHOOLS (INTERMEDIATE AND UPPER-INTERMEDIATE LEVELS)

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Abstract

The paper aims to present a renewed and revised model of using self-assessment in EFL writing classes at high schools. The model is based on various already existing approaches and activities of learner self-assessment in writing. The model represents a summative and refined framework with various and varied rubrics and procedures to be used along with teacher feedback at intermediate and upper-intermediate levels (in secondary schools) for enhancing and perfecting pupils' writing ability and for making them independent writers.

Keywords: self-assessment, EFL, teaching writing, high school, learner self-assessment in EFL writing

Introduction

As English has become an extremely significant language worldwide and gained a great popularity in the current era, people all around the world have a tremendous interest in learning it as a foreign / second language. Likewise, the need for writing effectively in order to convey comprehensible and efficient messages has also increased for different kinds of purposes, such as business messages, articles published mostly in English, improvements in technology and in science, in general, etc. Therefore, there is an increasing necessity for developing writing skills in English to efficiently establish communication with different kinds of addressees and to overcome misunderstandings and breakdowns in interactions. However, the traditional ways of teaching, including assessment, remain incomplete to achieve the desired success in writing classes, as they do not address actual requirements, especially of high school students. As a result of the mounting demand to enable learners to compose creative, accurate and effective written texts, it is quite essential to look through the existing assessment techniques properly to see why they do not effectively help students develop their writing skill in a due way, and find alternative assessment methods and techniques like self-assessment, which inspire them effectively.

Self-Assessment

Self-assessment is defined by Boud (1986, p. 5) as “the involvement of students in identifying standards and/or criteria to apply to their work and making judgments about the extent to which they have met these criteria and standards”. McDonald (2012) advocates that “student-centered in its focus, self-assessment encourages creativity, intrinsic motivation and self-sustained learning” (p.4). Self-assessment enables students to become independent learners, which makes them self-confident and assists in understanding the main principles of subject matter by making a cognitive effort.

Writing as an EFL skill

Harmer (2006) claims that many international exams mostly see as a priority to check students’ writing in order to measure their mastery in the knowledge of EFL, and adds that it does not matter whether the exam is for foreign or native language speakers. Interestingly, most learners, especially high school students, find it rather challenging to write not only in English as a foreign/second language, but also even in their native language. Therefore, some researchers like Ferris (2002) believe that students cannot improve their writing skills if they are not taught how to edit their own writings.

Self-assessment in Teaching Writing as EFL for High School Students

Among alternative assessment techniques, self-assessment has acquired an important role for developing students’ writing abilities as it aims to train learners to become autonomous, enables them to gain lifelong skills and to govern their learning process. Furthermore, self-assessment switches responsibility for learning from teachers to learners. Therefore, it assists students to raise their awareness in language learning and construct their knowledge cognitively.

Among other skills self-assessment highly motivates learners towards the process of writing. However, the idea of self-assessment may not be attractive for some students due to various reasons like the lack of knowledge, laziness or reluctance to criticize themselves, etc. The idea of self-assessment is something which secondary school students can manage, as they are mature enough and mentally ready to manage this kind of intellectual activity.

The need to revise and renew the existing models of self-assessment in EFL writing is urgent and evident for some researchers (Ferris, 2002; Harmer, 2006); but there still are many unanswered questions and there is no whole picture of how this practice must be fully implemented and established in EFL writing classrooms. Thus, we offer the model which is mostly based on the ideas of various researchers and is renewed and revisited in a new mode. For the implementation of self-assessment the following set of principles and processes are needed. At the beginning students must be trained before they are asked to assess themselves. For instance, the teacher must demonstrate most common and frequent mistakes to the class and the students should practice eliminating them by means of some exercises as a warm-up activity.

Later on, students must be taught correction symbols as these codes will enable them to understand what type of a mistake / error they make in their written texts such as “S” for spelling mistake, “G” for grammar mistake, “P” for punctuation mistake, etc. so that they can correct their own mistakes by means of these symbols.

After teaching the students the correction symbols, it is essential to explain to them how to use rubrics for assessing their own works as “one way to support thoughtful self-assessment is to provide a rubric or create one with students”(Andrade, 2008, p.61). While teaching them what each criterion in a rubric means, it is stated to the students what is expected from them, such as: what quality of writing they are expected to demonstrate, in which aspect- whether technical or content – they will be first of all assessed, etc. Below quite a comprehensive and at the same time simple rubric for EFL writing self-assessment is presented.

I am content with my writing in the following aspects (tick as many as true):

- Grammar-----
- Vocabulary-----
- Spelling
- Punctuation----
- Sentence structure-----

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I made mistakes in the following aspects of my writing (tick as many as true):

- Grammar-----
- Vocabulary-----
- Spelling
- Punctuation----
- Sentence structure-----

Number of mistakes in each category

- Grammar-----
- Vocabulary-----
- Spelling
- Punctuation----
- Sentence structure-----

Thus, at the first stage the teacher will explicitly explain typical mistakes to students, give advice on how to write, what sort of vocabulary to use, what sort of structures to use, how to differentiate between formal and informal writing, this will be done in order to teach them what we expect from their writing at this level, what a general standard is.

After students write in class or at home, teachers may choose one of the time-spans for learner self-assessment:

- They immediately self-assess their work based on rubrics.
- They self-assess their work immediately and later either after a week, or two weeks, or a month.
- They self-assess their work after a lesson.
- Teachers may ask the student to rewrite his/her work if after briefly looking through it s/he concludes that it is extremely badly done.

Here it is noteworthy to mention why in the second bulleted paragraph we state that after immediate self-assessment students have to check their works either after a week or a month, etc. Such a practice allows learners to have a fresh look at their work, to revisit it in a new mode, to better understand its pluses and minuses.

After students self-correct or self-assess themselves teachers also correct and evaluate their works and give them feedback in the form of comments, recommendation and points. They may score themselves, but this scoring is not official and will not go into their official evaluation. Only a teacher can evaluate students and give them official marks. Otherwise none of the students will assess themselves fairly. The difference between teacher assessment and student self-assessment may be discussed, to help students to become more objective self-assessors.

At the second stage, students will be given the text corrected and for each mistake it will be mentioned what sort of an error that is - e.g., grammar, spelling, punctuation, tense, wrong word, etc. - and they will have to provide a correct version.

At the third stage, students will be given the work in which incorrect forms are only underlined, and this time they have to guess what sort of mistakes these are and provide correct versions as well. Thus, these stages will prepare a learner for genuine independent self-assessment and self-repair.

Since the above stages prepare learners for self-editing and self-repair, with more training and more complicated rubrics learners will master the skill of noticing failures in cohesion, coherence, logical organization, structure and content, thus thorough and complete self-assessment will combine the ability to pinpoint minor mechanical errors and at the same time to make global meaningful and structural changes of a text written by them. Below is presented a more intricate rubric useful for self-assessing essays and compositions at an intermediate level at high schools.

Content

1. Topic statement is clear-----1 point

2. Supporting sentences are given-----1 point
3. Sequence of ideas is logical-----1 point
4. It will attract and convince readers-----1 point

Organization

1. Opening/introduction is given-----1 point
2. The main body is given-----1 point
3. Writing is logically organized-----1 point
4. Closing/conclusion is given-----1 point

Vocabulary and grammar

1. Vocabulary is rich-----1 point
2. Words are correctly chosen-----1 point
3. All sentences have *subject* and *verb*—1 point
4. Tenses are correct-----1 point
5. Various sentence structures are used—1 point

Mechanics

1. Spelling and punctuation are correct-- 1 point
2. Handwriting is clear-----1 point

Total 15 points **my points-----**

Nonetheless, learner self-assessment cannot be implemented successfully without teacher feedback. Students must be given their written corrected works with teachers' comments, and sometimes learners have to re-write their text with corrections, adding whatever is needed, etc. Comments must concern the richness of vocabulary, complexity of structures, cohesion, logical organization with which the text is written, etc.

It is essential to collect and keep all the writing tasks which were self-assessed separately in a portfolio or to make students have their notebooks separately for writing tasks. This will help them to see their progress and lead them to decrease the number of their mistakes they usually make in English as a foreign language writing after some time passes, to make their writing more logically organized, to observe cohesion principles, paragraphs structured according to existing models, etc.

The model proposed by us for self-assessment can be summarized as presented in the figure below.

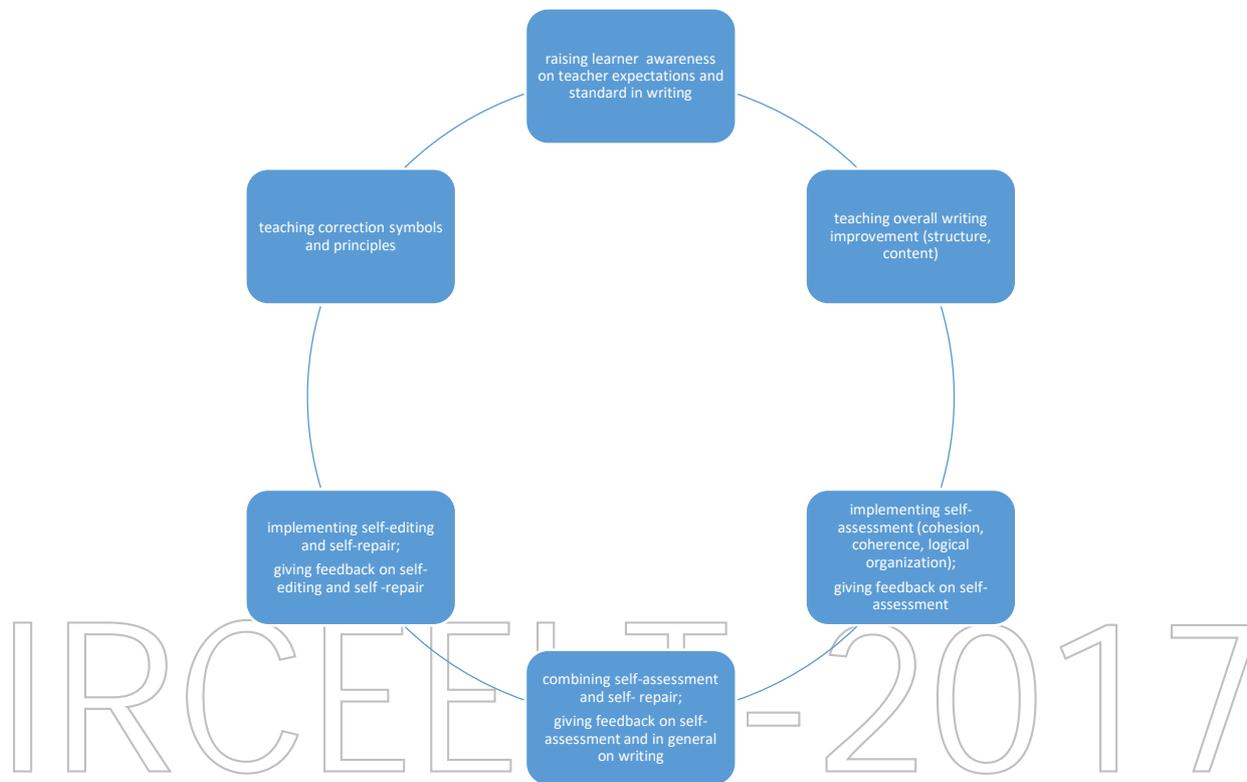


Figure 1– The suggested model of self-assessment and self-repair in EFL writing at pre- and intermediate levels

Conclusion

All in all, learner self-assessment enables students to take responsibility for their own learning, and check and control their learning process actively and also makes them construct the knowledge consciously with correction symbols, teacher feedback and rubrics at high school level. Thus, it makes them knowledgeable about the requirements for different registers in writing and improves students’ writing abilities. Additionally, student self-assessment enables learners to become autonomous writers, which will guide them to achieve success in composing effective and accurate writing in English as a foreign language.

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NEURO-LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Abstract

The map is not the territory: we all have different maps of the world.' This phrase used by Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) practitioners nicely sums up the concept that what we see on the surface may not actually be what is going on in reality. Teachers searching for different ways to reach their students may find that a number of NLP techniques can help them to improve communication, establish and maintain a rapport and create a supportive atmosphere in their classrooms. Based on the idea that we all perceive the world around us in different ways gives teachers insight into the 'territories' inhabited by their learners. The founders of NLP, John Grinder and Richard Bandler, observed excellent communicators and analyzed what exactly they did in order to be able to teach it to others. This was the beginning of NLP, "Neuro" representing the brain and the nervous system which is the home of our behavior, "Linguistic" meaning the words that we use to express our thoughts and feelings, and "Programming" which refers to the actions we use to produce results and achieve our goals. NLP (Neuro-Linguistic Programming) has been around in language teaching longer than we may realize. Those teachers who incorporate elements of Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, music, drama and body language into their lessons are already drawing on NLP as it stood twenty years ago. The aim of this paper is to introduce the scientific and practical value of NLP techniques in EFL, to present a brief guideline of implementing the NLP techniques in the classroom, to investigate the effect of anchoring – an NLP technique - on establishing a rapport with General English freshmen students of the International Black Sea University.

Keywords: NLP, presuppositions, anchoring, Disney strategy, NLP in EFL

Introduction

I was introduced the practice of Neuro Linguistic Programming in the training course of Psychotherapy. From the beginning, I was both excited and skeptical. I could never imagine that our brain is similar to the computer and with the guidance of NLP strategies you can "cut", "copy", "paste", even rewrite some information in the "brain folders". Actually, there is no hocus-pocus, NLP is considered as an alternative way of psychotherapy and nobody asks you to take on new beliefs. You are only asked to suspend your own beliefs long enough to test the concepts and procedures of NLP in your own sensory experience. The procedure does not take a long time and the results are outstanding.

During the training I was observing that there was a very strong link between the NLP techniques and the current methods of EFL teaching. Therefore I have decided to learn more about them.

NLP has been around in language teaching longer than we may realize. Those teachers who incorporate elements of suggestopedia, community language learning, music, drama and body language into their lessons are already drawing on NLP. The aim of this article is to introduce the value of NLP techniques in EFL, to present useful NLP approaches and strategies in teaching generally and EFL context, to investigate the effect of using an anchoring (NLP technique) on increasing motivation of English speaking with General English freshmen students of the International Black Sea University.

What is NLP?

The term 'Neuro-linguistic programming', coined by Bandler and Grinder, refers to purported systematic links between a person's internal experience (neuro), their language (linguistic) and their patterns of behavior (programming). Despite the name and its connotations, it has no direct connection to neuro-science, or to computer programming, although these were the fields of interest for its developers.

There is no single definition of Neuro-Linguistic programming. I would start from Joseph O'Conner's (2001) rich definition in the form of a story of a boy who asked his mother what NLP is. First she told him to ask his grandmother about her health. The old woman looked sad while answering about all the pains that she had. Then the mother told the boy to ask his grandmother about his first steps and other funny episodes. The woman's face lightened while she was telling the stories. Finally the mother explained to her son how a few words can change the person's mood – that is NLP.

NLP is an alternative approach to psychotherapy and an interpersonal communications model based on the subjective study of language, communication and personal change. NLP can be referred to as the method of personal change and communication for the betterment, the principles intend to influence change both in self and others. It studies the patterns of structuring our subjective experience, forming and assessing our values and beliefs and creations of our emotional states, subjective construction of our internal world. Individuals see the same event from a different angle. So, NLP studies experience from the inside.

Roots of NLP

Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) was developed at the University of California at Santa Cruz in the 1970's. Its founders and principal authors were Richard Bandler, a student of (initially) mathematics and computer science, and John Grinder, a professor of linguistics.

The roots of NLP come from the studies of the best human interaction. It studied the communication patterns of outstanding communicators. It has developed by adding practical tools and methods by modelling exceptional people.

Tools of NLP as the way of the thinking, a frame of mind based on curiosity, exploration and fun are used internationally in sports, business, law, training and education.

Despite the name and its connotations it has no direct connection to neuro-science, or to computer programming, though these were fields of interest to its developers.

N	Neurology	The mind and how we think, internal experience
L	Linguistics	How we use language and how it affects us
P	Programming	How are sequence our actions to achieve our goals, patterns of behavior.

Critic's (Craft, 2003) first question is about the theoretical coherence of NLP, he considers NLP, both internally and in relation to existing theories; and to what extent NLP is a theory, rather than a collection of models and/or strategies. There is no claim that NLP is heterogeneous, in that it draws from a wide range of sources, Bandler and Grinder tend to choose practical observation rather than the abstract discussion about the truths of human experience. Therefore, within NLP they took roots from Gestalt therapy, person-centered counselling, transformational grammar, behavioral psychology and cybernetics, the Palo Alto school of brief therapy, Ericksonian hypnotherapy (Bandler, Grinder, & Andreas 1990), and, most importantly, the cybernetic epistemology of Gregory Bateson (Bateson, 1972).

"Neuro Linguistic Programming" - the name seems to be chosen for promotion (Darn, 2009). Blander and Grinder researched language patterns and internal mental representations that were often created as a result of related techniques and approaches (Churches, 2008).

NLP perspectives in teaching

NLP and related subjects have their sceptics, particularly in terms of general classroom applicability and how NLP is commercially marketed as a method of self-improvement. NLP has been labelled a 'quasi science' and criticized on the grounds of lack of empirical studies, but there are sound reasons why NLP is compatible with current classroom practice.

If you ask the question: "what is that good therapist do?" you will be really amazed because the expectations of a good therapist and a good teacher are very similar. Here is the list of the things collected from the trainings:

- Being a good listener
- Create a positive change for people

- Help people to change their behavior
- Facilitate learning
- Change people's life
- Help people to overcome difficult past experiences
- Support people to fulfil their potential
- Help people manage their behavior (Churches, 2008)

These are all expectations of effective teachers. The most important skill of a good teacher and a therapist is the ability to use the influential language in order to create change. Understanding these key points is effective in any profession in which the use of the language is the primary skill (Churches, 2008). One of the important tools to start changing is NLP presuppositions.

NLP Presuppositions – basic beliefs and assumptions and their perspectives in teaching context

There are thirteen presuppositions in which are the central principles of NLP. These principles are not claimed to be true or universal. But if we do believe we can master a skill, we persevere until we do. Some teachers have a completely different view of the same student to us, this happens very often and we can realize that it comes from teachers' expectations, beliefs and ways of thinking about that student or group. Presuppositions are defined as 'the critical mindsets' that successful people adopt to help them achieve their potential. These are often referred to as the presuppositions of NLP (Churches, 2008). Churches and Terry offer ten presuppositions which could be used successfully in the teaching process. They start with the fundamental one: '**We can't change anyone else's behavior; we can only change our own**' (Churches, 2008, p. 14).

- **We are always communicating**

Everything we do in front of the students we teach in the classroom communicates in some way: the words we use, small changes in our facial expression, the way we stand, how the way we arrange our classroom, where we stand, etc.

Analyzing this helps us to learn more about the effects of our communications on others. Actually, it is impossible not to communicate, and even saying nothing will communicate something.

- **The meaning of your communication is the response you get**

In every communication, we are trying to influence people. It may be a message, an idea, an advice, an emotion, an instruction or a combination of those. That communication only has meaning if the recipient reacts in a way

that we have intended for him to react. However, this is one of the most challenging ideas for teachers to take a whole responsibility on ourselves. This belief is a “liberating and powerful way of seeing the world in a different way.” (Churches, 2008, p. 15). Realizing that it is ourselves that we need to change first gives us chance to control our own behavior and intentions of the messages. If we want to change others, first step is to change ourselves.

- **Resistance is the result of lack of rapport**

There are no resistant students, only inflexible communicators. If students resist, it means we are not in good rapport; the interpersonal connection does not work properly. We are all acting and responding to our own internal maps of the world. These are the result of our experiences and the emotions associated with those experiences. Our maps are full of values, beliefs and memories. Some of these are helpful and some of them are not. The first step in the process of learning to have the flexibility and skills to communicate effectively and achieve your goals is to become aware of what is in your map and to recognize that it is just that, a map.

- **The map we create in our mind is not the reality (Map is not the territory)**

When you encounter resistance or challenge, ask yourself: what sort of relationship do I have with this child, parent or colleague? Almost always, if there is not the mutual feeling or trusts and relationship, that is rapport, resistance follows. Learning the rapport is the key skill in NLP. Being able to develop rapport effortlessly can help you to communicate effectively, transform the way you think, feel and behave.

- **The person who sets the frame controls the communication and the actions that happen**

When students don't have a really clear understanding of what they have to do, what happens? We have all had the experience of setting up a classroom activity and then finding that it hasn't worked out. Often this is because we missed out an important part of the explanation or weren't clear about 'how' it was to be done. The same thing applies to all communication. The language we use powerfully affects the meaning that we communicate, whether we are aware of it or not. Taking time to be more aware of the hidden meaning in the language we use makes us much more effective. Fundamentally, whoever establishes the boundaries first will have set the markers for what follows.

- **Everyone has all the internal resources that they need**

NLP essentially a positive set of ideas, beliefs, techniques and philosophies. At the heart of these ideas is the notion that if one person can do something so can anyone else. In other words, it's just a question of working out what that person does and applying it to ourselves. Often the things that make a difference are quite subtle or hidden and can be the result of internal imagery or just the language that we use with ourselves or others. At the end of the day we all have the control over what we think and how we act.

- **We can all learn fast and form one-trial experience**

Think back for a moment to when you were training to be a teacher. How much easier is to teach something, or deal with a classroom problem, for the second time or subsequent times? Our minds respond quickly to the memories that we have of things that we have done in the past, particularly when there are powerful memories associated with them, either positive success or failures. Equally our minds respond just as quickly to the images that we create of future events. Creating positive mental representations of what we want enables us to marshal our internal resources.

- **Feedback is information; there is no such thing as failure**

Knowing what we want and aligning our internal representations and imagery to the desired outcome is the beginning of the journey. Remembering that our map is not the reality, we also need to be alert to whether we are getting what we want. Feedback is not just about receiving verbal observations from others. By attuning our senses to the subtle details of what is happening around us we can know when we are getting what we want and when things are not going well. Noticing subtle signs and signals in the classroom can allow us to act quickly to realign what we are doing and to recognize when we need to do this.

- **The person with the most flexibility has the most influence**

How many teaching philosophies and ideas have teachers had to take on board in the last 20 years? And how many of them actually work all the time? Practitioners of NLP recognize that there is not a one-size-fits-all and that not everything will work all the time. At the end of the day, classrooms and schools are complex environments, and flexibility of behavior and thinking gives us what NLP offers teachers is a wide range of possible behaviours and ways of thinking that they can use in their professional judgment, applying them when and where they make sense. The more tools in your tool kit the more jobs you can do. This has been illustrated time and again from the teachers that we have worked with (Churches, 2008).

NLP and language learning

The NLP model explains how we process information which comes to us from the outside and is based on the work of Richard Bandler and John Grinder, who initially recognized the importance of eye contact and movement in identifying emotional states and how (rather than what) individuals think. In NLP, information arrives via the senses, and '**six modalities**' are identified as ways that different individuals perceive the messages. These modalities are: 1) Visual Remembered. 2) Visual Constructed 3) Auditory Remembered 4) Auditory Remembered 5) Auditory Digital 6) Kinesthetic. (Darn, 2009)

These clearly form the basis of what we now know as '**VAK**' – the identification of **visual**, **auditory** and **kinaesthetic** learners and the need to provide for different learning styles in the classroom.

After the external event comes in through our sensory input channels, and before we make an Internal Representation of the event, we filter the event. We run that event through our internal processing filters. Our internal

processing filters are how we delete, distort and generalize the information that comes in through our five senses. These processes are instantly recognizable in language learners (James, 1988).

Deletion

Deletion occurs when we selectively pay attention to certain aspects of our experience and not others. Deletion means we overlook or omit certain sensory information. Without deletion, we would be faced with too much information to handle in our conscious minds. (James, 1988)

Deletion protects our conscious mind from the 'burnout'. We selectively choose the aspects of our experience and not others. Deletion means to filter or omit some information from the brain. From the learners' perspective, there is too much information to handle. Learners delete or skip some information in order to manage input memory. From the educator's perspective, we have already learnt not to present too much new language at once, and the principle of 'less is more' (Darn, 2009).

Distortion

Distortion occurs when we make shifts in our experience of sensory data by making misrepresentations of reality. There's a well-known story of distortion in Easter philosophy. It is called the story of the rope and the snake. A man walking along a road saw what he believed to be a snake and yelled, "SNAKE". However, upon closer investigation he is relieved to discover that it really was only a piece of rope (James, 1988).

Distortion also helps us in the process of motivating ourselves. Motivation occurs when we actually distort the material that has come to us and that has already been changed by one of our filtering systems. Distortion is also helpful in planning. We distort to plan when we construct imaginary futures. (James, 1988). Language learners will distort information into forms which are understandable and learnable. This process is both negative, in that it produces errors and misunderstandings, and positive in that it contributes to learnability and motivation (Darn, 2009).

Generalization

The third process is generalization, where we draw global conclusions based on one, two or more experiences. At its best, generalization is one of the ways that we learn, whereby we take the information we have and draw broad conclusions about the world based on one or more experiences (James, 1988). This is one of the ways that we learn, by taking the information we have and drawing broad conclusions. At its worst, over-generalization occurs, causing misuse of rules and poorly formed hypotheses (Darn, 2009).

This is one of the ways that we learn, by taking the information we have and drawing broad conclusions. At its worst, over-generalization occurs, causing misuse of rules and poorly formed hypotheses.

However, what is actually learnt by individuals is dictated by their own personal filters. NLP identifies these as '**beliefs**', '**values**', '**decisions**' and '**memories**', broadly defined as the way someone handles information. In NLP, these filters affect our model of the world and our behavior. In language learning, they explain a wide range of learning styles and strategies (Darn, 2009):

- Learners make decisions based on beliefs and value judgments. They are often in a state of conflict because their previous learning experiences do not coincide with their current learning environment.
- Values provide the basis for decisions about what is right and wrong, what they want / need to know and don't want / need to know. In certain cultures, some beliefs are disabling, in that they prevent learners adopting strategies such as risk-taking which teachers would like to encourage.
- Memories and prior decisions create beliefs which affect our current behavior. Learners often revert to previously adopted strategies and require deconditioning, while it can be argued that adult learning patterns merely replace earlier learning strategies which have been forgotten (Darn, 2009).

NLP also recognizes the importance of non-verbal communication, particularly eye contact, posture, breathing and movement. '**Congruency**' is achieved when there is a match between verbal and non-verbal communication. Congruency, here, may have a language learning parallel in the concept of fluency, suggesting that non-verbal communication should be taught alongside functional language and phonology in order to achieve natural language production (Darn, 2009).

NLP in the classroom

Teachers using music to create atmosphere and stimulate creativity, or using mime and drama techniques to build confidence and add body language to speech acts are already drawing from the NLP repertoire. Only recently, however, have classroom activities specifically and overtly based on NLP been developed by ELT practitioners.

Many of these activities also integrate the skills and are extensions or modifications of existing techniques such as storytelling, guided fantasy, role-play and simulation. Areas where NLP can have a real impact, however, are those which explore the relationships between students and between students and teacher, and those which help to create a healthy and positive learning environment:

Creating rapport

NLP Rapport is the ability to relate to others in a way that creates trust and understanding, the sense of ease that develops when people are interacting with others they feel comfortable with, and is essential for meaningful communication to take place. You don't have to agree with their opinions or even like it. In the classroom, mingle and 'getting to know you' activities, as well as continuous negotiation between teacher and students foster rapport, while communication gap activities and group work reinforce it. (Darn, 2009)

Mirroring

One way of establishing good rapport is to mirror the behavior of those we wish to influence or to be influenced by. Mirroring of posture, gestures, facial expressions and even breathing can easily be practiced in the classroom, while simple drilling achieves the same results with phonological features of connected speech and key lexical phrases. To achieve natural communication, verbal and non-verbal aspects need to be combined in communicative activities. Learners may be asked to mirror the behavior of characters on television before mirroring each other and the teacher (Darn, 2009).

Perceptual positioning

This is an extension of mirroring used in NLP for resolving conflicts and involving a neutral third party as a mediator in disputes. An ELT application here would be in a reading or storytelling lesson, where one position is taken by the writer / teller, another by a character in the story, and a third by a reader or neutral observer of events.

Disney's Creative Strategy

Disney's Creative Strategy is a tool for creative thinking inspired by Walt Disney. Disney was talented in discovering creative ideas and converting them into reality. Based on a close associate, he used to say that there were actually three different Walt: the dreamer, the realist, and the spoiler and one never knew which one was coming to the meeting.

Walt Disney's strategy was highlighted and modeled later in 1994 by NLP expert Robert Dilts. He defined the technique as Disney's method for turning his dream into reality. In this method, the group of people or individuals uses a specific thinking flow which builds parallel thinking that can be used to generate, evaluate, critique ideas and solve problems (Molden, 2007).

In order to prepare the team or individual for Disney's Creative Strategy; four parts of the room are set for each thinking method. The first part is for dreaming and imagination, the second part is for realists and/or planning, the third part is for critics and the fourth part is for getting the mind outside the thinking flow (Molden, 2007).

The idea of setting a thinking place for each stage in the method is to prepare the team or individual mind to switch thinking modes from one to another. The place can be a room, open space office or an outdoor garden.

The team gathers with a target to achieve, this target can be a dream to turn into reality, design to visualize, problem to solve or process to improve. However, the history of the Disney's method qualifies it to fit with creative brainstorming to help turn dreams into applicable projects. This tool could work in creative writing, goal setting, and team building activities in EFL classroom.

Creating positive states and anchoring

Anchoring Technique

In NLP World, the following sentence is repeatedly used: "Pretend it works, try it, and notice the results you get. If you don't get the result you want, try something else." This is what makes the fundamental technique of NLP. There are many formal techniques employed by NLP Practitioners. The most important of these are the following: Anchoring, Swish and Reframing. The article introduces the anchoring technique as a positive reinforcement in EFL classroom.

The Anchoring Technique in NLP means the process by which memory recall, state change or other responses become associated with some stimulus, in such a way that perception of the stimulus (the anchor) leads by reflex to the anchored response occurring. The stimulus may be quite neutral or even out of conscious awareness, and the response may be either positive or negative. Anchors are capable of being formed and reinforced by repeated stimuli, and thus cause a type of conditioning. NLP Anchors can be deliberately set and triggered verbally, through touch, or other unique stimulus, to assist self or others access 'resourceful' or other target states (Bandler,1990).

This is about motivation and maintaining positive attitudes to learning. Guided fantasy may be used to create the state, and a movement or sound selected to represent it. Some teachers, often subconsciously, opt for different positions in the classroom to carry out certain actions, such as give instructions, teach grammar or tell a story. In ELT this is a type of anchoring by which students automatically know what is going to happen next in a lesson, and are prepared for it.

Research

The paper introduces a research survey to analyze the result of quasi experiment conducted in the EFL classroom with freshman students at the International Black Sea University. The purpose of the experiment was to use money box and background music as the positive anchors aiming of increasing English learners' motivation in speaking. As we mentioned, NLP Anchors are a pretty simple concept – an anchor is simply a connection between a stimulus and a certain emotional response. We used money box where money was put every time they used L1 until enough money was collected to buy

a cake for the group. The background music was used to increase learner's motivation of speaking in the mingling and group work speaking activates. We set the hypothesis:

1. Money box is a positive anchoring which can increase learner's motivation of speaking only in English.
2. Background music makes students feel more relaxed and motivated to use target content freely in the speaking practice.

The experiment started from the beginning of the spring semester, 2017. The teacher facilitated students to set the rule of money box. Learners were eager to put 20 tetri (Georgian coins) if they used L1 during the lecture. The money box had the shape of lady bird and was called "Maia" due to the Georgian connotation (ჰოს მისოს, Maia Bird). The money box was used during the first 8 lectures regularly and after that from time to time. From the personal observation, students were more inspired to speak only English when they saw "Maia" in the classroom.

Background music was used during the speaking practice, when students were mingling or walking around. Observation shows that they were more relaxed and free when they heard the music. Some of them walked around the class with rhythmic movements.

The population of research is General English freshmen students of the International Black Sea University. The number of the participants was twenty, which is not sufficient for the clear conclusions, but enough to get some idea of from the feedback. Research is still ongoing and it's more qualitative than quantitative and the result might change. However, we do have positive evidence already and it partly approves the hypothesis, which makes the results to be published. The questioner involves the open-ended questions and Likert Scale questions where they should rate their subjective experience. Students were given the following questions:

- 1) What comes to your mind when you see, hear or remember money box "Maia"?
- 2) How do you feel when you hear background music during the speaking practice?
- 3) How would you rate your level of motivation of speaking English when you don't see money box in the classroom (on the scale 1-10)?
- 4) How would you rate your level of motivation of speaking English when you see money box in the classroom (on the scale 1-10)?
- 5) How would you rate your level of motivation when you don't hear background music in the classroom (on the scale 1-10)?
- 6) How would you rate your level of motivation when you hear background music during the speaking practice (on the scale 1-10)?

In order to avoid “extra anchoring” we didn’t give the options in question 1 and question 2. Learners wrote their comments by themselves:

1) What comes to your mind when you see, hear or remember money box “Maia”?

Key notes:

- Speak only English
- motivator to speak without mistakes
- ‘Speak fluently in English’
- Help (to find words in the dictionary)
- Always having the coins in my pocket ☺
- “Our little friend who motivates us to speak only English, when I don’t see her I have feeling of emptiness, try to find her in the classroom. “

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- Effective method
- English is fun
- Teacher’s positive attitude toward us

2) How do you feel when you hear background music during the speaking practice?

Key notes:

- Feeling free, motivated, I love music and always listen to it when I am studying, reminds the time of studying at home
- Feeling relaxed after the stressful day
- Eager to speak more
- Feeling more confident
- Amazing and unusual method which really works for me
- Motivated teacher
- Positive feelings
- Speaking time

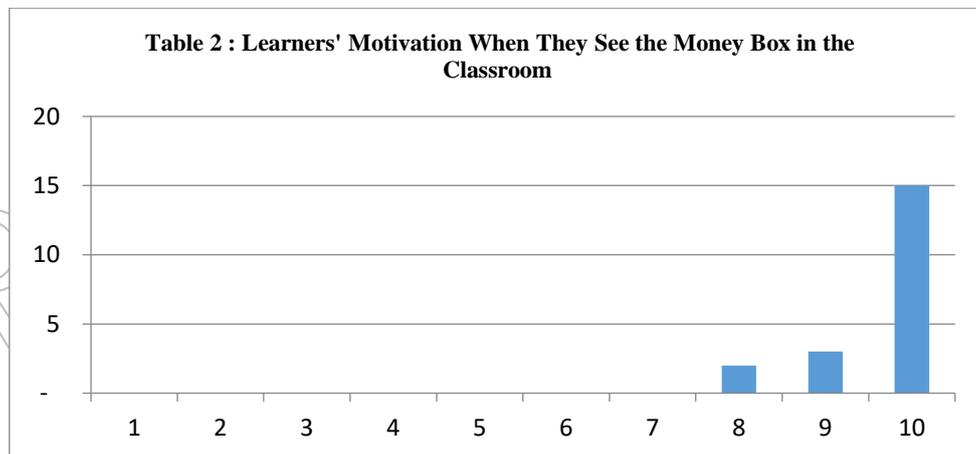
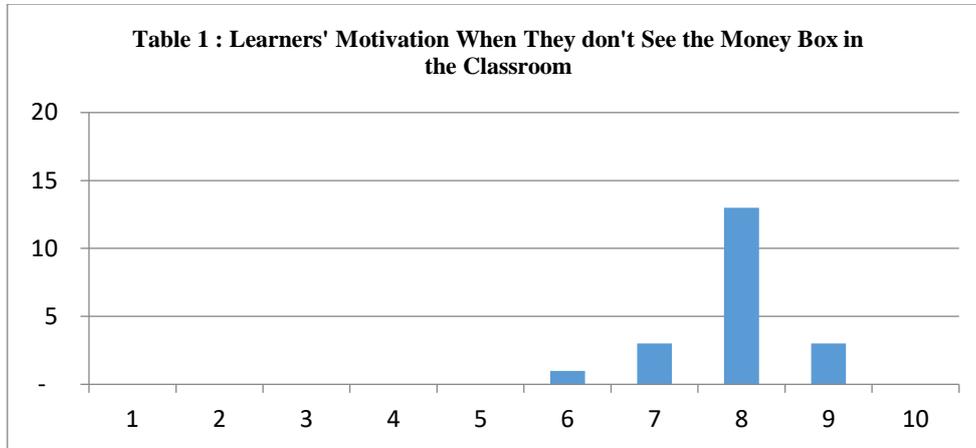


Table 1 represents the motivation level when students are in the usual environment and there is no money box in the classroom. 65% chooses 8 out of ten. Table 2 represents the learners' level of motivation when they see the money box in the classroom. 75% of learners rate the motivation 10 on a scale 1-10. The average rate on Table 1 and Table 2 is 7.9 and 9.65 respectively. As a result, students' motivation increased by 22%. If we consider that there are lots of methods to boost learner's motivation and one simple method increases motivation by 22%, it means that, at least, we should try it.

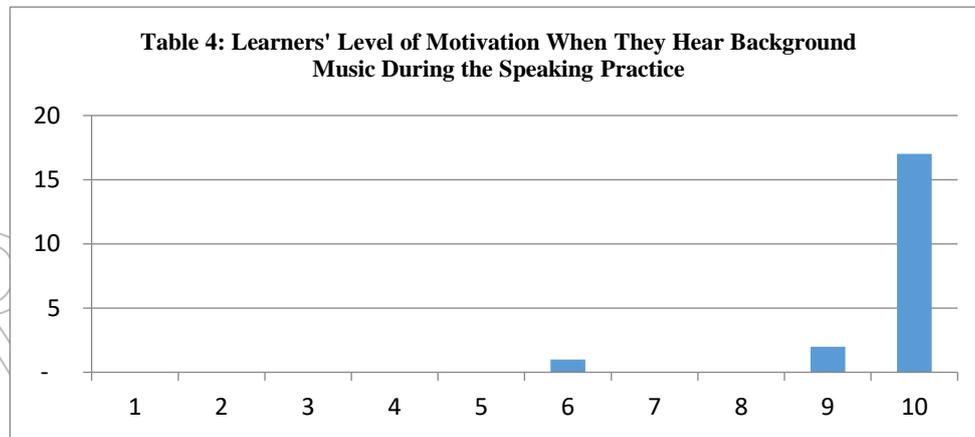
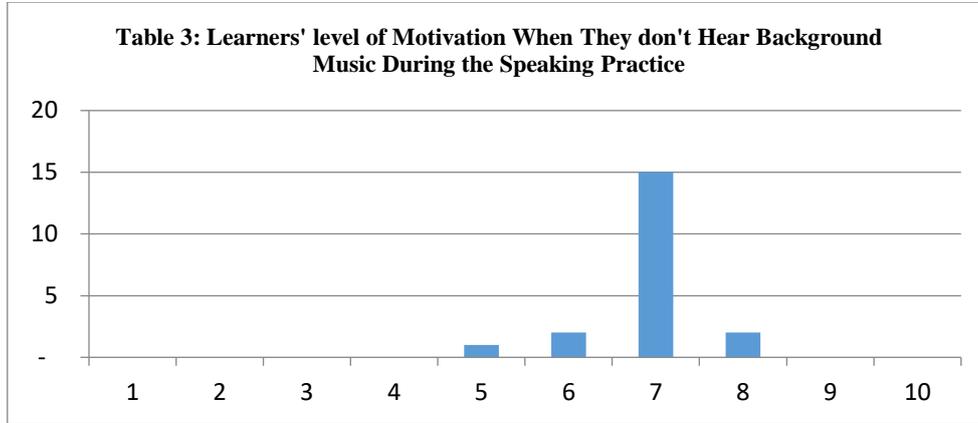


Table 3 depicts the learner's level of motivation. The average rate when they do not hear background music during the speaking practice. is 6.9, and while they hear it - 9.7. The research shows that the background music has positive effect on learners' motivation; it increases the level by 41 %.

Conclusion

Whether the NLP is the field of science or not, what is clear is that it offers us a range of techniques and tools which might be useful in the teaching context. NLP complements ELT by suggesting the best ways of practice in improving interpersonal communication and learning. Nowadays, employers seek people with high skills of creative thinking, interpersonal communication and flexibility. The role of the education is to prepare students for the global market, so educators should be open to searching and experimenting with new approaches, such as NLP.



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WIKI AS THE BEST EDUCATIONAL TOOL: BETTER THAN BLOG, YOUTUBE OR EVEN DIGITAL STORYTELLING

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Abstract

Wiki is the most suitable tool for class collaboration. In this paper it will firstly explained what the merits of the aforementioned method are and then an experimental lesson on wiki will be presented. First and foremost, Wikis should be used because they are reliable, user-friendly and available for free. They are the ideal tools supporting writing instruction with many significant advantages. Among others, Wikis are considered fun, involve reading, reviewing and tracking of the original work and do not require high-tech knowledge, while they make it feasible to expose the learners' project to a wider audience. Obviously the main advantage of wikis is the "open editing" (Leuf and Cunningham, 2001 cited in Augar et al, 2004). Apparently, the individual's role is important because each student's contribution can be critical for the success of the whole project; nevertheless, the unsigned and multi-edited work promotes cooperation instead of competition. Regarding the lesson entitled "Greece 4 Teenagers", it is a project where the group knowledge outweighs the individual one. This is important, since Wiki as a "crowdsourcing" mechanism ensures a successful end state through fruitful interactions. The tangible aim of this lesson is for the students to write a report on a topic concerning Greece; this can be a story about a place, a person, traditions or the compilation of a "youth glossary". However, reviewing their classmates' work and having their own revised by other learners, would lead to metacognitive awareness of writing missteps. The students are divided into pairs/teams, discuss and upload their work regarding a Region in Greece and then change teams in order to follow the same procedure for their second project, concerning culture, famous Greeks and a youth glossary. As regards storytelling, the learners will work individually, putting the final touches on their own story about the significance of a particular place, cultural aspect or important figure of their homeland in their life. This story will be locked and no changes will be allowed by other students. This is an open-ended, active learning task; a cross-disciplinary and cross-thematic project. Wiki is used as a stimulus to enhance the student motivation and team work. Towards the end of the class, the teacher will show the final result, explaining that it is just the beginning of their wiki quest. Concluding, Wiki appears to be a perfect tool that facilitates not only all educational purposes, but also the evolution of team spirit and respect of others.

Keywords: Wikis, Computer Mediated Communication, ESL Teaching, Modern teaching methods, student motivation

Introduction

More than ever before, teaching young adolescents should aim at grooming individuals who can survive, even prosper in a constantly changing and challenging socio-politico-economic and cultural environment. Thus, Information Age skills' development and meaningful learning connected to the extant world are of vital importance. Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) constitutes an outlet to the real world as it breaks down the traditional isolation of the classroom and opens up information, presentation and communication avenues. It also empowers learners to pursue 'real-life aims', which they view as meaningful and teleological. Authentic settings have the capacity of motivating and encouraging learner participation by facilitating students' willing suspension of disbelief. In this way, students become immersed in the setting and such immersion can provide the motivation that is needed for the initial perseverance.

Wikis are easily constructed websites which provide collaborative modification of their content and structure directly from the web browser. Wikis permit to control over different functions and levels of access. For instance, editing rights may be granted to all or some of the contributors. Moreover, the content is created without any defined owner or leader. Obviously the best example of a wiki is Wikipedia. Wiki is the most suitable of the CMC tool for class collaboration. As Warschauer (2010) points out, "whereas e-mail and chat facilitate informal, author-centric, personal exchange, writing on a wiki facilitates more formal, topic-centric, depersonalized exchange" (p.12). In this paper we would like first to explain the merits of the method and then to present an experimental lesson on wiki.

Rationale for the Use of Wiki

First and foremost, Wikis should be used because they are reliable, user friendly and available for free. For instance, "Wikispaces", offer educators their "Plus plan" which includes an infinite number of members, total file storage of 2GB and maximum file size 20 MB. The trend is to offer even more space and flexibility as time goes by, so the teachers do not pay, while they get some internet assistance for free. Furthermore, Wikis are the ideal tools supporting writing instruction with many significant advantages (Lamb, 2004 cited in Parker & Chao, 2007): Among others, Wikis are considered fun, involve reading, reviewing and tracking of the original work and do not require high-tech knowledge. Furthermore, it is feasible to expose the learners' project to a wider audience via Wikis. In what is probably our only disagreement with Professor Lamb, an expert on wikis, we suggest that wikis even encourage "product orienting writing", especially the one we have in mind.

Obviously the main advantage of wikis is the "open editing" (Leuf and Cunningham, 2001 cited in Augar et al, 2004), also known as the "Wikipedia principle". Constant revisions and introduction of new knowledge make learners' participation frequent and better. Apparently, the individual's role is important because each student contribution can be critical for the success of the whole project; nevertheless, the unsigned and multi-edited work promotes cooperation instead of competition (De Pedro et al., 2006, cited in Parker & Chao, 2007).

Cooperation on wikis does not imply uniformity. Thus, wiki exhibits flexibility and characteristics of a democratic school curriculum as it aims at catering for the varied needs of students of the same age but at different performance levels who accordingly should be working on different outcomes. "In using wikis, students are not only learning how to publish content; they are also learning how to develop and use all sorts of collaborative skills, negotiating with others to agree on correctness, meaning, relevance, and more. In essence students begin to teach each other" (Richardson, 2006, p.65). Furthermore Wikis asynchronous nature and its more deliberate environment facilitate a much more advanced language output while the language input received can be processed fully due to time allowances (Vlachos, 2006).

Last but not least, a feature of wikis enables teachers to track students' updates and thus being able to evaluate individual participation. Through the signature tool, individual participation will be assessed. Obviously, this can also be an alternative assessment method with the emphasis placed on the process of learning rather than its product. We have to highlight that "as it is suggested in the relevant literature, these assessment procedures are likely to have a positive washback effect on teaching and learning, and at the same time they provide informative feedback to both students and teachers of the learning/teaching that goes on in classroom" (Genesee & Upshur, 1996, cited in Manolopoulou-Sergi, 2006, p. 15).

The aforementioned theoretical advantages will be more obvious when we show their application. At school we have set up four different wikis. The first is a test wiki concerning the Crusades, in order to help the students understand the concept. It is important for the class to get acquainted and familiar with the wikis before being exposed to the wiki environment for a serious learning purpose. At this point it is worth mentioning that two wikis regarding the school Model United Nations Club and the Forensics Club have already been set up. In these wikis, students have a role but the leading role remains with the teacher who acts as a MUN advisor or a Forensics Head Coach. Lastly, the true challenge to all students is a wiki about Greece and its beauties. Regarding the topic of the particular project it is undeniable that the group knowledge outweighs the individual one and this is important for the success of the endeavour. In that way, Wiki as a "crowdsourcing" mechanism ensures a successful end state through fruitful interactions. Actually, this knowledge base wiki consists "a knowledge repository" for the group (Tonkin, 2005, cited in Parker & Chao, 2007; Godwin-Jones, 2003).

The Lesson

Aims and Objectives

In that vein, an opportunity to reflect on the beauty of Greece and its many strong points can be highly motivating. Actually, the more relevant a task is seen, the more likely learners are to feel motivated to do the activity. Parenthetically, students do not exist in a vacuum and the current socio-economic conditions have rendered the Greek youth dispirited and unmotivated. A sense of humiliation, the bleak present and the even bleaker future have pummeled their national

pride and self-esteem. Moreover, unemployment is anathema and a bugbear for the young generation. Especially adolescent males are in a particular foul mood and this may help them recapture their sense of national pride and lift their spirits. Furthermore, for these “digital native” students, who are upper intermediate to advanced English learners (B1 to B2), the challenge to create “their own” wiki will definitely be deemed worthwhile with relevance to their own lives. Hence, the topic “Greece 4 teenagers” was thought to be and indeed was received with relish.

The tangible aim of this effort was for the students to write a report on a topic concerning Greece; this can be a story about a place, about a person, about traditions or the compilation of a “youth glossary”. However, reviewing their classmates’ work and having their own revised by other learners, would lead to metacognitive awareness of writing missteps. This is an open-ended, active learning task; a cross-disciplinary and cross-thematic project. Once more, the technology and especially internet is used as stimulus to enhance their motivation and team work. By reading the group work, the corrected/ revised editions and by viewing movies about Greece linked to the wiki, they did improve in all major skills, not just their writing ones. The oral/speaking skills for example were practiced in class during the “teams” brainstorming. One of the main aims that was achieved was to introduce cooperative learning which “leads to positive interdependence of group members, individual accountability, face-to-face interaction and appropriate use of collaborative skills” (Schaffert, Bischof et al. 2006, cited in Parker & Chao, 2007, p. 58). It may seem trivial but one of the greatest challenges an English teacher in the public school system faces is the pervading competitiveness and the lack of team mentality. Students have not learnt to collaborate and team work is not viewed as legitimate, according to Needs Analyses’ findings.

Furthermore, this was a cross school project as well, since three groups, from two different high schools where I used to teach collaborated in an online environment (Parker & Chao, 2007). Last but not least, it provided a richer, more stimulating learning environment where multi literacies and all the 21st century skills (“6Cs”), namely character education, citizenship, communication, critical thinking and problem solving, collaboration and creativity and imagination were promoted to varied degrees. Substantial planning due to the significant logistical limitations of the Greek school system was mandatory (Warschauer & Whittaker, 1997). For instance, arrangements were made so a computer to be placed at the disposal of those students who may not have one at home. Actually, I had to use extensively my personal computer and so did some students throughout this endeavour as no other alternative existed. When I created the experimental wiki about the Crusades my students were given a handout with instructions for editing and creating a Wiki. A task sheet was also given at this stage. The second session took place in the computer laboratory while the World Wide Web was used for research throughout.

Teaching Procedure

Pre-Writing Stage

The actual lesson had three stages. During the pre-writing stage the students got familiar with wikis via the Crusades one. However, most of the students, having been members to the MUN or Forensics Club had previous experience in the two

wikis I had set up for the Clubs. Lastly, a display of students' assignments entitled "Its Greece" aimed at capturing students' attention, activating prior schemata and introducing content. Subsequently the compilation of a top five list of holiday destinations/places to live, cultural aspects and people they admire, ignited further their curiosity.

The idea of creating their own wiki addressed to their counterparts abroad and in cooperation with other schools was a novel idea that appealed to them. Students knew that their writing was not only directed at the teacher as in the past but also at their own classmates and beyond. Furthermore it might play a role in real-life and affect the reader's opinion of their country. Therefore, more importance was placed on the validity of their writing. Thus, students learn that plagiarism for instance is totally unacceptable and inexcusable. The rules for avoiding improper posts was thoroughly explained as well (Godwin-Jones, 2003). In that context, brainstorming was also highly encouraged and practiced, as well as the sense of pride and ownership of the final product.

While-Writing Stage

The while-writing stage actually began in the first teaching hour, when the students who had already been assigned to teams, tackled Task 2 so as to build a vocabulary bank. Regarding the core of this phase, students needed to have been prepared thoroughly, by doing extensive research and having discussed with their teammates the particulars of their work, which would be written in class and uploaded. It was also an opportunity to illustrate their creativity, because along with their writing they could upload files, links and widgets at will.

Later on, the students were divided in pairs/teams, discussed and uploaded their work regarding a Region in Greece (for the first fifteen minutes) and then changed teams in order to follow the same procedure for their second project, concerning culture, famous Greeks and a youth glossary. As regards storytelling, the learners worked alone, putting the final touches on their own story about the significance of a particular place, cultural aspect or important figure of their homeland in their life. This story was locked and no changes were allowed by other students. In the entire procedure, the teacher was the facilitator and ensured that proper behaviour will be applied. Towards the end of the class, the teacher showed the class the final result, explaining that it was just the beginning of their wiki quest.

Post-Writing Stage

The third and lengthier part of this project was in essence, homework. It required co-ordination and perseverance as it was conducted online. Writing alongside reading were the basic skills developed at this part. However, the greatest benefit would be that being a member of this community of practice was an exercise on responsibility. Moreover, learners by respecting others and sharing knowledge proved that "wiki is a work that might produce a community" (Warshauer, 2010, p.4). Quality was maintained and upgraded by vigilant authors who were constantly reviewing what had been written. All recent changes were scrutinized by the teacher; but it was the student body that ensured the entries' accuracy

and fairness. At this point it is worth mentioning that many students made use of the message tool so as to submit work to the teacher electronically in order to receive feedback in the same way, before posting the final version. The sense of pride of the students played a pivotal role in the success at this stage.

Conclusion

Concluding, it is a great challenge to cater for the needs and wants of young adolescents, by creating meaningful learning opportunities. Wiki appears to be a perfect tool that facilitates not only all educational purposes, but also the evolution of team spirit and respect of others. This classroom wiki described encouraged collaborative writing and critical editing on any and all given topics, so a recommendation can be given to make use of this extremely useful tool.

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**EFFECT OF MULTIMEDIA SELF-MADE INSTRUCTION ON IMPROVING LEARNING
AMONG EDUCABLE MENTALLY RETARDED STUDENTS IN HAMEDAN, IRAN**

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Abstract

Multimedia have a critical role in learning and its development in educable students. This study has been conducted to evaluate self-made multimedia instruction on promoting the highest level of learning in the third grade educable mentally retarded students in Hamedan, Iran. The sample population of this study consisted of the whole learning disabled male students in the third grade of agriculture high school course in Hamedan. Among them 40 people have been selected using simple random sampling. The design of the study was quasi-experimental, with a pre-experimental and post-experimental test held with the control and experimental groups. The experimental group was trained by means of educational self-made software during 2 months; but the control group was trained traditionally with no multimedia at all. First of all pre-test has been conducted with both groups. Then, the experimental group was exposed to the independent variable and then a post-test was held. After a period of 9 weeks, the post-experimental test was held to evaluate the level of material acquisition. The data obtained were analyzed, obtaining mean results and standard deviation (SD). One-way covariance was analyzed for each item. Result of the study showed that the level of learning on judgment and evaluation ($P > 0.001$), applies of knowledge ($P > 0.001$) and development of analysis ($P > 0.05$) in the experiment group was significantly different with the control group. According to these results it was concluded that teaching and learning by using multimedia for educable students is effective.

Keywords: Educable mentally retarded; learning; Multimedia.

Introduction

Between 1-3 % of the world population have an IQ score under 70 and the performance of 80-90 % of them falls within the range of mild mental retardation (MR) or educable mental retardation (EMR) (IQ50-70) (Kaufman, Ayub, & Vincent, 2010). Among the category of MR, educable children have special physical and clinical features and are often referred to as those with cultural-familial retardation (Heber, 1959).

Among the main characteristics of a mentally retarded child is that s/he takes longer to learn and forgets what s/he has learned too soon (Dindar et al., 2016). Intellectual weakness and understanding disability cause these children to be very reluctant to learn, and become tired and bored with the smallest amount of pressure. Teaching must become concrete and tangible as much as necessary through the use of learning assist tools and approach a form of game playing so that the child will feel less tired (Davarmanesh, 2004).

It is clear that the use of information and communication technology (ICT) will improve the quality of education, increase the level of enthusiasm, self-motivation and self-learning in students, and make researchers more capable in doing their activities. In this context, there will be the possibility of preparing educational content by using a variety of teaching methods and learning models, and students will be provided with more options and activities to choose from (Collis & Moonen, 2001).

Multimedia was introduced in 1950 and efforts were made to increase the quality of education by combining various media outlets (Henich, 1993). Benefits of using multimedia in class includes: increasing motivation for participation, combining different skills, increasing cooperation skills, a better interaction between students and the teacher, a better analysis of sources, and increasing the amount of thinking among students (Schery, 1997).

A multimedia environment offers opportunities for the use of text, graphics, video and audio which simulate information for the individual and present it in various forms. These factors further stimulate the user's intrinsic motivation and consequently lead to their more frequent usage in teaching (Bradley & Boyle, 2004). They will also allow access to effective learning and retention in educable students, cause learners to use their various senses, stimulate their motivation for active participation during the education process, and help learners become self-regulated and self-directed.

In another study, one used a physical education test and intellectual training test as pre-test and post-test on two similar groups of educable mentally retarded subjects. The experimental group participated in a 10-week course at the end of which they showed a considerable amount of physical and intellectual progress by using multimedia tools. (Oliver, 1958).

In the other study, investigated the effects of digital media on the learning outcomes of individuals with dyslexia and stressed the need for paying special attention to the design of appropriate learning content for an optimal use of this technology (Beacham & Alty, 2006).

Thus, with regard to what has been previously presented, the aim of the present study was to investigate the effectiveness of multimedia tools on improvement of higher levels of learning among educable high school students of Agriculture in the city of Hamedan.

Method

This is a quasi-experimental study with a pretest - posttest design and a control group.

The statistical population for the present study consisted of all educable mentally retarded aging from 16 to 18 years studying vocational Agriculture in Hamedan during 2015-2014. From this population, and based on experts' opinions, 40 individuals were randomly selected according to the criteria for inclusion, and then placed in two groups of experimental and control through simple random sampling.

In the multimedia approach, before presenting education to the multimedia group, the teacher held a briefing to teach learners how to use the software and the students were taught materials by using a computer on which an educational CD had been previously installed. Due to a limited number of computers, the students were divided into four groups.

The learning test as a pretest was performed by teachers on both groups of the educable mentally retarded students. For this purpose, the researcher in the first session before starting to teach a book on growing houseplants, performed a (self-made) pretest in every classes held for the two groups. Students were required to answer the pretest questions within 60 minutes.

Afterwards, an intervention program (multimedia education) was administered on the experimental group for two months. The researcher carried out his timetable and predetermined lesson plan over several weeks and held approximately 9 sessions for the presentation group during several consecutive weeks.

The educational software was designed similarly to the chapters of the book and included images, text, animation and music. Some features of the software on a lesson about growing houseplants include: multimedia education, step-by-step guide for answering questions, answering of questions by students and correction of answers by the software, an interesting educational environment accompanied by a variety of animated scenes, using the software without installation, and a guide on how to use the software. During this period, the control group did not receive any multimedia education. At the end of the term, the post-test was once again performed on the two groups. The post-test comprised 15 items classified from easy to difficult that totaled 20 scores.

Since the book is compiled by the Organization for Educational Research and Planning (OERP), the Ministry of Education, sample questions were given to highly-experienced teachers and education experts who confirmed their

validity. Furthermore, the test-retest method was used to evaluate the reliability of the instrument. Pre-test questions were reported with a 0.863 reliability and post-test questions with a 0.927 reliability.

First, the scores of control and experimental groups in the post-test as broken down by age and GPA were calculated from the mean and standard deviation. Following that, to determine any significant differences, the one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed using the SPSS ver. 21 software.

Results

1. Evaluation of Groups' Demographic and Clinical Characteristics

The following table number 1 shows the results of analysis of the groups' age and GPA variance. The test direction shows the equality or inequality hypothesis. According to Table 1, there is no significant difference between the two groups in terms of age and GPA [$F(1,38) = 2.87, P > 0.064$].

Table 1. One-way Anova result between age and education level

	Measure	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Age	Between Groups	02.2	1	02.2	87.2	064.0
	Within Groups	7525.	38	67.0		
GPA	Between Groups	16.90	1	90.16	87.1	103.0
	Within Groups	317.10	38	34.8		

2. Evaluation of Hypotheses through Descriptive and Inferential Tests

First Hypothesis: 'Multimedia education is effective on improving the analytical skills of university students'.

As revealed by results, the assumption of the equality of error variance [$F(1,38) = 0.148, P > 0.515$] was not significant, thus prompting the use of single-factor ANCOVA for the next step.

According to the results shown in Table 2, the collocation variable for pre-test analysis score had no significant effect on the performance of the two groups in post-test [$F(1, 37) = 3.01, P > 0.221; \eta^2 = 0.044$]. After controlling the collocation variable for pre-test analysis score, the performance of the groups in the post-test variable with high effectiveness [$F(1, 37) = 4.66, P = 0.026; \eta^2 = 0.33$] was reported as significant. (table 2)

Table 2. ANCOVA result of analytical skills score in post test

Measure	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	P	Eta squared (η^2)
Corrected Model	21.8	2	3.24	3.86	016.0	12.0
Intercept	63.42	1	20.02	**37.11	051.0	0.10
Pretest effect	06.2	1	2.06	013.	2210.	0.044
Group effect	54.3	1	6.44	*.664	026.0	0.33
Error	18.84	37	1.20			

Second Hypothesis: 'Multimedia education is effective on improving the judgment and evaluation skills of university students'.

The assumption of the equality of error variance [$F(1,38) = 1.48, P > 0.221$] was not statistically significant, thus prompting the use of single-factor ANCOVA for the next step, as shown in the following table.

The results reveal that the collocation variable for pre-test judgment and evaluation score had no significant effect on the performance of the two groups in posttest [$F(1, 37) = 0.44, P = 0.224; \text{eta-squared} = 0.014$]. After controlling the collocation variable for pre-test judgment and evaluation score, the performance of the groups in the post-test variable with high effectiveness [$F(1, 37) = 4.34, P = 0.019; \text{eta squared} = 0.33$] was reported as significant.(table3)

Table 3. ANCOVA result of judgment and evaluation skills in post test

Measure	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean square	F	P	Eta squared (η^2)
Corrected Model	89.2	2	842.	89.3	029.0	12.0
Intercept	88.16	1	90.16	**79.53	001.0	33.0
Pretest effect	26.0	1	0.29	44.0	0.224	0140.
Group effect	672.	1	2.07	**34.4	0.019	33.0
Error	11.30	37	0.43			

Third Hypothesis: 'Multimedia education is effective on improving the application of information skills of university students'.

The assumption of the equality of error variance [$F(1,38) = 1.32, P > 0.265$] was not statistically significant, thus prompting the use of single-factor ANCOVA for the next step.

Table 4 shows that the collocation variable for pre-test application of information skills score had no significant effect on the performance of the two groups in post-test [$F(1, 37) = 0.65, P > 0.213; \eta^2 = 0.040$]. After controlling the collocation variable, the performance of the groups in the post-test variable with high effectiveness [$F(1, 37) = 203.69, P < 0.001; \eta^2 = 0.95$] was reported as significant. (table 4)

Table 4. ANCOVA result of application of information skills in post test

Measure	Sum square	df	Mean square	f	P	(η^2)
Corrected Model	98.206	2	109.100	800.166	001.0	0.26
Intercept	20.326	1	126.20	**81.122	001.0	0.53
Pretest effect(75.0	1	0.75	650.	213.0	0.040
Group effect	59.213	1	213.59	**69.203	001.0	950.
Error	35.99	37	99.0			

Discussion

In general, the results of the study show that holding 9 sessions of multimedia education for educable children has an impact on their learning, since these children are faced with difficulties at higher levels of learning due to their mental limitations. The results highlight the need for paying closer attention to the learning abilities of mentally retarded children so that they can attempt problem-solving like any other thinking individuals.

While literature review did not include any research exactly similar to the present study, there are a number of research conducted on the effect of multimedia on education, learning, and academic success which are consistent with the results of the present study. Among these, one can mention Sheriff & Boon (2014), and Schery & Oconnor (1997) which directly point to the effect of multimedia on increasing learning of specific courses in various academic grades. Other studies on the topic include Oliver (1958), and Lewis, et al. (1994) which deem multimedia an appropriate tool for intellectual development.

At present, a great number of studies have been conducted on the use of effective methods and approaches in special education. This great research backing has been created with regard to the special cognitive features of the mental retardation group and has led to development of special methods and strategies that are used for facilitating the process of learning for this group.

Nowadays, considering the ever increasing advances in science and technology, there is a great need for modern methods of teaching to lead students away from rote learning toward meaningful learning. Active methods of teaching

are those that stimulate students' mental activities related to their general needs. In such methods, besides providing various conditions, one must attempt to educate students through encouragement and stimulation. The need for using multimedia in education becomes more inevitable when one considers the fact that their application leads to the improvement of quality of education and an enhanced efficiency. It also creates new opportunities for education to bring it ever closer to its objectives, which are promotion of learning and deepening of knowledge.

Cosma study (2005, quoted by Mikre, 2011) shows that multimedia technology can positively impact learning in various ways: it improves students' grades, broadens both learners and teachers' view of technology, and enhances innovation in schools.

Teachers can guide learners in the direction of higher levels of thinking only when they encourage students to process data analytically, innovatively and practically. In order to develop analytical thinking skills, teachers should ask learners to make judgments on what they are taught, compare and contrast materials, as well as critique and evaluate contents. They need to find the links between currently learned materials with previous contents in order to develop and structuralize a new collection of knowledge in their memories. If students are encouraged to do innovative and creative intellectual activities, they can easily hypothesize, guess and fantasize about topics and contents on their own and explore and discover things themselves. The solemn responsibility of teachers is to train learner's brains for higher levels of thinking. Thus, the necessity of evaluating educational materials and contents for these students becomes inevitable.

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HOMework SHOULD BE MODERATE

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Abstract

Young people begin their working life, usually having a secondary education. There are elite schools (lyceums, gymnasiums). Nowadays education is a sphere of entrepreneurial activity, like commerce is. But the commercialization of the school is not always followed by a high study quality. Perhaps it is time for the education system to abandon extra-curricular activities for schoolchildren? It happens that with the increase of the amount of homework, a child begins to fear the school. This causes alarm. Homework begins to take all the evenings and weekends, depriving the pupil of his free time, and this, in its turn, affects the child. A child who is just starting school, deserves a chance to develop love toward to study. Instead, homework sets up against school and science in general. Children face with a huge load, perceive the school as 12 years of "hard labor", and this causes a strong hatred of learning. Parents pressure and persuade them. Weary children protest and shout. Instead of supporting each other at the end of a hard day, too many are involved in this cycle. As a result, children get lack of sleep, nervousness and fatigue.

Keywords: homework, overloading

Introduction

How too much homework may negatively influence a child? Schoolchildren cannot be just children - they are immersed in permanent studies. As many studies are just senseless and useless work, learning often becomes a routine and not a positive constructive experience. Overloading by homework also influences family relationships. Many children cannot even distract to have supper and therefore the only conversation with the parents is limited to the discussion of school assignments and grades.

What are the signs that a child is overloaded? If a child starts hating school, gets ready for school reluctantly and is hysterical about doing homework at night – this is a red flag. Do not dedicate too much time to homework even if the

child does not manage to do the entire homework. The point is that the child will better understand the concept if he/she has time to gain insight into 5 tasks rather than crazily chasing for 50 tasks. There is another problem as well: while doing homework, many children need elders' help. But as they receive the help, they become accustomed to relying on their parents who act as a 'patrol policeman'. In addition to permanent conflict and grumbling, this compromises one of the main objectives of homework - responsibility (Konjukhova, 2015).

Nobody used to complain during the Soviet period. But the present-time schoolchild is very different from the schoolchild of that period. It is not argued that there is more information in the present period, many things have changed, developed in the world. This is certainly the case, but to make their child a successful student the parents of the past did not have to hire private tutors or make homework together with their children. Only low-achieving students needed a private tutor. Now in order to succeed a child needs a private tutor at least in two or three subjects. Only few children make an exception. And why should students of private schools need a private tutor???

Please pay attention – some parents, students and even teachers consider that after 7-8 hours of studies it is not correct to assign homework for children to study for 2-3 more hours. The first reason for not assigning too much homework to children is that children need time to 'reload', rest from the study process. Tension and unfinished work may negatively influence the mental health of the child.

A large volume of homework may result in copying from other children to finish the homework quickly because without homework the child will be punished in the form of a bad grade, ban from parents and reprimand. Copied homework may be overlooked by the teacher and assessed by a good grade which will unfavorably influence children's studies.

Moreover, most of teachers either do not check the performed homework or do not dedicate enough time to check it thoroughly, because teachers have tasks to prepare for the lesson, to develop additional material and over the time, the class moves to the new topic and new homework.

It appears that it is better to perform assignments under the supervision of the teacher (because not every parent can explain the tasks correctly), or it should be done in a way to make homework interesting and useful to do. How is it possible, for example, to make history classes complement literature classes, and physics classes to complement math classes? Integrated lessons may also be used.

The following requirements to homework are defined in the modern standards:

- The volume of homework should not exceed 50% of the volume of the class load.
- The volume of homework in all subjects in aggregate is assigned to the students considering the capability of performance within the following limits:

For example, the Finns decided to give children more time to rest. Can we use their experience in our country? What do our parents and teachers think about it?

Any of us have dreamt about cancellation of homework while we were kids. Serious discussions about it have started in Europe. Parents of primary school pupils do not want to see their children sitting with textbooks in the evening any more.

So, do pupils need homework?

Professor Gerald LeTendre, the Head of Education Policy Studies Department at Pennsylvania State University tried to answer this question. According to the data of TIMSS (2011) in all 59 countries participating in the survey in 2007, homework is assigned to schoolchildren. At the same time, in countries like Kuwait, Morocco and Algeria, 20% of 4th grade pupils admitted that they have to dedicate more than 4 hours per day to doing their homework, while in Japan only 3% of schoolchildren perform such large amount of homework.

In the countries with the maximum TIMSS ratings: Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan, homework load for schoolchildren appeared to be less than average nationwide. In the Netherlands which rated among top-10 in math, 20% of 4th grade pupils declared that they mostly are not assigned any homework (Khmel'nitskaya, 2013).

As a whole, about 10% of junior schoolchildren all over the world are overloaded with homework, i.e. they spend several hours a day doing their homework. LeTendre (see in Stevenson, 2009) considers it to be a red flag. Empirical studies have shown that excessive volumes of homework are directly associated with sleep disorders, increased level of stress and deterioration of health. 'Excessive' may be a differentiated amount of homework at various ages - for example, even 30 minutes a day may lead to gaining extra weight among junior schoolchildren. According to LeTendre, it is worth considering what features of education system make the schools load schoolchildren with excessive volume of homework – perhaps, the load is the indicator of the system inefficiency.

Often, homework is the simplest solution for teachers: they must fulfill the mandatory curriculum requirements without having any power over this curriculum and time for planning and homework becomes a method of building up what was not done at the class. But the fact that junior schoolchildren all over the world have to deal with voluminous homework may influence their academic achievements in the long run.

Conclusion

TIMSS databases were used as the main sources of information for the researchers. TIMSS ratings assessing knowledge of separate subjects and level of education in general appear once in every five years and allow to destroy a number of myths. For example, there are the highest worldwide indicators in math in Asian countries like Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan, however, the volume of homework there is less than average in the world. In the Netherlands every fifth 4th grade pupil does to make homework at all, but this did not prevent the Dutch schoolchildren from rating among top-10 in knowledge of math.

But homework must exist – reading, writing, learning by heart (to reinforce knowledge). And it is important to know why. Homework must be simplified and facilitated but must not be totally cancelled: the learnt material needs to be reinforced and the pupil must be taught to work at home because homework is a schoolchild's independent work. A person may be explained how to ride a bicycle for years but there will be a zero result. Until the person gets on the bicycle, falls from the bicycle several times and raises bumps, all explanations will be useless! Homework provides that experience. But of course, it should not be just bumps, so homework has to be reasonable and doable.

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PICTURE EXHIBITION, SHORT MOVIE FESTIVAL, AND CONCERT AS FORMS OF AUTHENTIC TASKS FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING TO ARTS STUDENTS

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Abstract

Nowadays authentic tasks are viewed as effective activities and assessment tasks. From this point of view art students will simultaneously develop their professional and English skills, if they participate in picture exhibitions, short movie festivals, and concerts, on condition that they are held in English. This may be a simulation of real events or real events. If they apply electronic technologies, they can organize international online exhibitions, make short movies with their mobile phones, and hold concerts with international participants. Role play may be employed: jury members' discussions, visitors, interviews held by journalists, etc. Real events would be especially exciting, but they require administration and majors teachers' involvement, while simulations do not necessarily require a high quality of students' works (the emphasis is on the program and 'advertisement' of the event, on its critical analysis, etc.).

Keywords: authentic tasks, foreign language teaching, teaching English to arts students, motivation, involvement

Introduction

One of the most important features of contemporary communicative language teaching is authenticity. Michael Breen (1985) classified authenticity in Second / Foreign Language Teaching (SLT, FLT) as:

- Authenticity of text
- Authenticity of learners' interpretation of such text
- Authenticity of tasks conducive to language learning
- Authenticity of the actual social situation of the language classroom

The paper will deal with the authenticity of tasks for foreign language students and authenticity of social situation of the language classroom for students majoring in arts. Undergraduate students are normally motivated to study the target language and to be involved in the classroom activities, if they feel that the activities are useful for their future professional applications (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). Chalak & Kassaian (2010) study, for instance, involved 108 students majoring in English translation at an Iranian university. The students' instrumental motivation (the desire to learn the

language for professional purposes) was shown to be positive. Tahaineh & Daana (2013) study with 184 students majoring English language and literature in a university in Jordan yielded analogous results. As picture exhibition, movie festival, and concert are typical professional activities of artists, naturally, these activities should cause arts students' instrumental motivation.

Schoepp (2001) mentions several reasons for using authentic activities (such as, for example, singing) in foreign language classes:

- Affective reasons – they reduce language anxiety and increase motivation;
- Cognitive reasons – practicing the communicative skills;
- Linguistic reasons – using authentic texts, enriching the vocabulary, memorizing structures of the target language, and improving pronunciation.

Picture exhibition

Backer (2001) suggests visiting real as well as virtual exhibitions for FLT. After a visit to a real exhibition, students may share experiences, write critical reviews, while the virtual visit may be simultaneously accompanied by discussions. The technology that he used permitted the 'guest' of the program to connect with people using the same software worldwide, which opens the walls of classrooms and makes communication really motivating. Li (2009) involved in her study 130 8th grade students of a public six-year high school in northern Taiwan. The students were offered to look at pictures / paintings as a pre-listening activity and then to listen to comments to the pictures / paintings, defining which picture / painting the comment dealt with. The approach both increased students' motivation and improved their listening skills.

Students' short movie festival

With video technologies becoming so user-friendly and available, students in groups can easily make documentaries about their university, faculty and events in their city. They can film some episodes from fiction books. In this case the students going to be film directors in real life will practice the adequate skills, while future script-writers may adapt the literary texts for their purposes or write their own scripts and future actors will act. The preparation of activity is time-consuming, so one such project during a year is enough (Shrosbree, 2008). However, if the emphasis is on the quality of English involved and not on cinematographic quality of the 'movies', the activity can be practiced more or less often. The event may even turn into international one, if teacher and/or students find an arts faculty abroad ready to participate.

Student concert

Contemporary or classical (vocal) music concerts or competitions, live or recorded, can be held for future musicians and actors, with further discussions. Role play may be employed: jury members' discussions, visitors, interviews held by

journalists, etc. This will increase students' motivation and involvement in classes, it will develop their pronunciation (performing), listening and and speaking (role play, discussion) skills. Preparation for a concert is also time-consuming, so the concert itself may be held at the end of semester, however, during the semester, students may individually, in pairs or in small groups read the song texts, study the involved vocabulary and grammar, work on pronunciation and discuss the songs (their ideas, moods), to provide better performance (Lems, 1996).

Conclusion

Authentic tasks, such as picture exhibition, short movie festival, and concert are efficient for teaching English for Arts undergraduate students. They are motivating, they permit to merge learning English (which may not always be interesting for the student) with professional practice; they are also engaging and emotional, thus their application can be very much recommended.

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DILEMMA-BASED LEARNING

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Abstract

Rapid changes in technology and fast communication caused great changes in the field of education. It requires relevant knowledge and special skills. Student-oriented learning, which takes its origin from a long time ago is becoming more and more necessary and active today. The paper deals with Dilemma-Based Learning (DBL), which is one of the most important approaches of student-oriented learning. This approach gives an opportunity to the instructor to teach the language in a communicative way. In case of dilemma there is not one right answer. This makes the activity more interesting. Using this approach requires logical reasoning, critical thinking and taking decisions. It also discusses the processes of dilemma-based learning (giving a dilemma, students working on the dilemma in groups, sets of questions given to students, discussion of the decisions first in groups, then with the whole class and choosing the best solution).

Keywords: dilemma, decision, agreement, approach, critical thinking.

Introduction

Rapid changes in technology and also fast communication caused great changes in education. It requires to get corresponding knowledge and develop different skills. Student-centered learning, which originates from a long time ago, is becoming more important today. Dilemma-based learning is one of the most successful approaches of student-centered learning. It is mostly used in learning humanitarian subjects, among them, English. Today English is one of the main means to achieve goals and make a carrier. Knowing English means a good chance to get a highly paid job.

What is a Dilemma?

Dilemma based learning gives an opportunity to the teacher to teach the language effectively and get good results. But the question is what a dilemma is. In the *Explanatory Dictionary of Foreign Words* there is the following definition: Dilemma is a Greek word which means logical reasoning or conclusion containing two mutually exclusive provisions, one of which the speaker / writer has to choose. Almost the same definitions are given in the Cambridge Dictionary. Dilemma 1. A situation which makes problems, often one in which you have to make a very difficult choice between things of equal importance. 2. A situation in which a difficult choice has to be made between two or more alternatives, especially ones that are equally undesirable. Dilemma somehow looks like a problem but in case of dilemma, there is not one correct answer. And to my mind it makes this approach more interesting.

Dilemma-based learning (DBL) requires logical reasoning, critical thinking, taking conclusions, and choosing one out of two mutually contradictory statements. Dilemma can be based on everyday life or an event taken from history. DBL can be used with all age and ability groups. It can take the whole lesson or be a part of a lesson. It depends on the dilemma.

Learning is not only a process of getting information. It is not the teacher's most important task, either. The aim of the teacher is to lead students to the condition of making decisions independently. A good teacher can make his students think. In this connection dilemma-based learning gives an opportunity to the student to think, discuss and take a decision individually or in group. It is not an easy process. It requires a lot of work from a teacher and a willingness to learn from a student.

Dilemma-based learning steps

Dilemma-based learning has several steps. Different authors suggest different steps. But all of them agree on one step: to introduce dilemma, discuss and make a solution. Very interesting is Roxana G. Reichman's (2017) point of view about it. She speaks about six steps.

Step 1. The instructor introduces students a dilemma.

Step 2. Dr. Edward de Bono's (1999) *Six Thinking Hats*. He considers that in this case each team has the skills and techniques they need to make the best decision. These 'six thinking hats' are:

- **The White Hat** – 'The facts, just the facts'. The White Hat calls for information known or needed.
- **The Red Hat** – 'Emotions'. The Red Hat signifies feelings, hunches and intuition.
- **The Black Hat** – 'Judgment' -- The devil's advocate or why something may not work.
- **The Yellow Hat** – 'Advantages'. The Yellow Hat symbolizes brightness and optimism.

- **The Green Hat** – ‘Creativity’. It deals with the possibilities, alternatives and new ideas.
- **The Blue Hat** T- ‘Thinking’ - It is used to manage the thinking process

Step 3. Students in groups discuss and prepare presentations.

Step 4. Students make presentations (they either present or role-play or write an essay).

Step 5. Students present their solutions.

Step 6. Evaluation (self, peer, top-down) (Reichman, 2017).

The model works well in any class. ‘Coloured hats’ motivate students, encourage them to make decisions and make corresponding arguments.

DBL Activities

Quite a different process of using DBL is described in the book - *Dilemma-Based Learning in the Humanities: Integrating Social, Emotional and Thinking Skills* by Phil Wood (2007). The author suggests different activities.

- **A few minutes** of guided visualisation, a stilling activity with background music on, an uninterrupted silent reading.
- **Whole class introduction** of the dilemma. Key points in relation to the dilemma are suggested by the students and written on the whiteboard, possibly in a form of a mind map.
- **Small group activity.** The class then divides up into small groups (4 to 7 students in each group). They decide upon the wisest possible solution to the dilemma using Webs of meaning to structure their thinking.
- **A time keeper** - to notice the group interactions and to feedback on group processes during the sessions.
- **A group facilitator** - to keep the track of how the group is working together and ensure that the group is seeking the best possible solution.
- **The observer** - to control the group interactions and to feedback on group processes.
- **A scout** - to eavesdrop on others’ group discussion and to report back on useful ideas and considerations (Wood, 2007).

The whole class is involved in the lesson. Students are free in making decisions. They have only to support their choice with arguments.

Envisaging our students’ ability we developed our own steps of using DBL. The dilemma given below has been created by us. We did it with our English class and it worked well.

Jessica's dilemma

Jessica and her husband John have three children. Sebastian who is 15, Maria who is 12 and Kristina who is 2 years old. Jessica is a famous designer, her husband is a manager of a big company. They do their best to bring up their children well, to take care of them, to give them a good education. Jessica and John are very busy. They often come home late. So they have a nurse who looks after their children.

Two weeks ago Jessica noticed that Kristina had delays in many basic skills, namely, she had difficulties to socialize with others, to communicate and to use the imagination. Jessica decided to wait a little. Time passed and there were no changes with Kristina. Jessica took her to the doctor. It appeared that Kristina had a Pervasive Developmental Disorder (PDD) - a mild form of autism.

Jessica and John were shocked when the doctor told them about Kristina's illness. It was not easy for them to accept this fact. Jessica decided to leave her job and devote her life to Kristina. But her husband told her that they had other children who also needed parents' care and attention. Furthermore, they had a bank loan.

What should Jessica do?

Step 1: Introduce dilemma: first we talk about the dilemma and brainstorm about the problems each family member may have.

Step 2: Reflection: each student individually thinks about the story and finds the personal point of view and prepares for the first decision and the first discussion, collecting key words of possible problems.

Step 3. Divide the class into small groups (of 3-4). Each group discusses the problem which they think is most important.

Step 4. First dilemma discussion: in the debate students from each group present the arguments their decision is based on.

Step 5: Reflection: after the first debate we think about all the arguments and work out a 'web of meaning' (a series of questions), which will help students gain more knowledge about autism, particularly about PDD. To know more about this disability we give each group different texts about autism or search additional material on the Internet together with students.

Step 6. Exchange information: groups exchange the information they get from us or gain on the Internet and continue their debate.

Step 7. Final decision: Students make a final decision, make a presentation and share their decisions with the class. Others are free to give questions. The class votes for the best decision.

Conclusion

Thus, DBL is a productive approach in teaching a foreign language, especially speaking. Students learn how to solve problems, take resolutions in conflict situations and think critically. To guide their discussions in a right way, they are given 'webs of meaning' that make students think in a structured way. Furthermore, during taking decisions students have to explore the issue more deeply and in this way gain more knowledge.

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THE SIGNIFICANCE OF USING CONCEPT CHECKING QUESTIONS (CCQS) IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (EFL) CLASSROOM

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Abstract

The Concept Checking Questions are a vital part of EFL lessons, as they make both teaching and learning processes more effective. This paper sheds light on the effectiveness of integrating CCQs in EFL teaching and suggests other ways of checking the meaning of the target language. "The purpose of concept questions is to check a student's understanding of the information presented in the teaching progression" (Ruiter & Dang, 2005, p.87). Presenting the target language is not enough, if it is not followed by CCQs. They are useful in order to make sure that the students have grasped the target language fully. Most EFL teachers tend to ask students 'do you understand' or 'is that clear' rather than good concept checking questions. These types of questions are not valuable in EFL classroom, as the students' comprehension may be different from what they should understand. Therefore, the goal of the paper is to raise awareness among ELT teachers concerning the significance of constructing CCQs. Besides, it discusses various ways of conveying the meaning of vocabulary items and their efficiency. There are a number of ways how the meaning of the target language could be conveyed, for instance: using realia, a cline, mime/facial expressions, from a situation/setting the context, visual aids, etc. After this presentation stage, CCQs are essential in order to achieve the lesson objectives. Furthermore, the paper illustrates how good concept questions should be formed and discusses their practical application in EFL classroom. The survey was carried out among university and high school students in Georgia. The results of the research reveal that 44.26% of the learners are asked everyday 'do you understand' instead of checking their understanding in various ways. Therefore, this result leads to the fact that 70.49% of the survey participants answer to this question is 'yes' even though they could not comprehend a new topic.

Keywords: concept questions, comprehension, techniques, efficiency, practical application

Introduction

Nowadays implementing various methods and using different ways to convey the meaning of the target language plays a crucial role in establishing effective learning and teaching environments. The type of the instruction has been shifted from traditional (teacher-centered) to learner-centered. According to Hui and Forrester (2007), student-centered type of

teaching is considered to be an important part of systematic educational reform. Hence, the learners are the major participants in the classroom and they are actively involved in the knowledge construction process. For these reasons, the teachers in EFL classroom are required to apply different approaches in order to meet contemporary students' needs and interests. The paper discusses how ELT professionals could make the language presentation stage varied and what the most efficient way is to check the learners' comprehension. Besides, it reveals the results of the survey carried out among the university and high school students in Georgia, in order to find out what those ways are that English teachers tend to use in EFL classroom.

First, it is noteworthy to mention that there are some ways of conveying the meaning of vocabulary items. The following methods could be used to present a new word to students: visual aids, flashcards, white board drawing, realia, mime, facial expressions, presenting a word from a situation / story / dialogue / sentence / examples, providing synonyms / antonyms, labelling a cline to present some adjectives, word families, definition, via a word they already know, from a text to deduce the meaning, dictionaries, etc. These are all quite well-known ways of presenting vocabulary items, but some of them are rarely used in teaching. When we are talking about these methods, it is worth pointing out that considering learning styles, students' age, preferences, level of language skills, cultural background, stage aims for the lessons and efficiency of the above-mentioned techniques need to be taken into consideration. These are the factors that support teachers to choose which technique to implement. Efficiency of the technique is the most important factor. The teachers should think which will be more efficient. For instance: when a teacher presents the word 'punch', of course, the most efficient way to convey the meaning of this word would be gestures. In addition, the presentation of an item should be followed by Concept Checking Questions (CCQs). The teachers tend to forget to use CCQs or they find them difficult to construct.

The notion of the Concept Checking Questions and the importance of constructing them:

A question arises here of how a teacher can be sure that the students have 'got it'? ELT teachers tend to ask learners: 'Do you understand?' / 'Is that clear?' / 'Does anyone not understand?' / 'When do we use the Present Simple or other tenses?' / 'Can anyone give me a sentence using the given word?' and other similar questions in order to check the students' understanding. Ruitter and Dang (2005) point out that these types of questions do not really help teachers to make sure that everyone comprehended the target language of the lesson, because the students' comprehension may be different from what they should understand and these questions are unlikely to receive a truthful answer from all the learners. The same view is shared by Workman. "They are an efficient and effective way of checking learners have understood something. They are more effective, for example, than asking learners 'do you understand?' because a) learners may think they have understood something correctly, but in reality they have not, and b) learners may be reluctant in a classroom setting to say out loud in front of their peers that they have not understood something since this may expose them to

ridicule" (Workman, 2008, p. 8) . Therefore, using concept checking questions in EFL classroom is vital, before we move to the practice stage. This paragraph clarifies the concept of CCQs and discusses the importance of it in teaching process.

Concept Checking Questions (CCQs) – according to Workman (2008), these are questions that are designed to check whether the students have understood the meaning of a piece of grammar, an item of vocabulary, or a functional expression. "The word 'concept' is used to signify essential meaning of a piece of language" (Workman, 2008, p. 8). Concept questions are particularly valuable after the presentation of an item and they could be asked at any stage during a lesson. Besides, they are quite useful after guided practice if students seem not to have grasped the target language fully as well as at the end of a lesson in order to review the taught material. "The purpose of concept questions is to check a student's understanding of the information presented in the teaching progression" (Ruiter & Y.Dang, 2005, p. 87). As stated in a British Council site (2007) concerning CCQs, when students perform poorly during guided or less guided practice, it is because of the lack of concept questions which can make clear the meaning of the target language. There are different reasons why teachers need to use them. Firstly, it is the most efficient way to check learners' comprehension. Secondly, CCQs always work well. Once you know the concept questions for the use of particular grammar or vocabulary item, they will never change, as the meaning of a piece of language does not change. There are some cases, when the meaning is different in every context; so, CCQs could be formulated in the way to show various meanings. Furthermore, CCQs are important for teachers, as they help them to develop the language awareness skills. When the teachers construct the questions, they think closely about the meaning.

How to construct good Concept Questions. For teachers, it is quite a challenging and daunting task. The most crucial element in making CCQs is to find core meanings of the target language and then to turn them into concept questions. There are several design features which need to be taken into account:

Table 1. Rules for the design and use of concept questions (Workman, 2008, p. 9)

- 1 Break down the concept of the item into a series of statements of meaning. A dictionary may be helpful if the item is a piece of vocabulary.**
- 2 Make sure the statements of meaning are expressed in simple language.**
- 3 Turn the statements into questions.**
- 4 The questions should be concise and simple.**
- 5 The language you use must be simpler than the language you are checking.**
- 6 The questions should not normally use the language you are checking.**
- 7 Sort the questions into a logical order.**
- 8 Write down the correct answers you expect the learners to give.**
- 9 The answers should be short and simple.**
- 10 If they answer incorrectly, state the correct answer and provide clarification.**

According to the above-mentioned features, concept questions should not use the language units or structures under study to check themselves. It can only be used in this way. For example: If I am hungry, do I need to eat? It is not a

good idea to ask, for example, ‘Did she use to have a long hair?’ In this case, the learners would respond ‘yes’ probably without understanding the meaning of ‘used to’. Besides, the language should be graded, so that the language in the questions is simpler than the lexical units / structures under study. They should not just focus on the form and meaning of phrasal verbs/set phrases, should not be broken up into their individual components. In addition, the concept questions should cover all areas of concept and potential confusion and should be limited in number. Teachers should not concept check everything. They need to be selective and check only problematic areas. When formulating concept questions, the first step is to decide exactly what the language under study means and what it does not mean. Once you are clear about it, then break down the meaning of the target language into several statements, so work out the concept questions from your definition. For instance, You do not have to wear a tie. The meaning of this target language is the following: a) it is not obligatory; b) nobody told you to do it; c) it is not necessary, but you can do it. Then, you need to turn them into the questions: a) Is it necessary to wear a tie? (No); b) Can you wear a tie if you want to? (Yes); c) Can you decide to wear it or not? (Yes).

Target sentence: **If I won in the lottery, I would buy a new car**

Table 2. The concept questions (British Council, 2007)

Checking questions	
Have I won in the lottery?	No
Am I going to win in the lottery?	Probably not
Am I going to buy a new car?	Probably not
Has he got a lottery ticket?	Maybe
Is this real, or imaginary?	Imaginary

The concept questions could be yes/no type as well as 50/50 chance questions or discrimination questions. For instance: Is it big or small? or Can you use it only for cooking? , etc. The responses to the concept questions depend on their types. So, they are not always yes/no answers. Here are some more examples:

‘My friend bought an alarm clock’. Concept questions could be: Where do you put it? (By your bed) ;Why do you use it? (To wake you up); what noise does it make? (Beep beep beep).

‘I am sorry, I am late, he mumbled’. Did he speak loudly or quietly? (Quietly); did he speak clearly? (No) ; Is mumbling a positive thing or negative thing? (Negative).

'He had his car repaired' – Did he fix the car himself? (No); Did John or a mechanic repair his car? (a mechanic); Did John give him money? (Yes); Did John ask a mechanic to fix his car? (Yes).

Therefore, while you are constructing the concept questions, you need to cover all possible meanings of the target statement, in order to avoid confusion. For example, if you are introducing the Present Perfect tense: "Bob has worked at the factory for 5 years. This sentence means: a) Bob started working at the factory 5 years ago; b) Bob still works at the factory. The concept questions– a) when did Bob work there? ; b) Does Bob work in the factory now?" (Ruiter & Y.Dang, 2005, p. 88).

Furthermore, it is worth considering that the concept questions should be asked after you present the target language and they should not be too many, depending on the meaning of the item that has to be checked. They might be used to remind students the concept of a particular target language. If the learners make a mistake, you can apply the concept questions in order to help them to correct their wrong sentences. So, formulating these types of questions is not really easy and requires careful attention to the various meanings in order to work out effective concept questions, which are simple and precise.

Other ways of checking meaning:

The concept checking questions are often used in combination with other methods in order to check the learners' comprehension. These methods involve, timelines. "Timelines are simple diagrams that can help some learners to see relationships between verb forms and their time reference" (Thornbury & Watkins, 2007, p. 30). They also involve personalization (Do you have carnivals in your country?), eliciting examples/situation (What/who can be inspiring?; When would you feel ashamed?), differentiation (How is 'exploit' different from 'explode'?), visual aids/drawing, and realia. As Harmer (2007) states, using real objects support students to grasp the meaning better and it also helps to check the meaning in an efficient way. Mime/facial expressions/gestures are also useful. "We can use gestures to indicate the meaning of the words as well as to suggest the concepts such as past time or future time" (Harmer, 2007, p. 116). Teachers can also use labelling a cline (to show grades or scales - hot, warm, cold), negative checking (Can I say I 'were'?), and Total Physical Response (TPR). "Gestures and demonstrations quickly help learners to understand the meaning, and learners then do what they are asked to" (Scrivener, 2011, p. 182), so, instead of asking questions, you can formulate them in a way to make students perform an activity. Teachers may apply discrimination (to check function and register , do I say 'hey!' to my boss?) and many other techniques.

The survey results:

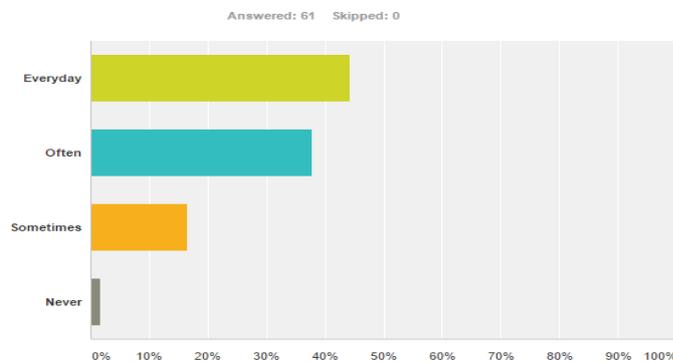
The survey was carried out among several universities' and high schools' students in Georgia. The participants of the research consisted of 61 English Language learners. The main objective of this small research was to find out whether

English teachers use CCQs in an EFL classroom and what techniques they apply to convey the meaning of the target language.

Statistical results of the research are presented through the following charts. They reveal the number of each answer chosen by the respondents in percentages.

Questions 1: How often does your English teacher ask you the following questions: 'Do you understand?' 'Is that clear?'

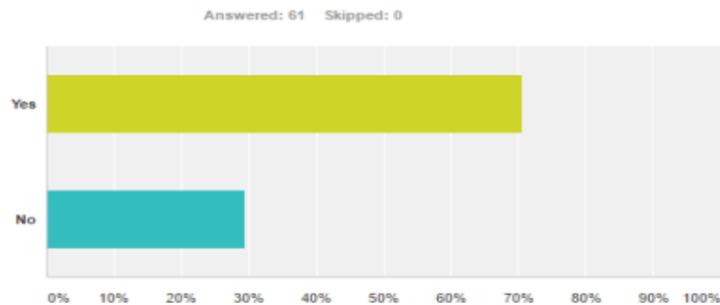
Figure 1. The frequency of using the given questions



According to 44.26% of the responders, their English teachers ask above mentioned questions every day, while 37.70% responded that these types of questions are often used in the classroom. Only 16.39% participants indicated that their teachers' sometimes ask these questions. The number of the participants who have never heard these questions from their English teachers is very little and it is just 1.64%. According to this result, it can be clearly seen that English teachers in Georgia tend to ask 'do you understand?' or 'is that clear?' to learners frequently.

Question 2: Do you often answer these questions- (do you understand?/is that clear?) positively (you answer yes) even though you could not understand something?

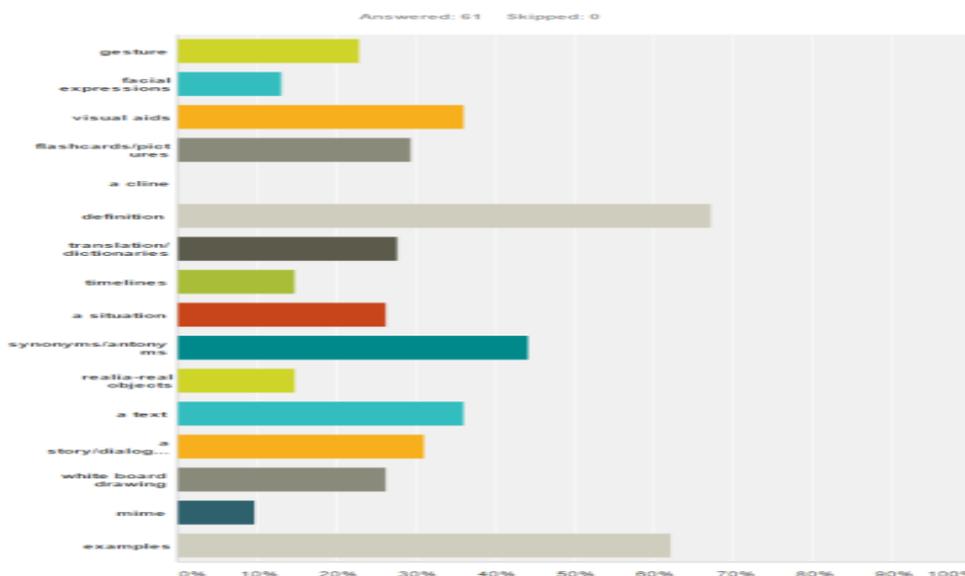
Figure 2. The learners' responses



The majority 70.49% of the respondents, answer positively to these questions- "Do you understand?/is that clear?", but in fact they do not understand the new topic. Therefore, their response to these questions is not reliable, because in most cases, they lie because of various reasons which were discussed in the previous paragraph. Merely, 29.51 % of the participants do not answer to these questions positively. They only say 'yes' when they really comprehend the topic. Anyway, as this result shows, the learners understanding could be different from what they say and these kinds of questions really do not check their comprehension.

Question 3: When a teacher presents new vocabulary or new grammar, which ways she/he uses to convey the meaning?

Figure 3. The methods used by English teachers to convey to meaning

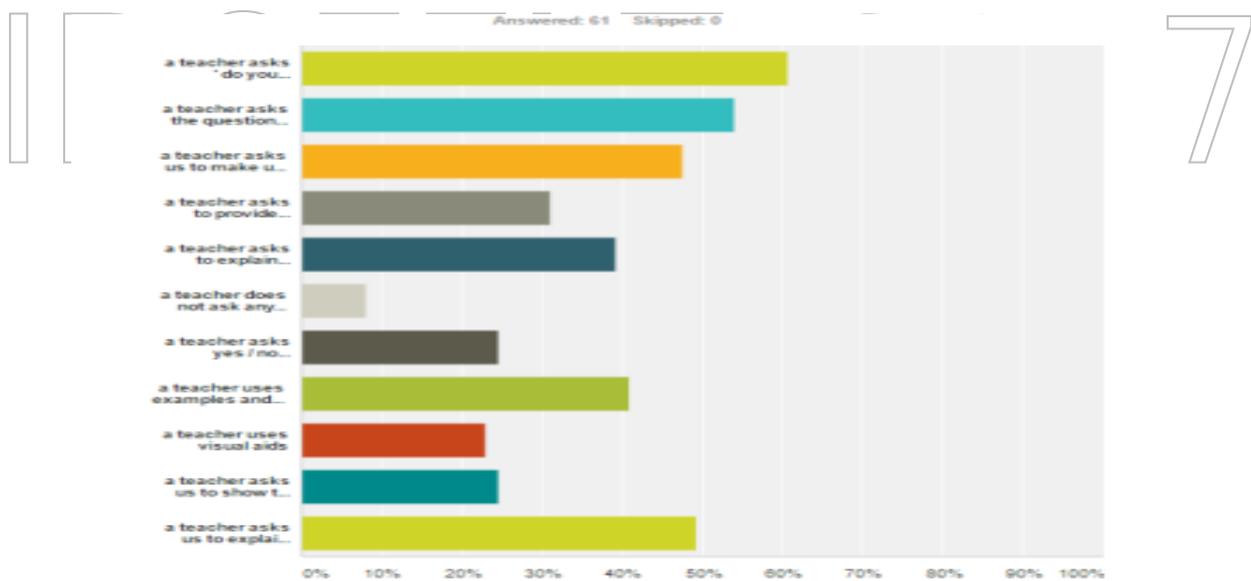


Various techniques are used by English teachers to convey the meaning of the target language. The most common technique is proving definition, as 67.21% of the respondents stated. This is followed by using examples to present the

meaning, 62.30%. Providing synonyms/antonyms is also one of the popular ways of presenting a new vocabulary item or grammar, 44.26%. The meaning of the target language is also presented through visual aids and texts 36.07%. A story/dialogue/sentence is quite a common technique as well - 31.15%. Flashcards/pictures come next with 29.51%. As 27.87% of the participants answered, translation/dictionaries are also applied by the teachers. A situation and white board drawing are not often used, 26.23%. Using gesture is not a very popular technique, either - 22.95%. Only 14.75% of the respondents indicated that realia and timelines are used by their teachers. Facial expressions were nabbed only by 13.11%. Mime is not often applied by English teachers to convey to meaning - 9.84%. A cline is not used - 0%. Based on these result, it could be said that using definitions, translations and synonyms/antonyms are the preferred ways of presenting the target language. The teachers in Georgia do not often implement a situation, gestures, flashcards, realia and so on, in order to convey the meaning.

Question 4: Which techniques do your teachers use to check that you have understood a new topic? (you can choose more than ONE)

Figure 4. The techniques used by English teachers to check students' comprehension



Asking students 'do you understand' is the most popular way of checking their comprehension, as 60.66% of the survey participants responded. 54.10% of the respondents said that after an explanation, their English teachers ask the questions about a new topic in order to check if they have understood the topic. 49.18% mentioned that their teachers ask them to explain when they use a particular grammar or vocabulary. According to 47.54% of the respondents, a teacher asks them to make up the sentences using new words or new grammar, while 40.98% said that their teachers use examples and ask if they are true or false. A teacher asks to explain what the difference between two grammar tenses or words is, whereas the teacher asks to provide definitions, as stated by 39.34% and 31.15%. Their teachers ask them to show the meaning of the words and also they ask yes / no questions, 24.59%. Only 22.95% of the participants said that their teachers

use visual aids to check the students' understanding. Just a few number of the respondents stated that their teachers do not ask any questions after explaining a new topic - 8.20%. At the first glance, it can be seen that English teachers in Georgia are not aware of the importance of using the concept checking questions. They usually apply other techniques, which are not so effective and do not really help teachers to check learners' comprehension.

Conclusion

It is crucial to understand the value of the concept checking questions in EFL classroom. These questions do play an important role in the teaching process, as they aid teachers to check the learners' comprehension. CCQs are considered to be an efficient way of checking what students have understood. Besides, teachers should try to make their teaching process more effective through implementing various techniques to convey the meaning of the target language. These could be gestures, mime, cline, realia, flashcards and so on. Teachers should choose the way of presenting the target language according to the efficiency of different techniques. As the results of the survey reveal, English teachers in Georgian universities and schools use some other techniques to check the students' understanding, rather than constructing CCQs, which show a clear picture of the learners' comprehension. The majority of teachers tend to ask 'Do you understand' / 'Is that clear?' which leads to the fact that the most students' - 70.49% - answer is positively, even though they could not comprehend the topic. Consequently, it is essential to raise the awareness among English teachers on the effectiveness of using concept questions. The teachers are often satisfied that the learners seem to understand and they forget to ask concept questions after presenting the target language. Considering the features of concept questions, which were discussed above, will hopefully help teachers to construct good CCQs. Hence, CCQs are useful after the presentation stage in order to make sure that all students have grasped the meaning fully.

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LANGUAGING IN GRAMMAR EXERCISES BY IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS OF DIFFERING PROFICIENCY

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Abstract

'Languaging' is a kind of verbalization that is mostly used to facilitate cognitively demanding activities while producing and comprehending language is a main source of L2 learning (Swain, 2006). The purpose of the present study was to examine the effects of two types of languaging, namely private speech and collaborative dialogs on the comprehension and production grammar exercises by Iranian EFL learners with high and low elementary level language proficiency. To fulfill this purpose, 38 female students in one of the classes of first grade of high school participated in this study; the students' language proficiency level was confirmed by administering a Quick Placement Test. Based on their scores, they were divided into high and low elementary levels. After being taught the grammar material (passive form), participants were asked to do production and comprehension grammar exercises by using private talk and collaborative dialogs. They were also asked to specify exactly which items were answered by consulting with other classmates, or were answered privately. The results of running one-way ANOVA showed that both language proficiency and types of grammar exercise (production and comprehension) have effects on using the type of languaging. In other words, the lower level learners used collaborative dialogs more than private speech. Moreover, the participants with high elementary proficiency level mostly used private speech for doing grammar exercise.

Keywords: Languaging, private speech, collaborative dialog, metatalk

1. Introduction

English is a global language. Grammar, being a mechanism of language, plays a vital role in the English language. The main objective of learning language is to develop the ability to communicate efficiently in the language. The concept of languaging has been proposed by Swain (2006). Languaging that second language learners took apart in while producing and comprehending language is the main source of second language learning. (Swain, 2006) This study involves learners'

language by considering their aim language while doing either comprehension - production grammar exercises. To study this, we will investigate the type and amount of language as revealed in the written reports of Iranian EFL learners who do the grammar exercises. This study tries to use the written data to obtain a different perspective about the role of language in second language learning. Compared to the research on oral types of language, there are fewer experimental studies focusing on the role of the written types of language (e.g., diaries, metalinguistic journals, private writing) in second language learning. (e.g., DiCamilla & Lantolf, 1994; Roebuck, 2000; Simard, 2004; Simard et al., 2007; Suzuki, 2008).

We learn grammar to have a fluent conversation. Separate grammar exercises are believed to help learners improve their interlanguage knowledge and skills. In this research, we used Language as a teaching tool which helps teachers provide an environment for learners to overcome their fear and problems of learning grammar. This study investigates the roles of language in solving distinct grammar exercises, because only a few studies have discovered this area (Garcia Mayo, 2002; Suzuki & Itagaki, 2007). It tries to study the connections between the types of language, grammar exercises, and learners with the level of second language proficiency.

Language, during and after comprehension and production, is one of the ways that second language learning happens (Swain, 2006). According to Merrill Swain, the term "language" denotes the process of making meaning and forming knowledge and experience through language. The finding of this study can be beneficial for teachers in choosing grammar exercises, and determine what kind of Language they want L2 learners to undertake. The result of this study is beneficial for all of the educational centers.

Based on what is mentioned, following research questions and their associated hypotheses are proposed:

- Q1.** Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech and collaborative dialog on grammatical performance of Iranian EFL learners with low level of proficiency?
- Q2.** Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech and collaborative dialog on grammatical performance of Iranian EFL learners with high level of proficiency?
- Q3.** Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech on Iranian EFL learners with high and low level of proficiency in terms of grammatical performance?
- Q4.** Is there any significant difference between the effect of collaborative dialog on Iranian EFL learners with high and low level of proficiency in terms of grammatical performance?
- Q5.** Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech on comprehension and production grammar exercises in low level of proficiency?
- Q6.** Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech on comprehension and production grammar exercises in high level of proficiency?

- Q7.** Is there any significant difference between the effect of collaborative dialog on comprehension and production grammar exercises in low level of proficiency?
- Q8.** Is there any significant difference between the effect of collaborative dialog on comprehension and production grammar exercises in high level of proficiency?
- H1.** There is no significant difference between the effect of private speech and collaborative dialog on grammatical performance of Iranian EFL learners with low level of language proficiency.
- H2.** There is no significant difference between the effect of private speech and collaborative dialog on grammatical performance of Iranian EFL learners with high level of proficiency.
- H3.** There is no significant difference between the effect of collaborative dialog on Iranian EFL learners with high and low level of proficiency in terms of grammatical performance.
- H4.** There is no significant difference between the effect of collaborative dialog on Iranian EFL learners with high and low level of proficiency in terms of grammatical performance.
- H5.** There is no significant difference between the effect of private speech on comprehension and production grammar exercises in low level of proficiency.
- H6.** There is no significant difference between the effect of private speech on comprehension and production grammar exercises in high level of proficiency.
- H7.** There is no significant difference between the effect of collaborative dialog on comprehension and production grammar exercises in low level of proficiency.
- H8.** There is no significant difference between the effect of collaborative dialog on comprehension and production grammar exercises in high level of proficiency.

2. Review of literature

Many studies in languaging have been conducted within an SCT framework (e.g., Gánem-Gutiérrez & Harun, 2011; Negueruela, 2003; Swain, 2007; Swain et al, 2009) and there are various approaches to observing the process of L2 development from a sociocultural perspective. Researchers have come up with a number of novel approaches to analyzing languaging that seek to identify occasions where learning is potentially taking place and/or explain how learners solve linguistic problems in an L2. One such unit of analysis, the language-related episode (LRE), was developed by Swain and Lapkin (1998) and is defined as the parts of dialogue where learners “talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or correct themselves or others” (p. 326). This unit of analysis identifies what Samuda and Rounds (1993) labelled ‘critical episodes’, and LREs built on this idea by providing a practical framework by

which researchers could systematically categorise moments in learner language where they address problematic or recently learnt features of the L2. LREs also tended to focus on language produced in the L2. In more recent studies Swain and her colleagues have further developed LREs as a unit of analysis, calling the evolved product the 'linguaging unit' (LU) and employing it to categorise instances of 'linguaging' in learner dialogue in both the L1 and L2.

The term "linguaging", was developed by Swain (2006) and was seen as a way of differentiating the process described by linguaging from 'output'. Swain explains that the word 'output' evokes "an image of language as a conveyor of a fixed message (what exists as thought)" (2006, p. 95) and does not sufficiently address the important role of producing language in L2 learning. Swain finished her explanation of the role of linguaging with the affirmation that "linguaging about language is one of the ways we learn a second language to an advanced level" (2006, p. 96).

While the term linguaging is relatively new, research in the use of language as a tool to mediate thinking, also referred to as "self-explanation", has been the subject of scrutiny for the past two decades in fields other than SLA. This includes research in the fields of physics, biology, computer programming and mathematics (e.g., Chi et al., 1989; Pirolli & Bielaczyc, 1989; Pirolli & Recker, 1994; Bielaczyc, Pirolli & Brown, 1995). Swain's (2007) review of the empirical research on the correlation between linguaging and learning in her fields paid particular attention to the findings of research in biology (Chi et al, 1989) that involved participants learning the human circulatory system. These studies were conducted in the first language (L1) and found that participants that self-explained aloud the information that they were given demonstrated a deeper understanding of the material than those in the control group, who read the information silently to themselves twice. It was also found that participants that provided more explanations, labelled 'high-explainers', learned with greater understanding than 'low-explainers', participants that provided relatively fewer explanations (Chi et al, 1994). The quantity of linguaging produced by participants was not the only relevant variable, however, as the researchers found that the self-explanations of successful learners were not only more frequent but also qualitatively different to those produced by their less successful peers. A qualitative analysis of learner self-explanations revealed several different types of explanation (Chi et al, 1989). These were: making inferences, monitoring comprehension, justifying actions and establishing connections between new and prior knowledge. With regard to the type of linguaging produced, participants were once again divided into two groups, being 'good' and 'poor' self-explainers, and one of the clear differences between good and poor self-explainers was the production of inferences.

Early studies indicated the positive impact of using language to mediate learners' writing (Negueruela, 2003; Qi & Lapkin, 2001; Swain & Lapkin, 1998) and speaking (Tocalli-Beller & Swain, 2005) but these studies did not employ the term linguaging. The term linguaging does appear, however, in Swain's and his colleague's (2009) study that aimed to investigate linguaging as a source of learning by establishing a relationship between the quantity and the type of linguaging produced by participants and their performance on immediate and delayed post-tests.

Over the last decade, through a description of the dialogue and documentation of how it was manifested in posttest performance, SLA researchers have demonstrated that linguaging in the form of collaborative dialogue mediates

L2 Learning (e. g, Borer, 2007; de la Colina and Qarcia Mayo, 2007; Leeser, 2004; Garcia Mayo, 2002; Suzuki, 2008). Languageing is a broader concept than collaborative. Dialogue as the former includes private speech, which Negueruela and Lantolf (2006, p. 86) defined as "the intentioned use of over self- directed speech to explain concepts to the self" Suzuki and Swain (n.d.) review the evidence about the roles of languageing in learning from cognitive. Psychology and sociocultural psychology. In cognitive psychology, the languageing effect, called as self- explaining Learning. (e.g., Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2000; Tocalli-Beller & Swain 2005; Watanabe and Swain, 2007).

Domains such as physics, biology, and mathematics (e.g. Chi et al, 1989) from a sociocultural psychology perspective, researchers have recently studied the roles of languageing in L2 learning (e.g. Negueruela, 2008; Negueruela and Lantolf, 2006; Lapkin et al, 2008; Swain et al., 2009). Being of particular interest to the present article, Negueruela (2008) asked participants to perform a languageing activity in which they were asked to explain to the self the grammatical concepts taught in class. Their languageing activities were done. Six times, over 16 weeks, tape – recorded by individual participants at home as a part of their homework, and later described and analyzed by the researcher. Although Negueruela found that development in the concept taught was uneven, the student did perform better at the end of the course in their production (especially written production) on the formal features associated with the target concept. By the end of the semester some participants began to understand the semantic aspects of the grammatical concepts. Swain et al. (2009) analyzed the amount and type of languageing produced by nine university students as they struggled to understand the concept of voice in French. They developed a text explaining the concept of voice in French and asked their participants to read the text and then to explain it. They categorized what their students explained into five languageing units: analysis, inference, re-readig, self- assessment, and paraphrase. They then divided their participant into high middle and low languages based upon the number of languageing units. Via pretests, posttests, and delayed posttests, Swain et al. demonstrated that by languageing, the students came to understand the concept of voice in French, and were able to transfer what they had learned to new contexts. They also demonstrated that the high languages self- assessed more than the middle and low languages, whereas the middle and low languages used – reading more frequently than the high languageers, these findings suggest that the type of languageing plays an important role in L2 Learning.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

The participants were 38 students in a class of the first grade in one of the high schools (Ommol Banin) in Tehran Province (Iran). All of them were female students with the average age of 14 to 35. They were homogenized regarding their level of language proficiency through administering a standardized test (Quick Placement Test). Therefore, the participants' level of language proficiency was determined as Elementary level since the scores were in the range of 18-29 which is dedicated to Elementary level according to this test scoring scale.

3.2 Instruments

The instruments used in the present research included the following:

3.2.1. Grammar test

A grammar test including 40 items constructed to test English passive tenses (simple present, simple past, and future). In this test, 20 items were designed in multiple-choice format and 20 items were in production format. In the production section, the students were asked to change the active sentences into passive ones.

3.2.2. Language proficiency test

Oxford quick placement test was used as a standardized language proficiency test in the present study to homogenize participants. This test includes two parts with 60 items dedicated to test learners' grammar and vocabulary knowledge through multiple-choice items and cloze passages.

3.3. Piloting

In order to ensure the validity of the grammar test, two experienced ELT teachers were asked to review the questions which resulted in removing some of the items and changing the vocabulary choice of the others. Then, this test was administered in a group of 20 students with characteristics similar to the real participants. Ruuning Kr-20 formula showed that the reliability of the test was 0.91 which is above the accepted level. Moreover, in order to check the reliability of the Language Proficiency Test within the Iranian context, it was piloted to and the results showed 0.94 value.

3.4. Procedure

In order to collect the data in this study, first, the language proficiency test was administered in the first session. Then, after homogenizing the students at Elementary level, they were divided into two groups of high and low proficiency level. Since, based on the scoring scales of this test, the band score of 18-29 is dedicated to the Elementary level, the score 24 was considered as the mid point and the participants who gained the scores below it were considered as Low Elementary and those who gained the scores above it were considered as High Elementary. In the second session, before performing the exercises, the teacher taught the passive structures in teacher fronted (traditional) way and in student's mother tongue. In the third session, the participants were asked to write the answers to the questions of the grammar precisely. It was explained for them that they could consult with their classmates to do the exercises. In other words, they had to write how they answered two types of grammar exercises: comprehension-oriented and production-oriented, while they

could use languaging. Before that, it was explained that they could consult with their friends or concentrate on the items themselves. The first was considered as collaborative speech and the second one was private speech. The students were also asked to write which types of languaging they had used while answering the questions. The time limitation was 80 minutes but they were given extra time to complete all items using languaging.

3.5. Data Analysis

In the analysis of languaging, we concentrated on the participants' written introspective reports that how they achieve to the answers. The answers were coded; code 1 was used for private speech; code 2 was used for collaborative dialogue. Percentages of correct answers (correctly chosen or answered) for two participant groups, high-level proficiency group and low-level proficiency group were calculated. In the present study descriptive statistics like mean, standard deviation were obtained. The research questions were answered by using some one-way ANOVA, since the languaging as the variable of this study had two levels.

4. Results

4.1. Introduction

In order to accomplish the purpose of this study, a series of statistical analysis including both descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted. This chapter presents the data analysis conducted in a chronological order using SPSS software followed by discussion of the findings.

4.2. Answers to the Research Questions

4.2.1. Answer to the First Research Question.

The first research question in this study was: Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech and collaborative dialog on grammatical performance of Iranian EFL learners with low level of proficiency? For answering this question the ANOVA test was run on the scores obtained from the grammar test. The results are shown in the table 4.1.

Table 4.1

The ANOVA Test for the Private Speech and Collaborative Dialog of Students in LOW Group

Variables	Degree of freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between collaborative dialog &private speech	1	998.959	54.025	.000
Error	27	18.491		
Total	28	53.51		

P<0.01 was considered as significant differences between treatments.

According to the table of one way ANOVA, there is a significant difference among answering to the questions in private speech and collaborative dialog ($P<0.01$).

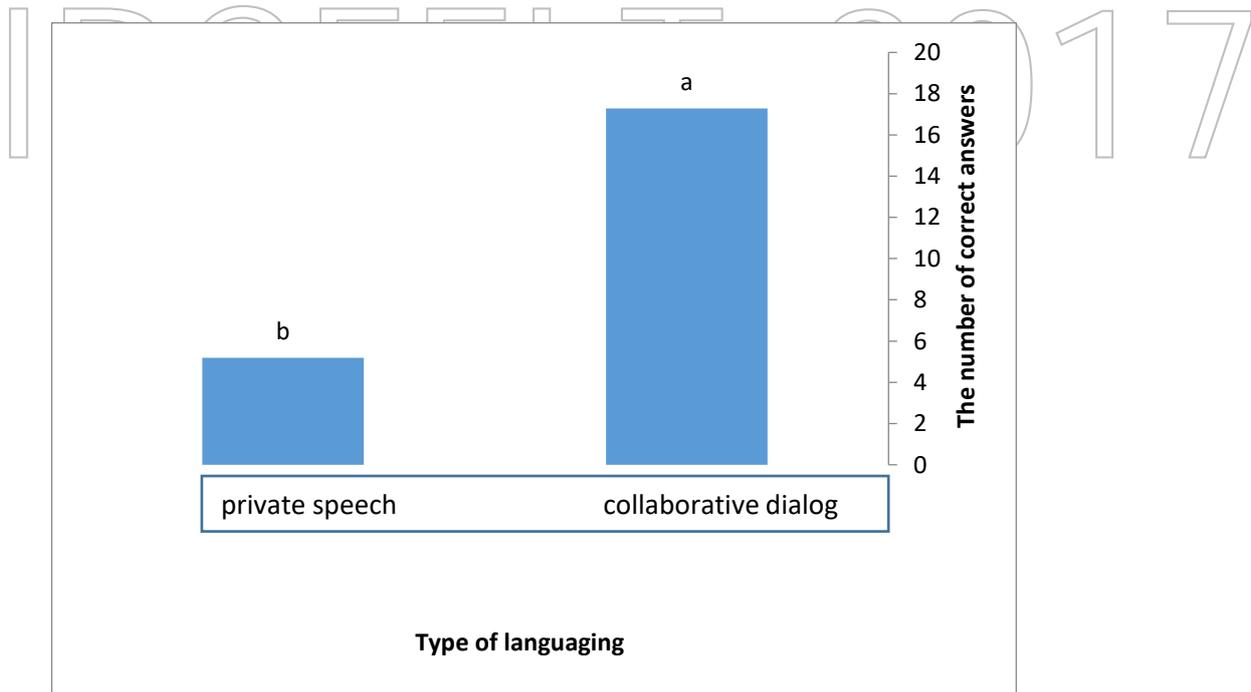


Figure 1. Mean of correct answer to grammar question in students of low level in private speech and collaborative dialog

As seen in the figure, A significant difference observed for the correct answer in low level students in collaborative dialog more than private speech . $P<0$

4.2.2. Answer to the Second Research Question

The second research question in this study was :Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech and collaborative dialog on grammatical performance of Iranian EFL learners with high level of proficiency?? For answering this question the ANOVA test was run on the scores obtained form the grammar test. The results are shown in the table 4.2

Table 4.2

The ANOVA table for the private speech and collaborative dialog of students in high group for grammar questions is provided below.

Variables	Degree of freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between private speech & collaborative dialog	1	1715.39	42.67	.000
Error	25	40.21		
Total	26	104.63		

P<0.01 was considered as significant differences between treatments.

According to the table of one way ANOVA there was a significant difference among answering to the questions in collaborative and private speech in high group (P<0.01).

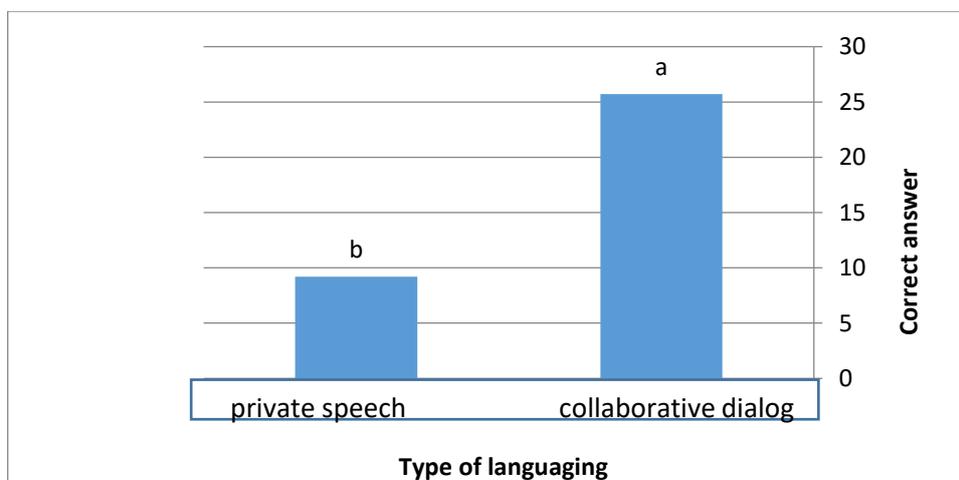


Figure 2. Mean of correct answer to grammar question in students of grammar group in the private speech and collaborative dialog

As observed, the correct answer in high student group in private speech was higher compared to collaborative dialog condition ($P < 0.05$).

4.2.3. Answer to the Third Research Question

The third research question was: Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech on Iranian EFL learners with high and low level of proficiency in terms of grammatical performance?? For answering this question the ANOVA test was run on the scores obtained from the grammar test. The results are shown in the table 4.

Table 4.3

The ANOVA table for the collaborative dialog and private speech of students in LOW and high groups for grammar questions is provided below.

Variables	Degree of freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Private speech in high & low	1	621.03	19.35	.000
Error	33	32.10		
Total	34	49.42		

$P < 0.01$ was considered as significant differences between treatments.

According to the table 4.3, there is a significant difference to answering private speech questions between the low and high level groups ($P < 0.01$)>

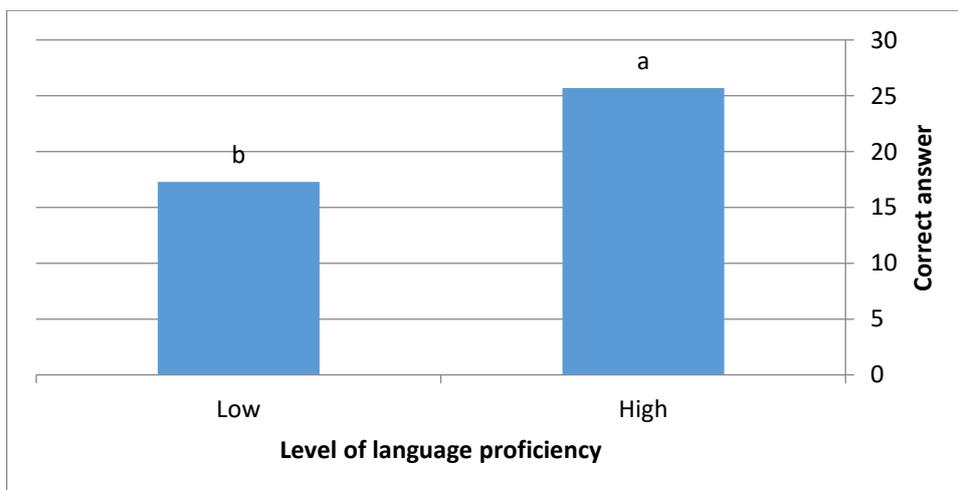


Figure 3. Mean of correct answer to grammar question in students of low and high level groups in private speech condition.

As seen the correct answer among the students of high group in private speech was significantly higher than the LOW group ($P < 0.05$).

4. 2.4. Answer to the Fourth Research Question

The fourth research question was: Is there any significant difference between the effect of collaborative dialog on Iranian EFL learners with high and low level of proficiency in terms of grammatical performance? For answering this question the ANOVA test was run on the scores obtained from the grammar test. The results are shown in the table 4.4

Table 4.4

The ANOVA table for the private speech and collaborative dialog of students in LOW and high groups for grammar questions is provided below.

Variables	Degree of freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Private speech in high & low group	1	84.57	4.60	.043
Error	19	18.38		
Total	20	21.69		

Based on the one way Anova table 4.4, there was a significant difference observed between answering with collaborative dialog in LOW and high students ($P < 0.05$)

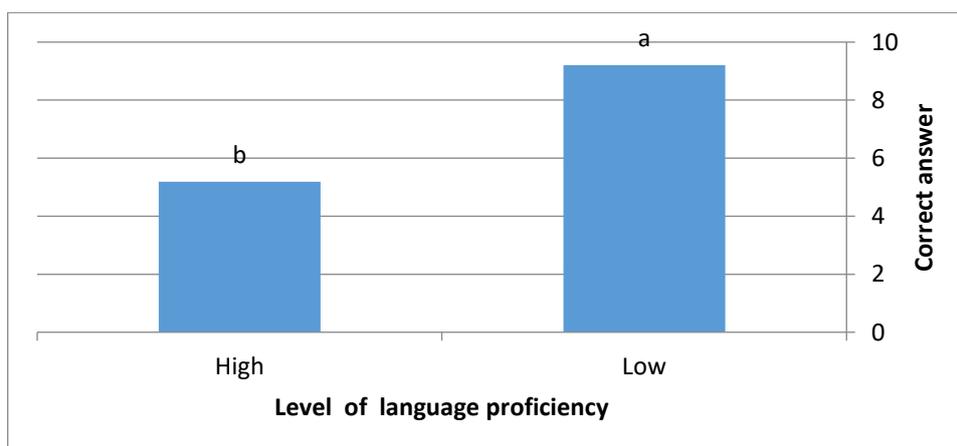


Figure 4. the mean of correct answer to grammar questions between low and high level students in collaborative dialog condition .($P < 0.05$). n=21.

As seen from the figure, the correct answers were higher between low level group in compared to high group (P<0.05).

4.2.5. Answer to the Fifth Research Question

The fourth research question was: Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech on comprehension and production grammar exercises in low level of proficiency? For answering this question the ANOVA test was run on the scores obtained from the grammar test. The results are shown in the table 4.5

Table 4.5

The ANOVA table for the type of languaging (private speech) in low level students is provided below.

Variables	Degree of freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Private speech in low level	1	34.11	4.46	0.042
Error	36	6.64		
Total	37	8.36		

According to the one way ANOVA report, a significant difference detected between type of grammar exercises (production –comprehension) low level students in private speech (P<0.05).

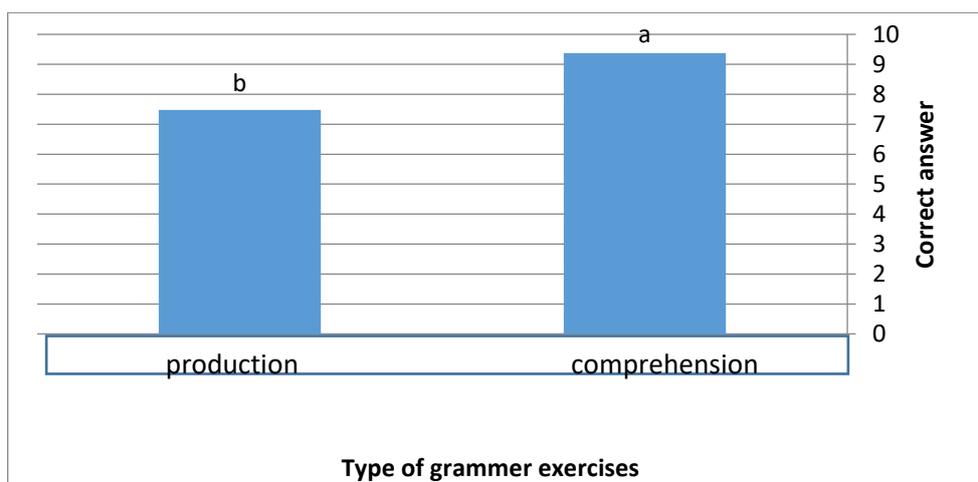


Figure 4.5. The mean of correct answer to grammar exercises between low level student in private speech ((P<0.05) N=38

As seen, a significant difference detected for the mean of correct answer to production – comprehension grammar exercises in private speech ($P < 0.05$)

4.2.6. Answer to the Sixth Research Question

The sixth research question in this study was: Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech on comprehension and production grammar exercises in high level of proficiency? For answering this question the ANOVA test was run on the scores obtained from the grammar test. The results are shown in the table 4.6

Table 4.6

The ANOVA table for the answer to the questions between the type of languaging of students in High group in private speech is shown below.

Variables	Degree of freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Private speech in high group	1	98.94	8.97	0.005
Error	32	11.04		
Total	33	13.70		

According to the results, there was a significant difference observed between type of grammar exercises (production – comprehension) in High group in private speech. ($P < 0.05$).

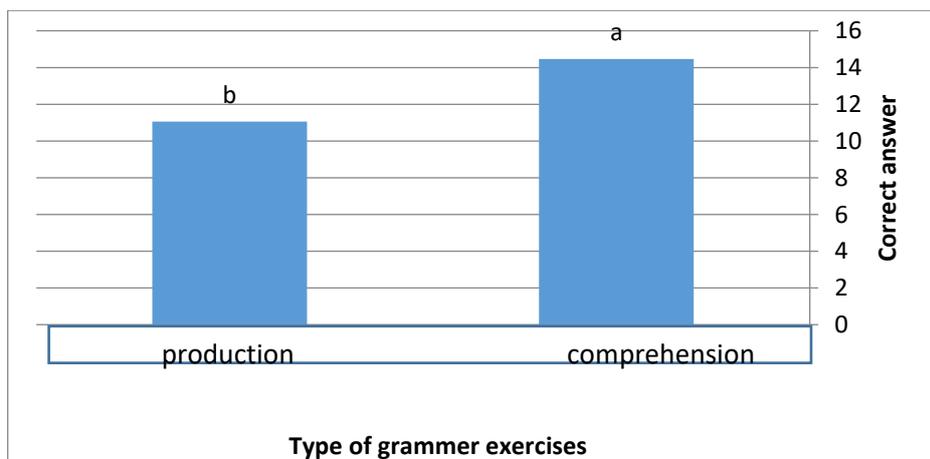


Figure 6. Mean of the correct answer to grammar exercises in high group in private speech $p < 0.05$, $N = 34$

As seen, the mean of answer to production – comprehension grammar exercises in high group was significant in private speech ($P < 0.05$).

4.2.7. Answer to the Seventh Research Question

The seventh research question in this study was ; Is there any significant difference between the effect of collaborative dialog on comprehension and production grammar exercises in low level of proficiency? For answering this question the ANOVA test was run on the scores obtained from the grammar test. The results are shown in the table 4.7

Table 4.7

The ANOVA table for the type of production – comprehension grammar exercises of students in low level students in collaborative dialog condition is provided below

Variables	Degree of freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Collaborative dialog in low group	1	6.25	1.84	0.196
Error	14	3.39		
Total	15	3.58		

According to the table, there was no significant difference observed between production – comprehension grammar exercises in low level students ($P > 0.05$).

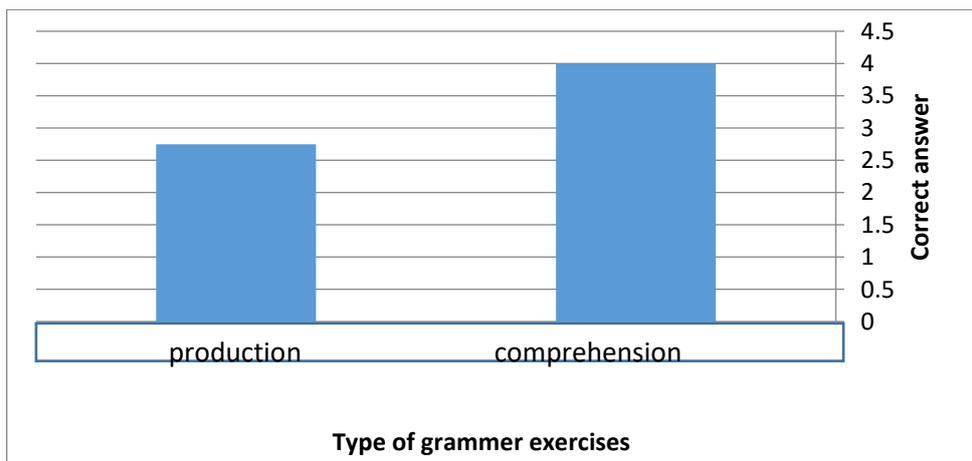


Figure 7. Mean for correct answer in LOW group in collaborative dialog. N=16.

As seen, there was no significant difference between answers to comprehension- production grammar exercises in low level group with collaborative dialog ($P > 0.05$).

4.2.8. Answer to the Eighth Research Question

The eighth research question of this study was: Is there any significant difference between the effect of collaborative dialog on comprehension and production grammar exercises in high level of proficiency? For answering this question the ANOVA test was run on the scores obtained from the grammar test. The results are shown in the table 4.8.

Table 4.8

The ANOVA table for the production-comprehension grammar exercises of students in high group in collaborative dialog is provided below.

Variables	Degree of freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Collaborative dialog in high group	1	0.562	0.093	0.764
Error	14	6.027		
Total	15	5.67		

According to the table 4.8, there is no significant observed between comprehension-production grammar exercises in high group ($P > 0.05$).

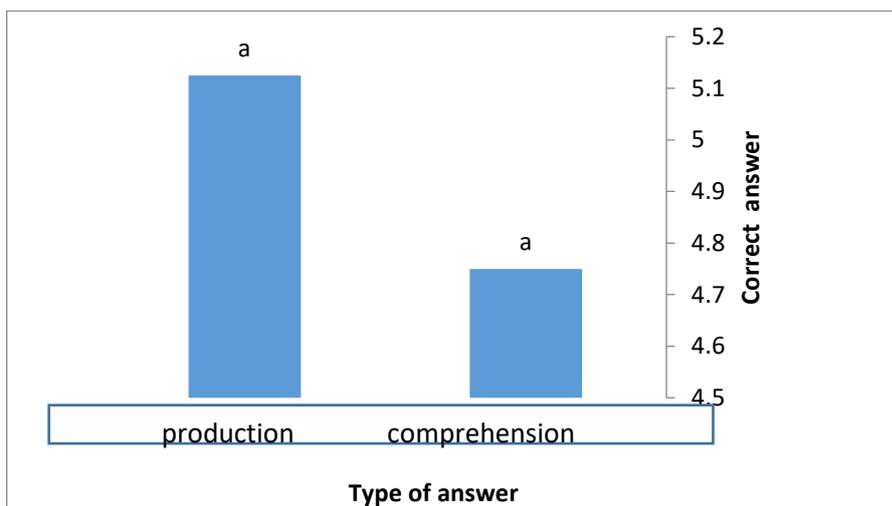


Figure 8. The mean of correct answer o grammar question in high group in collaborative dialog (n=16).

As seen from the figure, there was no significant difference in mean of answering to comprehension-production grammar exercises in high group student in collaborative dialog ($P > 0.05$).

4.3. Results

4.3.1.Regarding the First Research Question: (Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech and collaborative dialog on grammatical performance of Iranian EFL learners with low level of proficiency?), based on the table 4.1, there was a significant difference between answering to the questions in private speech and collaborative dialog. As seen in the figure 4-1, a significant difference observed for the correct answer in low-level students. Therefore, the students with low level of language proficiency used collaborative dialog more than the private speech.

4.3.2. Regarding the Second Research Question: (Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech and collaborative dialog on grammatical performance of Iranian EFL learners with high level of proficiency?) Based on the table 4- there, was a significant difference among answering to the questions in collaborative and private speech in high group. As observed in figure 4-2, the correct answer in high level students in private speech is higher compared to collaborative dialog. Therefore the students in high level of language proficiency used private speech more than the collaborative dialog.

4.3.3. Regarding the Third Research Question: (. Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech on Iranian EFL learners with high and low level of proficiency in terms of grammatical performance?) based on the table 4.3, there was significant difference to answering private speech questions between the low and high level groups. As seen in figure 4.3, the correct answer among the students of high group in private speech was significantly higher than the LOW group. Therefore, the students in high level of language proficiency used private speech more than students in low level of language proficiency.

4.4.4. Regarding the Fourth Research Question: (.Is there any significant difference between the effect of collaborative dialog on Iranian EFL learners with high and low level of proficiency in terms of grammatical performance?), Based on table 4.4 there was a significant difference between answering with collaborative dialog in low and high level students . As seen from the figure, the correct answers were higher between the low level group, compared to the high level group. Thus, the students with a low level of language proficiency answered more questions with collaborative dialog in compared to the students with high level of language proficiency

4.4.5.Regarding the Fifth Research Question: (Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech on comprehension and production grammar exercises in low level of proficiency?) Based on table 4.5 a significant difference detected between type of grammar exercises (production –comprehension) low level students in private speech .As seen in figure 4.5 , a significant difference detected for the mean of correct answer to production – comprehension grammar exercises in private speech. Therefore the students in low level answered more comprehension Exercises with private speech than production exercises.

4.4.6. Regarding the Sixth Research Question (.Is there any significant difference between the effect of private speech on comprehension and production grammar exercises in high level of proficiency?) Based on table 4.6, a significant

difference observed between the type of grammar exercises (production – comprehension) in high level group in private speech condition. As seen, the mean of answer to production – comprehension grammar exercises in high group was significant in private speech. On the other hand, the students in high level answered more comprehension Exercises with private speech than production exercises.

4.4.7. Regarding the Seventh Research Question: (Is there any significant difference between the effect of collaborative dialog on comprehension and production grammar exercises in low level of proficiency?) Based on the table 4.7, there is no significant difference observed between productions – comprehension grammar exercises in low level students. As seen in figure 4.7, there was no significant difference between answers to comprehension- production grammar exercises in the low level group with collaborative dialog. Therefore the students in low level answered to comprehension grammar exercises with using collaborative dialog more than production grammar exercises.

4.4.8. Regarding the Eighth Research Question(Is there any significant difference between the effect of collaborative dialog on comprehension and production grammar exercises in high level of proficiency). Based on the table 4.8., no significant observed between comprehension-production grammar exercises in high group. As seen in figure 4.8, there is no significant difference in mean of answering to comprehension-production grammar exercises in high group student in collaborative dialog. Thus the students in high level answered to production grammar exercises with using collaborative dialog more than comprehension grammar exercises.

4.4. Discussion

4.4.1. Level of Language Proficiency and Type of Linguaging

Our research questions are concerned with the effects of languaging (private speech and collaborative dialog) on comprehension-production grammar exercises in learners with low and high level of language proficiency. The findings indicate that learners with high level of language proficiency used more private speech, compared to collaborative dialog. Moreover in learners with high level language proficiency the number of correct answers through answering private speech was more than collaborative dialog. However, learners with low level of language proficiency used more collaborative dialog in compared to private speech. Moreover, in learners with low level of language proficiency the number of correct answers through answering collaborative dialog was more than private speech. Therefore, there was a significant difference between the effects of languaging (private speech and collaborative dialog) and level of Language proficiency.

These findings in contrast with Leeser (2004), who studied the type of languaging (collaborative dialogue) of L2 Spanish learners who finished a collaborative passage rebuilding task and found that learners in low proficiency levels produced less grammatical meta talk than those in high proficiency levels .

It is important to describe the consistency of these results in SLA. There are two probable explanations: (a) Learners with low language proficiency were pay attention meaning more than linguistic form (Schmidt, 2001), resulting in reduced languaging about the form; (b) Learners with low language proficiency are less psycho-linguistically ready to pay attention to forms than high proficiency learners (Leeser, 2004).

4.4.2. Type of Exercise and Type of Languaging

Our research questions concern with the effects of languaging (private speech and collaborative dialog) on comprehension-production grammar exercises in learners with low and high level of language proficiency. The results show that in learners with high level language proficiency the number of correct answers through answering private speech in comprehension grammar exercises were more than production grammar exercises. Moreover, in learners with high level language proficiency, the number of correct answers through answering collaborative dialog were more in production grammar exercises in compared to comprehension grammar exercises. However, in learners with low level language proficiency the number of correct answers through answering private speech in comprehension grammar exercises were more than production grammar exercises. Moreover, in learners with high level language proficiency, the number of correct answers through answering collaborative dialog were more in comprehension grammar exercises in compared to production grammar exercises. Therefore, both high and low language proficiency learners engaged in private speech condition in response to comprehension grammar exercises in compared to production grammar exercises. This finding indicated that type of languaging was dependent on the type of exercises.

This finding is consistent with Garcia Mayo (2002) who confirmed that the type of languaging (i.e., metatalk) was affected the type of tasks second language learners did. In her study, Garcia Mayo (2002) examined languaging of EFL students who collaboratively did grammar tasks (e.g., multiple choice, cloze, text rebuilding). She found that different grammar tasks produced a different amount of languaging on the use of language.

However, we found that the level of language proficiency has an important role in defining the relationship between the type of exercise and the type of languaging (private speech and collaborative dialog). The learners in this study were clearly directed to write the type of their responses (e.i., private speech), some participants, regardless of language proficiency, would use the collaborative dialog for the languaging actions. This finding is consistent with Cumming's (1990) study, which shows that second language proficiency was not related with the meta linguistic thoughtful while combining in an second language. However, this result looks to the contrast with the research findings, showing that second language learners with low language proficiency are more likely to resort to L1 lexis-oriented languaging than second language learners with high language proficiency (e.g., Centeno-Cortez and Jimenez Jimenez, 2004).

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THE EFFECT OF REFLECTIVE LEARNING ON COMMUNICATION SKILLS: THE CASE OF REFLECTIVE STRATEGIES

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to compare the effects of reflective and language learning strategies on improving Iranian EFL Learners communication skill. To do so, seventy five upper intermediate learners, randomly were selected from one of the language institutes in Saveh based on their scores on PET test. Then, they were randomly assigned to one control and two experimental groups. Before starting the treatment, the pretest was run to all groups and the results of the one-way ANOVA revealed no significant differences among the groups regarding their oral communication skills. During the treatment, the first experimental group received explicit instruction related to the debriefing and questioning strategies. The second experimental group worked on the language learning strategies and the control group received none of these strategies. Results of the t-test and ANOVA conducted on the post-test scores showed that both groups of strategies including reflective and language learning are effective in improving learner's oral communication skills. However, the reflective strategies were more effective.

Keywords: Oral communication skills, Reflective learning, Reflective learning strategies.

1. Introduction

Language learning strategies are the conscious steps or behaviors used by language learners to enhance the acquisition, storage, retention, recall, and use of new information (Oxford, 2011, p. 43). On the other hand, reflective learning is the process of internally examining and exploring an issue of concern triggered by an experience, which creates and clarifies meaning in terms of self and which results in a change of conceptual perspective.

Reflection as an enticing concept in in the domain of education traces back to John Dewey's (1993) experiential learning theory. In this theory, learners are supposed to do active thinking and mix their previous and current knowledge

before creating new learning experiences. As Dewey (1933) has pointed out, reflection happened when a learner is acting with special care, active motivation, and nonstop search over a particular problem.

According to O'Connor and Diggins (2002), "reflective practice is a cycle that involves stopping to consider practices and the reasons for them, thinking critically about alternative perspectives and changing practices based on new understandings" (p.16). Self-reflection permits teachers to detach themselves from their actions and thoughts, understand why and how specific practices worked or did not work, and reach a new understanding of these processes to become familiar with these practices to be more operative in the future (Arthur, 2005). Self-reflection inspires informed decision making through seeing things from a different perspective (Arthur, 2005; O'Connor & Diggins 2002).

The first theoretical exploration concerning the reflection role in learning was revealed by John Dewey (1938), who was of the opinion that there are two types of processing in reflection: the awareness of relations and associations and the trial and error of experience. In his opinion, conscious reflection was considered essential for making conscious decisions about what one will or will not do. For learning, Dewey (1938) believed that it is essential to observe surroundings, associate that with previous knowledge of comparable conditions, and make a judgment on the importance of one's experience.

Other outstanding theorists reflected Dewey's perception of the significance of reflection. For example, for Piaget, reflection was a more advanced form of development compared with concreting knowledge (Kolb, 1984). Freire (1974) theorized the dialectical basis of learning, in which one learns by engaging in "reflection and action upon the world in order to transform it" (p. 36). He added that, "within the world we find two dimensions, reflection and action, in such radical interaction that if one is sacrificed, the other immediately suffers" (p. 75). Lewin discovered, by accident, that learning was simplified by going for a real experience with logical detachment (Kolb, 1984). One of the most important theorists to incorporate reflection into the learning cycle was David Kolb, developer of experiential learning theory.

In order to learn something, one must recognize it and be inspired to do something for it by a conscious attempt. The integration of affective, cognitive, and volitional constituents of personality involves a whole-person and holistic approach to learning (van Lier, 2004). David Kolb (1984, p. 42) developed an overall theoretical model of experiential learning as demonstrated in Figure 1.

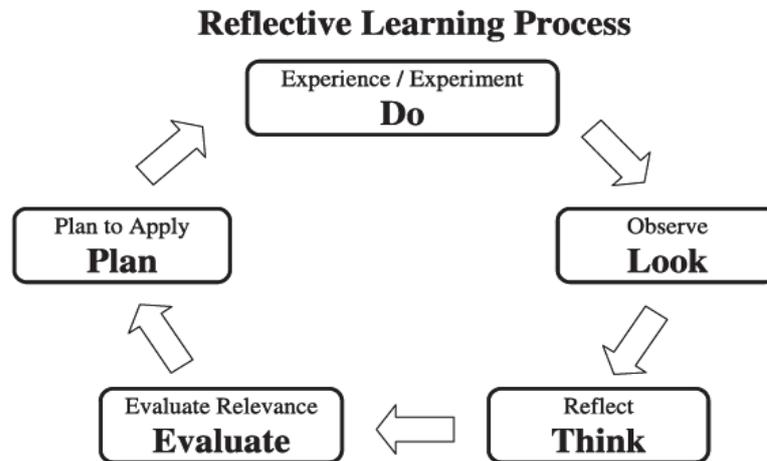


Figure 1. Model of reflective learning.

According to this model, learning is fundamentally a process of determination of conflicts between two opposite dimensions namely comprehension dimension and the transformation dimension (Kolb, 1984).

1.1. Reflective Learning Strategies

According to Osland et al. (2005), there is a variety of strategies which is usually not exclusively associated with reflective learning including evaluation and feedback, having questioning nature, using a problem solving approach, planning and monitoring, seeking for peer review, advice, and critique, keeping a journal, self-monitoring, conscious attention, thinking aloud, discussion, group practice, cooperative learning, brainstorming, role playing, observational learning, lateral thinking, trial and error, and debriefing. Since debriefing is exclusively dedicated to the reflective learning it is elaborated here.

Debriefing is one strategy which is broadly used to involve students in the process of reflection after games and experiential simulations (Baker, Jensen, & Kolb, 1997). It has a long history in the military (Lederman, 1992). Researchers in psychology similarly have employed debriefings to de-role participants cheated in experiments due to the experimental parameters. Likewise, clinical psychologists have used debriefings to help post-traumatic stress victims. The most recent use of debriefings is by instructors after conducting experiential learning activities, because the reactions evoked by experiential learning are often similar to those in stressful situations.

1.2. Communication Skills

Communication skills is the ability to convey information to another effectively and efficiently and it is simply the act of transferring information from one to another (Robinson, Segal, & Smith, 2016).

Since the communication skills in the present study were limited to the oral skills, the speaking sections of two versions of the Preliminary English Test (PET) were used in this study to measure oral communication skills.

Communication skills are very essential among other language skills since through the oral skills we communicate with each other to convey our meaning and purposes. Language learners often measure their success in the process of language learning as well as the usefulness of their English course based on how well they feel their communicate skill is developed (Richards, 2008).

The human as a social creature has been in interaction with his surroundings from the beginning. He has attempted to fulfill his need to express his thoughts, emotions, dreams, and hopes by talking and writing. Communication has been emerged depending on this co-sharing need (Çetinkaya, 2011). Persons who are living in the community should communicate with other members for conveying their feelings to live in a well-adjusted life (Ergün, 2009). Bolat (1990) has defined communication as defined as a process of sharing of skills, knowledge, feelings, attitudes, thoughts, and behaviors or making the meanings understandable. Communication provides people with an opportunity to express, exchange, and evaluate the ideas and concepts in their minds. Being affected by others, influencing them, making benefit from them, helping them, and making achievements can be apprehended through communication (Çalışkan, 2003).

The communication as one fundamental element required for people to become accustomed to their environment (Yüksel, 1997), should be technically recognized by individuals in every occupation and they should improve its related skills in themselves (Balci, 1996). In other words, knowing various communication skills in the occupational groups which needs direct interaction with people is of a great prominence (Yılmaz, Üstün & Odacı, 2009). The communication, which is a knowledge of conveying information and making an agreement, must share the meanings among people (Durukan & Maden, 2010) and the skills of utilizing the language verbally which have the most significant role in the apprehension of the communication, must echo the skill of founding an effective communication (Deniz, 2007). These skills are very facilitating in the human relationships. However, when communication is not meaningful and satisfactory, the results are the feeling of loneliness and not being able to fulfill our own needs. This shows the importance of communication skills in being successful in human interactions.

1.3. Review of literature:

The findings of Jensen's (1995) study reinforced using classroom discussions as a sort of oral debriefings and concrete experiences. However, this investigation did not try to employ any instructional strategy specially designed to help students in the stages of the experiential learning process. The "experiences" from which students learned were traditional reading assignments followed by class discussions. The conversation starters were used instead of the structured debriefings for the class discussions.

Naghdipour and Emeagwali (2013) attempted to assess and compare the level of reflective learning in ELT students. Moreover, they examined teachers' insights of the inhibitors or promoters to their students' reflective learning. Their participants were ninety six undergraduate students who were taking practical courses like 'Teaching Language Skills', 'Special Teaching Methods', and 'Teaching Practice'. Ten ELT instructors at Eastern Mediterranean University participated in this research as well. Findings declared that the level of education and age are two fundamental factors of reflective learning behavior. The lecturers also described some limitations and promoters to their reflective thinking.

In another study, Kikas et al. (2015) used two instruments to investigate learning strategies of 565 middle school students and their roles in predicting different learning outcomes. The learning strategy scale included three parts organization, rehearsal, and elaboration. Memorization strategies (organization and rehearsal) were measured with a special learning task (memorizing word list). The learning outcomes were speaking and listening skills in English language. Results showed that those students who used organization and memorization while doing the learning tasks were different in all outcomes. Results also indicated a real need to study which assessment methods should be employed in middle school.

Hakan, Aydin and Bulent (2015) had done a study to determine undergraduates' language learning strategies regarding their gender. For this purpose one hundred twenty undergraduate students with various university majors who were attending the English preparation class were randomly selected. The data was collected through Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), developed by Oxford (1990). The results of conducting independent samples of t-test revealed significant differences in undergraduates' language learning strategies concerning their gender.

Reviewing the studies in the reflective learning and language learning strategies proposes that developing appropriate activities based on these strategies still requires theoretical and practical investment, specifically, in Iranian EFL context, where using metacognitive and reflective activities in setting the goals, monitoring the learning, and evaluating the outcomes are not flourished enough.

1.4. Research Hypotheses

This study was guided by the following research hypotheses:

H1. Reflective learning strategies and language learning strategies are not effective in improving learners' communication skills.

H2. There are no significant differences among study groups (reflective learning strategies, language learning strategies, and control) regarding their communication skill improvement.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

In order to conduct this study, 75 male students with the age range of 19-34 were randomly selected from the whole population of 90 upper-intermediate learners in one of the language institutes of Saveh city. They were homogenized through running a standardized language proficiency test (PET). Based on the guidelines offered in this test, the learners whose scores were between 70 and 84 (B2) were selected as upper intermediate level. Then, the homogenized participants were randomly assigned to three groups: experimental group1 (n = 25) who received reflective learning strategies in their treatment, experimental group2 (n = 25) who received language learning strategies, and control group (Co, n =25) who did not received any kinds of strategies. In addition, a group of 25 students with almost similar characteristics to the target sample were used in order to pilot the proficiency test (PET) and the pre & post-tests.

2.2. Instrumentation

2.2.1. Preliminary English Test (PET)

This standardized language proficiency test was employed in order to homogenize the participants regarding their proficiency level. It contains four parts: reading (35 items), writing (7 items), listening (25 items), and speaking (an interview including four sections). The PET test used in the present research was a sample of the Preliminary English Test adopted from "objective PET" by Louise Hashemi and Barbara Thomas (2010), Cambridge University Press (Appendix A). The maximum score is 100 and the band score 0-44 is dedicated to the elementary level (A1), 44-69 is dedicated to low-intermediate level (B1), 70-84 is a band score for upper intermediate level (B2), and the band scores 85-89 and 90-100 are dedicated to the advanced (C1) and very advanced levels (C2) respectively.

2.2.2. Pre-test

This test contained the speaking part of two other versions of the PET test including 4 sections as follows:

Part one (2-3 minutes): in this part, the examiner introduces himself to the test taker. Then, he asks some questions such as where the test taker lives, his school, and his favorites.

Part two (2-3 minutes): in this part, the examiner gives the test taker a card and explains what he is supposed to do. Then, test taker starts speaking about it.

Part three (3 minutes): in this part, the examiner gives the test taker a photograph. The test taker should describe it.

Part four (3 minutes): in this part, the examiner asks the test taker to speak about the subjects of the photos in part three and describe his experiences related to it (see Appendix B).

2.2.3. Post-test

A test with characteristics similar to the pre-test was administered as the post-test to measure the participants' communication skill after the treatments (see Appendix C).

2.3. Procedure

The study lasted for 12 sessions of 75 minutes. First, language proficiency test was run to 90 language learners who based on the internal placement test run by the institute were reported to be in upper-intermediate language proficiency level. Seventy five learners whose scores matched with the PET test band score (70-84) specified with upper-intermediate level were randomly selected and divided into three groups of 25 members. In the second session, the pre-test was administered to confirm the homogeneity of the groups related to their communication skills before starting the treatments. Then, learners in each group were divided into small groups of 4 to 5 members. Treatment lasted for 9 sessions. Description of what happened in each group is as follows:

a) Reflective learning strategy group: According to Schön (1983), reflective learning involves two capabilities: reflecting in action while doing something and reflecting on action after an action has been done. Osland et al. (2005) have categorized the strategies related to reflective learning as thinking aloud, discussion, cooperative practices, brainstorming, role playing, questioning, consensus building, buzz groups, seeking for feedback and peer review, debriefing, trial and error, searching for necessary knowledge to complete a task, problem solving, observing the steps, and monitoring actions. Therefore, strategies related to both capabilities were selected based on the learners' proficiency level and types of speaking tasks in their text-books (American English file, 3).

The in-action selected reflective strategy was questioning. At the end of each session, one topic related to the content of the course-book lessons was given to the students. The selected topics were entertainment, vacation, dreams, crimes, heroes, natural disasters, and internet. Participants were asked to search about them and be ready for group discussion in the next session. They would share their findings with their group mates. Therefore, members could participate in a group discussion to share their information about one topic communicatively. However, during the discussion, they could stop and ask some questions related to their language problems (e.g., pronunciation, choice of word, grammar, etc.) from their friends. If group members could not help, they would seek for teacher's help. It was emphasized that students should encourage each other to ask their questions since these vague points can change into bigger problems in future. The class continued working on this strategy for six sessions.

b) Language learning strategy group: In this group, two cognitive strategies related to speaking skill were selected based on the Oxford's (1990) taxonomy, namely recombining and using formulas and patterns. As Oxford has mentioned, using formula and patterns in the target language enhances learners' both comprehension and production in communication. Formulas are unanalyzed expression, whereas patterns at least have one slot that can be filled with an

alternative word. "Teaching such expressions as whole chunk early in their language learning process will help students build self-confidence, increase understanding, and enhance fluency" (Oxford, 1990, p. 73). On the other hand, the strategy of recombining includes generation of a meaningful sentence or larger expression by stringing known components in new ways. This strategy offers useful practice.

The students in this group were also divided into small groups and in every session were asked to speak about discussing about their textbook topics by using the formulas that were presented to them or recombining some the sentences and expressions.

c) Control group: Learner in this group did not receive any of the mentioned strategies which were used in both experimental groups and in the speaking section of their classes were received the conventional routines which were commonly used in their institutes including question and answer drills and speaking about a topic individually for the whole class.

3. Results

This part presents results of the major analyses conducted on the data obtained from the participants before and after the instructional treatments. Major analyses were on pre and post-test scores.

3.1. Normality of Scores Distribution

In order to answer the research questions, first the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run to confirm the normality of the distribution of the scores and the legitimacy of using parametric tests. The obtained probability values showed that distributions of each group' scores from different tests did not differ significantly from normal as *p* values were all in excess of .05. The results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary of One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

Variable	Group	Pre-test		Post-test	
		K-S	Sig	K-S	Sig
	Reflective learning strategies	.91	.37	.92	.36
Communication skills	Language learning strategies	1.24	.09	1.09	.19
	Control	1.04	.23	.65	.80

3.2. Results from the Language Proficiency Test

In order to ensure the homogeneity of the groups regarding their proficiency level before starting the treatment, the scores from the Preliminary English Test (PET) were submitted to a one way ANOVA. Results did not show any significant group differences for the language proficiency test, $F(2, 73) = .67, sig .51, p > .05$. Tables 2 and 3 show these results respectively. These results are also shown in the bar graph below.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for the Language Proficiency Test

Variable	Group	M	SD	Variance	Min	Max
Language Proficiency	Reflective learning strategies	76.16	4.4	19.40	70	84
	Language learning strategies	74.80	4.6	20.90	70	83
	Control	75	4.5	19.90	70	83

Table 3. One-way ANOVA for the Language Proficiency Test

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	26.96	2	13.48	.67	.51
Within Groups	1445.36	72	20.07		
Total	1472.32	74			

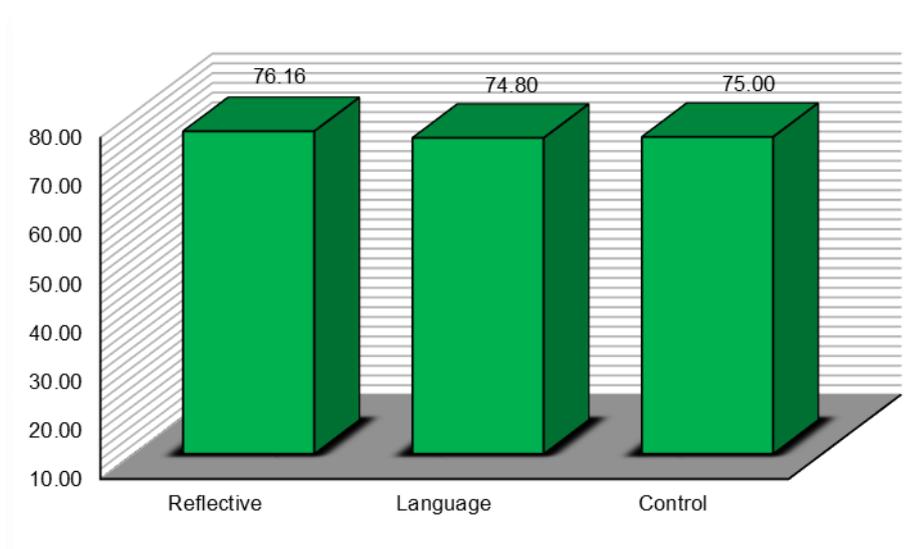


Figure 2: Means of groups on language proficiency test

It should be mentioned that, before running the ANOVA test, the results of the Levene test showed the homogeneity of the variances. These results are reported in Table 4

Table 4. Test of Homogeneity of Variances for PET Test

Leven Statistics	df1	df2	Sig.
.221	2	72	.810

3.3. Results from the Pre-test

In order to ensure that all groups were at the same level of communication skills before receiving any instruction, first the Levene test was run to confirm the homogeneity of the variances and results ($F = .86, df_{2,72}, sig = .42$) revealed that the variances were homogenous.

Table 5. Test of Homogeneity of Variances for Pre-Test

Leven Statistics	df1	df2	Sig.
.867	2	72	.421

Then, scores from the pre-tests were submitted to a one-way ANOVA and findings did not reveal any significant difference between experimental groups and control group at .05 level of significance ($F = .54, df_{2,72}, sig = .59$). The related descriptive and inferential statistics are shown in the tables 6 and 7 respectively.

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics for the Pre-test Scores

Variable	Pair	Group	M	SD	Std. Error	Min	Max
Communication skills	Pre-test	Experimental	7.88	4.18	4.48	2	15

Experimental	6.76	3.17	6.49	2	12
2					
Control	7.20	3.61	6.57	3	15

Table 7. One-way ANOVA for the Pre-Test

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	15.92	2	7.96	.54	.59
Within Groups	1065.20	72	14.79		
Total	1081.12	74			

3.4. Results from the First Research hypothesis

In order to answer the first research question (Are reflective learning strategies and language learning strategies effective in improving learners' communication skills?) the scores obtained from the pre and post-tests were compared separately through running a dependent t-test. The tables below show the results.

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics for the Pre and Post-test Scores

Variable	Pair	Group	M	SD	Variance	Min	Max
	Pre-test	Reflective	7.88	4.2	17.5	2	15
		Language	6.76	3.7	13.8	2	12
Communication Skills							
	Post-test	Reflective	16.40	1.0	3.6	13	20
		Language	13.40	2	4	10	17

Table 9. Dependent t-test for the Pre and Post-Test Scores

Group	N	Paired Differences	SD	df	t	Sig
Reflective learning strategies	25	8.52	.57	24	15.05	.01
Language learning strategies	25	6.64	.84	24	7.92	.01
Control	25	3.68	.45	24	8.2	.01

The results of these tables display that reflective learning strategies, language learning strategies, and the conventional techniques used in language classes are effective in improving the learners' communication skills. The obtained t for the reflective learning strategies group is 15.05 which is significant (.01) at .05 level of significant. Moreover, the language learning strategies are effective ($t = 7.92, sig = .01$) and control group also has had improvement in its communication skills ($t = 8.2, sig = .01$). Comparing the groups' means on pre and post-test also reveal these findings (reflective learning strategies: $M_1 = 7.88, M_2 = 16.40$, language learning strategies: $M_1 = 6.76, M_2 = 13.40$, control group: $M_1 = 7.20, M_2 = 10.88$). The bar graph below is comparing these means.

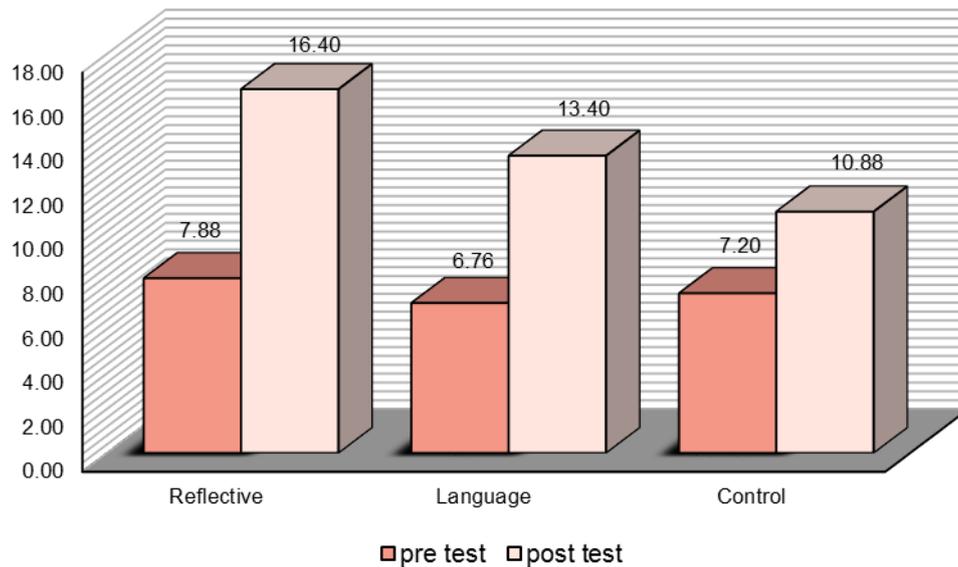


Figure 3: Means of groups on pre and post-test

3.5. Results from the Second Research Question

In order to answer the second research question (Are there any significant differences among study groups (reflective learning strategies, language learning strategies, and control group) regarding their communication skills improvement, learners' scores from the post-test were compared through running another one-way ANOVA. Before running this test, results of the Levene test confirmed the homogeneity of the variances ($F = 1.2$, $df_{2,72}$, $sig = 0.32$).

Table 10. Test of Homogeneity of Variances for Post-Test

Leven Statistics	df1	df2	Sig.
1.2	2	72	.32

The descriptive statistics and results of the one-way ANOVA test are shown in Table 11 and 12 respectively.

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics for the Post-test Scores

Variable	Pair	Group	M	SD	Std. Error	Min	Max
Communication skills	Post-test	Experimental 1	16.40	1.89	.37	13	20
		Experimental 2	13.40	2.00	.40	10	17
		Control	10.88	2.65	.53	6	16

Table 12. One-way ANOVA for the Post-Test

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	381.84	2	190.92	39.2	.01
Within Groups	350.64	72	4.9		
Total	732.48	74			

Based on the information in the above table, there is a significant difference between the strategies in improving the communication skills of the study groups ($F(2, 72) = 39.2$, $sig = .01$, $p < .05$). Since participants in the present study were randomly divided into three groups including reflective learning strategies, language learning strategies, and control group in order to find the exact point of difference a Tukey test was run.

Table 13. Results of the Tukey Test for the Post-test

Variable	Mean Difference		
	Group	Language	Control
Communication Skills	Reflective	4*	5.52*
	Language	-	2.52*
	Control	-	-

The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

The results show that although both reflective learning strategies and language learning strategies are successful in improving the participants' test scores, there are significant difference between the amount of their improvement (reflective > language learning). The reflective language learning group had a significantly higher mean ($M = 16.40$) than the language learning strategy group ($M = 16.23$). There was a significant difference between the scores of the reflective and language learning groups (4), reflective and control groups (5.52), and language learning and control groups (-2.52). Moreover, reflective and language learning groups performed significantly better than the control group on communication test. These findings can also be observed in the below line graph.

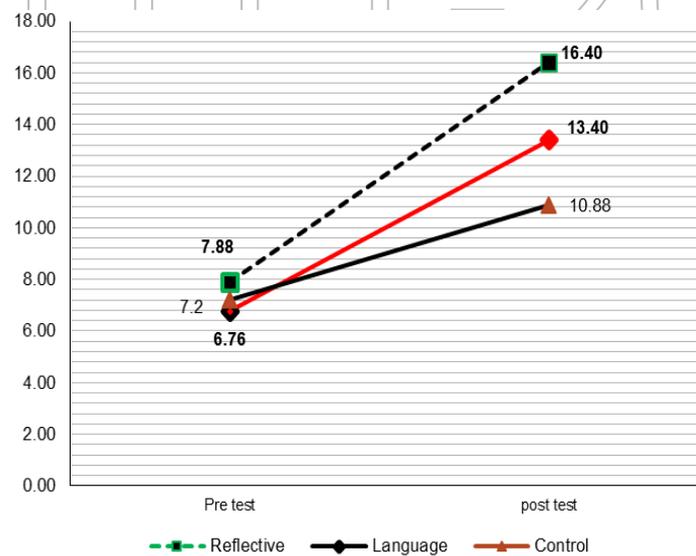


Figure 4: The line graph for comparing the effects of treatments on communication skills

4. Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of reflective learning strategies on Iranian EFL learners' communication skills. The first research hypothesis aimed at investigating whether reflective learning strategies and language learning

strategies are effective in improving learners' communication skills measured by speaking test before and after intervention. It was found that there was a statistically significant increase in scores of the groups from pre intervention to post intervention. Therefore, the answer to the first research hypothesis was yes and the first null hypothesis was rejected.

Addressing this hypothesis provided empirical support for implementing reflective and language learning strategies in communication courses. These findings are similar to other studies that investigated the effective of reflective and experiential learning in improving language skills. Lasely (1992) also resulted in better language improvement of the students whose teachers passed some courses in reflective teaching during their teacher education term. In contrast, Murdoch-Eaton (2002) did not find statistically significant differences between reflective learning and self-regulation strategies in improving the undergraduates' academic development.

The second research hypothesis tried to examine if there are any significant differences among study groups (reflective learning strategies, language learning strategies, and control group) regarding their communication skills improvement, and results revealed significance differences among the groups. Hence, the answer to this question is also yes and the related hypothesis is rejected in the same way. Results from this question are consistent with findings from previous literature on reflective and language learning strategy interventions.

The results of this study revealed that using reflective learning strategies specially those which are relate to both in-action and on-action reflection are more effective than language learning strategies in improving EFL learners' communication skills. These findings could imply that despite the point that there are some variables that might interrupt the process of reflection on the practice, some stages like designing activities with more time spent on creative and collaborative problem-solving atmosphere might affect the learners' language skills and modify their attitudes towards reflective learning (Tok, 2008).

Additionally, teachers should not only be involved in helping the students by providing them with the required information, they should also let them to seek for information through improving their questioning skills (Zeichner & Liston, 1996). On the other hand, cognitive language learning strategies like recombining and using formulas and patterns can enhance language learning because they are means of self-directed and active involvement that bring about greater confidence and improved proficiency (Oxford, 1990).

In line with the findings of the current study, King and Kitchener (1994) stated that reflection is effective in helping learners to reach to more complex levels of learning. It improves their willingness to communicate as they are making progress. Moreover, they highlight the outstanding position of debriefing strategy in assisting students to reflect on what they have acquired and how they fit into their cognitive structure. According to Grinnel (2003), instructing debriefing explicitly can directly result in problem-generated discussion. Kolb (1984) argued that debriefing engages students in three mental rehearsals: (a) remembering the team problem-solving, (b) comparing the other teams' results, and (c) applying the obtained skills to similar learning situations. Moreover, Grinnell (2003) asserted that debriefings provide the

students with multiple paths for skills and knowledge retrieval while they are analyzing relationships among the features of the experience and synthesized newly-learned concepts with previous knowledge.

5. Conclusion

This research attempted to compare the effects of reflective learning including debriefing and questioning and language learning strategies including following formula and patterns and recombining in improving Iranian EFL learners' oral communication skills. Results were in favor of reflective learning strategies. Reflection is a dynamic and complex concept. Bradley (1995) is of the opinion that reflection can extend beyond a learning tool and embraces a life-long practice of the mind, a practice that is representative of highly skilled learners. This lifelong practice is also useful for building a critical thinking capacity both in instructors as professionals and in the learners themselves. Educators can offer deliberate learning chances through connecting each of the stages of experiential learning which are involved in reflection. These developmental occasions generate the required tension essential to inspire growth in self-directed learners. Moreover, teachers might be expected to support using language learning strategy by their students. More than a quarter of a century has been passed since Rubin's (1975) findings showed the beginnings of debates which are still unresolved, and there is still much more research to be done to discover effective ways to employ what has been found successful language learners and their strategies in the language learning. In spite of some need to reexamine teacher insights considering the important strategies for their learners, it is encouraging that the present study has revealed so much common ground connected to students' and teachers' views about language learning strategies.

5.1. Implications

Considering the fact that education is whole person and its purpose is not exclusively compiling cognitive knowledge, teachers should also include development of emotional and social maturity in their programs (Passarelli & Kolb, 2011). In ELT terms, teachers should attempt to facilitate integrated development in perceptual, affective, cognitive, and behavioral domains (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Excessive emphasis on learning outcomes and performance without paying attention to broader developmental activities often led to teaching to the test and rote memorization. This is in strong contrast to the reflective learning view indicated that the process of learning should be the major focus (Passarelli & Kolb, 2011). Consequently, teachers are highly recommended to center on how students attain outcomes by concentrating on essential concepts, creation of values, reflective learning, and the course of inquiry.

Moreover, education is learner centered. Hence, language teachers can set forth a constructivist vision of learning that stresses the significance of forming the learning processes based on the learners' experience. This demands persuading learners to build their competence and confidence to become self-directed, independent learners (Palmer, 1997).

Teaching based on reflective learning and its related strategies introduces the necessity for adjustments in the role of learners and teachers (Kolb & Kolb, 2011). Teachers should plan for how they can match themselves with teaching around reflective and strategy-based cycle. The instructional practices are suggested to be goal-oriented and process-based (Passarelli & Kolb, 2011).

Reflective learning model trains students to set their own standards and evaluate their performance by using such strategies as debriefing and seeking for information through questioning. Setting and evaluating role through employing abstract conceptualization and active experimentation might help students to apply the obtained knowledge toward better communication. In this way, an opportunity might be provided for teachers to closely monitor the quality of their student performances based on the standards they set, and give them consistent feedback.

The findings of the current research might also expand our understanding of the effective role of the language strategies in improving the oral communication of the Iranian EFL learners. Findings may also be beneficial for curriculum planners, and syllabus designers in the field of applied linguistics to provide learners with appropriate opportunities and activities to become familiar with reflective learning and language learning explicitly. Classroom activities can be dedicated to more self-directed experiential learning activities to get the learners familiar with how they can evaluate their own improvement.

5.2. Limitations and Delimitations

The scope of this study was limited to adult learners since according to Kolb and Kolb (2009) implementing reflective and experiential learning needs more mature learners who can deal with the cognitive demands of the, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, theorizing, experimentation, and concrete experiencing. Considering the practical limitations which can limit the generalizability of the findings, this manipulation was hoped to result in improving the validity of this study.

Similar to other studies in this field, the present work is not free from limitations. Some of them are as follows:

1. There was a limitation in including the female learners. Therefore, the sample of this study cannot provide an accurate representation of both genders.
2. The study was limited to measure the effect of reflective and language learning strategies on only oral and not written communication skills.
3. No attempt was made to determine if any of the participants had training in debriefing, questioning, recombining, and using formula and patterns as reflective and language learning strategies.
4. Small size of the sample (75 participants) may decrease generalization of finding to larger populations.
5. Another limitation faced by the researcher was time constraint. Therefore, the delayed effect of the treatment could not be measured.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

The subsequent recommendations are presented hoping that other researchers would find them interesting enough to pursue in the future.

1. It is suggested to replicate this study with female learners.
2. Doing other studies to examine effects of other reflective learning strategies like trial and error, observational learning, and fundamental problem solving is highly recommended.
3. Further research is recommended to investigate the impacts of context on reflective learning. An in- depth study can investigate the differences between language learners at universities, and schools to see what features of learning culture and curriculum might be influential in these differences.
4. A qualitative method which provides comparing data from multiple sources such as interviews with students and teachers and course documentation, would enable extensiveness of data collection.

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**THE EFFICIENCY OF MEASURING RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY IN ASSESSING ENGLISH
LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY REQUIREMENTS OF GEORGIAN PILOTS AND AIR TRAFFIC
CONTROLLERS**

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Abstract

Reliability and validity are two important indicators of a useful test. Reliability is defined as a consistency and stability of the scores. As for validity, it refers to accuracy of the test score interpretation. Reliability and validity with respect to proficiency testing in aviation needs external reassurance, since outcomes of testing impact world in terms of career and safety, micro and macro levels respectively. It is important to ensure that a reliable and valid test is chosen for aviation test population, namely, pilots and air traffic controllers, therefore inherent relation between reliability and validity provides necessary information pertains to efficiency of proficiency testing. Educators have to identify the source of measurement errors and minimize their impact on the obtained scores. A proficiency test should be free from measurement errors and measure what it is supposed to evaluate. The research will consider the proficiency testing style in Georgia including testing population and as a result will estimate efficiency of reliability and validity in assessing English Language Proficiency Requirements of Georgian pilots and air traffic controllers in order to eliminate sources of measurement errors.

Keywords: assessment, reliability, validity, pilots, air traffic controllers, aviation English

Introduction to Assessing English for Specific Purposes

Nowadays the role of successful communication in multicultural environment had gained its power. The rapid development of science, the growth of trade and business relations contributed to the development of English for specific purposes (ESP) within the frame of world Englishes. ESP was deemed as a combination of disciplines like English for science, engineering, technologies, etc. (Bhatia & Bhatia, 2011). ESP is focused on learners' needs and evaluates language skills of examinees in a real life- resembling situations. Within this context, relevant and appropriate assessment system should be provided (Ellis & Johnson, 1994).

Assessment originates from that time when researchers came up with the main design of language assessment namely four skills of reading, speaking, listening and writing. Each of them was evaluated separately and scores were represented accordingly (Purpura, 2008). Educators differentiated two types of modes of communication: reading and listening in terms of receptive ability, and writing and speaking as productive skills of examinees (Cumming, 2008). The main concern in terms of improving evaluation tools is to get better results, so educators decided to unify assessment of literacy and oracy with regard to performance, task-based and alternative forms of assessment. Thus, performance-based assessment is a tool of assessment that evaluates productive skills of examinees' in a real-life context. As Wigglesworth (2008) claims, performance test is "a test in which the ability of candidates to perform particular tasks, usually associated with job or study requirements, is assessed" (p. 110). If a performance-based assessment is intended to measure large academic skills of test takers, if the results of the assessment affect the micro and macro levels of the society in case of high stakes (Bachman & Palmer, 1996), then performance-based assessment is considered to be specific (Wigglesworth, 2008). Dan Douglas (2000) discusses this issue within the context of assessing English for specific purposes and adds: "Testing language for specific purposes (LSP) refers to that branch of language testing in which the test content and test methods are derived from an analysis of a specific language use situation" (p. 1).

To evaluate the language skills' performance ability in the specific field, task should be authentic, provide interaction between language and content knowledge and overall be based on needs analysis of the target language situation. A language test will be oriented on specific purposes only if the sampling of it allows test users to make generalizations about language use in specific situations (Wigglesworth, 2008). A "specific purpose language test is one in which test content and methods are derived from an analysis of a specific purpose target language use situation, so that test tasks and content are authentically representative of tasks in the target situation" (Douglas, 2000).

However, assessment should represent how content domain and tasks are linked, to point out factors that may affect the quality of the test through reliability and validity. Test development is linked to its quality measured by two essential components of measurement: reliability and validity (Bachman & Palmer, 1996).

Reliability, Sources of Measurement Errors and the Ways to Estimate Reliability

Reliability in the context of measurement refers to "consistency or stability of assessment results" (Reynolds, Livingston, & Willson, 2009, p. 91) pertained to the process rather than the tests. The factors that may affect reliability of assessment vary between external and internal elements, therefore, they vary amongst individuals as well (Bachman, 1990).

Remarkably various types of theories were developed to underline measurement issues, but the dominant one is the so-called classical test theory otherwise called true score theory (CTS). The following formulation was provided for it:

$$X_i = T + E$$

where X_j is score obtained through T - true score of a test taker and E - designating an error (Brennan, 2011). Content sampling (the same as Domain sampling error) and time sampling errors are discussed as major sources of errors. If the items on a test represent an example of a good sample of the domain, the amount of measurement error due to content sampling will be significantly small and vice versa. Time sampling errors comprise various external and internal factors including anything that may affect a test user: concentration, noise, light, time and environment. It is notable that external factors overlap physical and mental conditions of a person deemed as a part of internal factors (Bachman, 1990). Besides the above-mentioned sources of measurement errors exist the so-called clerical errors, errors that may take place while adding up the scores and errors related to inter-rater differences, when scores rely on subjectivity (Pipia, 2014).

Reliability combines a broad set of reliability coefficients: test-retest reliability; alternate-form reliability and inter-rater reliability. Test-retest reliability is when one form of the test is developed for the same group but for different occasions, reliability coefficient is derived from the results' correlation. It "provides an estimate of the stability of the test scores over time" (Reynolds, Livingston, & Willson, 2009, p. 97). A basic issue that plays a vital role in calculation and evaluation of test-retest reliability is time interval between the tests. There is no evidence of "best" time interval but we have to consider that if the time between the tests is too short test-retest reliability is vulnerable to the memory and practice effects, if vice versa, then test-retest reliability estimation may be declined by both internal changes of test users and inconsistency of the scores (Pipia, 2014).

Alternate-form reliability represents parallel test forms developed for the same group. It might be vulnerable either to the content or time sampling errors. When it is sensitive to content sampling, there are two forms of the test for one session (simultaneous administration), and when alternate-form reliability is biased to content and time between two sessions. In both cases reliability coefficient is derived from the scores of two assessments (Bachman, 1990).

Major concerns in terms of inter-rater reliability is about subjective judgment rather than time or domain sampling error. In this case only one test is administered and it is rated by two raters. The correlation of scores provided by raters enables to estimate the reliability (Reynolds, Livingston, & Willson, 2009).

Reliability is a characteristic of a test result in appropriate assessment and at the same time a necessary condition for validity of the tests. However, there is no guarantee that a reliable test would be valid and vice versa. Anyway, as soon as reliable test development will be accomplished, validity of scores interpretation is required (Bachman, 1990).

Unitary Concept of Validity and Major Threats to Validity

Messik (1986) defines that validity as a tool of measuring quality of the tests is considered to be a unitary concept, since its "meaningfulness and usefulness of score-based inference are inseparable and that the unifying force is empirically-grounded construct interpretation" (p. 4). All measurements should be construct-referenced, since it supports "all score-based inference" (p. 4). What is more, content and construct-related evidence is inseparable part of validity and inference

between them should be based on scores. Accordingly if there is no evidence by means of score it is useless to speak about validity appropriateness and meaningfulness.

Many scholars worked on and identified main threats to validity namely construct underrepresentation and construct irrelevant. First one take place if the test does not measure what it used to measure and the second one occur if a test includes items that are not related to content, skills that should be measured. (Bachman, 1990).

When we are speaking about validity we have to consider that key factor is to have a context and appropriate interpretation of it. If multiple ways are used for scores interpretation each of them must be evaluated (Messik, 1986).

Reliability and validity are complex characteristics of the test, not only in terms of general English language testing, but with respect to testing language proficiency requirements. Test developers have to take into consideration language proficiency requirements and interest of target population to match content sampling to job-related context (Douglas, 2001).

Aviation English Language Proficiency Requirements for Pilots and Air Traffic Controllers

Within the context of content domain aviation English represents a very specific part of ESP. The factors that made Aviation English a concern of worldwide educational authorities was contributed by aviation incidents and accidents (Alderson, 2011). These events lead International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) to the conclusion to set language requirements for pilots and air traffic controllers (ATCO) involved in Radio Telephony (RT) Communication in the air and on the ground as well (Doc 9835).

RT communication that takes place between pilots and air traffic controllers represents "standard phraseology at the core, and operational exchanges in plain English when phraseology is inadequate" (p. 169). It is used to direct, inform, question and control pilots (Alderson, 2009).

Language proficiency requirements administered by ICAO are equal for native and non-native speakers. According to the requirements, "proficient speakers shall: "a) Communicate effectively in voice-only (telephone/radiotelephone) and in face-to-face situations"; "b) Communicate on common, concrete and work-related topics with accuracy and clarity"; and "c) Use appropriate communicative strategies to exchange messages and to recognize and resolve misunderstandings (e.g. to check, confirm, or clarify information) in a general or work-related context" (Cir 323, 2009, p. 4-5).

Both participants of RT communication have to demonstrate clear usage of general English language and phraseology when it is needed.

Evaluation criteria for language proficiency requirements comprise six dimensions across the use of language: pronunciation, structure, vocabulary, fluency, comprehension and interaction and six levels, starting with Non-Operational Levels 1 -3, Operational Level-4, Extended Level-5 and Level 6 referred as an Expert Level (Annex1, 2011).

The minimum requirement for licensing is obtaining Operational Level 4 for both pilots and ATCOs. What is more, if a test user performs better in one feature rather than in another, the overall score is assigned according to the lowest level obtained. An individual must demonstrate proficiency at Level 4 in all categories in order to receive a Level 4. Thus, who is not able to obtain straight away operational level 6, License for Life, have to retake the test to validate his/ her proficiency once every three years for obtaining Operational Level 4 and every six years in case of achieving Level 5. (Prinzo & Thompson, 2009).

However, six criteria through which the candidates are assessed underline the main aspects with respect to proficiency requirements. In terms of pronunciation focus is made on pronunciation, stress, rhythm and intonation; with respect to structure – grammar, sentence patterns, either global – meaning errors or local errors are underlined; vocabulary is discussed by means of style, tone lexical choice which correspond to context; fluency covers naturalness of speech production, elimination of inappropriate hesitations, fillers, pauses that may distract while rate a candidate and as for interaction it is vulnerable to verbal and non-verbal cues and appropriateness of responses. The crown of the criteria comprehension is complex and points out that to deal with it you as a pilot or ATCO need to get the point of the various contexts, understand each detail appropriately and cope with unexpected and routine situations accurately (Doc 9835, 2004).

Thus, requirements are not only towards pilots and ATCOs, but also its main concern is with respect to proficiency test. Aviation English that deems a really high coefficient of reliability and validity is caused by high stakes (Prinzo et al., 2010). Pilots and ATCOs are deemed to be high stakes, since the use of language, testing and results affects their career and safety, micro and macro levels respectively. Tests for high stakes like pilots and ATCOs must depict appropriateness and effectiveness with respect to reliability and validity measured through 4 criteria: 1. the test must be of speaking and listening, 2. the context of both speaking and comprehension must be relevant to aviation, 3. ICAO Rating Scale must be used as a basis of assessment, and lastly 4.a broad scope of language must be used, not only aviation English. Moreover, in the test preparation pilots and ATCOs as subject matter experts (SMEs) and language matter experts (LME) should be involved to ensure the technical accuracy of the tests, on the one hand, and language requirements, on the other hand. As ICAO Doc 9835 states, “direct, communicative proficiency test of speaking and listening are appropriate assessment tools for the aviation industry and will allow organization to determine whether flight crews and air traffic controllers are able to meet the ICAO language proficiency Standards” (Doc 9835, 2004, p. xii).

Conclusion

To sum up, it is obvious that aviation English represents very specific sub unit of English for specific purposes with respect to teaching and assessment as well. Navigation service providers, airlines, regulators and language specialists have to take into consideration specific features of the field, consider proficiency testing style, on the one hand and they should work together, communicate and negotiate appropriate system of teaching and assessment, on the other hand. That will result

in estimation of efficiency of reliability and validity in assessing English language proficiency requirements and elimination of sources of measurement errors.

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THE CONCEPT OF TIME IN SAMUEL BECKETT'S "WAITING FOR GODOT"

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Abstract

Fletcher and Fletcher in their book "A Student's guide to the Samuel Beckett's Plays" note that for the author like Beckett time is a much more complicated phenomenon than character and structure. In his dramatic works time turns out to be a strong formal and stylistic instrument to manipulate with and convey the meaning as well. The article aims at realizing the function of time in the most resonant play by Samuel Beckett "Waiting for Godot" from the perspective of characters - how they perceive it as present, past and future. At the same time the paper tries to deal with analysis of the concept of time as part of objective reality - the way it is presented in the play. Finally, the article summarizes the role of time as stylistic and formal device to indicate certain contents.

Keywords: time, instrument, absurdity, futility.

Introduction

Samuel Beckett, one of the noteworthy writers of the XX century, though starting his career as a poet and novelist (appeared with his poem "Horoscope" in 1930), mostly became well-known as a dramatist due to establishing new dramatic forms and transforming philosophical backgrounds for the stage performance. As a dramatist, Beckett belongs to the Drama of Absurd. Out of his dramatic pieces "Waiting for Godot" is the most resonant play ever. It echoes the most acute problems of human existence - absurdity of life, failure, pessimism and alienation. In his plays Beckett incorporates a number of techniques allowing his new dramatic forms to convey the meanings of absurdity, futility, alienation, confusion, etc. In this sense, the phenomenon of time serves to be a strong and constructive tool used by the author to achieve the targeted goals of representation. Beryl and John Fletcher (Fletcher & Fletcher, 1978) claim that for the author like Beckett time is a much more complicated phenomenon than character and structure and in dramatist's hand it becomes an object to manipulate with. In his dramatic works time turns out to be a strong formal and stylistic feature to manipulate with and convey the meaning as well. This is definitely true about the play "Waiting for Godot" where time functions as essentially important structural element for shaping contents, character and décor.

The concept of time can be analyzed from three different perspectives: 1. Time as part of objective reality. 2. Time as formal and stylistic means of representation. 3. Characters' attitude towards time, i.e. their perception of the past, present and future.

Time as Part of Objective Reality

Concerning the first parameter - time as part of objective reality, the only symbolic element denoting real time and place in the play is a tree. It is to be mentioned that the tree has no leaves in the act I while in act II it already has two-three leaves. This highlights the function of the tree as a symbol orienting the audience of the performance that time has passed. The protagonists themselves, Vladimir and Estragon, are deprived to perceive the reality in its any sense, in terms of time or place as well. Consequently, they do not recognize what kind of plant the tree is - whether it is a willow, a bush or something else. They even are not sure whether the place by the tree and time they are waiting for Godot is the right place and time to wait. This dialogue from the play demonstrates their vagueness and confusion about the tree, the only denoting element of time and place:

"Estragon: That we were to wait.

Vladimir: He said by the tree. (They look at the tree.) Do you see any others?

Estragon: What is it?

Vladimir: I don't know. A willow.

Estragon: Where are the leaves?

Vladimir: .It must be dead.

Estragon: No more weeping.

Vladimir: Or perhaps it's not the season.

Estragon: Looks to me more like a bush." (Beckett, 2006: 15-16)

How can the leaves of the tree be explained? Beckett makes us realize and notice, though nothing is happening in the play, that time has passed and so brings us back to reality that it never stops unlike the situation in the play where the "time has stopped".

Regarding objective time in the play, Richard Schechner's opinion is worth discussing. He believes that lack of development and lack of set of actions provide the feeling of permanent present being achieved by pairing of characters which he calls "discontinuous co-ordinates" applied to break the traditional common view on time, space, reality and existence (Schechner, 1966, p. 268).

Time as Contextual and Structural Instrument

As for the second parameter, time is considered essential structural and stylistic instrument to convey the main highlights of the play. In "Waiting for Godot" time is merged with the contextual framework of waiting which, according to Malekin and Yarrow (1997), is "the ever-repeated moment which precedes beginning. The moment in which beginning is possible" (p.139). The main leitmotif of the play accompanying the whole setting is waiting - Vladimir and Estragon just do nothing but wait for Godot whose identity is thoroughly mystified. Though this waiting is futile as Godot never comes, it can still be associated with optimism as the protagonists believe that they will be saved from hell if Godot turns up. Nevertheless, what we see throughout the whole play the result of waiting is nothing.

Regarding the issue of nothingness in the play, Martin Esslin in his book entitled "The Theatre of Absurd" comments: "Nothing happens, nobody comes, nobody goes, it's awful." (Esslin, 1961, p.13). Accordingly, it can be highlighted that time is contextually and stylistically linked with waiting and inactivity. As really nothing happens in the play, the final results of ceaseless time are just failure and futility. The first British director of the play Peter Hall suggests that exactly this dramatic use of sadness used by Beckett creates tension thus making the play interesting and affecting (Fletcher & Fletcher, 1985, p. 59).

Objectively, one of the characteristics of time as part of reality is its constant flowing, but here in "Waiting for Godot", as characters are alienated from time, it is frozen, it has stopped as nothing happens in the play. Beckett himself notes that changeability is only an illusion as "the tears of the world are of a constant quantity. For each one who begins to weep, somewhere else another stops. The same is true of the laugh" (Beckett, 1959: 32). This reveals the absurd nature of reality and human existence. As life's emptiness of real meaning is a general concern depicted in Samuel Beckett's drama as well as common characteristic of Drama of Absurd, in "Waiting for Godot" the phenomenon of time is the embodiment of these highlights. At the same time, the inactivity and absolute passivity of protagonists revealing the absurd nature of time, formally and stylistically it shapes the demonstration of alienation from God and the totality of human alienation. Characters are alienated from time and this is visible in their indifferent attitude towards it. The only function of time for them is just to pass it. Ridiculously, Vladimir and Estragon remind each other Biblical episodes in order to pass the time:

Vladimir: Did you remember the Gospels?

... the two thieves. Do you remember the story?

Estragon: No.

Vladimir: Shall I tell it to you?

Estragon: No.

Vladimir: It'll pass the time. Two thieves, crucified at the same time as our Savior.

(Beckett, 2006, p.13-14).

Time with Beckett is the constituent part of the play where every step or action serves the depiction of alienated condition of the mankind. According to Martin Esslin, in the world deprived of meaning which has lost its fundamental orientations, dialogues as well as each action becomes a play just to pass the time (Esslin, 1968, p. 86). The above-quoted dialogue shows how Vladimir and Estragon pass the time even when they speak about the Bible. Another transparent example of Vladimir and Estragon occupied with passing the time is the constant repetition of Estragon's taking off his boots throughout the play. This as well symbolizes the futility of their existence.

It should be noted that the concept of time as the embodiment of contextual frame merged with the idea of waiting, the main characters, Vladimir and Estragon, are involved in. This waiting itself is an absolute illusion of certain activity as protagonists, in fact, do nothing being completely sunk in inactivity and passivity.

Perception of Time

Another perspective of the article is to analyze the perception of time by characters. The first thing to be underlined here is its vagueness and inadequacy. The characters are deprived of the capability to perceive the time as well as place and reality. This is conditioned by the breakdown of their memory – this being a general characteristic of absurdist plays. For instance, Vladimir and Estragon do not remember Pozzo when he comes to them for the second time. Their perception of time is vague: Vladimir and Estragon are confused about the days of the week. This is mostly true about Estragon who asks a question like "But what Saturday? And is it Saturday? Is it not rather Sunday? (Pause.) Or Monday? Or Friday?" (Beckett 2006, p. 16- 17). They as well argue whether they are at the right place and time where and when they are to wait for Godot. The inadequate perception of time is visible in the case when Vladimir at the beginning of the Act II says that he has been there for an hour and has not seen Lucky's hat so far. According to Fletcher and Fletcher, Beckett here uses ancient dramatic technique which shows that more time has passed than it is shown on the stage. In this case the time scale is more theatrical than real (Fletcher & Fletcher 1985, p. 59). It turns out that characters' perception of time is inadequate: they are unable to perceive the real time.

Concerning the conceptual perception of time, in terms of the present, it is associated with confusion, passing the time and not feeling the flow of time and changeability due to time being frozen and absence of changeability. The main thing to be mentioned is that time does not change in the play. That is why Vladimir and Estragon often use phrases like: "Time has stopped"; "We're in no hurry"; "It'll pass the time"; "Don't let's do anything, it's safer" (Beckett 2006).

As for the past, nothing is known about Vladimir and Estragon's past. They even do not remember their nearest past - they do not remember what they did yesterday, so the question "What did we do yesterday?" is a frequent question they ask each other. Vladimir and Estragon think that the boy who acts as a kind of go-between between them and Mr. Godot was with them yesterday though he says 'no':

"Vladimir: It wasn't you came yesterday?"

Boy: No Sir." (Beckett 2006: 49).

And the future, one more dimension of time, in "Waiting for Godot" is connected with the idea of survival. Therefore, it can be said that it is much more optimistic than the past. As the boy says that "Godot will come definitely tomorrow", the perception of tomorrow is positive. Vladimir even mentions to Estragon "Tomorrow everything will be better" (Beckett, 2006, p. 22). Estragon himself notes that if Godot comes, they will be saved: "And if he comes? Vladimir: We'll be saved" (Beckett, 2006, p. 88). Their desire for Godot to come is so strong that they take Pozzo for Godot when he appears for the second time. Thinking that Godot has finally come, they are incredibly happy: "We are no longer alone, waiting for the night, waiting for Godot, waiting for... waiting. All evening we have struggled, unassisted. Now it's over. It's already tomorrow" (Beckett, 2006, p. 72). These words of Vladimir reveal how strongly they associate the future with the end of waiting and beginning of a new day. Therefore, it could be concluded that in protagonists' consciousness, the future is more or less associated with optimistic and hopeful feelings.

Conclusion

In conclusion, one of the noteworthy aspects to be stressed is that time, besides representing structural-stylistic element of the play "Waiting for Godot", has a role of shaping the contents as well. In terms of contents, as instrument in the hands of the author, time here demonstrates nothingness and emptiness of human life thus denoting the total absurdity of existence. To show this, time is frozen. Besides, time, together with place, is a constituent of objective reality from which characters are alienated, as they are unable to perceive the time adequately. As structural and stylistic phenomenon, time is symbolically merged with waiting and passivity, serving to accentuate the main problems depicted in the play.

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METHODS OF TEACHING US POLITICS TO UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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Abstract

The paper deals with the various instructional methods applied by the author when teaching the US politics to senior students at the University. To teach Georgian students the complexity of the US politics and the policies practiced in the country is an enormous challenge because text-books tell very little about real politics. By analyzing the ways in which the teacher should attempt to generate interest in the political processes and further the students' conceptualization of politics, the author seeks to answer the most complicated problem – how to make the teaching-learning process more meaningful; how to teach students formulate their own questions, or make reasonable judgments and at the same time remain genuinely open to others' views and to the possibility of changing their own. The workshop conducted within the framework of the conference by the author aims to demonstrate an original combination of innovative pedagogical approaches to guarantee high level of students' involvement in the political instruction class. Simulation of US presidential elections and role-playing presented during the workshop prove the effectiveness of the method, engaging the students in lessons about the electoral process and responsibilities of a citizen of a democratic country. Turning the theoretical knowledge into action in class makes it more perceptible, meaningful and appealing.

Keywords: workshop plan, teaching methodology, US politics course, Internet Forum, social and emotional learning, Developmental learning approach, Internet Forum, students' blog, meaning-focused communicative tasks, visual aids, role play, debating skills, optimal learning potential.

Why is it important to involve students in learning Politics?

Since Georgia became a democratic country, the prominence and pervasiveness of the US politics and policies has grown dramatically; however, the role of citizens in maintaining democracy is still not well understood by the majority. The lecturer faces particular difficulties when teaching the academic course *The US Politics* (delivered in English) to Georgian students which is affected by students' alienation from political processes in America, lack of information and personal experience, cultural differences, and language barrier. The primary goal for a teacher is to raise the students' sharp interest towards political processes taking place in America, the country many of them have never been to. The students have to build a broad understanding around the ongoing political processes; also they should be convinced how important the

knowledge of American Constitution and politics is in order to assess political processes going on in their own country. The 'American Politics' course aims to teach how to become a meaningful member of civil society. A method of comparison often applied in the Politics class conveys the complexity of politics while highlighting the similarities and differences between the politics and development of democratic processes in Georgia and the US. From this point of view, the academic course is a unique opportunity to develop the students' political understanding which will hopefully prepare the students for Citizenship in a democratic country; also help them to overcome specific difficulties of alienation and isolation, and motivate the students to demonstrate their interest to new topics in the US politics, raise awareness around political issues, develop debate and critical thinking skills.

"The aim of education should be to teach the child to think, not what to think; All those affected by social institutions must have a share in producing and managing them, that means, among other things, teacher and student participation in determining what is worth thinking about –politics". (John Dewey, cited in Shapiro, 2012)

Teaching methods and approaches

Various approaches and methods should be used while teaching a Politics class. It is essential that university lecturer should stop spoon-feeding, and teach students how to learn and reason (Morris, 2017).

Developmental learning approach is a leading method class, and its aim is to raise students' interest towards politics, teach the students how to become a politically active person, and to be engaged in a permanent process of inquiring, probing and analyzing the current political issues. A project-based learning often incorporated in the class deepens the students' interest and inspires them to carry out independent study applying research methods practiced in political sciences.

The sources and additional literature should be extensively discussed in history and politics classes, it is important to teach students how to choose and critically evaluate relevant political literature, secondary and primary sources: books, documents, and media information.

When teaching politics, it is important to consider the role of **social and emotional learning** that could be achieved with the help of role play, simulation and also by imitating social media: students develop an **Internet Forum**, a blog where students express their own opinion about relevant political issues (Cousins, 1984). Internet Forum is one of the most recent innovations. A student is added to the Forum and chooses the topic he/she wants to discuss. The forum works in on-line regime and quick responses the students make through internet are an imitation of live debates, but in this case they overcome the shyness and become more assertive and even the least active students become active in a virtual space. They try to enhance their knowledge and refine the strategy of role-playing characters with different political beliefs to win the debates.

Delivering a lecture on the topic has always been professors' primary method of teaching, however, it is important to offer it in different forms. For example, after a brief introduction to the topic - presenting main differences between conservatism and liberalism; (topic: *"Two ideologies: liberalism and conservatism"*), professor asks students to express their opinion and define which of the two ideologies they side with. The lecturer continues to discuss in-depth the existing theories, important facts, and different attitudes regarding the ideologies and two major political parties: Republican and Democratic. Then students are asked again to stipulate their opinions around particular issues discussed in class. Many students who has considered themselves as "liberal democrats" find out that they are firm supporters of traditions, religious education and family values, disagree with tax reduction and gay marriages. On the other hand, students who first supported the Democratic Party; later, after they have discussed separate issues, change their minds and vote for (by raising their red and/or blue color cards) stability, limited government, encouraged individual excellence and personal achievement, greater levels of "law" and "order". The lecturer again changes his/her role to a facilitator, uses charts, figures and diagrams, to show the students how individuals could have liberal views on certain issues, yet think conservatively on other issues. Very few Americans saw themselves on either extreme end of the political spectrum. The visual aid also clarified for students the distinction between political ideologies and political parties.

So, the students' knowledge is built with the help of question- answers and debates. The so-called Socrates method is very effective in politics class as the students' involvement by asking questions help them to formulate their opinion. Nevertheless, a lecturer who acts as a mediator has a leading role in this process. Once the students are involved in **meaning-focused communicative tasks**, they are focused on the content, not on the form of expression; they use various grammar structures (often wrong ones, but teacher does not intervene) and mix languages, but the desire to imitate real communication helps them to learn communicative language fairly easily (Harmer, 2015).

The questions professor asks during the lecture can be grouped **according to their function** into the following types:

- A. General questions - checking the students' awareness of topic (mostly factual questions);
- B. Opinion questions - sharing the students' individual experience;
- C. Leading questions - directing the students' mindset;
- D. Judgmental questions – offering two opposing positions; and
- E. Summarizing questions.

Each of the above-listed types of questions aims to achieve different goals set out by professor. It is also advisable to display the question and then show the correct answer on the slide show. E.g. *"How are the voters persuaded to vote for this or that candidate?* The possible answers appear after students answer the questions, e.g. *media campaigns, ads, slogans, meetings, party program, interviews with the leaders, debates, etc.*)

Visual aids: displaying the political maps which show “Red and Blue” states help students figure out real political situation. Students compare the maps from the past three elections: Obama (in 2008 and 2012) and Trump (in 2016) which is followed by the discussion on why some of the states which used to support the Democrats, voted for the Republican candidate in the 2016 elections. Students analyze the reasons for the changes which occurred in the recent elections.

One of the activities popular among students is **role play**: one student plays the role of *CNN interviewer* and two students of *Hillary* and *Trump* who answer the questions. Video shows a fragment from an interview which is pre-viewed by students and some of the questions are repeated in class (Web site sponsored by CNN <http://www.cnn.com/ELECTION/2016>).

In another case, the class listens to the final addresses of the two candidates - Hillary Clinton and Donald Trump - and discusses the strong, as well as weak points of each candidate’s speech.

One of the most difficult goals to achieve is to teach students how to present arguments and face the political opponent. A test can be offered in class which depicts two sets of arguments and the students are asked to arrange them

Argument v. Counter Argument.

For Example: Democrats’ counter argument regarding tax policy:

Republican candidate: *An overabundance of regulations has forced factories and jobs overseas, hurting the economy—especially for the working class.*

Democrat candidate: *“What’s really hurting the economy is how wealthy Americans and big companies are not paying their fair share of taxes, I stand firmly by Bernie Sanders, who says there is ‘something profoundly wrong in America when one out of five profitable corporations pays nothing in federal income tax.”*

The next topic could be a debate between the two candidates - Trump v Hillary - on immigration issues which conveys the complexity of politics. This class activity could be also prepared at home by the students and presented in class.

Display of the famous and less **famous quotes** of the political leaders always attract the students’ attention and they are willing to memorize them. The teacher may ask the students to guess to who the quotation might belong to, which appear to be a very engaging activity. This type of test can be presented as multiple choice questions offering a few alternatives (e.g., Government welfare is one of the greatest evils of the century. These words belong to: a... b.... c....). The quotes can be found on (<http://d3i6fh83elv35t.cloudfront.net/newshour/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/Screen-Shot-2016-04-15-at-8.17.40-AM.png>)

Teaching **political terminology** is the basics for the present academic course. The teacher should first teach and then check the students' knowledge applying a test which asks the students to match the given political terms with their definitions, e.g. 1. *Nomination*; 2. *Campaign strategy*; 3. *National party convention*:

- a) *Political party's official endorsement of a candidate for office. Generally, success in the nomination game requires momentum, money, and media attention.*
- b) *The supreme power within each of the parties. The convention meets every four years to nominate the party's presidential and vice-presidential candidates and to write the party's platform.*
- c) *elections in which voters in a state vote for a candidate. Most delegates to the national party conventions are chosen this way.)*
- d) *the master game plan candidates lay out to guide their electoral campaign.*

One of the important methods applied during the teaching process is the **comparative method**. The students are asked to compare political systems and policies carried out in two countries - in Georgia and in the USA. For example, questions like this are asked: *Who fails to vote and why in the US? Is low voter turnout a serious problem in a democracy? If so, what can be done about it?*

The students are asked to write an essay on one of the following topics: 1) *Describe voting behavior in your country and compare it with that in the US.* 2) *The reasons for non- voting in Georgia and in the U.S., and how to overcome it.* 3) *Electoral patterns in the US and in Georgia (comparative studies).*

It is also advisable to ask the students **take an online quiz** (<http://www.wqad.com/Global/link.asp?L=259460>) that requires from students to give their opinions on ten political issues and rank each issue on a five-point Likert scale according to its perceived importance to each student. Many other useful quizzes can be found on the internet, but the lecturer should try to check the knowledge acquired by students within the framework of the course specified in the course syllabus which should be tailored to the students' level considering their cultural biases and the study course demands.

Time management

Time management is the most important aspect to consider when conducting lectures/seminars. When planning the lecture/seminar, a lecturer should consider how much time is needed for each projected activity and follow the plan. Also, it is important to stay neutral and split time evenly between the two debating sides to give each group of students about equal time portraying different political persons.

Assessment of psychological aspect of the activities

It is widely acknowledged that negative feelings such as anxiety, fear, stress, disappointment and depression may cause a decrease of the students' optimal learning potential. When students are relaxed, feeling positive and unthreatened, they are exposed to acquisition of new information far more effectively (Harmer, 2015, p.58). The psychologist Carl Rogers suggests that learners need to feel that what they are learning is personally relevant to them. They have to experience learning (rather than just being taught), and that enhancement of their self-image is a part of the process (Harmer, 2015, p.58).

Conclusions

The results of applying the above-described methods when teaching Politics class showed that the students were emotionally involved in the learning process, encouraged by positive and creative environment in class.

The method of comparing political systems and policies in the US and Georgia also increases their self-esteem, and comprehension of the usefulness of the knowledge they acquire. Real-life talks help them to become active participants of the political and social processes going on in their country, to get involved and make a career.

As an active proponent of humanistic teaching, I try to reveal students' optimal learning potential in a comfortable environment. The students always show readiness to artful performance, playful activities, role-switching, humor and variations in pitch among other things. When properly designed, they could be extremely useful for student speech development which is the key to success.

The students witnessed the effectiveness of using an original innovative methodology offered for the enhancement of teaching-learning process in Politics class. With the help of the methods demonstrated during the workshop, the students learn how to formulate their own questions, how to pursue and weigh answers, recognize biases, make reasonable judgments, and, at the same time, remain genuinely open to others' views and to the possibility of changing their own. The application of the above-described methods develop necessary skills in students for presenting and critical evaluation of a variety of political viewpoints, and in a long term, hopefully help them to become active citizens of a democratic country.

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LIFELONG LEARNING AND GEORGIA

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Abstract

21st century is an era of major changes for the whole world, including Georgia. Our goal is to build a country which shares common aims with Europe. Among these aims is to develop Lifelong Learning skills in students. It enhances not only social inclusion, active citizenship, and personal development, but also self-sustainability, as well as competitiveness and employability. Lifelong Learning (LLL) involves home schooling, adult and continuing education, on-the-job learning and self-directed learning.

Keywords: Lifelong Learning, self-sustainability, competitiveness, employability

21st century is an era of major changes for Georgia. Our goal is to build a country which shares common aims with Europe. It moves us to the opportunity to develop our potential for the full contribution to the society adjustment to the rapid changes.

1. Lifelong Learning
2. Knowledge Society
3. Human Capital

(Commission of the European Communities, 2001).

These are three important Key Words for understanding the change of vision into the Political Strategies for the Europe in 21st century; three fundamental Keywords for understanding the strong link between the sectors of Education, Formation, Teaching and Training and the economic and employment sectors.

Where does Georgia stand in this context? How close we are with the European understanding and practical experience of Lifelong Learning, which is very important in the era of globalization, and in the increasing world economic market?

What is the broad understanding of Lifelong Learning (LLL)? It is the ongoing, voluntary, and self-motivated pursuit of knowledge for either personal or professional reasons. Therefore, it enhances not only social inclusion, active citizenship, and personal development, but also self-sustainability, as well as competitiveness and employability.

Evolved from the term "life-long learners", created by Leslie Watkins and used by Professor Clint Taylor (CSULA) in 1993, the term recognizes that learning is not confined to childhood or the classroom but takes place throughout life and in a range of situations (Lifelong Learning, n.d.). Allen Tough (1971), Canadian educator and researcher, asserts that almost 70% of learning projects are self-planned.

During the last fifty years, constant scientific and technological innovation and change has had profound effects on how learning is understood. Learning can no longer be divided into a place and time to acquire knowledge (school) and a place and time to apply the knowledge acquired (the workplace). Instead, learning can be seen as something that takes place on an ongoing basis from our daily interactions with others and with the world around us. It can take the form of formal learning or informal learning, or self-directed learning.

Lifelong learning is being recognized by traditional colleges and universities as valid in addition to degree attainment. Some learning is accomplished in segments or interest categories and can still be valuable to the individual and community. The economic impact of educational institutions at all levels will continue to be significant into the future as formal courses of study continue and interest-based subjects are pursued. The institutions produce educated citizens who buy goods and services in the community and the education facilities and personnel generate economic activity during the operations and institutional activities. Similar to health facilities, educational institutions are among the top employers in many cities and towns of the world. The lifelong learners, including persons with academic or professional credentials, tend to find higher-paying occupations, leaving monetary, cultural, and entrepreneurial impressions on communities, according to educator Cassandra B. Whyte (1989).

There are several established contexts for lifelong learning beyond traditional "brick and mortar" schooling:

- Home schooling - involves learning to learn or the development of informal learning patterns
- Adult education - or the acquisition of formal qualifications or work and leisure skills later in life
- Continuing education - which often describes extension or not-for-credit courses offered by higher education institutions
- Knowledge work - which includes professional development and on-the-job training
- Personal learning environments or self-directed learning - using a range of sources and tools including online applications

Lifelong Learning is defined as "all learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective (Commission of the European Communities, 2001, p. 9). It is often considered as learning that occurs after the formal education years

of childhood (where learning is instructor-driven – pedagogical) and into adulthood (where the learning is individually-driven – and pedagogical). It is sought out naturally through life experiences as the learner seeks to gain knowledge for professional or personal reasons. “Knowledge results from the combination of grasping experience and transforming it” (Kolb, 1984, p. 41). The concept of Lifelong Learning has become of vital importance with the emergence of new technologies that change how we receive and gather information, collaborate with others, and communicate.

As technology rapidly changes, individuals must adapt and learn to meet everyday demands. However, throughout life, an individual’s functional capacities may also change. The employers in particular are recognizing the importance of developing practitioners to be lifelong learners. Nowadays, formal training is only a beginning; knowledge is accumulating at such a fast rate that one must continue to learn to be effective (Williams, 2001). Indeed, most professions mandate that their members continue learning in order to maintain their license to practice (Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007). Having said this, what are the characteristics or skills that a lifelong learner will need to develop? Reflective learning and critical thinking can help a learner to become more self-reliant through learning how to learn, thus making them better able to direct, manage, and control their own learning process (Candy, 1990).

The ‘University of the Third Age’ (U3A) provides an example of the almost spontaneous emergence of autonomous learning groups accessing the expertise of their own members in the pursuit of knowledge and shared experience. No prior qualifications and no subsequent certificates feature in this approach to learning for its own sake and, as participants testify, engagement in this type of learning in later life can indeed ‘prolong active life’.

In Sweden the successful concept of study circles, an idea launched almost a century ago, still represents a large portion of the adult education provision. The concept has since spread, and for instance, is a common practice in Finland as well. A study circle is one of the most democratic forms of a learning environment that has been created. There are no teachers and the group decides on what content will be covered, scope will be used, as well as a delivery method (Larsson & Nordvall, 2010).

Sometimes Lifelong Learning aims to provide educational opportunities outside standard educational systems – which can be cost-prohibitive, if it is available at all. On the other hand, formal administrative units devoted to this discipline exist in a number of universities. For example, the Academy of Lifelong Learning is an administrative unit within the University wide “Professional and Continuing Studies” unit at the University of Delaware (see <http://www.pcs.udel.edu/blog/pcs-department/lifelonglearning>).

In recent years, Lifelong Learning has been adopted in the UK as an umbrella term for post-compulsory education that falls outside of the UK higher education system – further education, community education, work-based learning and similar voluntary, public sector and commercial settings. Most colleges and universities in the United States encourage Lifelong Learning to non-traditional students. Professional licensure and certification courses are also offered at many universities, for instance for teachers, social services providers, and other professionals. Some colleges even enable adults

to earn credit for the college-level learning gained through work, volunteer and other experiences (see <http://www.easternct.edu/ce/cll/>).

Open and distance learning (ODL) is playing a vital role in Lifelong Learning. Bangladesh Open University (BOU) is a great example of that. BOU has 6 schools and is offering 23 formal and 19 non formal programs with a high number of students. Most of the courses of BOU are for Professional development and most of the students are professional people who are getting scope to study in flexible hours. From BOU Profile, Bangladesh Open University is the only public institution in the country that imparts education in distance mode. In place of campus based teaching, this university uses technology including electronic devices to reach people in different corners of the country. The learner in this system is not restricted by time, space or age. A learner can think and learn at his own will, at his own place and at any time whenever he/she feels free to learn (see <http://www.bou.edu.bd/>).

In Canada, the federal government's Lifelong Learning Plan allows Canadian residents to withdraw funds from their Registered Retirement Savings Plan to help pay for Lifelong Learning, but the funds can only be used for formal learning programs at designated educational institutions (Canada Revenue Agency, 2016).

Challenges and Potentials of LLL in Georgia

Where does Georgia stand in the context of Lifelong Learning? The development of LLL in Georgia requires realignment and reform of the educational institutions. In this sense the idea of LLL has consequences for the educational sector as a whole, and three sectors are affected in particular: the sector of higher education (HE), the sector of vocational education and training, and the sector of adult education.

It has not been long since Lifelong Learning gained importance in Georgia and it can be said that Georgia, as well as most likely its neighboring countries, is taking its first steps in this direction. Our aim in stating this opinion is not to undermine the already existing experience of our colleagues and their success in directing non-degree courses, which is a huge step towards giving people an opportunity for professional development or mastering a new profession within university boundaries. Above all, we are discussing the necessity of creating the legal ground, which is essential for courses, trainings and seminars to gain importance in people's university and post-university education (Manual of University Lifelong Learning, 2016). "National Qualifications Framework" will result in implementation of University Lifelong Learning, which is supported by the European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning. This system contains eight steps and covers general, professional and higher education. This will also make the recognition of education attained in Georgia easier on an international level, which makes up a large part of educational reform. The event will be attended by representatives of international organizations, as well as the directors of institutions providing general, professional and higher education. An important obstacle in implementation of this system is determining the credits for courses held by university centers and legislative regulations of their recognition or rejection by university

curriculum all throughout life. This was a short discussion concerning this significant topic, which in our opinion is the most pressing issue for Georgia, if not the entire region. Today, when we look deeper into this problem, it can be said that it is necessary for a legislative base to be created, which would clearly determine the statuses, which can be awarded by Lifelong Learning Centers. In case of existence of relevant syllabuses, such centers should be able to award credits. We think these centers can also play a serious role in the development of professional education. For this to happen, it is necessary that the certificates awarded by such institutions have legal power, which in our opinion means issuing licenses for these centers and recognition of their certificates from the state.

The importance of implementing long-distance teaching should also be mentioned, which is already an accepted practice in developed countries of the 21st century. Long-distance teaching and learning will give people an opportunity to improve their professional knowledge and skills, or even master a new profession to become more competitive in the Georgian labor market without affecting their performance at their current jobs. We consider it to be essential for university centers and potential employers to closely cooperate, which will be beneficial for the employer, as well as for the person seeking his place in the labor market. It is already a widely accepted practice (in Georgia too), when an employer pays for the expenses of trainings necessary for employee in order to attain the needed skills and knowledge. In our opinion, if such cooperation becomes systematic and the employers become involved in this subject from the stage of preparing syllabuses for the courses, their demands will become clearer. Consequently, they will be able to attract more qualified staff better suitable for their work. As we have already mentioned, certain steps towards this direction have already been taken, but there still does not exist a base that will regulate this cooperation.

Governance of University Lifelong Learning (ULLL) structures may vary from one university to another in terms of organization, efficiency and success. Nevertheless, several aspects common to all institutions can be identified. Strategy formulation, implementation and control is the aim of strategic management, through which the mission, vision and the strategic goals of the institution are defined, policies, procedures and plans are developed and implemented to achieve strategic goals, and the needed resources are allocated for the effective implementation of policies, plans, projects or programs. Lifelong Learning is often initially developed as a response to local and regional demands. In the existing organization model of the universities, ULLL requires flexible organizational environment to respond to the needs of the learners. Flexible and transparent learning paths need to be in place for all learners to access and succeed in all different forms of higher education. It is an essential responsibility of universities to ensure that this education offer is always of high quality. For the organization of ULLL universities should imply and combine two aspects of university governance: formal and cultural (informal procedures). Formal aspect of university management assumes flexible operational, financial and methodological approach to the organization and implementation of ULLL. Cultural aspect (informal procedures) of university governance in terms of ULLL assumes more concentration on values and approaches of Lifelong Learning with more collaboration of motivated partners. To ensure the achievement of appropriate learning outcomes and to meet the demands of the learners a learner-centered approach is of utmost importance.

Unfortunately, there still exist social stereotypes in our society to understand the concept of education as something for others, for external representation (on the level of certificates, diplomas or other types of documents). In fact, the very origin of the words how the first and foremost it is the way to create one's own unique image. This way is spread all through the space of lifelong activities for all of us.

At different stages of activities different people face similar tasks: self-preservation and development as a natural creature (life continuation, health producing posterity); realization as social creatures (adaptation and mobility at labor market), cultural (correspondence with cultural development of civilization, modern outlook on the world), spiritually active (existential problems, self-realization, spiritual development).

The circle of topics intended for necessary development during lifelong activities is preconditioned by generality for all the people of:

Age Problems (age crisis, hormonal stages);

Consecutive shift of education situation (kindergarten, school, college, etc.);

Adoption and alternation of similar family roles (children, grandchildren, spouse, parent, etc.);

Existential crises (quest for essence of life);

Typical social and social-psychological or stressful situations (change of work place, moving, migration, death of close relations, retirement, etc.);

Accomplishment of social missions of indicative nature (army service, governmental positions);

In the universe with rapid growth of information everything taught ten or even five years ago becomes obsolete today. Contemporary schoolchildren or students appear to be more informed and advanced in a number of issues than their parents, the more so their grandparents. Adults become unarmed and defenseless against the fact of their incompetence, function as ignorance; in most cases without realizing that it is a natural situation demanding reasonable constant educational movement. However, there are still obstacles here. Learning and self-teaching skills had been developed in the adults in completely different situations. New centuries are accompanied with the changes in the strategies of working with information. The older is an adult, the more difficult it becomes for him/her to get involved into the educational processes in the force of numerous internal barriers formulated for years. The following are the more or less wide spread obstacles: psychological, social-psychological, social and psychological-pedagogical. As long as education becomes one of the means for self-realization in profession or in life generally for adults of all ages, they always want to know why they should learn this material and not other ones. Thereby, unlike children, their notional purposes and motivations of education are far more conscious and are distinguished by clarity and manifestations. The quality of subjectivity can be characteristic to an individual as well as a group of individuals unified with common notional and purposeful strives. Being a social creature, consisting of "other people", individuals can periodically enter communities of

various scales focused on educational activities. With this, the comprehension and educational abilities of each of us undergo considerable alterations. There are different subjects / individuals of “various scales” in the contemporary educational practice, such as: *team (or pair), corporate (collective), frontal, integrative, networking*, etc.

Adults usually give priority to certain forms of education. There are those loving to choose individual routes, sometimes in virtual regime. And on the other hand, there are others willing to learn in the groups of colleagues, having chances to exchange life experience and learning outcomes. There are still others, who prefer frontal methods of education. They feel more comfortable with frontal forms of teaching.

To sum up, assisting adults in educational process, several factors should be taken into consideration at a time: existential problems of people of certain age categories; psychological peculiarities of age considering gender belonging; contextual-notional direction of educational activity (learning, re-learning, raising qualification); content of the previous socio-cultural experience; existing stereotypes of teaching/learning and relations; status (social, economic, office); specificity of individual information requirements and needs; educational demands of time.

Georgian education policy has begun prioritizing Lifelong Learning for improvement of employability, for social action, and for the complete participation in the civil and democratic life. 2016 year was featured for Georgia in this direction, as the Ministry of Education and Sciences started introduction of Lifelong Learning’s strategy in education policy: big funds have been allocated in **vocational education**, and **non-formal education**, and consequently LLL started to be recognized for the agriculture and Information technology fields.

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**DICTATION AS AN EFFICIENT PEDAGOGICAL DEVICE IN TEACHING LISTENING TO EFL
STUDENTS (CASE OF INTERNATIONAL BLACK SEA UNIVERSITY)**

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Abstract

Listening plays an important role not only in daily communication, but also in educational process. It is a fundamental skill in language acquisition. Listening comprehension has long been a “somewhat neglected and poorly taught aspect of English in many EFL programs” (Mendelsohn, 1994, p. 9). In recent decades, communicative approach to language acquisition has paid the utmost attention and focus on teaching listening skills. In order to succeed in communicative learning process it is important for the student to have effective listening skills. Unfortunately, for many reasons, teachers still face some problems in teaching listening effectively and for many students it is still related to some frustration. There are different approaches to teaching listening. Mostly the top-down approach is considered more effective. However, it is worth mentioning that the bottom-up approach also plays an important role in developing listening skills. Recently, dictation as one of the bottom-up approaches and the oldest teaching activities, has been neglected by teachers, claiming that it is old-fashioned, too teacher-centered, boring and uncommunicative. Dictation is not widely used in EFL programs and the purpose of this paper is to re-introduce dictation as an efficient language learning device. It suggests interesting ways of application in teaching listening skills. The article will also discuss on its efficiency among freshmen students of the faculty of Education and Humanities at International Black Sea University.

Keywords: *listening skill, dictation, bottom-up approach, top-down approach, language acquisition*

Introduction

Listening is a complex process considering its double nature. It is a psychological phenomenon taking place on a cognitive level inside people’s heads, and a social phenomenon developing interactively between people and surrounding environment (Bueno, Madrid & McLaren, 2006).

Besides, listening is the basic skill in language acquisition, as it is consistently intervened with the other language skills – speaking, reading, and writing. Listening is the receptive skill which awakens awareness of the language.

According to Nunan (2001), listening is a six-staged process occurring in sequence and rapid flow. It comprises hearing, attending, and understanding, remembering, evaluating and responding. It must be mentioned that there are two effective strategies for developing listening skills for language acquisition. These are: top-down and bottom-up approaches.

The top-down approach focuses on understanding the general meaning of a listening section, not paying attention to words, phonemes, specific structure and so on. Whereas, the bottom-up approach pays attention to specific details that are very important to understand the whole meaning of the listening passage. The bottom-up approach works on the incoming message itself, decoding sounds, words, clauses and sentences.

Teachers may follow different methodology of teaching listening, but what is really important is to develop listening skills during the classes, so that students acquire a foreign language entirely.

Recently, dictation as one of the bottom-up approaches and the oldest teaching activity has been neglected by teachers, claiming that it is old-fashioned, too teacher-centered, boring and uncommunicative. However, it is still considered as an effective technique for developing listening skills.

Why Dictation?

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Using dictation as a teaching and testing device dates back to the 16th century. Some teachers and methodologists consider it as a useless and out-of-date teaching technique.

There are not many researches on dictation in the field of foreign or second language acquisition, but there are studies describing types of dictation and the influence of dictation on language proficiency. However, as a teaching method, dictation lacks empirical grounds.

Yoshida (1978), based on his study which showed statistically significant positive correlations between dictation and the results of listening tests, claims that dictation can be a good teaching device and a good predictor of learners' listening ability.

Dictation as a learning device puts emphasis on understanding letter-sound relationships, discriminating sounds, stress and intonation, identifying key words, understanding the connection between ideas. Moreover, dictation develops language skills in an integrative way by providing pupils with a good opportunity to apply the phonics skills they have learnt to spell new words and facilitates the development of pronunciation skills. With the help of dictation learners can get the immediate feedback on their linguistic performance.

Besides, dictation technique has many other advantages, such as:

- Enhancing short-term memory

- Being psychologically powerful and challenging
- Motivating students and involving the whole class
- Being efficient for pair assessment
- Having a positive effect on classroom management

Although dictation technique has advantages, it might be frustrating for some students. But the frustration can be overcome by choosing appropriate passages and types of dictation while developing listening (and writing) skills.

Effective Dictation Activities

There are different effective dictation activities that can promote the development of students' language skills in foreign language acquisition. Some of them enhance students' phonics skills, some help them to develop vocabulary and consolidate their grammar and vocabulary knowledge, while others can be helpful for improving their note-taking and writing skills.

Phonics dictation helps students consolidate learning letter-sound relationships. It allows them to focus on consonant and vowel sounds and apply their knowledge in listening, spelling and writing.

Instruction: students are required to fill in the target letter sounds as they hear the words in context.

Whistle gap dictation can be used to consolidate students' grammar and vocabulary knowledge.

Instruction: The teacher conducts a dictation and replaces certain words in the dictation text with a whistle. In addition to writing down the words that the teacher has read out, students have to apply their grammar and vocabulary knowledge to fill in the gaps with the suitable words.

To make the dictation more manageable, the left out words can belong to the same part of speech (e.g. nouns, adjectives, prepositions). To make the dictation more complex and challenging, the missing words can belong to different parts of speech.

Music dictation helps students to comprehend key words and phrases that are used in the lyrics. It can be considered an effective note-taking strategy for recording key information and ideas. As the key messages are repeated in the songs and regular sentence structures are used, music dictation promotes understanding of the key words and consolidates the learning of the target language structure.

Instruction: Music dictation requires students' to write down key words or phrases in the lyrics while listening to the songs. Selected lyrics of the songs must be comprehensible. Teachers should consider how much text should be left blank. Before listening some background information about the song can be introduced to students for enhancing the engagement in the activity.

Case Study

Dictation is not widely used in EFL programs and the purpose of this article is to re-introduce dictation as an efficient language learning device and suggest interesting ways of using it in teaching listening skills. The article will also discuss its efficiency among freshmen students of the faculty of Education and Humanities at International Black Sea University.

Problem statement

Dictation, as one of the bottom-up approaches and the oldest teaching activities, has been neglected by teachers, claiming that it is old-fashioned, too teacher-centered, boring and uncommunicative.

The goal of the study

The following study aims to explore the efficiency of the dictation activity as useful pedagogical device in teaching listening in EFL classes.

Hypotheses

Dictation as one of the bottom-up approaches is fun and efficient if the type and passages are chosen carefully.

Findings and analyses

The researcher used the online software package www.surveymonkey.com to make the survey easy to use, and constructed an optional type of questionnaire (consisting of constructed-response and selected-response items). Students were asked to rate their responses to particular questions.

The participants of the mini research were the current sophomore students who practiced the dictation activities for their listening skill development on their freshmen year at International Black Sea University.

During their freshmen year, for two semesters, students were practicing music dictation and gap filling dictation in listening classes. The latest was similar to whistle gap dictation just a little bit modified. Instead of dictating the text by the teacher, students used to listen to the authentic audio material appropriate for their level and taste. They worked in pairs and each pair was given the same worksheet with different missing words. Students were asked to fill in the gaps with the missing words. After completing the task, the pairs exchanged their worksheets and conducted the pair assessment.

Music dictation was mainly used for individual performance as sometimes students prefer to work on their own and complete the task. Moreover, individual task accomplishment is also essential, especially, for developing the listening skill.

Totally 16 responses were returned. Readers can see the questionnaire using the following link: https://www.surveymonkey.com/summary/H46mJX9NHVj302_2B1_2Blchf_2BP7ErL96F7i2e9kb9APYD97AJSN3CaY2c1adcSJ9a4y

Here, the researcher reports the findings relating to each of the questions that were asked.

Proposition 1: In order to succeed in communicative learning process it is important to have effective listening skills.

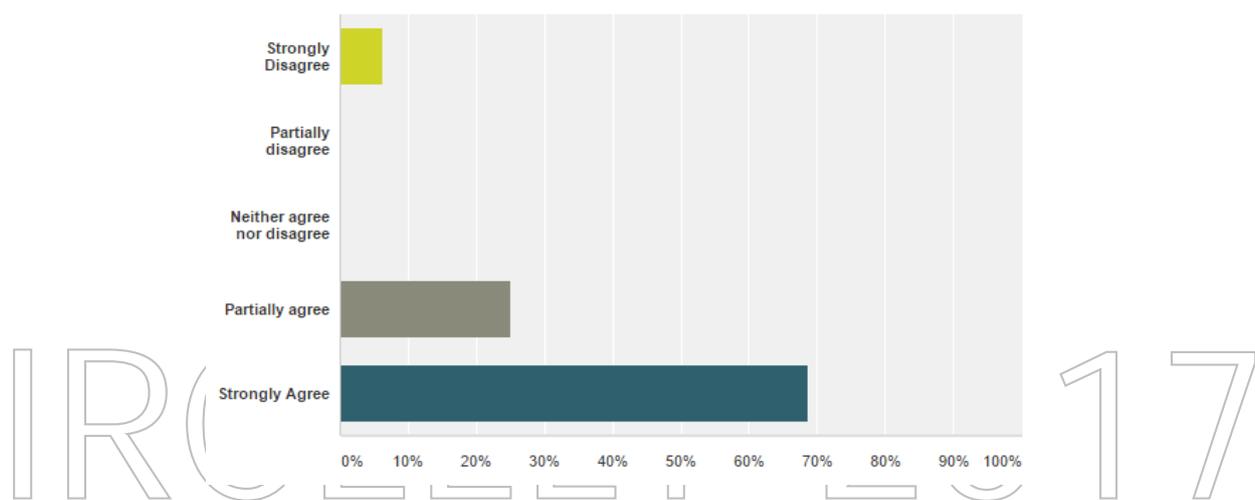


Figure 1. The role of listening skills in communicative learning process

The figure shows that some students strongly disagree with the statement, and that only 25% of participants partially agree with the proposition. However, the majority of students (68.75%) strongly agree with the idea that effective listening skill is important to succeed in communicative learning process. This may provide the basis for thinking that the students realize that listening is the basic skill in language acquisition as it is consistently intervened with the other language skills – speaking, reading, and writing.

Proposition 2: Dictation is fun if the passages are chosen carefully

Figure 2 shows that all participants have positive attitude towards using dictation activities in teaching listening. This picture suggests that if dictation passages are chosen carefully it can be fun for the whole group even for those who disagree with the statement that listening skill is important for communicative learning process. This result also breaks down the stereotype that dictation activity is old-fashioned, too teacher-centered and boring. The activities that are fun for students decreases the frustration during listening and promotes the development of the listening skills.

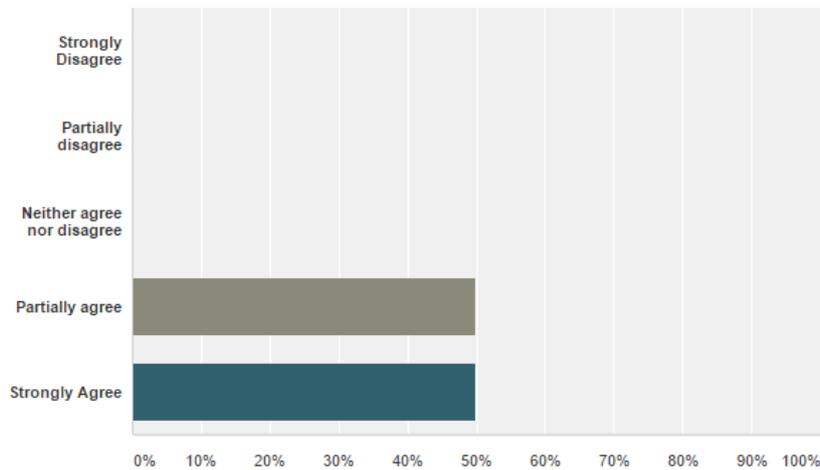


Figure 2. Dictation in listening classes can be fun

Proposition 3: Dictation gives students practice in comprehending and transcribing a clear English text and develops short-term memory.

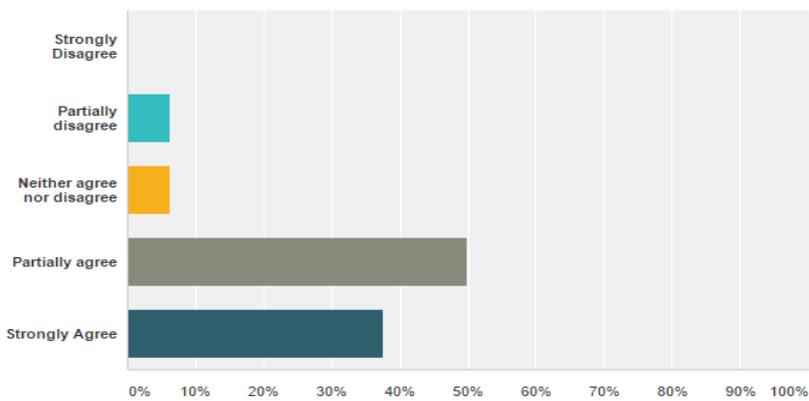


Figure 3. Dictation is good for comprehension, transcribing English text and also develops short-term memory

The findings here show that the majority of the respondents (50%) partially agree with the statement and 37.50% of students strongly agree that dictation is good for comprehension, transcribing an English text and also develops short-term memory. However, a tiny percentage (6.25%) of the participants partially disagree or neither agree nor disagree with the idea. The picture suggests that even though we get more positive responses for the statement, still it is doubtful whether all students clearly understand the role of short-term memory in comprehending and transcribing a foreign text and, moreover, its connection with the listening skill development.

The following question was posed to the students to identify how motivated they were to participate in dictation activities in order to develop their listening skills and whether all of them took part in accomplishing the task.

Proposition 4: Dictation involves the whole class and is motivating

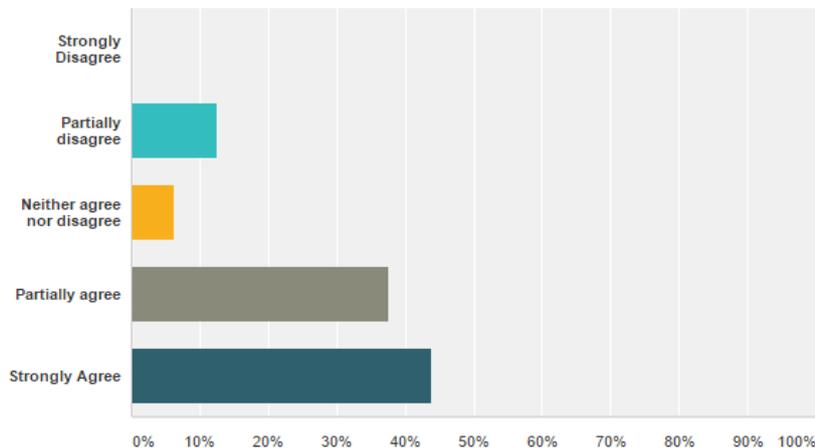


Figure 4. Dictation for whole class involvement and motivation

Clearly, the majority of the students (43.75%) strongly and (37.50%) partially consider the dictation as an activity that motivates the whole class to participate. However, there are still some students who partially disagree (12.50%) or neither agree nor disagree (6.25%) with the statement. This gives us the basis to consider once again the appropriateness of the chosen passages and the type of dictation that keeps those students apathetic in participation.

Peer assessment is the major concern in contemporary education and the question 5 aimed to mirror how beneficial it was for students in multicultural environment with the different cultural mentality to encourage their autonomous learning and create positive atmosphere for developing listening skill through dictation activities.

Proposition 5: Dictation, as a pair activity, is efficient for peer assessment

The results exceeded the researcher’s expectations with no negative responses. 46.67% of the students strongly agree with the statement while 26.67% partially agree and 26.67% neither agree nor disagree with the idea. Based on the statistics, we can conclude that using dictation activities for peer assessment is attractive and encouraging for students in multicultural environment with different cultural mentality. On the other hand, fair peer assessment benefits self-assessment which is essential for self-development in all skills.

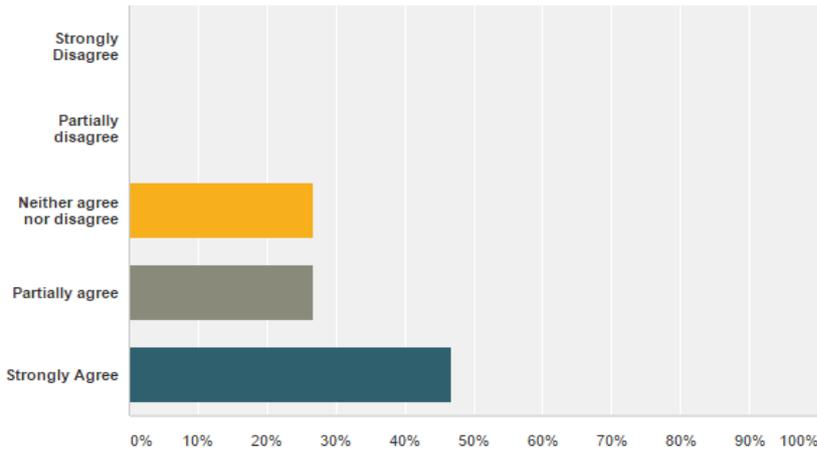


Figure 5. The efficiency of dictation for peer assessment

Proposition 6: Dictation is an activity that seems to always have a positive effect on classroom management.

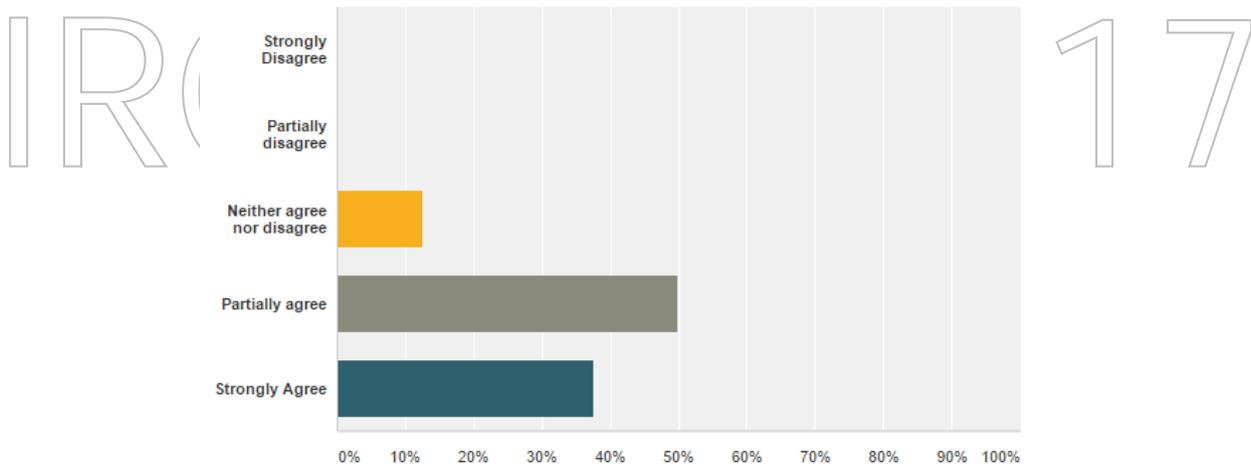


Figure 6. The positive effect of dictation on classroom management

Classroom management is essential for the learning outcomes. 50% of the participants partially agree with the positive effect of dictation on classroom management. However, 37.50 % of students strongly consider that dictation activities can have a positive effect on classroom management. Only a little percentage of the respondents (12.50%) neither agrees nor disagrees with the statement. This confirms that dictation can positively affect classroom management if the type and passage of the dictation is chosen correctly. Consequently, it will promote an effective learning process, efficient development of listening skills and the positive learning outcomes in the process of foreign language acquisition.

Limitations

The findings of the study are significant for starting thinking about re-introducing dictation as an efficient pedagogical device in teaching listening to EFL students. However, the study has some limitations: it was a short-term small-scale research conducted among students in one group at one university. In addition, the research just shows the students' feedback and lacks the empirical grounds based on the results of experimental and control groups.

Conclusion

Listening comprehension has long been "somewhat neglected and poorly taught aspect of English in many EFL programs" (Mendelsohn, 1994, p. 9). In recent decades, communicative approach to language acquisition has been given the utmost attention to and the focus on teaching listening skills has been increased. In order to succeed in communicative learning process it is important for students to have effective listening skills tightly bound to speaking, reading and writing skills. Dictation deals with listening and writing skills, besides, dictation assessed in pairs links is with reading and speaking skills.

There are different approaches in teaching listening. Mostly the top-down approach is considered more effective. However, it is worth mentioning that the bottom-up approach also plays an important role in developing listening skills.

Dictation as one of the bottom-up approaches is not widely used in EFL programs nowadays and is considered as old-fashioned, boring and not effective. However, the mini research conducted among sophomore students who practiced dictation activities for the development of the listening skills during their freshmen year, tried to re-introduce dictation as an efficient language learning device and suggested interesting ways of using it in teaching listening skills.

The findings showed that students found the suggested dictation activities fun, motivating and efficient for the development of their listening skills. The results also highlighted that the creative dictation activities applied during the listening classes supported fair, effective peer assessment and effective classroom management for good learning outcomes.

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EDUCATING DENTAL ENGLISH COURSE THROUGH AN ONLINE SUPPLEMENTARY MEDIA TOOL BASED ON THE CURRICULUM DESIGN

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Abstract

Due to the existing extensive curricula of English for Dental Purposes (EDP) courses and the absence of sufficient weekly hours to cover them in Iran, there is an insufficient exposure to English to improve students' English communication skills to the levels necessary for their future career. Therefore, there have been needs to appraise the present teaching approaches and reform the configuration and context of EDP classes to yield the optimal profit for their students. The study was designed to address issues central to the perception and expectations of students in regard of the use and the impact of the social medium - WhatsApp. As part of this impression, a spectrum of procedures has been depicted to employ this cross-platform messaging application. A research was conducted among 70 second-year dentistry students at Kashan University of Medical Sciences, in a course called English for Dental Purposes (EDP). The descriptive research project employing a qualitative and quasi-experimental study was chosen to collect data using a valid and reliable pretest-posttest design. Two groups of 35 participants were randomly selected via simple random sampling. The control group was taught by conventional method, while the experimental group was taught through the proposed WhatsApp-assisted language learning approach in a blended way. A paired t-test was utilized to compare the results of each group and an independent sample t-test was utilized to compare the results in control and experimental group. The *f*-ratio value is 7.88138; the *t*-value is 2.80738. The *p*-value is .006512 and the result is significant at $p < .01$. Therefore, there are good reasons to think that the application of WhatsApp for teaching EDP as a more effective approach than the face to face method. The Likert scale questionnaire descriptively analyzed via SPSS 16.00 version revealed experimental group had generally positive attitudes towards Apps-based teaching of academic materials. This media helps students get to be more effective in EDP, advances the class learning of English for Dental Purposes, enhances students' knowledge more satisfactorily, motivates them to gain a positive impact and willingness in their class activities and had resulted in more continuity in study and self-confidence. So, it deserves considering the incorporation of the new application – WhatsApp - effectively in the curriculum of EDP pedagogies as an educational means.

Keywords: WhatsApp; English for Dental Purposes; Blended Language Learning

Introduction

Whatsapp has become so pervasive with mobile exploiters that it has promoted communicating in many ways. Utilizing a mobile phone and an internet connection, people can readily communicate all contacts in their WhatsApp users list.

The basic aim of WhatsApp is to facilitate communication, and at its most underlying level, education is nothing but communication. Through Whatsapp channel teachers can attain faster and easier communication with their students. It can elevate **the level of communication between students and create another field for learning. This medium is may be viewed as an aid of communication** and a tool of circulating educational resources and information to students.

The truth that it is already a favorite with the general public due to the convenience of using it could be the greatest purpose to recollect it for applying in education. In general, the function of appearing social media can also present new chances to promote the teaching and learning. Zepke and Leach (2010) deduce that motivation and student temperament will affect their ability to involve in interactive learning.

In addition, nowadays students, often denoted as "digital natives" (Prensky, 2001), have spent most of their time on computers, game consoles, digital music players, video cameras, cell phones, as well as the Web itself. Getting used to permanent involvement in their daily tasks, students require a high level of social and productive assignment in learning. Therefore, according to Jovanovic et al.(2012), traditional teaching approaches benefiting passive content utilization, are no more appropriate and have to be swapped, or at least supplemented, with highly interactive learning processes.

Literature Review

An approach based on modern mobile instruments would result in improvement of students' micro-skills for and motivation in writing, mainly through peer coaching, which is highly adaptable either by the teachers (i.e., differentiated instruction through customization of the writing process) or the students themselves (i.e., autonomous learning – choice of how to make use of the group generated resources for their own writing) to suit the learning proficiency levels of individual student groups, and would turn the students' individual differences in the proficiency levels of various micro-skills from a perceived instructional challenge to an advantage in motivating effective peer coaching in English for specific purposes (Wong et al, 2011). Although there is a vast body of surveys on conventional text messaging practices, little is realized about how and why people have assumed and utilized messaging application (Church & de Oliveira, 2013).

Majority of students in a pilot project considered the educational program offered to be efficient, useful and beneficial. In this project the data gathered revealed supplementary SMSs in a blended approach can be integrated into EMP (English for Medical Purposes) course to enable students to develop better English sentence paraphrasing skills. In this research it has been found that apps can be used for language learning, especially English; students receiving short

complementary lessons on their mobile phones via SMS are more enthusiastic and learned more than their counterparts in conventional group (Arani, 2016).

The fact that WhatsApp is free (for most people) makes it specifically appealing for general presentability. Gutierrez-Colon et al.(2013) present a project with university students in Spain to inquire into the benefits and drawbacks of using instant short messaging systems such as WhatsApp to improve learners' reading skills in English as a foreign language. Riyanto (2013) also examines the use of this social medium for the four language skills: reading, writing, speaking and listening, the process consisting common questions on versatile topics, delivering them to all the members in the group through a program, employing them in meaningful forum.

Some of the research projects implying the implementation of different systems of messaging between educators and students are : capacity for learning improvement (Smit & Goede, 2012);capability for learners to be active in their studies(Cifuentes & Lents, 2011); ordinary conversation between students (Cifuentes & Lents, 2011; Smit & Goede, 2012); profound communication between students and lecturers related to course content (Cifuentes & Lents, 2011); sense of attachment and community (Doering et al., 2008; Sweeny, 2010); breaking teacher-student social limits (Doering et al., 2008); and students inclination to take homework more seriously when they are public to affect their peers (Sweeny, 2010).Although, some teachers felt distressing with the non-academic and social categories (Doering et al., 2008), others believed that messaging has a negative effect on academic writing as students begin to pass over vowels and punctuation (Sweeny, 2010).

Also, smart phones in the market have prompted increasing use of WhatsApp as a communication program for student groups, and for groups of teachers and their students as well. Teachers may build groups for their students comprising a type of "simple social network" for the class (Kukulska-Hulme, 2008; Fischer, 2013). Church and de Oliveira (2013) are of the opinion that people adopted WhatsApp as their main not alternative means of communication due to the low cost of the application coupled with the ability to send an unlimited number of messages, immediacy, the demand to feel a section of the procedure since their familiarity have already accepted the application, the ability to follow a continuous dialogue with many friends synchronously, the uniting together of a community of friends or family, and a sense of confidentiality relative to other social networks. Some drawbacks like massive irrelevant and considering application as informal oriented people formalize text messages whenever they feel they should deliver convey an important or impressing message.

Since WhatsApp is relatively a new phenomenon, little research exists regarding its impact on interpersonal communication in general, and between teachers and their students in particular(Church & de Oliveira,2013). A survey on the use of WhatsApp in a South African university class stated positive feedback from students who believed that it was an easier way to communicate with their teachers and the rest of the class. They thought it contributed to beneficial discussion on relevant issues in an informal environment where students could study with friendship and eagerness, and that it was also pleasant (Bere, 2013). Such cooperation was thought to make a connection between knowledge and

physical distance. In general, WhatsApp has become a common platform promoting proximity, strengthening agreement, and inspiring provocation to function actively in academic practices (Bere, 2013; 16).

A research done among Spanish students, explored the use of WhatsApp in English language studies. Some students declared their provocation rose and had greater eagerness for studying foreign language (Riyanto, 2013). However, another study in Kuwait reported its drawbacks in developing students' writing skill (Ramble, & Chipunza, 2013; Salem, 2013).

WhatsApp in ESP, EMP, and EDP

English for Special Purposes (ESP) is a teaching approach to English language in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learners' reasons for learning (Hutchinson. & Waters, 1987). ESP courses are, in fact, complied with the specialized needs of the students. WhatsApp has been acquiring great basis in view of its release time. However, due to its teaching at university, the potential of this media is yet to be investigated in more extensive dimensions.

Various studies have been done to gain results on the application of this app in education and English teaching and learning contexts. A research by Yeboah and Ewur (2014) in education indicates that WhatsApp is a necessary instrument for students in higher education institutions in Ghana having both its own positive and negative effects. Another research by Bouhnik and Deshen (2014) specifies both educational and academic benefits of WhatsApp and its technical, educational and academic challenges. In the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), a few investigators have reported potential advantages of 'mobile learning' and blended learning. Some of the inquiries have reported the use of smart phones promotes students' listening and speaking skills (Kukulska-Hulme, 2007), while other researches confirm that the capacity for reading comprehension can be upgraded via application of text messages (22). Also another survey aimed at collecting and analyzing data on a prospective project design in teaching "English for Medical Purposes" (EMP) to the students and graduates of medicine in the areas such as choices and opinions about different m-learning Apps options for Medical English: SMS & SMS + IVR (Interactive Voice Response) for listening and Educational Games concludes that technology tools have the potential to be given strong consideration in teaching and learning writing within their learning management system (Motallebzadeh & Ganjali, 2011).

To benefit from advances in educational widgets, language learning and teaching appears to be the most qualified to apply them to handle learner's didactic demands. Some language educator researchers have studied the persuasive effect of mobile phones potentials specifically messaging as educational stages on university students (Cavus & Ibrahim, 2009; Levy & Kennedy, 2005; Li, 2009; Thornton & Houser, 2001). In these surveys messages have been viewed as medium by which teaching linguistic segments is facilitated. According to Thornton & Houser (2001), when exposed to this educational tool at a regular design, students would be persuaded to improve in the process. These investigations, however, haven't thoroughly analyzed its effectiveness on all various skills while teaching and/learning language

subdivisions sub skills through WhatsApp. In addition, teaching some language process items like punctuation, word formation, sentence comprehension and interpretation, phrase and clause levels, among all, have not been paid so much attention in mobile and blended teaching procedures. Notwithstanding, some items obligate educators to consider them uniquely in language teaching programs because they are gone through both oral and written communication so that they don't have to be have to be changed to an optional function or significance (Howard, 2012; Kempen & Harbusch, 2002; Kietzmann, 2011). However, it is assumed that the use of WhatsApp has not yet been surveyed completely in EDP in tertiary education settings.

Problem Statement

Due to the existing extensive curricula of English for Dental Purposes (EDP) courses and absence of enough weekly hours to cover them in Iran, there is a limited exposure to English which is insufficient to improve students' English communication skills to the levels necessary for their future career. So, there have been needs to appraise the present teaching approaches and reform the configuration and context of EDP classes to yield highest profit for their students (Iwata & Clayton(2008); Iwata, Tamaki, & Clayton, 2012). As part of this impression a spectrum of procedures have been depicted and applied.

With advancement of digital media, it is believed that some effective form of educational innovative tools will help handle this trouble.

Hemmi, Bayne and Land (2009) maintain that since students already cooperate, search for information, communicate, and spend their free time using web technologies there is no reason not to apply the media in the classroom to support learning. However, how these tools are employed and integrated into the learning process is vital. In this study, the researcher was trying to explore the application and the effect of WhatsApp as an educational media on teaching and learning English for Dental Purposes (EDP) course.

Research Questions

The study sought to address queries, which were central to the perception and prospect of students in regard the use and the impact of social media:

How is the effect of the WhatsApp-based method of teaching EDP on the Dentistry achievement?

Do dentistry students find any noteworthy points using this App motivating them in learning EDP?

Do our students believe that the application of these media as educational tool can enhance and supplement class activities in English for Dental Purposes course?

Participants

This research was conducted among 70 dentistry students at Kashan university of Medical Sciences, in a course called English for Dental Purposes (EDP) during the first semester of the academic year 2015-2016. The descriptive research project employing a qualitative and quasi-experimental study was chosen to collect data using a valid and reliable pretest-posttest design to analyze the adequacy and effect of applying mobile WhatsApp for the enhancement of teaching this course to the students.

Design & Method

This quasi-experimental project was specified within some novel concepts addressing pervasive learning and the idea of utilizing cell phone as a supplementary medium in performing alone on assignments as theorized by investigators like Lu (2005), Kennedy & Levy (2005), and Cavus & Ibrahim (2009). This work was contrived to comply with plan rules (Gu et al., 2011) designed implying subject matters, performance and applicability. The educational materials were in line with students' professional practical needs in the curriculum. The performance was made through actions like English structural points. The applicability of the WhatsApp activities was to concentrate on the needs to attract students' attention and to keep subject matter fresh in their mind (Gu et. al., 2011).

All the students were admitted and entered to the university through the University Entrance Exam administered by the Ministry of Medical Education, so that they may be considered to be at the same knowledge level. Two groups of 35 subjects were randomly selected via simple random sampling. The control group was taught by conventional method, while the experimental group was taught through the proposed what's App assisted language learning approach. The latter received complementary WhatsApp contents through the panel in a scheduled pattern of delivery three times a week to strengthen their learning EDP. The delivered contents involved a set of EDP materials that according to previous appraisals the students were not exposed to sufficiently. They outlined and expressed a) word morphology and terminology, b) structural points in paraphrasing and sentence writing, and c) oral presentation points like listening tactics, note making, and note taking.

Data Collection and Analysis

Quantitative and qualitative methods were employed both to maximize the domain and the depth of the perceptions achieved (Punch, 2013), and to capture richer interview data supplementing the more extensive questionnaire results (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wagner, 2010).

A multiple choice post-test was designed in the light of EDP curriculum devised by the Ministry of Medical Education involving the contents mentioned in the outline.

Then, it was administered to the students of both the experimental and control groups to make sure that they were at the same level of performance before starting the experiment; and hence the progress the experimental group students achieved could be ascribed to the teaching program they received through using WhatsApp approach. The post-test was used to study the efficacy of the using WhatsApp as a blended technique in teaching to develop students' comprehension skill.

A paired t-test was utilized to compare the results of each group and an independent sample t-test was utilized to compare the results in control and experimental group. The *f*-ratio value is 7.88138; the *t*-value is 2.80738. The *p*-value is .006512 and the result is significant at $p < .01$. It was found that control and experimental groups improved their EDP. However, the results of independent t-test indicated a significant statistical difference between them, therefore, there are good reasons to think WhatsApp-based method of teaching EDP as a more effective approach than the face to face method. The findings of these analyses are presented in tables 1&2.

Table1. Data Summary

	Exp.	Conv.	Total
N	35	35	70
ΣX	478	414	892
Mean	13.65714	11.8286	12.7429
ΣX²	6854	50757	11930
Std.	3.09594	2.2943	2.8574
Dev.			

To perceive experimental group development thoroughly (Brown & Rodgers, 2002; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009), the participants were interviewed using a semi -structured questionnaire entailing 16 questions adopted from the surveys of Attewell et al. (2009) and, Gutiérrez-Colon et al. (2013).

Table2. Result Details

<i>Source</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	
Between-Groups	58.5143	1	58.5143	F = 7.88138
Within-Groups	504.8571	68	7.4244	
Total	563.3714	69		

Data from the students survey responses, and interviews, of their use of the medium were analyzed to find out and describe the participants attitudes toward the WhatsApp application as a supplementary means of EDP course.

According to the data obtained, this media helps 75% of students increase their EDP interest outside the class and persuaded most of them (81%) to study it at their free time and anywhere (62%) since they have supplementary EDP materials in their phone repository to review (62%) so that the project enhanced their special English class learning (59%). The project advances students' writing homework (49%) and caused 54% of the dentistry students' answer its exercises more quickly. Therefore, 51% of them developed their special writing activity. This approach also lessens English class stress (77%) while strengthening students' self-confidence (81%), thus enhancing students' knowledge more satisfactorily, and motivating them to gain a positive impact and willingness in their class activities.

In addition, since some class matters are delivered through the supplementary medium, WhatsApp, some of the class time may devoted to more difficult points. The feeble students may refer to the messages to review and scrutinize all the class materials. Therefore, 41% of the students strongly agree or agree (18%) with this time saving property of the project.

However, the drawbacks commented by the students were poorly formulation of some materials (54%), necessity of longer texts (69%) to include examples (71%), and incomplete messages (21%) due to technical problems. Some students supposed that each message should build upon the next, progressively increasing the language level (71%).

Conclusions

According to study results, the students are amenable to exploit WhatsApp in EDP course, and they are of the opinion that such use will enhance their experiences in learning, academically and psychologically. Students' perceptions of WhatsApp-based approach use were particularly positive and surprisingly promising. They believed that the approach enhanced their learning of English for Dental Purposes.

In the field of implementing WhatsApp-based actualizing system to reinforce EDP class, the noteworthy point was the necessity to settle a procedure proposing many of the text messages and exercises deliveries in a way to disconnect teacher's dependence on complete class presentation of the educational materials according to a preset syllabus.

According to the findings of the study, it is suggested in mobile teaching and learning to use WhatsApp mobile application only to pursue learning activities in a blended course integrating both face to face learning and mobile learning. Therefore, WhatsApp is a good media for mobile learning when it is used in a blended course. The results of the present research show that WhatsApp mobile language learning activities carry benefits for university students' achievement and attitudes towards blended learning and teaching.

This medium helps students get to be more equipped in EDP, and advances the utilization of English for communicating materials be told and it helps in expanding the language expertise of the learners. Using this approach, some students can do extra practice outside the classroom and review class materials available in their cell phones storage, so that the teacher is not supposed to back off whatever remains of the class for feeble students in class in an extra time. The medium also permits the instructor to keep up student enthusiasm by giving students progressed materials. Generally speaking, the study uncovered that the WhatsApp-based teaching system could be viewed as an effective medium for supplementary teaching and learning English issues as well. A language instructor may find that m-learning gives simply the right sort of student-teacher interaction that will motivate the class learning and persuade the students doing homework at their free time. Therefore, language instructors ought not to neglect the indubitable estimation of conventional classroom adapting, yet the genuine capability of learning with multifaceted innovations ought to be generally gratified (Hayati, 2009). Traditional methods of special English teaching are not so appropriate for university students which is consistent with the study conducted by Hoa & Mai (2016) indicating that since technical facilities and media for teaching ESP at educational institutions are mainly rarely useful, teachers should apply information technology media for increasing lectures' attraction, motivation as well as saving time and effort.

The alternatives could be the modern digital media like WhatsApp. WhatsApp-based approach is a continuous process of learning, teaching and assessment that never ends and gives a real chance to practice the language beyond the walls of classrooms. The findings of the present survey are also in accordance with the results of another study (Williams, Birch, & Hancock, 2012) by expressing that instructions applying online media are more effective when combined with attending face-to-face lectures.

It has been proclaimed that the students are highly motivated psychologically to use the WhatsApp. In this regard, this research findings show the consistency with the previous studies conducted about the use of media like Facebook and Mobile Phone technology among the student (Abdullah, Yaacob, & Rahim, 2013; Thornton & Houser, 2005).

Implications

The framework for a WhatsApp-based approach in a special English course in university is available with many teachers and a vast majority of the students; however, the administrative educational prospect to plan and develop it is not sufficient for both of them. Further qualitative research will impel the implementation of WhatsApp-based approaches to include into educational and pedagogical English curriculum.

It is implied that since messaging texts delivered are supplementary educational tools offering multiple learning and instructional opportunities, they could include examples, quizzes with immediate feedback, class monitoring and supervising widgets, classroom response system as a tool for planning language skills development, integrated with more 'game' elements (Naismith,)in other studies. Moreover, as this research was a one-semester study in one course with a limited number of students, there is a need for a longitudinal study with a larger diversified sample size at the development of this media in other courses.

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A SEMANTIC ANALYSIS OF MODAL VERBS IN BARAK OBAMA'S 2012 PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGN SPEECHES

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Abstract

The main idea of this paper is to analyze the English modals in Obama's speech semantically. Therefore, the main objectives of this research are to analyze selected modal auxiliaries identified in selected Obama's campaign speeches based on Coates' (1983) semantic clusters. A total of fifteen Obama's campaign speeches were selected as the primary data and the modal auxiliaries selected for analysis include WILL, WOULD, CAN, COULD, SHOULD, MUST, OUGHT, SHALL, MAY and MIGHT. All the modal auxiliaries are interpreted based on the framework of Coates' (1983) semantic clusters. Qualitative method of analysis was applied in this study. The analysis was carried out to examine how modal auxiliaries are used in Obama's campaign speeches in the context of persuading people. It was found that modals of intention/prediction/futurity and modals of possibility/ability/permission are mostly used in Obama's campaign speeches.

Keywords: semantic analysis, modal verbs;

Background of the study

In 2012, the US presidential election campaign caught attention from all over the world. The democrat Barack Obama and the republican Mitt Romney ran for the office of the 45th president of the United States. No matter who won, the leader would make an impact on America and the whole world beyond. On the eve of the US presidential election, the world press took stock of the relative opinions of Barack Obama and Mitt Romney. Suddenly, these two American politicians became the hottest topic. The election took place on 6th of November, 2012. Barack Obama and his fellow democrats won a second term in office. He defeated his republican rival Mitt Romney, and was re-elected as the president of the United States. In 2008, Barack Obama made himself a historical figure in America by being the first black American president. Many political commentators refer to Barack Obama's success as a "power of words." Leanne (2009) names

Barack Obama “a master of the craft of communication.” She claims that one of the reasons Barack Obama has been able to tear down the traditional barriers of race and ethnicity to become the first African American president of the US is his distinguished communicative abilities. As reported by the BBC, “Barack Obama and his campaign team seem to have the ability of enticing many of his supporters in 2008 back to the polls, meanwhile, have also persuaded undecided voters that Mitt Romney is not the good choice for leading the country in the next four years (BBC, 2012). Supportive ideas also came from Woolley and Peters. Their research (2009) regarding the American presidency stated that Barack Obama benefitted from his personal charm, charisma, and skilful oratory. Mixing old and new media strategies enables him to sustain and gain popular support. Recently, this first African American president also became a subject of concern in linguistics. Studies have been carried out on the political speeches of Barack Obama (Wang, 2010; Capone, 2010; Shayegh, 2012; Shayegh, K., & Nabifar, N. 2012; etc.). His inspiring language is used rally after rally, speech after speech, debate after debate, and has generated wide attentions to analyse linguistic features and patterns. The current research studies president Obama’s public speeches, particularly his 2012 presidential election campaign speeches. The presidential campaign speeches are subject to political, formal, and persuasive speech formats. The purpose of giving campaign speeches is to drum up support for the candidate (Sprague, Stuart & Bodary, 2008, p.72). In Obama’s campaign speeches, he continually sent a message about his fundamental political values and principles, and tried to convince millions of people that he could bring a bright future to the public. It is noted that the campaign speeches are used as a means of overt communication and persuasion. His successful speech delivery weighs significantly in establishing his positive public image and achieving solidarity with audiences. How did Obama’s speeches catch the attention of nation-wide audiences? This is possibly due to the lexical items used in his speeches. Schaffner (1996) argues that political action is prepared, accompanied, controlled, and influenced by language. With words, a speaker can effectively convey his/her thoughts, feelings, message, and information. Huxley (1962, p.6) claims words have the power to mould a man’s thinking, to canalise their feelings, to direct their willing, and give rise of their acting. Hence, from a linguistic perspective, it would be interesting to investigate how the language Obama used to convey his assertions, obligations, intentions and desirability, and to determine the hidden persuasive features and meanings behind the speech texts not obvious at first glance. According to Lillian (2008), the persuasion and manipulation in political texts is realised through the illegitimate use of linguistic devices, meaning modality. Modality refers to the classification of logical propositions according to a speaker’s asserting or denying the possibility, impossibility, contingency, or necessity of their utterance (Lyons, 1977). In other words, modality mirrors a speaker’s attitudes, opinions, and intentions upon what he/she has said. As pointed out by Fairclough (2001, p.105), modality deals with the authority of the speaker, and the implicit power relation and authority makes modality connect with ideology (ibid, p.106). Therefore, the study of modality is a part of exposing one’s value system. Perkins (1983, p.19) claims the “discussion of modality in linguistics has been concerned almost exclusively with modal auxiliary verbs.” Modal auxiliaries effectively express modality. Thus, the use of modal auxiliaries can indicate a speaker’s opinions, desirability, intentions, and obligations, such as “we CAN...,” “you MAY ...,” or “I MUST...” As mentioned above, it is plausible to assume that the modal auxiliaries used in Obama’s campaign speeches played an important role

in shaping the target audiences' thinking and attitudes. Due to this, this study examines how modal verbs are used in Barack Obama's 2012 presidential campaign speeches in the context of persuading American citizens to vote for him. It is hoped that this study sheds light on how the persuasive power of Obama's speeches are realised linguistically, particularly through the use of modal auxiliaries.

Theoretical framework

Coates's semantic categorisation of modal auxiliaries (1983) is adapted into the current paper. She has carried out an investigation of modal auxiliaries in the form of a large-scale corpus, both written and spoken. She found certain modal auxiliaries share certain semantic meanings. This finding corresponds with Palmer's suggestion (1979 as cited in Perkins, 1983, p.27), by which he says "we can look for a fairly general common meaning or a set of closely related meanings for each modal." In Coates' study (1983), the term semantic cluster was introduced for use in analysing modal auxiliaries. Based on her study, it was pointed out that modal auxiliaries can be classified into groups according to their underlying semantic structures and the paraphrases or meanings given to the same group. Semantic clusters are clearly distinct and are associated with semantic concepts such as: obligation/necessity, intention/prediction/futurity, possibility/ability/permission and epistemic possibility (ibid, p.27). Each semantic cluster is made of modal auxiliaries sharing the same meaning and fulfilling the same function. A semantic cluster is accompanied with a group of modal auxiliaries. In the semantic cluster of obligation/necessity, the members include the modals SHOULD, MUST and OUGHT. In the semantic cluster of intention/prediction/futurity, the members include the modals WILL, WOULD and SHALL. In the semantic cluster of possibility/ability/permission, the members include the modals CAN and COULD. In the semantic cluster of epistemic possibility, the members include the modals MAY and MIGHT. The various meanings and functions of these modal auxiliaries according to Coates (1983) are presented below.

Data collection

The data corpus for this study consists of fifteen speeches delivered by Barack Obama in the 2012 US presidential election campaign. All presidential campaign speeches are in an oral form, but written transcripts are accessible online. To avoid personal preference and favouritism in data selection, all speeches analysed were randomly selected from the website <http://www.presidentialrhetoric.com>. All fifteen selected speeches took place between June, 2012 and November, 2012. The abbreviation of T,P and L is as below:

T= text

P= page

L= line

Data Analysis

The use of “WILL” to denote prediction

According to Coates (1983, p.179), examples of epistemic WILL= prediction can be paraphrased as “someone predicts that...” The prediction has a reference to the future. Hence, extract 1, extract 2, extract 3, and extract 4 use WILL as a prediction.

Extract 1 (T2, P50, L7-L12)

They **will** have ad after ad after ad, and all them **will** have scary voices. (Laughter.) They **will** have pictures of me looking all old and -- (laughter) -- broke down. You've seen those ads. You've seen them. That's what Mr Romney is going to say. That's what the Republicans in Congress **will** say. And that may be their plan to win an election, but it's sure not a plan to create jobs.

WILL used in extract 1 denotes predication. Here, Obama talks about his prediction on his rival Romney's future actions in the campaign. This prediction indicates that Obama knows what the next move from the other side is going to be. It is noted that the modal auxiliary WILL is used four times, and the repeated use of WILL functions as a reminder for all listeners that those items referred to are going to happen soon, i.e. “have ad after ad”, “have pictures of me looking all old, etc. The use of WILL shows Obama's confidence about his assertion. He tries to convince his audience he is going to be uglified in his opponent's advertisements, and that this is just a strategy used by Romney to win the campaign.

Extract 2 (T2, P7, L3-L6)

And the next President and the next Congress **will** face a set of decisions -- on the economy, and on the deficit, and on taxes -- that **will** have an enormous impact on this country, not just today but the country that we pass on to our children.

The modal WILL used in extract 2 denotes prediction, which can be paraphrased as “I confidently predict that...” Like extract 1, the modal WILL used here also expresses the speaker's confidence in the truth of the proposition. The function of using the modal WILL is to remind voters what kind of decisions the next president and the next Congress are going to make, and that these decisions are going to have a huge impact on the country. By talking about the future works of the next president and the next Congress, and the influence of their works, Obama wants all the listeners to be aware of how crucial and meaningful their choices are, because their decisions are closely related to the future of the nation and even can make a difference for future generations. Therefore, Obama persuades all listeners to take this presidential election seriously.

Extract 3 (T4, P18, L5—L10)

And so by the end of this summer, more than 30,000 of our troops **will** have come home. Next year, Afghans **will** take the lead for their own security. In 2014, the transition **will** be complete. And even as our troops come home, we **will** have a strong partnership with the Afghan people, and we **will** stay vigilant so Afghanistan is never again a source for attacks against America.

Extract 4 (T5, P17, L1—L3)

They want to add another \$5 trillion of tax cuts on top of that, mostly going to folks who don't need tax cuts and weren't even asking for tax cuts. It **will** be paid for by gutting our investments in education, our investments in infrastructure, our investments in research and development; voucherising Medicare.

The modal WILL in extract 3 and 4 denotes predictions as well. In these two extracts, Obama makes a prediction about the possible outcomes of the further plans of the two parties, the democrats, and republicans. The use of WILL for predictions in extract 3 and 4 illustrate two different visions of a future America. Obama wants all listeners involved in a comparison, and to let them decide which path they'd prefer to see taken in America. More use of the modal WILL is used in extract 3 than in extract 4. When Obama talks about his further plan, he repeatedly uses the modal WILL to depict his objectives. By doing so, it is easily for listeners to understand his political views. The use of WILL functions as making promises. Obama tries to convince all listeners that his plan will definitely be carried out in next four years. Therefore, it increases the confidence of all listeners in his capabilities.

In extract 4, the modal WILL is also used to denote a prediction of the outcomes of Romney's future plan. Obama wants to point out the policy Romney spoke about would add \$5 trillion of tax cuts. His prediction is that the investment in education, infrastructure, and in research would be gutted. The prediction of Romney's future plan claims it is not appropriate for the American people.

The Use of "WILL" to Denote Predictability

A crucial feature of the epistemic WILL signifying predictability is that the speaker makes a claim about the present. In other words, the time reference of the main predication is present. The paraphrase of WILL=predictability means "someone confidently predicts that it is the case that ..." Extract 5 exemplifies the use of WILL for predictability.

Extract 5 (T9, P10, L2—L7)

that says if you're acting responsibly and looking after your family, and willing to put in the effort, you can afford a home that you can call your own, you have a job that pays the bills, that you **won't** have to worry about going bankrupt if you get sick, that you **will** be able to retire with some dignity and some respect. And you **will** be able to save up enough to help your kids do even better than you did.

In this extract, the modal WILL denotes predictability. Here, the modal auxiliary WILL is used with the second person pronoun “you” referring to all listeners. The phrase “you will...” can be paraphrased as “I (the speaker, Obama) confidently predicate it is the case that you are all going to...” In this example, Obama provides a possible scenario about the future lives of Americans. He tries to persuade listeners that the life he describes is quite possible, and if they are willing to put in the effort, it definitely will come true. The use of the modal WILL for predictability presents listeners hopes and gives them motivation to strive for a better future.

The Use of “WILL NOT” to Denote Predictability

Extract 6 shows a use of the negation of WILL (WILL NOT) as a prediction. The negative “not” here affects the main prediction and not the modal prediction. This is a typical feature of epistemic modality (Coates, 1983, p.19). The modal “WILL NOT” can be paraphrased as “it is predictable that something will not take place...”

Extract 6 (T5, P18, L1-L6)

So what I've said is let's say that everybody who makes \$250,000 a year or less, that their taxes **won't** go up -- the incomes taxes **will not** go up a dime. Let's give them some certainty. By the way, that includes 97 percent of small businesses. The Senate passed it; the House, so far, has not. If we get 218 votes out of the House, the vast majority of the country will have certainty next year that their taxes **will not** go up.

In this extract, the use of “WILL NOT” expresses Obama’s strong commitment to his future plan on taxes. He makes a promise to all listeners that the taxes will not go up, but with one expressed condition: “If we get 218 votes out of the House.” In this case, Obama implies the premise and leaves it to the listeners to decipher. From the context, it is easy to identify that the major premise refers to, “If we get 218 votes out of the House,” which means “if you vote for me.” The conclusion is, “I guarantee that the taxes will not go up.” The use of “WILL NOT” highlights the outcomes of Obama’s plan, and also implies his plan is beneficial for all listeners. Such an attractive offer makes his plan more persuasive.

The Use of “WILL” to Denote Volition

Extract 7 and 8 show the use of WILL as volition. When the modal WILL signifies volition, it deals with a conscious human action. It describes a state, either the subject’s willingness, or his intention (Coates, 1983, p.173).

Extract 7 (T2, P40, L2—L3)

I have a detailed plan. We **will** cut spending we can't afford. We **will** strengthen programs like Medicare for the long haul. My plan **will** stop giving tax breaks to businesses that ship jobs and factories overseas, and start rewarding companies that create jobs and manufacturing right here in the United States of America.

WILL in extract 7 denotes intention, which can be paraphrased as “someone intends to do something.” In this context, the use of WILL=intention refers to an arrangement. Obama uses “we’ll” and “my plan will” to present his ideas on how to rebuild the country or how to cope with the problems the country is currently facing. It is noted that the verbs which follows the modal auxiliary WILL are all agentive verbs, i.e. “**cut** spending,” “**strengthen** Medicare,” and “**stop** giving tax breaks.” Obama committed himself to perform the actions stated. Obama uses the modal WILL to present himself as a man of action and to indicate that he has the authority to carry out such actions, thus increasing listeners’ confidence in him.

Extract 8 (T5, P34, L2—L5)

What I can promise you is that I **will** always tell you what I think, I’ll always tell you where I stand, and I **will** spend every single day fighting as hard as I know how for you.

In this extract, the modal WILL denotes a willingness. It can be paraphrased as “someone wants to do something.” Here, the modal WILL co-occurs with the first person pronoun “I,” which refers to the speaker, Obama. The use of “I will” clearly indicates the speaker (Obama) is talking about his own willingness to do something. Obama wants to present himself as a thoughtful, sincere, and credible person. According to Aristotle (cited in Grice, 2010), the speaker’s personal characters determine his/her persuasiveness. It is easier for people to be persuaded by a person’s good will. The repeated use of WILL highlights Obama’s good will, and therefore makes him more persuasive.

The Use of “WOULD” as the Past Tense of WILL to Denote Prediction

Extract 9 shows the use of WOULD as the past tense form of WILL denoting a prediction.

Extract 9 (T3, P15, L11-L17)

I remember my favourite vacation when I was 11 years old, traveling the country with my grandmother and my mom and my sister. And once in a while we’d rent a car, but a bunch of times we’d just take Greyhound buses. And sometimes we’d take the train and stay at Howard Johnsons. And as long as there was a little puddle of a pool, I’d be happy.

In this extract, Obama talks about vacations during his childhood. The modal WOULD is used as the past tense of WILL to denote a prediction. Semantically, WOULD used as the past tense form of WILL indicates a certain action or state has occurred many times before, paraphrased by “used to” (Coates, 1983, p.209). The modal WOULD is used with first person pronoun “we,” which refers to Obama and his family. The use of “we’d” can be paraphrased as “we used to...” In Obama’s campaign speech, he is not only talking about his political policies, but also about things that are relaxed and joyful. Here, he shares a memory of family vacations with the audience and talks about happy memories from his

childhood. Sharing enables him shorten the distance between himself and the audience, as well build an image of an amiable and friendly man.

The Use of “WOULD” as the Past Tense Form of WILL to denote Volition

Extract 10 shows the use of WOULD as the past tense form of WILL denoting volition.

Extract 10 (T14, P24, L1—L3)

Four years ago, I told you we'd end the war in Iraq, and we did. (Applause.) I said we'd end the war in Afghanistan -- we are. I said we'd refocus on the terrorists who actually attacked us on 9/11, and we have.

In this extract, Obama talks about his promises made during his first presidential election. The modal auxiliary WOULD is used to signify the past tense of WILL=volition. Here, WOULD is used with the first person pronoun “we,” which refers to Obama and his government. Coates (1983) points out that WOULD denoting volition is used infrequently, because the past is known. What people intended to do in the past becomes relatively insignificant in the light of what is known to have happened (p.207-208). However, the repeated use of “we’d” in Obama’s speeches is meaningful. The reason Obama deliberately mentions what he intended to do in the past is to highlight his intentions have been achieved and show he has kept his word. The repeated use of WOULD functions as a reminder of what he promised before. By mentioning the past, Obama successfully introduces himself as authoritative, honest, and worthy of trust. Such a good personality makes him more persuasive.

The Use of “WOULD” as a Hypothetical Marker

Extract 11 shows the use of WOULD denoting hypothetical meaning.

Extract 11 (T6, P7, L1—L6)

Now, the bulk of this tax cut **would** go to the very top. A lot of it **would** go to the wealthiest 1 percent of all households. Folks making more than \$3 million a year -- the top one-tenth of one percent -- **would** get a tax cut worth almost a quarter of a million dollars. Now, think about that. Folks making \$3 million a year or more **would** get a quarter-of-a-million-dollar tax cut.

In this extract, WOULD is used to refer to Romney’s plan for taxes. WOULD is used as a hypothetical form of WILL=prediction, which expresses an unreal condition and can be paraphrased as “if x, something will y” (Coates, 1983, p.213). In this example, there is no if clause, but the condition is present in the surrounding context. What Obama tries to indicate is “if Romney’s plan is carried out, such-and-such will happen.” The use of the hypothetical WOULD shows Obama’s low certainty and expresses his tentativeness rather than a genuine hypothesis. The reason Obama uses WOULD

instead of WILL is to avoid giving an impression that he is telling listeners what the definite case is. The function of using WOULD is to keep his words rigorous and tactful.

The Use of Modal Auxiliaries of Possibility/Ability/Permission—CAN and COULD

The analysis carried out in section 4.1.2 shows the modal auxiliaries of possibility/ability/permission have the second highest occurrence in the selected speeches. The following extracts are chosen to illustrate how the modal auxiliaries CAN and COULD are used in Obama's campaign speeches.

The Use of "CAN" to Denote Possibility

According to Coates (1983, p.93), when CAN denotes possibility, it can be paraphrased as "external circumstances allows someone to do it." Extract 12 illustrates the use of CAN to denote possibility.

Extract 12 (T1, P3, L1-L6)

The reason we came together was because we shared a belief in the basic bargain that built this country; the idea that if you're willing to work hard, if you're willing to take responsibility, that in this country you **can** make it. That you **can** find a job that pays a living wage, and you **can** save and buy a home. You **can** send your kids to college so they do even better than you did. You **can** retire with some dignity and some respect. The idea that no matter where you come from, no matter what you look like, no matter what your faith, no matter who you love, that in America you **can** make it if you try.

In this extract, the modal CAN illustrates a notion of possibility. The use of CAN in this case indicates a possibility of something happening as a result of one's actions. Here, Obama repeatedly uses the modal auxiliary CAN to highlight possibilities, i.e. "find a job," "save and buy a home," "send kids to college," and "retire with dignity." These possibilities expressed by the modal CAN used with the second person pronoun "you." The use of "you can" makes the statements possibilities involving a specific individual, in this case, the listeners. The phrase "you can" can be paraphrased as "it is possible for you to do it." In this particular speech, Obama uses "you can" six times to encourage all the listeners that if they work hard together, and if they are willing to try, they will turn all the possibilities into a reality. Thus, by using the phrase "you can," Obama creates a positive image in the mind of the listeners. The repeated use of CAN functions to remind citizens to look on the bright side.

The Use of “CAN” to Denote Ability

Coates (1983, p.93) points out that ability is the core meaning of the modal auxiliary CAN. CAN=ability refers to a subject’s innate capabilities. It can be paraphrased as “inherent properties allow someone to do something.” The following extract illustrates the use of CAN to denote ability.

Extract 13 (T8, P11, L3-L5)

I've never said it was going to be quick and easy. What I said was, we can move forward. We can make progress. We can make things better. We can strengthen our middle class. We can rebuild a strong foundation for our economy.

The modal CAN in this extract denotes a meaning of ability. The repeated use of the modal CAN assigned to pronoun “we” refers to people in general. Here, it also includes Obama himself. The function of using “we” is to denote a collective force or a sense of unity to highlight togetherness. Obama frequently uses the phrase “we can” to emphasise that “we,” as Americans, are able to do such-and-such, i.e. “move forward,” “make things better,” and “make progress.” The function of the use of “we can” is to encourage all listeners to believe they have the ability to create the life they want. It evokes positive emotions among the audience and inspires them towards progress.

Extract 14 (T15, P31, L5-L7)

A President who spends every waking hour trying to figure out how I can make sure that your lives are a little bit better, and more importantly, that all of our children's lives are a whole lot brighter.

CAN in this extract signifies ability. Different from the extract 13, here the modal CAN co-occurs with the first person pronoun “I,” referring to the speaker, Obama. In this context, “I” refers to Obama’s unique situation as a presidential candidate. Hence, the use of the phrase “I can” signifies Obama’s personal ability. Obama uses the phrase “I can” to express his personal authority in carrying out operations. He wants to convince all listeners that as president, he has the ability to make everyone’s life better. Hence, the function of using the modal CAN is to highlight his personal ability and to increase the listeners’ confidence in him.

Extract 15 (T14, P9, L1)

Why should this be hard? Are you for equal pay for equal work? Are you for making sure that laws enforce that basic principle? He can't tell you. I can.

Both CAN and CAN'T in this extract are used to denote ability. The negation CAN'T is assigned to the third person pronoun “he,” referring to the Republican Romney. The base form of CAN is assigned to the first person pronoun “I,” referring to Obama. The sentence “he can’t tell you” indicates that Romney is not able to tell American people the answers to those questions. The last sentence, “I can,” indicates Obama is able to provide answers. Obama uses the modals “CAN’T”

and "CAN" to compare Romney and himself, and aims to underline Romney's inability and his ability. By doing so, Obama persuades voters Romney is not a good choice. Hence, the function of the modal CAN increases his credibility.

The Use of "CAN" to Denote Permission

Extract 16, extract 17 and extract 18 exemplify the use of the modal CAN to denote permission.

Extract 16 (T14, P28, L1-L6)

In 18 days, you **can** choose a foreign policy that gets us into wars with no plan to get out, or you **can** say let's end the Afghan war responsibly; let's bring our troops home. Let's focus on making sure that we're building America. In 18 days, you **can** let them turn back the clock 50 years for immigrants, and gays, and women, or we **can** stand up and say we are a country in which everybody has a place.

In this extract, the modal CAN signifies personal authority. In this study, it was found when the modal CAN denotes personal authority, it always co-occurs with the second person pronoun "you." "You" is used in this context to refer to all in the audience. The phrase "you can" can be paraphrased as "you have the authority to do something." In this extract, Obama presents listeners with different visions of the future America. He repeatedly uses the phrase "you can" to point out that anyone (American people) has the authority to vote for the future president and to decide the future of the country. Thus, he persuades listeners to get involved in the election. From this context, it is easily identified that the visions of the future America presented by Obama are closely related to the future plans proposed by Governor Romney. The words associated with Romney's plan denote a negative meaning, i.e. "gets us into wars with no plan to get out" and "turn back." The words associated with his own plan denote a positive meaning, i.e. "end the Afghan war," and "bring our troops home." Therefore, Obama persuades the audience that the path proposed by Romney is not a good choice, and persuades people to vote for him.

Extract 17 (T5, P24, L3-L4)

Your children **can** stay on your health insurance plan till they're 26 years old.

Extract 18 (T7, P29, L8-L10)

I think it's the right thing to do for everybody to be able to get preventive care, including women who **can** have some control over their own health care decisions.

CAN in both extract 17 and extract 18 denotes permission. The modal CAN can be paraphrased as "allow" or "permit." Usually, permission is associated with laws, rules or regulations. In this case, Obama tries to convince listeners that his plan will focus on health care, which will allow children to stay on their parents' health insurance and will allow women control over their health care decisions. The use of CAN highlights the particular permissions that listeners will be granted

in Obama's health care plan. In other words, Obama tries to persuade the audience by proposing attractive offers. The function of the modal CAN highlights Obama's offers and increases the persuasiveness of his proposition.

The Use of "COULD" to Denote the Past Tense of CAN

Coates (1983) claims the modal COULD is used to signify 1) epistemic possibility, 2) the past tense of the modal CAN, and 3) remote of the modal CAN (hypothetical meaning). In section 4.1.3.2, the modal COULD signifying epistemic possibility does not occur. Therefore, the discussion of COULD= epistemic possibility is excluded in this section. The following Extract 19 and extract 20 exemplify COULD as the past tense form of CAN to denote possibility and COULD as a hypothetical marker.

Extract 19 (T1, P7, L3-L6)

Because of the actions that we took, GM is back on top and we're seeing the auto industry rehiring and producing better cars than ever. We helped to stabilise the financial system so small businesses **could** get help again and get credit and financing flowing again

In extract 19, the modal COULD used as the past tense form of CAN denotes possibility. Based on Coates (1983, p.113) work, the most clear-cut examples of the past tense root possibility COULD are those where the "enabling" or "disabling" circumstances are spelled out. In other words, when external circumstances affect the outcome of the proposition. In this extract, Obama talks about his policies which have had an effect on the auto industry. The first person plural pronoun "we" refers to Obama's government. Obama wants to emphasise that it is "we" (Obama's government) who created the enabling circumstances which effected the outcomes, namely enabled small businesses to "get help again" and got "financing flowing again." The use of COULD refers to a fulfilment of possibility, because the past is already known. The reason Obama purposefully talks about the known past is to remind listeners of his achievements. By displaying previous accomplishments, Obama tries to convince the audience of his adequacy in reforming and reconstructing the economy, and thus to increase the people's confidence towards his government.

The Use of "COULD" to Denote Hypothetical Meaning

Extract 20 illustrates the use of the modal COULD to denote hypothetical meaning.

Extract 20 (T3, P 32, L1-L4)

Yesterday I called on Congress to stop any tax hikes for the 98 percent of Americans who are just like the McLaughlins -- just like you. (Applause.) Because if Congress doesn't act, then that tax hike **could** cost up to \$2,200 for a family of four.

The modal COULD in this extract is used in the hypothetical form to express possibility in unreal conditions. The hypothetical modal COULD can be paraphrased as “if certain conditions were fulfilled, then nothing would prevent x...” This in effect means “something prevents x” (Coates, 1983, p.119). In this case, the hypothetical modal COULD occurs with an expressed condition, i.e. “if congress doesn’t act,” the result will be “it is possible that the tax hikes cost up to \$2,200 for a family of four.” In other words, extract (20) above can be reworded, “the tax hikes are not occurring because Congress is conducting a certain action to prevent it from happening.” The use of COULD expresses Obama’s hypothesis on the possible outcomes of the expressed condition. He chooses the hypothetical modal COULD rather than the modal CAN or WILL to express his prediction, which implies he is concerned with a possible change in circumstances. Choosing high certainty modal auxiliaries, i.e. WILL, CAN seems straightforward in a hypothesis. Hence, using the hypothetical COULD is tactful rather than blunt.

The Use of Modal Auxiliaries of Obligation/Necessity – SHOULD, SHOULD NOT, and MUST

This section discusses how the modal auxiliaries SHOULD and MUST are used in selected speeches. They modal auxiliaries SHALL and OUGHT are not included in the discussion because they rarely occur in the data corpus. OUGHT occurs twice and SHALL does not occur. The analysis carried out in section 4.1.3.3 shows the modal SHOULD and MUST are mostly used to denote root meaning, such as obligation and necessity. Therefore, the extracts using SHOULD and MUST to denote Root meaning are analysed.

The Use of “SHOULD” for a Suggestive Purpose

Extract 21 and extract 22 show the use of the modal auxiliary SHOULD to denote suggestions.

Extract 21 (T2, P8, L1-L3)

Governor Romney and his allies --They're patriotic Americans. They've got wonderful families. But they believe that we **should** go back to the top-down economics of the last decade.

The modal auxiliary identified here is SHOULD, used to offer advice. The modal SHOULD can be paraphrased as “it is advisable that...” In this extract, the advice is given by “they,” which refers to the republicans, Governor Romney and his allies, while the addressees are “we,” referring to people in general, meaning all Americans. Here, Obama talks about Romney’s economic plan. It is understood that Obama does not agree with Romney’s ideas. Obama uses the phrase “go back to the top-down economics of last decade” to indicate Romney’s suggestion is out of date. The use of the conjunction word “but” shows Obama’s negative attitude towards Romney’s suggestion, and also implies what Romney has suggested is not applicable.

Extract 22 (T3, P 33, L3-L5)

Now, I believe that we **should** make sure that taxes on the 98 percent of Americans don't go up, and then we **should** let the tax cuts expire for folks like me, for the top 2 percent of Americans.

In extract 22, the modal auxiliary SHOULD is used to denote a suggestion as well. Unlike extract 21, the suggestion here is given by "we," referring to Obama and his allies, and the addressees are all listeners. Obama uses the modal auxiliary SHOULD twice to show his recommendation. Compared to Romney's suggestion, Obama's is more attractive to listeners because it coincides with the wishes of the majority of Americans, i.e. "taxes on 98% of people don't go up." The repeated use of the modal SHOULD not only makes it easier for the audience to understand his suggestions, but also highlights the how his proposal will be beneficial to the majority of people, and hence it increasing his persuasiveness.

The Use of "SHOULD" to Denote Obligation and Necessity

Coates (1983) points out that SHOULD is commonly used to express the root modality of (weaker) obligation, thus it is more appropriate to interpret SHOULD as "it is import/necessary that..." The following extract illustrates the use of the modal SHOULD to denote obligation and necessity.

Extract 23 (T14, P8, L3-L6)

But no matter how many times Governor Romney is asked whether or not he supports a law upholding that idea, he refuses to say. Why **should** this be hard? Are you for equal pay for equal work? Are you for making sure that laws enforce that basic principle?

In this extract, the modal SHOULD is used to denote necessity. Here, the modal SHOULD occurs after "why." According to Coates (1983, p.60), the use of "why should" represents an idiomatic usage, and despite the interrogative form of such utterances, they are essentially statements asserting that some state of affairs is NOT necessary. Therefore, the question "why should ..." can be paraphrased with the question "is X really necessary?" In this extract, the question "why should this be hard?" is asked by Obama, pointing to Governor Romney. This question can be paraphrased as "is this really (necessarily) hard for you to answer?" From the context, it is identified that this question is asked with an implicit assumption that the answer is no. Obama wants to points out that the reason Governor Romney avoids answering the questions is not because the question is difficult, but because he is not able to provide appropriate solutions to the problems. Therefore, the rhetorical question "why should this be hard?" highlights Governor Romney's inadequacy in leading the country.

The Use of "SHOULD NOT" to Denote Obligation or Necessity

Coates (1983, p.63) states the modal SHOULD with its negative form NOT is used to denote a weak obligation. It references the present rather to the future, and shows the speaker's commitment to the falsity of the proposition expressed in the main predication. The following extracts (24 and 25) illustrate the use of SHOULD to denote a weak obligation or necessity.

Extract 24 (T4, P37, L6-L9)

According to some estimates, about 18 veterans are taking their lives each day -- more every year than all the troops killed in Iraq and Afghanistan combined. That's a tragedy. It's heart-breaking. It **should not** be happening in the United States of America.

In extract 24, "SHOULD NOT" is used to denote a weak obligation, paraphrased as "it is not advisable to do something." In Obama's 2012 campaign, one of his important plans was to put American veterans back to work. Here, Obama talks about the present situation of American veterans. From this extract, it is noted that the words used to refer to the situation of American veterans is a "tragedy" and is "heart-breaking," which implies that veterans are living in misery. In the last sentence, "it should not be happening in the United States Of America," the modal auxiliary "SHOULD NOT" is used with the progressive aspect "be happening." This indicates what Obama has described, all the unfortunate things veterans are experiencing. The use of "SHOULD NOT" emphasises the urgency of the issue and highlights an obligation to prevent such tragedies from happening.

Extract 25 (T15, P21, L1-L3)

And by the way, I'm not going to use deficit reduction as an excuse to turn Medicare into a voucher system. (Applause.) Because Americans **should not** be spending their golden years at the mercy of insurance companies.

In extract 25, SHOULD NOT is used to denote necessity, which can be paraphrased as "it is not advisable/necessary ..." Here, Obama talks about his future plan for Medicare. SHOULD NOT is used with the progressive aspect "be spending," which also indicates that the situation of American people he has described is actually happening. The last sentence, "Americans **should not** be spending their golden years at the mercy of insurance companies" implies "in fact, they are spending their golden years at the mercy of insurance companies." The use of "**should not**" indicates that it is not advisable for Americans to worry about their Medicare. In other words, Americans' Medicare needs should be protected. Such a claim should easily to win listeners' supports, because it aligns with their expectations and therefore increases the persuasiveness.

The Use of "SHOULD" to Denote a Tentative Assumption

According to Coates (1983, p.), the modal SHOULD expresses a tentative assumption or an assessment of probability based on facts known to the speaker. It can be paraphrased as "I think it is probable..." In present study, SHOULD is not frequently used to denote epistemic value. The following extract is the only case the modal SHOULD is used to express epistemic meaning.

Extract 26 (T6, P10, L1-L7)

It's a deal that says if we put in enough effort, we **should** be able to find a job that pays the bills. We **should** be able to afford a home that we call our own. We **should** have health care that we can count on if we get sick. (Applause.)

We **should** be able to retire with dignity and respect. (Applause.) And most of all, we **should** be able to give our children the kind of education that allows them to dream even bigger and do even better than we ever imagined. (Applause.) That's what we believe. It's a simple promise. It's at the core of the American Dream.

Here, the modal SHOULD expresses a tentative assumption. In this excerpt, SHOULD is used with the first person plural pronoun "we," referring to all American people, including the speaker, Obama. The phrase "we should be able to" can be paraphrased as "I think it's probable for us to be able to." In this extract, Obama talks about the "American Dream." The use of SHOULD references the future. In the last sentence, Obama uses the word "promise" and "dream" to refer to all the states which are signified by the main verbs, i.e. "find a job," "afford a home," "have a health care plan." He implies such states have not yet been achieved. SHOULD signifies an assumption the situations can occur after an expressed condition, i.e. "if we put in enough effort." Thus, this extract of Obama's speech can be reworded as "if we put in enough effort, it is probable for us to be able to do such-and -such." The phrase "we should be able to" occurs five times here and functions to remind listeners of their unrealised dreams and motivate them to keep working towards their dreams.

The Use of "MUST" to Denote Obligation

Extract 27 (T4, P9, L1-L5)

In the crucible of battle, you were tested in ways the rest of us will never know. You carry in your hearts the memory of the comrades you lost. For you understand that we **must** honour our fallen heroes not just on Memorial Day, but all days. And when an American goes missing, or is taken prisoner, we **must** do everything in our power to bring them home.

As mentioned in section 2.3.2, the modal MUST carries the highest degree of obligation. In this extract, the modal MUST is used twice to denote obligation. In both instances, it is assigned with the first person plural pronoun "we," referring to all American people. Therefore, the phrase "we must" can be paraphrased as "it is obligatory/essential for all Americans to do something." Here, Obama talks again about his plan to help Veterans. In this particular extract, Obama uses the stronger obligation modal "MUST." The repeated use of "we MUST" indicates an obligation to carry out certain actions to compensate veterans for their many contributions to the country. The use of modal "MUST" indicates Obama not only wants listeners to realise the importance of this issue, but also seeks approval for his efforts to put veterans back to work.

Extract 28 (T12, P5, L4-L6)

But the guy on stage last night, he said he'd never heard of tax breaks for companies that shift jobs overseas. Never heard of them. And he said, if that's true, he **must** need a new accountant.

The modal MUST used in extract 28 denotes necessity. It can be paraphrased as "it is necessary for...." The modal MUST is used with the third person pronoun "he," referring to Governor Romney. The last sentence, "he must need a new accountant," can be interpreted as "it is necessary for Romney to hire a new accountant." In this excerpt, Obama talks

about Romney's policy. The use of "MUST" highlights a necessity and a urgency for Romney to find a new accountant. In this case, Obama tries to convince all listeners that Romney's plan is not applicable, and this is why it is necessary for him to find a new accountant.

The Use of Modal Auxiliaries of Epistemic Possibility—MAY and MIGHT

The analysis carried out in section 4.1.3.4 showed that MAY and MIGHT are used predominantly to express root possibility, paraphrased as "it is possible for" or as "circumstances allow x" (Coates, 1983, p. 141). The following extracts are used to illustrate the intended meanings of the modals MAY and MIGHT in the selected speeches.

The Use of the Modal Auxiliary MAY to Denote Possibility

Extract 29 (T11, P9-P10, L1-L9)

Some of you **may** be students trying to work your way through college. (Applause.) Some of you **may** be single moms like my mom -- (applause) -- putting in overtime to see if you can provide a better life for your kids. Some of you **may** be senior citizens who have been saving your whole life for your retirement. Some of you **may** be veterans who have served this country bravely -- (applause) -- soldiers who defend our freedom today. Nobody believes that anyone is entitled to success in this country. We don't believe that government should be helping people who refuse to help themselves. But we do believe in something called opportunity.

In this extract, the modal MAY denotes possibility. The modal MAY is used with the second person pronoun "you," referring to the audience. The phrase "some of you may be" can be paraphrased as "it is possible for some of you to be..." From this context, the phrase "you may be" refers to the possible social roles, i.e. "students," "single moms," "senior citizens" and "veterans." It also refers to possible problems those people are facing, i.e. "trying to work your way through college," "putting in overtime to see if you can provide a better life for your kids," "saving your whole life for your retirement," etc. All of those possibilities expressed by the modal MAY are logically inherent in society. The use of MAY indicates Obama is trying to convince listeners not to pay attention to personal status. It does not matter who they are, people should believe in opportunities to become successful.

The Use of "MAY NOT" to Denote Possibility

Extract 30 (T15, P14, L10-L11)

And we **may not** have gotten every single thing done that we need to get done, but I have kept the commitments and the promises that I made.

In this extract, MAY NOT denotes possibility. It is used with the first person plural pronoun "we," referring to Obama's government. Obama talks about his achievements during his presidential span since 2008. The sentence "we may not have gotten every single thing done..." can be paraphrased "possibly it is the case that we have not done every single thing that..." According to Coates (1983, p.133), the modal auxiliary MAY is characterised subjectively, and perhaps most

importantly, by its use as a “hedge,” implying that the speaker is avoiding committing himself to the truth of the proposition. Hence, the use of “MAY NOT” functions as a hedge device to enable Obama to avoid admitting that his government has not done everything they promised to do. He shifts listeners’ attention to what he has achieved, increasing his credibility.

The Use of “MIGHT” to Denote Possibility

Coates (1983) explains MIGHT is used both as a past tense form of MAY and as a “remote” form of MAY to express hypothetical meaning. As shown in section 4.1.3.4, MIGHT is not frequently used in the data corpus. Extract 36 illustrates the use of MIGHT to denote possibility.

Extract 31 (T14, P20, L3-L4)

If you say you're for equal pay for equal work, but you keep refusing to say whether or not you'd sign a bill that protects equal pay for equal work -- you **might** have Romnesia.

In the extract, MIGHT is used to denote a subjective epistemic possibility. It can be paraphrased as “it is possible that...” or with adverbs like “perhaps” and “maybe.” Here, Obama satirises Governor Romney by saying that he *maybe* has Romnesia, since Romney is described as forgetting what his positions are. Therefore, Obama wants to persuade listeners that Governor Romney is not a trustworthy person. The function of MIGHT is used as hedge device to express the assessment of possibility as roughly 50/50. The linguistic choice of MIGHT indicates Obama wants to avoid making any commitments to the factuality of his utterance. Therefore the modal auxiliary MIGHT is the best choice to express tentativeness.

Conclusion

The findings of this study show that the modal auxiliary WILL in a semantic cluster of intention/prediction/futurity played an important role in Obama’s campaign speeches. This might be due to the nature of campaign speeches which aim to persuade addressees to vote. In addition, WILL signifying prediction is mostly used in Obama’s speeches, functioning to depict Obama’s future plans. In many ways, the use of WILL foregrounds Obama’s objectives and functions as a promise, thus increasing addressees’ confidence towards his government. Even though the use of WILL signifying volition does not occur as frequently as WILL signifying prediction, WILL=volition is also an important aspect of Obama’s speeches. When WILL is used to signify volition, it is used with the first person pronouns “we” and “I,” referring to Obama’s government and Obama himself. Obama uses WILL=volition to express his intentions on how to rebuild the country. WILL=volition functions to imply that Obama is a man of action and increases his credibility. The modal auxiliary WOULD is mostly used in the past tense form of WILL=volition. In Coates’ study (1983), she points out that WOULD denotes past volition and is infrequently used, because the past is known. What people intended to do in the past becomes relatively insignificant in the light of what is known to have happened (p.207-208). However, the use of WOULD in the past tense form of intention

in Obama's campaign speeches is meaningful. The reason Obama deliberately mentions his past intentions is because he wants to remind addressees he has accomplished what he intended to do, and that he has kept his word. By properly using WOULD, Obama successfully presents himself as a trustworthy and authoritative person. In the semantic cluster of possibility/ability/permission, the modal auxiliary used most frequently is CAN. Bista (2009) argues that one possible reason CAN is frequently used in Obama's speeches is because that modal CAN is extremely common across registers. This argument might be right, but the modal CAN makes a big contribution in increasing the persuasiveness of Obama's speeches. The analysis carried out found that CAN is mostly used to denote possibility. In this study, the possibility denoted by CAN is closely associated with people's wishes and hopes, i.e. find a job, buy a home, send kids to college, retire with dignity, etc. By using the modal auxiliary CAN, Obama reminds all citizens to look on the bright side. Thus, the use of CAN evokes positive connotations in the minds of listeners. In Obama's speeches, CAN is also used to denote ability and personal authority. When CAN is used to denote ability, it foregrounds the ability and capacity to make things better, thus the persuasion is realised through motivation and inspiration. When CAN is used to denote permission, it refers more to personal authority, more precisely, people's voting rights. Thus, Obama uses CAN=authority to persuade addressees to get involved in the election and to use their right to vote. The modal COULD was used to signify hypothetical possibility often in the selected speeches. Obama uses the hypothetical COULD as a hedge device to express his assumptions. Using WILL or CAN, high certainty modal auxiliaries, to express assumptions seems too straightforward. Speakers who choose the hypothetical COULD are concerned with a possible change in circumstances. Obama uses the hypothetical COULD to make his words rigorous. In the semantic cluster of obligation/necessity, the mostly used modal auxiliary is SHOULD. In this study, the modal SHOULD is used mostly as suggestion. In Obama's campaign speeches, suggestions refer more to Obama's proposals or political views. The use of the modal SHOULD functions to persuade listeners to support Obama's political views. In this study, it was found MAY and MIGHT are the least modals in Obama's speeches. This is because the ultimate goal of campaign speeches is to persuade listeners to vote, and modal auxiliaries, i.e. MAY and MIGHT, express low certainty, thus are not good choices to convince others. This is why in most cases, if Obama wanted to express possibility, he used CAN. Another interesting finding is that MAY and MIGHT are also used as hedge devices. Obama uses MAY and MIGHT to avoid making commitments to the factuality of his utterances.

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**IMPORTANCE OF DIGITAL MARKETING SKILL FOR NEW GENERATION OF MARKETERS IN
GEORGIA. INCONSISTENCY BETWEEN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS AND PRACTICAL SKILLS
THAT ARE REQUIRED FOR FUTURE STUDENTS' EMPLOYMENT**

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Abstract

The article aims at solving a problem of discrepancy between knowledge that students get in Georgian universities and real-life business requirements for future employees. The goal of the paper was to analyze the most common requirements for marketers in Georgia and to compare these data with educational programs that are existing nowadays. The paper discusses the evolution and transformation of marketing studies in Georgia. Nowadays, making the move towards digital technology and in particular communicating a brand through digital marketing is an important step for any business, large or small. A survey conducted as part of the 2015 Digital Trends Briefing showed that although two thirds of the respondents wanted to get their digital marketing journey started, only 23% felt they had the right technology to succeed, while others worried that the lack of skills was a major issue. The goal of the paper is to help raise the next generation of professional marketers who will have enough skills and knowledge to develop local businesses. The author explored and examined educational programs of Georgian universities in the field of Marketing, identified a component of online or digital marketing in it and gave some recommendations for future improvement. To make a landscape clearer successful international cases were studied. The paper provides an overview of Digital Marketing syllabuses from the leading international universities. The practical value of the paper is the development of a new syllabus for Marketing faculties.

Keywords: Marketing, Digital marketing, Georgia, Education, Employment, Syllabus

The world is getting increasingly digitized. People are consuming electronic content faster every day. More than two thirds of the world's population is online, and the numbers are growing each day. With more than 1 billion global users, digital media is creating a significant impact in our everyday lives. Organizations around the world are waking up to the opportunity of this revolutionary medium to fulfil various business objectives in sales, marketing, CRM, product development and research. Companies and the world in general are starting to recognize the importance of going digital

and it is essential that marketing departments adapt quickly to the new circumstances and actively hire professionals in the field of digital marketing (Careeraddict, 2017).

The topic of the research deals with the issues of employability and the problem of employment for marketing graduates. The goal of the study was to investigate what skills would be essential to make a graduate employable. The tendency of employment in Georgia is positive. The percentage of unemployed labour force is decreasing. At the same time, we can see that self-employed population is a the majority now. Small businesses need good marketing specialists, as they need to compete on a saturated market.

**Distribution by economic status of the female population aged 15 and older,
2010-2015**

	Thousand persons					
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Active population (labour force), total	907.9	915.6	947.7	925.4	919.7	936.7
Employed	776.7	795.3	816.9	811.3	823.6	841.0
Hired	300.2	297.9	303.0	311.5	321.9	351.6
Self-employed	475.6	493.2	509.7	494.6	498.0	484.5
Not-identified worker	0.8	4.3	4.2	5.2	3.7	4.9
Unemployed	131.2	120.3	130.8	114.1	96.1	95.7
Population outside labour force	728.1	725.3	703.4	705.2	691.5	653.2
Unemployment rate (percentage)	14.5	13.1	13.8	12.3	10.4	10.2
Economic activity rate (percentage)	55.5	55.8	57.4	56.8	57.1	58.9
Employment rate (percentage)	47.5	48.5	49.5	49.8	51.1	52.9

Table 1

**Distribution by economic status of the male population aged 15 and older, 1998-
2015**

	Thousand persons					
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Active population (labour force), total	1037.1	1043.6	1081.4	1078.5	1071.5	1084.9
Employed	851.4	868.9	907.2	900.7	921.6	938.9
Hired	318.3	334.1	359.6	346.7	370.4	401.8
Self-employed	531.5	532.2	544.3	549.3	548.1	533.6
Not-identified worker	1.6	2.5	3.2	4.8	3.1	3.5
Unemployed	185.6	174.8	174.2	177.8	149.9	145.9
Population outside labour force	355.3	320.6	301.8	317.1	312.8	305.1
Unemployment rate (percentage)	17.9	16.7	16.1	16.5	14.0	13.5
Economic activity rate (percentage)	74.5	76.5	78.2	77.3	77.4	78.1
Employment rate (percentage)	61.2	63.7	65.6	64.5	66.6	67.6

Table 2

The following criteria and explanations used by Geostat (the statistics agency of Georgia) are based on the International Labor Organization (ILO) methodology. The definitions below are from Labor Force Statistics (n.d.)

Economically Active is a person at the age of 15 or above who works or offers his/her labor for the production of services or products, that fall within the frame of domestic product as determined in the national accounts system of United Nations (UN).

Employed (hired or self-employed) is a person at the age of 15 or above who worked 7 days prior to the interview process (for at least one hour a day) to generate income (salary, profit or other compensation in kind), or helped other household members for free, or was formally considered employed but for some reason did not attend the work.

Hired is a person at the age of 15 or above who performed a certain type of work during the accounting period in order to generate income or other compensation in cash or in kind. Also, a person who has a job, but is temporarily released from the job due to leave, sickness, temporary suspension of working process of the employer, temporary suspension of labor activities of the employee or other similar reasons.

Self-employed is an owner of a personal enterprise during the accounting period, in order to generate profit or family income (cash or in kind) or a person working for free in family enterprise/holding.

Statistics shows that the number of self-employed Georgians is higher than hired ones, comparing 533,600 to 401,800 for male and 484,500 to 351,600 for female in 2015 (Geostat, 2017). These numbers showing that the majority of Georgian population has their own businesses, doing personal enterprise. Digital marketing skills are crucial for entrepreneurs with small and medium-size businesses, as it is more cost-effective than traditional marketing. This is especially important for small businesses, as they do not have many resources or a lot of capital. New media can provide them a cheaper and more effective advertising channel.

What is Digital Marketing?

It is the promotion of products or brands via one or more forms of electronic media. It is extremely important, not only because of its rapid growth but also because it is essentially the future of marketing. Many people think that traditional promotion will soon be replaced entirely. The new methods are faster, more practical and versatile than the traditional ones. These are some of the most common forms of digital marketing:

- Website (SEO content)
- Blogs
- Online Advertising
- Viral Marketing

- Online video content
- PPC (pay-per-click) advertising
- Email marketing
- Social media (Facebook, Instagram, VK, LinkedIn, Twitter, Pinterest, Tumblr, G+, ,etc.)
- Mobile marketing (SMS, MMS, etc.).

The most demanded positions on Georgian labor market are Digital Marketing Specialist, Search Engine Marketing (SEO) specialist, Social Media Marketing (SMM) specialist, Brand manager and Marketing Manager. Marketers have a long range of different specializations: Marketing Communications Specialist, Marketing Coordinator, Marketing Communication Director, Marketing Assistant, Product Specialist, Product Marketing Analyst, Marketing Director, Marketing Manager, Digital Marketing Specialist, Events Marketing Specialist, Content Marketing Specialist, B2B Marketing Specialist, Email Marketing Manager, Social Media Marketing (SMM) specialist, Search Engine Marketing (SEO) specialist, Web Analyst, PPC specialists, Brand manager, etc.

Unfortunately, Georgian companies are still trying to find one person who will conduct all these operations simultaneously. The quality of work in this case is not good as it requires a big amount of different technical skills. Digital marketing specialists now are highly demanded and well-paid all around the world. Here are listed the descriptions of the most popular jobs in digital marketing:

PPC specialists are experts in internet advertising, responsible for planning and optimizing the effectiveness of online advertising campaigns. Pay per click (PPC) is the term used to refer to paid advertising on the internet, usually through Google AdWords or Yandex Ads.

Social media managers are responsible for developing and implementing marketing strategies for a business's social media sites. This might include blogging, creating social media profiles, managing regular posts and responding to followers.

Brand managers are concerned with creating a lasting impression among consumers and improving product sales and market share. A brand manager monitors market trends and oversees advertising and marketing activities to ensure the right message is delivered for their product or service (Creative Pool, 2015).

Email marketing specialist is responsible for creating email marketing campaigns to promote a product or service. Determines target audience, devises campaign, and launches email campaign to create buzz or generate leads for the business.

Methodology

The method used in the research was interviews with the company representatives, study of the syllabuses offered by local, as well as foreign leading universities and the analysis of the vacancies posted by the companies on Jobs.ge – the non-profit job search project in 1998 (the data of 2017 are used).

Firstly, the kind of marketing specialists required nowadays in Georgia, Tbilisi was studied. Five main specializations were identified: Digital Marketing Specialist, Search Engine Marketing specialist, Social Media Marketing specialist, Brand manager and Marketing Manager. The main qualifications were divided into 2 categories: hard skills (technical skills) and soft skills (Tab.3). The idea was to see the gap between existing academic programs and real-life requirement for employment. Unfortunately, the gap is huge.

Table 3 Skills that are required by employers. Scale from 1 (basic understanding) to 5 (absolutely essential).

	Digital Marketing Specialist	Search Engine Marketing (SEO) specialist	Social Media Marketing (SMM) specialist	Brand manager	Marketing Manager
Degree					
Bachelor in Marketing	+	+	+	+	+
Master in Marketing				+	+
Hard skills					
Web analytics (Google Analytics, Yandex Metrica)	3	5	3	2	2
Digital advertising in Social media (Facebook, Instagram, Twitter etc.)	4	2	5	4	3
PPC (pay-per-click) advertising (Google AdWords, Yandex direct)	2	5	1	2	1
Search Engine Optimization	2	5	1	1	2
Adobe Analytics	5	5	4	2	2
Email marketing	5	3	3	3	2
Marketing strategy	3	3	3	3	5
Branding	3	3	3	3	5
Market analysis	3	3	3	3	5

Customer research	3	1	5	5	5
AdobePhotoshop, Illustrator, InDesign	5	1	5	3	1
	Soft skills				
Learning skills	5	5	5	5	5
Communication skills	4	2	4	4	5
Management skills	4	2	2	4	5
Time management skills	3	2	2	3	5
Creativity	4	1	4	4	4

As it is possible to see, Digital marketing requires a lot of technical knowledge, like Web analytics (Google Analytics, Yandex Metrica), Digital advertising in Social media (Facebook, Instagram, Twitter etc.), PPC (pay-per-click) advertising (Google AdWords, Yandex direct), Search Engine Optimization, Adobe Analytics, Email marketing, Adobe Photoshop, Illustrator, InDesign. Georgian universities cannot provide future marketers with such knowledge, so most of professionals take additional online courses. Employers also usually provide comprehensive on-the-job training in their product, pricing and marketing departments. New entrants usually start in a junior position and work under the supervision of an experienced colleague.

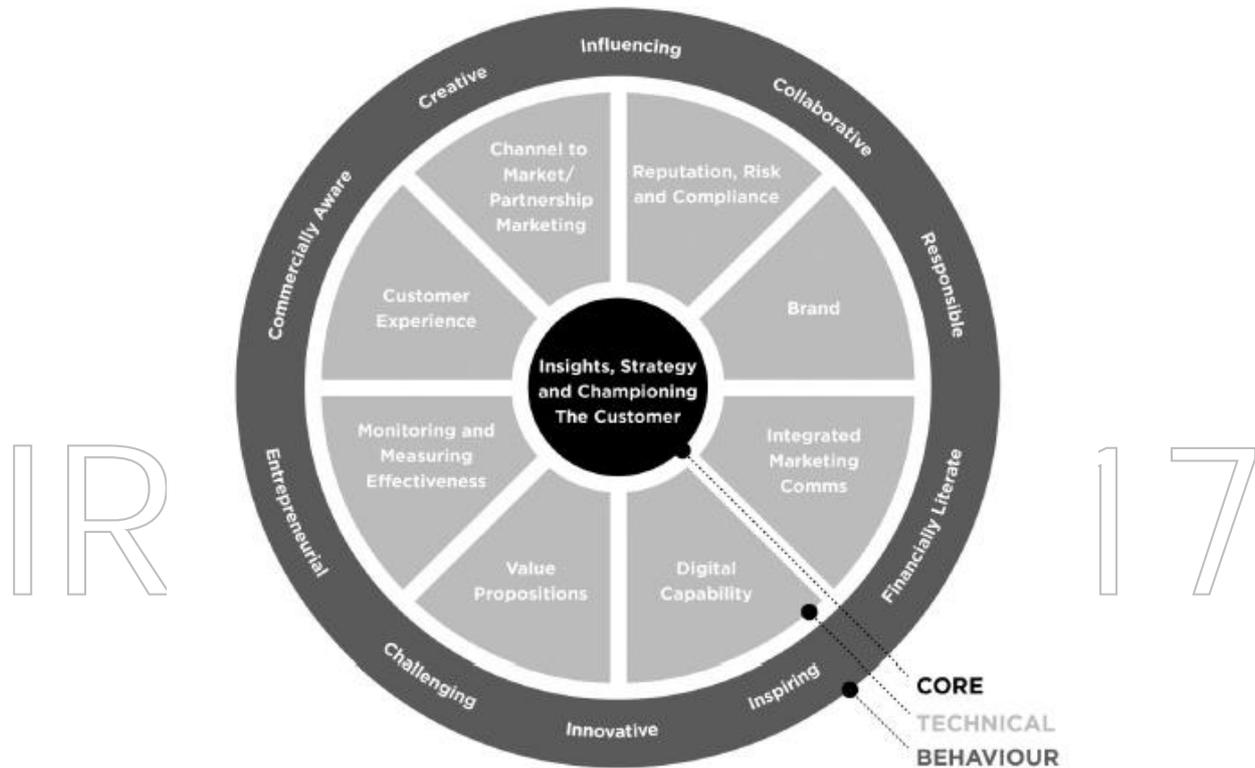
On-the-job training is complemented by professional marketing qualifications. There are a number of options available through the:

- Chartered Institute of Marketing (CIM)
- Institute of Direct Marketing (IDM)
- Institute of Sales and Marketing Management (ISMM)
- Communication Advertising and Marketing Education Foundation (CAM).

These range from introductory certificates to advanced level qualifications. Entry requirements for the different levels vary depending on business experience and academic ability. Senior brand managers typically work towards the CIM Professional Postgraduate Diploma in Marketing (DipM), which is recognized internationally. CIM (Chartered Institute of Marketing) strongly believes that high standards of quality and integrity are vital to the success of the marketing profession so maintaining, developing and setting standards within the industry is a key part of CIM's work. The Professional Marketing Standards were developed and released in 2006 by CIM and have recently undergone further review following extensive research with employers and leading academics (CIM, 2017). The 2014 release of the Professional Marketing Standards (Tab.4) clearly show the competencies expected of marketing professionals at each

stage of their career and are designed to guide both marketers and their employers to assess a level of proficiency and training needs (2017).

Table 4 Professional Marketing Standards (based on CIM, 2017a)



Only few Georgian universities are offering a Marketing course, but after detailed research of their Syllabuses, it was found that the amount of credits for Online marketing was only from 5 to 15 in Bachelor degree Business programs. On average, 60% of a marketer's time is devoted to digital marketing activities, fueling demand for digital marketing skills (Allen, 2016). It means that Georgian universities should immediately update their Syllabuses if they want to meet the requirements of the 21 century.

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RUBRICS FOR ESSAYS AND THE L2 WRITER

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Abstract

Rubrics have long been used to increase validity and reliability in evaluating student research writing. However, little research has been done on the use of rubrics with Non-Native English Speaking (NNES) students (Becker, 2010; East & Young, 2007). Because of the fundamental differences in NNES student writing, a new, task-driven rubric is proposed for NNES writers learning to write through a process approach. This rubric focused on the accomplishment of tasks set out throughout the writing course rather than evaluations of the final draft. Results indicated increased overall reliability as well as improved teacher and student impressions of the rubric. Qualitative analyses also indicated that several traditional rubric categories were particularly problematic when used to evaluate NNES student writing. Suggestion for teachers and writing evaluators include research-informed rubric design, category reliability characteristics, and feasibility of rubric use for teachers.

Keywords: L2 writing, rubrics, assessment

Essay writing is a substantial part of the university experience as students are required to write essays for a variety of instructors across most, if not all, disciplines. When looking at common courses of North American university students, 74% had a minimum of a brief research paper required (Bridgeman & Carlson, 1983); but, overall, there was an average of 2.3 essays per course (Hale et al., 1996). As global student mobility has increased, more and more attention has been paid to teaching L2 students the multitude of skills and subskills required to write a successful essay. However, challenges remain and are often compounded by L2 students who not only must master the art of creating a successful essay but also may need support with the grammar and vocabulary required in academic writing at the university level. Perhaps because of the complexity of this task, a variety of approaches have been developed for teaching essays to L2 students with three emerging as most relevant to the discussion at hand: First Year Composition (FYC), Process Approach, and Discourse Approach.

First Year Composition

Most university curricula include a writing instruction course for first year students. These courses are typically designed to promote four areas of writing and critical reading skills: (a) *rhetorical knowledge*, which including the purpose, audience, and context of texts; (b) *critical thinking, reading, and composing*, which includes substantiating claims made in text through evidence; (c) *processes*, which includes multiple drafts, review, and giving feedback to others; and (d) *knowledge of conventions*, which includes grammar, spelling, tone, formatting, genre, citation systems, and negotiating intellectual property issues (Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2014). These common goals are largely recognized as needed for all university students, both native speakers and L2 students, in order to be successful across a wide variety of disciplines.

However, within this framework, the skillset of native speakers often varies greatly from the L2 student who may have been brought up in a different system with different expectations. Gungle and Taylor (1989) argue that these differing expectations are the one commonality faced by all students who transition to a different university culture than their primary and secondary school. The response to this in North America is to separate students based on their backgrounds and, by extension, their expectations. In a model similar to the adjunct model of Content Based Instruction (Snow, 2013), international students are given additional, specialized instruction, aiming to develop the linguistic-related skill sets that their local contemporaries might have already mastered. This type of course is so specialized that Matsuda (2008) argues that in North America, international L2 students must be taught separately from local L2 students who grew up speaking a different language.

Using a needs analysis, instructors of specialized writing courses are often able to develop the required skills if there are enough time and resources. However, assessing the student writing in these types of courses presents a particular problem. If the same rubrics are used as those for native speaking local students, the specialized course students may be evaluated in comparison to those who have had direct instruction on essay writing, have had more experience in writing, and are not navigating linguistic issues. The result of this comparison is that international L2 students' scores are often lower (Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995). Therefore, a movement of rubric development for these types of courses is needed (Becker, 2010; East & Young, 2007).

Process Approach

While approaches commonly found within the FYC field often address the relationship between the author (in this case, a student), the message, and the audience (in this case, the instructor), a process approach is typical in this course as a way to segment the tasks required to complete a researched, organized, and refined essay. This is typically done through several steps of a process. The Council of Writing Program Administrators (2014) recommend this focus in FYC courses in their *Outcome Statements*, stating that "Writers use multiple strategies, or composing processes, to

conceptualize, develop, and finalize [writing] projects” (p. 8). Process approach-oriented writing curricula often focus on a reading (research) stage followed by an outline, intended to organize the text that is yet to be produced by the student.

While many writing teachers recommend multiple drafts, the author has observed that not all require them to be submitted. Alternatively, in an L2 setting, drafting can have a variety of foci. In an L2 classroom, it seems logical to work through multiple drafts in order to improve the mechanics – grammar, vocabulary, spelling, and formatting – of an essay. However, Goldstein and Conrad (1990) observed that, depending on the motivation and involvement of the student in the process, peer conferences on these drafts do not always result in greatly improved mechanics in L2 student writing.

Discourse Approach

Writing is an act of communication. However, L2 students from different cultures have different expectations as to the purpose and goal of the university level essay. One of the challenges that are faced by all essay writers is how to craft a text to accomplish a task set out in the assignment prompt. The segments of text that accomplish a specific communicative function have been referred to as moves and steps (Swales, 1981). This presents several challenges when teaching academic writing as students may be focused on the mechanics of writing rather than the message that is conveyed. Students may not have sufficient experience or proficiency with the language to fully control issues such as grammar, word use, spelling, or accurate punctuation (Mitchell, 1991). However, through techniques such as creating an outline and looking at several drafts, students can receive enough feedback from the instructor and from other students about the messages being conveyed in their essay.

Depending on the goals of any given writing course, moves within a student’s essay can serve as the focus of assessment as communication is often the central goal of any writing activity. In other terms, instead of a focus on overall task accomplishment by the essay, perhaps evaluating each required task independently would allow for language issues to be treated separately and provide more feedback to students as to how well the sections of their essay was accomplishing the goals.

Evaluating Writing

Rooted in the century-old tradition of teaching essay writing in FYC courses, traditional assessment groups together broad aspects of writing. These may include categories that are based on the type of essay, such as *argument* or *research*, or can be general such as *organization* and *mechanics*. These categories are common enough that many writing teachers feel comfortable in its validity and reliability with their students. In a separate, yet unpublished, study by the author and a former colleague (Hirschi & Moreno, 2015), one such rubric was the impetus for an investigation on the relationships with L2 students. The rubric was divided into five categories. See Table 1.

Table 1 Conventional Rubric Specifications, (Hirschi & Moreno, 2015).

Rubric Band	Percent of total score
<i>Introduction, thesis, and conclusion</i>	20%
<i>Assignment prompt & content development</i>	34%
<i>Research objectives</i>	20%
<i>Visual aids</i>	17%
<i>Language use</i>	10%
<i>Total</i>	100%

Anecdotal discussion with teachers using this rubric revealed wide variation in score with L2 students. These L2 students, taught in a separate classroom with additional class time, were to follow the same curriculum as local native speaker students. These teachers voiced a concern that the rubric was difficult to use as the categories tended to overlap. For example, there was a grammar error in the thesis statement, resulting in a question of how to mark such an error: in the first band (*Introduction, thesis, and conclusion*), or in the last (*language use*). Furthermore, several discussions took place about the need and reality of an L2 learner mastering both the subskill of writing a thesis statement and writing without grammatical errors.

To address the concerns of these teachers, a new rubric was developed based on the discourse approach. Instead of focusing on broad categories, a new rubric was designed to allow the reviewer to evaluate the accomplishment of tasks as they appeared in the essay. Driven by the requirements for the introduction paragraph, body paragraphs, and conclusion paragraph, the rubric was divided into 12 categories, forming a hybrid checklist-analytic rubric (Miller, Linn, & Gronlund, 2013). See Table 2.

Table 2 Discourse-driven Rubric Specifications, (Hirschi & Moreno, 2015).

Rubric Band	Percent of total score
<i>Introduction</i>	11%
<i>Thesis Statement</i>	4%
<i>Theme One</i>	11%
<i>Theme Two</i>	11%
<i>Theme Three</i>	11%
<i>Conclusion</i>	7%

<i>Neutrality</i>	11%
<i>Visual Aids</i>	4%
<i>Connections between ideas</i>	11%
<i>Formatting</i>	7%
<i>Grammar & Punctuation</i>	4%
<i>Academic Word Choice</i>	7%
<i>Total</i>	100%

The author and co-author set out to investigate the difference in raters using these two rubrics. The following account will summarize the methods and offer an alternative interpretation of the results. In the study, eight final essays were collected from international L2 students in an FYC course at a North American university. 13 raters from the same institution used the two rubrics to evaluate the essays. Results are perhaps best interpreted through visual representations. See Figures 1 and 2 for dot plot graphs.

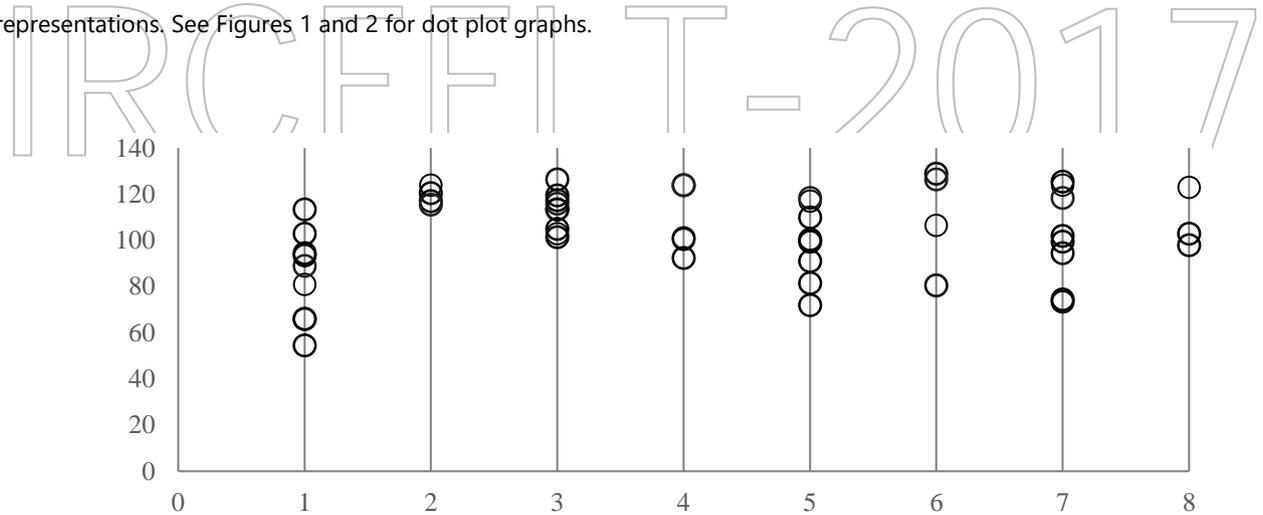


Figure 1 Dot plot of conventional rubric scores, (Hirschi & Moreno, 2015).

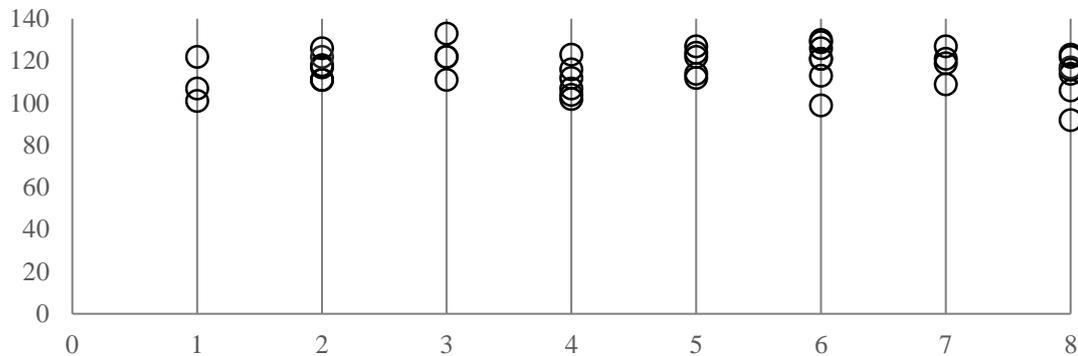


Figure 2 Dot plot of discourse-driven rubric scores, (Hirschi & Moreno, 2015).

The dot plots reveal much closer clustering of total scores using the discourse-driven rubric. This was corroborated by an increased intra-class correlation score of .13 (conventional rubric score: .59, discourse-driven rubric score: .72). While both are within the range of reliable in general education practice (Miller et al., 2013), the extent to which they were reliable was increased using the discourse-driven approach.

One interesting finding of the study is the relationship of scores of the same essays between the two rubric types. A correlational study produced a resulting correlation coefficient of $r=.41$, a figure surprisingly low for several raters evaluating the same essay using two different rubrics. See Figure 4.

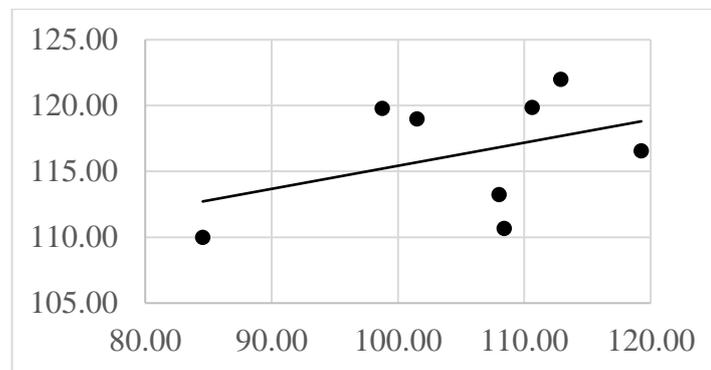


Figure 4 Correlation of mean scores on 8 essays using each rubric, (Hirschi & Moreno, 2015).

Both the descriptive statistics studies and the correlational studies revealed that the two rubrics were not only producing different scores, but that they were measuring different constructs to an extent. While three essays had relatively the same average score, two essays scored 20% different between the two rubrics. As there was an increase in reliability in the *discourse driven* rubric, it is possible that the *conventional* rubric was mixing the sub-constructs measure

in each band because of language issues. Therefore, several suggestions can be made to increase the reliability of rubrics in these types of writing tasks.

Suggestions

When designing a rubric, the construct must be carefully considered; The adage “test what you teach” comes to mind. If a writing course focuses on the language aspect, perhaps the rubric should only include linguistic bands such as grammar, spelling, punctuation, and word choice. If the focus is more on grammar, perhaps the weighting of the rubric bands should be adjusted to reflect this. However, since writing is essentially a communicative act, this type of rubric would seem counterproductive to the holistic development of an L2 student’s writing skills. Therefore, depending on the teaching context, should be assessed in terms of how well that communicative act is achieved.

Not only would a discourse-driven rubric help raters increase their reliability, it would also allow L2 students to focus on the message in their writing. As students should be given the rubric at the assignment of the writing task, they can craft an essay with that particular rubric in mind, something that could influence the students to perform better in the course (Panadero & Jonsson, 2013). While several studies have indicated the positive effect on academic achievement, more studies are necessary with L2 students (both local and international) in order to fully understand their impact on writing ability.

Another important focus of the writing course is the process approach to essay writing. In order to encourage a purposeful engagement throughout the writing process, a rubric could be created to reflect this. One such rubric might assess each stage of the writing process independently, serving as a checklist. See table 3.

Table 3 Writing process checklist rubric

Rubric Band	Percent of total score
<i>Research task</i>	20%
<i>Outline</i>	20%
<i>First draft</i>	20%
<i>Peer review</i>	20%
<i>Final draft</i>	20%
<i>Total</i>	100%

In summary, rubric design has a large impact on what is being measured as well as the reliability of raters when evaluating L2 student writing. The reality L2 university students face is that they must interact and be successful with a variety of types of rubrics ranging from those published in course syllabi to the TOEFL writing section. To prepare L2 students, perhaps the best way is to use a variety of types of rubrics. This approach to assessment may not only promote students' awareness of the need to adjust writing to match the needs of the task, but also promote an awareness of other types of tasks given by course instructors.

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CLINTON'S DISCOURSE AND TRUMP'S VICTORY: A COGNITIVE LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF CLINTON'S SPEECHES

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Abstract

The topicality of this study is based on the fact that speeches of politicians play a crucial role in their career. The aim of this study is to analyze the linguistic nuances in Clinton's speeches, which influence people's minds and reveal her persuasive techniques, as well as to identify the frames she uses to influence the moral worldviews of Americans. The material for this study was collected from three types of sources that are the online reviews of the first, second and the third US Presidential Debates Trump vs. Clinton. The results of the study proved that Clinton's speeches failed to introduce the national values of the major part of American voters. A skillful politician should understand how framing, especially framing of "trust", works, as framing is not obvious. She was mostly interested to construct a narrative of herself, which definitely influenced the results of the elections.

Keywords: political discourse, persuasive techniques, frames.

As Hillary Clinton mentions in her speech during the second debate, "... words matter when you run for president, and they really matter when you are a president" (NBC News, 2016). In the world of politics words tend not to be neutral but are mostly defined with respect to political worldviews.

The **topicality** of this study is based on the fact that speeches of politicians play a crucial role in their career. According to cognitive scholars, people can only understand what their brain circuitry allows them to understand. Correspondingly, if the facts are unable to correspond to the worldviews in voters' brains, the facts may pass unnoticed and can even be rejected.

The **aim** of this study is to analyze the linguistic nuances in Clinton's speeches, which influence people's minds and reveal her persuasive techniques, as well as to identify the frames, image schemas and devices she uses to influence the moral worldviews of the Americans. Politicians have to consider cognitive science properly, to draw appropriate frames, conceptual metaphors, to construct the moral worldviews of the nation and thus to control and even rule the unconscious mind of the voters.

The **material** for this study was collected from three types of sources that are the online reviews of the first, second and the third US Presidential Debates Trump vs. Clinton on 24.10.2016, 30.10.2016, 30.10.2016, correspondingly(NBC News, 2016a; 2016b; & 2016c).

In his speeches Trump expressed his viewpoints on several important issues using a very forceful language, saying things that Clinton's supporters, that is to say liberals, found outrageous. That definitely appealed to Trump's supporters. Clinton's campaign strategy was mainly based on negative campaigning, and Clinton's supporters as well as Clinton herself in her speeches made consistently repeated these outrageous words and expressions trying to use them against Trump. And what happened? Negating the frame only activated the frames outlined by Trump making these frames even stronger by a constant repetition of his words, thoughts and beliefs. Some advertisements against Trump were financed by Clinton's campaign, which definitely served as a PR strategy to raise Trump's profile with his potential voters, and even more, attracted new supporters by a constant repetition of his name, deeds and thoughts. She even invited the potential voters to visit her website HillaryClinton.com, which she turned into a fact-checker. And Trump mentions this fact in his second debate with Clinton.

Trump: *You know, Hillary is hitting me with tremendous commercials... But you want to know the truth? I was going to say something rough to Hillary, to her family, and I said to myself, "I can't do it. I just can't do it. It's inappropriate. It's not nice." But **she spent hundreds of millions of dollars on negative ads on me, many of which are absolutely untrue. They are untrue and they are misrepresentations. And I will tell you this, Lester (the interviewer): it's not nice. And I don't deserve that. But it's certainly not a nice thing she has done. It's hundreds of millions of ads. And the only gratifying thing is, I saw the polls come in today, and with all of that money \$200 million is spent, and I'm either winning or tied, and I have spent practically nothing**".*

And Trump was right, because assuming that negating a frame with repetitive sentences every day pointing out Trump's forceful and sometimes even disgusting language and image activated and strengthened his frames, as the more people hear the same even negative language, see the same negative image, the more his worldview affect their unconscious minds, activating these, that is to say Trump's frames.

So the first thing that has to be deduced about the language of politics is: never repeat the language of the opponent, never pay for his images in advertisements and never negate the framing of his issues.

As we all now nowadays framing is considered not only to be a way of shaping the world but rather the way of shaping our unconscious perception and viewing of the world. Thus, framing can undoubtedly be considered as one of the most powerful tools.

A theory based on semantic frames asserts that word meanings can only be understood with respect to frames. Once the frame is created it incorporates into people's minds and it can be a really arduous task to change or even shift this frame. According to *Evans, V. & Green, M. (2006) citing Fillmore, "...frame is a schematization of experience, which is*

represented at a conceptual level and held in long memory. The frame relates to the elements and the entities associated with a particular culturally embedded scene from human experience (p. 222). And framing does play an important role in Clinton's discourse, introducing her viewpoint on American values. Sometimes reframing is needed, especially when we find ourselves in new and even extraordinary situations which make up change our worldview of the world. This process is called reframing.

As so far no woman has ever been elected the US President, and the common frame of presidency is masculinity, Clinton made an attempt of reframing the commonly accepted frame "President – the Father of the nation". Alongside with some other frames she created a frame of her Self that fits with the presidency.

Clinton: "Donald was very fortunate in his life and that's all to his benefit. **He started his business with \$ 14 million, borrowed from his father**, and he really believes that the more you help wealthy people, the better off we will be and that everything will work out of there.

*I have a different experience. **My father was a small businessman. He worked really hard....So what I believe is the more we can do for the middle class, the more we can invest in you, your education, your skills, your future, the better we will be off and the better we will grow.** That's the kind of economy I want us to see again"* (American Spoken English, 2016).

Clinton: "First we have to build an economy that works for everyone, **not just those at the top**. That means we need new jobs with rising incomes....If you help create the profits you should be able to invest in them, not just the executives at the top"(American Spoken English, 2016).

Clinton: "In fact, it would be **the most extreme version, the biggest tax cuts for the top percent of the people in this country** than we've ever had. I call it trumped-up trickle down, because that is exactly what it would be. That's not how we grow the economy". "We had the worst financial crisis ... since the 1930s. That was in large part because of **tax policies that slashed taxes on the wealthy, failed to invest in the middle class**, took their eyes off the Wall Street, and created a perfect storm". (American Spoken English, 2016).

Clinton uses the frame of her Self, that is the Personal Frame, skillfully attaching it to the frame of Family and the frame of Prosperity, clearly supporting the middle class and criticizing the corporations and executives at the top both in terms of tax reduction and creating profits. By evoking the family frame she becomes closer to her audience, underlining that she is no different from the average American, as if she messages "I am one of you and you are my Family". Clinton in her speeches is constantly framing herself, thinking that by doing this she will definitely acquire more votes, more trust and devotion within the minds of her voters. In this way she attempts to create a frame of a strong, independent, educated woman with the abilities to lead America. Unfortunately, in her speeches she clearly behaves like a woman, especially when debating with such a strong smart and eccentric person as Trump is.

Clinton: "Well actually...".

Trump: *"I will bring, excuse me. I will bring back jobs. You can't bring back jobs".*

Clinton: *"Well, actually, I have thought about that quite a bit".*

Trump: *"Yeah, for 30 years".*

Clinton: *"And I have... well, not quite that long. I think my husband did a pretty good job in the 1990s"* (American Spoken English, 2016).

Nevertheless, she did not succeed in ruining old and rather rooted stereotype of Nurturant and strict family models which still prevail in American culture. As G. Lakoff (2016) states in his work "A minority president: why the polls failed and what the majority can do", in nurturant families parents have to satisfy their children's needs that is food, education, good health, etc. Besides, parents have to take care of themselves as well, to be able to take care of their children. For their support and well-being children need to be obedient, have some responsibilities, clear limits and guidelines, etc. When his children disobey, it is the strict father's moral duty to punish them.

As elections show the concept of a family really worked, but with a strong strict, caring wealthy Father who takes the whole responsibility and the burden, supports, protects and care. Corporations and those who own and run them are metaphorical strict fathers. Corporations are "persons" who can engage in political lobbying, who seek to maximize their profits, set rules for their employees and can punish them in various ways, ultimately by firing them or laying them off (Lakoff, 2016).

Perhaps this can be explained by the concept of the Founding Fathers of the United States, that is the thirteen colonies in North America who led the American Revolution against British authority and contributed to the establishment of the United States of America. All the seven figures who were the key Founding Fathers were men: John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Alexander Hamilton, John Jay, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison and George Washington.

The use of pronouns can play a crucial role for the speech maker in achieving his goals, and in Clinton's practice personal deixis, which mainly expressed by personal and possessive pronouns.

1st person pronouns refer to the speaker or writer. When the 1st person deixis is used the communicative function is focused on the speaker, who makes personal points of view excludes others. Personal deixis is somewhat subjective and can positively influence the audience in case the audience can see an actual person with potential ideologies and commitment in the matters discussed. Using the 1st person deixis, the speaker becomes fully responsible for what is said and done, and is in a power position, where the speaker is the doer of the action and possesses some definite kind of authority. Personal pronouns somewhat resemble possessive pronouns because they both make cohesion within a text. Possessive pronouns as well as the personal ones help the audience to understand who is involved and not involved in a communicative situation. "My" and "mine" refer to the speaker only.

Clinton: *"If we set those goals and go together to try to achieve them, there is nothing in **my** opinion that Americans can't do. So that's why I hope that we will come together in this campaign. Obviously, I am hoping to earn your vote, I am hoping to be elected in November, and I can promise you, I will work with every American. I want to be the president for all Americans, regardless of your political beliefs, where you come from, what you look like, your religion. I want us to heal our country and bring it together, because that's I think, the best way for us to get the future that **our** children and **our** grandchildren deserve"*(NBC News, 2016a.)

Trump constantly call his opponent Secretary Clinton, highlighting her previous positions and the negative impact of her and her husband's policy. He never calls Clinton "Hillary", though Clinton very often turns to him as "Donald".

Trump: *"But you have no plan".*

Clinton: *"But in ... oh, I do".*

Trump: *"Secretary, you have no plan".*

Clinton: *"In fact I have written a book about it. It is called "**Stronger together**". You can pick it up tomorrow at the bookstore... or at an airport near you".*

Trump: *"That's about all you've..."* (NBC News, 2016a).

Clinton: *"I think ... I think ... I think Donald just criticized me for preparing for this debate. And yes, I did. And you know what else I prepared for? I **prepared to be president**. And I think that's a good thing"* (NBC News, 2016b).

Trump always highlights "Secretary Clinton" drawing a frame of a politician with a 30-year of office who has never done anything positive to her country and now she introduces her own self without any definite plan of action, just desires and wishes. Besides, Americans, as I have already mentioned, are more inclined to trust in Fathers, really strict Fathers who do everything themselves and care for their children – Americans. That is why Clinton's slogan "Stronger together" definitely did not work.

All of the above findings point out that the mentioned factors are key players in Hillary Clinton's narrative about herself as suitable for the American presidency. The **results** of the study proved that Clinton's speeches failed to introduce the national values of the major part of American voters. A skillful politician must understand how framing, especially framing of "trust" works, as framing is not obvious. A worldview is a conceptual framework people use to understand the world. It consists of mental "frames," which are used to understand situations. Clinton was mostly interested in constructing a narrative of her Self, which definitely influenced the results of the elections.

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THE STAGES TO BE FOLLOWED DURING THE PROCESS OF TRANSLATION

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Abstract

The paper deals with the process of translation and its different phases. It aims at providing beginning translators with recommendations that can help them produce adequate translations based on the principle of orientation to both the original and the target reader (the principle of double-bind relationship suggested by J. House). Such recommendations were inspired by the experience of practical translation and the observations made during the pedagogical activity. They have incorporated the phases of the translation process marked out by different scholars and have been developed as a more detailed and thorough description of the translation process with seven successive stages. Considering the fact that creating a correct translation requires correct interpretation of the original, it is advised that the translation process begin with analyzing the original, giving a due regard to such factors, as polysemy, the use of figurative language, etc. For gaining a better understanding of the source text, a translator may need to obtain relevant information from external sources. This phase of preparatory work is followed by actual translation beginning with creating a gloss (literal translation), which needs to develop into an adequate translation sounding natural in the target language and having the same effect on target readers as the effect produced by the original. That would be impossible without making a stylistic analysis of the original, identifying the expressive means used by the author and seeking the ways of their reproduction in the translation. When the translation is worded according to the norms of the target language, it is reasonable for the translator to put it aside for a short period in order to clear the mind and assess it more objectively later. The final stage of the whole process is revising, editing and proofreading.

Keywords: the stages of translation process, adequate translation, double-bind relationship, target readers, stylistic analysis, expressive means, revising, editing, proofreading.

Introduction

This work, though intended as guidelines for beginning translators, might be of some interest for professional translators as well. It is an attempt to share the experience accumulated during many years spent translating the texts

of different fields, genres, styles and functions. These recommendations are not only based on my experience as a translator but also as a teacher working with students doing an MA degree in translation studies.

The problem with inexperienced translators is that they often do the work straight away, without preliminary study of the text and the background to the original; without due consideration of such factors as polysemy, micro and macro contexts, the individual style of the author (especially in case of literary translation), cultural peculiarities of the communities speaking the source and target languages, etc.

Another significant point is the difference between the syntaxes and expressive means of the two languages. Many translators think that their work is finished when they finish translating the text, and, as a result, they offer the reader the text sounding quite unnatural. The thing is that it is very difficult, almost impossible, not to be influenced by the syntax of the original at the initial stage of translation, especially when the difference is as big as in case of the English and Georgian languages. Meanwhile, the main goal of translation is to have the same effect on the target reader as the one produced by the original on its readers. So, a translator needs to make sure that the translation sounds naturally and at the same time introduce the readers to a different culture and environment. Below I will deal with different stages of the translation (the preparatory and the actual processes) in detail.

Theoretical Background

Speaking about the process of translation, it would be appropriate to determine what translation is. According to the simplest definition "translation is a process of replacing a text in one language by a text in another (House, 2013, p.4)." There are more complicated understandings of translation, e.g. in his online article "The Translation Process: A View of the Mind" Ali Darwish describes translation as a "complex dichotomous and cumulative process that involves a host of activities drawing upon other disciplines related to language, writing, linguistics and culture," (Darwish, 1989) which suggests that three major activities run concomitantly:

- Transfer of data from the source language to the target language
- Synchro-analysis of text and translation and research of subject matter
- Continuous self-development and learning.

Translation as the universal means of communication between different languages and cultures has been the subject of scientific research for centuries: different aspects of translation and different issues connected with translation have been studied resulting in a number of significant theories and approaches; the criteria have been suggested to be met by a successful translation. Most translation theories are concerned with the outcome of the translation process rather than the process itself. However, quite a few attempts have been made to analyze the cognitive process of translation and identify particular phases or stages of that process.

Most translation theorists single out three stages of translation, like 1) the actual translation implying the rendition of a text in a particular language to another language; 2) editing i.e. revising the translation, ensuring that it is accurate and faithful transition of the original text; and 3) proofreading, which involves a review aimed at determining whether the translation sounds natural and reads smoothly in the target language together with correcting the inconsistencies, if any, including punctuation and spelling. The above description seems incomplete as it says nothing about the preparatory work done before the actual process of translation, which must be considered as the initial stage of a translator's work. Such approach is shared by quite a few scholars including Dr. Banjar (2009), who names **the analysis of the source text** as the first of the three stages of the translation process. The other two phases are **the transfer of the text into the target language** and **revision of translation**. The mentioned three phases involve the following activities:

Analysis of the source text:

1. General Reading of the source text.
2. Underlining the difficult words.
3. Looking up the difficult words in a dictionary.
4. Close reading of the source text after understanding the difficult words.

Transfer of the text into the target language:

1. Writing a draft translation of the text in the target language.
2. Paying special attention to the grammar and spelling of the target text.
3. Including all the details mentioned in the source text.
4. Making the translation sound as natural as possible considering the norms of the target language.

Revision of the translation:

1. Making sure that all the details of the source text are found in the target text.
2. Checking the spelling and grammar of the target text.
3. Making sure that the translated version sounds natural in its target language form.
4. Reading the translation after finishing the corrections without referring to the source text to emphasize the naturalness of the target text.

Darwish (1989) also suggests three dimensions of translation: 1) text analysis (meaning, register, style, rhetoric etc.); 2) translation; and 3) rearrangement.

Another description of translation as a three-phase process was made by Dali Panjikidze in her book "The Theory and practice of Translation." The Georgian scholar covers the cognitive and psychological aspects of the translation process and provides a thorough description of each phase of literary translation. The first phase involves **the selection of material for translation**. According to Panjikidze, two points are to be considered at that phase:

“whether the contents or artistic merit of a particular literary work can contribute to the development of the translator’s native culture; and whether the translator is able to create the work of equal value in his/her native language” (Panjikidze, 1988, p. 10). The selection of the material for translation is a cognitive process preceded by a psychological moment. The translator gets a psychological impulse from the aesthetical and emotional impression made by the original, which induces him/her to assess the literary work from a purely professional point of view. This phase also implies the knowledge of the source literature, history and philosophy as well as the author’s worldview.

The second phase of translation, titled **the study of the original**, is an analytical process during which the overall impression made by the source text is divided into smaller parts and every component of the style and artistic device is studied separately. The stylistic analysis of the text implies identifying the function of the elements of the style, determining whether the style is high-flown or plain, the author’s attitude (philosophical, sympathetic, emotional, humorous, ironical, etc.) to the events and characters described in the work, verbosity or laconism, the rhythmic picture etc. As a result of such analysis the translator must identify the elements that can be naturally reproduced in the target language and the ones requiring functional equivalents to compensate for inevitable losses.

The third phase, **the actual process of translation**, is a synthetic, creative process where the translator tries to find the linguistic devices adequate to those used in the original. However, this does not mean a primitive search of analogy as there can be no one-to-one correspondence between the expressive means of two different languages. The translator needs to consider the specifics of the both languages and observe the rules of the both; to check constantly whether the information and separate elements of the original are adequately transferred to the target language. This can be ascertained with the help of the criteria for accuracy and correctness, developed as a result of constant comparison of the information existing within the cultural context of the translation with the information existing within the cultural context of the original.

The above description of translation phases demonstrates that a translator needs to shift back and forth from one language to the other and while translating constantly refer back to the source text. As *Juliane House* has mentioned in her book “Translation”, “in translating there is thus both an orientation backwards to the message of the source text and an orientation forwards towards how similar texts are written in the target language. So we have in translation something like a **double-bind relationship**” (House, 2013, p. 7).

It is interesting to survey other approaches to the translation process distinguishing more stages. According to Peter Newmark the process of translation operates in four levels:

Source text level: the source text itself and its immediate impression on the translator. At this level the syntactic structures of the source text are transposed into corresponding structures in the target text. Sometimes these structures need to be changed in order to achieve target language naturalness.

Referential level: the level of content of the text (technically the level of the conceptual representation). At this level the translator operates with the semantics of the source text, decoding its meaning building the conceptual representation. This process involves disambiguating polysemous words and phrases and decoding idioms and figurative expressions.

Cohesive level: the level where the translator aims at making a cohesive target text (and analyzes the cohesion of the source text). This level deals with the structure/format of the text and information as well as the mood of the text. At the structural sublevel, the translator needs to examine how various connectors link sentences and structure the text; also, the so-called value-laden and value-free passages, such as subjective and objective bits, euphemisms, and other framing devices are identified and transferred into the target text to achieve maximal equivalence.

Level of naturalness: the level of constructing a natural target text in an appropriate language. This level is target text oriented, focusing exclusively on the construction of the target text. It involves the revision of the target text and making sure that it sounds natural.

According to Dennis Brown high quality translation can only be performed by following the five-step process he suggests. The first step is the **overview** of the original, i.e. scoping out its subject matter and content, its length, style, key concepts etc. The translator may have to translate key terms before beginning the translation. In the second step, which Brown calls the **initial translation**, the text is translated in chunks – discrete and complete units of meaning. This step is followed by the **accuracy check**, where the translator compares each chunk of the translation with the original and improves the unnatural wording. The next step of the above-mentioned process is what most theorists omit while identifying different phases of translation. It is about **clearing the mind** after the translation is finished. Unfortunately, due to close deadlines this step is not always affordable, but putting the translation aside for a short period, ideally a few hours or a night before the final revision and proofreading, can significantly improve its quality. In the end, the last step is the **final polishing**, in which the translator re-reads the translation without referring to the original. This step is aimed at final editing and polishing the translation in order to improve its wording and make it sound natural to target readers.

Discussion and Results

Having considered the suggestions by different scholars I decided to share my own observations regarding the process of translation. Hence, this part of the work represents a detailed description of the translation process based on my own experience as a translator and a teacher. It contains the recommendations inspired by translation practice in different fields as well as the mistakes made by beginning translators. Moreover, the flaws I encountered in the works of some professionals while comparing translations with the originals and doing a comparative analysis of

different translations (together with students) also offered me an incentive to emphasize some points essential for providing high-quality translation.

Whatever mistakes are made, they seem to be caused by the disregard of different stages in the process of translation. For example, rather than starting to translate right away, it would be reasonable for the translator to study the original carefully and make sure s/he interprets it correctly. Otherwise s/he can distort the factual information provided by the text. Such kind of distortion will make it impossible to transfer other categories of information (the connotative, subtextual and image bearing information) correctly, which will mislead the target readers defying the primary goal of translation – to influence the readers of the translation the same way as the original affects its readers. Additionally, in order to gain a better understanding of the original text the translator may need to resort to external sources of information. Thus, doing some preparatory work before the actual process of translation seems to be very important for the quality of translation. This means that the translation process can be divided into two main phases – the preparatory work and the actual translation, which are further subdivided into different stages.

The Preparatory Work

1. *Interpreting and Studying the Original*

The initial stage of translation involves the interpretation of the text. At this stage the translator needs to understand the contents of the original. The process of studying the material and its translation will be easier if the text is divided into chunks. S/he should make sure that s/he interprets every word correctly considering such peculiarities of the source language as polysemy, proper names, specific terms, figurative language, idioms etc., the last two being mainly characteristic of *béllés-léttres*. It should be noted that inexperienced translators often fail to give due regard to the factor of polysemy and suggest those meanings of polysemantic words, which they know, while those words may be used in a very different sense in the original.

Sometimes a translator is simply confused and finds the text too difficult to understand, finally feeling forced to produce the translation that sounds illogical and unnatural. The recommendation in such cases would be to never count on one's own memory and knowledge, which may be misleading, and look up all the meanings of the word in question. Out of all those meanings it is advisable to choose the one that makes the sense in a particular context. Context plays a very significant role in making the above-mentioned choice as it prompts the translator what meaning the words can have. If the micro context does not seem very helpful, the translator can resort to macro context, which means going beyond the immediate surroundings of the word or phrase in question and covering the entire text.

Another important factor to consider is figurative language. A translator needs to identify the cases where words are used not in their usual meaning, but metaphorically. At the initial stage it is sufficient to understand the meaning of figures of speech or idiomatic expressions. The translator first produces neutral phrases to show what the original

expressions mean. Such neutral phrases are usually included in a gloss, which represents a correct interpretation of the original mostly copying its syntax and vocabulary without considering the preferences of the target language. However, later, the translator will have to find the equivalent expressions in the target language, which will sound natural for the target reader. I will speak about the following stages of translation below, but at the present stage it is important for a translator to identify the metaphors, allusions, idioms, etc. and make sure s/he understands their meaning. As Innes Merabishvili has noted it in her book "The Linguistics of Poetical Translation," while using different stylistic devices, especially allusions, the author expects the readers to comprehend and appreciate them. However, this is only possible with the help of the knowledge existing beyond the text known as **thesaurus**, which could be conventionally called **external text** (Merabishvili, 2005, p. 197–198).

2. *Obtaining Relevant Information from External Sources*

In order to provide target readers with an adequate translation, a translator may have to go beyond the content level and understand the author's message at connotative and subtextual levels. For gaining such an insight into the literary work it is not sufficient to study the text carefully, but a need arises to get familiar with the epoch and circumstances in which it was written; the author's biography and style, his/her worldview; the cultural factors by which the work was influenced etc. Obtaining such external information is essential for the quality of translation and constitutes a part of preparatory work on the text. Moreover, it is always easier for the translator to understand the metaphors, allusions, symbols and other means of expression if s/he knows "the story behind the work."

In case of legal, medical, economic etc. texts, or any kind of scientific or technical texts, it would be ideal for the translator to be familiar with the particular field, maybe not at the professional level, but at least to have enough knowledge to understand the material for translation. If the field is little known or completely alien to the translator, s/he needs to consult professionals and/or resort to different sources of information in order to understand the text and find the exact meanings of specific terms. Otherwise, the translation will fail to achieve its purpose – convey the information contained in the original to target readers without distortion.

Actual Translation,

3. *Gloss*

The word "gloss" (from [Latin](#): *glossa*, from [Greek](#): γλῶσσα *glóssa* "language") was first used in the 1570s to refer to the insertion of a word as an explanation. It originated from the concept of a note being inserted in the margin of a text to explain a difficult word. Most dictionaries define it as a translation, an explanation, interpretation, or paraphrase of a text. However, the difference between translation and gloss is that translation is the end result of translating a text, while gloss is a brief explanation, including a synonym used with the intent of indicating the meaning of the word to which it is applied.

I will use this term to indicate a literal, word-for-word translation that is constructed in accordance with the syntax of the original and serves only one purpose – to figure out what is said in the original. The gloss does not need to reproduce the author’s style, metaphorical use of words and other peculiarities of the text, or to consider the norms of the target language, it is only responsible for conveying the contents of the original correctly.

It should be noted, that by word-for-word translation I do not mean providing the sum of the meanings of the words that make up the source text, as the meaning of the text is never the sum of the meanings of its constituent parts. It is obvious, that there can be no one-to-one correspondence between the semantic elements of different languages. “When words and sentences are used in communication, they combine to ‘make meaning’ in different ways. In translating it is the text as a whole that is replaced and not its constituent parts: we do not exchange one separate word or sentence for another. Translation deals with the relationship between texts as actual uses of language.” (House, 2013, p. 5). Hence, even at the initial level of translation, such as providing the gloss, the translator needs to make sure that s/he produces the text, whose contents is the same as the original’s and which sounds logical and reasonable, if not quite natural. The gloss is the material that a translator will use to create an adequate translation.

4. *Stylistic Analysis of the Original, Identifying the Expressive Means Used by the Author and Seeking the Ways of Their Reproduction in the Translation*

As it was mentioned above, gloss cannot be regarded as full-fledged translation, but only as material for further perfection. A finalized translation has to reproduce the style of the original and employ the expressive means adequate to those used by the author. The translator’s ultimate goal is to produce the same emotional effect as the effect the original has on its readers. Hence it seems that the first step after creating a gloss should be studying the style of the original: whether it is plain or pompous, formal or informal, laconic or wordy, archaic or modern etc. Nowadays there are many cases of revising the style of old writing and offering to readers the translations sounding modern and easy to understand. Such translations may serve some purpose, e.g. conveying the information contained in the original to children or to adult readers who prefer a simplified version of the text.

However, it is my belief that the style of the original work needs to be reproduced unchanged by a translator. Here I would like to emphasize that having an individual style is only a prerogative of the author and not the translator, whose role is to mediate between the author and target readers, making the author’s message available to them. “An individual style of a translator precludes his/her loyalty to the style of the original, which contradicts the main purpose of translation.” (Panjikidze, 1988, p. 36).

As for expressive means, particularly stylistic devices, they cannot be identical in two different languages, so it would be advisable for a translator to classify them into two groups: the ones whose equivalents are easy to find and sound natural in the target language; and the elements that cannot be transferred by similar means because such

means are not natural for the target language. In the latter case it is a good idea to seek the ways of functional compensation, i.e. transferring them through different resources available in the target language.

5. Ensuring Naturalness of the Translation

Using the expressive means equivalent to those of the original can make the translation sound naturally. However, some expressions reflect the culture of a particular nation and their meaning is conditioned by their cultural context. So, it is good for a translator to consider the difference between the source and target cultures, since “translating is not only a linguistic act, it is also a cultural one, an act of communicating across cultures. Translating always involves both language and culture simply because the two cannot really be separated.” “...the meanings of linguistic items can only be understood when considered together with the cultural context in which these linguistic items are used.” (House, 2013, p. 11).

This means that the cultural implications contained in the original, that are taken for granted by its readers, might need to be made clear for target readers. It is up to the translator whether to follow the principle of dynamic equivalence offering the readers the elements of equal value in their cultural context, or to provide explanatory notes.

Often the problem with inexperienced translators is in ignoring one important factor: an immediate product of translation tends to be influenced by the syntax of the source language, and additional effort is required to make it sound like a text of that kind written in the target language. The more different are the syntaxes of the two languages, the more work needs to be done.

6. Clearing the Mind

This stage is very important if it can be afforded. It goes without saying that a completed work needs revising, editing and proofreading. This is very true for translation, whose revision and editing also involves comparing it with the original. It is also true, that the results of these processes can differ depending on whether they are performed immediately/soon after finishing the work or after some interval. Such interval can roughly range from half an hour to a day/a few days.

A translator needs to put away the completed work and distance himself/herself from it for a while to be able to assess it objectively and identify the faults s/he might have overlooked before that. On the other hand, when revising the work soon after it is finished, the words and constructions used by the translator are still too fresh in his/her mind to allow uninfluenced appraisal of the work.

7. Revising, Editing and Proofreading

After a reasonable interval, a translator is expected to revise the translation, clarifying the places that seem vague, changing the wording so that it sounded more natural, adding more detail to make it more understandable for target readers and eliminating the unnecessary elements.

It is essential that after comparing the translation with the original, the original should be put aside and the translation should be assessed as an independent text in terms of naturalness, correctness and its effect on the reader.

Editing involves checking the correctness of spelling, grammar, punctuation and sentence structure.

Proofreading is the final check of the translation, which is more superficial and is mainly aimed at identifying the inconsistencies like typos, missing words, accidentally repeated words; making sure that page breaks fall in a correct place and headings do not appear at the bottom of the page etc.

If possible, revising and editing can be done by a different person. In that case, the text would be checked in a more unbiased and uncomplaining manner, and more suggestions and different versions would be offered, which would be of great benefit to the translation. Moreover, no time would be needed for the translator to clear the mind before that final stage of translation process.

Conclusions

For the purpose of providing accurate translation that sounds natural in the target language and produces the same emotional effect as the original, it would be very helpful to the translator to divide the translation process into several phases and do all the work required for each phase. Different scholars have suggested their own versions comprising three, four or five stages. Based on those suggestions and my own experience as a translator and a teacher I have divided the whole process of translation into preparatory work and the actual translation singling out seven stages that in my opinion a translator should pursue. These stages are as follows:

Preparatory work

1. Interpreting and studying the original
2. Obtaining relevant information from external sources

Actual translation,

1. Gloss
2. Stylistic analysis of the original, identifying the expressive means used by the author and seeking the ways of their reproduction in the translation
3. Ensuring naturalness of the translation
4. Clearing the mind
5. Revising, editing and proofreading

I hope that my recommendations are helpful for beginning translators and those with more experience, who have so far ignored the necessity of performing preparatory work before translation or the work the other stages involve.

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MAKING EFL GRAMMAR TEACHING GENUINELY COMMUNICATIVE –TRENDS AND INNOVATIONS

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Abstract

The paper is an attempt to revisit those approaches and methods that have been used in teaching EFL grammar in a communicative mode. Several recent, hence, modern advanced English grammar textbooks are analyzed in order to pinpoint those trends and innovations which are introduced in them for making EFL grammar learning and teaching truly communicatively. The study in this way aims to demonstrate how grammar teaching has altered from a superficially communicative to genuinely communicative stance.

Keywords: grammar teaching, communicative language teaching, communicative language learning

Communicative language learning (CLL) and teaching (CLT) has been dominant and domineering for the last few decades. Being created as an antithesis to grammar-saturated teaching, for long CLL/CLT kept itself aloof from its predecessor - Grammar Translation Method. Grammar has been treated with prejudice, either ignored altogether or devoted a negligible space to, hoping it will take care of itself. Paradoxically enough in many EFL classrooms during this period the language has been taught in a strict prescriptive fashion even bearing some features of the grammar translation method. A rational and predictable way-out was found when grammar teaching/learning was made prevailingly communicative. How grammar teaching was restructured to reflect modern EFL/ESL curriculum requirements- evidence and proof of it lies in many recent English grammar textbook. The present study aims to examine some grammar textbooks for their value for communicative language teaching, to explore to what extent grammar focus is presented in them, which other linguistic and extra-linguistic facets are entailed in communicative grammar teaching (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011).

Justification of choosing grammar textbooks for studying the above trend of communicative grammar inclination lies in the fact that EFL curricula and syllabi vary from institution to institution, often diverging from the rails of CEFR or other authoritative FLT/SLT guidelines.

The fact that ELT textbooks have acquired a communicative approach, i.e., exercises, tasks, even texts in them have interaction orientation is not new, creating and presenting grammar exercises and activities in textbooks as they mainly exist in real life dialogues, speech acts, communicative situations almost guarantee their transition from the classroom into the actual world. However, educators and researcher realize that even such an approach does not suffice and it is essential that grammar and communication merge on equal terms.

The most distinguished and overt example of it is the emergence of communicative grammar as a partly theoretical, partly practical course with a corresponding textbook and workbook (Leech & Svartvik, 2013).

Constructed on the proverbial principle that an ounce of practice outweighs a pound of theory, it incorporates all the possible aspects needed for spoken and written communication starting with intonation patterns and ending with literally 'A-Z in English Grammar'.

The book vehemently indicates that for teaching grammar tense and structure drilling is not sufficient; furthermore, what has been conventionally understood as communication- mere interaction between two or more people in most common situations, limits realistic understanding of genuine, authentic language use. For teaching and learning truthful spoken and written language competence integration of pragmatics, sociolinguistics, linguistics proper and discourse analysis is absolutely obligatory.

In the book for proper spoken and written communication distinction between registers, i.e., style formality vs. informality is emphasized as a starting point for efficient communication. One more aspect has to be mentioned here as a general trend in modern grammar textbooks- written medium of expression is paid if not equal with speaking attention for communication, at least is reasonably introduced in them, especially at more advanced levels.

Virtually all aspects needed for communication are taken into account: starting with differences between basic English varieties - British and American, stress and intonation meaningful differentiation, and ending with word classes. The core of the textbook, its sections B, C and D are based (as it is evident from section names and their content) on 3-dimensional architecture of the language according to Michael Halliday- representational, ideational and discourse (Halliday, 2004). Section B-Information, reality and belief; section C-mood, emotion and attitude; section D-meaning in connected discourse respectively. Thus, these sections help learners master all facets of the language and be ready for all the possible planes of expression, e.g., a) making statements, expressing denial, affirmation, stating facts, hypotheses, attitudes to truth, etc., b) making emotive emphasis in speech, using discourse markers, conducting friendly communication, using vocatives, etc., c) using linking signals, making emphasis and focus, using cross reference and omissions, etc.

Another textbook chosen for analysis is Focus on Advanced English C. A. E. Grammar Practice by Richard Walton (2000). Here it is noteworthy to mention why we chose advanced grammar textbooks for this study- at this level full-fledged philosophy of grammar teaching is disclosed without simplifications and concessions made at earlier stages.

The book does not make a traditional hard-and-fast division into grammar items, e.g., modal verbs, tenses, etc., neither an established sequence of grammar material is observed in it. The author attaches more importance to blending grammar with topically arranged (clustered) vocabulary. Each unit focuses on various registers in writing, e.g., informal letter, report, memo, etc. writing. The book introduces trendy items: cohesive devices, emphatic structures, linking and logical devices, expressing addition, concession and contrast. Thus, the book revolves around the functional approach to teaching EFL grammar.

The same innovative features are added to traditionally organized Longman Advance Learners' Grammar (Hall & Foley, 2003). At the end of the book two units are devoted to a) aspects of cohesion and b) features of discourse. Cohesion presupposes teaching reference, substitution and ellipsis techniques, while discourse features teach information ordering, discourse devices, types of linking, etc.

Lastly, in Oxford English Grammar Course- Advanced by M. Swan and C. Walter (2011) part 2 -Grammar beyond the Sentence, in total 50 pages are devoted to discourse markers, ellipsis, the structure of spoken sentences, politeness rules and emphasis in speech, etc. The list indicates that true features of spoken English are emphasized, they are explicitly taught not only in this book, but in other books mentioned above. In this way genuine characteristics of English speech – formal and informal, spoken and written are taught along with grammatical accuracy. Similar to A Communicative Grammar of English this textbook pays attention to pronunciation practice for grammar acquisition purposes and it comprises a CD-ROM-pronunciation for grammar.

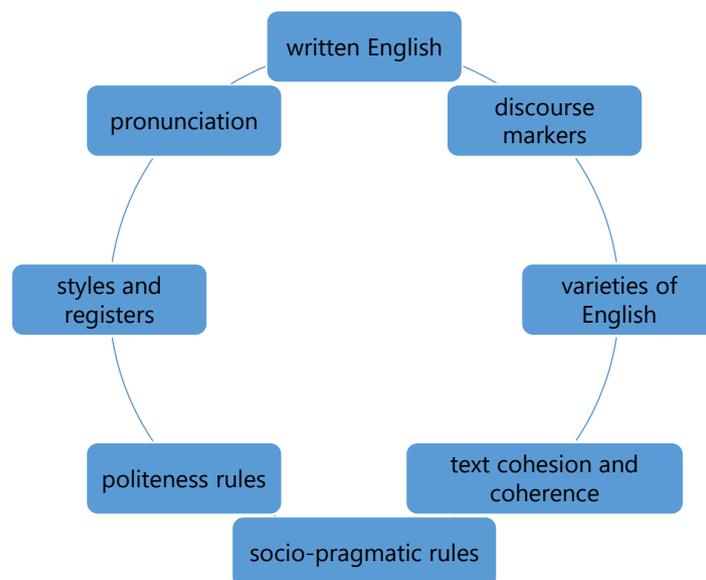


Figure 1. Components introduced in modern EFL grammar teaching

The outline of the above textbooks made with the purpose of uncovering modern trends and innovations in EFL grammar teaching can be summarized as follows:

- Grammar teaching in EFL has become dominantly function-focused;
- Grammar teaching nowadays presupposes mastering pragmatic, sociolinguistic and discourse analysis rules of the target language;
- Grammar teaching envisages conscious, explicit teaching of socio-pragmatic rules of the language;
- Grammar teaching is not limited to choosing correct forms in communicative contexts; tasks and hence, the language are approximated to real-life speech acts and events with maximally truthful target audiences and communicative purposes and learners have to manipulate the language for them.

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THE DIALOG BETWEEN STUDENTS AND LECTURER IN AN ACTION RESEARCH COURSE AND ITS IMPLICATION FOR THE STUDENTS' LEARNING AND RESEARCH PROCESSES

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Abstract

This paper focuses on the reflective journals written by students in the action-research course in which we, the researcher-lecturers, collaborate as readers and respondents. Based on the ideological and practical goals of action-research, we aspired the students to undergo a holistic process encompassing emotional, professional, moral and personal change. The implications of ongoing collaborations for student learning processes, primarily in forming awareness to existing patterns that make them uncomfortable, and actions that promote change will be viewed. The research method involved analyses of the content of some 20 journals (out of 80 in total) written by students throughout the 2016 academic year. A critical examination of the journals reveals that our active participation as guides and writers who take on the role of friendly critics to our students, formed a dialogue, a reflective discourse of the students between themselves, and with us as well. The students were given a safe, intimate, yet open space for professional and personal deliberation. Lecturers' responsive writing encouraged awareness of ideas and actions, transforming the students from objects conformed by reality to subjects who operate within reality and change it. Thus, the journals helped the formation of conceptual change within the students, and changes - often dramatic - to their demeanor in schools, in the classroom, and opposite the training teachers.

Keywords: reflective journals, action-research, change.

Introduction

This study originated in the dilemmas and thoughts we, as guides, experienced while teaching an action-research seminar, in which each student was asked to formulate and conduct self-research. One of the course tasks was to write a journal, exposed for us to read. We, too, wrote a journal of our own in which we tracked the students' progress and our conclusions, raised questions regarding the course, the dialogue with our students, our dilemmas, obstacles and possible solutions. We wrote about success and failures, the bond with the students and questions that arose from it.

The course was conducted in the following format: several group sessions, smaller study group meetings, one-on-one per request, shared journal writing, and email correspondence. The students had to complete six major tasks per the

course requirements: at least fifteen journal entries throughout the year; a presentation of their topic, rationale and research question (to be completed by the end of the first semester); literature review during their second semester; final research presentation at the end of the year and paper submission.

Research and Theoretical Background

Many studies have been written about action research and its goals. In such a research, the researcher himself becomes a tool, emphasizing the process more so than the outcome; the researcher is a participant, through and through, collecting data to which he is an integral part. The purpose of such a research is to plan change while collecting data and various activities, then implementing this change in several spheres and conceptualizing a theory accordingly. In order to best implement their insights, researchers must define discomfort, suggestions for activity, and desired change (Birmingham, 2004; Chevalier & Buckles, 2013; Keiny, 2002).

The implementation of action research in education, whether in educational institutions or teacher-training institutions, bridges between the ivory tower and academic theory and the actual field. Active teachers who face daily challenges, dilemmas and discomfort, embraced a change according to which they will develop a model or theory that could benefit change in other places (Birmingham, 2004; Chevalier & Buckles, 2013; Somekh, 2006; Noffke & Somekh, 2009).

Course pedagogy and methodology included multiple spheres of integration, one of which was a journal – a shared Google Docs file in which researching students recorded their ongoing process and we, their guides, provided notes and insights, in an ongoing dialogue. The purpose of this journal was to continuously document events in relation to discomfort as examined in the study, in relation to emotional, social, moral, and pedagogical aspects. It is a place to raise questions, doubts and dilemmas, a place to share disappointment, success and change, to which we provide personal and discreet comments. At first, writing was technical, and our responses were practical. As the process progressed, participants began to use the first person, in unharnessed and flowing depictions that did not necessarily adhere to proper grammatical rules.

Reflective thinking and writing in teacher training was developed following the writings of Dewey, Schon, and Wiggotsky. It provides aspiring teachers in training to observe their actions after the fact, to analyze and process them, interpret the events and improve on them (Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993; Schon, 1983, 1987; Loughran & Russell, 2002).

Journaling forms a dialogue between the writer and himself, as well as with another reader—real or imagined—with whom thought, feelings, challenges and insights are shared (Esterling et al., 1999).

Journal writing is sometimes directed at a "critical friend", a guide or a staff member fluent in the practice who is available to read and comment (Heinrich, 1992). A critical friend follows the research planning process, advises on it, reflect and help the researcher maintain times and limits (Kember et al., 1997). The friend is receptive to the nature and

needs of the student, guiding him to learn from experience, and provides constructive and supportive criticism (Costa & Kallick, 1993). The journal creates a space for a sharing dialogue as well as professional input and suggestions by the friend (Ryle, 2004). This occurs when the friend has the chance to study the learner, and the learner has the opportunity to gain trust in the friend (Russell & Schunk, 2004).

According to the writing goals as devised by us and backed by the literature, the contents of the journals revolved around matters that typically burden education students and teachers during their first years on the job, for instance class management.

Our goal as guides in responding in the journals was to provide technical guidance to the research process, assist with critical and reflective criticism by turning their attentions to what they might not have missed, and by posing reflective questions that evoke critical thinking.

Methodology – Data Collection and Processing

Data was collected from our personal experience, as discussed among ourselves and documented in our research journals; additional data was derived from student journals, email exchanges and research papers in which many students referred to the journaling activity. The 80 journals raised several recurring themes which we then grouped into categories and further honed through an additional reading of the journals and the literature review. Our analysis is based on theme searching and coding (Shkedi, 2005).

Research Findings

We will present our findings according to the main themes, and found them in excerpts from journal entries. Our findings focus on the contribution of journaling to the students, and how they used this tool. The students faced many challenges, and managed to overcome them in writing, to varying levels of success.

The journal as a space for a cultivating student-guide dialogue

The dialogues in the journals were free, open, non-judgmental and permissive, allowing for guidance, advisory and updates:

GILA: "I contacted Ms... as you had suggested and wanted to let you know that I'm thinking about it and although I'm nervous and embarrassed, I might write her and ask for her help. It's very important to me to change my patterns and make a real change in my life"

The journal as a tool for developing reflective capabilities and self-critique, expanding thought and problem interpretation

These teachers in training, even in their third year, faced obstacles and fought with reflective thinking and writing. Through the journals they wrote out the situations they had experienced and analyzed them. For many at the early stages of research and writing, it was a technical task rather than a reflective one. With our commentary to their writing and by our asking guiding questions, students developed their skills, going from intuitive and technical to reflective.

The journal as a therapeutic tool for processing situations

Journaling allowed our students to become aware to formerly subconscious processes, and become more aware to themselves and the situation itself.

AVIR: "today I really felt like I had to tell you how much this journal has helped me face my fear of technology, because writing makes it less stressful, because in the past I was too ashamed to admit I can't use computers".

The journal as a means for facing writing blocks and improving writing skills

Our analysis revealed a difficulty in descriptive writing. "I am not good at writing, I have no problem telling you everything face to face" was a very common statement. The first journals of two-thirds of the students were fragmented, with minimal descriptions, mainly technical. Through personal interactions and talks we learned that they had a hard time formulating their thoughts on paper. Following the open discourse that was established throughout the year and via correspondence, our students opened up and enriched their writing, feeling a need and a willingness to share contents and receive acknowledgement.

Discussions and Conclusions

The analysis of student journals and papers as well as our own journals as guides, has shown that the shared journal provided a facilitating space in many aspects, whether for us as guides and teachers, or for them as students.

In the student aspect, they were exposed to journaling as a means for accompanying and documenting a practice-based research process. They learned of its contribution to reflective insights and the formation of inner, personal understanding of themselves as people and as educators (early stages of their professional career). Using the journals, the students focused on themselves; in a hierarchic and hegemonic education system, their personal voice has made them a subject. For them, reality is not decided. Our responsive writing stirred thinking and awareness to ideas and actions (Somekh, 2006).

Regarding the relationship between ourselves and the students – our active participation as writers who provide friendly critique helped forge a reflective dialogue between us and the students, and the students amongst themselves

(Ryle, 2004). As a result of this ongoing correspondence we had formed a reciprocal bond in which we were not distant lecturers, but rather guiding partners on a unique journey (Tal & Morag, 2009).

Over the course of a year, we discussed the dilemmas and challenges, as well as the consequences of writing a journal; we shared our thoughts and examined how journal can be used in other student training institutions in Israel and abroad. We found solutions for some of the issues, namely technical rather than reflective writing, or student distancing for fear of revealing their inner workings to someone of a higher rank (the lecturers), and even resistance and aversion to writing. We discovered that it was best to openly share and discuss with the students the issues that arose in former years. We wished to make it clear that, while we may be their superiors, we are also humans who wish to be full partners and contributors on their journey. In order to do so, we must participate in their journaling experience. We emphasized that we have no intention of being judgmental; they can share whatever they desire. We also demonstrated reflective writing and provided guiding questions.

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FROM SOCRATES TO SUGATA MITRA: A DIALOGUE WITH DIGITAL NATIVES

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Abstract

Digital technology is changing our world, including our classrooms, in radical ways. The author's aim as an English language educator is to meet our students' needs: to do this we need to motivate them to become actively involved in the learning process. Socrates motivated his learners by engaging them in dialogue, an early form of critical thinking. His equipment was minimal: language itself. His method, too, was simple: asking questions or 'elicitation', as we would call it in ELT. Today, we have at our disposal the most sophisticated and diverse range of digital devices, from interactive whiteboards to iPad and the humble mobile phone. In spite of these radical changes in the way people learn, the fundamental aims of education over the centuries remain the same: to help the students fulfil their aims in learning and in life. The paper will explore the far-reaching changes which have taken place in our lives and our classrooms – and in our brains, according to some research – as a result of the digital revolution - and encourages teachers to take nothing for granted, but to question, in the best Socratic manner, to get at the truth behind the hype and to ask what good comes of whatever pedagogic proposals are put forward by experts, colleagues, salespeople, researchers and educational authorities. The generational change will be described captured in the dichotomy digital native/digital immigrant. The paper will ask: is it true that 'young people are natives of a digital world and so they think and learn differently from the past; teachers who are 'digital immigrants' are unable to relate to their students' affinity with ICT'. Research into the claim that 'multi-media deepens comprehension and strengthens learning' will be examined. The author concludes by suggesting we should always bear in mind what good and effective teaching means in a digital age and how to combine what is important from the past with the tools of the present and future.

Keywords: digital technology,

The arguments in favour of digital technology in education

'The unexamined life is not worth living'. Socrates

Digital technology is changing our world, including our classrooms, in radical ways. This article takes a critical look at the impact of the Internet on our classrooms, our brains and our lives. It asks questions that all teachers might ask- so we can better understand what is gained and what is lost as we become more and more connected.

Introduction

Our aim as English language educators is to meet our students' needs: to do this we need to motivate them to become actively involved in the learning process. Socrates, we assume, motivated his learners by engaging them in dialogue, an early form of critical thinking. His equipment was minimal: language itself. His method, too, was simple: asking questions or 'elicitation', as we would call it in ELT. Today, we have at our disposal the most sophisticated and diverse range of digital devices, from interactive whiteboards to ipads and the humble mobile phone. In spite of these radical changes in the way people learn, the fundamental aims of education over the centuries remain the same: to help the students fulfil their aims in learning and in life.

This article explores the far-reaching changes which have taken place in our lives and our classrooms – and in our brains, according to some research – as a result of the digital revolution; the article encourages teachers to take nothing for granted, but to question, in the best Socratic manner, to get at the truth behind the hype and to ask what good comes of whatever pedagogic proposals are put forward by experts, colleagues, salespeople, researchers and educational authorities. We examine the generational change captured in the dichotomy *digital native/digital immigrant* and ask: is it true that 'young people are natives of a digital world and so they think and learn differently from the past; teachers who are 'digital immigrants' are unable to relate to their students affinity with ICT'. Moreover, we examine research into the claim that 'multi-media deepens comprehension and strengthens learning'.

I conclude by suggesting we reassess what good and effective teaching means in a digital age and how to combine what is important from the past with the tools of the present and future.

The digital revolution

Digital technology is as big as the wheel, as big as the invention of writing, the printed book or the industrial revolution. It is futile to pretend it hasn't happened. It is virtually (pardon the pun) impossible to ignore it or cut oneself off from it. No man or woman is an island in our globalised world; ask not for whom the smartphone rings – or beeps, pings or sings - it rings for you. Digital technology is everywhere and is changing the everyday texture of our lives but, like all true revolutions, the digital revolution is transforming our sense of the fundamental elements of existence: time and space, and who we are in time and space, in relation to others on this tiny global village with infinitive possibilities. For example, I can be in a room in Thessaloniki, attending a Spanish class, when at the same time I can be reading a fresh message from an acquaintance in Australia or South Africa. I can be talking to that same person thousands of miles away and switch to talking to someone else on the other side of the globe. A telephone call 40 years ago was bound in time and

space; social interaction was singular rather than multiple- it was sequential rather than synchronous or simultaneous. And as I communicate across time and space, I can shape and reshape my identity at will, by including or excluding data or projecting those aspects of my 'self' or 'selves' that I wish others to see.

Digital technology has inevitably had a huge impact on virtually every field of human activity, including our own professional field of ELT and English language learning. The arrival of IT in the classroom has generated changes in the teaching paradigm and conflicting views amongst teachers. These views range from strong enthusiasm and commitment to scepticism and rejection. The practical implications of the controversy are, on one level, that teachers need to switch to completely connected classrooms or to integrate into our teaching various degrees of modern technology with more traditional approaches. At the end of the day, what matters is whether technology helps to make teaching and acquiring languages more efficient and effective. I don't think there's a one right answer to this question: there doesn't seem to be enough hard empirical research to decide the matter either way.

But in order to answer the question in a coherent way, we have to begin by answering another, more fundamental question: what is effective teaching? We need a theory or a set of principles which define or at least outline what we are doing when we teach well in a second language; we can see second language acquisition (SLA) as a cognitive process or an affective process or both: a cognitive-affective process, involving the whole-person, the thinking, feeling, doing human being. We may see learning, in general, as an interactive process or a socio-cultural process, a process of habit-formation or a whole-person humanistic process, and so on.

Given the variety of teachers and students and learning contexts in the global field of ELT, learning English as a foreign language is best seen as a complex, diverse process: a broad church (not a single dogma) that contains a multitude of often contradictory tendencies and approaches. It is good to keep this complexity in sight as we discuss possible panaceas to all our problems. Digital technology in language education will be judged to the extent that it furthers or facilitates our linguistic and educational objectives in a way which is more efficient than any other options at our disposal.

Is teaching is a marketplace?

On the one hand, we have the classroom and the relationships that are established within its four walls to better achieve our learning objectives; while outside the classroom, we have the real world which, in the 21st century, is marked by the effects of globalisation and the predominant paradigm of the marketplace. Much of our daily life is defined or shaped by the demands of an all-powerful market: financial concerns, profits and investments have become an all-embracing, ubiquitous presence in everything we do. It is not surprising, therefore, to hear education discussed in terms of the 'marketplace', whether the term is used metaphorically or literally. But there are alternative metaphors we can use to describe what happens when we teach (a dance, a game, theatre, music, and so on). The marketplace metaphor may reflect an ideology that sees the classroom as simply an extension of the real world, where the motive force is money and

profit, and therefore the learner is tantamount to a client, customer or consumer. In this neoliberal model, learning, like everything else, is ultimately shaped by the cash-nexus. The computer and the whole panoply of digital gadgets and equipment on offer to the teacher and the learner are part of the business of buying and selling; at the end of the learning process, the student will have been made more competitive in the marketplace outside the classroom.

Education is, according to the market-place metaphor, more accurately the *business* of education or education *as a business*. But within this globalised framework, one aspect of human beings that is often obscured is the sheer diversity of individual needs, in spite of the tendency to apply a universal uniformity on all and sundry (the person-as-consumer) wherever they may be in society - or indeed on the planet.

In this respect, it is worth pondering the prediction, made in 2012, that all young learners would be learning through digital devices by the year 2013:

'The New Media Consortium (NMC) reported last year that they expected mobile devices, tablet teaching and apps to be an integral part of mainstream teaching in 'Kindergarten through twelve' education worldwide by the end of 2013' (Bish, 2013).

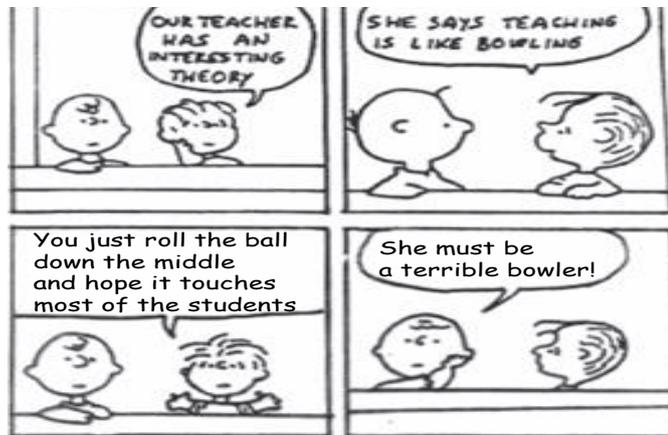
Bish quotes the 'School Box' project which planned for Zimbabwe to bring iPads and projectors to the poorest rural schools in a solar-powered kit.

A cynical view of these developments might see the hand of big business at work; after all, there is a lot of money to be made from ICT: Apple's 'invention' of the iPad did indeed spark a fresh educational spending spree, while the *Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation* is a major donor to the NMC. As part of the motivation agenda, independent and state schools are seen to be competing for students in today's 'marketplace' – or what Tony Blair has called the marketplace of educational 'choice'. In this Hobbesian struggle for success and power, the latest technologies play a part in enhancing one's competitive position.

Is teaching like bowling?

Another metaphor for teaching which responds to the challenge of diversity, is Linus's in the Snoopy cartoon (below); Linus, talking to his friend, Charlie Brown, expounds his teacher's theory that 'teaching is like bowling' - and he elaborates:

'You just roll the ball down the middle and hope it touches most of the students'.



'Touch' here is a key word and is ambiguous; it can mean to 'make contact physically', with one's students, which, in today's cultural climate, could be risky, taboo or even illegal. The word 'touch' can also mean to touch the students figuratively- in this sense, it carries a whole cluster of connotations: to motivate, to engage, to meet the students' needs as language learners and as human beings. This simple metaphor is actually rich and more complex than the 'education is a marketplace' metaphor. The question of whether computer technology promotes or hinders learning can begin to be answered if we consider the degree to which it 'touches' the students, that is: does IT motivate or engage, the students as learners and as human beings in all their rich and unpredictable diversity?

Mark Prensky (2001), one of the gurus of the digital revolution in education, coined the term 'digital natives' to highlight the world of a difference that exists between the computer generation and all previous generations: 'young people are natives of a digital world and so they think and learn differently from the past; teachers who are 'digital immigrants' are unable to relate to their students affinity with ICT....'

This statement, if we agree with it, has enormous implications for the way we should be teaching our students in the 21st century. That little word 'so' is made to carry multiple meanings: the digital developments of the last 30 years have revolutionised not only the way digital-natives learn but their very cognitive processes. Those teachers who have had to acquire digital skills or have failed to do so ('immigrants') cannot understand and or respond to their students' sense of identity ('affinity') with all things digital.

If all this is indeed the case, we've already lost our students - those of us who are old enough and befuddled enough by technology to be digital immigrants. But can this possibly be true? Firstly, an immigrant can become a citizen of the new country and even become acclimatized to the new culture, learn the language and become thoroughly integrated with his or her new home. Many pre-digital teachers have indeed become adept at digital technology and feel thoroughly at home in the world of the internet and the whole gamut of electronic devices; so why shouldn't they be able to relate to their students' close connection with the digital world?

Another thought-provoking assumption behind Prensky's (2001) assertion is that effective teaching is dependent on the use of digital technology. If effective teaching is about motivating learners to achieve their objectives - in our case, the acquisition of a second language - Prensky is suggesting we cannot do that, if we do not use digital technology effectively (with learners who have an 'affinity' with the technology).

But this is to exclude so much more that goes into teaching and even more so into *teaching as an educational practice*: apart from the appropriate use of equipment/technology/materials, what else goes into effective teaching? The obvious components of sound educational practice will include, apart from hardware and software, methodology (knowing about and selecting appropriate methods and techniques), understanding and applying aspects of the psychology of learning (meeting needs and wants, building motivation, rapport and self-esteem, etc.); ability to apply classroom management techniques and facilitate effective group dynamics, and so on.

Exploring the digital paradigm shift

Let us now examine, with a sympathetic eye, the core claim of *aficionados* of digital technology in education that:

1. multi-media deepens comprehension and strengthens learning and, as a result...
2. the digital revolution has given teachers more ways to respond to students' individual needs.

If this is the case, then it would be fair to say that teachers should 'recognize the need for integrating technology in their teaching'. One example in support of the positive hypothesis of computers in language teaching, is in the field of *testing*. Testing and assessment procedures generally, have had an important but controversial role in English language teaching, especially since the rise of communicative methodology and learner-centred approaches to teaching. The problem has been in the *mismatch* between the principles of communicative/learner-centred approaches, with their prioritising of individual differences, on the one hand, and the (apparently) inevitable process of levelling and the crushing of individual needs and differences in the process of traditional testing.

This tension between testing and teaching procedures has been studied, researched and debated within the framework of the 'washback effect' of testing on teaching. In a nutshell, regardless of the learner-sensitive methodologies adopted by teachers since the mid -70s, teachers tend to 'teach to the test' - and this entails treating all students in the same way, in the name of test objectivity: the same practice of past papers or testing-like material, with its standardized range of discrete-item testing devices or unvarying whole-text comprehension questions., the same time constraints and deprivation of auxiliary materials, etc., etc.

CBELT

In short, when we teach well, we take individual differences into consideration and build motivation by responding to diversity; in the name of fairness and respect for personal learning styles. When we test, we ignore those differences: we

are obliged to apply the same material, in the same way, in identical conditions, with the same constraints, to all 'candidates': in the name of fairness. We can describe this as the testing-teaching paradox. The rise in computer-based English language testing (CBELT) has gone some way to resolving this paradox. CBELT allows for individual learner differences in the choice and level of the test items, the particular type of test chosen, feedback without limits and without damage to the self-esteem of the test-taker, the opportunity to retake tests, find out why mistakes were made, and so on. The computer has, moreover, allowed for faster and more precise construction of learner corpora and research into L1 slips, errors and interference: all of this feeds into the *testing* process and makes it approximate more to a constructive *learning* process than merely a risk-driven game of Russian roulette. Information technology has, from a pedagogic perspective, enhanced the teacher's potential to respond to learners' needs.

Error not terror

A similarly positive argument could be made for the impact of the computer on the treatment of error. The brilliant, award-winning work of Russell Stannard has demonstrated ways of correcting students' errors using computer software that makes the traditionally tedious and stressful process of correcting students' work a motivating and educational process of learning from error, through sharing and collaboration. In both testing and error correction, the option of storing students' work and revisiting it (by teachers, the individual student and the class as a whole) adds a unique level of increasing awareness to the process of second language acquisition, which was not possible in the pre-personal computer age.

The Hole-in-the-Wall

The strong version of the 'IT-is-good-for-education' hypothesis can be seen in the work of Sugata Mitra (2012). A large-scale attempt to put technology into the service of education is Sugata Mitra's 'Hole-in-the-Wall' experiment.

The research began in the villages of India and has now moved to other contexts. Mitra launched his 'Hole-in-the-Wall' experiment in an effort to explore the belief that children in the rural slums of India are capable of teaching themselves everything all on their own. The process began in 1999, when Mitra put a computer in the wall of a Delhi slum and, just as the researcher expected, children gathered round and started pressing keys to see what this machine could do. What surprised Mitra (2012) was just how quickly the children could learn from the computer: on their own, they mastered the technology and started learning all kinds of things online – remarkably, and as a by-product, they learnt English in the process. At first, the children played games and when they got tired of playing games, one of the kids discovered that you can ask questions of the internet and the internet gives you answers. A miracle!

All this without the involvement of teachers or any other adults. The technology and the children's working together on problem-solving seemed to make teachers redundant; the implications of such an outcome are enormous - and controversial. The really interesting point was not only that adult-teachers were redundant but that the learners seem to *benefit* from the adults' absence.

The experiment was repeated in poor rural areas in India, where teachers would not go (the conditions and pay were so bad) and the Indian Ministry had more or less abandoned the children in these poor far-flung provinces.

Mitra (2012) claims that children in the rural slums of India are capable of teaching themselves everything from character mapping to DNA replication all on their own. In the academic publications that followed the experiments, Mitra discusses a world of unstoppable learning through the creation of a worldwide cloud – where children pool their knowledge and resources in the absence of adult supervision to create a world of self-promoted learning.

Later, the 'Hole-in-the-Wall' migrated to the UK and has been tried out - apparently with considerable success in countries such as Mexico. In one school, twelve-year-old Paloma Noyola Bueno, who lives in a Mexico slum, topped the all-Mexico Math exam after her school teacher implemented Mitra's revolutionary teaching method in the classroom. In another class, the children went from 0 to 63 per cent in the 'excellent' category on the Math exam, while failing scores went down from 45 percent down to 7 per cent.

Mitra went on to create 'schools in the cloud': *Self-Organised Learning Environments* (SOLES), which try to do *inside* the classroom what the 'Hole-in-the-Wall' did *outside* the classroom. Thus, the children crowd around computers and try and answer a question such as 'Why does hair grow?' Invariably, the children, working autonomously in groups, eventually come up with the correct scientific answer.

Mitra has created a 'granny cloud' - or an adult role in the whole process - the 'granny' is an adult available online for pupils to talk to if they need help or need to get better results from their independent research. The role of the 'granny' is not that of 'knower' (as in some humanistic methods) but that of motivator: to encourage the children to keep trying. Apparently, the sheer encouragement of the learners to believe in their ability to find the right answer improved their results by a significant percentage.

For Mitra, the implication of his experiments includes the need to re-think and reinvent traditional models of education. The learning of facts has changed because of the availability of computers: there is little point in wasting time, claims Mitra, teaching something which the children can find out for themselves. Teaching the 'ten- times table', grammar or spelling, for example, are now redundant. Though children need to know these skills, we don't need to *teach* them. Spell-checkers will automatically improve our spelling; calculators will enable sums and so on.

So what should we be teaching children? If the facts and information are freely available then we should be teaching kids to *sift* the information they need from the information they don't need. This sifting or discrimination skill will include

knowing which online sites are reliable and which are not. What Mitra is saying, in a nutshell, is that adults and teachers should first allow students to *look for* answers before *telling* them the answers.

Examinations

Finally, Sugata Mitra suggests that we revisit traditional examination procedures in the light of his findings. Traditionally, as we saw earlier in this article, we isolate students when they take exams, from each other and from any supportive materials, such as dictionaries, reference books and, nowadays, ipads and other digital devices. Mitra suggests that if allow students to collaborate in taking exams and allow them to use digital devices the exam will still 'discriminate' between the relative competence of students. This will be possible if we ask the right kind of questions: not purely factual questions, but questions which involve judgement and critical thinking. The best students will then still come out top. The setting and marking of questions will be more challenging than they are now, but the pay-off (back to the 'marketplace' metaphor) will be worth it. In a sense, Mitra here is converging with a Socratic view of knowledge which involves the in-depth critical examination of facts or assertions and not just the mechanical examination of right or wrong information: the unexamined life is not worth living.

Part 2 – a critical response to digital technology in education

Where is the wisdom

We have lost in knowledge

Where is the knowledge

We have lost in information?

T.S.Eliot

In this article, I summarise the positive ways in which digital technology has shaped our teaching and our lives in the 21st century before going on to make a few critical comments on the digital revolution, from a pedagogic and personal perspective. It is because the changes that we have seen in the last 30 years are indeed revolutionary, and far-reaching, penetrating nearly every aspect of our lives, that it is important to engage with the implications of this revolution in an open and inquiring manner. Not only will critical engagement with the effects of technology allow us to make the most of the opportunities it offers as classroom practitioners but will make us alert to its possible dangers in the classroom and outside the classroom. I will end with a sketch of a possible way forward in the 21st century classroom

Digital learning: why it's a good thing

In the first part of this article, we saw how predictions have been made that education would go digital by the early part of the 21st century: mobile devices, tablet teaching and apps, it was expected, would be an integral part of mainstream teaching worldwide, from 'Kindergarten through twelve' (NMC Horizon Report, 2012). As I write, this prediction has yet to be fulfilled in any countries, apart from a few (e.g. Uruguay, the Basic Information Educational Program for Online Learning (CEIBAL), which aims to provide all public primary school students and teachers with free laptop access). Hardware and software producers do their best to make the switch to digital education tempting and irresistible and the future may well be 'owned' by digital technology and its creators (Lanier, 2014).

Most teachers nowadays acknowledge the necessity of incorporating digital technology into their teaching; technology enables teachers to do things in the classroom to enhance their teaching which were impossible in the past; many of the activities valued in traditional teaching can also be done much more easily and efficiently.

For example, it is so much easier and quicker nowadays to prepare materials for students, to store them, adapt them and make access to them available to all students; tests can be produced and graded more easily; students can collaborate and share with their classmates in the same room and in other classrooms anywhere in the world; Interactive Whiteboards (IWBs) enable interactivity of various kinds. Tzouris (2016) explains how Netflix enables students to immerse themselves in watching films in English, with or without English subtitles, whenever they like, wherever they like. This is a good example of the way digital technology facilitates an activity which teachers and students did in the past – learning from films in the target language – and does it better.

The wide variety of screen-based activities is undeniable; the question is: does it all help us to achieve the twin objectives of motivating students and encouraging second language acquisition?

Research evidence

There is some research that suggests learning is enhanced by the use of such technology, especially when combined with traditional practices (US Department of Education, 2010); for instance, some of these research findings suggest that the creative use of Interactive Whiteboards enhances engagement in language learning (Kaczuwka, 2008): editing photos, audio-files and film-clips and adding a script in English to visual material can be very motivating; the question remains, however: is the motivation sustainable and does it actually promote second language acquisition - and how does one measure that?

Warschauer and Liaw (2011) review research that suggests 'new technologies provide more tools than ever before for adult learners to hone their language skills through autonomous reading, listening, writing, and interaction'. Warschauer and Liaw focus particularly on the evidence for a positive impact of online resources on student autonomy;

they refer to the successful use of a wide range of online applications used in ELT for promoting learner independence: podcasts for listening comprehension and pronunciation; blogging and wikis for collaborative and interactive writing; fanfiction.net for the social nature of writing; concordancing for increasing vocabulary and collocational awareness; second life/avatars for integrating several online applications and developing a wide range of language skills and multi-player games for enriching vocabulary.

Critical dialogue with IT

Thus, both in principle and practice, we can acknowledge the importance of the digital revolution: its importance means it deserves to be engaged with and understood in terms of its powerful effects and unintended side-effects, in the classroom and in our personal relationships (Turkle, 2011).

In this part of the article, we dig deeper into the arguments for digital education from a critical pedagogic perspective; by 'critical' I mean an approach which asks questions about where ideas come from and whose interests they serve, especially as regards power: who has it and what do they do with it?

The oldest approach for fostering critical thinking in education and in life is Socratic teaching, with its dialogic procedures and search for 'virtue' (*arete*). In Socratic teaching, the focus is on asking questions, and through dialogue, finding answers to what constitutes the good life: what is right, what is wrong. In the case of ELT, 'virtue' can be translated as when a certain educational practice is 'good' for the students or not: does it help or hinder language acquisition and does it make learning a motivating process of personal fulfillment?

In modern times, the Socratic tradition finds its full political flowering in the critical pedagogy of Paulo Freire (1970 / 2006), the great Brazilian educator; Freire explores ways in which educational practice can raise awareness of relations of power in the classroom and in society, leading to action to transform society towards greater equality and liberation. Freire's prioritizing of learner input in the educational process, as a step towards raising awareness of the political implications of schooling, will be a useful framework, along with Socratic moral questioning, in our quest for digital 'virtue' – or the strong points of information technology in the classroom.

Is there a question of vested interests?

A critical engagement with digital pedagogy will thus involve questioning on two levels: first, we ask: what evidence is there for the claims made that learning is enhanced by IT? And, secondly, what does the technology mean for power relations in the classroom - and outside?

Let us take the case of the New Media Consortium (NMC), which, as we have seen, investigates and makes predictions about the growth of digital education and its positive impact. If we look up the NMC on Wikipedia, we

discover that major donors to the Consortium are the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation. Bill Gates, as we all know, has invested a great deal in the development of digital software and hardware and, as a result, has become one of the richest individuals in history. Of course, the fact that someone stands to make a profit from the latest technology does not mean that the technology doesn't have a useful role to play in the classroom or elsewhere. After all, Thomas Edison, no doubt made a profit out of the lightbulb – this doesn't cancel out the usefulness of the lightbulb in the classroom and in life (Bish, 2013)! Indeed, in ELT, stakeholders such as publishers and media manufacturers have always profited from the supply of learning materials and equipment; nothing new there. We could add that in the past, despite individual differences, all students used pen and paper and textbooks on the assumption that 'one size fits all' – and it can plausibly be argued that IT is potentially more capable than pen, paper and textbooks, of responding to students' needs.

However, what the overlap of educational opinions and financial interests *does* mean is that we teachers - who are at the receiving end of these opinions - should question them critically, just as in the past we questioned the role of textbooks; we will bear the brunt of the changes on a day-to day basis so we have the right - and obligation - to 'interrogate' those who would introduce radical innovation into our practice. This critical approach is in the best tradition of teacher development, which encourages teachers to have an inquiring mind, as well as to continue to grow professionally. Thus, one level of critical engagement with the claims made on behalf of digital pedagogy, is to query where the claims are coming from, to put the claims into context: who is making them and why? Are they impartial educators furthering the aims of education or are they speaking on behalf of a particular set of interests, for example economic or ideological interests?

Wants and Needs

To take another example: in the first part of this article, we saw how the man who coined the term 'digital natives', Mark Prensky (2001), suggested that 'teachers who are 'digital immigrants' are unable to relate to their students affinity with ICT...'. Prensky makes a bold assertion that on the surface seems plausible and designed to encourage teachers to grow in the direction of where their students are at: they are at home with digital technology and teachers should join them. Prensky advises digital immigrant teachers to 'stop grouching' and 'just do it' (like any good users of NIKE sports shoes?) They should accommodate to the digital natives' way of getting and processing information or risk missing the educational boat.

Before teachers agree to do this, however, they are entitled to ask for evidence that the use of technology in the classroom is actually having a positive impact on students' learning. Enthusiasm for the frequent and ubiquitous use of technology should not be accepted as the sole basis for serious educational practice.

Prensky's (2001) assertions assume that non-digital teachers get in the way of learning and that technology is a Do-IT-Yourself (DIY) approach to education in which traditional teachers may be redundant, He also seems to assume that

the teacher's role is to do what learners want – otherwise they risk getting left behind: students like social media and computer games, therefore, the classroom should include them, Prensky seems to be saying.

But teachers have always done more than respond to students' *wants*: their job, traditionally, as 'experts' or 'knowers' (reactionary though these roles may sound in a learner-centred age), has been to use their expertise and knowledge to meet students' *needs*, as well as take their *wants* into account. Teachers, for example, – if they are present in the learning process – will not only use web.2 activities, which presumably (but not necessarily) students *want* to do (because they are digital natives) but they will also, for instance, monitor their students' progress and, where appropriate, correct and make use of their errors to further their knowledge and acquisition of English. These teacher 'behaviours' will respond more to students' *needs* than their *wants*, as few students, one imagines, *want* to be 'monitored' and 'corrected' by adults!

Bax (2011), in his response to Prensky, writes that Prensky's claim that educators should simply alter their approach to suit young people who are 'digital natives', ignores essential elements of the nature of learning and good pedagogy. The 'needs' that Bax refers to are: modelling of language, scaffolding and challenging students – all things students probably *need* for effective learning to take place but may not *want*.

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Is there a political question?

Prensky's (2001) ideas have thus been challenged on a pedagogic level but less so on a political or ideological level; so let us dig a little deeper into the ideological context in which Prensky's 2001 article on 'digital natives' – 'On the Horizon' – was written. Here is an extract from Prensky's Wikipedia entry:

'Prensky began his career as a teacher in Harlem, New York. He has taught in elementary school, high school and college. He worked for six years (1981-1987) as a corporate strategist and product development director with the Boston Consulting Group and six years (1993-1999) for Bankers Trust on Wall St...'

From this, we discover that Prensky is coming from both an educational and business background. The statements about digital natives and digital immigrants, for which Prensky is best known, (that teachers who are not digital natives are 'unable to relate to their students' affinity with ICT'), were made at the time when Prensky had already been working for 20 years as a corporate strategist, product developer and advisor to bankers on Wall Street. This does not mean, as I have already pointed out, that a market-oriented and Wall Street- employed business entrepreneur is incapable of putting forward useful educational ideas, as we have seen Bill Gates and Tony Blair doing earlier in this article. These education-and-business connections do suggest however, that we should, at least, be asking where Prensky is coming from in the debate over digital education – just in case his educational passions are clouded in any way by his business commitments. It also has to do with the nature of 'expertise': Where does Prensky get his authority from? On whose behalf does he exercise this authority? How can we challenge this authority and the policies it promotes in collaboration with Ministries of Education and a market-driven private sector?

Criticisms of the Hole-in-the-Wall

Another highly influential educational movement in recent years has been Sugata Mitra's 'Hole-in-the-Wall'. In part 1, we summarised the arguments put forward by Sugata Mitra based on his 'Hole in the Wall' experiments with children in the rural slums of India. Mitra points out that though many of these children had never seen a computer in their lives were able, when left alone with computers in kiosks, to teach themselves everything from 'character mapping' to advanced topics such as 'DNA replication', without adult assistance. Mitra suggested this would lead to 'unstoppable learning', through a 'worldwide cloud' where children would pool their knowledge and resources, in the absence of adult supervision, to create a world of self-promoted learning; in other words, Mitra describes a variation on Prensky's (2001) DIY approach to education, with a minimal presence of teachers who, in the autonomous digital world, often get in the way of learning.

Critics have questioned whether leaving computers in villages - and letting students get on with it - results in gains in subjects such as math and in the acquisition of other skills. According to Michael Trucano (2014) no evidence of increases in these key skills has been found. Trucano writes from a sympathetic perspective to digital education –according to Wikipedia, his work is sponsored by the World Bank; he is the World Bank's *Senior Education & Technology Policy Specialist* and *Global Lead for Innovation in Education*, serving as the organization's spokesperson on issues of technology and education in middle- and low-income countries and emerging markets around the world. At a practical level, Trucano provides policy advice, research and technical assistance to governments seeking to utilize new information and communication technologies (ICTs) in their education systems. Thus, whether Trucano comes down for or against the Hole-in-the-Wall, he can hardly be considered a neutral observer on the role of technology in education. The involvement of the World Bank in promoting digital innovation in global education confirms at least that claims for digital education are often bound up very much with economic and political issues and teachers should approach such claims with critical circumspection.

Some critics see the idea of promoting digital learning on a global level as potentially 'dumping hardware in schools and hope for magic to happen' (Cuban, 2013). The long-term sustainability of the Mitra's DIY kiosk system has been questioned; for example, Arora (2010) investigated the failure of two Hole-in-the-Wall projects in Himalayan communities; the researcher identified problems arising from unsupervised learning around a computer (dominance by boys, competition, bullying, playing around, etc.)

Similarly, UK education researcher Donald Clark (2013) accumulated evidence suggesting that the fate of a Hole-in-the-Wall site is often abuse and abandonment, unless it is inside a safe sanctuary, such as a school. Moreover, Clark found that the computers were often dominated by bigger boys, excluding girls and younger students, and mostly ended up being used for entertainment, not education.

Deep reading

The most important insights that research into digital education has to offer language teachers will have to do with more effective acquisition of language, in the traditional 'four skills' of listening, speaking reading and writing. Recommendations such as those made by the prestigious teachers' organisation, TESOL International, that teachers 'should recognize the need for integrating technology in their teaching' (TESOL Technology Team, 2011), should be considered in the light of evidence for the efficacy of technology in achieving SLA.

One assumes that the strong suggestion made by TESOL (notice the modal verb 'should') is made on the assumption that we have firm evidence that multi-media deepens comprehension and strengthens learning. Nicholas Carr (2010) in a fascinating study claims that this assumption, long accepted without much evidence, has been contradicted by research.

Carr (2010) refers to evidence that suggests that the division of attention demanded by multimedia strains our cognitive abilities, diminishing our learning and weakening our understanding. The Internet, argues Carr (2010), presents information not in a carefully balanced way but as a concentration-fragmenting mishmash. The Net is, by design, an interruption system, a machine geared for dividing attention. This capacity of the Net to distract us to prompt us to leap from link to link to connect with it, whenever we like, and wherever we are, whatever we are doing, is its charm. The beauty of digital devices, paradoxically, lies in their power to keep us skating on the surface and not get lost in texts as we did in traditional reading of books or articles.

Carr explores the concept of 'deep reading': the ability to know in depth a subject for ourselves, to construct within our own minds the 'rich and idiosyncratic set of connections that give rise to a singular intelligence' (2010). Carr quotes research that suggests reading in the real world leads to greater comprehension than reading on the Internet.

Carr is not a Luddite – he writes as someone who, enthuses about the benefits and pleasures of the Internet, but he questions whether software and hardware experts are also experts in education: the internet wasn't built by educators to optimize learning. Where can we turn to reconcile these conflicting views of IT in ELT?

A way forward: blended learning

Bill Gates (n.d.) may point the way forward when he says 'technology is just a tool. In terms of getting the kids working together and motivating them the teacher is the most important.

Prensky (2001) himself recommends that it is time to reassess what 'good and effective teaching' means in a digital age and how to combine what is important from the past with the tools of the future. Good and effective teaching, according to research reviewed by Borg, means that, among other qualities, that teachers are both technically skilled and emotionally intelligent (2006).

Research conducted by the US Department of Education, involving over 1,000 case studies, suggests that students achieved better results where ICT was used - with the greatest improvement when technology was **blended** with traditional teaching (US Department of Education, 2010).

All this points in two directions: the first is that we should be using modal verbs like 'should' less and using 'can' more. 'Can' can accommodate the wide variety of learning and teaching styles contained in the language teaching profession. It opens the way for the second direction in which our discussion has pointed us – we need to make the most of the virtues of traditional teaching and integrate them with the opportunities offered by digital learning. An approach which seems to lend itself to this integration of old and new is blended learning:

'a formal education program in which a student learn at least in part through delivery of content and instruction via digital and online media with some element of student control over time, place, path or pace'.

'while still attending a 'bricks-and-mortar' school structure, face-to-face classroom methods are combined with computer-mediated activities'

(Strauss, 2012).

The fact that there are many definitions of 'blended learning' need not bother us; the multiplicity of views as to what blended learning is, may be good news, if we stick with 'can' rather than 'should'; the vagueness surrounding blended learning will give us greater flexibility in our attempt to accommodate more students and more teachers: if blended learning is, in essence a combination, in varying degrees, of online and face-to-face learning, paper and electronic material, real-world and virtual world experience, then already we have the framework for marrying the old with the new.

Different learners can choose the appropriate proportions according to personal learning style; the same applies to the teacher, who can blend digital tools and classroom instruction according to the resources available in her institution and her own professional skills as a teacher.

The teacher's voice

21st century teachers are engaged in a perpetual race to keep up, not only with digitally-innovating colleagues, but with their own digital-native students. Technology is, by definition, attractive insofar as it is the 'latest', the most 'up-to-date'. Teachers, on the whole genuinely want to be competent in the most recent approaches, methods and techniques, and today much of these revolve around the integration of digital technology into teaching. At the same time, teachers bemoan the lack of support and training in their efforts to be 'up-to-date'.

In the best of times, schools in the public sector were unable to invest in the latest technology, even if that investment were a one-off; in these days of cuts and systemic underfunding, and with the market constantly coming up

with new ideas and 'up-dates' to old ones, the public sector and probably the private sector, too, are fighting a losing battle to keep up-to-date.

Apart from falling behind in the hardware and software stakes, all schools, especially state-run, suffer from a teacher training deficit: even if teachers are fortunate enough to be offered a short training course or the occasional workshop by peers or visiting trainers, there are few resources and little political will to sustain training on a regular basis to meet the challenge of perpetual digital innovation.

Cash-strapped and time-pressed teachers are forced back on their own resources, if they wish to continue their training in technology – and to keep up with their digital-native students.

There are two sides to digital pedagogy: the teachers' competence is one half of the digital deal; the other half is the students' willingness to co-operate - their readiness to be motivated by our digital bag of tricks. For most of our students, the computer means the internet, social media and entertainment. Therefore, when students are asked to use the same media not for purposes of pleasure but in connection with learning and obligations such as homework they may at first be pleasantly surprised and motivated ; however, when the novelty wears off they may begin to find it irritating that the adult world is invading 'their space'. This is particularly a danger when school computers are out-of-date and thus offend the students' sense of 'new is good' and the 'latest is the best'. Students often own an i-pad or the latest smartphone, whereas the school I.T. lab may have equipment which is 10 or more years old. The digital revolution is in a constant state of renewal: this is part of its appeal. Teachers, too, need to be in a constant state of renewal but this is usually not possible due to economic and political factors. Where can one turn?

The Greek oracle

Teachers are under pressure - from educational authorities, international organisations and the markets - to adopt digital technology in their teaching. Influential and powerful media figures, such as Rupert Murdoch, have joined the chorus of voices urging us to jump onto the digital bandwagon:

'Like many of you...I'm a digital immigrant...my two young daughters, on the other hand, will be digital natives. They'll never know a world without ubiquitous broadband internet access...we may never become true digital natives, but we can and must begin to assimilate to their culture and way of thinking' (Murdoch, 2005).

Murdoch's argument is important because *he* is important; he may not be a scholar and he may not present the results of empirical research, but he is one of the masters of the media world; he wields considerable power: what he thinks and does today may well affect the way we live tomorrow. The point he is making, like Prensky (2001), the father of the 'digital native' concept, seems to be that we adults need to go with the youthful digital flow or get left behind - or out. We can call this the 'jumping on the bandwagon' argument. If something is popular (Facebook, Twitter, Snapchat...) it must be OK, or at least we must be part of it; if you can't beat them, join 'em!

On the surface, this approach, of adjusting to the will of the majority, sounds like common-sense: it is open-minded and democratic. But long ago, in Ancient Greece, the cradle of an albeit imperfect democracy, these words were written at the entrance to the oracle at Delphi:

‘Pay no attention to the opinion of the multitude’.

I would modify this motto, if I may beg to disagree with the wise oracle, to read: ‘*be critical of the opinion of the multitude*’ – and be prepared to go against the grain, after having weighed up the evidence for a particular set of educational principles or practice. Socrates, one of the first great educators in history, said ‘the unexamined life is not worth living’. I take this to mean a good teacher and a good citizen is by definition one who questions receive wisdom even if that wisdom is the opinion of the majority.

Socrates, also learned from the oracle that other famous Greek philosophical principle: ‘know thyself’. Individual teachers in diverse contexts around the world will have their own strengths and weaknesses, their own culture and experience of teaching. Continued teacher development (TD) involves being aware of who we are as teachers, what we do well and what we do less well. A good teacher is, among other things, one who is constantly ready to learn – and however many years of experience he or she may have and however many generations of students he or she may have successfully got through important examinations or helped to acquire communicative skills in English, he or she will always be ready to learn: Socrates put this state of readiness to learn in his famous statement:

I know one thing: I know nothing.

A good teacher, then, engages in continued teacher development, in a constant exercise in renewed self-awareness and critical evaluation of old and new principles and practices. It is sometimes said that computers will never replace teachers but that teachers who are skilled in education with computers will replace those who ‘know nothing’ about computers and therefore do not use them in teaching. By implication, this is another one of those ‘should’ statements: it is more likely that in the future teaching will have a place for teachers and learners who can teach with or without technology: the important thing is to motivate and inspire the learner to acquire English – this was possible before the arrival of computers and it will be possible if, one day, the lights suddenly go out and we can’t connect our computers. Technological and traditional educational resources will co-exist, alone or together.

Part 3: personal reflections

‘To see a world in a grain of sand

Heaven in a wild flower

Hold infinity in the palm of your hand

And eternity in an hour’.

William Blake

My friend Amstrad

I remember 'Amstrad', my first computer, with its green monochrome screen. It was the late 80s and the personal computer revolution was in full swing. This first of what was to be many computers in my life, didn't do much; it sat there like an ugly Cyclops, its one green eye staring at me, winking at me occasionally.

My Amstrad was basically a word-processor but it revolutionized the way I worked. I was a teacher, trainer and writer of ELT textbooks. Up to that point in my teaching career, I had relied on others to type my lesson plans, my manuscripts and classroom materials: professional typists, friends and family. Using other people's typing skills made my work look nice and professional and it saved me time: but it was still a long, laborious process, especially when it came to correcting mistakes. There was a constant process of passing the typed sheets back and forth with mistakes and corrections, helped by the use of deleting fluid and bits of paper stuck on to the original script to cover the errors.

Having written a text, if I changed my mind about the order of the sentences, paragraphs or even words, it was a time-consuming hassle to make the changes. As it cost me time, money and stress to make mistakes, I tried hard to avoid them and make sure that what I wrote in my *first* draft was as close as possible to the *final* draft; I strove to write accurately. It made my writing slow and careful; but typos, though taboo, and changes of mind were unavoidable and I was stuck in the relationship of dependence on the services of typists.

Typists were doing brisk business in those days; till the word-processor came along.

The repercussions of the word-processor were multiple and far-reaching. It wasn't only the gain in speed and facility of writing: there were two more profound implications of word-processing that I discovered as the use of the word-processor in society at large and in my own work became the norm.

Firstly, this new 'digital typewriter' was a liberation from the *fear of error*. Mistakes, slips, errors, false starts...whether of spelling or the choice of word, could be corrected in seconds quite painlessly – they were without consequence.

Secondly, the freedom to make instantly-correctible errors facilitated and accelerated the *creative flow* of writing. The 'terror of error' having been removed, the mind was free to wander and explore, to try out ideas, whether of language or content, knowing there was nothing fixed or final in the choice of text. You could change your mind and no harm done. This actually led to a different quality of writing; it wasn't just a matter of writing more text, more quickly. The writing became more exploratory: it literally became freer, unhampered by fear; as a result, one could write down any ideas that came into one's mind, trying things out, changing them at will – till one came up with the best option. This quick and easy process of first draft-second draft, 'vision and revision', allowed one to produce better texts - instead of settling for less than the best, in an attempt to economize on time and the 'to and fro' with professional typists.

The potential of the word-processor to make one a more fluent and creative writer had pedagogic implications for the classroom, too: a long-term concern in my teaching career had been dealing with students' errors. One feature of EFL classes I had taught over the years was their mixed-level composition and the frequency of errors made by the 'weaker'

students. The fear of making errors would inhibit the willingness of students to take risks in both their spoken and written work. Besides, writing texts by hand and producing second and thirds drafts was laborious and - covered in red corrections - disheartening for the student. And particularly in the Greek teaching context, where exams were the main driver of motivation for learning English, errors in punctuation, grammar, vocabulary were penalized, meaning marks were lost, often with devastating results. Then, the error-friendly word-processor came along to free the student from 'error-as-terror', as it had freed me from error-phobia as a writer.

Digital distractions

But the days of the PC and desk-top computer eventually gave way to lap-tops, ipads or tablets, mobile phones, iphones or smartphones. The exponential developments in digital communication have revolutionized the way we live; and they struck the classroom like a pedagogic earthquake. It is not my aim here to go over the personal and pedagogic issues raised by digital technology; many more qualified authors have explored the terrain in great detail, for example: Carr (2010); Lanier (2014), Morozov (27), and Turkle (2011). I will limit myself to anecdotes that have affected the way I/we relate to our students and to others. My focus will be on the effect of digital connectivity on our 'being present', at a particular moment, in a particular place and with particular people. The importance and fascination of 'mobile digital technology' is that we can take it with us everywhere and it can shape our behavior everywhere. Our manner of being in the world and with other people can be shaped radically and in a very short time by a small digital device.

My Auntie Polly falls silent

Aunt Polly (80 years old) liked to talk. She was talkative, even garrulous, but we loved her all the same; we even found her verbosity entertaining at times. She seemed to remember a lot about her long life and insisted on sharing her memories with friends and family; no detail of her childhood, or her teenage years in a small provincial town in northern Greece, had been lost in the mists of time. Her courting years, her marriage, the dark years of the civil war, her years as a mother and the lonely times that followed when she became a widow, were ever and clearly present in her mind. She seemed to conjure up the past in all its detail at will. And the past was a country with an endless source of anecdotes with which she regaled her captive audience of nephews and nieces whenever she saw them - but especially at Christmas time. In the festive seasons, Aunt Polly would come to stay...and not only did she have endless stories to tell, but she had opinions about everything under the sun. Whenever she asked what you thought of some current issue or other it was really the prologue to her reciting at great length her own views; views which were repeated again and again - either because she had forgotten that she had already treated you at great length to the same opinions the previous Christmas or because she believed that if her opinions were worth hearing once, they were worth hearing twice. Or thrice...

One thing I particularly dreaded was being caught in a small space with Auntie Polly for a great length of time. I often had to drive her to her hometown 300 kilometers away and was exposed, for at least three hours, to her loud, high-

pitched voice, with no escape. She did not use commas, full-stops, colons or semi-colons when she spoke; her speech was a stream of non-stop, unpunctuated inanity.

Then, suddenly, last Christmas, Polly fell silent. She sat at the living-room table or sank into a comfortable armchair and said virtually nothing for the whole day, her head down. Had she gone deaf? Had she been struck dumb? Had she run out of stories and opinions? Had we offended her mortally? No.

She had turned up with a shiny new tablet. All her OAP friends had acquired one and had stopped listening to her. They often went on trips together and when the other old ladies were all securely captured in the coach, Polly would unleash her narrative skills on the company of hard-of-hearing octogenarians, screeching louder to make herself heard over the engine. The old ladies had stopped listening and talking to each other- something they had done for half a century or even 70 years of friendship - and had switched to sending each other messages and photographs on their shiny new tablets. They downloaded video clips, uploaded selfies and googled one thing after another, thus producing an endless stream of silence.

Polly could not beat them, so she joined them. And last Christmas, for the first time in her life with her nephews and nieces, she virtually said nothing. She was still physically present but her attention was elsewhere. She might have not been there at all. The turkey that Christmas was one of the tastiest ever, but Polly made quick work of it and went back to her shiny new tablet.

The professor who fell silent

Let us now go farther afield, to Latin America.

In December, 2015, Leonardo Haberkorn, lecturer in Communication at the University ORT in Montevideo, Uruguay, suddenly resigned. Haberkorn is a journalist who had been teaching Communication for 'many, many years' to Uruguayan students. So why did he resign? 'I was fed up', he wrote on his blog, 'of telling them off about their mobile phones, Whatsapp and Facebook'. He stopped giving classes for the degree course in Journalism because he was sick and tired of pouring forth his soul about subjects he felt passionate about to students who couldn't take their eyes off their smartphones. Their shiny devices sent and received a non-stop stream of selfies during his lectures. Not all students were glued to their screens instead of listening to him: but the numbers of screen-struck students increased by the day.

Until a few years ago, imploring students to switch off their devices for 90 minutes produced a co-operative response; 'that's no longer the case', says Leonardo. 'Perhaps it's all my fault', he adds, 'perhaps I've burnt myself out in the fight to get attention; or perhaps there's something I'm not doing right as a teacher...'. But one thing is certain, says Leonardo: 'a lot of these young people are not aware of how offensive and hurtful their behaviour is. It is increasingly difficult to explain how journalism works to people who have no contact with it and don't see the point in being informed about what's going on. Had any of them heard of the great Nobel Prize winning novelist Mario Vargas Llosa? Yes, but had any of them read any of his books? No. What with their lack of culture, their indifference to and alienation from

culture – what with their lack of curiosity and their inability to spell...I no longer want to be part of this vicious circle. I was never like that and I never will be. I always did what I did because I liked to do it and do it well. I believe in excellence. Every year on my courses, I introduced students to outstanding reporters, writers who touch your soul. This year, I showed my students the film *The Informer*...about two heroes of journalism and life- and I saw students sleeping during the film and others chatting on Whatsapp and Facebook. I have seen the film dozens of times and I still find it difficult to watch some of the scenes and hold back the tears.

I showed them Oriana Fallaci's interview with the dictator Galtieri and the questions about the thousands of 'disappeared'... to be met only by silence, silence, silence. They just wanted the class to be over. So do I' So Leonardo the lecturer reigned his post and fell silent.

As a teacher all my working life, I was intrigued and moved by the resignation of professor Leonardo Haberkorn from his position. It confirmed the addictive power of digital devices, especially when they make it so easy for us to be connected to other times, places and people... while disconnecting us from the present moment, the present people. For Professor Leonardo Haberkorn, the challenge of keeping his students' attention was direct: they preferred to be on social media than to listen to him; they preferred the trivial flow of ephemeral exchanges with real-world friends and digital 'friends', than the challenge of critical thinking about issues of importance to society (the freedom of the press, democracy, and so on).

In our ELT classrooms, the distractions from the present pedagogic moment may come from the physical presence of mobile devices in the classroom or from the culture of the internet which is diffused through our everyday lives outside the classroom. But it has changed the nature of teaching and the process of getting students' attention and keeping it. 'Motivating' content is not enough, it seems; the equipment is often more powerful than the presence of a passionate teacher. The little screen which connects the student with the outside world often has a greater pull on the majority of students than the things which are happening in the classroom. Or so it seemed to Professor Leonardo Haberkorn - and who knows how many of our ELT colleagues.

What we type into that little screen seems so weightless and temporary, but in reality it can come back to haunt us. Though it may feel ephemeral it is permanent. And potentially disastrous.

Going fishing

Personal data today is big business. Government and businesses have become a colossal marketplace for personal data. Our email address and its contents as well as all the traffic on social media that we engage in (not much in my case) are goods that can be bought or sold. Our privacy has been privatized and is available on the free market for ruthless profiteers.

On the internet, we are helpless, unprepared and vulnerable to thieves, manipulators and enemies.

I remember the first time I got a 'phishing' message from my bank, warning me politely that my account would be blocked if I didn't renew my personal details, including bank account numbers and PIN words. Alarmed at the prospect of losing money or not having access to my money, I set about filling in my personal data, which included a PIN number, on the attachment that the 'bank' had sent me. I was in the middle of filling in my details and sending them to what I thought was my friendly, reliable bank, when my technologically-savvy son looked over my shoulder as I mumbled something about 'getting a message about my PIN number from the bank', when he stopped me in mid-sentence to point out that I had fallen victim to a well-known scam: I was a few keyboard strokes from financial disaster. And it had all been so quick and easy.

Years on, using email and the internet, reading about and discussing 'phishing' attacks that claim to come from banks, I know better. Whenever I get such messages from 'banks', email servers, rich Africans wanting to share their wealth with me, beautiful Russian ladies wanting to share their free time with me, I automatically delete them, without bothering to open them. I was alarmed recently to get a message from a good friend of mine, Steve, with an attachment which I was invited to open. It began 'Hi, Luke...' so I assumed for a split second that the message must be real – till I remembered that Steve couldn't possibly be sending me an email message: he had been dead for several years.

Public shaming

Computers are simply not designed to be safe: electronic communication is subject to surveillance and can be intercepted by all kinds of agencies, official and semi-official. Users of digital communication can be divided into two groups: those who feel comfortable with surveillance and exposure of different kinds and those who feel they might be harmed because their reputation is precarious.

Both groups are potential targets. The average happy user of the internet faces insidious risks when he or she least suspects the danger; the culprit may be an anonymous colleague who uses the internet and is sitting next to you in a seminar or someone you know and trust: apparently, the most common way in which reputations are destroyed instantly in the internet age has nothing to do with hackers, corporate -government surveillance or data profiteering: a single joke on twitter can lead to ridicule –or someone may overhear you say something politically incorrect about gender or race as they attending one of your conference presentations– this comment gets posted on the net and leads to abuse and death threats; not only is your reputation smeared forever, but you may lose your job, have a nervous breakdown or worse...

This is the threat of 'public shaming'...whether by mobs of the righteous, who can be instantly mobilized or manipulated by the person responsible for the posting, or by one's colleagues, if it is an issue sparked off in the work environment. The only way you can protect yourself from public shaming is to ensure that you will never publicly say something thoughtless which may be misunderstood or be politically incorrect.

Images are also potentially vehicles of public shaming with the usual gamut of consequences, ranging from mild embarrassment to disgrace and suicidal despair. Friends and acquaintances can take pictures of us – with or without our permission – embarrassing or flattering (usually the former) and upload them onto the internet. Thus, a fleeting moment becomes fixed forever. And once a file is shared it goes forth and multiplies. The single biggest danger we face online is to our identity and reputation. I have come across photos of myself on the net which I hate because they do not show me as the young handsome guy that I am in reality – photos taken while I was attending a conference, having a meal, trying to dance or otherwise making a fool myself.

Private photographs or photographs taken of us surreptitiously in compromising poses may appear in the social media without our knowledge and cause us a great deal of embarrassment and distress.

I was at a dinner and dance celebration recently in which dozens of people gathered to enjoy themselves with fellow members of a dance group. As always on such occasions, souvenir photos are taken of the event, with the participants posing awkwardly, grinning into the camera, hugging each other and so on, important monuments in the background. Taken out of context, some of these pictures may suggest an intimacy which in reality is non-existent: people sitting close up in a crowded room; going very close to the other person's ear to be heard over the loud bouzouki music a posture – from certain angles - which may be indistinguishable from a kiss. These 'compromising' photos find themselves on the internet where eventually they are seen by 'significant others' who mistake them for betrayal and all chaos is let loose.

The person taking the photo and posting it may be simply naïve, mischievous or deliberately malicious, motivated perhaps by jealousy – in all cases, the damage is done and is difficult to remove.

My technological incompetence exposed

Texts, too, by us or about us, can be not only embarrassing on a personal level but damaging to our professional status or prospects. I remember attending an international conference as a plenary speaker in Izmir, Turkey a few years ago. There were two other distinguished plenary speakers from the UK, with both of whom I thought I had a long-standing professional relationship and I assumed we were also good friends. At the conference, we each gave a talk to an audience of about 400 teachers from Turkey and other countries. My talk was on 'Self-esteem: 21st century skill number 1'. The point I was trying to make in my title was that amidst the dazzling technological aids which are now at our disposal (mobiles, ipads, IWBs etc) still one of the most powerful ways to get students attention and motivate them is to build their feeling of self-respect: if we believe in them we can make them believe in themselves and this will lead to more successful second language acquisition.

Part of this presentation on self-esteem in the classroom made use of a 3 minute video clip from the film masterpiece by Ken Loach, KES. The film is about a boy from a deprived social background in the north of England – who is a poor student in both senses of the word 'poor': he is totally demotivated at school and his teacher despairs of him until it

becomes known that this ne'er do well student, Billy Kasper, has a passion: he loves taming and training his pet hawk, 'Kes'. Once the teacher discovers the pupil's passion and makes use of it in class the boy is inspired to talk and take constructive part in the lessons, which hitherto he had shown zero interest in. The moral of the tale is clear: build on the students' strengths and interest and you will build their self-esteem and language skills. Don't dwell on what they don't know but on what they are good at.

One thing I am not good at is technology. I am a digital immigrant who makes minimal and unimaginative use of the electronic media in my teaching, training and conference presentations. I know that. But over the years I've managed to get the hang of powerpoint, including the use of video-clips and audio files. At the time of the Self-esteem talk in Izmir I was unsure of how to do anything too fancy with video but I had successfully embedded the video clip from KES into my powerpoint presentation and had selected the option on the menu which made the clip appear automatically when the slide changed. To my dismay, when I clicked my remote control the slide with the video appeared instantly – magic! – but just as instantly it then disappeared; the screen went blank; my precious video-clip had disappeared down a black hole. 'Black magic'.

I didn't want to keep the audience of 400 teachers waiting while I pressed buttons trying to recover the video so I called jokingly to the Turkish technician 'Mustafa, help!' and carried on with my presentation. Mustafa climbed onto the stage and like a technological magician he made the clip –re-appear from the black hole in the laptop in 2 seconds. The rest of the talk was uneventful and 50 minutes later I brought it to what I thought was a reasonably successful conclusion. I received the usual routine words of 'thanks' and 'well done' from my colleagues including the other two plenary speakers.

Blogging as a tool for scoring points

My fellow plenary speakers were not only amongst the most well-known on the Conference circuit both they were both popular bloggers, read by many thousands of our colleagues all over the world. Imagine my surprise when next day I decided to read the blogs out of ideal curiosity and saw, on one of them, a detailed description of the point in my plenary where the video clip had disappeared and my reaction to the unfortunate glitch in the technology. The blogger described me as technologically 'incompetent' and looking 'silly' in front of 400 colleagues. He had decided to 'share' my apparent failure with the technology with his myriad followers on the net. I watched in horror as the discussion on the post unfolded, involving more and more colleagues from all around the world, my embarrassment intensifying with every new contribution to the 'thread'. After this demonstration of the power of blogging to hurt by public shaming I decided never to start my own blog and to have nothing to do with twitter, Facebook and the other social media so beloved of the 'twitterati'.



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My digital passion: me and my ipods

I am not a digital luddite, in spite of my reluctance to get involved in social media. Like most mortals nowadays, I am enamoured of - and sadly addicted to - certain digital devices - and one in particular. If I had to choose the one digital device for which I feel nothing but enthusiasm it would be my beloved ipod. The humble ipod is my candidate for the greatest invention of the digital era. Why do I feel this passion for this modest-looking device? It does not connect me with the outside world (which can be a time-consuming headache); I can't send and receive emails on it, so work and bosses can't find me on it; I cannot send instant messages and photographs, so I am not bombarded with memory-consuming trivia every minute of the day. I cannot phone anybody with it and those who wish to sell me things cannot find me on it. There are no 'false friends' on it, no insincere 'likes'.

But this palm-sized gadget can hold thousands and thousands of things I like to listen to: music, poetry, audio-books, plays, broadcasts, recordings of friends, video-clips. And it can do this wherever I am, whenever I feel I want to listen to any one of my thousands of audio CDs or files downloaded from iTunes or audible.com or from wherever. At home or outside; in a hotel or at bus-stop; in any place on the planet, alone or with friends, I can enjoy music and literature, podcasts of my favourite radio programmes.

One of my two ipod classics (160GB) contains 18,000 tracks, of music of all kinds and spoken word items. The two ipods together represent the whole of my audio CD library, which I have been collecting for more than half a century and which had taken up rows and rows of shelf-space in my various homes over the years. The ipod gives me non-stop joy-

and it doesn't require an internet connection; no wifi. It is portable and almost infinite pleasure that fits in the pocket or in the palm of your hand. If I want to use a track with my students or conference audiences, for whatever purpose, it is easily done. It doesn't tire my eyes out and it doesn't give me headaches. It is eternal delight.

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IMPACTS OF MOBILE MEDIA ON THE EFFICIENCY OF LEARNING ENGLISH FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES IN HEALTH STUDENTS

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Abstract

With an amazing speed of cyberspace, the internet, tablet, and mobile applications have been widely used in education. Moreover, their availability in language learning and teaching has become very diverse so that their integration into traditional methods in language learning should be significantly taken into account. The aim of the held survey is to study the students' overviews of impacts of mobile media language learning in better and more efficient learning of English for Special Purposes (ESP) among public and occupational health students studying in Kashan University of Medical Sciences, Iran.

Keywords: Mobile Media, ESP, Public and Occupational Health students

1 – Introduction

Cyberspace has found a significant status in everyday lives. It is used as a multiple-purposes 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 phones and tablets have not only been used in communication, but also in language learning and teaching both among students and teachers. Their fascinating application as well as portable tools and easy availability have willingly increased operators' tendencies toward using them. The range of technologies now available can support learners and teachers in a variety of ways both inside and outside the classroom, such as home environment and dormitory, also while the learners are on the move during their daily lives. Moreover, in the fast pace of modern life, students and instructors would appreciate using constructively some spare time that they may have, in order to work on lessons at any place, even when they are away from offices, classrooms and labs where computers are usually located (West, 2013):

Students can now work with data analysis tools, collaborative learning environment, simulations, multimedia authoring tools, and virtual environment, all of which offer access to new content and new ways of learning (Clopper, 2008).

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 (Virvou & Alepis, 2005).

2-Literature Review

2.1 Mobile media as a tool-assisted language learning

Increased development in technology coupled with a range of needs and expectations from a range of stakeholders have made it imperative for educational organizations to constantly upgrade their strategies and policies in teaching and learning as a way to remain effective and competitive (Bidin & Ziden, 2013).

Digital media have been used to enhance language learning for decades. Since the aim of language learning is to develop communicative proficiency, using communication devices and channels that already exist in the classroom is a sensible way of exploiting opportunities for language practice. The 'anywhere, anytime' accessibility to educational contents that mobile short messaging systems (SMSs), sometimes freely, offer users, means that mobile learning can extend the opportunities for study outside of the classroom (Asgari Arani, 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 moments 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 (Virvou & Alepis, 2005) And now students are consulting their mobile devices more than their teachers. If they cannot find what they are looking for on the screens, then they ask for their teachers' help. The practicality, mobility, and the accessibility of the mobile devices inevitably create this situation (Bezircilioğlu, 2016).

In addition, it is able to support a variety of learning activities and students are also ready to use it for learning (Clopper, 2008).

Digital literacy can encompass a variety of English learning activities, including activities for 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 Arani, 2014). So, easy and cheap accessibility of wireless technologies demands educational authorities to make them accessible for learners.

2.2 Technology and Education

There is now little doubt that the World Wide Web is the most successful educational tool to have appeared in a long time (Mehdipour & Zerehkafi, 2013). Furthermore, it is evident that technology has changed the world of communication dramatically, and its impact on human everyday and professional life as well as learning and educational systems is mounting. Mobile learning represents a way to address a number of our educational problems. Devices such as smart phones and tablets enable innovation and help students, teachers, and parents gain access to digital content and personalized assessment vital for a post-industrial world (West, 2013).

The social aspect of interaction of digital communication tools can lead the learners to language development. Applying them can also facilitate learning and make it easier for learners to exchange their classmates' learning experiences, even with 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 & Barton, 2007).

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 (cell phones).

Mobile applications are another necessary aspect of our daily lives. Smart devices (both phones and tablets) feature software applications that can be used to assist language learning. Many apps have the more specific purpose of helping to develop reading and writing (Graham, 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 daily carried out by more and more people. Mobile phone has evolved from a simple voice device to a multimedia communication tool capable of downloading and uploading text, data, audio, and video. Mobile phones spread globally is unmatched in the history of technology (Graham, 2013).

3. Research Design

3.1 Participants

In this study, 86 Iranian public and occupational students, including 26 (30.23%) males and 60 (69.76%) females, studying ESP in the second year were participated in Kashan University of Medical Sciences, Iran. They had their English classes in

their college, where Students should 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 public and occupational students studying in Kashan University of Medical Sciences. It consisted of 16 multiple questions in four fields including: students' knowledge, time assigned to use media, impact of mobile media as a tool-assisted language learning, and students' willing as well as three open-ended ones.

A descriptive method was used to analyze the questions. In order to make the study accurate, before the investigation, the teacher makes it clear to the participants that the questionnaire would have no influence on their academic achievement and honest responses would be very important for this analysis. It took the participants about 15 minutes to complete the questionnaires. After the completion, they were collected at once by the teacher for data analysis.

Table1-Students' answers

	ITEM	PERCENT
1	eStudents' knowledg	68.80%)(
2	Time Assigned	2-3 hours daily
3	Impact of Mobile Media	(64.5%)
4	Willing Toward Using Mobile Media	(70%)
5	Motivation in Using Mobile Media	60.2%)(

4. Discussion

As stated in table 1, of 86 students, 80 students (68.80%) were aware of impacts of mobile 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 mobile and electronic media on English language learning 75 (64.5%) students agreed they have strong impacts on learning. And 82 (70%) students showed their willingness toward using them provided the sufficient ground is paid by their teachers and college. Concerning their motivation in using mobile and 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. Therefore; provided the proper ground, there will be great tendencies and willingness among some students in using mobile media on better learning ESP.

5. Opportunities and challenges

Should opportunities, tendency, and willingness are provided by teachers and students alike for applying mobile media as a tool-assisted language learning for learning and better understanding ESP, they pay the ground for easy and efficient learning and understanding. However, some obstacles such as limitation of sources and financial supports 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 students in using cyberspace tool-assisted and mobile autonomous learning in ESP. However, implementing these electronic media demand some strategies.

First, college foreign language teachers should design a sufficient pedagogical curriculum when they are going to train 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. Students should be encouraged to attend various English reading and writing activities. Teachers should help them learn how to cooperate with others and become more confident. Finally, 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 great progress as soon as possible.

7. Conclusion

Advanced mobiles and tablets are available for students and they are now using them for multiple purposes.

Provided the financial supports by academic authorities and a more precisely designed English course modules are performed, students will be more encouraged to use mobile media for better learning English for special purposes. Accordingly, more precise studies are suggested for designing such educational curriculum and approaches to encourage both teachers and students to use them for improving their teaching and learning.

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A CULTURALLY-ORIENTED INVESTIGATION OF THE EFFECT OF TRANSLATION STRATEGIES ON MARKETING: LANGUAGE AND ADVERTISEMENT

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Abstract

With a simple investigation with language learning and translation process, researchers are able to capture all educational business institutions' chief goals in bringing up the educated and experienced marketing interpreters and translators both in oral and textual business discourse. Therefore, all educational business institutions' major aims are focused on the notion of assuring learning marketing guidelines and translation strategies as important elements to transfer advertisement ideas and messages in the best way. It is generally believed that the fundamental purpose of international marketing institutions is to train professional interpreters and translators as the main factors to start the work; educators are supposed to acquire one language in line with cultural values and points with marketing process together with translation strategies to transfer messages from SL to TL. So, a given language reflects the cultural values of the society in which the language is used and spoken. To this aim, the theories of Cateara and Graham (2002), Forcevill (1996), and Lakoff and Johnson (1980) in line with Tylor's (1987) on culture or civilization, advertisement, metaphors, and domestication were applied in this study. Pairs of advertisements between Persian and English were compared and significant positive correlations were found between the language learning and cultural translation within the context of advertisements. Results showed that culture must be fully incorporated as a vital component of language learning and translation strategies in the business world. Also, advertising images are complex cultural artifacts and their interpretation orally and textually requires complex domestic interpretation for the TL culture and language.

Keywords: *Business Discourse, Culturally-Oriented, Language and Advertisement, Persian and English, Translation Strategies, Textual Marketing*

1. Introduction

Marketing and advertising are considered as interpersonal and fundamental tools for telling consumers the types and diversity of products. The ultimate goal is to sell the consumers of any gender or at any age with extravagant and striking

advertisements. Failing to reach satisfactory results in marketing and advertising exporting and importing types of products is a problem that consumers would encounter. According to different cultures and traditions, the advertisement tradition faces important problems in transferring ideas, meanings, and structures. In translating advertisement contexts, different strategies and languages are of utmost importance. Advertisement is a fundamental communication tool for consumers (Leech, 1966). Bear in mind that advertisement has gained the access to all nuances of translation and cultural studies such as art, culture, sport, fashion, politics, and even religion. Moreover, culture plays a primordial and vital role in considering market-language and advertisement approaches. It is obvious that our focus will be on possible hurdles facing translation of market-language and advertisement.

Unquestionably, the culture-oriented investigation in translation of marketing-language and advertisement contexts is of utmost importance because a wide range of professional communication can be done deeply and it only happens when the message conveyed through texts is well understood by communicants. The first and most important challenge is how to translate meanings in a creative way, and the second challenge is to generate the same effect from the source language (SL) into the target language (TL). For the sake of clarity, faithful translation is defined as the transference of an advertisement from SL into TL. Nida (1993) and Myers (1997) stated that the holders of international companies may require importers to transfer the message and meaning from SL into TL. Advertisements have positive functions in the society, and semiotic knowledge can enhance these functions. It can be seen that images are cultural sensitive. In other words, verbo-pictorial advertisement is of significant perspectives in translating of marketing language. Nowadays, every few minutes, TV programs are stopped in order to display the advertisements' images in the eyes of their viewers. On the one hand, because of high global exchanges, financial subsidies, and consumers' needs, the demands for advertisements are increasing every day. Given the huge cost of advertising, the product manufactures and designers attempt to advertise maximum concepts, images, and speeches in a particular product within minimum time. So, advertisers should bring the ideas in economical ways via pictorial metaphors, because pictures handle the significant part of a product's message. It is believed that viewers pay meticulous and considerable attention to the visual parts of advertisements.

A very interesting example clarifies the culture investigating on marketing language and advertisement as follows. In some cultures like Western, they can accept feminity to act like a man and it may not be offensive for women to be characterized by certain masculine qualities, but in another culture, it may not be acceptable.

The ideology is another challenge for transferring advertisements. The third is religious aspect, which arises problems for Islamic countries, because Islamic culture is very conservative and notification in clear examples is prohibited.

So, why some company do prefer to translate? The capital controversial subject such as translating advertisement remains in this field of study. It is obvious that cultural and religious barriers have always presented a challenge for translating advertisements. Moreover, TV commercials have compact structures which succinctly contribute to the wide use of literary techniques and synthetic speech. Thus, the study of pictorial metaphors in advertisements drawing on the theory of visual metaphor, cultural meaning movement and differences, and model of Barth (1986) in order to conclude

that pictorial metaphors in advertisements play an active role in the meaning-transfer process of consumer goods and reading the pictorial metaphors in a highly individual activity.

This study brings some insights into understanding of pictorial metaphors in advertising. However, it focuses exclusively on the visual rhetoric and images themselves and/or their values as a commercial tool, neglecting the cultural significance they bear at large. Advertising, beyond its utilitarian character and commercial values, is an important cultural practice in modern society. Advertisements, while aimed at promoting products and services, are always produced within certain cultural environments, carrying certain cultural messages and values, and sent to certain consumers who may receive the adverts very differently based on their own cultural backgrounds.

Therefore, the theories of Cateara and Graham (2002), Forcevill (1996), and Lakoff and Johnson (1980) in line with that of Tylor (1987) have worked significantly upon translation, culturalisation, and commercial in all parts of practical advertisements, particularly, in this study. In sum, it is concluded that in transferring English advertisements into Persian advertisements and vice versa, the soul of translation is based on culture, metaphor, the verbal, and the visual aspects should not be neglected; on the contrary, translators should acquire metaphors and cultural points in both languages explicitly in the text, and language instruction and research should be the actual goal. In other words, the system of language and culture is a complex of both norms and habits. So, transferring ideas from Persian marketers to English marketers and vice versa should be with standardization and differentiation of an international marketing and translating. Advertisers make positive claims for their products, brands, or services, in general, and in TV commercials, in particular. They believe that metaphor occurs not only in verbal function, but also in visual or pictorial function which make advertisements multifunctional. For a long time, many scholars (e.g. Baker, 2001; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Newmark, 1988) studied metaphor almost exclusively in language. On the other hand, the concept of pictorial metaphor (metaphor in pictures or visual art), which has been fairly studied by researchers, creates an efficient and attractive way for advertisers and investigators recently. Advertisers use verbo-pictorial metaphors to represent their products strongly in order to absorb consumers' desires. In fact, consumers are attracted by pictures and visual arts in advertisements more than by the verbal sections. So, it is necessary to consider pictorial metaphors as a central part of advertisements in transferring messages, which is mostly ignored by translators. As a result, the message and the effect of the target advertisement are not the same as the source ones. Generally, it is realized that metaphor, as a very important human experience, has attracted many scholars' attention. In fact, the common perceptual and cultural experience brings the similarities of metaphors in the two languages and, incidentally, the dissimilarities originate from the different living environments, religions, customs, and philosophies. Therefore, understanding similarities and differences of metaphors between two languages is of a great importance in cross-cultural communication. So, transferring both verbal and pictorial metaphors from English into Persian creates fundamental and complicated problems for translators who communicate knowledge and message between two languages based on major factors, such as culture, religion, politics, philosophy, customs, values, geographical features, and so on. It is obvious that most parts of an advertisement and its message may lose their essence during transferring and translating because of shortage of equivalence of the above factors.

Above all, transferring verbal and pictorial metaphors from L1 into L2 is one of extremely challenging problems facing L2 translators. Therefore, "this is also important for translation, as without first identifying metaphor in text, application of any theory of metaphor translation is helpless" (Kanapeckas, 2008, p. 27). According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980):

The most fundamental values in a culture will be coherent with the metaphorical structure of the most fundamental concepts in the culture. They explain that different cultures classify things of reality differently, so it is often very difficult to translate from one language into another. (p. 22)

The present study aimed at defining the cultural aspects of metaphors in advertisements in the two cultures of the SL and the TL to demonstrate whether the message of the SL metaphor is transferred sufficiently by an appropriate choice of verbal metaphors or possibly by an appropriate choice of pictorial metaphors as a means of compensation in the TL, and whether they posit the same sense and meaning to the target audience, as these are inferred from the SL.

It is obvious that many people have commented over the years on ads and billboards in seminars, lectures, papers, and during conferences (Amouzadeh & Tavangar, 2004; Forceville, 2002; Ghaneh & Rezaei, 2013; Hashemian & Fadaei, 2013, 2016, 2017). Among those researchers, Forceville (1996) started to study the role of metaphors in advertisement mostly on pictorial forms. He grounded his account of pictorial metaphors on Black's (1962) interaction theory of metaphor. He claimed that, despite minor shortcomings of this theory, the interaction theory raised by Black is the most satisfactory theory of metaphor. He also uses of two distinct subjects of metaphor: primary subject and secondary subject.

This study, therefore, sought answers the following questions:

1. Are English metaphoric expressions translated metaphorically in Persian advertisements?
2. Does translation respect the target culture in translating advertisement metaphors from English into Persian?
3. Are there any factors influencing the process of transferring the message while translating advertisements from English into Persian?

2. Literature Review

According to many eminent scholars, in general (e.g., Kotler & Armstrong, 2001; Kramsch, 2003; Marshall, 1987; Porter & Samovar, 2002; Moriarty, 1986) and Forcevill (1996), in particular, the concept of *pictorial metaphor* (i.e., metaphor in pictures or visual art) has recently been explained as the high position of creative advertisement. Advertisers use verbo-pictorial metaphors to represent strongly their products in order to fulfil consumers' desires and the widely used medium of communication in modern society to bridge the gap by advertisement translation interculturally.

In fact, consumers have been attracted by pictures and visual arts in advertisements more than the verbal sections. So, it is necessary to consider pictorial metaphors as a central part of advertisement in transferring messages, which are

mostly ignored by translators (Hashemian & Fadaei, 2016). As a result, the message and the effect of target advertisement are not the same as the source ones. Generally, it is realized that metaphor, as a very important human experience, has attracted many scholars' attention (Guidère, 2006; Myers, 1997; William, 1987). In fact, the most common perceptual and cultural experience brings the similarities of metaphors in the two languages and incidentally the dissimilarities which have originated from the different living environments, religions, customs, and philosophies. Therefore, understanding the similarities and differences of metaphors between the two languages is of great importance in cross-cultural communication. As an outcome, transferring both verbal and pictorial metaphors from English into Persian creates fundamental and complicated problems for translators who communicate knowledge and message between two languages based on major factors such as culture, religion, politics, philosophy, customs, values, geographical features, and so on. It is obvious that most parts of an advertisement and its message may lose their essence during the transferring and translating because of shortage of equivalence for the above factors.

Above all, transferring verbal and pictorial metaphors from L1 into L2 is one of the most extremely challenging problems L2 translators face. As Kanapecka (2008) states, "this is also important for translation, as without first identifying metaphor in text, application of any theory of metaphor translation is helpless" (p. 27).

3. Data Analysis

Linguistic and nonlinguistic signs are the most important tools in conveying the main message in a culture-oriented context. Culture plays a significant role in translating advertisements. Iran, Saudi Arabia, and many Islamic countries face many cultural limitations that stand in the way of accepting some messages in certain advertisements. And religious limitations force them to use different types of color, which is one of challenging points in transferring meanings and need more localization. Integrated marketing communication (IMC) of advertisements and sale and purchase promotion, trade show, personal and public purchase have considered color meanings at the first step to transfer one advertisement from one language and culture into another language and culture which complete the marketing process. As a clear example, marketing of oil, gas, carpet, and house instruments demands an account of not only verbal and pictorial messages, but cultural points in particular which is of color meaning. The main aim here is successful marketing.

It is believed that advertisement's growth is much more comprehensible than economic growth in the world. Therefore, advertisements should fill the cultural bridge, localization, and domestication so as to breach the message from English-Persian and vice versa. The volume of exports of an innovation follows a lifecycle curve. The growth rate of exports starts declining when exporters from lower-cost countries enter the market; therefore, understanding the color psychology for advertising can be a good help to understanding the main culture points for translation. Table 1 (from Hashemian & Fadaei 2013) clarifies the role of color in advertisement and marketing.

Table 1. Color Symbolism in Different Cultures of Persian and English

	<i>Persian</i>	<i>English</i>
White	purity, calmness/ sacred color, peace	purity, holiness, innocence, silence, wedding, truth, peace, cleanliness, emptiness, fright
Black	darkness, silence, non-existence, awaiting/ mourning	mourning
Red	inner eagerness, martyrdom, courage/ good fortune	provocation, embarrassment, Christmas, national holidays, patriotism
Yellow	happiness, grief, disgrace, illness	joy, cowardliness, freshness, illness, caution
Blue	calmness, purity, faith	male color, corporate, conservative, atmosphere, youth clothing color, sadness, superiority, freshness, calmness
Green	happiness, life, freshness, youth/sacred color of Islam,	luck, money, growth, jealousy, environment, illness, spring, youth, inexperience, newness
Orange		energetic color, vibrancy, energy, warmth, cheerfulness
Purple	coming bloodshed (color connection), in literature it is considered as a kind of blue and sometimes as black: it symbolizes mourning	luxury, power, mystery, religion, maturity, richness
Pink	love, health, admiration, romance	feminine color, rosy health, grace, gratitude, admiration, innocence, romance
Brown	life, trust, nature	life, innovation, nature

If translators have to translate an ad from SL to TL, they should handle a great responsibility because they have to conform the idea that originally starts in the cultural norms of TL while keeping the original meaning. A dynamic translator is supposed to localize an advertisement while translating SL to TL, yet keeping the original meaning. Translators should start a serious and large-scale process of adaptation which necessitates an exceptionally localization and adaptation in context of both words and pictures of color, metaphor, and structure. The domestication principle has a target culturally-oriented communication. The effect of domestication from SL-TL contribute to a lot of successful cross-culture transferences.

According to the summarized analysis on translation advertisement and marketing strategies in Table 2, a company may be active in a purely domestic, multidomestic, or global industry. In each of those industries, a company may face local, regional, and/or global competition. Table 2 describes briefly how the methods and procedures evaluate translators for transferring meaning from one language and culture into another language and culture:

Table 2. *Competition and Marketing Strategies Between Iran and America*

Competition	Local/National	Regional	International	Power of Influence In International Market
Industrial Marketing				
Cultural Bound	advance influence	Intermediate	pre	high
Translation	fluency	High fluency	Average fluency	average
Pictorial Metaphor	advance strategies	Advance strategies	Average strategies	low
Verbal Metaphor	Advance strategies	Advance strategies	low	low
Localization	Advance strategies	Advance strategies	low	low

Katsares and Christy (2008) designed a map for boosting marketing and advertisement which is magnificently related to this part of study to present the relation between language, culture, and translation in marketplace and the translator's role in worldwide trade industry. Figure 1 can explain the process in advertising and marketing in a systematic way. The map in Figure 1 explains the three dimension in marketplace and advertisement:

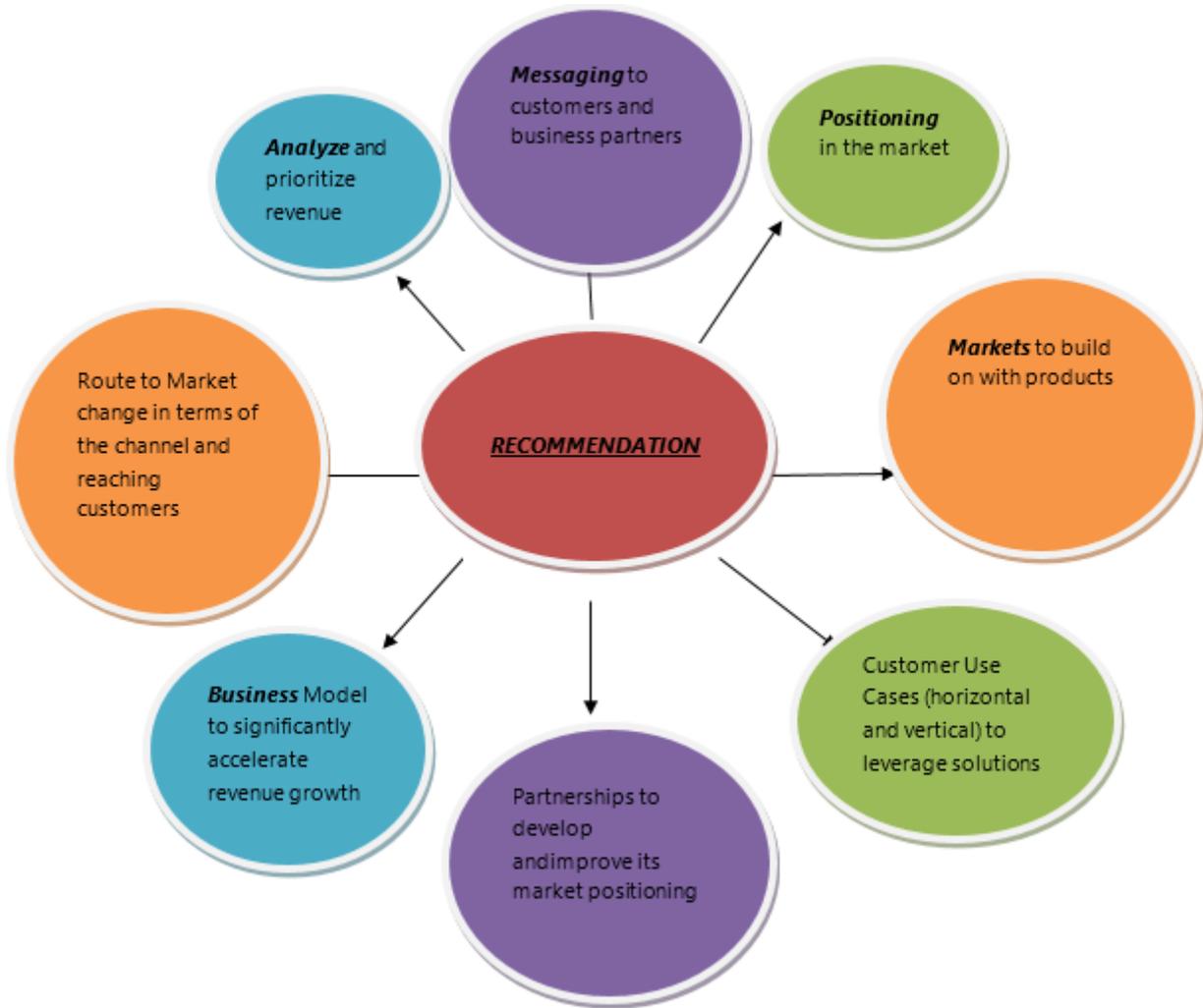


Figure 1. Language, Culture, Translation to Boost Market

4. Conclusion

From linguistic view, this analysis shows that translation and recreation of meaning from English into Persian may, on the one hand, result in new understandings of some sorts, either in form or in meaning. On the other hand, in regards to the relationship between text and image, it is clear that the image, namely, pictorial metaphors, often plays an important role in transferring the message of verbal metaphors. In this respect, the text-image relation is similar to that in Forceville's (1996) verbo-pictorial metaphors. In this study, it has also been shown that some elements may occur in texts, some in visuals, and some in both, leading to a much more complex interrelation between the two.

Despite the interest in metaphors and their translation, particularly the linguistic aspect of metaphors, translating metaphors in advertisements is still problematic. The present study supports the idea that knowledge about and application of the metaphor theory can facilitate the translation of metaphorical advertisement texts from English into Persian. The verbal metaphor sample and its translation process clearly confirms this part of the hypothesis put forward in this work that verbal metaphor in advertisement is translated under the influence of many fundamental factors.

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LANGUAGE OF ENGLISH, FRENCH AND GEORGIAN ADVERTISEMENTS

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Abstract

"The air we breathe is a mix of nitrogen, oxygen and advertising" (Guérin, 1957:9). We are in everyday touch with advertisements; we see/listen them everywhere: in the street, on/in the transport, on TV, on the Internet and we even receive them on our mobile phones. By carefully observing the figurative language of the English, French and Georgian advertisements, various stylistic devices are found, such as: metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche, etc. They contribute much to the creative development of the advertising language. Whereas figurative language requires special interpretation, learners of a foreign language probably have problems in understanding the meaning of words and expressions which are employed in a non-literal sense. The paper investigates and analyzes the role of figurative language in the English, French and Georgian advertisements, especially commercial and social slogans, from the linguistic point of view; similarities and differences are outlined.

Keywords: figurative language, Georgian advertisements, English Advertisements, French Advertisements, stylistic devices, metaphor, metonymy

Introduction

Nowadays, the demand for advertisements has increased and advertising represents one of the most powerful communication tools used by marketers to communicate their message to the target audience. "The air we breathe is a mix of nitrogen, oxygen and advertising" (Guérin, 1957:9). People are in everyday touch with advertisements; they see/listen them everywhere: in the street, on/in the transport, on TV, on the Internet and we even receive them on their

mobile phones. And generally, advertising promotes campaigns for education, health, environment or social campaigns and the purpose of ads is not only to promote goods and services, but also to entertain the public and to influence their attitudes, their beliefs and their behaviours.

Consequently, the aim of any advertisement is to transmit a message that is easy to understand and keep in mind. It should be noted that a good ad is memorized through repetition, but at the same time, the brand name or a good slogan can also make an ad successful. Basically, while creating ads, language is used as an important instrument to surprise and draw the attention of audience.

We consider the figurative language to be one of the means of making advertising messages memorable and emotionally coloured. In our article, we try to underline commercial advertising slogans demonstrating a rather frequent use of puns, similes, metaphors, personification, hyperboles, and euphemisms, while the usage of metonymy and apostrophe is very rare in the three languages: English, French and Georgian. We have found out that the use of figurative language in slogans of social advertising campaigns is rather infrequent and only a few examples of personification, simile, metaphor, hyperbole, and apostrophe were identified.

Our article deals with investigating various stylistic devices in the English, French and Georgian advertisements and analysing the role of figurative language in the advertisements (especially commercial and social slogans) of the target languages; similarities and differences in such ads are outlined.

By carefully observing the figurative language of the English, French and Georgian advertisements, various stylistic devices are found, such as: metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche etc. They contribute much to the creative development of the advertising language. Whereas figurative language requires a special interpretation, foreign language learners might probably have problems in understanding the meaning of words and expressions which are employed in a non-literal sense.

Our aim is to observe the figurative language of the English, French and Georgian advertisements, to underline various stylistic devices, but, undoubtedly our research is not a global one, but it is just our modest attempt which might be useful for linguistics and foreign language (English/French) teachers.

1) The language of advertising

Before defining the language of advertising, we will explain what advertising itself actually means. The term "advertising" comes from the Latin "advertere" which means to turn toward or to call attention to something. Another word often associated to advertising is propaganda. In French, the term for "advertising" is "la publicité" and in Georgian "რეკლამა" [reklama]. However, even the term „advertising“ may sound differently in different languages, on the other hand, it is not possible to hide the intention of advertising to persuade and influence the public, informing it about products and services.

Cook (1992) stated that creating advertising appeals is the connection between products and consumer needs. Popular advertising appeals can be classified into ten aspects: food, comfort, safety, emotion, sex, parental, social-approval, health, environment, awareness, and fear. One of the most popular methods used in advertising is to motivate and attract consumers' interest is "emotional appeal" (Cohen, 1972). In Maslow's (1964) Hierarchy of Needs emotional need is considered to be as one of the primary basis of human needs. To fulfil this emotional need advertisers have designed their advertisements to encourage this need.

It is generally known that advertising traces its history back to ancient times. The first forms of advertising messages were transferred by word of mouth, however, in the ruins of Pompeii commercial messages and election campaign displays have been found. Egyptians used papyrus for the sales messages or to make the mural posters, while in Greece and Rome lost-and-found advertising on papyrus was common. Wall or rock painting for commercial advertising is another manifestation of an ancient media 15 advertising form, which is present to this day in many parts of Asia, Africa and South America. As the economy and the trade were expanding during the 19th century, the need for advertising grew (Stanton, 1984).

While talking about the language of advertisement we should mention that the language of ads somehow differs from the language we use in everyday situation. From its beginning till nowadays advertising has created its own language. Leech (1983) points out that there are 3 types of "linguistic unorthodoxy":

1. Lexical (blend words, nonce words);
2. Semantic (personification, metaphor);
3. Contextual (ambiguity).

Features of advertisement language can be divided into several aspects. May (1995:5-20) identified seven aspects as shown with explanation in table # 1 below:

Table #1: Features of Advertisement Language:

Features of Advertisement Language	Explanation
1. Simple and Informal	Use popular and oral language to make the advertisements easy to understand and memorable. "You've gotta try it!"; „On va fluncher!".
2. Misspelling	Some words are misspelled on purpose to make the advertisements more vivid, interesting and attractive. "Beanz".

3. Loanwords	The most frequently used loanwords are French and Spanish. "Perrier...with added je ne sais quoi".
4. Contraction	It is essential to use some contraction to cut short the length. "For Sale", "To Let".
5. Use of Verbs	Advertisers are very careful in choice of verbs. They mostly used the verbs like try, ask, get, and take, in their advertising.
6. Use of Adjectives	The most frequently used adjectives are such as new, crisp, fine, free and big.
7. Figurative Devices	Their use is to make the thought more striking and effective to arouse consumers to buy products, i.e. pun, metaphor, rhyme, repetition and personification. "Lips that shower for hours".

While discussing the language of advertising it is necessary to discuss an integral part of advertising: slogans as they represent a way of advertising products.

They concentrate in few words the motto of the company, its aims and the benefits that the products can bring to customers. Slogans become an important part of the advertising strategy when a company chooses to advertise its products in an international market, entering a different social and cultural frame. In order to be effective, every slogan has certain characteristics: it uses simple and colloquial language; the sentences must be short, usually imperative or interrogative, or even sentences without a predicate. Slogans rely on the connotative meaning and ambiguity of words, use puns, well-known phrases, idioms or sayings. (Dan, 2015:16)

2) Figurative Language in Advertisement

Figurative language or figure of speech plays a significant role in advertisement, since it influences people to remember the product and may eventually lead to purchasing behaviour. As a rule, figurative language is mainly used in advertising as a creative device which catches people's attention and persuades them to buy products or services. However, figurative language or more specifically the tropes may be difficult to interpret in the ads.

Dyer (1982) defined figurative language as an artful deviation in the form taken by a statement. It is the language that creates feelings or image in the readers' minds. Gibbs and Turner (1998) added that figurative language is a language of imagination that helps convey exact meaning in an artistic manner. It may break language rules, use colourful words imaginatively or even make up new words.

Consequently, when combining these two definitions, the researchers come up with the definition of figurative language as a form or manner of how a message is presented to readers. Its objective is to help readers visualize the image of products which may break language rules, use colourful words, or make up new words.

Figurative language can be classified into more than two hundred different types (Leigh, 1994). Certain types are typically applied in advertisement. As pointed in the studies of Dyer (1982) and Fauconnier (1997) there are eight types of figurative language mostly employed in advertisement which are: metaphor, personification, hyperbole, rhyme, alliteration, synecdoche, imagery and neologism. Stern (1987) suggested from her findings seven types of figurative language, including allegory, alliteration, symbol, rhyme, metaphor, conduplication, and parallelism. Bhanmaka, et al. (2002) cited in their study five types: imagery, polysemy, alliteration, metaphor and metonymy.

3) General Linguistic Characteristics and Specifics of English, French and Georgian Ads

Frequently advertising is aimed at achieving various objectives and these ones may be commercial or social by their nature. In order to make the advertised information easily understood and remembered, advertisers usually employ simple words, especially monosyllabic verbs in their ads. Such words as "make, get, take, try, come, go, have, need, see, use, give, serve, choose, let, look, call, and come" are often found in English ads. In French: "être, faire, avoir, vivre, changer, prendre, découvrir, choisir, donner, savoir, dire, pouvoir, voir" and "ყოფნა, არის, იგრძენი, დაგპირდება, წასვლა, გამარჯობა, წაკითხვა" and others in the Georgian ads.

It should be especially emphasized that advertising English is characterized with a rich and colourful vocabulary. It is most important that lexical features are the use of monosyllabic verbs, weasel words, favourable words, personal pronouns, compounds, neologisms and others and short words which are usually the most familiar and therefore the most easily understood by a wide range of readers. Moreover, most short English words are of Anglo-Saxon origin. These words can generate a greater emotion than their Latin equivalents, hence they have maximum impact. The high frequency of monosyllabic verbs used in the sample ads also helps to make the ads more persuasive (Linghong, 2006, p.73) .

It is important to underline the fact that France is one of the most hostile European countries in advertising. The aggressive attitudes of famous French intellectual people such as Balzac and Georges Duhamel against advertising are known. And even nowadays there are many events, the so- called "anti-pub" "anti-advertising" which present advertisement negatively. French advertising is characterized by long sentences, the active use of nouns, etc..

Contrary to French advertising slogans in which words are often dominant, Georgian slogans are mainly characterized by the poetic sounding, giving them more expressiveness and national character.

French advertisings are strongly influenced by the English language. From the point of view of brands, globalization and therefore the use in France of its vehicular language, English, has not slowed down, moreover, it is

increasing more and more. For example: "Aigle, French but wild"; "Safran, powered by trust"; "Asics, Want it more". However, some brands have succeeded in reconciling the two rival languages by associating them to express both the power of English and the refinement of French: "French, art de vivre, Roche Bobois"; "Tony Parker est Born for Sports... Et vous?"; "Volkswagen up! C'est grand d'être petit" and others.

4) Stylistic features of the English, French and Georgian ads

The most interesting part of our research is observing the language of the English, French and Georgian ads; investigating the stylistic colouring of advertisements on the target languages and stating similarities and differences between them.

The language of English advertisements is rich with stylistic devices. There are numerous examples of using elliptical sentences as well as exclamatory and incomplete sentences giving special literary colouring to ads and emphasizing their social-emotional background.

Think small! (Volkswagen)

Feel like a woman. (Revlon)

Think different (Mac); (elliptical sentence)

Think random (iPod Shuffle) (elliptical sentence).

Some advertisement slogans even contain contracted forms such as: "**Life's a journey. Enjoy the ride**" (Nissan); "**Because I'm worth it**" (L'Oréal); "**Maybe she's born with it...**" (Maybelline); "**There are some things money can't buy. For everything else, there's MasterCard**" (MasterCard).

We have also observed some other stylistic devices in advertising texts, i.e. slogans. The slogan advertising of Harley Davidson contains samples of metaphor: "**The legend rolls on**". Sony Play Station advertising slogan also uses metaphor as stylistic mean for rising emotion in readers: "**Live in your world, play in ours**". MasterCard slogan is focused on the use of set phrases for more emphasis "**There are some things money can't buy. For everything else, there's MasterCard**".

The stylistic device – hyperbole is variously used in English advertisements:

The legend rolls on (Harley Davidson)

The happiest place in the world (Disneyworld)

Repetition seems to be one of the powerful stylistic instruments used in the texts of English advertisements. We can find the example of assonance i.e. the repetition of vowel sound [i] and consonance – the repetition of consonant sound [dʒ] in the advertisement of Nisan Company: **Li**fe's a **j**ourney. **E**njoy the **ri**de (Nissan). The following slogan exemplifies

polysindeton i.e. the repetition of conjunction “and” and parallelism i.e. the repetition of word “going”: It keeps **going, and going, and going...**

Concerning the language of Molière, we made a very interesting case of language analysis while observing the French ads.

The following French ads are typical examples of elliptical sentences

1. reVittelisez-vous ! (Vittel) ;
2. Partagez votre Galaxy (Samsung) ;
3. Soyez mégalo ! (Sony Vaio)
4. Je sais donc je suis (CNN).

Next to the short and elliptical sentences we can also find long sentences in the French advertisements:

1. À bord de notre nouvelle Business Class, vous avez le choix entre très confortable et très confortable (Lufthansa) ;
2. Il y a beaucoup plus de neurones dans votre cerveau que de mots dans le dictionnaire : utilisez-les ! (Dicos d'or) ;
3. Pour que l'avenir tienne ses promesses, inventons la télévision qui dépasse la télévision (France Télévision) ;
4. Seul un maximum de technologie permet de réduire la consommation au maximum (Nouvelle smart cdi turbo diesel) ;

Repetition seems to be a popular device in French advertisement text building process. Here are some examples of consonant sounds repetition in the word next to each other.

1. Beaux jours Beaujolais (Beaujolais) ;
2. Toi toi mon toit (Citroën) ;
3. Son () Sérénissime (Mercedes-Benz).

The ending “é” sound is vividly shown below:

1. Givré ! (Cognac) ;
2. Liberté, égalité, festivités ! Votez Vico, le roi de l'apéro (Vico) ;
3. Loupé ! (Peugeot) ;

There is an extraordinary grammatical case observed in French ads i.e. the usage of the pronoun in the third-person:

1. Il vaut mieux investir dans le neuf (9 télécom) ;

2. Il était une fois le palace de demain (Plaza Athénée) ;
3. Il ne pense qu'à ça (Ford K).

We have a very interesting case of language analysis while observing the Georgian ads. The texts of the Georgian ads are totally rhythmic. The rhythm is built with the help of various stylistic devices giving the text special literary colouring. The most frequently used stylistic device is repetition which we find almost in every part of the Georgian advertisement texts.

The following advertisement “სიკვდილით თუ დაბადებთ ბოლოს რეესტრს ჩავბარდებთ” [sikvdilit tu dabadebit bolos reestr tsfabardebit] (After the birth or death one has to be registered at the registry office). This is the example of homoiptoton which means the repetition of similar case endings in adjacent words or in words in parallel position. The same devices are vividly shown in the following text: გამარჯობა სოფელო და ქალაქო, რეესტრი ვარ შენი სამოქალაქო [gamardzoba sophelo da qalaqo, reestri var sheni samoqalaqo] (Hi-ya to villages and towns, here we are the registry office!). While reading the same advertisement the sample of consonance is in view in which the reader is able to hear the consonant sound [q].

Homoioteleuton i.e. similarity of endings of adjacent or parallel words are shown in the given advertisement: თქვენ დაგჭირდებათ ჩვენი მოწმობა, თუ გადაწყვიტეთ კეთილმოწყობა! [tqven dagtjirdebat tshveni motsmoba, tu gadatskvitet ketilmotskoba!] (You will need our certificate if you choose mod con!).

“**გინდა** სოფელო, **გინდა** ქალაქო, **გინდა** რეესტრი სამოქალაქო!” [ginda sophelo, ginda qalaqo, ginda reestri samoqalaqo] (Any village or town is in need of registry office). This ad may serve as an example of anaphora which means the repetition of the same word or group of words at the beginning of successive clauses, sentences, or line.

Next to the various types of repetition we find some other literary devices in the Georgian advertisement texts such as metaphor, metonymy, hyperbole, comparison, elliptical sentence, exclamatory sentence, etc. Here are the samples of the Georgian advertisement texts identifying these devices.

- **იგრძენი თავი მოქალაქედ!** [igrdzeni tavi moqalaqed!] (Feel yourself as a citizen!). This is a typical example of elliptical sentences as well as the exclamatory one.
- **კომფორტისკენ ტრანსპორტი არის თქვენი პასპორტი!** [komphortisken transporti aris tqveni pasporti] (Passport is the transport towards your comfort). This is the example of hyperbole and metonymy. The same sentence may serve as the case of consonance i.e. the repetition of consonant sound ‘q’ at the same time.
- **ყოფნა მარტო მოგწყინდება, გააფორმე ქორწინება!** [kopna marto mogtskindeba, gaaphorme qortsineba] (It’s boring to be alone that’s why register your marriage!). Like the other advertisement texts this one also represents the cases of metaphor and consonance [ts] at the same time.

There is an interesting example of comparison in the following text: “ისე როგორც ზღვას პორტი, კაცს ჭირდება პასპორტი!” [ise rogorc zghvas porti, kats tjrdeba **pasport**] (Like the see needs port, a man is also in need of passport).

Any reader may easily identify the example of hyperbole in the following text: “ჩვენი საწვავით შორს წახვალ.” [tʃveni satsvavit jors tsakhval] (You can go far with our fuel).

Conclusion

Based on the study, we can conclude that the language of the English, French and Georgian advertisements is rich with stylistic devices which give them a special literary colouring. Figurative language such as hyperbole, metaphor, repetition, alliteration, assonance etc. are more frequently used in English advertising texts than in French ones. Georgian advertisements are a bit different from the French and English ones as the text design is based on the rhythmical construction of words and phrases with the help of various stylistic devices. In general, we can say that the figurative language gives advertising texts of any language special effects which enable producers attract clients' attention.

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THE TYPOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF GRAMMATICAL MEANS EXPRESSING MODALITY

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Abstract

The article deals with the description and discussion of historical and theoretical peculiarities of the typological research, which sets the framework for the evaluation of the linguistic material. It is noteworthy that the given work presents both synchronic and diachronic analysis. The most homomorphous signs between the Georgian and English languages are found exactly in terms of diachronic development of the grammatical modals, while synchronic analysis presents more contrasting features. The key distinction is that grammatical modals in the English language are verbs, while in Georgian they are not. In order to highlight the systemic-functional features of grammatical modals in the Georgian and English languages in terms of synchronic analysis, corresponding linguistic material is examined according to the principles of immediate constituent analysis. The article includes a detailed summary of the conducted research and all the assumptions stated as a result of the analysis of the chosen material.

Keywords: typological analysis, modality; synchronic and diachronic analysis; immediate constituent analysis

It is noteworthy that the given article presents both the synchronic and diachronic analysis of typological research. The most homomorphous signs between the Georgian and English languages are found in terms of diachronic development of the grammatical modals, while the synchronic analysis presents more contrasting features. The key distinction is that grammatical modals in the English language are verbs, while in Georgian they are not. The grammatical modals in the Georgian language do not play any role in the predication scheme. While their status is clear and adequately defined in the English language, some prescriptive problems emerge in Georgian.

Considering the mentioned context, in order to highlight the systemic-functional features of grammatical modals in the Georgian and English languages in terms of synchronic analysis, the correspondent linguistic material is examined according to the principles of immediate constituent analysis. The use of immediate constituent analysis of grammatical modals enables to expect accurate and reliable results in terms of revealing their specific systemic-functional features. Moreover, the given method makes it possible to use the more objective approach to the issue. The choice was underpinned by this extremely valuable for the study factor. It should be also emphasized that such an approach greatly contributed to the better presentation of the main content of the given research.

The issues concerning the typological study of modality have always been in the center of attention and have constantly been the subject of debates. Naturally, there are a number of difficulties connected with their typological study, however, in the course of research on modality, researchers encounter one more problem, connected with the choice of criteria. The criteria in this case are not exact and have an approximate character. This fact is acknowledged by the leading specialists in this field. However, this cannot be unexpected, as the researches often have to use such unscientific terms as unreality, non-factuality, probability, necessity, etc. The use of such concepts makes it difficult to ascertain exact criteria and their further adequate use.

The means of expressing modality can be divided into two parts: universal and non-universal means. Universal means are identified within all types of expressions without any exceptions (for example, intonation). Another type, i.e. non-universal means are used only in some expressions. The means of expressing modality are used in order to relate the forms and conditions of its expression with each other. Non-universal means are used to make the appropriate conditions in order to change them into forms for expressing modality. The above-mentioned is also applicable in case of comparison between two unrelated languages. However, it should be noted that the given research is not focused on the description of universal means, as in terms of modality, it is represented by the intonation.

Which characteristic features can be discussed on the basis of the given material and its analysis? They are mostly of diachronic character and can be defined as follows:

- 1) The semantic peculiarities of the notional verbs, which gradually turned into modern grammatical modals, formed the basis for the semantic change, i.e. their meaning was rethought (the phenomenon of trans-semantization). The term trans-semantization was introduced into linguistics by Z. Kikvidze in 1995: "The concept of trans-semantization is based on the evaluation of the word's semantic components, their fixation and variability. During the process of trans-semantization, the semantic components of lexical unit are worn out, and as a result, only the core or the necessary specific component is left in order to make a base for the linguistic unit with a new meaning" (Kikvidze, 1995, p.17).
- 2) In Georgian, as well as in English, the modern modals have changed a number of morphological and syntactic peculiarities. The given process most evidently resulted in the loss of the different morphological markers. This process is called clitization in special literature.
- 3) Due to the mentioned processes, each of these words underwent various phonetic erosions (the changes of their sound forms), that contributed to their formation as different linguistic units.
- 4) Trans-semantization (the loss of initial semantic features and semantic rethinking), clitization (the loss of the initial morphological and syntactic peculiarities) and phonetic erosion (the subsequent change of their sound forms) determined their decategorization (the loss of initial categorical properties) and led to the transcategorization (acquiring the new categorical properties, resulting in their new grouping within the system of the parts of

speech).

As a result of the trans-categorization, Georgian and English grammatical modals were differently grouped within the system of parts of speech: in the English language they formed the group of modal verbs, which is adequately reflected in the grammatical descriptions. As for the Georgian language, the linguistic units viewed as grammatical modals cannot be considered as verbs (even modal/auxiliary verbs). As it is known, they are included in the group of particles. This difference is more important, considering the fact that, unlike English modal verbs, Georgian grammatical modals are not able to express predictability, in spite of their verbal origin.

The modal verbs do not express features of parts of speech, and their function in the language is to express the variety of modal meanings. Due to their context, lexical environment, and meaning of syntactic structures, the errors related to the degree of their lexical meaning completeness are quite frequent. The above-mentioned mostly concerns the verbs **should** and **may**, which have lost the completeness of primary modal meaning when being used in subordinate clauses. Such cases were assessed by Z. Dolgoplova as follows: "In order to discuss this issue theoretically, it should be noted that the structures replacing modal verbs with weak meanings cannot be considered as analytical forms of the mood belonging to the system of English verb conjugation." (Dolgoplova, 1961, p. 12). Modal structures are able to approximate to the forms of mood, however, it means that the auxiliary verb has to lose its semantic meaning and acquire the meaning of the auxiliary element.

English scientific literature includes purely formal approaches, i.e. the classification focused on the formative peculiarities of analyzing elements. It is noteworthy that the American linguist N. Chomsky (1957) in his transformational-generative grammar theory gave priority to the mentioned approach. There is a classification by H. Palmer (1974) and R. Huddleston (1976), which includes the formal criteria based on Chomsky's (1957, pp. 161-169) four transformations. According to the Huddleston (1976, p. 333), the given formal criteria in the special literature are referred to as NICE properties; NICE is an acronym defining the terms of the following linguistic phenomena: Negation, Inversion, Code, and Emphatic affirmation. These parameters are the following:

1. Negative form is formed without the auxiliary verb **to do** (can't, mustn't);
2. Interrogative form has a positive inversion without the auxiliary verb **to do** (Can you? May I?);
3. "Code" or ability to perform an elliptic function without the auxiliary verb **to do** (She can swim and so can you);
4. Ability to express emphatic affirmation (She will be there).
5. Do not require –s for the third person singular;
6. Do not have impersonal forms (infinitives, participles);
7. Are not supportive. i.e. do not support each other (She may will come)

These are the formative peculiarities that distinguish modal verbs within the grammatical system of the modern English language. It is noteworthy that due to the lack of some forms, which are characteristic for all other verbs, modal verbs are often referred to as anomalous, defective or insufficient. Apart from this, they do not have the forms of imperative mood, infinitive, gerund and both participles. The lack of infinitive and participle means that they do not have the forms of tense, mood and voice.

The fact that lexical meaning is rethought from non-modal into modal acquires a distinct meaning from the typological point of view and the loss of the primary meaning results in the change of the character of syntactic connection between the given verbs and the infinitive.

When defining the conjugation system of the modal verbs, the fact that negative and interrogative forms do not require the use of auxiliary verb 'do' should be taken into consideration. This specific feature is one more factor distinguishing modals from notional verbs and making modals similar to auxiliary verbs. The mentioned fact, as well as their unstressed position and the lack of the ability to act as a predicate without the following infinitive, adds final characteristic traits to the portrait of modal verbs. Modal verbs are able to perform their role, i.e. modulate the action expressed by the infinitive, with the system of grammatical categories and forms they have on the given synchronic stage.

Some facts on how the English language formed the verb group traditionally referred to as modal verbs are given below. It is possible to list the linguistic processes, which determined their evolution:

1. Desemantization, (semantic deterioration that means that they have lost their prior meaning, characterizing them as notional verbs); in spite of this, there are cases when the verb maintains the notional status and these applications coexist; one of M. Lima's articles can serve as a good example here: "The Peaceful Coexistence" of *to need* and *need*: Some Syntactic and Semantic Considerations of the English Modals of Necessity" (Lima, 1993);
2. Clitization (the change of their morpho-syntactic peculiarities);
3. Decategorization (lost of their primary categoral properties);
4. Transcategorization (acquiring new categoral properties, leading to their new grouping within the system of the parts of speech);
5. Phonetic erosion (changes in their sound form).

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STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE QUALITY IN LEARNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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Abstract

The issue of quality in learning is part of wider discussion about the quality in higher education. The term 'quality' in relation to education is somewhat relative and could also be subjective considering the ultimate goal of the main stakeholders involved in the process. Identifying the primary users of higher education is key to determining the prevailing assumptions about the quality. For example, quality can be viewed as an exceptional feature, as perfection (or consistency), as fitness for purpose, as value for money and/or as transformative quality. However, these five approaches could be largely interrelated and extensively linked. Moreover, a number of studies, both theoretical and empirical, have focused on quality in higher education as multi-dimensional in terms of the institutional inputs, outputs, and the process. The aim of this paper is to concentrate on the input of the process in relation to students and to analyze the process i.e. teaching and learning for achieving the output of the education process. The suggested three-tier approach will be scrutinized to investigate the quality in learning in higher education by focusing on students' learning and employability.

Keywords: *quality assurance, quality education, higher education institution, student perception.*

Definition of Quality

Defining quality in the frameworks of higher education system has always been a complex issue, since it is difficult to define or quantify. Moreover, various scholars argue that quality education is subjective and depends on the individual's perception of the whole process. Quality assurance in European Higher education was first introduced in France, the UK and Netherlands (Westerheijden et al., 2007), later in 1998 and 1999, respectively, it was the Sorbonne declaration and then Bologna declarations that addressed this issue at an international level. The overall aim was to develop a coherent and cohesive European Higher Education Area.

Throughout years, various approaches have been applied to define the quality in higher education considering the stakeholders involved in the process. Harvey and Green (1993) proposed five dimensions of structural development of quality: (1) quality as exceptional, where the involved parties relate it to excellence; (2) quality as perfection or consistency, when the processes and specifications are aimed to meet; (3) quality as fitness for the purpose, when the emphasis is

made on meeting the customer requirements; (4) quality as value for money, when stakeholders relate quality to the cost of education; (5) quality as transformation, presupposing producing a fundamental change. Logically enough, Srikanthan and Dalrymple (2003) translated the quality dimensions according to the stakeholders involved in the education process. First, they placed community at large as the providers of education, secondly, they emphasized students' - as the users of the products - role, thirdly, they viewed employers in the face of the users of education outputs, and finally academics and administrators as the employees of the education sector. At the same time the authors emphasized the importance of ensuring the consistency within the proposed dimensions.

On the other hand, Mergen et al. (2000) group parameters of the quality into three distinct areas, such as quality of design, quality of conformance and quality of performance. Quality of design captures the consumer requirements that are determined by three factors, such as the depth of the education consumers' understanding of their requirements, the transformation of the defined requirements into the outputs that is of value to the consumer, and finally, the continuous improvements of the design process and the key aspect of the total quality management concept. On the other hand, Quality of Conformance is related to the design requirements, including uniformity, dependability and requirements. Thus, for this concept a proper measure should be deployed in order to make sure that design requirements are being met. It should be mentioned that assessing quality in the frameworks of the Quality Conformance concept could be tangible in the industry field, but might be quite tricky in the educational sector, as the ultimate output is subjective and changeable and there is long lead-time between delivery of the service and production of the output. Finally, the quality of performance deals with the process viewed subjectively by the end-user, be it internal and/or external. However, despite the end-user, the performance of the institution will predominantly be measured by external forces.

One of the strategies also employed for defining quality is to identify specific indicators that reflect the desired inputs and outputs (Tam, 2010). Even though indicators related to quality of higher education might be numerous, scholars group those into several distinct categories, such as administrative, student support, instructional, and student performance indicators. The first three categories primarily address the desired inputs, such as educational resources available to students. The last category, student performance, focuses more on outputs, such as gains in learning, which reflects the trends in assessing student outcomes to assure quality (Tam, 2014).

Last, but not the least, in all almost all the definitions of the quality in higher education, students are definitely at the heart of the concept and it is closely linked to the customer's satisfaction. Shemwell et al. (1998) argue that in today's world of intense competition, the key to sustainable competitive advantage lies in delivering high-quality service that will result in satisfied customers. Responding to the above-said, Elliot and Shin (2002) at the same time discussed the ultimate correlation between the student's satisfaction on student's motivation, student's retention and recruiting efforts. Shure et al. (2007) explored the impact of degree program satisfaction on academic accomplishment and dropout and observed that student accomplishment depends on degree program satisfaction and differences in academic ability. Lee and Tai (2008) investigated critical factors that affect student's satisfaction in higher education and their impacts on the

management of higher education organizations. Kim and Richarme (2009) argue that in firms with high customer satisfaction the improvement of service quality will result in positive financial implications. This should be so in higher education as well.

Considering the above-said, one might conclude that it is practically impossible to present to the exhaustive list of the definitions of quality in higher education because of its complex and rather intangible nature. In any case, the second pivotal question to discuss when exploring the quality in the educational system is its assurance for the benefit of various stakeholders. While defining quality assurance itself is rather complicated due the multiplicity of the definitions, some common structural elements could be still traced among them. Quite frequently, the term quality assurance is closely linked with the accreditation process, while other scholars provide a distinct definition of the two terms. For instance, Vlăsceanu et al. (2007) defined quality assurance as “an ongoing, continuous process of evaluation (assessing, monitoring, guaranteeing, maintaining and improving) the quality of higher education system” (p. 48) and accreditation as “the process by which a non-governmental or private body evaluates the quality of higher education institution ... in order to formally recognize it as having met certain predetermined minimal criteria or standards” (p.37). Even though there is a striking similarity between the definitions, the American Council on Education (2015) defines accreditation as the basis for quality in higher education institutions, but suggests that meeting accreditation standards may be insufficient for demonstrating overall institutional and programmatic quality.

Yet again, despite the multiplicity of the quality and quality assurance definitions within the context of higher education system, the majority of the scholars do put students at the heart of the process and put a particular emphasis on the perception of quality. A rather straightforward result stemming out of the literature review suggests that quality in higher education and student satisfaction are irrevocably linked. Therefore, it is of utmost importance to observe the students' perceptions over the quality in the higher education institutions.

Methodology

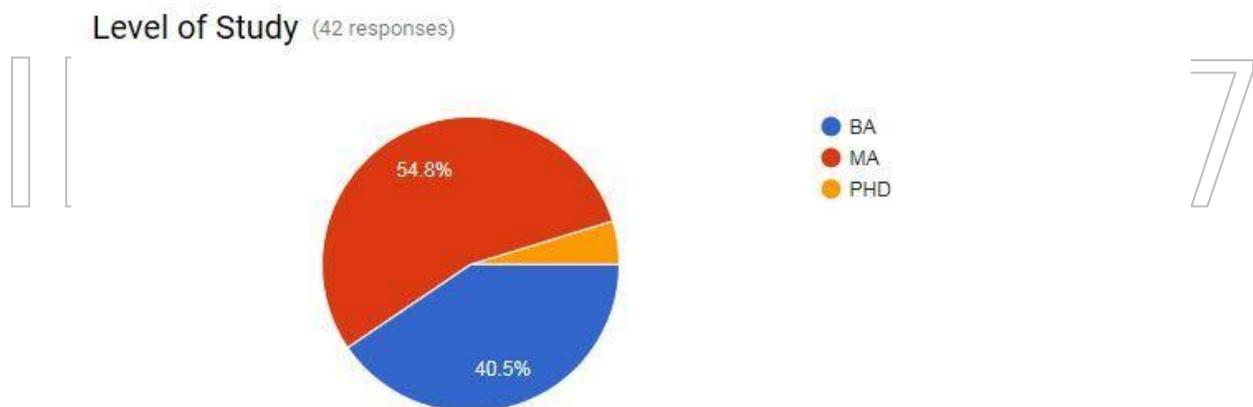
Sureshchandar et al. (2002) suggest that customer satisfaction is likely to be multi- dimensional in nature and should be operationalized along five factors, i.e. core service (the content of a service), human elements of service, systematization of service delivery and social responsibility. Martensen (2002) applied latent variables to be used in the student satisfaction model: institution image, student expectations, perceived quality on non-human elements, perceived quality of human elements, perceived value, student satisfaction and student loyalty. On the other hand, Lagrosen (2004), examining the dimensions of quality in higher education, identified characteristics like course offered, teaching practices, campus facilities, computer facilities, corporate collaboration, information, responsiveness, etc. Considering the above-said, a questionnaire has been compiled, based on the totality of the values offered by the scholars. The survey was conducted to elicit information from the students studying at different levels of the higher education system. The questionnaire was

filled out by students of the International Black Sea University and Ilia State University. The questionnaire was designed in the format of the Google Forms, enabling participants to fill out the responses online.

Findings

The overall goal of the survey was to evaluate the students' perceptions of quality in learning within the higher education system in relation to different elements constituting higher education quality.

The survey was purposefully designed to elicit information from the students studying at various education levels. Originally, it was considered to compare the responses of the students across educational levels, however, eventually the responses were analyzed, based on assumption that the difference in the perceptions might be insignificant considering the joint interests and aspirations of the students across all educational levels. In total 42 responses were gathered, out of which 54.8% were undergraduate students, 40.5% - graduate students, whereas only 4.7% - post-graduate students.

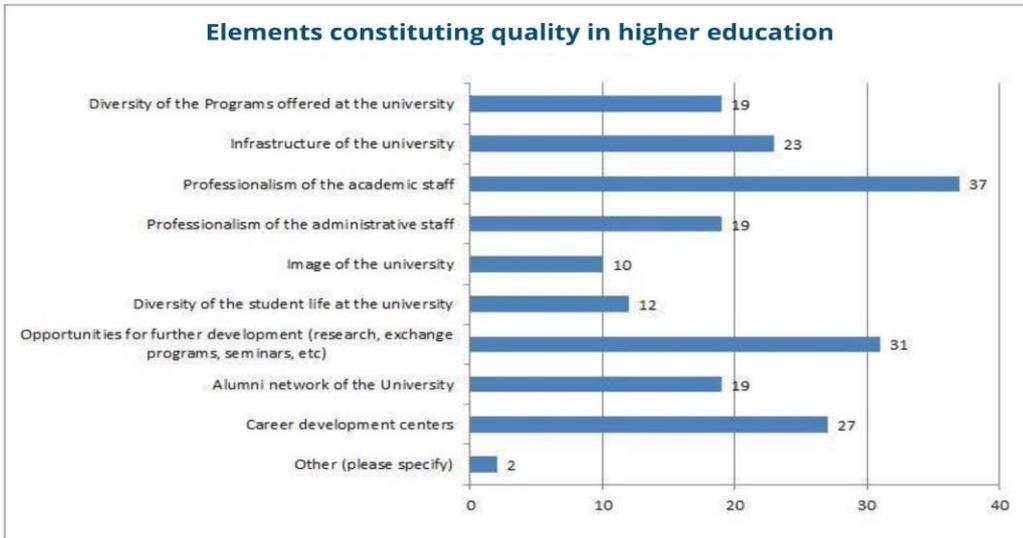


The first question of the survey referred to the overall concern of the students with the quality in learning in higher education system. As expected, 97.6% of the respondents were concerned and thought about quality, however, oddly enough, some 2.3% of the respondents, though involved in higher education system, have never thought of quality as an important factor of the education. It could be safely assumed that, while getting involved in the educational system, students carefully consider the quality of learning since it is ultimately linked to the output of education.

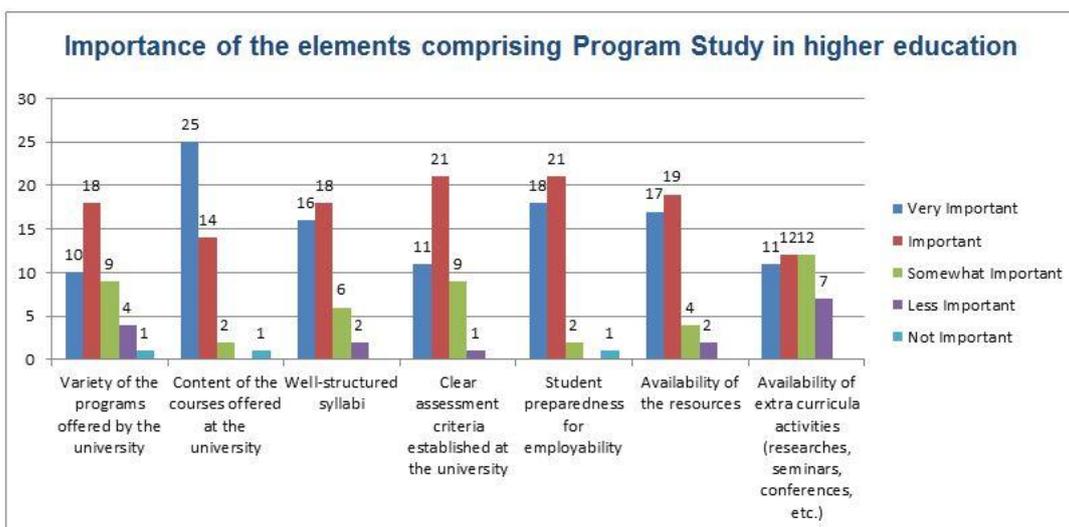
1. Have you ever thought of the quality in learning in higher education?
(42 responses)



A specific question was designed to understand the students' perception of the concept of quality. Based on the literature review, the respondents were offered several elements, such as the diversity of the programs, infrastructure of the university, professionalism of the academic staff, professionalism of the administrative staff, image of the university, diversity of the student life, opportunities for further development, alumni network, and career development. Respondents were also given the possibility to suggest any other elements they deemed important for the composition of quality. The results showed that for slightly over 88% of the respondents quality in learning is primarily associated with the professionalism of the academic staff in the higher education institutions. Interestingly enough, the second option receiving the highest score was linked to opportunities for further development in the form of exchange programs, seminars, and research. Moreover, 64.3% of the students identified the existence of the career development centers as the core component of quality. The top three choices identified by the survey clearly reflect the chain of logic shared by the students. The quality in learning and acquiring information received through highly qualified academic staff leads to the opportunities for further development, while the unity of the two above-mentioned options results in the ultimate outcome persuading the students, i.e. employment. It is also noteworthy that the least responses were allocated to the image of the university, which is also an important trend to observe for the higher educational institutions.

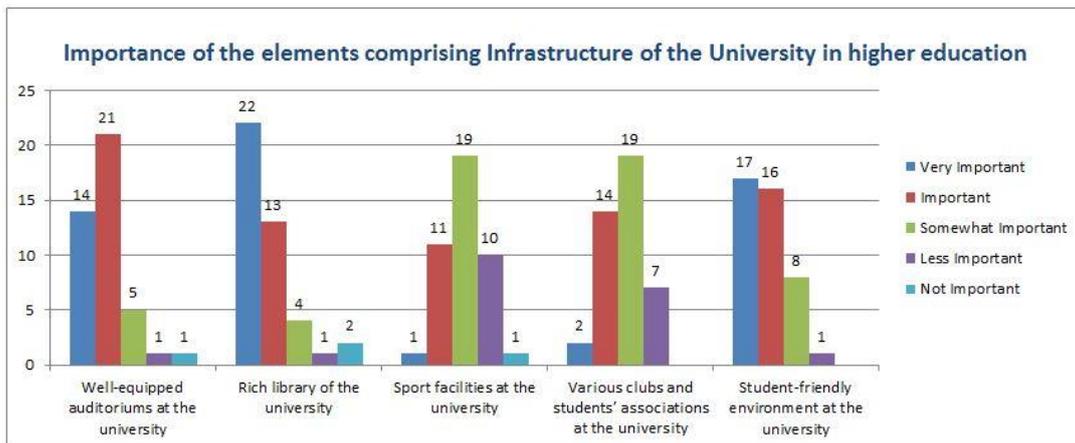


Based on the literature review, the key elements identified by various scholars as the core elements of quality were further broken down into the constituent sub-elements. Students were asked to evaluate each of the options relatively against each other, even though they might have considered all of the elements as imperative for quality in learning. The responses to the question clearly correspond and continue to the logic of the pattern described above. Top three elements labeled as “very important” were content of the courses, preparedness of students for employability and availability of resources. At the same time, extra- curricula activities, well-structured syllabi and availability of the resources were assessed as less important by the respondents in relation to the program study.

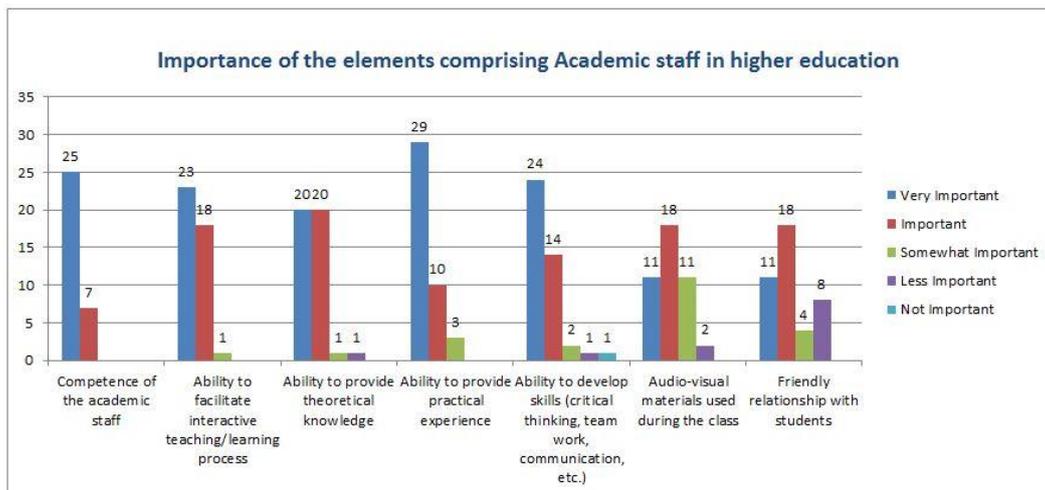


In relation to the university infrastructure, the existence of a rich library at the university was marked as very important by 22 respondents, as important by 13 students, and only 2 participants thought that it was not an important

element. On the other hand, well-equipped auditoriums were identified as important by 14 respondents and as important by 21 participants. The existence of the sport facilities and various clubs and/or student associations at the university was marked as somewhat important by 19 respondents, respectively.

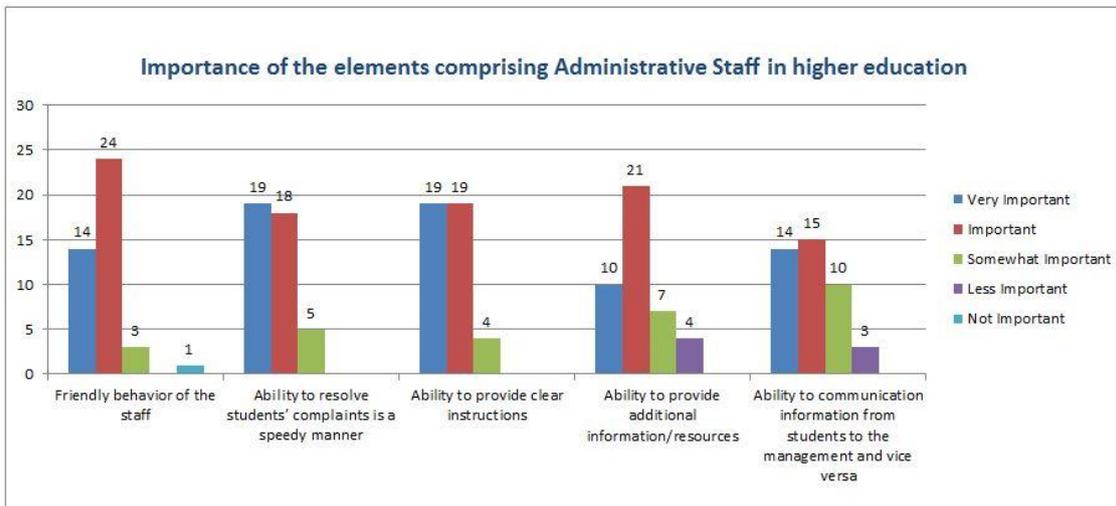


While evaluating the academic staff of the higher education institution, interestingly enough, the majority of the responses marked as “very important” was allocated to the ability of providing practical experience, while the competence of the staff was only identified by 25 students. The third element receiving the highest number of responses was the ability of academic staff to facilitate interactive teaching, identified by 23 students. The students believed that it is less important for the academic staff to maintain friendly relationships with students (8 responses), and to use audio-visual materials in class (2 responses).

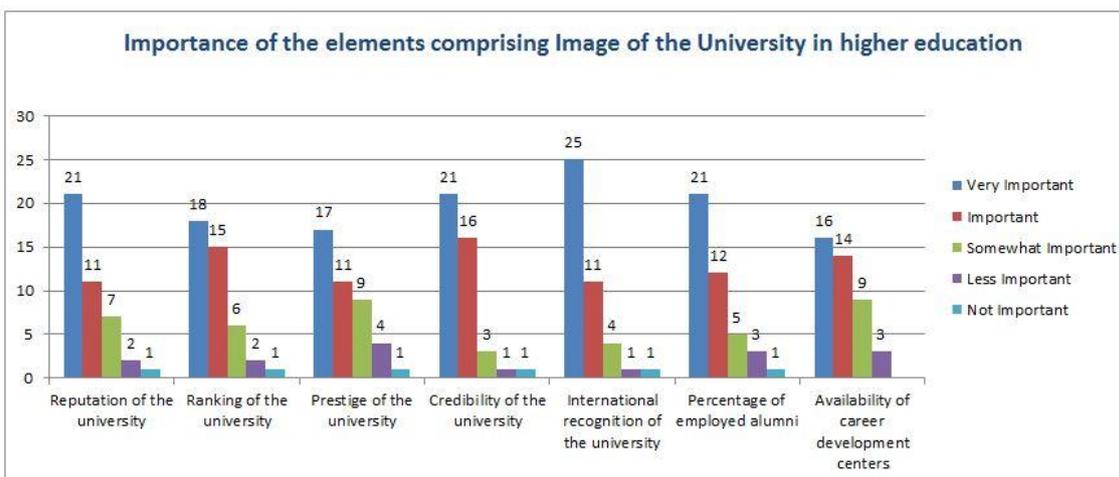


In terms of the administrative staff, the majority of the respondents believed that the ability to resolve students' complaints and provide clear instructions was very important (19 respondents respectively), while their friendly behavior was identified as important by 24 respondents. At the same time, the survey participants assumed that the ability to

provide additional resources/information (identified by 4 respondents) and to communicate information from students to the management and vice versa (marked by 3 participants) was a less important attribute for the administrative staff.



Even though the image of the university was not identified by the majority of the students in question one as the key element comprising quality in learning, students believe that international recognition of the university in very important (25 responses), followed by credibility and the reputation of the university, as well as the number of employed alumni identified as "important" by 21-respondents, respectively.



Conclusion

Improving quality service has become an important task for most higher education institutions. Defining quality in the higher education continues to pose significant challenges. The review of the literature in the article confirms that there is still no consensus on a definition of a quality. Various sources suggest that there are four broad conceptualizations of

quality and a set of quality indicators used to assess each of the broad conceptualizations. Scholars also suggest that there are structural themes in the existing definitions of quality assurance, wherein the first element of definitions focus on process policies, or actions and the second element of definitions specify the aspects of quality that pertain to accountability and continuous improvement. At the same time, there exist many arguments supporting the close relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction. Therefore, even though the definition of quality is somewhat elusive, university management has to consider the interest of the main stakeholders, and in this particular case, students while defining the vision, goal, and objective of the university and designing the educational process.

On the other hand, the results of the survey clearly demonstrate students' perception of the quality of learning within the frameworks of the higher education system. The respondents highlighted the key elements constituting the integral part of the quality concept, such as professionalism of the academic staff, infrastructure of the university, career development opportunities, etc. Moreover, the respondents have identified crucial sub-elements that should be considered carefully by the university management for increasing the quality in learning. Literature has provided ample evidence, that the perceived quality depends on satisfaction of the stakeholders and, consequently, increasing customer's satisfaction leads to a rise in service quality.

Finally, the findings of the research should be considered by policy makers, higher education management, academic and administrative staff. The results will enable the stakeholders involved in the education process to increase the quality of the system by responding to the students' needs and expectations.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING WRITING

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Abstract

Writing is considered to be one the strongest tools for making people's thinking visible, giving them an opportunity to express their personalities. It also represents a picture of an individual's perception of the world. Composition is a reflection of one's education, views, attitudes and talents. For all these reasons writing can be metaphorically referred to as a process of painting, as while writing we reflect the world inside us and around us in different palette of colors – words. It should be noted that teachers evaluate and assess the writing product without being aware of the cognitive processes experienced by students while composing texts. It is believed that the best way to analyze the writing process is to examine and observe the writer in the process. The present article will analyze the literature in the field of writing and observe thinking processes behind texts experienced by students which will give the reader inside out knowledge of the cognitive processes of writing not only through theory, but also proved by empirical study by putting to use thinking-aloud practice as a qualitative research method. The present study will have a practical value for scholars, educational experts, teachers, writing tutors and students contributing to raising their awareness towards composition and enhancing the quality of teaching and learning writing.

Keywords: cognitive processes of writing, memory, thinking behind texts, thinking-aloud protocol

Introduction

Writing is a unique and one of the most powerful ways of making impact on the reader by making thinking visible and expressing oneself in tailored, well-planned, and effective texts. It has a strong communicative purpose and embraces innumerable complex cognitive processes. Since the inception of psychological theories about cognitive processes, it has been stated that "writing is not simply a matter of translating preconceived ideas into text, but also involves creating content and tailoring the way which is presented to the needs of the reader" (Galbraith, 2009, p.7).

Writing is referred to as one of the most complex cognitive activities that human beings accomplish during their lives. It involves a large number of cognitive components that operate at different levels of representation (Olive, 2003).

There are different forces that give significance to having good writing skills. Internet and highly competitive job market can be considered as such. There has been a dispute about the role of digital media in leading writing to death, but it should be noted that in today's world good writing skills are preferred by the job market. Written language is a very strong instrument of communication as indicated above. People write in order to convey ideas to others to inform, persuade, entertain, or inspire (Crismore, 1979, p.3) So, as writing is one of the most powerful communicative tools, the emphasis is put on one's skill of expressing ideas, views, and opinions in written language, using an appropriate style and register to reach the communicative purpose.

It is easily noticeable how learners struggle with expressing themselves via written language when being English as a foreign Language teacher. Some find it difficult to put ideas into words, others find writing activities time-consuming and boring. Some feel frustrated and anxious by seeing their compositions marked up and are not willing or are not capable of making changes and tailoring their texts. Various reasons lie behind the complexity of writing. Composition is a multi-component process including a writer, reader, and a message, also the processes of retrieval, selection, linking, organizing, and the development of ideas into effective sentences and paragraphs. Consequently, learners face the challenge of using all aforementioned multiple components to create the written product. Some of them have an inborn talent and some develop it through practice.

As stated above, an ability to express oneself via written language is not only a gift, but it can also be attained. In order to tailor this skill, experience and commitment is needed. It should be noted that writing is not just one practice or activity, but it also creates relationship between the writer and the reader. In order to equip learners with the necessary skill of using written language effectively and, consequently, prepare them to compete locally and abroad it is important to be familiar with the psychological and linguistic processes that take place while composing the written work. If people can learn to separate the task components of the composing process, they can learn to use the most effective strategies for each sub-process. They can learn, for instance, the proper way and time to edit (Crismore, 1979, p.5).

For teachers it will be an additional tool and power to know how one sub-process task interacts with another and helps achieve the writers' goals. In this way the teacher will equip learners with necessary techniques and strategies to write effectively. Above all, knowing sub-processes of writing, teacher is given a possibility to pinpoint the difference between skilled and unskilled writers and provide assistance and support for those in need.

In this article different components of writing process and behavior will be discussed. The present article will refer to various mental tools, materials, and procedures that people use in producing written texts.

Writing as a Discovery

Linda Flower and John Hayes in their cognitive process theory of writing introduce us with the theory of cognitive processes and provide a detailed study of thinking processes in writing. They compare writing to the process of discovery and state that “the myth of discovery implies a method, and this method is based on the premise, that hidden writer, waiting only to be discovered” (Flower & Hayes, 1980, p.21).

The process of discovery is very perplexing as it is difficult for students to look back on their own experiences into their mind and find necessary knowledge stored in their memory. Consequently, they have to build and create new ideas and concepts in the process of which “poor writers give up too soon and the fluent writer is satisfied with too little” (Flower & Hayes, 1980, p.22).

Writing has been viewed as a problem-solving, cognitive process. To understand what cognitive processes are writers experiencing while producing written product, the analysis of different models and approaches towards writing should be made. One of such models suggested by Linda Flower and John R. Hayes is the *stage model of writing*. This model describes the process of text production, but it does not describe the thoughts behind the process. The researchers define that pre-writing is the stage before the words emerge on paper, writing is the stage in which a product is being produced and re-writing is the final reworking of that product (Flower & Hayes, 1981). In this way, it can be considered that writers are constantly planning and revising while writing.

The cognitive process model, unlike the stage model of writing, can be considered to be the departure from the traditional paradigm of stages of producing the text. It can be referred to as the model, capable of analyzing mental processes and sub-processes of writing by being more specific.

In order to study the process of defining a problem, Flower and Hayes collected thinking-aloud protocols from participants – good and poor writers. As they define “protocol is a detailed record of subjects’ (participants’) behavior” (Flower & Hayes, 1980, p.23). It includes the transcripts of tape record made by writers who were verbalizing their thinking processes while producing the written text. After analyzing the transcripts from learners’ recordings, the researchers distinguished between two major units – rhetorical situation, which implies audience and assignment itself and the second unit – which includes the set of goals regarding affecting the reader; creating persona, building meaning, and producing a formal text. Based on the afore-mentioned results it can be stated that writers represent two kinds of information: information about the rhetorical situation, by which is meant the writers’ initial analysis of audience, assignment and task they are given and another investigated fact is information about the writers’ own purpose and goals.

According to Flower and Hayes research carried out in 1980, it was revealed that writing involves three major elements:

- Task environment (rhetorical problem – audience, assignment)
- The writer’s long-term memory (storage of knowledge)

- Writing processes (planning, translating, reviewing)

Task Environment

While proceeding to writing processes, a writer needs to identify the rhetorical problem, which in this case is related to school assignment, topic and the audience it refers to. As writing is a rhetorical act, writers attempt to solve or respond to this rhetorical problem by writing something (Flower & Hayes, 1981). From the psychological viewpoint, a rhetoric problem is considered to be a fact that writers are given the task that they need to accomplish – find and define the problem to be solved. They need to solve at least two problems. One is related to the context, particularly, the process when the writers have to decide what to say and second problem the writers need to tackle is rhetoric one – when the writer has to decide how to say it in case of which they need to turn to working memory and all the resources and knowledge stored there. Apart from that, they need to have developed good reasoning skills, as they have to make such decisions as mentioned above. According to Kellog (2008, p.2), “learning to become an accomplished writer is parallel to becoming an expert in other complex cognitive domain.” The main goal the writer has to achieve in order to become an expert in composition is to gain control over the number of cognitive processes and to respond adaptively to the specific needs of task. The majority of students are not equipped with necessary skills of recognizing particular problem (the essence of the given task) and are not aware of the methods of formulating critical questions that are essential for the quality of their performance. According to Linda Flower (1980, p.22), “a rhetorical problem is an elaborate construction which the writer creates in the act of composition”. The concept of a rhetorical problem, which the writers create themselves, and the process of constructing its image can explain the unpredictable nature of writing.

The Writer’s Long-term Memory

Long-term memory contains many different types of knowledge related to text content and discourse structure. It has its own organization of information. But it is difficult to retrieve information from long-term memory. The second problem is how writers adapt the retrieved information for solving the rhetorical problem and meet the requirements of a writing assignment. The relationship of memory and writing will be discussed later in the article.

Writing processes

Planning

Planning is described as an “internal representation of knowledge that will be used in writing (Hayes, 1981). Planning contains multiple sub-processes. One of them is *generating ideas*. The latter is responsible for retrieving the necessary information from long-term memory. After generating, the ideas need to be organized. The process of organization

involves grouping ideas, forming new concepts with the help of which writers can identify categories. The writers identify the first or last topics, important ideas, and presentation patterns. But all the process of organization is guided by one of the most important aspects of sub-process of writing – this is goal setting that drives the inspiration and motivation and enhances achieving the task put upon them.

It is assumed that the most powerful force that drives the composing process is the writer's own set of goals, purposes and intentions. They can be broken into four groups: the first target of their goals are readers and the writers set global as well as local plans to affect the audience. The global plans are those that aim at changing the image and perception of a reader towards a particular subject or topic while local goals and plans are such as making writing plausible or attractive.

The second kind of goals refers to the relationship with the reader and how the students see themselves as writers.

The third goal serves creating the meaning and coherent ideas, like generating ideas, telling to themselves on which point they need to focus, etc.

The fourth goal is related to features of a written work – decisions about choosing the genre, layout, issues, and choice of cohesive devices. It refers to the technical quality and format of the written text.

The goals that writers set to themselves are of two kinds – procedural and substantive. The procedural goals convey ideas about what procedures should follow each other while substantive goals imply what information should be included in the writing product. It also deals with the sequence of concepts and information writer intends to put in the assignment. The nature of goals falls into three patterns as well:

- Explore and consolidate – this pattern occurs in initial composing stage. It implies thinking over the topic, jotting down ideas and just starting writing;
- State and develop – it is more straightforward work of writing. A writer generates ideas and sub-goals on this stage;
- Write and regenerate – this implies attempt to compose the first sentence, and prose itself that is more detailed representation of what he wanted to say.

Translating

Under the term of translation the act of representing generated ideas into meaningful symbol system is meant. The process of translating requires juggling the special demands of the target language – grammar, spelling, etc. "Translating involves a linguistic level of representation in which the pre-verbal message resulting from the planning processes is transformed into a verbal message" (Olive, 2003, p.2).

Reviewing

After the writers translate their plans, goals and ideas into meaningful words in order for written work to be proper, writers need to apply reviewing to the composing process. Reviewing is the process when writers choose to read what they have written, which may lead to new ideas, or planning and translating again.

It was echoed in the present article that it is difficult to compose a coherent, effective text and produce an extended text at an advanced level as it involves the language system as well as challenges to our cognitive systems, particularly, for memory and thinking. It is suggested that writers need to put to use all of the prior knowledge that is stored in long-term memory, but they may be able to do so only if they can recall it from long-term memory or leave it in short-term working memory. As all these are thinking processes, the latter is considered to be very closely linked to writing and those who are capable of doing it well, are considered to be substantive thinkers.

Kellog (2008) views writing as a continuously improving and developing skill that is developed by practice of perceptual-motor and cognitive skills. He introduces us with three macro-stages of cognitive development in writing skill as follows: knowledge-telling; knowledge-trasforming; and knowledge crafting.

Knowledge-telling

The initial stage of knowledge-telling is retrieving and choosing what to say, and then generating a text to say it. On this stage author takes into account the reader and his or her needs. The writer thinks how the potential reader will interpret one's text. But hereby, it should be noted that on knowledge-telling stage full representation of the author, text or reader can not take place as it is only possible by reaching the final third stage – knowledge-crafting which will be discussed later. On the knowledge-telling stage writers struggle with what the text actually says and consequently, their product is a restatement of their thoughts.

Knowledge-trasforming

Knowledge-trasforming is the second stage of cognitive processes which involves making changes to what the author wants to say. "It implies an interaction between the author's representation of ideas and the text representation itself" (Kellog, 2008, p.5). On this stage authors review the text, ideas and plan additional language generation.

Knowledge-crafting

The final macro-stage of cognitive development of writing skill is knowledge-crafting. It implies professional expertise in writing. On this stage a writer is able to control and manipulate with cognitive processes such as maintaining, manipulating

a representation of the text in working memory. The text on this stage is already constructed by an imagined reader, author and text. "In knowledge-crafting the writer shapes what to say and how to say it with the potential reader fully in mind. The writer tries to anticipate different ways that the reader might interpret the text and takes these into account in revising it" (Kellog, 2008, p.5).

It is assumed that *knowledge-telling* strategy is applied mostly by novice writers. They attempt to retrieve content from long-term memory by using this strategy.

In contrast, *knowledge-transforming* strategy "involves elaborating a representation of rhetorical or communicative problem to be solved and using goals derived from this representation to guide the generation and evaluation of content during writing" (Galbraith, 2009, p.10). Knowledge-transforming is mostly put to use by more skilled and expert writers. Consequently, they are more capable of revealing reflective thoughts and develop more elaborate plans before writing, revising, and modifying the plans and the texts they produce. Due to these abilities, the composed texts are more tailored and meet the readers' needs and consequently, they achieve communicative purpose more effectively.

The present research devoted significant attention to writing processes. It should be stated that there is continuous interaction between all aforementioned processes – planning, generating, and reviewing. It is assumed that relatively more time is devoted to the generating sentences and cohesive links. And just generating text without any planning in advance would also benefit writers. It is also known that planning and revising place more demands on working memory than translating processes do. The latter places lighter demand on working memory. It is most often activated process but planning is considered to be more activated than revision. Activation of translating remains constant while planning decreases and revision increases.

Memory and Writing

Another important issue widely discussed by cognitive psychologists is the huge role of working memory in orchestrating such complex cognitive act as composition. "Working memory is aimed at explaining how information is temporarily stored and processed during the realization of cognitive activities, and in particular, complex cognitive activities such as learning, language production and comprehension" (Olive, 2003, p.3).

The initial model of working memory was proposed to consist of three functional components – central executive, phonological loop and visuospatial sketchpad. To understand that issue deeply it should be indicated that working memory should be seen as a multi-component system containing several components. One of the most attentional components of working memory is the *central executive* which is aided by two peripheral and independent systems – the phonological loop and visuospatial sketchpad – that temporarily stores verbal and visuospatial information (Olive, 2003).

Phonological Loop

It is one of the first and the most studied component of the multi-component model of working memory. It is responsible for pacing information in short-term storage processing the verbal and acoustic information. Phonological loop contains two components – a phonological store, which holds memory traces in acoustic or phonological form that fade in a few seconds and an articulatory rehearsal processes the function of which is to retrieve and re-articulate the contents held in this phonological store (Repovs & Baddeley, 2006). It is fractionated into a passive store in the phonological store and active rehearsal system. It is assumed that sub-vocal rehearsal occurs with longer words allowing more time leading to poorer performance. Word length has effects on recalling and is dependent on sub-vocalization. Information stored by phonological loop can decay with time and is replaced and refreshed by new information. To sum up, the phonological loop comprises a brief store together with a means of maintaining information by vocal or sub-vocal rehearsal (Baddeley, 2011).

Visuospatial Sketchpad

Visuospatial memory was developed in 1960s and is also well-developed and widely investigated component of multi-component model of working memory. By contrast to phonological loop, the sketchpad is a passive system that is capable of maintaining visual information and special locations in the form of static visual representation. The special component (the inner scribe) is an active spatial rehearsal system that maintains sequential locations decaying information in the visual cache (Olive, 2003).

Central Executive

As indicated in the introduction of this paper, writing is a highly integrated activity. Furthermore, all writing processes place high demand on the central executive of working memory. Central executive (CE) was labeled from central controller and it initially was assumed to be able of attentional focus, storage and decision-making. The principal role of CE is the attentional control of actions. As it was already mentioned, heavy demands are put upon central executive. In order to produce effective text, it suggested that the writers should put less demand on CE and eliminate the process of planning ideas, generating text and reviewing ideas. For instance, retrieving information at the right moment from long-term memory helps reducing overload on the central executive which is inseparable part of working memory.

Kellog (2008) suggests the way of reducing excessive demands on the central executive. One of such ways is training writers in planning, sentence generating, and reviewing skills. Training methods are learning by doing – which means practicing as much as possible to make the text “perfect”.

Method and Procedure

The process of composition is silent. The writer's thinking processes while writing are in the shadow for the reader. In order to observe the thinking processes behind writing, thinking-aloud method was utilized among high school students. Thinking aloud protocols imply observing the participants working with an interface while encouraging them to "think aloud" – to say what they are thinking and wondering at each moment. Thinking-aloud protocols focus on the problems. Furthermore, they can reveal writers' strengths and weaknesses while composing at each level of writing process. It is the direct observation and due to this has a significant value. It is advantageous from several points: Thinking aloud protocols provide the data from a broad range of sources, such as direct observation of what the subject is doing and hearing what the subject wants, experiences, or tries to do. It also gives the observer an opportunity to concentrate on a specific task they are interested in or concentrate on naturally occurring problems.

Twenty high school students from Private Demirel College of Georgia, Tbilisi were asked to write an opinion essay about the influence of television on society and to record their thoughts while writing in order to investigate the strategies the writers use, the most difficult tasks and challenges faced while writing. The data collected from the students were thoroughly analyzed and interpreted.

Interpretation and Discussion of Thinking-Aloud Protocols

The collected data from thinking-aloud protocols gave the researcher valuable results and opportunity to investigate the thinking behind composition, though the limited number of protocols may not give the opportunity to go deeper in the most obscure parts of thoughts and psychological processes writers experience while composing.

The data collected from thinking-aloud protocols gave the significant opportunity to analyze different aspects and processes of writing, such as the process of generating ideas, writing introduction, constructing the body paragraphs and drawing conclusions; grammar and lexis; psychological aspects of writing, such as task environment, goal-setting processes, self-evaluation and self-correction skills and strategies used by different types of writers. The thinking-aloud protocols gave the researcher opportunity to analyze two major units of writing, such as rhetorical situation – audience and assignment itself and setting the goals, such as affecting the reader. Due to the valuable data collected, different elements of writing were observed such as: task environment, rhetorical problem (audience and assignment), and writing processes (planning, translating, reviewing).

Task Environment

Assignment and Task

During making the records of respondents' thoughts the writers were expressing their attitudes towards the given task: "...Well, the topic is not good but still, you can write something about it..." "... Well, opinion essay or argumentative? Which type?" "...one, two, three...How many words should I write?" "...if only an essay was about internet or cell phone! I would write it without so many challenges!" "...I'm not prepared...I haven't thought about and prepared for that topic and generally, I am not able to write anything".

The Audience

The writers were trying to affect the reader by thinking about their potential audience and taking into account what the audience would like to read in their work. "...what Hindu soap operas can I mention here? Some might get upset and feel humiliated". "...It is an example they like, I'm sure". "...When writing essays they like this introductory parts, that's why I can't start right away from topic". "I think it will make my essay less dramatic, I guess".

Writing Processes

Generating Ideas

The students who have much homework, many workload and tasks upon them find themselves in destructive situations. Before generating ideas they start thinking about how much time they are given for writing an essay, then think about word limit themselves in time due to other tasks they have to accomplish apart from the task and the given topic. For instance, one student after planning the construction of an essay abruptly started to think: "Terrible! Is this the handwriting that belongs to a good and hardworking student?" "...The fact that jellyfish live 6 000 000 years without brain gives some hope...Damn! Don't lose hope!"

Some writers, mostly poor ones, were struggling with introduction and were spending too much time on generating ideas. They had difficulties in writing topic sentences and introduction: "Damn! Can't think of it!"

Setting the Goals

The protocols revealed the tendency of setting the two major types of goals: procedural, which convey ideas about the sequence of the procedures and substantive goals, implying information about what should be included in the essay.

Research participants were also targeting their goals on readers and setting global goals as well as local ones to affect the audience. In order to change the image or perception of the potential reader, writers set global plans, such as making up some statistics, research results, etc. They also showed tendency of setting the local goals by planning and

choosing the writing register, style, grammar and lexis to make their writing product more attractive for the audience. For example: "to my mind...No, in my opinion, or I think is better". "...the" isn't needed here, "a" film is better as I remember from grammar". "...We are watching some disgusting TV shows. No, disgusting. Oh, is it a nice word to write here?" "...it gives us nothing because we can't think about it after it's over, comma, yes, we need comma here..." "We can't... use... no, not "use"... Okay, "use", no, it's not a suitable word here".

The analyzed data showed the tendency that majority of the research participants were struggling with writing conclusion. Even some of the expert writers faced challenges of summing up an essay. They were verbalizing their attitudes about writing conclusions: "...and now the conclusion. It's always the most difficult task! Why is it so?" "...I'm totally confused, damn!"

Thinking-aloud protocols gave the researcher an opportunity to observe the thinking processes, challenges and strengths and weaknesses of good and bad writers. It enabled us to draw differences between them.

Struggling Writers

Poor writers revealed the tendency of having difficulties distinguishing between spoken and written language: "TV made people become imbeciles". They also struggle with generating ideas and organizing them. The ideas, sometimes, come like a stream of consciousness, referring different topics, deviating from the task assigned fulfilling the instructions. The ideas are often obscure and incoherent without any clear structure of an essay and conclusion.

In some recordings, poor writers were repeating one and the same ideas. Sometimes they were so lost in generating ideas and starting to proceed to write that they even forgot the title of the essay.

Weak writers also showed the tendency of struggling with translating their thoughts. They had difficulties in choosing the right ways, words and grammar for expressing themselves.

The protocols also showed that the topic itself has a big impact on writing quality, as it affects writers' mood, motivation and inclination to write. Almost in all recordings the participants showed negative attitude toward the title of an essay. Collected data also revealed that regardless the fact that the topic was not of their interest, poor writers had difficulties in winning on their affective domain and emotions and easily led themselves to being demotivated. This tendency was not noticed in good writers. Even though they were not interested in topic much, they did not have difficulties in expressing themselves.

Expert Writers

Protocol analyzes revealed the characteristics and skills good writers possess. The most frequent tendency noticed among them is the minute time for generating ideas even if the topic is not of their interest. The ideas can come like a stream. The latter are very quickly and naturally organized coherently according to the sequence or importance.

Expert writers are inclined to write. They are used to composing and the structural organization of an essay does not require much time from them.

Apart from aforementioned skills, good writers are aware of academic writing rules. Most of them have theoretical knowledge and a practical experience of paragraph structure, unity and coherence. They are aware of sentence structure as well: "Before we move to pluses and minuses, we need introductory sentence first". "...getting highly addicted and passing their time...we can also substitute it with "whiling away" free time whilst watching TV...and in this way it won't be so simple, it will be enriched and in this way I will make complex sentence from simple one".

One of the most significant differences between expert and weak writers, according to the data analyzed, is the fact that good writers use the writing strategies more often which enhance their writing quality, while poor writers show that some do not know what strategies they can use on different stages of writing.

Various strategies are used by the participants of the research. The expert writers are able to draw the schemes and tables to organize their ideas: "Okay, I will draw the schemes and table". Another strategy used by the writers was underlining the word or a sentence that they were not sure about whether it was correct lexically, stylistically, or structurally. They did not lose much time on it and continued writing aiming at returning to the underlined part later, on the stage of reviewing and editing: "...Well, okay, I will underline and return to it later". *Limitations*

Writing is a complex cognitive activity and creative process which conveys various internal and external processes. One of the most complex tasks for the researchers is the study of thinking processes while writing. Hence, the investigation of psychological aspects of writing can have some limitations.

The limitations of the present research is a limited number of participants while applying thinking-aloud method. As such practice is a novelty, the number of subjects of the study perceived recording their thoughts while writing very difficult. Some of them were uncomfortable to record their thoughts and did not want their thoughts to be listened to. Majority of the participants showed significantly low self-confidence in writing and were even ashamed to record their thoughts as they believed their writing was poor.

Due to the limitations, it should be noted that the research methods, such as thinking-aloud protocol should be broadly used by the researchers to melt the ice which is between the researchers and the participants as initially they meet all the novelty with negativity and frustration.

Conclusion

It was already stated that writing is a very complex skill which involves many cognitive processes and stages including the task itself and the writers' attitudes towards it and the audience – the potential reader.

The present research revealed various cognitive processes orchestrated while composing the written work. It illustrated the stages of writing and the thinking processes behind constructing the stages. The present study also enables the readers to notice the major differences between the expert and weak writers.

Based on the analyzed data significant recommendations were worked out. It is important for the educators, teachers and writing tutors to teach learners about the writing processes with each of its stage which needs to be practiced thoroughly and on a regular basis.

The research also showed that the learners who do not have a good control of grammar and vocabulary feel more frustrated and it distracts them from generating ideas, organizing them and constructing the writing product. The majority of the research participants with weak writing skills could not communicate their ideas clearly. Due to the problems stated above, they were mostly whiling their time only struggling with generating ideas, unable of organizing and sequencing them according to the importance.

Apart from afore-mentioned points, it is of vital importance to equip learners with the knowledge of the strategies used on various stages of writing. The present study illustrated the fact that the writers who are armored with as much strategies on each stage as possible, have a lower level of frustration, can generate and organize ideas more quickly, can evaluate their own work considering the quality of vocabulary and grammar and taking into account the potential reader. Moreover, they can manage their time properly and achieve the task effectively. Expert writers had a significant experience of practicing writing on the regular basis.

Hence, it should be noted that, based on the interpretation of the data, several elements of the teaching practices can be named, such as a good command of grammar and vocabulary practiced through the writing assignments; equipping the learners with all the necessary and handy strategies for each stage of writing and writing practice that should take place regularly and should be an inseparable part of the curriculum.

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**THIRD PERSON PRONOUNS IN ENGLISH IN CONTRAST WITH THOSE OF MAJOR
LANGUAGES OF THE CAUCASUS: PROBLEMS OF TEACHING**

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Abstract

The paper views one of the most recent studies is the research of grammatical and natural gender in the language. The discussion of the literature provides with the information concerning the *he/man* approach, theoretical / historical development of language and gender studies, speech communities, and differences in male and female language use, sex and gender, generic pronouns, masculinities and femininities and women's place in language. The objectives of the research are gender representations in English language from the perspectives of those of major languages of the Caucasus. The paper describes genetic, typological and sociolinguistic description of three main languages of the Caucasus: Armenian, Georgian and Azerbaijani. The research demonstrates the existing problem in teaching of third person singular English pronouns (*gendered*) in major languages of the Caucasus (*genderless pronouns*). The research provides with possible solutions of teaching gendered pronouns in the languages where they are absent. The experiment will determine whether and how the problem exists among the English speakers of genderless languages, particularly in Georgian, Armenian and Azerbaijani. The essence of the research lies in the fact that those languages have got only genderless third person pronouns which may refer to a male person, a female person, someone with unidentified gender, whereas English third person pronouns differ in terms of gender of referent (he, she).

Keywords: *he/man* approach, sex and gender, women's speech peculiarities

Introduction

Language shapes how we see ourselves and the world. Language facilitates to found and support social and power relations, values and identities as well to promote towards social change. Every time we use the language we make specific linguistic preferences while speaking. According to Graddol and Swan (1989), biological differences (such as the person's sex) cannot determine the fact that the person might be more or less feminine or masculine. It is commonly believed that people play an active role in the involvement of their own *gendering* or *doing gender*. The bias in language is concentrated on the usage of generic terms (particularly *he/man* approach), generic pronouns, sex specification, modifiers, lexical gaps,

semantic perception and connotations of words. Language both influences its speakers and is influenced by them. Gender-related aspects of language have been noted by many linguists, and observing that men and women speak differently, and that men and women are spoken of differently, frequently claiming that language is discriminatory against women. Speaking about language and gender, we do not only mean the grammatical category of gender, but rather a socio-cultural phenomenon of masculinity and femininity (Davies, 2007).

Language and Gender Identities

Gender is about cultural values and limitations concerning what roles and identities are regarded to be acceptable for women and men, acknowledging something as feminine or masculine. It is significant to mention that in this sense gender is not a synonym of sex difference. Moreover, gender may include the fact of femininity, for instance, to belong to a person's appearance or their identity. According to Connell (1987), men and women are binary opposites as being basically different and holding specific characteristics of each one, and pointing that men are strong, while women are emotional. The existence of a gender opposition is a part of an ideological system, which is viewed normal and natural and different from culture to culture. Thus, people's particular beliefs, experience and status in society, tell how people associate these beliefs with their own ones. By determining what is acceptable and normal is once again denied by the representatives of the same society the language is produced. It is commonly spread belief that gender, being unconscious, is produced through cultural beliefs, through actions which are worldly. According to R. Lakoff (1973) characteristic features of women's language includes tag questions, intensifiers are believed to be culturally insufficient, as they specify tentativeness and ambiguity of female qualities. She claims that this misconception placed women at a cultural harm to men. Lakoff states two approaches to language and gender: distinction and superiority. It was argued that women's way of communication was not insufficient, but actual different. Women were taught to use language in effective way of developing the relations and agreement, while men were taught to be more competitive and technical, in other words, being more concept-oriented in communicative styles. As a result, men and women communicate in different ways by virtue of their socialization processes in different subcultures.

Thus, gender is not an intrinsic feature, but a result of men's and women's gender realization in a particular society. Accordingly, gender may not always be related to expected ways of behavior of the same person's biological sex. Gender identity is comprehended to be performed of cultural world outlook and acted by individuals through their daily routines, rather than some features directly related to their biological sex. It can be concluded that three major factors have been outlined in the study of language and gender identities: first of all, the attempts the speakers have been noticed to perform gender peculiarities through communication, moreover, the development of specific gender identities within the community, and finally, how gender individuality is presented. The research of language and masculinity has demonstrated that men's peculiarities are built through the reproduction of stereotypes and ideologies that are determined for men rather than more women, such as sport, technology or women. A study of gay men's speech

peculiarities has demonstrated that particular terms of language in a particular culture may allow speakers to label their sexual personality involving coded and metaphorical forms (Lakoff, 2009).

Gender Representation in Language

The main interest of *gender representation in language* is concerning the structural properties of an individual language. Almost in every language personal nouns compose a fundamental and culturally essential lexical field. They are needed to determine people as individuals or members of different groups and may transfer positive or negative beliefs and attitudes. Gender languages refer to languages with classifiers or noun classes, as well as those languages that are in absence of noun classification at all. However, the absence of grammatical gender in language does not indicate that gender in its wide sense cannot be communicated. As a result, gender owns other different categories such as social and lexical gender. Discussing gender representation in language, one should be aware of terminological differences of a typological level of language with respect to women and men's representation in language by the following terms: grammatical gender, lexical gender, referential gender and social gender. A major interest of cross-linguistic study of gender is the class of grammatical gender. Gender languages possess two or more gender classes – feminine and masculine. In contrast with case and number, grammatical gender is an integral feature of the noun, which is in charge of agreement between noun and modifiers, such as article, adjective, possessive pronoun, verb, numeral or preposition. The term gender is usually related to natural or biological identities of females and males. Personal nouns such as *daughter, mother, son, father* are lexically defined as having semantic clues of femaleness and maleness, and which in their turn may be connected to extra-linguistic category of referential gender. The nouns mentioned above one can name as gender-specific ones, while the terms such as *person, individual or citizen*, are thought to be gender-neutral. A lexical gender is an essential measure factor in the framework of kinship terminology, address terms, and a number of primary, commonly used personal nouns. It is important to mention that lexical gender may or may not be marked morphologically. In English, most words related to people, are not marked for lexical gender, but form their variation with the use of suffixation. Referential gender determines a referent as female, male or gender-indefinite (Hellinger, 2015). There is a sophisticated connection between grammatical and referential gender in terms of acquiring for majority of personal pronouns in many gender languages. In languages with grammatical gender, *masculine* indicates grammatical gender, where in languages with without grammatical gender, like English and Japanese, *male* defines lexical-semantic features. In terms of grammar, feminine personal pronouns refer to female-specific referents, whereas masculine have a broader and common lexical and referential usage. In case of gender-indefinite reference, male generic terms are the viewed as traditional focus in languages without grammatical gender. Male-biased reference leads to creating of male images, where male pronouns appear three times as regularly as respective female pronouns. Social gender is a division that refers to the socially arranged contrast between male and female roles and characteristics features. Personal nouns are determined for social gender if the manner of related words can neither be defined by grammatical nor by lexical gender. Stereotypical

assumptions are commonly considered talking about social gender, where both men and women are expected to have suitable roles in a particular society. Meanwhile, since the majority of personal pronouns imply the male-biased meaning and reference, it can be stated that whether the language possess grammatical gender or not, *male* is considered as a *norm*. Social gender is seen almost silent in languages like Turkish, Georgian or Armenian, which are in shortage of gender-variable third person pronouns. As a result, it can be concluded that words in those languages have an implicit male bias which deduces from sociocultural hypothesis and anticipation concerning the men and women's relationships.

English as a Sexist Language

English is a global language which has developed a number of major regional standards, with approximate number of 508 million English speakers worldwide. Nowadays English serves as a lingua franca of diplomacy, government, science, trade and education. English is the language with the most diverse and deep history of linguistic description, which keeps true for the area of gender as well. English is a part of West Germanic branch of Indo-European language family, along with German, Dutch and Frisian. While Old English possessed three gender classes (feminine, masculine, neuter), the category of grammatical gender was lost by the end of the fourteenth century. As a result, Modern English does not have any grammatical gender and morphological agreement preserved. It might be stated that there is semantic category with essential involvements in English language. English has a limited class of personal nouns with lexical gender meaning that there is a specific semantic property – male or female (*aunt, uncle, king, daughter, mother, etc.*). This property specifies that some terms refer to *she*, while others to *he*. Nevertheless, the majority of personal nouns in English are not marked for gender, being meant to refer both males and females (*person, engineer, human, administrator, etc.*), in addition, they might be pronominalized by either *she* or *he*, or in neutral contexts by using singular *they* (Hellinger, 2015).

However, lacking grammatical and lexical gender of personal nouns of English words, semantics plays a significant role in determining gender bias. Many high-class positions such as *doctor, minister, director, lawyer* creates a male-biased reference (*he*) when the referent is not mentioned, while positions related to lower-class like *secretary, nurse, teacher* are referred to female representatives (*she*). The overgeneralization of *he* in neutral settings causes the existence of social gender in English. Social gender has to deal with stereotypical assumptions concerning what roles are suitable for male and female in a particular society. Emphasizing the overgeneralization of *he* creates an ideology of man being a *norm*.

It is important to note that English does not possess any fruitful word formation patterns of expressing a referential gender. However, the suffix *-ess* obtained some productivity, and a number of formations are still in current use: *actress, hostess, stewardess, waitress*. The suffix came into English language with French words such as *countess, duchess, adulteress*.

UNESCO guideline of 1999 stated to develop gender-neutral gender avoiding sexism in English language (cf. Hellinger, 1995). The avoidance of marked terms, stereotyping terms and principle of symmetry should be eliminated

from language use in order to prevent sexism in language. The societal construction of gender identity is a complicated process.

English can be described as a *pluricentric* language in terms of sociolinguistic terms. Viewing English from typological and sociolinguistic point, one might distinguish the two most essential varieties: British and American English. The other varieties of English (e.g. Australian, New Zealand's English) might be related to the fact of historical settlement and language development in that particular place. The British variety of English is considered to be more advanced with respect to its codification, and its origins having been established a long line of grammars and dictionaries which are spread throughout English-speaking world. However, due to its political and world domain, American English is seen as a supreme, as the most important variety of English. Due to new telecommunication innovations, like telephone, film, computer (originally based in English), world trade and business, publishing, education, has made English a lingua franca (Sunderland, 2006).

The main interest of English-speaking feminists was focus on gender neutralization. This interest might be explained in terms that English lacks grammatical gender.

Many grammarians argue that the plural is ungrammatical because a singular antecedent such as *everyone, someone*, etc. in English requires a singular pronoun to agree with it. Thus, many English-speakers have considered the plural forms as more smart replacements for male pronouns than using both *he/him/his* and *she/her/hers*, e.g. *everyone should get his or her number when he or she leaves the room*. The fact that terms such as *chairman* still dominates partly represents the key point that it is still men who occupy most of the discourse space. Most chairpersons are actually chairmen. Society's preference for gendered titles will once again define the frequency of masculine terms.

Major Languages of Caucasus

Armenian is an Indo-European language, which similarly to Albanian and Greek, builds a branch of its own. There is no gender distinction in the third person singular in Modern Eastern Armenian, in contrast with English, which has three varieties of the third person singular pronouns (*he/she/it*). Therefore, the third person pronoun *նա (na)* is used to refer to both genders equally. However, both the English and Armenian third person plural pronouns share common linguistic features in respect with not having gender distinction referring to unspecified number of people: English *they/them/their* and Armenian *նրանք (nrank)* contain no gender clue to indicate whether a female or a male is referred to. Thus, the following English sentence "*He told me about you*" is translated into Armenian in the following way: "*նա պատմեց ինձ քո մասին*" (*Na patm-ec' inj k'o masin*). It is important to note that the English third person pronoun *he* is translated as a neutral pronoun *նա (na)* in Armenian, and, as a result, it omits the gender information whether it is *he, she* or the one with an unspecified gender (*it*) is meant. Gender is only one of several social dimensions influencing the language use of Armenian native speakers. As a grammatically genderless language, Armenian provides many possibilities for gender-

neutral and/or gender-indefinite utterances. Nevertheless, it does not mean that with respect of language system and usage, Armenian women and men are treated equally. Gendered linguistic asymmetries are commonly found in Armenian and might be enhanced by the social situation (Dum-Tragut, 1984).

Georgian is an agglutinative language, which is a type of syntactic language, where words might contain different morphemes in order to determine their meaning. There are specific derivational morphemes in English that are joined to build new words. Georgian is considered to be a highly agglutinative (having more than eight morphemes per word), as it has a considerable number of irregular verbs with distinguishing degrees of irregularity. Georgian is mainly a synthetic language, which is rich in morphological properties. The third singular person pronouns in Georgian are *is/igi (ის/იგი)* and their case forms (*man/mas: ის/ისი*), which have an English equivalent of *he/she/it*. In contrast with English, Georgian third singular personal pronouns are neutral and are equally used to refer to both genders. Gender is an implicit feature in Georgian language (Aronson, 1990).

Azerbaijani is agglutinative, as a result, an application of grammatical rules is marked by the addition of suffixes to stems of the words. Like in other Turkic languages, there is no grammatical gender in Azerbaijani. Azerbaijani is left-branching language with modifiers preceding syntactical heads, Subject – Object – Verb, as the unmarked word order and postpositions. It has a typical agglutinating structural system, expressing grammatical relations and derivational processes via suffixing morphology (Lotfi, 1965). Gender is one of the most salient social categories in Azerbaijan, a major determinant of patterns of behavior in all spheres of everyday life as well as on the various levels of public organization. The absence of grammatical gender does not prevent Azerbaijani speakers to transfer messages concerning gender. Azerbaijani terms for person reference contain information concerning gender-particular ranges in Azerbaijani society. Here, the covert gender plays a dramatic role with regard to formulate the utterance. Third person possessive pronouns (*his/her/its*) in Azerbaijani are marked by the suffix – *s(U)*. Third person pronouns in Azerbaijani are *o, onun, onu, on, ona, onda, onnan* refer to English third person pronouns *he/she/it – her/him/it, onlar – they*. Azerbaijani *öz* is a reflexive pronoun meaning *he/she/it on their own*. It is believed that Azerbaijani speakers tend to share intuitions concerning the covert gender of terms of person reference and foresee its probable effects on the interpretations and expectations of the hearer. Thus, they build up their discourse on avoiding semantic disagreement.

Conclusion

Languages differ from each other with respect to the number and morphological representation of grammatical gender, which might be determined as an inherent and invariant nominal property (cf. Corbett, 1991). The relationship between women and men in a community is built through all features of their language use. The gender difference in the use of particular linguistic properties is as indicative as the gender-differentiated patterns of communication, or the priorities among possible ways of describing and referring to women and men. Language is influenced by various factors such as

society, religion, various tendencies, or social institutions. When dealing with the problem of influences between language and society, one should view two opportunities: language in society and society in language. Language in society refers to the language used by people working in specific places such as media, newspaper, educational institutions, where the language is multifunctional and the same language is used in different circumstances. By society in language we mean the changes introduced in language due to the interference in it, and the influence done by high-status people in that society.

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**THE ART OF SYMBOLISM IN E. HEMINGWAY'S SHORT STORY "HILLS LIKE WHITE
ELEPHANTS"**

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Abstract

The paper deals with the concept of symbolism in Hemingway's short story "Hills like White Elephants". Symbolism in literature is one of the many tools that writers employ in order not only to generate interest in their work, but also to create another level of meaning. From Greek ('symbolon') "token", a symbol is a sign, whether visual or verbal, which stands for something else within a speech community. 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. In literature, symbolism is an important device and a powerful tool for writers to pass their message along to the reader and to invoke his/her imagination and emotions. It is often used by writers to enhance their writing, making it more interesting. A symbol is an expressive way to depict an idea. Symbols shift their meanings depending on the context they are used in. The ability to recognize and interpret symbols is essential for a full understanding of literature. Ernest Hemingway, one of the greatest American writers of the twentieth century, is well-known for his effective use of symbols as a technical device in his novellas and short stories. He uses this technique to emphasize the importance of ideas, suggesting that he leaves out the important details of the story by symbolizing their meaning. "Hills Like White Elephants" is one of the most brilliant short stories by Hemingway. The symbolism implicit in the title and then developed in the story contributes to making a powerful impact on the reader. Through symbolism, Hemingway creates the world around the couple waiting for the train and evolves the trivial dialogue between them into a fight against a difficult human situation.

Keywords: symbol, sign, token, symbolism, literal meaning, denotative meaning, symbolic meaning, literary device, fiction

Symbolism in literature is one of the many tools that writers employ in order to generate not only interest in their work, but also to create another level of meaning. Symbolism is "the practice or art of using symbols, as by investing things with a symbolic meaning or by expressing the invisible, intangible or spiritual by means of visible or sensuous representations,

specifically traditional signs" (Grinstein, 2002, p. 559). It is the use of symbols to signify ideas and qualities by giving them symbolic meanings that are different from their literal sense.

From Greek *σύμβολο* ('*sýmbolon*') "token", a symbol is a sign, whether visual or verbal, which stands for something else within a speech community (Wales, 2014, p 408). According to Kirszner and Mandell (2015, p.407), 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. "A literary 'symbol' is something that means more than what it suggests on the surface. It may be an object, a person, a situation, an action, or some other element that has a literal meaning in the story but that suggests or represents other meaning as well"(Arp & Johnson, 2006, p. 274-275).

In literature, symbolism is an important device and powerful tool for writers to pass their message along to the reader and to invoke his imagination and emotions. Literary symbols extend meaning beyond the prosaic representation of reality. Symbolism is often used by writers to enhance their writing, making it more interesting. It can give a literary work more richness and color and make the meaning of it deeper. Symbol is an expressive way to depict an idea. It generally conveys an emotional response far beyond what the word, idea, or image itself dictates. As Richardson (2007, p. 165) remarks: "Symbols are educational devices for evoking complex ideas without having to resort to painstaking explanations that would make a story more like an essay than an experience".

Symbols shift their meanings depending on the context they are used in. Thus, symbolic meaning of an object or an action is understood by when, where and how it is used. It also depends on who reads the text. The ability to recognize and interpret symbols is essential for a full understanding of literature.

As a literary device, symbol attracts the attention of the readers, because of its ability to broaden the thinking capacity of people. Symbolism gives readers the idea about what the theme is all about without the author directly telling it in the story. Authors use symbolism when they want to give more meaning and feeling to their story without directly pointing it out. This is often used by short story writers as it gives them enough space to convey what they have to say using fewer words.

Ernest Hemingway is one of the greatest American writers of the 20th century. Critics have long praised his "distinctively crisp, unadorned style" (Kennedy & Gioia, 2012, p.167), which is economical and has a strong influence on the twentieth century fiction. Hemingway is well-known for effective use of symbols in his novellas and short stories to explore the disillusionment and the determination of his heroes against the background of a merciless environment. He uses this technique to emphasize the importance of ideas, suggesting that he leaves out the important details of the story by symbolizing their meaning.

"*Hills Like White Elephants*" is one of the most brilliant short stories by Hemingway. It was first published in 1927. The symbolism implicit in the title and then developed in the story contributes to making the powerful impact on the reader.

The story takes place at a railway station in rural Spain. It is told in the third person by an unknown narrator. The two main characters are a man, referred to as "the American" and his girl-friend whom he calls "Jig". The entire story consists of their dialogue in a bar at the station while waiting for a train to Madrid. Readers may regard this dialogue as a habitual conversation between two people. They can't imagine that "the American" is trying to convince Jig to have an operation (abortion). The word abortion is never used in the couple's speech, it is omitted, the reader has to read between the lines in order to grasp what is actually being said.

Hemingway uses a number of symbols in "*Hills Like White Elephants*" that help to portray the whole matter of the story and to develop the main theme. He cleverly employs the landscape in the setting to portray the emotions of his characters. Through symbolism the reader can get a complete understanding of the couple's situation and their feelings. The title "*Hills like White Elephants*" symbolizes Jig's pregnancy. The "hills" refer to the shape of the female body during pregnancy. '*White elephant*' is "*an unwanted or useless item...; no one wants it but it's too valuable to discard.*" (Ammer, 2013, p. 495) [It symbolizes an unborn baby here]. This expression comes from a legendary Siamese custom whereby an albino elephant, considered sacred, could only be owned by the king. The king would present such an animal to a person with whom he was displeased and wait until the high cost of feeding the animal, which could not be slaughtered, ruined the owner. Hence the meaning of the title shows that the unborn child is not a gift instead it is rather a burden.

The story begins its symbolic depiction by stating, "*The hills across the valley of the Ebro were long and white.*" (Hemingway, 2014, p. 50) While waiting for the train, the girl comments on them: "*They look like white elephants.*" (ibid.)

The girl later rejects this comment with the observation: "*They're lovely hills,*"... . "*They don't really look like white elephants. I just meant the coloring of their skin through the trees.*" (ibid.: 51) This is a subtle hint that perhaps she wants to keep the baby after all—a hint the American misses. Comparing the hills—and, metaphorically, the baby—to elephants also recalls here the expression "*the elephant in the room*" which is a euphemism for "an obvious problem or difficult situation that people do not want to talk about". (Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2008, p. 455)

The American sees the Jig's pregnancy as a white elephant gift, and he tries to persuade her to have abortion. He describes the abortion cruelly, saying: "*It's really an awfully simple operation ... It's not really an operation at all. ... It's just to let the air in.*" (Hemingway, 2014: 52)

Jig considers the baby a blessing even though she knows it will be hard to take care of. For the girl, her pregnancy is not a gift that she is unwilling to receive. However, when it comes to talking about the situation with the American, she would rather avoid the discussion altogether. She no longer acts in her former childlike way. She tells the man, "*Would you please please please please please please stop talking?*" (ibid.: 55), indicating that she is tired of his hypocrisy and his continual discussion of one and the same subject: abortion.

As it was mentioned above, Hemingway sets "*Hills Like White Elephants*" at a railway station which symbolizes that the relationship between the American man and the girl is at a crossroads. Planted in the middle of a desolate valley, the

station is not a final destination but merely a stopping point between Barcelona and Madrid. The main characters, have therefore to decide where to go and, in this case, whether to continue their relationship or break up.

The rail tracks in the story provide symbolism which expresses the tension and conflict surrounding the couple. On one side of the tracks, "*there was no shade and no trees and the station was between two lines of rails in the sun*" (ibid.: p.50); however, "*on the other side 'were fields of grain and trees along the bank of the Ebro.'*" (ibid.: p.53) This contrast between barren and fertile land on either side of the tracks symbolizes the ultimate outcomes of the decision the girl faces. Two separate tracks represent the couple's dilemma and the choice of routes they can take. They have to choose between a barren and fertile land.

Hemingway ends "*Hills Like White Elephants*" with an open ending. It is never certain as to whether Jig will agree to have an abortion, though there is the sense that she is no longer reliant on the American. She realises that their relationship may have come to an end and that it is time to move on and live her life without the American.

The fact that Jig is stronger now than she was at the beginning of the story can be seen in the final episode, when the American asks her: "*Do you feel better?*" (ibid.: p.55), she smiles at him and says: "*I feel fine,There's nothing wrong with me. I feel fine.*" (ibid.: p.55)

To sum up: Hemingway's writing is the most recognizable and influential prose of the twentieth century. He uses short, rhythmic sentences and concentrates on action rather than reflection. Hemingway is well-known for his creative use of symbols in his works. Symbol is a helpful device to make a literary work more effective and interesting. Hemingway fills his short story "*Hills Like White Elephants*" with mixture of symbols that help to portray the whole matter of the story. His symbols express far more than mere words. Through symbolism, he creates the world around the couple waiting for the train and evolves the trivial dialogue between them into a fight against human situation.

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CONCEPTUAL BLENDING AND ITS MANIFESTATION IN SILVIA PLATH'S POEM "TULIPS"

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Abstract

The paper deals with the notion of conceptual blending in cognitive linguistics. Conceptual Blending (or Conceptual Integration) is a theory of human cognition. It has a fascinating dynamics and a crucial role in how we think and live. Conceptual blending is a deep cognitive activity that creates new meanings from old ones. Conceptual blending theory was proposed by Fauconnier and Turner and further developed by Coulson, Oakley and Grady. *Conceptual blending* is "a basic mental operation that leads to new meaning, global insight and conceptual compressions useful for memory and manipulation of otherwise diffuse ranges of meaning" (Fauconnier and Turner, 2003, p. 57). It plays a significant role in the construction of meaning in our everyday life, in both arts and sciences. Conceptual blending is described and studied scientifically in terms of conceptual integration networks, which are the mechanisms that enable the creation of meaning. A conceptual integration network consists of four connected mental spaces: two partially matched input spaces, a generic space constituted by structure common to the inputs, and the blended space. Conceptual blending theory provides interesting insights into the possible creation of metaphors. The value of conceptual blending for stylistics is that it can account for particular stylistic effects.

Keywords: Conceptual blending, Conceptual Integration theory, human cognition, mental spaces, blends, conceptual integration network, emergent structure, generic space, input space, blended space, composition, completion, elaboration

Conceptual Blending (also known as Conceptual Integration) is a *cognitive linguistic theory*. It has a considerable influence on cognitive science in general. Conceptual blending is a deep cognitive activity that "makes new meanings out of old" (Fauconnier and Turner, 1999, p. 397), i.e., the brain brings things together and thus produces unpredictable new combinations.

The blending theory emerged from two theories of cognitive linguistics: conceptual metaphor theory (CMT) and mental spaces theory (MS). It differs from both CMT and MS in the way it describes the cognitive process of meaning creation via the existence of certain emergent structures (the blends), not considered by either of the other two frameworks. "Blending Theory focuses specifically on the dynamic construction of meaning" (Murphy & Koskela, 2010, p. 38).

The conceptual blending theory was proposed by Fauconnier and Turner (1998, 2002, 2003) as a general theory of human cognition and further developed by Coulson (2001, 2006) and Grady (Grady et al., 1999; Grady, 2005).

Fauconnier and Turner *define conceptual blending* as “a basic mental operation that leads to new meaning, global insight and conceptual compressions useful for memory and manipulation of otherwise diffuse ranges of meaning” (Fauconnier and Turner, 2003, p.57). *It plays* a significant role in the construction of meaning in our everyday life, in both arts and sciences (especially in the social and behavioral sciences). In conceptual blending theory, “**mental spaces** are small conceptual packets constructed as we think and talk, for purposes of local understanding and action” (ibid, p. 58). The essence of the operation is to construct a partial match between two inputs, selective projection from those inputs into a novel ‘blended’ mental space, where an emergent structure is generated (ibid.).

Blending theory gives insight into our way of thinking, understanding and creating the world around us. This theory deals with both linguistic and non-linguistic blends. The term “**blends**” is used to refer to a type of data in which very visibly two or more inputs are partially mapped onto each other and selectively projected to a new mental space in which novel structure can emerge.

According to Coulson and Oakley (2000, p. 184), blending theory is applicable not only to many levels of analysis, but it also presents a way of establishing connection between our understanding of language and the way we comprehend human thought and activity in general.

Conceptual blending is described and studied scientifically in terms of conceptual integration networks, which are the mechanisms that enable the creation of meaning. Conceptual blending is a basic mental operation, which is essential for the simplest kinds of thought and conceptual integration is an unconscious activity embedded in every aspect of human life (Fauconnier and Turner 2002: 18). In its most basic form, a **conceptual integration network** consists of four connected mental spaces: two partially matched input spaces, a generic space constituted by structure common to the inputs, and the blended space.

The generic space maps onto each input space and characteristics that the inputs have in common are included in the generic space.

The blended space is connected to the generic space and it develops the emergent structure that is not present in the inputs. The generic structure present in the generic space is included in the blended space. The blended space also contains structures that cannot be found in the inputs. It is the composition of elements that makes relations that do not exist in the inputs possible in the blend. Fauconnier and Turner (2002:20) claim that “finding correspondences that look as if they are objectively there requires the construction of new imaginative meaning that is indisputably not ‘there.’”

The blend is the core of the Blending Theory. Emergent structure is a result of three blending processes: composition, completion and elaboration. **Composition** is a blending process in which a relation from one mental space is ascribed to an element or elements from other input spaces. As Coulson and Oakley (2000, p.180) put it, “the emergent structure

arises from contextual accommodation of a concept from one domain to apply to elements in a different domain." There are geometrical regularities that govern the network and Fauconnier and Turner (2002, p.44) point out that "... anything fused in the blend projects back to counterparts in the input spaces."

Completion is a blending process that takes place when information in long term memory is matched to the structure in the blend. According to Fauconnier and Turner (ibid, p.43), completion raises additional structure to the blend and when this structure is added the blend is integrated.

Elaboration is closely related to completion. Running of the blend or its elaboration modifies the blend. During the elaboration, links to the inputs are preserved, and Fauconnier and Turner (ibid, p. 44) add that "...all these 'sameness' connections across spaces seem to pop out automatically, yielding to a flash of comprehension..." They further claim that this flash will take place only if counterpart links are unconsciously preserved.

Conceptual blending theory provides interesting insights into the possible creation of metaphors. The creation and processing of metaphor is one instance of what has become known as 'conceptual blending' (Harbus, 2012, p.52). Although not all blends are metaphorical, all metaphors at some stage in their development involve blending.

Let us consider the blend that occurs in a commonly used expression "this surgeon is a butcher" (Grady et al., 1999, p. 103), which can help us understand much better how Blending Theory works in practice. Grady et al. (1999) state that, although, initially, this sentence might be thought of as a linguistic manifestation of the conceptual metaphor THE SURGEON IS A BUTCHER, further insights underscore that the emergent meaning is more than the simple mapping from the source domain BUTCHER onto the target SURGEON.

Evans and Green (2006) note that this example is not easily explained by cognitive metaphor theory, since the metaphor suggests incompetence on the part of the surgeon, despite the fact that butchery is a highly-skilled profession. Cognitive metaphor theory cannot explain where the negative assessment of the surgeon originates from. A potential answer to the puzzle lies in the blending theory.

On the one hand, we have a surgeon, who is generally considered to practice with accuracy, sensitivity and kindness. On the other hand, a butcher is a person who slaughters certain animals in order to cut their meat off bones. Despite the fact that butchery may be viewed as a dirty or an undesirable job, we cannot accept that a butcher does not consolidate a certain level of accuracy, sensitivity and kindness into his/her job. In the case of THE SURGEON IS A BUTCHER, the blended space contains a concept of the SURGEON and the BUTCHER as being one and the same. The blended space also blends together the goal of healing with the means of butchery. These blends generate an emergent meaning of a surgeon being incompetent and attempting to heal a patient using the techniques of butchery, despite the fact that butchery has nothing to do with poor performance.

Let us view conceptual blending in poem "Tulips" by Sylvia Plath (2008, p.160) , well-known for her abundant use of metaphors throughout her poetical works.

The poem 'Tulips' was written in 1961. The poem was inspired by some tulips Plath received while recovering in hospital after an appendectomy. The first-person speaker in the poem is a woman who is a patient in a hospital following the operation. She surprisingly enjoys her stay at the hospital, appreciating the silence and her isolation from the rest of the world. She feels content in abandoning her domestic duties and her identity, to be overwhelmed by whiteness, until she has noticed the intrusion of the tulips.

The tulips are too excitable, it is winter here.

Look how white everything is, how quiet, how snowed-in. (ibid.)

The poem is mostly concerned with the woman's reaction to a bunch of tulips at her bedside, which she perceives as an unwelcome and threatening interruption of the peaceful anonymity of the hospital environment. The metaphor of the hospital room as winter reinforces the abundant whiteness, adding to that sense of tranquility. However, the intrusion of the tulips disturbs the peace.

The tulips are too red in the first place, they hurt me. ...

Their redness talks to my wound, it corresponds. (ibid.)

The red colour of tulips has the connotations of blood here and serves to describe Plath's open wound. The bright red flowers are contrasted with the whiteness of the hospital room. This strong contrast between the red and white indicates a disruption of harmony. Tulips discomfort the woman, conveying her disappointment at her role of mother and wife, as she compares them to "an awful baby", while the norm in the society is to consider children as the gifts from God. The tulips are presented as a reminder of the responsibilities and her life outside the hospital.

Plath notes, "The vivid tulips eat my oxygen" (ibid.). This illustrates how she feels suffocated not only in her domestic duties, but her responsibility as a mother to express love for her children, stifling her creativity.

A particularly striking example of conceptual blending is the following lines from the poem (ibid.):

My husband and child smiling out of the family photo;

Their smiles catch onto my skin, little smiling hooks.

These two lines mentioned above truly exemplify the ambivalence that Plath has with her family and motherhood. The metaphorical expressions 'catch onto' and 'hooks' construct the conventional smiles of the family photograph as objects that both force an unwelcome physical connection with the speaker and cause her physical pain. "Smiling hooks," here is a paradox and **a peculiar blend of positivity and negativity**. The blended space contains a concept of **SMILE** and the **SMILING HOOKS** as being one and the same. "Smiling" appears to present a cheerful, lovely image of her family, beaming, reminding Plath that she is loved. However, she feels suffocated in such love, noting that "their smiles" become "hooks" (sharp physical objects), reaching under her skin, causing her physical pain. Plath is conflicted in her perception of motherhood, realizing her love for her children, her "loving associations" (ibid.) as well as

the burdens of motherhood. In "Tulips," Plath details a sense of liberation when she is away from her family, from motherhood and from domesticity, illustrating her equivalence.

To sum up, Conceptual Blending is a theory of human cognition. It has a fascinating dynamics and a crucial role in how people think and live. Conceptual blending refers to a basic mental operation that gives rise to new meanings. It provides interesting insights into the possible creation of metaphors. The value of conceptual blending for stylistics is that it can account for particular stylistic effects.

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**SURVEYING THE NOTIONS OF IDENTITY AND RELIGION: A COMPARATIVE REDING OF
“AMERICAN DERVISH” BY AYAD AKHTAR AND “A PORTRAIT OF THE ARTIST AS A YOUNG
MAN” BY JAMES JOYCE**

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Abstract

A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man is the first novel of Irish writer James Joyce (1882 –1941). A Künstlerroman in a modernist style, it traces the religious and intellectual awakening of young Stephen Dedalus, a fictional alter ego of Joyce and an allusion to Daedalus, the consummate craftsman of Greek mythology. Stephen questions and rebels against the Catholic and Irish conventions under which he has grown, culminating in his self-exile from Ireland to Europe. Ayad Akhtar (b. in 1970) is a Pakistani American playwright, novelist, screenwriter and actor. American Dervish is a 2012 novel by Ayad Akhtar. The novel tells the story of a young Pakistani-American boy growing up in the American Midwest and his struggle with his identity and religion. The novel has been published in English, Italian, Norwegian, Dutch, Danish and Spanish. As an adult, Akhtar often wondered how the lives of the women he had known in his childhood were affected by their faith. He decided to explore the idea through the novel: "My sense of the polarities at play for the Muslim women I saw in my childhood is a good part of what makes up the central story of American Dervish". This paper aims at studying the questions of identity and religion which are raised in both novels.

Keywords: Ayad Akhtar, James Joyce, religion, identity, Künstlerroman

Introduction

Contemporary critics have succinctly discussed the value of studying literary parallels between different literatures either of the same or different epochs. Such a study, Marian Galik (2000, p. 4) asserts, not only "could supply us with new knowledge and leads to a deeper understanding in various areas of literature, its history, theory, and criticism," but it also means a "deeper penetration into the study of inters- literary process". In light of Galik's view that it is "new knowledge

within the frame-work of literature outside the Euro-American cultural area [that] is needed now," this essay offers a comparative analysis of John Steinbeck's and Frank Hardy's literary worlds (ibid.).

Again, the promising playwright and novelist Ayad Akhtar has skillfully written one of the well-wrought American novels. His works usually tackle problems encountered by Muslim immigrants who live in western communities, in general, and in America, in particular. He thinks of himself as 'a narrative artist'. He does not think of himself as a novelist or screenwriter or playwright. All of those modalities are obviously very different, and he is not sure that he prefers any one to the other thematically. The author skillfully succeeds in conveying his message that it seems to be more than impossible to keep hold of one's beliefs in America, particularly if one is Muslim. Readers can plainly see this in most of his works, and particularly in *American Dervish*. Also from the structural standpoint, the author aptly makes great strides in manipulating the technique of flashbacks to show to what extent the protagonist of the novel recounts all the novel's events just to quench Rachel's thirst for listening to Mina's story, narrated by Hayat. Had she not been interested in listening to Mina's story, there would have been no *American Dervish*. It is also noteworthy to show to what extent Akhtar has been ineffably affected by a good number of western theologians. In his interview with Aditi Sriram (2014), Ayad Akhtar mentions many of the theologians who have their great impact on him such as Jonathan Edwards, Emerson, Reinhold Niebuhr, Paul Tillich and some great authors such as Saul Bellow, Philip Roth, Woody Allen, and Seinfeld. Being profoundly affected by western writers, thinkers, and theologians makes it quite apparent that Akhtar, in his works, tackles a handful of themes in which he shows the clashes between east and west in addition to other issues such as religion, Islam vs. Judaism, Islam phobia, terrorism, ethnicity, and cultural clashes.

The author divides his novel into a prologue, four books; each book is composed of four chapters except Book Two, which comprises five chapters. After the four books comes the epilogue. *American Dervish* is the story of Hayat Shah, a young Pakistani American, who lives in a boring suburb of Milwaukee with his unhappily married parents who are secular Muslims. His mother's best friend Mina and her son Imran come from Pakistan to stay with the family, escaping her ex-husband who threatens to take away Imran. Mina brightens the lives of the Shah family, becoming especially close with Hayat, telling him Sufi stories and teaching him the Quran. Hayat becomes obsessed with being a hafiz (someone who can recite the entire Quran from memory) after Mina tells him that the parents of hafiz are guaranteed a place in Paradise. Meanwhile, she meets Dr. Shah's best friend Nathan and falls in love with him. Nathan, who is Jewish, explores Islam and even expresses an interest in converting. Dr. Shah is an atheist and warns his best friend not to convert as he believes the local imam is only interested in money. When Hayat, Nathan and Dr. Shah go to the mosque to see the imam about Nathan converting, he preaches an anti-Semitic khutbah, devastating Nathan. Hayat is jealous when he realizes that Nathan and Mina are still planning on marrying. He sends a telegram to her ex-husband, revealing that Mina is marrying Nathan. Mina's family threatens to disown her if she marries him and Nathan moves away to Boston.

Dr. Shah angrily forbids his son to read the Quran and burns Hayat's copy, although he secretly reads it at school in his effort to become a hafiz. Against the Shahs' objections, Mina decides to marry Sunil, a divorced Pakistani man from

Kansas. During her wedding, Hayat discovers from Farhaz that true hafiz recite the Quran in Arabic while he has only been learning it in English. As a result, Hayat gives up on the Quran for many years. After her marriage Mina realizes that her new husband is controlling and abusive; he forces her to move back to Kansas with him.

8 years later when Mina is dying of cancer Hayat finally confesses to her that he sent the telegram. She forgives him and after she dies he sees Nathan and learns that the couple had been secretly keeping in contact (Akhtar, 2012).

A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man is the story of the childhood of Stephen Dedalus, which is recounted by using vocabulary that changes as he grows, in a voice not his own but sensitive to his feelings. The reader experiences Stephen's fears and bewilderment as he comes to terms with the world in a series of disjointed episodes. Stephen attends the Jesuit-run Clongowes Wood College, where the apprehensive, intellectually gifted boy suffers the ridicule of his classmates while he learns the schoolboy codes of behavior. While he cannot grasp their significance, at a Christmas dinner he is witness to the social, political and religious tensions in Ireland involving Charles Stewart Parnell, which drive wedges between members of his family, leaving Stephen with doubts over which social institutions he can place his faith in. Back at Clongowes, word spreads that a number of older boys have been caught 'smuggling'; discipline is tightened, and the Jesuits increase use of corporal punishment. Stephen is strapped when one of his instructors believes he has broken his glasses to avoid studying, but, prodded by his classmates, Stephen works up the courage to complain to the rector, Father Conmee, who assures him there will be no such recurrence, leaving Stephen with a sense of triumph. Stephen's father gets into debt and the family leaves its pleasant suburban home to live in Dublin. Stephen realizes that he will not return to Clongowes. However, thanks to a scholarship obtained for him by Father Conmee, Stephen is able to attend Belvedere College, where he excels academically and becomes a class leader. Stephen squanders a large cash prize from school, and begins to see prostitutes, as distance grows between him and his drunken father.

As Stephen abandons himself to sensual pleasures, his class is taken on a religious retreat, where the boys sit through sermons. Stephen pays special attention to those on pride, guilt, punishment and the Four Last Things (death, judgment, Hell, and Heaven). He feels that the words of the sermon, describing horrific eternal punishment in hell, are directed at him and, overwhelmed, comes to desire forgiveness. Overjoyed at his return to the Church, he devotes himself to acts of ascetic repentance, though they soon devolve to mere acts of routine, as his thoughts turn elsewhere. His devotion comes to the attention of the Jesuits, and they encourage him to consider entering the priesthood. Stephen takes time to consider, but has a crisis of faith because of the conflict between his spiritual beliefs and his aesthetic ambitions. Along Dollymount Strand he spots a girl wading, and has an epiphany in which he is overcome with the desire to find a way to express her beauty in his writing.

As a student at University College, Dublin, Stephen grows increasingly wary of the institutions around him: Church, school, politics and family. In the midst of the disintegration of his family's fortunes his father berates him and his mother urges him to return to the Church. An increasingly dry, humourless Stephen explains his alienation from the Church and the aesthetic theory he has developed to his friends, who find that they cannot accept either of them. Stephen concludes

that Ireland is too restricted to allow him to express himself fully as an artist, so he decides that he will have to leave. He sets his mind on self-imposed exile, but not without declaring in his diary his ties to his homeland (Joyce, 2007).

Literature Review

Religion & Identity Texts

Noorbakhsh Hooti (2011) stresses the importance of identity notion when he says that "The loss of identity and the quest for it has been the pervasive theme in contemporary American literature.

Hecht et al. (1993) argue that the individual, social, and communal aspects of identity are interrelated and mutually construct each other. The researchers go on to note that identity is enduring and yet constantly evolving meaning that while identity is continually changing, it is also historically grounded. In other words, an individual's past identity facilitates the formation of her current self.

Latif Saeed Noori Barzinji and Mariwan N. Hasan Barzinji (2016) examine the clash between the religious and social aspects of Muslim's life in Ayad Akhtar debut novel. It expounds the failure of the Muslim character, Hayat Shah, to integrate himself into a new communal life as he still holds on the remnant beliefs he has acquired from his earlier life in Pakistan, his home country.

Elizabeth Crosby (2012) observes that people experience identity through communication, meaning that identity is often framed in terms of enactments or how they express their identity to those around them.

Heike Berner (2003) notices that Culture, history, and ethnicity are three central and closely intertwined aspects which influence identity formation.

Findings and Discussions

Comparisons and Contrasts between the Two Novels

Identity

Ayad Akhtar wisely depicts social, cultural and religious clashes since it bridges cultural divides and builds understanding. Akhtar narrates a rich and heart breaking event about the limits of religion and the hazards of love. It is no wonder that *American Dervish* crystallizes the heated struggle between generations, religions, cultures and races. Akhtar's astute observations of the clashes between old world and new, between secular and sacred, among immigrants might seem familiar to readers of both contemporary and classic literature. Akhtar's work tackles the problems encountered by the Muslim immigrants who inhabit in Western countries, generally, and America, particularly. He believes of himself as a narrative artist (Barzinji, & Barzinji, 2016).

Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man is ultimately the story of a search for true identity. The reader knows from the title that the protagonist's fate is to become an artist, but we still follow the emotional suspense of his periods of uncertainty and confusion. The hero struggles with the sense that there is some great destiny waiting for him, but he has difficulty perceiving what it is. His consistent feeling of difference and increasing alienation show that he sees himself as someone marked by fate to stand outside society (Joyce, 2007).

In *American Dervish* Hayat's destiny and the formation of his identity is very similar to the majority of the rest of the immigrants. As it seems it is an inevitable fate and most of the immigrants experience more or less assimilation in other countries particularly in America (Ali, 2015).

But in *Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* the identity quest is different and is in the same country and does not happen to the majority of people of the country. Stephen longs for being an artist. Speaking of society, Joyce also questions the value of Irish national identity in a country on the brink of revolution.

Religion

Lisa Irene Moody (2009, p. 25) brings into light the significance of religion in societies when she argues that "the connection between religion, ethics, and the surrounding social world is one that seems unavoidable". Again, Shih-Yi Huang (2010, p. 31) points out that "religion can play an important role in defining a person's identity." "I wanted to tell a story about faith that was universal," Akhtar said (Dudek, 2012).

Since Hayat's parents are skeptical about religion, Mina, her mentor, assumes the liability to fill this crevice in Hayat's life. Hayat never hears any religious stories from his parents; all he gets from his mother are her stories about his father's white mistresses (*American Dervish*, p. 33). Out of her sufferings on account of her spouse, Muneer begins to impart into her child the assessment that he ought to shun the Muslim conduct of treating ladies and embrace the Jewish one. Many times, Muneer advises her child that she might want to see him carry on like a Jew. While trying to help her child to remember her message to him, she says: "That's why I'm bringing you up differently, so that you learn how to respect a woman. That's the truth, kurban: I'm bringing you up like a little Jew" (Ahktar, 2012, p. 101). Mother never saves at whatever time or push to demonstrate Hayat how the Jews are absolutely not quite the same as the Muslims in treating ladies; the Jews treat them respectfully, the Muslims respond discourteously. Muneer includes: "They understand how to respect women, behta. They understand how to let a woman be a woman, to let her take care of them. They understand how to give a woman attention" (Ahktar, 2012, p.101). It overtly seems that Hayat inherits his love for the Jews from his mother while she inherits it from her father. Muneer's father "instilled in his children a belief that Jews were the special people, blessed by God above others..." (Ahktar, 2012, p. 101). Hayat's father and forefathers stem their ideas about the Jews from their understandings with them. Hayat pin points that his grandfather's respect for the Jews "stemmed from his experience living in their midst as a student in England in the years after the Second World War" According to Hayat's grandfather,

the Jews significantly respect learning while Muslims do not: he thinks that the Jews' education is a factual one, "not the rote memorization and mindless regurgitation of tradition he saw as common to Muslims" (Ahktar, 2012, p. 101). What Hayat's grandfather expresses about Muslims could be basically applied to what Hayat says or practices in the novel (Ali, 2015).

The other character who speaks of the loss of Islamic personality among the elder generation in American Dervish is Hayat's father, Naveed Shah. All through the novel, the author makes it entirely clear that Naveed is an abominable character for a modest bunch of reasons. To begin with, his wife Muneer specifies nothing about him except for his relations with the white escorts. Hayat, the child, watches, "I heard more tales from Mother about Father's mistresses than anything else" (Ahktar, 2012, p. 33). Hayat also recalls his father's difficulties with his family. In this regard, he says: "Throughout my childhood, Mother spared me little detail about her troubles with father. And at ten, I already knew myself well enough to know that if I listened too closely to what she said, my blood would start to boil" (Ahktar, 2012, p. 11).

As a student at University College, Dublin, Stephen the protagonist of *Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* grows increasingly wary of the institutions around him: Church, school, politics and family. In the midst of the disintegration of his family's fortunes his father berates him and his mother urges him to return to the Church. An increasingly dry, humourless Stephen explains his alienation from the Church and the aesthetic theory he has developed to his friends, who find that they cannot accept either of them.

Brought up in a devout Catholic family, Stephen initially ascribes to an absolute belief in the morals of the church. As a teenager, this belief leads him to two opposite extremes, both of which are harmful. At first, he falls into the extreme of sin, repeatedly sleeping with prostitutes and deliberately turning his back on religion. Though Stephen sins willfully, he is always aware that he acts in violation of the church's rules. Then, when Father Arnall's speech prompts him to return to Catholicism, he bounces to the other extreme, becoming a perfect, near fanatical model of religious devotion and obedience. Eventually, however, Stephen realizes that both of these lifestyles—the completely sinful and the completely devout—are extremes that have been false and harmful. He does not want to lead a completely debauched life, but also rejects austere Catholicism because he feels that it does not permit him the full experience of being human. Stephen ultimately reaches a decision to embrace life and celebrate humanity after seeing a young girl wading at a beach. To him, the girl is a symbol of pure goodness and of life lived to the fullest.

Sin and temptation play central roles in this novel. The protagonist goes through a period of indulging fully in his bodily lusts, which then leads to a swing in the opposite direction, an attempt at total piety. Joyce highlights the harshly binary nature (people either give in to all sins or no sins at all) of the Catholic-dominated Irish culture. In the end, the hero comes to the necessary conclusion that sin is a fundamental and unavoidable part of human nature, rather than something that can simply be eliminated through religious practice. One suspects that Joyce hoped that the reading public of the time would come to the same conclusion.

"It's called 'American Dervish' because it's not just about Islam; it's about the American experience" and "the tradition, rupture and renewal at the heart of every generation of Americans" (Dudek, 2012).

Marx (1844/2009) famously wrote that religion is a kind of drug constructed to keep the masses bovine (cow-like) and contented, chewing their cud comfortably and not confronting the true nature of life. Joyce delivers a similarly cynical and unflinchingly critical picture of religion in *Portrait of the Artist*; our hero, albeit in a markedly un-cow-like and intensely cerebral fashion, also latches on to religion as a system of definite explanation. However, religion is rejected as a solution to life's unanswerable questions, both by Joyce and by Stephen, who realizes that life is not that simple, and that the strict rules and regulations of the Church can't explain everything. The book implies that no religious doctrine, Catholic or otherwise, can provide universal solutions, and furthermore, that dogma often limits the possibilities of human accomplishment.

By making a comparison between the two texts the reader notices that both protagonists have experienced some periods as religious people. They have been brought up in religious environments and have been affected by religious people. However, in *American Dervish* Islam is revealed as a weak religion and it is introduced as a foil to Judaism. Hayat's mother encourages him severely to behave like a Jew and made attempts to bring him up like a Jew child. It is implied that Jewish people are understanding, polite,...and have all sorts of good characteristics and bad characters in the novel are behaving like this because of their religion, Islam.

But in *Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* the Catholic Church and Christianity are under question and no substitute religion is introduced.

Stephen goes into the extremes and experiences some periods as a pious person and as a corrupted one, and the first character of *American Dervish* is never behaving like a corrupted person, he is dubious about being faithful to his religion, tradition, nation, country, and eventually he decides to abandon all.

Autobiographical Elements

While reading these two texts it comes to the readers minds that they are both kuntslerromans or autobiographical novels. It means there are many autobiographical elements in the two texts.

Akhtar's father, a cardiologist - the father in the book is a neurologist - and his mother, a retired radiologist, were born in Pakistan and moved to Wisconsin in the 1960s. He said they were a secular family, but, like the characters in the book, would attend a mosque on Milwaukee's south side.

Akhtar said that he was "a religious kid" growing up and that the book's portrait of the youth's fascination with, rejection of and reawakened interest in the Qur'an by the book's character "mirrors my own trajectory on a metaphoric

level." He wanted to give the book "the feel of a memoir" because "nonfiction goes deeper into readers' consciousness than fiction" (Dudek, 2012).

Joyce's father had tried his hand at many different occupations, including a distillery business, politics and tax collecting, but he had not succeeded at any of them. The result was that the family had fallen into poverty, although they tried hard to keep up middle-class appearances.

At the age of six Joyce was sent to the Jesuit school, Clongowes Wood College. After this he attended Belvedere College in Dublin from 1893 to 1897. In 1898 he enrolled at University College, Dublin, where he rejected the Roman Catholic Church in which he had been raised and resolved to become a writer. "Silence, exile, and cunning"- these are weapons Stephen Dedalus chooses in "A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man" (Joyce, 2007). And these, too, were weapons that its author, James Joyce, used against a hostile world. Like his fictional hero, Stephen, the young Joyce felt stifled by the narrow interests, religious pressures, and political squabbles of turn-of-the-century Ireland. In 1904, when James was twenty-two, he left his family, the Roman Catholic Church, and the "dull torpor" of Dublin for the European continent to become a writer (Joyce, 2007). With brief exceptions, he was to remain away from Ireland for the rest of his life. It was a bold move for several reasons. In spite of his need to break away from constrictions on his development as a writer, Joyce had always been close to his family. He still admired the intellectual and artistic aspects of the Roman Catholic tradition that had nurtured him. And the city of Dublin was in his soul.

Ideal Love

Hayat's infatuation with Mina is shown not only spiritually, but physically as well. He begins to physically love her and his heart stirred. Something inside him was burning (*American Dervish*, p. 56)." Out of his physical love for Mina and his enthusiasm for learning the Islamic teachings, Hayat cannot accept her being married to Nathan, a Jewish man. Hayat, who has been enchanted by his mentor Mina, begins to learn some of the Islamic tenets: how to be a dervish and how to memorize the Quran (Akhtar, 2012).

Emma is Stephen's "beloved," the young girl to whom he is intensely attracted over the course of many years. Stephen does not know Emma particularly well, and is generally too embarrassed or afraid to talk to her, but feels a powerful response stirring within him whenever he sees her. Stephen's first poem, "To E— C—," is written to Emma. She is a shadowy figure throughout the novel, and we know almost nothing about her even at the novel's end. For Stephen, Emma symbolizes one end of a spectrum of femininity. Stephen seems able to perceive only the extremes of this spectrum: for him, women are pure, distant, and unapproachable, like Emma, or impure, sexual, and common, like the prostitutes he visits during his time at Belvedere (Joyce, 2007).

As the reader notices the ideal love in the two novels vary from each other. In *American Dervish* Hayat's love is both physical and spiritual. He is both her beloved and her mentor. The reader knows a lot about her characteristics and their

communications, of course it is not clear whether this is a mutual love or not. However in *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, Stephen never talked to Emma. He adores her in his imagination. The reader does not know much about Emma. Since Stephen has not speak to the girl and does not know much about her and that is the reason why she is somehow his goddess.

Attaining Goals

By the end of the novel, the reader realizes the fact that Hayat cannot be the American dervish for many reasons. First, he now discards all the Islamic teachings and tenets. He also points out that his identity in America hinges solely on his intimacy with the Jewish people and community, especially with Rachel. In doing so, Hayat has to renounce his fellow people, the Muslims in general, and the Pakistanis, in particular. As shown at the end of the novel, when Hayat wants to know more information about Mina's two children after her death, it is Professor Nathan Wolfsohn, the Jewish professor, who informs him about their lives. It is quite obvious that Hayat gets his information about Pakistani people from Professor Wolfsohn who still profoundly respects the departed Mina (Akhtar, 2012).

Secondly, the reader is fully aware of the fact that Hayat cannot be the American dervish since he, in his dream, does not stay with the Prophet till they perform the prayer. "Mina had said it was a great blessing to see the Prophet in a dream, but there didn't seem to be any blessing in mine. Instead of staying and praying with him, I'd left (Akhtar, 2012, p. 213).

Third, Hayat cannot put up with any severe trial in his life. He could not digest the idea that Professor Nathan might marry Aunt Mina even though he is quite ready to be converted to Islam for her own sake.

The idea is that Stephen is not able to truly commit to his artistic calling until he has thrown off the ties of his past and really experiences life as an independent person. We end the book confident that he will find his artistic voice somewhere out there in the course of his wanderings. His closing lines, "Welcome, O life! I go to encounter for the millionth time the reality of experience and to forge in the smithy of my soul the uncreated conscience of my race... Old father, old artificer, stand me now and ever in good stead," speak volumes about what he hopes to accomplish (Joyce, 2007).

As it is clear Hayat does not attain his goals neither as a dervish nor as a hafiz. But Stephen becomes the artist as he desired.

Home

Berner (2003) says that the concept of home is massively important on two levels. First of all, the familial home is a constant source of instability and unhappiness throughout the book. The Dedalus family loses wealth and status throughout the novel, and they have to move around a lot to save money. Secondly, the uncomfortable idea of Ireland

as home influenced both our protagonist and his real-life contemporary, Joyce. The novel asks us to examine how connected one should be to a homeland, especially when that homeland is trying to clarify its own political and cultural identity. That said, Stephen continues to reassert his Irishness in subtle ways, and he feels connected to his people even as he leaves – perhaps he’s even *more* connected to his people *because* he leaves.

Stephen concludes that Ireland is too restricted to allow him to express himself fully as an artist, so he decides that he will have to leave. He sets his mind on self-imposed exile, but not without declaring in his diary his ties to his homeland. Stephen will attempt to express the "conscience of [his] race" – but ironically, he has to leave his country to do so (Joyce, 2007). Stephen believes that he can only really gain a clear understanding of Ireland by looking at it objectively from afar. Finally, the novel draws to a close by invoking Daedalus, our Greek friend from the Epigraph, bidding him to keep an eye out for his namesake as he leaves his homeland and ventures out into the world.

As the reader observes Stephen has the intention of leaving his family, home, tradition, nation, country, and religion. Although Hayat loses his identity, he does not leave his home and country.

Conclusion

As it is observed, there are some similarities and differences between the two novels. The notions of identity, religion, autobiographical elements, ideal love, attaining goals and home have been scrutinized in the two texts in a parallel way. Some of them are in the same directions; however, some elements are not in the same track.

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ENGLISH AND PERSIAN POLAR QUESTION CONSTRUCTIONS IN CONTRAST

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Abstract

The study is an attempt to first describe and then contrast the formation of polar questions in Persian and English. We aim to shed some light on the differences between English and Persian polar question constructions in the case of inserting the dummy interrogative element 'do' and 'a:ya:' respectively by considering the different position occupied by these question markers and the time category of the verb. The major thread traced in this article runs through these three major issues to take an in-depth look at the actual nature of 'a:ya' and 'do' specifiers. In contrast to English, polar questions in Persian do not require any change to the basic word order, and there is no need for head movement operation, i.e., T to C movement (Radford, 2009). Due to the scrambled structural pattern of Persian (Karimi, 2005), 'a:ya:' can appear in different positions in a sentence to cause interrogative force.

Keywords: Dummy interrogative element 'a:ya:', scrambled structure, polar questions, T to C movement, Universal Grammar Theory

Introduction

Devising a theory of Universal Grammar (UG), Chomsky aims to define the grammars of human languages through the maximally constrained characteristics. UG is led to the assumption that there are certain simple linguistic principles obeyed by grammatical operations and the violation of these principles causes operations to be ungrammatical (Radford, 2009). Considering Chomsky's (1995) Minimalist Program framework, the current article aims at providing a description in English and Persian syntax and at comparing English and Persian polar question constructions.

Polar Questions

Polar questions are one kind of interrogative sentences rendering equivalent of 'yes' or 'no' responses. Cross-linguistically, yes/no-questions are reported to be associated with a 'rising contour', 'presence of a high pitch' and/or a 'high boundary'. Perceptual experiments with laboratory speech confirm that speakers tend to associate rising contours with questionhood. The sentences with this kind of interrogative force appear with "?" symbol referred to as "question mark" lying at their end. According to Haegeman (2006), using a question mark at the end of a sentence conveys that there is some information which the speaker or the writer does not have, or at least is not certain about, and he or she is trying to get that missing information from the interlocutor. For instance, when somebody asks a yes/no question he/she wants to be informed about the occurrence of an event. If we replace the question mark with a full stop, the sentence does not work anymore, and it loses its interrogative force. Syntactically, an abstract morpheme Q/ question particle (Radford, 2006) is inserted somewhere in complementiser position to signal the interrogative force of the sentence. This morpheme, which has a strong T- feature, occupies the head C position of CP. It attracts whatever is contained within T to adjoin to Q.

Coleman (1914) was the first person who classified yes/no questions as a special type of alternative questions. Bolinger (1978) argues that, although Coleman considered yes/no questions simply as one kind of alternative questions in which the second alternative (i.e. ... or not,) that completes the structure is suppressed, the alternative 'or not' is not spelled out, it is presented in the mind. Such questions expect one of the two answers. Keeping this in mind, let us view the examples 1 through 4 which are some alternative questions illustrating two polar alternatives.

- 1) Do you like to drink tea (or you don't like)?
- 2) Do you want to rest first (or you don't want)?
- 3) Don't you have to ask your teacher (or you do)?
- 4) Do you have to pay the price (or you don't)?

Unlike Coleman, Bolinger (1978) argues that polar questions are different from alternative questions. He claims that polar questions cannot be considered as variants of alternative questions. In the following examples (5, 6) we try to show that alternative questions and polar questions are different:

- 5) A: Do you like coffee or tea?
B: I prefer to drink coffee.
- 6) A: Do you like coffee or tea?
B: Yes, I do/ No, I don't.

The pitch accent of alternative questions is on the non-final disjuncts. In disjunctive polar questions this pitch is absent. Generally in polar questions a final rise counter is seen while in alternative questions it has been replaced by the final falling counter. Example 5 is an alternative question which offers the addressee two alternatives - coffee or tea. The addressee is expected to pick up one of them. Example 6 is a polar question with a raising intonation. Here the addressee is not expected to choose one of the alternatives, and a yes or no response is enough.

Stockwell, Schechter, and Partee (1973) in their scholarly paper about the syntax of Chinese and English, classify yes/no questions as a species of alternative questions. Offering an unbiased answer between the alternatives offered by the disjunction is the basic function of an alternative question, and we are supposed just to pick one of these offered alternatives. On this account, Van Rooy and Safarova (2003) claim that by “unbiased” we mean that by using an alternative question the speaker signals that they do not consider one of the answers to be more or less likely. Due to different semantics and decision theories, polar questions and alternative ones cannot be used interchangeably.

Polar Question Construction

To separate interrogative utterances from those containing illocutionary force, different languages use different devices to encode sentences by shifting the word order, inserting question words, particles or question clitics, e.g., in French the contentless question particle ‘Est-ce-que’ occurs at the beginning of the sentence in spoken form, and the word order of the original sentence stays exactly the same (examples 7, 8), in Hatam (West Papuan; Indonesia) the question particle ‘i’ occurs at the end of the sentence (example 9), and in Arabic the question particle ‘hal’ is inserted in the initial position of the sentence (example 10):

- 7) a. Tu veux une livre.
b. Est-ce que tu veux une livre ?
c. Q you want a book
d. Do you want a book?

- 8) a. Tu travailles
b. Est-ce que tu travailles ?
c. Q you work ?
d. Do you work?

9) 9) a-yai bi-dani mem di-ngat i

2sg-get to-me for 1sg-see Q

‘Would you give it to me so that I can see it?’

10) a. yaqru Ali al-ketab.

b. Hal yaqru Ali al-ketab?

c. Q reads Ali the-book

d. Does Ali read the book?

Polar Questions in English

In English, yes/no questions get the interrogative force by shifting the word order of a declarative sentence, inserting various specifiers, and changing the tone of voice. Cruttenden (1997) states that yes/no questions may be grammatically marked in different languages by particles, shifting word order, verb morphology, and sometimes made just by changing the pitch in oral form or inserting the question mark in the written one.

To arrive at an interrogative sentence, several syntactic operations occur. In declarative sentences with a phrasal verb, the auxiliary is moved to the beginning of the sentence, this process is known as subject auxiliary inversion. While the declarative sentence has no special marking of the declarative force, the interrogative force of the question is signaled by the word order. The order of elements in the sentence changes through certain movement operations. According to Haegman and wekker (1985), the first auxiliary is moved to the left and placed in front of the subject (11):

11) She studied French. →

Did she study French ?

But how does *did* come to be introduced into the derivation- and why? In order to answer this question, let's look rather more closely at the derivation of sentence (11), the T to C movement operation represented by arrow below:

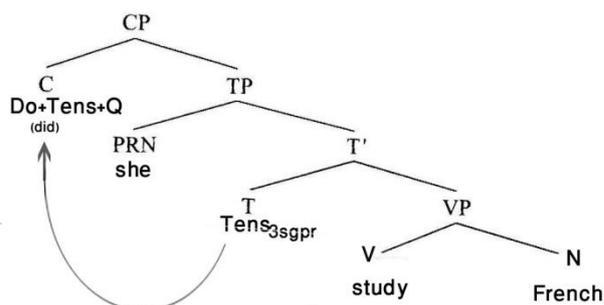


Figure 1 The T to C movement operation

According to Chomsky (1995) and Radford (2009) English interrogative main clauses are complementiser phrases (CP_s) headed by a strong COMP I which cannot be empty and should be filled by an overt appropriate constituent. To fill this strong head the head movement operation, i.e., T to C movement occurs which involve movement of an item occupying the head position in a lower phrase into the head position in a higher phrase. Based on Baker’s analysis (1970), the strong interrogative C position is occupied by a null question particle Q. To fill this strong C position, auxiliaries move from T position in TP to C position in CP and attach to this particle Q. Following Chomsky (1995) we can assume that the particle Q is an affixal constituent which carries a strong tense feature, and needs an overt head to be attached to. In other words, Q is affixal and has a tense feature attracting a tensed head, so the affixal nature of this null particle in C position triggers T to C movement. If tense does not move to C and does not occupy in the position of CP, the outcome will be an ungrammatical sentence.

Polar Questions in Persian

Persian which is a verb final Indo Iranian language often called scrambled language (Karimi,2005), spoken by more than 74 million speakers in Iran, does not entail changing the order of the sentence to make interrogative sentences, and there is no need to syntactic T to C movement (Radford, 2009). Forming an interrogative sentence, requires changing the intonation of the declarative sentence to a rising one and putting the “?” symbol at the end of the sentence. This kind of yes/no question is the simplest form which is mainly used in the informal spoken language and requires no apparent syntactic operation movement in the word order. Whatever the answer will be, the raising tone of the sentence indicates that the speaker lacks some information and is trying to fill this information gap. Intonation is an integral part of a spoken utterance which is different from its printed counterpart, and in informal language questions marked through intonation only. However, the formal polar question construction is a bit different. In formal polar Persian questions the semantically contentless a:ya: interrogative element is inserted in the initial position of the sentence, and the intonation of the sentence changed to a raising one to signal the interrogative force of the sentence (12).

12)

a.

او کار می‌کنه. → او کار می‌کنه؟ (Informal Persian)

He/She works → Does he/she work?

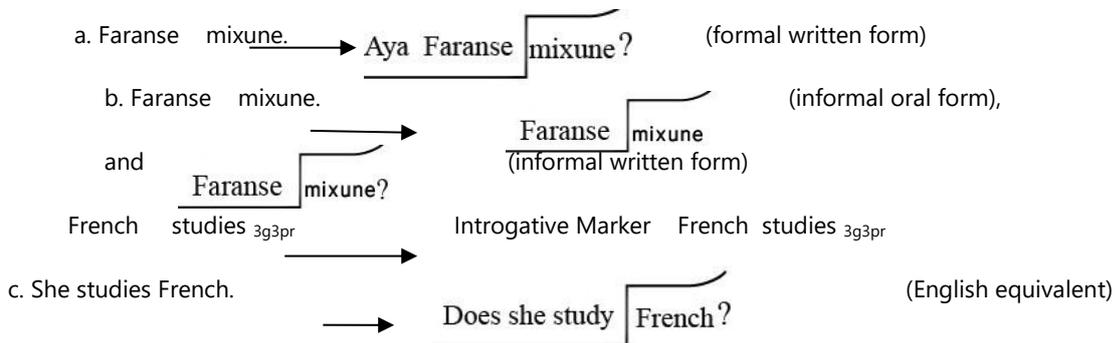
آیا او کار می‌کنه؟

b.

Based on affix attachment principle, an unattached tense affix is attached to the closest head, provided that it is a suitable verbal host, i.e. the Affix Hopping operation is applied. If the complement is not headed by an overt verb, the expletive stem 'do' which is semantically contentless is attached to the tense affix, i.e. do support operation is applied.

In Persian the semantically contentless interrogative marker 'aya' is inserted in the initial position of the declarative sentence to change it to an interrogative one in the formal form, see the following example (14):

14)



In 14a the following steps should be taken to constitute the interrogative sentence:

- Inserting semantically contentless 'aya:' element in the initial position of the sentence
- Changing the intonation of the sentence to raising one
- Putting '?' mark at the end of the interrogative sentence

Unlike example 14c (English equivalent of Persian example) the word order of the sentence in 14a has not changed indicating that in Persian polar questions no apparent syntactic movement occurs.

Example 14b shows that an informal interrogative sentence is constituted just by changing the intonation of the sentence. It implies that the raising intonation of the interrogative sentence is the only difference between the declarative and interrogative sentence, and there is no sign of any further syntactic operations. It indicates that intonation is crucial in Persian interrogativity.

14a will have a structure along the lines of derivation below (where 'aya:' is a specifier marking the interrogative force feature of the sentence):

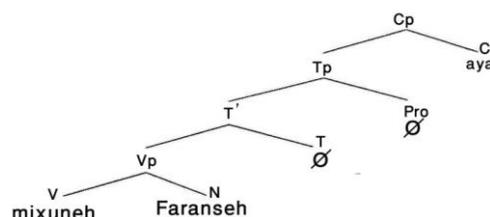
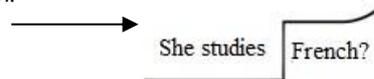


Figure 4 The lack of T to C movement operation

As we can see in the diagram, there is no need to syntactic T to C movement indicating that unlike interrogative English sentences, T to C movement is not the way of question construction in Persian. As seen in the above analysis the interrogative element 'a:ya:' as a specifier is inserted in the initial position of the sentence and changes the force of the sentence to an interrogative one.

Sometimes yes/no questions are made just by changing the intonation of declarative sentence which are called declarative yes/no questions (example 15). While these questions have the form of a statement, they contain question intonation. Mukattash (1980) defines three functions for declarative questions i.e. checking some pieces of information, repeating all or part of something already been said to question or confirm information, showing surprise, amazement or annoyance at what was said.

15) She studies French.



As it is shown in the following example (16), subordinate clauses are indirect questions corresponding to direct yes/no questions.

16) He asked whether she studies French.

Unlike complementiser *that*, *whether* and *if* indicate that the subordinate clauses are interrogative in force and they cannot be deleted (Haegeman & Wekker, 1985). In example (16), there is a full stop mark, but the presence of the complementiser *whether* or *if* signals that the subordinate clause is still interrogative in force.

In the formal Persian language, declarative sentences change to yes/no questions by simply taking 'a:ya:' in their initial position, after this reception the word order of the sentence remains intact. Although 'a:ya:' as an interrogative element is semantically contentless, using this element puts more emphasis on the questioning nature of the sentence. However, informal questions are not supported by 'a:ya:' marker. 'A:ya:' is not supported always in the informal language and only when the tone of the sentence is in raising, the yes no question in spoken language is formed and for the written one the question mark is inserted at the end of the sentence. Persian is a scrambling language with a relatively free word order. The scrambling nature of this language, allows words to be put freely in different positions in the sentence. Accordingly, though 'a:ya:' usually occupies the initial position in the sentence (example 17), it can come in other positions without causing ungrammaticality (examples 18,19). So unlike the interrogative marker 'do', 'a:ya:' is not a marker with a fixed position. Here are some examples showing the different positions that a:ya: can occupy:

17) A:ya: Ali xabid? (آیا علی خوابید؟)

Q Ali slept? past 3_{sgpr}

Did Ali sleep?

18) To a:ya: Farsi harf mizane? (تو آیا فارسی صحبت می کنی؟)

Pro Q Persian speaks 3_{sgpr}?

Does she/he speak Persian?

*She/he does speak Persian?

19) Reza shamesho xurd a:ya:? (رضا شامشو خورد آیا؟)

Reza dinner his (DO) ate past3_{sgpr} Q

Did Reza eat his dinner?

*Reza eat his dinner did?

Unlike the question marker 'a:ya:' which is not assigned to a fixed position of the initial in a sentence, the position of question marker 'do' always occupy a fixed position in the beginning of the sentence, if 'do' is inserted in other positions rather than the initial one, it leads to ungrammaticality. The scrambling nature of the Persian language allows 'a:ya:' to be inserted in different positions causing no ungrammaticality. Occupying different positions by 'a:ya:' is also evident in Hafez's poems(20, 21):

20) NaGdha ra bovad a:ya: ke a:ya:ri girand (نقدها را بود آیا که عیاری گیرند؟)

Coins OM Q take examination

ta hame someedaran peie kari girand? (تا همه صومعه داران پی کاری گیرند؟)

So that all cloister holders work?

Do they take the examination of the coins so that, after their own work all the cloister holders take?

21) Ba dele sangit a:ya: hich dargirad shabi (با دل سنگیت آیا هیچ درگیرد شبی؟)

Stony heart Q ever aught affect a night

ah atashnak o suze naleye shabgire ma?(آه آتشناک و سوز ناله ی شبگیر ما؟)

sigh fire raining and burning of heart night time our

Does a single night against thy stony heart ever affect aught our sigh, fire raining and the burning of our heart in the night time?

Agreement languages like English, reflect conditions on agreement, more specifically the phi- features (semantic features of person, number, etc.). In other words the "agreement rule", targets information in one position— the information contained in a nominal such as the subject— and reproduces it in another position, commonly as some form of an inflectional element on a verb or some such "head" (Miyagava, 2009). English typically carry three types of features, person, gender and number features, although not all features or all three categories are discussed here regarding to

yes/no questions. In English the question marker 'do' morphologically marks some information regarding person, and number information. In (example 22a), the inflected form 'does' signals singular, whereas in (22b), the lack of overt inflection indicates plurality— in both cases reflecting the nature, singular or plural, of the subject. All of this means that in English person and number are reflected in the inflected forms 'do' and 'does'

22)

- a. Does Ali come?
- b. Do they come?

As we see from examples like 22 through 24 below, in Persian polar questions, the dummy element 'a:ya' does not reflect conditions on agreement- person and number. 'A:ya' is inserted in different positions of the sentence regardless the singular or plural feature of the person and as it does not have a number restriction it can pick out one subject, or some group of people including the subject.

23) A:ya un to Iran zendegi mikone? (آیا اون تو ایران زندگی می‌کنه؟)

Q pro_{3sgpr} in Iran Live_{3sgpr}
Does he/she live in Iran?
24) una A:ya football bazi mikonan? (اونها آیا فوتبال بازی می‌کنن؟)

pro_{3plpr} Q football play_{3plpr}

Do they play football?

25) To mixay bexabi a:ya? (تو می‌خواهی بخوابی آیا؟)

Pro_{2sgpr} want to sleep Q

Do you want to sleep?

In any utterance a peculiar importance is universally attached to the category of tense. As a grammatical form, tense establishes the time talked about in a sentence (Smith, 2007). Tense is one of the factors contributing to the temporal interpretation of a sentence. According to Comrie (1985) tense is the grammaticalised expression of location in time. Mezhevich, 2008 defines tense as a temporal predicate with complex interpretable content represented as grammatical and abstract semantic features. Considering the category of tense, we observe the difference between 'do' and 'a:ya' question markers. Question marker 'a:ya' can be used in all Persian yes/no questions regardless of the tense feature (examples 24,25) . 'A:ya:' does not reveal tense feature.

26) A:ya emrooz miri madrese? (آیا امروز می‌ری مدرسه؟)

Q today go_{2sgpr} school

Do you go to school today?

27) A:ya Maryam dirooz raft madrese? (آیا مریم دیروز رفت مدرسه؟)

Q Maryam yesterday went school

Did Maryam go to school yesterday?

In English tense feature is generally obligatory even when the information conveyed is redundant. For example, in the sentence 'Did he come yesterday?', although the adverb 'yesterday' clearly provides the information that the event occurred in the past, the tense feature is also reflected in the question marker 'did'.

Considering person and number of the subject which refer to the relationship between the subject of the verb and whoever is speaking or doing the work, we can again observe the difference between English and Persian polar questions.

28) A:ya Un sib mixore? (آیا اون سیب می خوره؟)

Q pro apple eat (3_{sgpr})

Does she eat apple?

17) A:ya: shoma sib mikhori? (آیا شما سیب می خورید؟)

Q pro apple eat (2_{plpr})

Do you eat apple?

As we see in examples 27 and 28 person and number features of the subject are not reflected in a:ya: specifier in Persian questions. In both examples a:ya: has been used regardless the singular or plural feature of the subject, but in English, 'does' and 'do' have been used for singular and plural persons respectively. Even in the case of the number and the person of the verb a similar situation arises:

29) Ali plays football.

Does Ali play football?

A:ya: Ali football bazi mikone? (آیا علی فوتبال بازی می کنه؟)

30) Mina and Maryam play basketball.

Do Mina and Maryam play basketball?

A:ya: Mina and Maryam basketball bazi mikonand?

(آیا مینا و مریم بسکتبال بازی می کنند؟)

In example (29) *plays* is a singular verb with third person 's', and *does* question marker has been used in the interrogative sentence to signal the force of the sentence. In example (30) *play* is the plural verb, hence the dummy element *do* has been inserted in the initial position for interrogative construction, however, in both Persian equivalent sentences, 'a:ya': does not reflect the plural or singular feature of the verb.

Conclusion

When we ask a polar question in English, we change the canonical order of the sentence i.e. basic order (subject-verb-object in English, SVO), insert the auxiliary, and in auxiliaryless sentences one of the inflected forms of *do* in the initial position of the sentence, change the intonation of the sentence in oral form, and put the question marker symbol '?' in the final position of the written one.

Resembling complementisers, inverted auxiliaries can precede subjects in yes/no questions in English. Auxiliary inversion in English yes/no questions involves a T to C movement operation by which an auxiliary moves from the head T position of TP into the head C position of CP. The head C position of CP contains a null question particle Q which is affixal in nature and has a strong T feature. By virtue of being affixal this particle Q has a strong tense feature, so the auxiliary in T will be attracted by Q and moved to C. Q is strong in languages with rich subject-verb agreement morphology, so it trigger movement of T.

In Persian, unlike English the head movement operation of T to C is not allowed indicating that the head movement from the head T position of TP into the head C position of CP is not the way of question constructing in Persian.

Moreover, polar questions in Persian are formed by raising the intonation, putting a question mark at the end of the sentence in written form, and most of the times, inserting the interrogative element 'a:ya:' in the initial position of the sentence which is obligatory in written language. Question markers are not generally used in less formal Persian, in this case the tone of voice is used to convey a question.

Persian is a SOV language, that is to say its VP is head final. Persian, unlike English, is so flexible in terms of word order of the sentence, often called 'scrambling'. This scrambling characteristic has allowed Persian a high degree of flexibility for inserting question marker 'a:ya:' into interrogative sentences, so 'a:ya:' can appear in different positions in interrogative polar sentences without making them ungrammatical. Although the most common place for 'a:ya:' is clause initial, there is no fixed syntactic position for 'a:ya:' in Persian questions. Unlike the dummy element 'do' in English, 'a:ya:' can occupy different positions in interrogative sentences.

Both English and Persian are examples of languages with a three way primary tense contrast: past/present/future. In English polar questions based on the tense of the verb different inflected forms of *do*, i.e. *do*, *does*; and *did* are used to convey tense feature. However, in Persian polar questions 'a:ya:' is used for both present and past tense, and does not spell out tense feature.

Features indicating the agreement are reflected in the subject and verb also makes differences. English and Persian polar questions are also different along with person and number features. Again in English polar questions based on the number and person of the subject and verb, different inflected forms of *do* are used to signal the interrogative force of the sentence, but in Persian, for both singular and plural subjects and verbs, 'a:ya:' is used to constitute the question.

Finally, it can be said that the diversity between two languages casts doubt over the UG proposed by Chomsky (1995).

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ASSESSING THE STUDENT PERFORMANCE IN EFL CLASSROOM

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Abstract

One of the most important points in the process of learning and teaching is the assessment and checking students' knowledge. Assessment gives detailed information about students' progress, strengths and weaknesses and it measures learners' performance. In education, the term assessment refers to the wide variety of methods or tools that educators use to evaluate, measure, and document the academic readiness, learning progress, skill acquisition, or students' educational needs. It has been found that feedback on our students' work probably has more effect on achievement than any other single factor. Such formative assessment is the heart of effective teaching. Assessment of performance can be explicit or implicit. Also students are likely to receive teacher's assessment in terms of praise or blame. Indeed, one of teacher's roles is to encourage students by praising their work that is well done. Praise is a vital component in a students' motivation and progress. Apart from tests and exams there are a number of ways in which teachers can assess their students: comments: commenting on students' performance happens at various stages both in and outside the class; when students are graded on their work, they are always keen to know what grades they have received; at the end of a term some teachers write the reports on their students' performance. Reports of this kind may lead to future improvement and progress. Although teachers try to provide accurate assessments of student performance, students can also be extremely effective in judging their own language production. They have a clear idea of how well they are doing, if teachers help them to develop their awareness.

Keywords: Assessment in EFL, explicit assessment, implicit assessment, praise, feedback, rating scale, assessment criteria, self-assessment

Assessing students' performance comes from the teachers. Assessment of performance can be explicit or implicit. Explicit assessment can be oral, when the teacher expresses his/her attitude towards students as, for example: well-done, good, excellent.... Implicit assessment is sometimes dangerous, as the students may ignore their mistakes and misconstrue teachers' silence. Students receive assessment in terms of praise or blame. Giving praise is a kind of encouragement for students and it is vital in students' progress and motivation. It is obvious that students respond well to praise, but sometimes students get so addicted to praise that they become attention seekers and their need for praise blinds them

to what progress they are actually making. I think that students need to understand the reasons for the teacher's approval or disapproval.

Accordingly, the assessment should be handled with great care and subtlety. Praise or blame to students will not be as useful as giving them appropriate praise together with helpful suggestions how to improve in the future - this is real contribution to students' improvement.

We can assess students' work with comments, with marks and grades, making reports at the end of the term. Commenting on students' performance is possible at various stages, in or outside the classes, we can express this orally, using some phrases, such as 'good' or 'not bad', or use gestures, such as nodding as a sign of approval.

Students are graded on their work, generally students pay too much attention to grades in classes. They are keen to know what grades they have achieved. When they achieve good marks, their motivation is positively affected. Bad grades can be extremely disheartening. Grading is very complex sometimes. We need to be able to describe to the students on what basis are we doing this.

When teachers are grading controlled exercise types, it will be easy for students to realize how and why they achieved marks or grades. With creative activities where teachers ask students to produce some written or spoken task, grading will be more subjective, but mainly our students accept our judgment, especially where it coincides with their own assessment of their work. But sometimes students tend to compare their work and their grades to others students' work, in such situations it is a good idea to demonstrate the clear criteria for the grading, or to offer some kind of a marking scale.

Marking the students with numbers or awarding them with letter grades is sometimes problematic, as some countries and culture grading system varies. Therefore, for some people grade A is success, but in some countries, in their educational system letter B indicates a good result. Also at our university 2 is the maximum point for everyday assessment, while in other universities 5 is the maximum point.

Some practitioners prefer not to award the students because they find it difficult to make difference between A and B. They cannot see the line between 'pass' and 'distinction' clearly. Such teachers rely on comments. If we use marks and grades we can announce them to students after oral activity, for a piece of homework or at the end of some period of time.

Teachers write reports at the end of the year on every student. Such reports should give clear indication of how well the student has done in the past and a reasonable assessment of their future progress. Students have the right to know about their strengths and weaknesses together with the feedback.

If students are to gain maximum benefit from assessment tasks, they need to be involved in high quality feedback processes.

Feedback should meet four criteria: 1. Students participate in the feedback process while they still remember the nature of the task and their response to it, and early enough to use the information effectively to improve their performance on subsequent tasks; 2. The feedback process allows for two-way communication between students and teachers; 3. The feedback process provides clear indications of the strengths and weaknesses of the student's work, and guidance on how to perform better on similar future tasks; 4. The feedback process helps motivate the student to put further effort into learning. In short, constructive feedback generates information that is timely, sufficiently detailed, and contributes to fruitful communication between student and teacher. 5 Because teacher-student ratios have increased substantially over the years, many academics struggle to find the time to provide effective feedback. Care is needed to adopt approaches that are both effective and efficient. Teachers should:

- Change teaching and assessment arrangements so that time previously allocated to other tasks can be freed for undertaking quality feedback. The change may include setting fewer summative internal assessment tasks;
- Establish procedures for students to systematically review and comment on their own and on each other's work.

Other strategies include:

- A cover sheet which can be attached to each student's assignment, listing important factors considered in grading and with rating scales to indicate how each student has been judged on each factor. This information gives students an easily interpreted profile of their strengths and weaknesses, while saving time so that teachers can make specific comments and suggestions;
- Creating cover sheets that require students to specify which elements of their work they would like comments on. These can also require from students to reflect on their own work and self-assess their performance against the set criteria;
- Giving oral or written comments to the whole class on their strengths or weaknesses for many or most students. This approach may save time while writing similar comments on many assignments.

Collaborative learning promotes the development of communication skills, thinking skills, social skills, values and attitudes. Furthermore, much of the work university graduates are engaged in involves collaboration with others, so the development of collaborative skills is important in its own right.

When grades are awarded for collaborative work, this can be a major challenge. University guidelines normally require that final grades reflect the work of each individual student. One response to this dilemma is to try to get students to engage in collaborative exercises for their learning value, but to assess each student on individual tasks after the learning has occurred. This preserves the individual character of final grades, but tends to undermine motivation for collaboration. Students who believe they are among the more capable ones may perceive collaboration as undermining their advantage on the subsequent individual assessments, especially if they believe that grading is competitive.

A second response is that students are required or permitted to work collaboratively on a task, and to submit a team product. However, before each member of the team is awarded a grade, the teacher makes further inquiries into the contribution of each team member. Students may be asked to respond to oral questions individually, to write a brief account of their contribution, or to assess the contributions of each member of their group. This additional information is then used to fine-tune the mark awarded to each student.

Students can also be extremely effective at monitoring and judging their own performance. They frequently have a very clear idea of how well they are doing and if a teacher helps them to develop their awareness, learning is greatly enhanced.

Self-assessment could mean that students simply check off answers on a multiple-choice test and grade themselves, but it involves much more than that. Self-assessment is more accurately defined as a process by which students 1) monitor and evaluate the quality of their thinking and behavior when learning and 2) identify strategies that improve their understanding and skills. That is, self-assessment occurs when students judge their own work to improve performance as they identify discrepancies between the current and the desired performance. This aspect of self-assessment aligns closely with standards-based education, which provides clear targets and criteria that can facilitate student self-assessment. The pervasiveness of standards-based instruction provides an ideal context in which these clear-cut benchmarks for performance and criteria for evaluating student products, when internalized by students, provide the knowledge needed for self-assessment. Finally, self-assessment identifies further learning targets and instructional strategies which students can apply to improve achievement. Thus, self-assessment is conceptualized here as the combination of three components related in a cyclical, ongoing process: self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and identification and implementation of instructional correctives as needed. Essentially, students identify their learning and performance strategies, provide feedback to themselves, based on well-understood standards and criteria, and determine the next steps or plans to enhance their performance.

Self-monitoring, a skill necessary for effective self-assessment, involves focused attention to some aspect of behavior or thinking. Self-monitoring students pay deliberate attention to what they are doing, often in relation to external standards. Thus, self-monitoring concerns awareness of thinking and progress as it occurs, and as such, it identifies part of what students do when they self-assess. A second component of self-assessment, self-judgment, involves identifying progress toward targeted performance. Made in relation to established standards and criteria, these judgments give students a meaningful idea of what they know and what they still need to learn. The standards are benchmarks and the criteria are guidelines for interpreting the level of the performance that the students have demonstrated. The development and application of criteria in evaluating the current performance enable meaningful evaluations, as long as the criteria are appropriately challenging (Rolheiser and Ross, 2001). According to Rolheiser and Ross, "Students who are taught self-evaluation skills are more likely to persist on difficult tasks, be more confident about their ability, and take greater responsibility for their work". The third essential step is that students choose subsequent learning goals and activities to

improve partially correct answers, to correct misunderstandings, and to extend learning. Because students at this stage need skills in determining learning targets and further instruction that will enhance their learning, they should be aware of options for further goals and instruction. Once the appropriate “instructional correctives,” as they are referred to, are complete, students resume self-monitoring. The growing literature on formative assessment has implications for self-assessment. Formative assessment can be defined as employing appropriate activities to provide feedback to enhance student motivation and achievement during instruction, while students learn. Providing helpful information as learning occurs contrasts with providing feedback solely after instruction. There is substantial evidence that appropriate formative assessment activities relate positively to student motivation and achievement. In addition, self-assessment is a valuable skill in effective formative assessment. Both Sadler (1989) and Black and Wiliam (1998) contend that self-assessment is essential to using feedback appropriately.

Assessment is a process that includes four basic components: 1) Measuring improvement over time; 2) Motivating students to study; 3) Evaluating the teaching methods; 4) Ranking the students' capabilities in relation to the whole group evaluation.

The purpose of classroom assessment and evaluation is to give students the opportunity to show what they have learned rather than catching them out in order to show what they have not learned. Needless to say, evaluation and assessment can focus on different aspects of teaching and learning: respectively, textbooks and instructional materials, student achievement, and whole programs of instruction. A primary concern in education is whether students attain the objectives of the course of study or the curriculum scope and sequence. Objectives refer to goals of a course of instruction whether we consider instruction as a course, a unit, or a lesson. In Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics (Richards & Schmidt, 2010) two different types of objectives are distinguished: 1. General objectives, or aims, are the underlying reasons for or purposes of a course of instruction. General objectives are also called long-term goals. 2. Specific objectives or simply objectives, are descriptions of what is to be achieved in a course. They are more detailed descriptions of exactly what a learner is expected to be able to do at the end of a period of instruction. This might be a single lesson, a chapter of a book, a term's work, and etc. A description of specific objectives which can be observed and measured is known as behavioural objectives.

It is important to clarify the distinction between evaluation and assessment. These terms are often used interchangeably, but they are technically different. Assessment of an individual student's progress or achievement is an important component of evaluation: it is that part of evaluation that includes the measurement and analysis of information about student learning.

The primary focus of assessment in Teaching English Language has been language assessment and the role of tests in assessing students' language skills. Evaluation goes beyond student achievement and language assessment to consider all aspects of teaching and learning and to look at how educational decisions can be made by the results of alternative forms of assessment.

Gensee and Upshur (1996) believe that another purpose of evaluation is to guide classroom instruction and enhance student learning on a day-to-day basis. Classroom assessment and evaluation concerns: • Suitability of general instructional goals and objectives associated with an individual lesson or unit plans; • Effectiveness of instructional methods, materials and activities used to attain instructional objectives; • Adequacy of professional resources required to deliver instruction. Classroom assessment and evaluation under the active management of teachers can also serve important professional development purposes since the information resulting from such evaluations provides teachers with valuable feedback about their instructional effectiveness that they can use to develop and improve their professional skills. As part of reflective teaching movement, teachers are encouraged to conduct research in their own classrooms classroom assessment and evaluation is an important part of such research.

To be useful and effective, evaluation and assessment require planning. Preparing for evaluation should be an integral part of planning each lesson or unit as well as general planning at the beginning of the school year or course. Instruction and evaluation should be considered together in order to ensure that instruction provides itself to evaluation and that the results of evaluation can direct the ongoing instructional planning. Moreover, if evaluation is not planned along with instruction, the time required for assessment activities will most likely not be available. As pointed earlier, clearly an important focus of classroom assessment and evaluation is student achievement. Teachers need to know what and how much students have learned in order to monitor the effectiveness of instruction, to plan ongoing instruction, and for accountability purposes.

According to Gensee and Upshur (1996), in order to plan and make instruction that is appropriate for individual students or groups of students, it is necessary to understand the factors that influence student performance in class. This means going beyond the assessment of achievement. Chastain (1988) believes that teachers need to evaluate constantly their teaching on the basis of student reaction, interest, motivation, preparation, participation, perseverance, and achievement. The conclusions drawn from such an evaluation constitute their main source for measuring the effectiveness of selected learning activities.

As a matter of fact, testing in language classes is often inadequate. The teacher is so preoccupied with classroom activities that she/he fails to maintain a comprehensive perspectives of the flow of the language learning sequence from objectives to activities to testing. This is the point where we can give priority to evaluation over tests claiming that the primary aim of evaluation in the classroom is to judge the achievement of both students and teacher. Evaluation of achievement is the feedback that makes improvement possible. By means of evaluation, strengths and weaknesses are identified. Evaluation, in this sense, is another aspect of learning, one that enables learners to grasp what they missed previously and the teacher to comprehend what can be done in subsequent lessons to improve learning. To do so, alternative methods (e.g. dialogue journals, portfolio conferences, interviews and questionnaires, observation, etc.) are available for collecting useful information about language learning and about student-related factors which influence the processes of language teaching and learning. Genesee and Upshur (1996) are of opinion that for tests and alternative



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forms of language assessment to be useful for classroom-based evaluation, they should be: linked to instructional objectives and activities; designed to optimize student performance; developmentally appropriate, relevant and interesting to students; accurate; and fair and ongoing.

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USING TECHNOLOGY TO ASSESS STUDENTS' ACHIEVEMENT IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Abstract

The study aims to assess the impact that technology has on the development of language skills of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). There are so many options for creating online assessments by using tools available today. By using technology as a tool for assessment, instructors can find new ways to meet these requirements. These new and innovative ways to assess students are attractive and allow students to use the technology they are comfortable with, and to learn about new technologies available to them. Instructors can apply in their classes various assessment tools. The method used in the research was a mixed-type questionnaire carried out among EFL students and instructors. The results of research reveal that online assessment tools can have a positive effect on students' learning regarding their assessment and these tools that enable instructors to conduct this type of evaluative work faster. They decrease paperwork, and provide more time for working with students using the data. Consequently, this study has provided information about why it is so important to assess students' achievement while instructors are using online tools.

Keywords: education, technology, assessment, evaluation

Introduction

Assessment has always been one of the most important aspects of teaching and learning. Over the years, both teachers and researchers have been concerned with the effective ways of assessing learners. Georgian teachers and researchers are not exceptions. The assessment system in Georgia is not very complicated and developed. However, since it is of a great importance in teaching in EFL learners, assessment system should be developed largely.

Nowadays, as the world and, consequently, education are getting more and more complicated, assessment is becoming an increasingly important part of the educational process. Effective assessment in EFL classes will give young pupils opportunities for having meaningful learning, where their learning styles, interests and needs are taken into consideration.

Definition of Assessment in Education in General and in EFL in Particular

So far, many changes have been made in educational systems all over the world. These changes concern instructional practices. Before the 20th century, educational systems followed the traditional way of instruction, according to which students were required to study individually and get prepared for exams through memorizing various facts. In order to change this way of instruction, some reforms have been introduced. The attitude toward learning, teaching and evaluation have improved and nowadays much attention is paid to the innovative ways, which assist personalized learning. Assessment is considered as a tool which can support learning. Generally, assessment is done for improvement. It is used for both teachers' and students' improvement. "Assessment is a systematic process of gathering, interpreting, and acting upon data related to student learning and experience for the purpose of developing a deep understanding of what students know, understand, and can do with their knowledge as a result of their educational experience; the process culminates when assessment results are used to improve subsequent learning" (Huba & Freed, 2000, p. 8). Thus, assessment helps us to collect information about our students' performance in order to make judgments. Assessment gives us the picture, which shows us what could be improved in teaching and learning.

In the 21st century, assessment plays a significant role in helping a wider curriculum to those who graduate from universities. Traditional assessment takes into consideration memorization and reproduction of theoretical information and checking learners' comprehension. In contrast, graduates' employability is more probably to be confirmed by demonstrating graduates' skills or implementing the gained knowledge in different contexts: solving problems, thinking critically, performing in professional settings or analyzing case studies, etc. If assessment keeps going to focus on knowledge acquisition and checking learners' comprehension, and less on the capacity to find out things and use the information in professional activities, then it will lead tutors and students far from learning environment for employability.

When educators ask questions in class, they are assessing their students' understanding, knowledge and skills. When they observe what is going on in class they are assessing. Assessment is inseparable from teaching and learning.

Educators should know about learners' progress and difficulties in learning so that they can modify their work to meet students' needs, which are often unexpected. Teachers can find out what students need in a variety of ways, from observation to discussion in the classroom. 'Assessment' refers to all those issues assumed by a teacher, and to students assessing themselves, which provides information to be used as feedback to adapt the teaching and learning activities. 'An ongoing process aimed at understanding and improving student learning. It involves making our expectations explicit and public; setting appropriate criteria and high standards for learning quality; systematically gathering, analyzing, and interpreting evidence to determine how well performance matches those expectations and standards; and using the resulting information to document, explain, and improve performance' (Angelo, 1995, p. 7).

"Foremost, assessment is important because it drives students learning" (Brissenden & Slater, 2016).

Brissenden & Slater (2016) state that assessment is significant for learners' future learning, as it checks the knowledge they have now and the information should instructor pour to learners in the future. Many students desire to pass their 'test' the fastest and the easiest way. Based on assessment results, teachers may develop assessment strategies. For example, with the help of assessment strategies teachers can focus on the knowledge which students do not have so that surface learning is avoided. If we choose assessment strategies that claim creative problem-solving, we are probably to achieve higher level of student performance.

Types of Assessment

Assessment is divided into three types, formative, summative and diagnostic. Teacher may use these types of assessment to find out both students' and curriculum's weaknesses and strengths.

Formative assessment is one the most important types of assessment for improving student understanding, monitoring student learning and providing continuing feedback. Examples of formative assessment include a very interactive class discussion, a warm-up, and a quiz.

Summative assessment takes place at the end of learning. It permits to make such judgments as 'pass' or 'fail'. Examples of summative assessment include a midterm exam, a final project, a paper, and a senior recital.

Diagnostic assessment determines students' background knowledge in order to organize appropriate future learning. It helps to plan teaching effectively from the very first lesson.

Alternative Assessment

Alternative assessment is generally applied by teachers to see students' ability to use the gained knowledge in real-life (or real-life-like) situations. It involves comprehensive, authentic or performance assessment. This assessment includes open-ended questions, written compositions, oral presentations, projects, experiments, and student portfolios.

Assessment provides students with feedback on how well they know the course and on how well they can solve problems in order to satisfy their needs. As for teachers, it helps them to develop an effective instruction plan. In addition, students get an idea of their own skills, abilities, and level of knowledge. With the help of assessment, students who emphasize their knowledge and reflect on their learning, will be encouraged to meet their needs. In student-centered education students should contribute to developing the scoring criteria, participate in self-assessment, and set goals for measuring their learning outcomes.

"Traditional assessment, which often uses a 'drive-by' standardized, multiple-choice test or a short-answer test is under increasing scrutiny and criticism. Although this approach can adequately assess factual knowledge and basic skills, it often

fails to assess students' acquisition of higher-order thinking skills such as critical thinking, creative thinking, and problem solving. It is also believed that traditional assessment does not evaluate students' learning process" (Pellegrino, Chudowsky & Glaser, 2001, p.38).

On the other hand, authentic assessment includes communicative performance assessment, language portfolios, and different forms of self-assessment by learners. According to O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p. 12), basic types of authentic assessment in language learning are:

- oral interviews (of learners by the teacher)
- story or text retelling (with listening or reading inputs)
- writing samples (with a variety of topics and registers)
- projects and exhibitions (presentation of a collaborative effort)
- experiments and demonstrations (with oral or a written reports)
- constructed response items (to open-ended questions)
- teacher observation (of learners' work in class, making notes)
- portfolios (focused collection of learners' work to show progress)

"In recent years, alternative assessment, which uses strategies such as case studies, portfolios, and peer review, is considered to be a valuable addition to standardized assessment. The rationale of alternative assessment is to gather evidence from real-life or authentic tasks, use multiple assessment strategies to assess learning, and provide ongoing feedback to students" " (Pellegrino, Chudowsky & Glaser, 2001, p.39).

Written Assessment

Educators around the world are very concerned with the issues of assessment, as it is one of the most important factors in language teaching and learning. In addition, scholars develop a variety of theories about the best types of assessment to make the language learning more effective. Written assessment is important mainly because it enables learners to see their weaknesses and strengths, their progress or regress, assess their process of learning and study self-assessment too. According to Stecher et al. (1997, p. 26), written assessment, which is also called paper-and-pencil assessment, involves the activities during making which learners choose or create the answers to a prompt question, and it is made up from printed material (a question or a list of questions, graphic or material, a picture, an object, etc.). When dealing with written assessment, students do the task according to specific requirements such as deadline, fixed time and place.

According to Stecher et al. (1997), there are three main types of written assessment:

1. Multiple-choice, matching and true /false tests
2. Open-ended questions
3. Essays, problem-based examinations, and scenarios.

Multiple-choice, matching and true/false test assessment involves choosing answers and it is widely used to collect the information about learners' content knowledge or the capacity for performing some particular operations. This type of assessment is very effective, objective, quick and cheap. With the help of optical mark sensors, responses can be measured and calculated within a very short period (Stecher et al., 1997). "Such tests provide an efficient means of gathering information about a wide range of knowledge and skills. Multiple-choice tests are not restricted to factual knowledge; they can also be used to measure many kinds of higher-order thinking and problem-solving skills. However, considerable skill is required to develop test items that measure analysis, evaluation, and other higher cognitive skills" (ibid, p. 26).

Dowling (2002, p. 652) believes that this type of assessment as well as some other selected-response types are commonly used at the majority of educational institutions of education. In spite of it, this assessment also has its limitations. These common traditional forms of assessment may not test particular kinds of knowledge and skills effectively. For instance, selected-response assessment tools do not measure the writing skill. It can only measure the desired skills and abilities indirectly, testing students' knowledge of subject-verb agreement, punctuation, capitalization, etc. (Downing, 2002, p. 652).

In addition to these factors about this type of assessment mentioned above, it must be stated that the majority of standardized multiple-choice tests are constructed to gather the information about learner's specific academic skills and knowledge that prompts many teachers and learners to focus on rising test scores. In this case, teachers very often may emphasize drill and memorization concentrating on a very small amount of information, narrow content and skill.

In many cases it causes the surface approach to learning. In addition, chosen-answer type of assessment does not reflect the real-life communication, so learners are likely not to face with multiple-choice situations in real life (Downing, 2002, p. 652).

To touch the important drawbacks of multiple-choice, matching and true/false tests, the main disadvantage of them is the fact that it is very easy to just guess the right answer by probability theory, logics and this especially concerns true/false tasks. However, the probability of guessing the correct answer in multiple-choice tests is not so high, while the lowest probability is in matching test-items. In order to compensate this disadvantage, true/false/no evidence (or no information) exercises appeared, but they turned out to be too difficult and now they are only used in reading tests. In matching, one or two extra answers are usually used in order to avoid automatic guessing (on condition that other items were done in a right way. Otherwise, it may lead to an extra incorrect answer). Besides that, this type of a test is too mechanical and may be done carelessly (Stecher et al., 1997).

The other two types of written assessment, as Stecher et al. (1997) suggest, need constructed answers. The answers to the open-ended questions may vary from a word, a phrase or a sentence to longer written answers. Using this type of questions, assessors can examine learners' knowledge of facts or very specific information, or check more complex inferences including logical thinking, interpretation, or analysis. The third type of written assessment, different from open-ended questions, need more complex extended answers, more difficult analysis and a higher level of understanding. Essays are very widely used in higher education; they are comparatively long written works, which are assessed according with the content or just organization (Stecher et al., 1997).

Downing (2002, p. 648) claims that cognitive knowledge is best assessed using written test forms and the constructed-response assessment has recently become popular among educators in higher education. From assessor and learner prospective, this assessment has a wide range of advantages, including:

- easy to prepare and to conduct;
- guessing is eliminated;
- requires recollection of correct answer;
- measures complex cognitive learning;
- tests candidate's ability to organize, compose and write rather than merely recognize or recall;
- allows wide sampling of content;
- candidates use their own words;
- measures complex cognitive learning;
- may test several competencies at once (Downing, 2002).

On the other hand, constructed-response type of written assessment is "almost useless as measures of psychomotor or affective skill, abilities, and achievements" (Downing, 2002, p. 648). It is worth mentioning that it is difficult to assess objectively or achieve reliability in scoring, it needs much time and it is difficult to construct. In addition to this, anxiety about assessment is another important thing, because it has a negative influence on students' performance. Besides, assessment of an essay, even with a good rubric, is quite a subjective thing. To assess writing skills in an essay is quite a natural thing. As for assessment in other language skills, it might challenge learners to use their communicative skills that they might lack. Not all learners can be creative to the extent that they are successful at essays, problem-based examinations, and scenarios, and if assessment is done only through this tool, learners are likely to demonstrate the knowledge and abilities which they need to have (Downing, 2002).

Table 1. Comparison of written and oral assessment

Assessment	Advantages	Disadvantages
Written	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It requires less time to hold. • It is more objective. • It is material, thus responses can be reevaluated if necessary. • It is reasonably stressful. • It assesses listening, reading and writing skills directly. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Selected response <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ is time consuming and difficult to make up ○ is not communicative. ○ has higher possibility of cheating and guessing. • Constructed response <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ has low level of communication. ○ has a possibility of plagiarism. ○ requires knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, spelling, etc. • It is usually not authentic. • It can assess speaking skills only indirectly.
Oral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is communicative • There can be no plagiarism or false reports. • There is less possibility of cheating and guessing. • It complements perfectly with practical assessments. • Specific criteria can be established. • It can help to identify and decreases error. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is time-consuming. • Demands expertise in measurement to assure validity/reliability/utility • It is rather subjective. • Can be costly. • It is ephemeral and cannot be reevaluated. • It can be stressful. • It is difficult to provide authenticity.

Source: (Ulker, 2015, p. 12)

Oral Assessment

Oral examination is a historically popular and common type of assessment in some subjects, and language is one them. The main goal of second/foreign language education is communication, where oral language plays a significant role at all levels and stages of education. The techniques used to assess learners' oral abilities require some form of oral response. The most appropriate technique is decided according to the purpose of assessment, learners' level of language proficiency and the knowledge expected to demonstrate.

Priestley (1982, p. 142) distinguishes between the three types of oral assessments such as:

1. Oral examination
2. Interview
3. Prepared presentation.

These types of assessment are especially useful in the situations where written assessment is not possible and learners have the opportunity to express themselves practically. For example, testing candidates' foreign language proficiency will not be effective without oral assessment of their speaking skills. Oral examination usually has a different status (formal or informal), or a different form (structured or unstructured), or involves different content. In higher education, oral examinations are applied in many areas to understand learners' knowledge and skills, but in foreign language education they are mainly used to measure communication skills, as well as more specific skills, such as pronunciation, intonation, and range of vocabulary. According to the goal of the oral examination, rubrics are designed to record, score, and evaluate learners' answers. Oral examinations can be conducted to assess a number of complex skills and abilities (e.g., speaking), which may be tested only indirectly by written paper-and-pencil exams. Being orally examined, learners are required to think fast and respond the questions immediately, but, more importantly, oral examinations give learners a chance to explain, and if necessary, defend, their answers. In addition, oral examinations help examiners to understand whether learners' mistakes are slips or errors (Priestley, 1982).

Priestley (1982) further claims that, despite the numerous advantages, oral examinations have some disadvantages and drawbacks. One of very important disadvantages is the fact that examiners, even with a good rubric, assess learners subjectively, with grades which may tangibly differ from each other, consequently another problem arises – the degree of objectivity. Many learners have stage fright – they are afraid of public speaking and may make more mistakes than normally and even become completely dumb. Learners may have accents and articulation defects, which make them nervous. Even the way the learner looks and behaves may have an impact on his/her grade. Oral exams are ephemeral, so, unless recorded, learners have no chances to defend themselves against subjective judgment.

As for the interview, the advantages of the type of assessment in foreign language are its individual and personal nature. The foreign language learners are often afraid of speaking which is called a "language barrier". According to Brown (2002, p. 12), because of the fact that interviews can be made appropriate for every individual, learners can ask and answer the

questions to interact naturally. Therefore, to overcome the language barrier, learners need more practice outside the classroom, and interview is one of the tools to help students to improve their skills.

On the other hand, the main disadvantage of interviews is that an interview's assessment can be quite subjective because of the limited physical possibility to observe students' performance. The time and cost is another concern, of course, since every interview has its individual nature. So it is possible to say that this type of oral assessment is more suitable for informal alternative assessment. In an interview or dialogue, one depends a lot on a partner – if the partner speaks clear language and is helpful (e.g., supports cues for meaning elicitation, uses mimics and gestures adequately, does not dominate, but at the same time maintains the dialogue well), the learner may get a good enough result (except for communicative strategies s/he will gain good points), but if the partner (teacher or learner) is not supportive, the learner may not be able to reveal the skills s/he does have (Brown, 2002, p. 12).

The third type of oral assessment, the presentation, deals with a student or a group of learners presenting an organized speech or a presentation of information on a specific topic, prepared before the assessment. Visuals (video, graphics, tables, pictures, power point presentation, etc.) are traditionally used, for instance, to illustrate or clarify the points presented (Wileman, 1993, p. 29).

The aim of a prepared presentation, as an assessment technique, can be "to assess a particular product or the extent to which a candidate possesses a certain body of knowledge: or to assess such skills as oral communication, selection and organization of information, persuasiveness and professional presence" (Priestley, 1982, p. 175). The assessment result of a presentation is better if learners are provided with learning opportunities, supervisor's guidance and necessary feedback and comments (Wileman, 1993, p. 29).

Some people say that prepared presentations do not reflect the real level of foreign language skills, as they are not spontaneous. But they definitely are authentic, as in real life we often make prepared presentations (e.g., reports at work or conference papers). Generally, monologue speech is always to some degree prepared. Consequently, presentations are an important part of assessment and foreign language learning (Wileman, 1993, p. 29).

Objective and Subjective Assessment

Objective and subjective assessment is not less important one among other types of assessments when it comes to learning and teaching process of a foreign language. Moreover, assessment is often classified as either objective or subjective. Both forms are widely used in higher education system to serve different goals and to measure various knowledge and abilities.

According to Palomba and Banta (2014, p. 113), objective assessment is a form of questioning which requires students to "select a correct answer from a set of responses that have been provided for them". The name comes from the fact that the grading does not depend on the scorer (it may be done by a computer). This type of assessment involves multiple-

choice, true/false, and matching items. In this case, an objective assessment does not need professional judgment to score correctly (interpretation on the results requires professional judgment), and there is no way assessors can transfer their personal attitude to the student on the score.

On the other hand, subjective assessment is a form of questioning, which yields more than one correct answer or more than one way of expressing the correct answer (constructed-response questions, essays, hypothesizing, creating plans, oral answers on the topic/issue, interview, etc.). Plus, the given grade depends on the scorer – his/her attitude to the learner, learner’s accent, handwriting, clothes, and behavior, also the opinions about what is a good and a bad answer.

When assessing learners’ performance (written or oral), a teacher can reflect his/her personal attitude toward students’ appearance, behavior, handwriting, voice, intonation, etc. Objective assessment allows to examine a large number of students simultaneously on their knowledge of the material in a single instrument, which is comparatively easy to administer, score, and summarize. The difficulty of an objective test occurs at the beginning stages of development and implementation. The selection of content items and development of an objective test may take considerable effort and time. After they are developed, the time needed to conduct and score objective tests is considerably minimized compared to other measures.

However, many critics state that objective assessment “rarely operates beyond levels of simple recall or recognition” (Palomba & Banta, 2014, p. 114), and they may not examine higher order thinking skills. In addition, some tests may contain questions focused on a very general level of information, which is usually not useful for the improvement of teaching and learning.

To increase the level of objectivity of the subjective type of assessment, it is important to use assessment rubrics. In addition, making up the subjective test questions take comparatively less time, but scoring and evaluation needs more time and energy, and consequently, is more expensive (Driscoll & Wood, 2007, p. 76).

Table 2. Comparison of objective and subjective forms of assessment.

Assessment	Advantages	Disadvantages
Objective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The level of fairness is comparatively high. • Conduction and scoring is time-saving. • Anxiety level is low. • There is a possibility to be conducted via computer. • Its scoring can be done via computer. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It can be mechanical. • There is higher possibility of guessing. • It does not assess students’ creativity, logical or analytical thinking, productive and communicative skills. • Development is time-consuming and needs special knowledge.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It requires higher qualification to develop.
Subjective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is comparatively easy to develop. • It can assess students' creativity, logical or analytical thinking, and communicative skills. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is comparatively less fair. • Assessment of work is time-consuming. • It requires special qualification of assessor. • Stress and anxiety can be an issue.

Driscoll & Wood (2007, p. 76) claim that the terms "objective assessment" and "subjective assessment" cannot be judged according to their names. The objective assessment is not necessarily of higher objectivity, and the subjective assessment does not always involve subjectivity. For example, if learners' speaking skills are evaluated with the help of multiple-choice questions, the outcome of assessment might fail because of subjectivity of the tool used in this situation. So it is possible to say that objectivity is the right assessment tool, applied to assess students' particular ability skill, knowledge, etc.

Formative and Summative Assessment

According to the purpose and uses, assessment is mainly used either to help students while they are learning (formative assessment) or to find out what they have learned (summative assessment) at a particular time. The same tasks can be used for the summative or formative needs, although some tasks are more useful for one or the other. The main difference is just how the information gathered is used.

Tests and examinations are a very effective way for measuring and assessing learners' progress and they are an essential part of schools' successful functioning. The majority of scholars believe that no assessment system exists without two main types of assessment – formative and summative.

Formative Assessment

Despite the fact that teachers over the world implement formative assessment quite actively in their teaching process, it is still difficult to find it practiced intensively. OECD (2005) found out that even though formative assessment is widely used as a framework for teaching, teachers tend to interpret the ways in which they deal with students, set up learning situations and guide students toward learning goals as well as the ways they define student success.

Formative assessment is used in class to assist learning and it is known as “assessment for learning”. It has been shown to be highly effective in raising the level of student attainment, increasing the equity of student outcomes, and improving students’ ability to learn. The achievement gains associated with formative assessment have been described as among the largest ever reported for educational interventions.

Formative assessment is “formal and informal processes teachers and students use to gather evidence for the purpose of improving learning” (Chappuis, 2014, p. 5). So formative assessment is a good opportunity for teachers to find the best way of teaching, and improve/adjust teaching during the course/semester/year for students’ benefits. For students, formative assessments are the chance to improve/change the way of learning to receive better results in the end.

Formative assessment also improves equity of student outcomes. Schools which use formative assessment show not only general gains in academic achievement, but also particularly high gains for previously underachieving students. Attendance and retention of learning are also improved, as well as the quality of students’ work”, points out (OECD, 2005, p. 2).

Formative assessment can be used in various ways and different forms, but it consists of any action undertaken by teachers to help students answering the three important questions:

- What is the purpose of study?
- What do they know now?
- How can they reach this goal?

Students use interaction with teachers (in the form of feedback, quiz results’ analysis, oral/written comments, etc.), to improve the learning success, for self-assessment and to set new goals. The teacher’s role in this assessment environment is the one of a supporter rather than judging learning.

According to Wiliam (2011), there are 5 key elements in formative assessment:

1. **Sharing Criteria with Learners**, which is essential for students to know the exact assessment criteria to improve their performance. Criteria, consequently, play the role of guide through the learning process. The information gathered through this process can be used by teachers for finding an appropriate grading system or for avoiding misunderstandings dealing with how students think they should perform.
2. **Classroom Questioning and Discussions** are the way of formative assessment which is used in nearly every kind of teaching intuitively.
3. **Feedback**: it is essential to get appropriate two-way feedback from student to teacher and from teacher to student, to improve the outcome during learning process. Feedback is information which helps to answer the question how a student can close the gap between the actual level and the level that should be reached at the end of a course. Obviously this kind of information transfers first of all occurs from teachers to students.

4. **Student Peer- and Self-Assessment:** when students have an opportunity to assess each other or themselves they feel more confident and secure. Where sufficient self- and peer-assessments are included, it is obvious that people are much better in identifying problems on their own.
5. **Self-Activation of Learning** is an important element of formative assessment which provides students' continuous active participation in discussions and working in groups to benefit each other's learning.

The greatest advantage of formative assessment is the fact that it "builds students' "learning to learn" skills by emphasizing the process of teaching and learning, and involving students as partners in that process. It also builds students' skills at peer-assessment and self-assessment, and helps them develop a range of effective learning strategies.

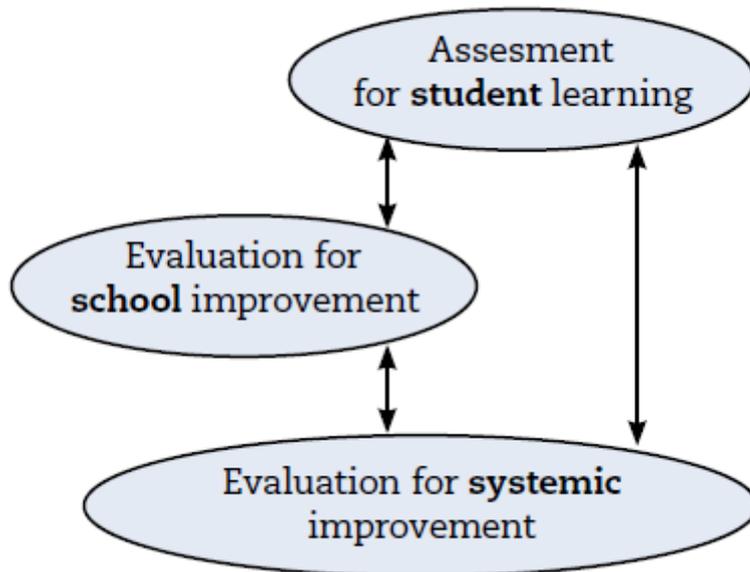
"Students who are actively building their understanding of new concepts (rather than merely absorbing information) and who are learning to judge the quality of their own and their peers' work against well-defined criteria are developing invaluable skills for lifelong learning" (OECD, 2005, p. 2), which means that formative assessment does not only merely evaluate learners' progress, but also prepares them for the future.

Similarly, Sewell, Frith and Colvin (2010, p. 2) believe in the effectiveness of formative assessment, claiming that it "entails sampling student learning and providing feedback to guide the learning process".

It is obvious that teachers and students have an advantage when they know their strengths and weaknesses to develop the outcomes of learning. However, there are some challenges of using formative assessment in education. Within the frame of professional development, teachers need to be given a special training to apply formative assessment in education in the right way and to manipulate with its results. It can completely change the teaching style and may cause an increase of demands from teachers.

On the other hand, some researchers (Baird, 2011) believe that for students formative assessment may lead to a decrease in the degree of autonomy, transform the lessons from student-centered to teacher-centered, and cause the development of feeling of being continuously assessed, that negatively influences students' motivation. Besides, students may not take formative assessment seriously, as they are normally / often not graded for it. In this case, assessment may not serve its goals and cause wasting time. Today formative assessments are often part of the grading system, which stimulates students to study regularly.

Figure 1: Coordinating Assessment and Evaluation



Source: OECD, 2005, p. 4.

Summative Assessment

It is used to summarize and report what has been learned at the end of a particular time, and for this reason is often called 'assessment of learning'. So it is a periodic evaluation of students at the end of lessons, projects, and/or course to evaluate the learning achievement. Summative assessments are graded and reflected in the final course grade. Examples of summative assessments include papers, quizzes, tests, and synthesis projects" (Sewell et al., 2010). For this reason, summative assessment plays an important role in the learning and teaching process. Summative and formative assessment formats are similar to each other but the purposes and the ways the assessment data are used are different.

When teachers aim to analyze learners' achievement shown in papers or projects, grading rubrics can be effective ways for to communicate criteria to learners and facilitate the instructor in giving them fair and timely feedback. Sewell et al (2010) point out that rubrics demonstrate the expectations of teachers towards learners. Rubrics do not only provide with an effective assessment, but they also specify the level of performance required for achieving learning goals.

Harlen (2007, p. 54) states that summative assessment is used to summarize and show what has been learned at the end of a particular period of time, and that is why it is called 'assessment of learning'. Simply put, it is a periodic evaluation of

learners and is commonly used as a part of the grading process. For this reason, summative assessment plays a vital role in education.

Despite a great similarity between summative and formative assessments, their purposes and assessment data are quite different. The main goal of summative assessment is to check the completion of projects, classes, units/chapters, courses, semester, etc. Usually, the users of summative assessment results are learners, teachers, parents, and future schools, colleges, universities or employers (Harlen, 2007, p. 54).

The summative assessment data can be gathered with a variety of tools and sources, including written tests, oral examinations, presentations, portfolios, etc. The most important part of the process is a precise gathering of the information about performance, in relation to all relevant understanding and knowledge. Otherwise the final report about learners' progress (as well as teachers', schools', colleges', etc.) will not provide trustworthy data about the achievement of the learning goal. The summative assessment data is interpreted by comparison with criteria related to overall goals and expectations. The performance is mainly scored, marked and evaluated by the teacher or by someone external (as in centralized national examinations), but in some very informal cases learners can take part in assessment process. To provide the fairness of the summative assessment, all learners are judged by the same criteria or rubrics (Harlen, 2007).

Harlen (2007) distinguishes between six main key factors of summative assessment, such as:

1. **Exam:** Students are required to perform special tasks or tests, which are a part of/additional to regular work/curriculum.
2. **Certain Time and Place:** Assessment is conducted at certain times and place according to progress plan/curriculum /syllabus, usually the same for all participants or certain time for each participant.
3. **Broad Goals:** Assessment relates to the achievement of goals expressed in general terms rather than the goals of one particular learning activity (as in formative assessment).
4. **The Same Assessment Standards:** Students' achievements are judged by the same criteria or mark scheme (rubrics). Participants are usually informed about what is considered as important/necessary to perform during the exam. It is good if they are also given samples of dissatisfactory, average and good performance.
5. **Reliability Requirements:** Assessment requires special measures to provide reliability. It concerns the form, amount of material/content, time, place, participants, proctors, etc. in assessment procedure.
6. **Limited Student Peer- and Self-Assessment:** Students sometimes have opportunity to assess their own works and performance (Harlen, 2007).

Both practices and a variety of theories developed by scholars show that both types of assessment - formative and summative ones - are important in education, since together they promote better teaching and learning. Moreover, while

formative assessment is essential, summative assessments enables to gather the data about administrative decisions including placement, selection and certification.

Assessment in English as a Foreign Language

The main issue nowadays in education is to improve the quality of English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching and to enhance learning in different educational institutions in order to prepare the students for "real world to face the increasing complexity and take part in the development process in a century characterized with an acceleration technological sophistication, information and communication resolution and globalism" (Yaseen, 2013, p. 111)

In order to meet these important goals, the effective EFL teaching-learning methodology should be taken into consideration by constant professional development of schools and teachers, especially in the field of learners' achievements and performance assessment (Braun et. al., 2006, p. 10).

There are many roles which assessment plays in EFL education and each type of assessment serves several roles. One of the ways to describe assessment instruments is categorizing assessment according to the main goals and functions which are for both administrative and instructional, or just research purposes (Cohen, 2001, p. 522).

From learners' perspective, three main roles for assessment can be identified: "Choose, learn, and qualify" (Braun et al., 2006, p. 10). Assessment results can help with choosing a university, college to study or a course program.

According to Entwistle (2009, p. 145), assessment "...affects the direction learning takes (towards understanding or reproduction), while the effectiveness of the feedback determines how much the learning strategy can be improved in the future. But assessment and feedback are just two of the influences on the quality of learning within a learning environment; other influences also have to be taken into account in planning a learning environment that will evoke and support deep approaches to learning..."

As Brown (2002, p. 12) suggests, the significance of assessment is in the necessity to improve education. Analyzing assessment data precisely and doing the research about its outcomes results in understanding of different variables. It has an impact on the learning process as well as assessment itself. For example, researchers for their research carry out an assessment before the experiment in order to assess the dependent variable, then measure the results of the same group during and after the experiment and compare the results (Brown, 2002, p. 12).

Likewise, Rowntree (1987, p. 1) believes that assessment is one of the most important areas of any educational system. It shows what is important for learners: the ways they spend their academic time and value themselves. He claims that "if we wish to discover the truth about an educational system, we must look into its assessment procedures". Besides that, assessment is important because learners are not able to avoid it, as Boud (1995, p. 35) suggests: "Students can, with

difficulty, escape from the effects of poor teaching, they cannot (by definition if they want to graduate) escape the effects of poor assessment".

Rowntree (1987, p. 1) further argues that assessment procedures provide answers to the following questions: "What student qualities and achievements are actively valued and rewarded by the system? How are its purposes and intentions realized? To what extent are the hopes and ideals, aims and objectives professed by the system ever truly perceived, valued and striven for by those who make their way within it?"

According to Scanlan (2003), teachers and curriculum/course designers, carefully constructed learner assessment techniques result in determining if the stated goals are being achieved or not. Classroom assessment results in helping teachers answer the following specific questions:

To what extent are my students achieving the stated goals?

How should I allocate class time for the current topic?

Can I teach this topic in a more efficient or effective way?

What parts of this course/unit are my students finding most valuable?

How will I change this course/unit the next time I teach it?

Which grades do I assign my students?

Meanwhile, for students, learner assessment answers the following questions:

Do I know what my instructor thinks is most important?

Am I mastering the course content?

How can I improve the way I study in this course?

What grade am I earning in this course?

Another important question on assessment is: which principles provide the most essential, fundamental "structure" of assessment knowledge and skills that result in effective educational practices and improved student learning? McMillan (2000, p. 1) identifies the following principles:

1. Assessment is inherently a process of professional judgment;
2. Assessment is based on separate but related principles of measurement evidence and evaluation;
3. Assessment decision-making is influenced by a series of tensions;
4. Assessment influences student motivation and learning;
5. Assessment contains error;
6. Good assessment enhances instruction;
7. Good assessment is valid;

8. Good assessment is fair and ethical;
9. Good assessments use multiple methods;
10. Good assessment is efficient and feasible;
11. Good assessment appropriately incorporates technology.

“The most significant tension in assessment seems to lie between assessment for the purpose of providing feedback and helping students to learn, and assessment for the purpose of establishing level of achievement. Forms of assessment that are best suited to helping the learning process, may well be seen to be unreliable when it comes to judging of summative achievement. It is often the latter which influences the choice of assessment practice, often to the detriment of supporting student learning and engendering an instrumental focus on assessment on the part of students’, believes (McCulloch, 2007, p. 4).

Prineas & Cini (2011, p. 9) continue McCulloch (2007, p. 2) ideas, pointing out that “assessment and feedback alternate in frequent cycles as the student progresses through each stage of the curriculum. Time to completion becomes fluid. Students begin with differing sets of prior knowledge, progress at different rates, and master the course curriculum within different time frames. Clearly and precisely defined learning outcomes—absolutely crucial for this instructional methodology—must adequately define the criteria of mastery toward which students are working. Of equal importance are the precise definition and accurate alignment of incremental learning objectives that delineate the intermediate stages in the pathway toward mastery”.

Technology and Language Learning

Technology has become an in dissociable part of today’s world and a very important invention of the 21st century. Technology has a variety of definitions. Generally we can identify it as the branch of knowledge that deals with the creation and use of technical means and their interrelation with life, society, and the environment, drawing upon such subjects as industrial arts, engineering, applied science, and pure science. Nowadays, it is almost impossible to live without using technology. Because recent conditions require to use technology, when some people do not want to use technology, it seems infeasible. For instance, mobile phones are the remarkable sample for it. Just about ten years ago nobody could have imagined that phones and tablets would be able to act as standalone computers and, moreover, that it would be possible to use them in EFL classrooms.

Education Technology is defined as “the study and ethical practice of facilitating learning and improving performance by creating, using and managing appropriate technological processes and resources” (Richey, 2008, p. 24). Improving education quality is a priority for most developing countries in which governments are facing a challenge to identify efficient ways to use their scarce resources and raise the quality of education.

One of the most dramatic changes in education for the past century has been the increase in the number of students, whose first language is not English. "Since 1990-1991 years, EFL population has grown by 105%, compared to 12% growth among the general population" (Kindler, 2002, p. 3). Today these numbers have tendency to grow even further. Such growth among English language learners means a lot to teachers. "The digital age challenges teachers to use technology in ways that facilitate language learning" (Morgan, 2008, p. 1). Therefore, EFL teachers must achieve something called "bit literacy", or "technology literacy" in other words. It would allow them to reclaim their classroom from any technology that interferes with English Language Teaching. The reason why it is effective is because EFL students are empowered when teachers harness new technology in ways that promote language learning.

"Studies indicate that technology can accelerate, enrich, and deepen basic skills; motivate and engage student learning; helps relate academics to the practices of today's workforce; strengthens teaching; increase the economic viability of tomorrow's workers; contributes to school change; and connects schools to the real world" (Schacter, 1999, p. 7) .

The Prevalence of Technology in the Classroom

As it has already been stated, technology is a crucial part of modern students and, therefore, teachers in EFL classrooms should not ignore it. Learners have become so used to incorporating technology into daily activities that they have become skilled at "media multitasking" (using more than one medium at once), and in the actually use a total of 10 hours and 45 minutes worth of media entertainment within a compressed period of 7 hours and 38 minutes a day (Rideout, Foehr & Roberts, 2010, p.1).

Computers and the internet create new opportunities for teaching and learning. As Hew & Brush, (2007, p. 228) stated, computers and Internet technologies can help students improve their scores on standardized tests (Bain & Ross, 1999), and improve students' self-concept and motivation (Sivin-Kachala & Bialo, 2000, p. 6).

Sinclair (2009) studied the link between teacher classroom practices and student academic performance. He conducted a study observing the "One Computer Per Child" program in South Africa, which concluded that using technology in English classrooms can increase the overall academic performance for students, regardless of socio-economic status, age, or race. When properly utilized, technology can increase student achievement levels, increase family involvement in the learning process, and improve teachers' competency and effective utilization of technology (Sinclair, 2009, p. 47).

On the other hand, implementing technology in classroom environment can also turn out to be a disappointing failure. To avoid this, teachers should not let the novelty of technology replace its real purpose in classroom. Therefore, school administrators and teachers must integrate the technology in a way so that it goes with the culture of the institution, rather than against it. Teachers should plan through certain strategies and behaviors they need to use in order to rise students' interest and class performance.

The first question any teacher should ask him/herself is why is it so important to apply technology for her/his particular subject. The answer is obvious – because incorporating technology into subject classroom boosts students' engagement in subject. For instance, computers allow students to learn through exploring the World Wide Web and doing research. "The act of looking the information up and researching papers with such an extensive resource can keep students engaged in a project and learning far longer that they would with a set of encyclopedias" (Hermitt, 2009). As well as that, those students who do not have computers at home can do their research in class, which is also an advantage of using technology in EFL classrooms. The disadvantage in this situation, however, would be that not all students might use the computer in order to engage in classroom activities: "Some students will explore beyond the bounds and parameters of the project and become distracted by other activities that they find on the internet" (Hermitt, 2009).

One of other advantages would be that teachers will stay trained up-to-date on the newest technology which will keep them up-to-date with the ways to keep their students engaged in classroom instruction. The disadvantage, however, is that "training to use computers in the classroom can be costly and time-consuming. Many teachers are unwilling to participate in the extra trainings" (Hermitt, 2009).

As well as that, technology presents the opportunity to employ powerful cognitive tools that can be used by students to solve complex and authentic problems. "Learners will have some control over the study process, which provides students with a sense of ownership of the learning process, which significantly improves learning. This sense of ownership increases motivation and enables students to take a more active role in their own learning" (Dror, 2008, p. 220). The level of control that should be allotted to students can vary greatly, depending on age and subject matter, therefore, teachers should be highly careful when choosing this or that tool to be implemented in their classrooms.

"When various technology programs are considered for incorporation in curriculum, the programs should be evaluated based on the aforementioned criteria to ensure that the best learning environment is created, which is conducive to proper utilization of the technology and maximum realization of potential learning" (Herrington & Kervin, 2007, p. 220). Therefore, although there are certain disadvantages concerning the topic of implementing technology in students' school routine, it is obvious that negative effects are insignificant in comparison with positive ones.

Using Technology to Assess Students' Achievement

Technology tools provide immediate and comprehensive feedback for students and teachers, flexible testing environment: in class or at home, they significantly reduce grading time. The importance of implementing technological tools in EFL classrooms, as well as the main disadvantages concerning the topic, have been discussed above, in previous topic. It is doubtless that certain tools are highly important for assessment and must be implemented in order to help students engage in classroom activities. The question which tools are suggested for this purpose will be discussed below.

There are many types of online formative assessment tools which allow to use multitudes of formative assessment tools, such as gaming, video, slideshow, drawing, painting, individual white-boarding, think-pair-share, constructive quizzes, kinesthetic assessments, etc.

The list of the main technological tools to be used in EFL classrooms:

- Smart boards
- Computers
- Software programs, such as:
 - Kahoot
 - Socrative
 - Plickers

Smart boards are not a new device and are already actively used in classrooms. For students, the most exciting feature of it is that it is completely touch-screen. Together with web-based or other resources, smart boards can make the lesson activity more desirable for students. Some of the activities that are possible using smart boards are: showing video clips to help understand certain concepts, creating digital flip charts, presenting power point presentations to the class or simply answering multiple choice questions. These and many other activities can make the lesson much more interesting for modern students.

Computers can be used for varieties of different purposes, depending on the task needed in the lesson. Mainly computers are used to interact with several well-known software programs, such as Word, Excel, or simply to do research using the Internet. In the EFL classroom, it would be very efficient to use computers or laptops to type compositions or essays, since mostly modern students prefer to type their homework, rather than to write it by hand.

Software programs:

Kahoot is an online web application that teachers can use to create a series of multiple-choice questions, which can then be played by their students using a tablet, smartphone, or computer. Kahoot is an interactive and creative tool used to quiz students' knowledge and understanding. One of the main advantages of Kahoot is that it can be used for any subject, level and age. Additionally, it is possible to embed an image or video to the quiz question. Questions can be projected on screen, in front of a classroom and answered immediately and simultaneously by students using any array of computers or mobile devices. Students will gain the more points the quicker they answer the questions. Teachers can easily create their own quizzes and games with Kahoot, or they can choose from a large library of Kahoot designed and shared by other teachers.

Socrative is an interactive, quick-response application used for making interesting and engaging games, quizzes, tests and exit tickets for classes. The application is easy-to-use and allows educators to monitor the students' progress closely. Socrative will instantly grade, aggregate and provide visuals of results to help teachers identify opportunities for further instruction.

Plickers is a powerfully simple tool that lets teachers collect real-time formative assessment data without the need for student devices and to create a page for each student. This tool will code in the student's name and answers. Educator should hand each student their Plickers card and ask a question. The student will hold the card up in the direction of their answer. Looking at the class through the camera on teachers' smartphone inside the Plickers app, it is possible to see the name of each student and whether he or she got the answer right to the question that was asked. The app is very useful for immediate grading and also can help decrease test or quiz anxiety if any is present (Foundation, 2015).

Good teachers in every subject will adjust their teaching based upon what students know at each point. Effective formative assessment removes the embarrassment of public hand raising and gives teachers feedback that impacts how they are teaching at that moment. Therefore, implementing the above mentioned tools will only rise students' engagement in classroom activities.

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EFFECTIVE STRATEGIES FOR RAISING WRITING COMPETENCE OF HIGH SCHOOL LEARNERS

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Abstract

The study deals with analyzing different strategies, which are helpful for students to become more competent in writing. The paper presents findings and conclusions based on literature review concerning the issue. The aim of the study is to inquire the existing problems concerning learners' proficiency in writing and to find possible ways to solve them. Based on the research to be conducted, several recommendations and conclusions will be drawn which can be helpful for teachers and students in order to make the language learning process more productive and to develop high school learners' writing competence.

Keywords: writing strategy, writing anxiety, writing proficiency, writing process, writing approaches, pre writing strategies.

Introduction

Writing is a fundamental skill that facilitates communication among individuals. In formal education writing is employed as a form of communication which demonstrates knowledge and creativity. Over time, the ability of writing effectively becomes increasingly important. Writing is also claimed to play an important role in intellectual development and career preparation (Gere, 1985). Accordingly, educators should equip learners with necessary skills and relevant strategies to succeed throughout their educational and professional experiences.

Researchers in the field of foreign language instruction, such as Field (2008) and Van Patten and Williams (2007), recognize the need for new teaching methods to meet the demands of a changing society and searched for the most effective methods of helping learners in the acquisition and use of a foreign language. According to Brown (2007), there was an absence of methods used in the first half of the 20th century because those methods were too narrow to apply to a wide range of learners in a variety of situations. The need to discover new, more effective methods is of particular significance in many schools because of requirements that students should demonstrate foreign language proficiency on assessments.

Learning writing is not a simple process. It is not just a natural expansion of spoken language. Accordingly, being able to speak a foreign language does not necessarily entail an ability to write well. Even native speakers find writing difficult. It is hard to transform thoughts into a written language. A person starts to speak a native language at home, without systematic instruction, whereas most people are taught in school how to write in that same language.

As mentioned above, writing is important as well as extremely difficult. This skill, together with other skills, is required to be mastered in order to pass exams, communicate and so on. The learners need this skill to be developed, however, they cannot do it alone as writing is a very complicated process. Thus, it is essential for educators to equip students with the necessary writing skills and strategies to succeed in their educational and professional experience.

The following study aims to discover effective methods to help students meet the foreign language proficiencies required of them.

Literature review on writing strategies

In the following section main features forming a good piece of writing will be discussed. They are of great importance. They have to be taken into account by both learners and teachers to reach a high proficiency in writing. This is why the following chapter is dedicated to inquiring the most effective strategies which help learners meet writing challenges.

Writing is a difficult skill to learn as it involves several factors, all of which should be fully mastered to meet the challenges involved in the process of fulfilling a writing task. There are many skills which novice writers need to learn. This includes handwriting, spelling, punctuation and so on.

There is no exact answer to the question of how to teach writing in English-as-a-foreign-language classes. There can be as many answers as there are teachers, teaching styles, methods and learning styles.

Strategies of teaching as well as learning writing depend on the writing genre. Certain genres have certain prescribed rules. Successful communication in writing depends on knowing these rules. Successful writers should know the differences between the accepted norms for writing emails, reports or essays. Also, every piece of writing, in spite of its genre, has to be coherent and cohesive (Biber et al, 1999).

According to De la Paz (1999), a list of components necessary for producing a good written product is given below:

- Syntax which involves sentence structure, sentence boundaries, stylistic choice and so on.
- Grammar involving rules of using grammatical structures, articles, pronouns and so on.
- Organization - paragraphs, supporting arguments, topic sentences, cohesion and unity
- Word choice - vocabulary, idioms, tone of writing.
- Content - relevance, clarity, originality, logic.

- Writing process which deals with getting ideas, getting started, writing drafts, revising.
- Purpose: the reason for writing
- Audience: the readers
- Mechanics: handwriting, spelling, punctuation

All of the given features should be mastered to achieve a high proficiency of writing. However, each of the features needs sufficient knowledge and strategies to be learned, particularly, at a higher level of studying a language. For high school students mastering all those features is extremely important as they are expected to show competency at graduation and, possibly, admission exams and produce a good writing product.

There are several approaches and strategies to master writing. Different researchers give priorities to different strategies. According to De la Paz (1999), strategies used in controlled writing are highly useful at all levels of teaching composition / essay writing. Teachers help learners as they go along, correcting grammar, supplying idioms, and suggesting useful words. This approach involves a strategy which can be called sequential teaching of writing. Students are first given sentence-based tasks like combining sentences or using certain grammatical forms; or manipulating paragraphs grammatically, for example, putting the whole paragraph in different tenses. As the students are already familiar with grammatical constructions, there is a little chance for them to make errors. After reaching a sufficient level of proficiency, students are asked to write free compositions. It happens mainly in high schools or even later. Using this strategy develops accuracy more than fluency of the piece of writing (De la Paz, 1999).

Another strategy which De la Paz (1999) favors is free writing strategy. It is mainly for high school learners who have already had practice of writing. In this case, the strategy is focused on the quantity of writing rather than quality. That is giving to students a vast amount of free writing on a certain topic with minimal correction of errors. The emphasis in this approach is that intermediate-level students should emphasize content and fluency and not worry about the form. The followers of this strategy believe that once the ideas are put down on the paper, grammatical accuracy, organization and others will gradually be developed. Teachers following this strategy encourage students to write as much as possible about free topics, without worrying about grammar or spelling mistakes. Teachers do not thoroughly correct the errors. They either comment or just read the ideas, or suggest other arguments to make further writing even better.

One more strategy recommended by De la Paz (1999) stresses paragraph organization. Students imitate model paragraphs or passages given by the teacher. Different students write differently according to their cultural background; each language has a specific organization of paragraphs which may not coincide with the target language to be learnt. Thus, creating or choosing a topic sentence and developing arguments on the basis of the model paragraph can be extremely helpful for learners, especially, for high school students who have experience of composing a piece of writing in their native language. However, even if a person is good at solving writing challenges in their native language, they still need a model from which they can copy a base of their writing.

Another strategy favored by researchers (De la Paz, 1999; Brown, 2001) is oriented on the process of writing. It is also called a process approach (De la Paz, 1999). A process approach focuses not on the outcome, but on the process leading to successful writing. A major question is how to write and how to get started. Sometimes students are not confident about writing, but they have to realize that first words or sentences are just drafts and not the finished product. It can be modified and expanded in the process. Teachers who follow this strategy encourage learners to understand that their first words which they put on paper cannot be perfect. A student who is given appropriate feedback from peers or the teacher after pre-writing activities feels more confident to write new ideas using pre-writing strategies.

Strategies supporting writing process

There are procedures important for a successful fulfillment of the writing tasks. A writing process requires several skills including planning, generating content, organizing the composition, translating content into a written language, revising and utilizing self-regulation skills (Graham & Harris, 2000). These skills can be included in 3 processes: planning, translating and revising. They can also be divided into pre-writing, writing and post-writing strategies.

According to Flower and Hayes (1981), planning strategies are most important and good writers recognize the importance of pre-writing phase, viewing it as a rehearsal for a writing process. Planning is a pre-writing strategy which involves generating and organizing content (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Graham, 2006), while translating is the process of producing a text, which means putting our ideas on paper in a written form. As for revising, it implies such terms as critical analysis and detection and diagnosis of text problems (Hayes, 2006). Pre-writing techniques give students the opportunity to use all their linguistic skills to help them explore and get started with their ideas on a given topic, or allow the topic for a piece of writing to emerge out of communication classroom activities.

- Brainstorming is one of the varieties of pre-writing strategies very helpful for learners. It lets students work together and say about the topic as much as they can. The teachers do not have to monitor grammar or pronunciation except the case when the speaker is misunderstood or not understood at all by other learners. However, teacher can be the source of information whom students turn to as they search for a suitable or new word or phrase to express their ideas. Whatever the writing task is based on, it can be preceded by student talk, specifically, brainstorming, with students producing relevant vocabulary, making comments, asking questions and making associations as freely as they can in a limited period of time. According to Dyson (1995), writing is not merely an individual activity, but a process which requires social interaction.
- Interviews are also a very important pre-writing strategy. However, it can be more time-consuming than brainstorming. After being given a certain topic to write, students write a questionnaire. In the questionnaire they include what they want to know about the topic they have to write. They ask questions to the partners

and write the answers. In this way they get a lot of ideas and the received information can be crucially helpful for them to write a better essay or another piece of writing. (Graham, Harris & Mason, 2005).

According to Harmer (2007), teachers should encourage students to undergo the stages of re-drafting, re-planning, etc. In exam writing tasks students' ability to plan quickly and later read back what they have written in order to make necessary corrections is extremely important. Below are given some recommendations for strategies used in the writing process developed by Graham (2008), which are extremely helpful for high school teachers.

Students need practice in writing for multiple purposes. According to Graham and Perin (2007a), it can include writing descriptions, book reviews, letters and so on but should be done as many times as possible. Persuasive essays by older students however should contain counter-arguments and more sophisticated explanations and examples.

According to Graham (2006), a writing process cannot be fully monitored. However, one thing that can be done is to set up a "predictable writing routine where students are expected to plan, draft, revise, edit and share what they write" (Graham and Perin, 2007b, p 123). In this way teachers can monitor, guide and give recommendations to the students to form them as skilled writers. In this process, a student needs more direct assistance to apply the given processes effectively.

It is even better to teach students to use process strategies like planning, drafting, revising, and editing independently. The teacher has to teach students strategies directly to achieve the desired goal. This includes simple strategies, like semantic webbing, or more complex ones, like the integration of multiple strategies in complex writing tasks, such as writing a report (Harris et al, 2008).

Sentence construction skills are vital in writing. Graham and Perin (2007b) recommend teachers to teach them explicitly. Their basic approach to teaching such skills is to explain, model and provide a guided practice.

A variety of technological devices can be helpful in accomplishing writing tasks. Rogers and Graham (2008) consider using a computer while writing a great advantage as revisions can be made easily and typing provides an easier means of producing a text. However, they do not discuss the disadvantage of using computer word processing in which spelling mistakes are usually automatically corrected by computer and students do not pay much attention to developing spelling, which may create problems when conducting paper-based writing tasks.

To become a good writer, students need to acquire knowledge about the characteristics of good writing. According to Graham (2008, p 4), "one way to acquire knowledge about writing is through reading. Reading well-crafted literature provides a model that illustrates the characteristics of good writing." Different authors use different strategies and forms to express their feelings and ideas; they manipulate with sentences and words to speed or slow down the flow of the text, use different structures to sharpen reader's understanding.

For many students writing becomes something that they try to avoid or do not do it with pleasure. An important factor to foster students' "...interest in writing is to make sure their writing assignments serve a real or meaningful purpose" (Graham and Perin, 2007b, p. 123) for example, it is more motivating to write a letter to a real person.

Assessing students' writing should not be limited to teachers. The writing piece should be shared and first feedback provided by students and teachers should be positive and encouraging, peer work is very helpful as well. "Especially productive collaboration occurs when students help each other as they plan, draft, revise and/or publish their work" (Graham and Perin, 2007 (a) p.146) Students also can assess their own writing progress. This may be especially powerful if students assess their writing performance in relation to a self- or teacher-identified writing goal. They are more likely to apply a newly learned writing strategy if they identify where it can be used, set a goal to use it there and assess if their use of the strategy was effective (Harris, Graham, & Mason 2006).

Conclusion

As it was already discussed, most language learners at all levels believe that writing is one of the most difficult language skills to master. It is an essential language skill that is vital to academic success. Writing is a complex skill to master and it places multiple demands on writers. Mastering the writing process requires hard work, skill development and years of practice. Consequently, as writing skill is so hard to master, students need support and guidance from their teacher.

There is no one way to teach writing. There are many strategies to be used considering the genre, the purpose of writing and so on. There is no one universal strategy that fits every learner or is effective for every writing task All the strategies mentioned above, of course, may overlap in some cases. Both teachers and students should be flexible in using strategies, taking into account their needs and abilities. If the teacher wants to instruct students to be successful writers, he/she must teach them all components of writing. None of the stages should be neglected. It is also very important to monitor students' writing process. If the idea in some occasions is not clear, the students should be asked clarifying questions and be led to a deeper analysis of the concept or providing additional arguments. And if the final product does not meet the requirements, teachers need to re-teach all strategies and skills.

The suggested recommendations consider teachers and learners who have to choose relevant strategies which meet their needs. Students learning to write face multiple challenges. Most learners feel frustrated in the process of writing. This is why the above-mentioned strategies should be thoroughly studied and taught to students, so that they can choose the ones they prefer and make their writing more proficient. Besides, knowing and using relevant strategies give language learners a higher level of motivation and confidence. The above-given recommendations on strategies are truly relevant, however, they should be individually monitored by the teacher in the class and assess if they enhance progress in the class.

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THE IMPACT OF DIRECT AND INDIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE GRAMMATICAL ACCURACY OF IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' WRITING

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Abstract

This study strived to examine the effect of direct and indirect corrective feedback on Iranian intermediate English learners' writing skill. To this end, a group of 60 female Iranian EFL learners was randomly selected from the whole population of the lower intermediate learners in Safir Language Institute through running a standardized language placement test (OPT). Then the homogenized participants were randomly divided into two experimental groups and one control group each involving 20 participants. Before starting the treatment, the pretest was administered to all groups and the results revealed no significant difference among them. Treatment lasted for 12 sessions in which participants in the first experimental group received direct feedback related to grammar problems; however, the participants in the second experimental group were only provided with some codes regarding their errors and were asked to correct them by themselves. It should be mentioned that the control group did not receive any kind of feedback and the participants in this group only worked on the organization of the English paragraphs. After finishing the treatment, a post-test was run and pre-test and post-test scores of the three groups were compared through using dependent t-test. Results showed that the grammar accuracy of both experimental groups were significantly improved. Moreover, post-test scores of the three groups (Direct, Indirect and Control) were also compared through using One-way ANOVA. It was found that there is a significant difference among the groups. Comparing the mean scores of the three groups revealed the superiority of the indirect feedback group over the other groups on the post-test.

Keywords: Feedback, Direct Feedback, Indirect Feedback, Grammar Accuracy, Writing Skill

1. Introduction

Writing has always been regarded as an important skill contributing to students' language learning. Research on foreign and second language writing has mostly been based on why and how to respond to students' writing errors. Most EFL/ESL

writing teachers agree that responding to students' writing through teachers' corrective feedback is an essential part of any writing course and students need teachers' feedback on their written errors.

Providing corrective feedback on students' writing is one of the writing teachers' most difficult tasks. An important issue that has attracted much attention recently is how students and teachers become aware of the usefulness of written corrective feedback. The ways of correcting L2 students' writing has been in center of attention by many researchers and teachers. Several studies have investigated the effect of various types of teacher feedback on students writing skills. One of the basic strategies for providing written corrective feedback is "direct" corrective feedback which refers to supplying learners with the correct target language form when they make an error and the teacher provides the student with the correct form. Correcting the learners' writing errors in classroom context is not so much important for many teachers. However, some researchers have attempted to investigate whether certain kinds of corrective feedback might be more helpful than others and the results are contradictory. In the case of direct corrective feedback the teacher provides the student with the correct form. As Ferris (1995) notes, this can take a number of different forms - crossing out an unnecessary word, phrase, or morpheme, inserting a missing word or morpheme, and writing the correct form above or near to the erroneous form. Direct corrective feedback is beneficent since it provides learners with clear guidance about how to correct their errors. This is clearly useful if learners do not know what the correct form is (i.e. are not capable of self-correcting the error). Ferris and Roberts (2001) suggest direct corrective feedback is probably better than indirect corrective feedback with student writers of low or intermediate levels of proficiency.

However, a disadvantage is that it requires minimal processing on the part of the learner and thus, although it might help them to produce the correct form when they revise their writing, it may not contribute to long-term learning. However, a recent study by Sheen (2007) suggests that direct corrective feedback can be effective in promoting acquisition of specific grammatical features.

Indirect corrective feedback involves indicating that the student has made an error without actually correcting it. This can be done by underlining the errors or using cursors to show omissions in the student's text or by placing a cross in the margin next to the line containing the error. In practice, this involves deciding whether or not to show the exact position of the error.

Improving students' writing accuracy is an essential factor in effective writing. Effectiveness of a piece of writing will be determined in part by its accuracy. This is the reason why grammar correction has received so much attention in the recent decades. The proponents of grammar correction (e.g., Ferris, 2006; Lalande 1998) claim that using corrective feedback (CF) technique could significantly improve students' writing proficiency, whereas the some other scholars (e.g., Truscott, 1999, 2007) consider it as ineffective and even harmful. It is believed among teachers that if a teacher indicates a written grammatical error on a student's paper and provides the correct form in one or another way, the student will realize the error and will not repeat it in his or her future writings, thus the ability of writing accurately will be improved.

Hendrickson (1978) states, making errors is a necessary and natural process of language learning. Inevitably, learners' errors and feedback towards errors have been of great interest to language teachers and researchers. However, to date there has been little agreement on how teachers should react to the errors made by L2 learners (Kepner, 1991). In fact, researchers and educators have taken different position regarding teachers' feedback.

A group of researchers consider error correction as harmful, time consuming, and ineffective (Truscott, 2007, 2002), another group defined the use of error feedback and believe that correcting students' written errors would help them improve the quality and accuracy of their writing (Ferris, 2006).

Among the recent investigations there are limited numbers of studies that have brought about differing results. For example, Fathman and Wally (1990) stated that learners in two experimental groups who received error feedback showed significantly fewer grammatical errors on their revised drafts in comparison to those groups who only received content feedback or did not receive any feedback at all. In other investigations that have studied students' improvement in written accuracy over time, it has been usually found that learners who received feedback on their grammar errors had progress in their writing (Ferris, 2002). Rivers (1986) was of the opinion that that many writing problems in samples of advanced language learners' writing might be traced to a lack of the detailed and organized training during the previous phases of their language learning. She also asserts that to be helpful, organized training in writing needs systematic correction of individual writing samples. Baleghizadeh and Dadashi (2010) examined the impact of indirect feedback on improving EFL learners' spelling accuracy. The findings showed that in comparison to the direct feedback, using indirect feedback is more efficient in decreasing students' spelling errors.

Researches, moreover, address the impact of different types of feedback (Direct & Indirect) on the improvement of L2 learners' (Bitchener, 2003; Ferris 2002; Chandler, 2003). One of the ongoing debates in correcting students' essay is whether or not teachers should give students direct or indirect feedback on their errors.

Lalanade (1999) compared two groups: one with direct feedback and the other with indirect correct feedback for a 14 week semester. The result showed that indirect error feedback with student self-editing contributes to accuracy with more than direct error feedback.

Although some researches (Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2003) suggest that error correction helps language learning, some others (Truscott, 2004) claim that error correction does not help students to improve their written accuracy and it is even potentially harmful for student' writing ability. Truscott's claim has faced a great deal of criticism in different reviews (e.g., Chandler, 2003, Ferris 2002), but he has not withdrawn his case against grammar correction is, in general a bad idea until future research prove that there are particular cases in which it might not be a misguided activity (Truscott, 2007).

Results of a longitudinal study conducted by Lalande (1999) also demonstrated that indirect corrective feedback is more effective than direct correction group in improving the writing skills of the learners. On the other hand, Frantzen

(1995) found no significant difference between direct and indirect corrective feedback and both were similarly effective. A study done by Ferris (2006) showed the significant impact of indirect feedback on improving learners' accuracy in the subsequent writings.

The present study attempted to determine whether two different error feedback strategies (direct, indirect- coded) would yield different result for Iranian Intermediate learners of English regarding the number of errors they committed in their writing activities in class.

The investigations on corrective feedback have revealed that it is one of the most frequently used techniques in English writing classes. All in all, based on the currently available evidence over the issue of corrective feedback (See e.g., Ferris, 1995; 1997; 2006; Lalande, 1982) that feedback is effective in helping EFL students improve the accuracy of their writing, the present study attempted to determine if written direct or indirect corrective feedback affect the grammatical knowledge of the students.

Also it is thought that the more we learn about corrective feedback and its correlation to L2 grammar acquisition, the more we can be helpful for our learners. By exploring which type of corrective feedback, we hope to have better suggestions for teachers about how to provide corrective feedback to their students. Indeed, a great deal of studies has been done in order to assert the usefulness of corrective feedback or not. Some scholars like Truscott (1996, 1999) claimed that error correction alone is neutral and seems to be ineffective as well as harmful, either. Along with Truscott, Sheppard (1992) found that corrected students were no better than uncorrected students on accuracy of verb forms or on a measure of the complexity of their writing and were significantly weaker in accurately marking sentence boundaries.

It is also important to note that, in spite of additional awareness over the issue of error correction in L2 writing, recent researches have focused on the types of error correction which are more effective in treating different kinds of errors (Bitchener, 2008; Chandler, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). To Hyland and Hyland (2001), teacher error correction is focused on an important aspect, which is the summary comment at the end of student's assignment, whose functions serve as praises, criticisms, and suggestions. It "has largely been seen as informational, a means of channeling reactions and advice to facilitate improvements" (Hyland, 2001, p.186) and teacher's comments, as he states, "...go far beyond simple decisions to address form or content or to praise mechanics or criticize organization" (p. 208). After almost twenty years of research and exploring error correction and communicative language teaching, researchers are still asking the same five questions:

1. Should learners' errors be corrected?
2. When should learners' errors be corrected?
3. Which errors should be corrected?
4. How should errors be corrected?

5. Who should do the correcting? (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Even though we may still be a long way from answering these questions, we need to gain a better appreciation of what works in our research with learners in the hopes to inform teachers which type of corrective feedback may be useful to them. The purpose of this study was to find out which type of corrective feedback (direct or indirect) would help students in their EFL writing.

Based on what is mentioned, the present research was conducted to find out answers to the following questions:

Q1. Are direct and indirect corrective feedback techniques effective in improving the Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing accuracy?

Q2. Which technique has the greater impact on improving intermediate EFL learners' writing accuracy?

On the basis of above mentioned questions, the following hypotheses are formulated:

HO1. Direct and indirect corrective feedbacks are not effective in improving the Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing accuracy.

HO2. Both direct and indirect feedbacks have equal impact on improving the Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing accuracy.

2. Review of Literature

Literature on corrective feedback is enormous. Regarding writing, Raimes (1983) emphasized that writing helps students to learn because it reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms and vocabulary that are taught to them, provides chances for the learners to be adventurous and necessarily to become involved in the language and gain the effort to express ideas. She further indicates that the regular use of eye, hand, and brain is a unique way to reinforce writing. Leki (1990) on the other hand, views writing as an academic skill in which students develop strategies such as producing texts and preparing and polishing them for readers who are in academic setting. Effective academic writing emerges as a product of the combination of several skills.

Though second language writing is considered as a scale that ranges from a support skill on one end and to the more complex act of composing on the other, it takes a different aspect in the view of socio-linguists. Hamp-Lyons and Kroll who consider writing as "a social" act state that "writing is an act that takes place within a context, that accomplishes a particular purpose, and that is appropriately shaped for its intended audience" (1997, p.8, cited in Weigle, 2002) whereas Canagarajah (2002) strongly expresses his ideological position and the rationale for how writing becomes a social act, a mediated construct between reader, writer and the community. By "critical" Canagarajah, we mean the development of "an attitude and outlook that enables us to see some of the hidden components of text construction and the subtler ramifications of writing" (p.1). Canagarajah points out the "structuralist bias" of applied linguistics and

states that in ESOL (English Language for Speakers of Other Language) writing, much attention is paid to product oriented studies on linguistic and textual structures and process-oriented studies on cognitive strategies of text production. He further argues that conflicts experienced by multilingual writers have become a complex and rich resource for researchers on ESOL writing. He determinedly spells out the situation as “the poetics and politics of writing” (p.26).

The cultural aspects of writing have also been a controversial issue in second language writing. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) analyzed a large number of ESL essays and pointed out distinctive differences in the written discourse of students from different cultures, which he symbolized in clear diagrams. Though their original thesis has been subjected to a number of criticisms, it is now accepted as the idea of contrastive style which has been regaining respectability in the field of second language writing (Weigle, 2002). Weigle further says that it has now become clear to researchers that many aspects of writing are influenced by culture.

Although L2 writing is rhetorically, strategically, and linguistically different in many ways from L1 writing (Silva, 1993) much of the research on L2 writing has been closely dependent on L1 research. Hence, it is crucial to note how researchers view both L1 and L2 writing in the global context. An early view is that of Cumming (1989) who suggests that the relative proficiency of the writer in the target language is a source of difference in both L1 and L2 writing in the global context. Swale (1990) adds a further dimension and associates socio-cultural expectations as a source of difference. Silva (1993) however points out that even though there is evidence to suggest that L1 and L2 writing are similar in their broad outlines, closer examinations of L1 and L2 writing reveal outstanding and important differences drawn from the intuition of English as a second language (ESL) writers. Cope and Kalantzis (1993) and Pennycook (1996), on the other hand, identify the interaction between the writer’s L1 experiences and the meaning of literacy in the target language culture as sources of difference. Silva (1997) shows salient differences between L1 and L2 writing with regard to composing processes including reviewing, transcribing, and planning and features of written texts for instance quality, accuracy, fluency and structure. He further claims that if such differences exist, then to make intelligent decisions about adopting and / or adapting L1 practices, ESL writing practitioners need to have a clear understanding of the unique nature of L2 writing, of how and to what extent it differs from L1 writing.

To sum up, the tendency in research findings seems to have established evidence in support of corrective feedback, arguing that it can help students improve their accuracy in writing. However, the studies Ferris and Roberts (2001) found no significant difference between direct and indirect corrective feedback in that both helped students to improve accuracy in writing. Van Beuningen et al. (2012) also found that both direct and indirect corrective feedback were useful for improved accuracy but also argued that direct corrective feedback was better for improving overall accuracy than indirect corrective feedback.

There are also studies that found a significant effect in favour of direct corrective feedback on writing accuracy if combined with other feedback methods. For example, Bitchener et al. (2005) argued that direct corrective feedback had a more significant effect on students’ accuracy in writing when followed by one-to-one conferencing and Suzuki (2012)

claimed that direct corrective feedback could improve accuracy in writing if combined with languaging activities; that is, when students wrote a composition to explain why their forms were corrected. Chandler (2003) found that students believed that they benefited more from simple underlining than direct correction although the results showed that direct corrective feedback was more useful for improved accuracy. However, there are studies, such as Kepner (1991), which claimed that corrective feedback had no effect on accuracy in writing. That is, we may conclude that research on corrective feedback has resulted in conflicting findings.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

To fulfill the objective of this study, 60 female intermediate EFL learners with the age range of 18-30 studying in Safir Language Academy in Saveh, participated in this study. These participants were randomly selected from intermediate level classes and homogenized through QPT test from among 100 learners. Only those subjects who scored 24-30 (lower intermediate) of QPT test scores were included in this study. Then the homogenized participants were randomly divided into two experimental and one control group each containing 20 participants. It is worth mentioning that the randomization procedure was employed to guarantee maximum group homogeneity, however they were homogeneous in terms of age, proficiency level in English, type of institute attended by them, methodology used at institute, and number of hours devoted to the learning of English.

3.2. Instruments

The instruments used for data collection in this study included:

Two tests were employed in the present study. 1. The first test was Quick Placement Test (QPT) used to ascertain the homogeneity of the participants with regard to their English proficiency. 2. The second was a writing test package which included a pre-test' six topics for six sessions of treatment and post-test in order to measure the participants' achievement. 3. Error code used to perform indirect error correction 4. Criteria for scoring the writing tasks.

A) Quick Placement Test (QPT): To identify the proficiency level of the participants Quick Placement Test (QPT, version 1) was used. Quick Placement Test is a flexible test of English language proficiency developed by Oxford university press and Cambridge ESOL to give teachers a reliable and time-saving method of finding a students' level of English.

B) Writing task: As the study intended to find out the effects of direct and indirect corrective feedback on students writing, the participants were asked to write a piece of writing with the topics.

Pre-writing task

Two sessions prior to starting the treatment sessions, a narrative writing test including two topics as a pretest was given to all participants in order to be sure of their writing proficiency in use of the past tenses (simple, continuous, perfect) at the beginning of the study. The participants were asked to write a story in details about (120-150) words within a given time (20-30 minutes).

Post-writing task

Finally one session after receiving corrective feedback for the last writing task, the learners were given another writing test including three topics and asked to write a story in details about (120-150) words within a given time (20-30 minutes) as a post test. Then their writings were compared respectively.

C) Error code used to perform indirect error correction

D) Criteria for scoring the writing tasks

3.3. Data Collection Procedures

A group of sixty (60) female students who have been invited to participate in this study were homogenized through QPT Test. Then, the students were divided into three groups including 20 members. Two sessions prior to starting the treatment sessions, a narrative writing test including two topics as a pretest was given to all participants in order to be sure of their writing proficiency in use of the past tenses (simple, continuous, perfect) at the beginning of the study. The participants were asked to write one story in details about (120-150) words within a given time (20-30 minutes). Afterwards, over the next three weeks, all three groups completed six written narrative tasks in every other session, each of which followed by a corrective treatment session in the following class. The grammatical targets included these grammatical features: 1. The use of past tense (simple, continuous, perfect), 2. Paragraph organization for story narration. 3. Sentence structure 4. Punctuation 5. Preposition. The first experimental group received a direct corrective feedback on its writings (The target errors were corrected), and the second experimental group one was only given an indirect corrective feedback (The participants were provided with some codes showing their errors and were asked to self-correct and self-evaluate them). It is worth mentioning that the participants of this group had already learnt how the codes are used. Then the necessary explanations regarding the writing task were given to the students and it was noted that the participants should include information in appropriate paragraphs. It was also mentioned that the irrelevant pieces of writings would not do any help. There was also a control group which received no treatment, just narrative strategies (paragraph organization) were described. After assigning the writing task, the papers were collected and the direct and indirect feedback were given. The students had their papers back later on in order to check what they have done on their writings. Finally one session

after receiving feedback for the last writing task the learners were given another narrative test as a post test in order to check how direct and indirect feedback has affected their writings.

3.4. Piloting

To estimate the reliability of the test of General English Proficiency Test of QPT, pre-test and post-test, a pilot study was conducted. The test was administered to a similar group of twenty students. The reliability of the tests was estimated through the KR-21 formula which turned out to be 0.81. The participants' pieces of writing were evaluated and scored by two raters for assessing inter-rater reliability. To estimate the inter-rater reliability of the test, the correlation coefficient between the two raters were calculated. The content validity of the instruments was assured by a panel of experts and EFL teachers.

4. Results

In this section, the results are described through using frequency tables, central tendency and dispersion parameters.

4.2.1. English Learners Writing

Table 4.1 English Learners Statistical Characteristics in Pre and Post-test (n =60)

Variable	Pair	group	M	SD	Variance	Min	Max
English Learners' Writing	Pre-test	Exp1(Direct)	4.9	2.04	4.2	2	9
		Exp2(Indirect)	4.2	1.4	1.9	2	7
		Con	4.95	1.2	1.5	2	7
	Post-test	Exp1(Direct)	7.4	1.2	1.4	6	10
		Exp2(Indirect)	8.65	1.4	2.03	6	10
		Con	6.2	1.5	2.2	4	10

According to table 4.1, although post-test scores of the three groups have increased, the increase in group 2 (Indirect) is more than the other two groups.

In Table 1, the descriptive statistics (the mean scores and standard deviations) for the two experimental groups and the control group at two different testing times (pre-test and post-test) are shown. The mean scores of the learners on the post-test are different from each other across the three groups unlike the pre-test mean scores which are very close to each other. These obtained results indicate that after receiving the treatment of the study, the three groups showed dissimilar performances; therefore, our treatment had some effects on the improvement of the learners' accuracy

performance but not the same effect. The findings can be deduced from the following figure:

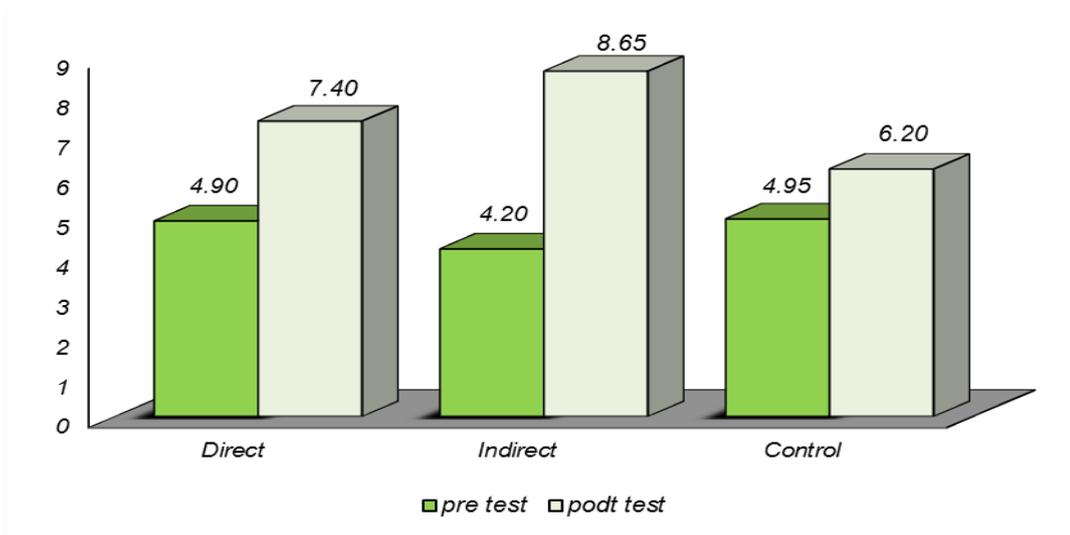


Figure 4- 1; Correct writing in three groups

In order to investigate the normality of the data, Kolmogorov- Smirov Test was applied which the results are shown in the table below:

Table 4. 2 Summary of One- Sample Kolmogorov-Smirov Test

Variable	Group	Pre-test		Pos-test	
		K-S	Sig	K-S	Sig
English Learners Writing	Direct	.66	.78	1.04	.23
	Indirect	.77	.6	1.02	.25
	Control	1.2	.12	1.02	.25

As shown in the above table (4.2), the significant (Sig) of each of the variable is greater than 0.05. So it can be claimed that the distribution of the variables in the study has taken place normally.

In this section and based on the nature of the variables, the hypotheses of the study are tested through appropriate statistical models. Firstly the homogeneity of the groups are analyzed through One- Way ANOVA in terms of English Learners Writing (Table 4. 3).

Homogeneity of variances in the three groups was investigated through Levine test ($F = 3.2$, $sig = .051$), Significant level of the test shows that the groups' variance is homogeneous.

Table 4.3 One Way Anova for Comparing Writing of the Three Groups in Pre-test

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	7.5	2	3.8		
Within Groups	143.1	57	2.5	1.5	.23
Total	150.6	59			

As seen in the above table, the significant level of the test is bigger than 0/05 ($F = 1.5$, $sig = 0.23$), so it can be claimed that the writing scores of English Learners in all three groups in pre-test is the same. In other words, English learners in all three groups are homogenous in terms of their writing skill.

Regarding answer research questions, following answer are provided:

Question 1: Are direct and indirect corrective feedback techniques effective in improving the Iranian intermediate EFL learner's writing accuracy?

To answer the above question, pre- test and post-test scores of the three groups were compared through using t-statistic:

Table 4.4 Results of t-test on Pre and Post-test Scores

Group	Pair 1, 2	Mean	Pair Diff	Std. De	df	t	Sig
Exp1(Direct)	Pre	4.95					
	Post	7.4	-2.45	1.5	19	7.3	.01
Exp2(Indirect)	Pre	4.2					
	Post	8.65	-4.45	2.1	19	9.4	.01
Control	Pre	4.95					
	Post	6.15	-1.20	1.6	19	3.4	.01

The results of the above table show that in all three groups, all the obtained t (4.3, 9.4, 3.4) are significant at 0.50. In the other words, there is significant difference between pre and post-test of the two groups (direct and indirect). It is worth mentioning that the post-test scores of the learners have significantly increased. Therefore, it can be concluded that direct and indirect corrective feedback has significant impact on students' correct writing in an intermediate level.

Question 2: Which technique has greater impact on improving intermediate EFL learners' writing accuracy?

To answer the second question, post-test scores of the three groups (Direct, Indirect and Control) were compared using One - Way Anova. Levine test confirms the homogeneity of variance in all the three groups ($F = .61$, $sig = 0.55$).

Table 4.5 ANOVA Test to Compare the Writing Skills of the Groups in Post Test

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	62.5	2	31.3	16.5	.01
Within Groups	107.9	57	1.9		
Total	170.4	59			

According to the above table (4.5), the obtained *F* is at significant level of .01 ($P=.01$, $F(2, 57) = 16.5$). To put it more correctly, there is a significant difference between post-test scores of the groups. Since the study includes three groups of subjects (Direct, Indirect and Control), Tukey's test is applied in order to clarify the differences among English Learners' Writing. The findings are summarized the in the table below.

Table 4.6 Tukey Test results to Compare the Correct Writing Skills of the Groups

Mean Difference			Variance
Control	Indirect	Group	
1.25*	-1.25*	Direct	English Learners Writing
2.5*	-	Indirect	
-	-	Control	

The results of the above table (4-6) show that there is significant difference between indirect group and the two Direct and Control ones. The comparison of the average of table 4-1 also shows that post-test scores in an indirect group was more than direct and control one. This means that learners' correct writing in an indirect group was more than the two direct and control ones. These results can be observed in the chart below:

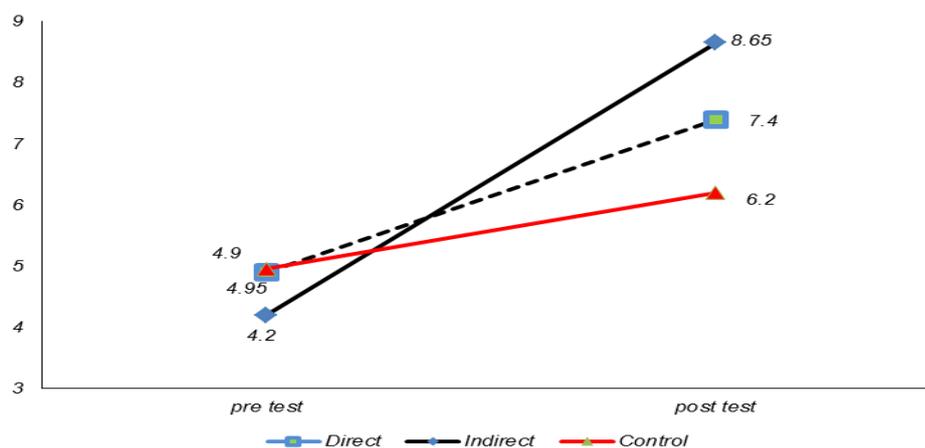


Figure 4 -2: Linear Diagram of the Correct Writing Skills among Separate Groups

5. Discussion

The first research question of the study is concerned whether direct and indirect effective in improving the intermediate EFL learners' accuracy? It was found that both experimental groups (Direct and indirect) showed better accuracy

performances on the post-test than the control group.

Concerning the general effects of written CF apart from its specific type, the results of this study corroborate those of recent studies on improving writing skill (Bitchener, 2008; Sheen, 2007; Sheen et al., 2009). In each of these studies, the effectiveness of written CF was evident immediately after it had been provided in the post-test pieces of writing. As the study reveals, all two treatment groups (Direct and indirect written CF groups) outperformed the control group in the post-test, the results of this study are in line with the study of Bitchener and Knoch (2010), Jodaie and Farokhi (2012) who found that L2 writers were able to make further gains in accuracy as a result of targeted written CF. In this respect, the findings of their study informed us that "there is potential for written CF to also be effective in targeting certain types"(p.215).

The second research question of the study investigated the differential effects of direct and indirect written corrective feedback on accurate use of past tenses by intermediate learners. The results showed that although both direct and indirect corrective feedback groups did better than the control group, indirect CF group outperformed both. Therefore, it can be concluded that first of all, providing written corrective feedback is an effective way for responding to intermediate learners' written performance in general, and secondly that indirect written CF has more positive effect on these learners' acquisition of the targeted structures than the indirect written CF.

Regarding the differential effects of different types of direct written CF, earlier studies of the effectiveness of different types of written CF (Chandler, 2003; Lalande, 1982) have produced essentially uncertain results on the relative advantage of direct and indirect CF. In contrast, Knoch and Bitchener (2010) revealed clear evidence of the greater effectiveness of direct forms of written CF when measured over time in delayed post-test. They reported that both types of direct written CF (written metalinguistic explanation and written meta-linguistic feedback with oral form-focused instruction) were considerably more effective in helping L2 writers retain the accuracy gains they had made in the immediate post-test piece of writing, but those who had received indirect written CF were unable to retain the gains they had made in the immediate post-test piece of writing. The superior long-term effect of providing L2 writers with meta-linguistic feedback was also reported by Sheen (2007) in her study of intermediate L2 writers. Sheen compared different types of direct feedback and found in her delayed post-test writing task that her L2 writers who received meta-linguistic explanation retained the gains they had made in their immediate post-test writing task, but that those who received direct error correction alone did not retain their level of performance. On the other hand, it is interesting to note that Bitchener and Knoch (2008, 2010), found no difference between writers who received different types of direct feedback. Thus, it is clear that further research is needed to clarify the relative effectiveness of all types of indirect and direct feedback when given to L2 writers of different proficiency levels. Therefore, due to questionable results of the previous studies comparing different types of direct written CF, the present study compared two specific types of direct written CF (direct and indirect) in intermediate proficiency level. In line with the results of Sheen, that focused CF was more effective than unfocused one. According to Sheen et al. (2009), one reason that unfocused CF was not effective is that when the correction addresses a

range of grammatical errors, learners are unable to process the feedback effectively, and even if they attend to the corrections, they are unable to work out why they have been corrected. Han (2002), has also argued that a consistent focus on one aspect of L2 use is one of the key conditions for recasts (as one type of CF) to have an effect on acquisition. Finally, Sheen et al. (2009, p. 567) has pointed out the probable reasons of differential effectiveness of focused and unfocused CF as follows: Focused CF may enhance learning by helping learners to (1) notice their errors in their written work, (2) engage in hypothesis testing in a systematic way and (3) monitor the accuracy of their writing by tapping into their existing explicit grammatical knowledge. In contrast, unfocused CF runs the risk of (1) providing CF in a confusing, inconsistent and unsystematic way and (2) overburdening learners.

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THE ROLE OF PERSON-CENTRIC EDUCATION IN DEVELOPING THE LEARNERS' HUMAN POTENTIAL

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Abstract

The 21st century is the century of challenges, competition and rapid development. The pace of life is accelerated more than ever. Education is a primary need in this era of globalization. Education not only gives insight, but also grooms the personality, sophisticates moral values, add knowledge and gives skill. One of the important tools for personal development is knowledge gained through education. Human potential is immense, there is education which can help learners discover and develop their innate potential and talent. The only means to reach the goal is effective person-centric education. Only education can awake the hidden potentials and transfer the mere human into the "high human being" by giving them healthy knowledge and creating them as healthy, sensible, reasonable human beings with intense and endless human recourses.

Keywords: Learning, Human potential, Motivation, Education

Introduction

"In this era of globalization and technological revolution, education is considered as a first step for every human activity. It plays a vital role in the development of human capital and is linked with an individual's well-being and opportunities for better living" (Azhar et al, 2013). One of the important tools for personal development is knowledge gained through education. Knowledge is power, and power is unfortunately something that is hard to come by these days" (Rowan, 2014).

The role and significance of education is as high and superior as the goal it serves. Only education can awake the Human potential. There is education which can help learners discover and develop their innate potential and talent. According to Abraham Herald Maslow (1970) "we tend to take for granted the blessings we already have, especially if we don't have to work or struggle for them". (22).

Making a person the center of the interest and tailoring the learning process accordingly becomes of a great importance nowadays. Learner-centered education, also known as person-centered education, broadly comprises those

methods of teaching that shift the focus of instruction from the teacher to the learner. This type of learning aims to develop learner's autonomy and independence. It emphasizes each student's interests, abilities, and learning styles, develops the skills for self-growth and for discovering the self-potential, placing the teacher as a facilitator.

Humanistic Education greatly concerns the approaches and paradigms of the person-centered education. This kind of education is an approach to education based on the work of humanistic psychologists, most notably Abraham Maslow (1970) and Carl Roger (1975). The basic concern of the humanistic theory is the:

- Human potential oriented for growth
- Personal freedom of choice
- Motivations and feelings

Problem statement / research questions

The challenges of our century put the questions of more attention toward the humans:

- Why is education so important in our life?
- Is education for everyone?
- What are the goals of education?
- How can one discover and develop his/her potential?

There are several important life factors to answer these questions:

- For a happy and stable life: Education is a must for a promising and secure future and a stable life. The more educated one is, the better career options he/she has!
- Makes a person self-dependent and confident: Education also makes one wiser so that he/she can make their own decisions. Education gives a person the confidence to express his/her views and opinions.
- Makes one well aware of his/her rights; he/she gains the awareness of the law and his/her responsibilities towards the society. Hence, education is an important factor which contributes to social harmony and peace.
- Society: Education helps a person to become an active member of the society and to participate in the ongoing changes and developments.
- Equality: Education is a must if the society wants to do away with the existing differences between different social classes and genders.
- Self-evaluation and skills of judgment: Education encompasses teaching and learning specific skills and also something less tangible, but more profound: the imparting of knowledge, good judgment and wisdom.

- Personal Development: It helps to develop one's perspective on the world around and pushes the person to think both creatively and conceptually about many different subjects (Rowan, 2014).
- Individual growth: Education helps people grow as individuals by opening their minds to many things that one has not been exposed to before. Education helps to build social problem solving, decision-making and creative thinking skills.
- Culture: Education has as one of its fundamental goals the imparting of culture from generation to generation. The important factors which have a great influence on a person's competent learning process are:
 - Parent-child relationship: Parents and families develop warm relationships that nurture their child's learning and development (Lerner & Castellino, 2002).
 - Teacher-learners relationship: Positive teacher-student relationships promote the development of students' learning skills and draw them into the process of acquiring knowledge and promote their desire to maintain their potential (Rimm-Kaufman, 2017)
- Social Factors: Society plays a significant role in education. The values, morals, and principles of a society will create an education system that upholds the same values, morals, and principles.
- Economic Factors: The social status also dictates the kind of education people can obtain. The cost of education can be correlated with the social system that is, as a person goes up the social classes, so is his/her capability to get education. In gist, one can get the best education if one can afford it.
- Peer relationships: Harmonious peer relationships provide the basis for developing social and emotional well-being and augmenting the learning process. How a person formulates self-concept, self-worth and self-efficiency more or less depends on the kind of peer relationship one has.

When the issues concern the human potential development, not only the person's own self, but also his/her attitudes towards others are to be taken into consideration:

- Cultural /ethnic factors: Education has this function of cultural transmission in all societies. Cultural tendencies impact the way children participate in education.
- Gender: The issue of gender inequality is one which has been publicly reverberating through society for decades. The problem of inequality in employment is being one of the most pressing issues today (Schoolworkhelper, 2017).

The humanistic approach places a great deal of emphasis on students' choice and motivation. According to Maslow (1970), " people can choose in accordance with their own taste and appetite, their character of judgment, the youngster chooses the motivation to which he will attribute the behavior accord with his generalized optimism or pessimism" ().

The benefits of the person-centered learning are that the teachers have:

- The ability to combine an interest of the learner with a project.
- More fun for the student
- More tailored materials and activities to their interests
- More encouraging teaching
- More motivated learners
- More productive lessons

The positive outcomes of the humanistic approach:

- Students are more responsive to the material being taught
- Students will take more out of each lesson due to an instructor focus on the student's interest and learning styles, not just the material to study.
- Curriculum reaches a mixture of learners, from schoolchildren to adults, or even mentally disabled.
- Curriculum makes a positive impact on students going on to a higher level of education.
- Effectiveness which students will gain an increase in the amount of knowledge they are gaining from their learning efforts.
- Viability, when students are becoming influenced with a variety of information and ways to learn the material.
- Engagement: students are staying involved and active in the learning process. They are not merely becoming side-line learners, but they are taking a proactive role in their education, and enjoying the process.

This approach requires the developing of the generic skills of:

- Comprehension and critical judgment;
- Performing practical life skills;
- Learning how to learn;
- Generating problem-solving skills;
- Attitudes and Dispositions;
- Ability to make decisions;
- Willingness to take responsibility for one's decisions;

- Cooperating with others.

To maintain the productive teaching outcome, the educator has to:

- Be a careful observer
- Take the time to get to know the child
- To encourage the student to be engaged in learning
- Educational process should maintain right ways to prosper the hidden potentials in every pupil.
- Educators should make the relevant environment for proper perception of the reality.
- Education should motivate pupils to ask the most important questions to them and to find the answers.
- Educators should consider the individual differences and to make the right border between common and individualism.

To be successful, students must find instruction motivating and meaningful. Interest-based learning is opposite to the teacher centered education. In a student-centered [learning space](#), students choose what and how they will learn, also how they will assess their own learning. This is in contrast to [traditional education](#), also dubbed 'teacher-centered learning', which situates the teacher to have the primarily 'active' role while students take a more 'passive', receptive role. In a teacher-centered classroom. Teachers choose what and how students will learn, also how students will be assessed on their learning.

Recommendations

The recommendations deal with problem solving, forecasted outcomes and suggested actions to implement.

Problem solving:

- Maintaining the person-centric approach in the educational process;
- Maintaining sound and healthy relationship;
- Maintaining the self-deciding ability;
- Developing the win-win strategy and reaching the synergy.

Forecasted outcomes:

- Having more motivated, confident and mobilized students;
- Having more mobilized and motivated teachers;

- Using innovative activities;
- Being more close to the students;
- Creating more acceptable and suitable environment;
- Being more person-centric and human;
- Creating more acceptable interpersonal relationship;
- Gaining good results through relevant communication and motivation.

Suggested actions to implement:

- Teachers and psychologists should work together and point out the core questions and problems of the educational process;
- Making education more person-centric (through the diverse lessons, activities, questionnaires, periodical interviews and dialogues);
- Getting more professional and trained teachers and psychologists;
- Having active communication with the parents through periodical meetings, interviews and activities;
- Making positive and relevant environment for students, for teachers.

Conclusion

Person-centric education, based on the interest-based learning is not really new. Parents and educators have all known for a long time that students do better, if they are interested and engaged in a topic. Now we just have to encourage educators to practice this form of teaching, and learners will benefit.

One can change everything for one's own good by means of quality and person-centric education. Education which will give youngsters a free choice for future actions and help them to create their own goals and missions. Teachers should take the responsibility for their decisions and create the effective goal oriented, healthy and educated society.

Only education can awake the hidden potentials and transfer the mere human into the "high human being" by giving them healthy knowledge and creating them as healthy, sensible, reasonable human beings with intense and endless human recourses (Maslow, 1970).

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THE ROLE OF TECHNOLOGY IN ADULT LEARNING

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Abstract

This work identifies some central premises of adult learners that influence both understandings of formal and informal learning, and of teaching practice in different areas. The first, and most defining, of these is that what adults bring to any learning context are individual experiences of life, of the world, and of prior learning. The paper argues that the starting point of adult learning is learners and their reality: Every adult person finds himself in specific situations with respect to his work, his recreation, his family life, and his community life – situations which call for adjustments. Exploring the technology application in formal adult learning identifies how institutional perspectives on the role of technology in particular subject teaching are influential in teacher decision-making. Institutional drivers might mean that teachers find themselves able to be more or less autonomous in their decision-making concerning approach, materials and means, including use of technology. This might be immediately observable in technology access. Variations may be explained by the type of institution in which a teacher works, often seen in differences between the public and privately-funded ones. Learners and teachers may be engaging with very high-tech environments, possibly described as technology-supported, and this is borne out in interactive whiteboards in the classrooms, relatively easy access to mobile recording devices, and the facility to download different software.

Keywords: *ECT, artifact, assessment, ELT, administer, different stakeholders, performance*

Introduction

Recently I came across the phrase which determined the topic of my paper. The Director of Studies in Hong Kong, giving a welcome speech to the teachers at the start of the new academic year said the following: “The British Council needs teachers who are confident with technology. You are either into technology or you are into way and had better start looking for the new job” (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018 p. 173). Strong words indeed – quite a wake-up call for a number of teachers.

Times have changed, teachers have evolved, and we now have a new breed of learning technologists. The first changes began in the classroom itself – new technologies, such as overhead projectors, interactive whiteboards, laptop computers and wireless internet have opened up the classroom to the outside world. Teachers who spent their lives managing with a textbook, a tape recorder and a blackboard are now adept at using PowerPoint to present grammar, playing podcasts to practise listening skills, pulling texts off the world wide web to introduce reading skills and, perhaps most ground-breaking of all, empowering students by giving them access to a wide range of web-based tools that allow them to publish work and engage with live audiences in real contexts. And that is just the beginning, because just as technologies have begun to change the way that English is learned in the classroom, even bigger changes seem to be taking place outside it. In fact, the digital revolution in learning now threatens to undermine completely the classroom as a place of study. Learning English through mobile devices gains credibility every day and the increasing popularity and the rapidly diminishing cost of tablet devices reinforce this by providing a format that really is capable of delivering courseware. And it is clear that technology still has much to offer ELT.

Methods and Procedures

Educators suggest that adult learning is an essentially problem-oriented endeavour that both informs the student and is a focus of activity. It is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience and reflection which is instrumental in that transformation. Adult learners profit from being able to relate material and tasks to prior and current experience, but also through opportunities for new, lived experiences through which they can reflect and act on implications for them as individuals. The key is the fact that the models of adult learning developed from within adult education move beyond examinations of learning as a decontextualised process to address questions relating to the meanings of, and motivations for learning in people's lives.

Deriving from this, adults may also be assumed to be goal-oriented in their language learning, and often adult learners' immediate focus is on practical, short-term objectives. These may be to enter international higher education through preparation for examinations such as IELTS or TOEFL; for employment reasons where English is an international language of business communication; or to integrate into a new cultural setting through ESOL classes. Adults may also have less academic or workplace orientations, such as leisure or travel.

We must be careful not to make too many assumptions that all adult language learners are equally purposeful and directed, however. Over the time we take better account of the contexts of adult learning, and the specific characteristics of the adult learner, and their own learning background. Motivations may indeed be varied. Some will be in situations, where English is a component of a university course, and for some of these learners, the goal may simply be to pass an exam imposed by an institution, though this focus is no less immediate than more intrinsically motivated objectives. There may, therefore, be both intrinsic and extrinsic

impetuses, impacting on what happens in the language classroom and indeed, on how self-directed an adult learner is prepared to be. Learning to pass an exam may result in much less self-direction than in the adult looking to be able to study in an English-speaking country or attend an English-speaking conference. Expectations of learner and teacher roles are also key. As all behaviour is governed by beliefs and experience. In her exploration of factors impacting on adult learner readiness for autonomy, the role of the teacher is ranked highest with diagnosing difficulties, allocating time, establishing the purpose of activities characterising many learners' perceptions. This, of course, has implications for teacher practice in general, and for the ways in which technology might be harnessed in different settings.

We must also remember that, on the whole, language learning is a relatively small part of multi-faceted adult lives. Adult learners usually require immediate value and relevance from their studies, and they often learn best when they are engaged in developing their own learning objectives.

Adult learners may, therefore, have developed very strong perceptions of what works for them, and how they want to learn. With respect to integration of technology this can act as a powerful filter. Those preferences may have developed through positive or negative learning experiences; they may be culturally situated; they are grounds for negotiation to help the learner towards the most impactful learning. A lot of studies serve to remind us that a learning approach must not be confused, as it often is, with the context-independent learning style.

In recognising the adult with all they bring to the learning context, he or she should feel accepted, respected, and supported. As our teachers explore technology in use with their learners, there is a strong sense of mutual engagement, responding to needs, seeking feedback on what works, and finding ways round apparent barriers.

These 'principles' are useful reminders of what defines our adult learners, but how they play out for different learners in specific settings is various. This chimes with our current understandings of the socio-cultural dimension of language learning and a pedagogy of particularity, which proposes that for language pedagogy to be relevant, it must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular socio-cultural milieu. This takes nothing away from an awareness of the adult learner and all that they bring to the learning table, but applies a layer of contextual sensitivity that helps us to understand the decisions teachers take in their use of technology.

Teachers of adult learners may find themselves in a higher or further education setting, a private language school which may be a local or international organisation, or a franchise; they may be in a business or industrial setting, dealing with learners in small groups or one-to-one teaching scenarios; they may be teaching outside a formal institutional setting from their homes or the homes of their learners. These settings are key drivers in many ways. Exploring technology use in formal adult learning, identifies how institutional perspectives on the role of technology in particular subject teaching are influential in teacher decision-making. Institutional drivers might mean that teachers find themselves able to be more or less autonomous in their decision-making around approach, materials and means, including use of technology. This might be immediately observable in technology. The 'particularities' of the situation are important to the teacher as they

pursue the goal of lesson planning. Lack of access to significant numbers of computers for language learning activities might, for example, be seen as constraining to ambitions to integrate technology. However, social tools such as wikis, and virtual learning environments allow our teachers to provide flexible access to their adult learners, whatever the physical constraints of the face-to-face learning context and whatever the restrictions in the available time. The specific use of these opportunities reflects not only the particularities of learner needs in the different contexts, but also the beliefs the teachers hold about language learning and about the role technology can play for them and their adult learners.

So integration is a key theme, and beliefs about the relationship between what happens within and beyond the classroom setting suggest an increasingly seamless expansion of the context of learning. Tasks using specific tools may be demonstrated inside the classroom on single computers and projection; tasks may be started within the classroom for group or individual completion beyond; most make use of an online environment to provide the home base for this extended scenario. The opportunities to extend contexts of learning afforded by technology allow teachers to make decisions about how they will take advantage of their face-to-face time with the learners. Teachers make conscious decisions to use technology in ways that allow them to apportion time to different activities in different learning spaces. Most important to a teacher is to be able to attend to speaking skills work in a face-to-face setting, leaving the technology to mediate other language activities. Teacher's goal is to free up some time in class for the discussion in class, so his or her classes are much less grammar practice etc. They are much more dedicated to speaking so that the teacher can have more time for speaking in class – face-to-face speaking. The technology allows him or her to get extra time for that.

Web pages and blog provide out-of-class support for online reading and listening, grammar and vocabulary development; wikis scaffold collaborative learning; learners use various tools to prepare their work for presentation. Every teacher talks about technology allowing them to fill some particular 'needs gap'. This is variously described in terms of opportunities, for some teachers to establish a self-access resource, for others to provide for individualised or differentiated tasks, and also to provide for learner-centred collaboration. There are many ways to respond to such perceived needs, and specific technology choice relates to context, understandings of the adult learner and to the teachers' own beliefs about language learning.

The particularities of both learner and context help us to appreciate what preoccupies teachers and how they use technology in specific ways and towards perhaps slightly different ends. There are, nevertheless, some shared constants. Most evident is the thread of independent learning, which is clearly woven through these accounts of technology decision making. The resourceful activity around materials creation and collation, appears to characterise teachers' way of working with their adult learners whether in a university or ESOL setting. Decisions about technology use constantly revolve around what happens within classrooms and what can be provided for more self-directed learning opportunities. There is a sense of the bank of digital artifacts 'killing more than one bird with one stone' so to speak; but this multi-context thinking is part and parcel of their appreciation of their adult learners' needs and motivations. The virtual learning spaces which serve this purpose may be within institutionally-supported tools or developed by the teacher on a more individual basis; some

teachers host records of classroom learning and extended tasks that provide for the flexibility that the learners look for; creating tasks with software such as Hot Potatoes is almost a normalised part of their repertoire. However, it is not simply a matter of teacher-generated tasks. All use technology to make ties with the adult's world. The teacher is particularly adamant about access to the real world of her/his adult learners through the texts she/he finds online. Throughout these teacher accounts, there is plenty of evidence of the choices that technology facilitates, but also of teacher awareness of the need to guide their learners. There is an interesting question about the skills dimension. Teachers believe that internet literacy, online communication skills and ICT skills are an important part of language teaching, and that learners do need a teacher to facilitate opportunities both within and beyond the classroom to develop their confidence in these areas. Some teachers make sure to open email accounts for all of her learners in the beginning of the year, and to give them her email address saying they can contact her anytime, encouraging them to email each other as well. Developing ICT confidence, then, opens up new opportunities, which teacher and adult learner can explore together.

One of the principles of adult learning identified in this work is recognising that adults will bring not only expectations, but beliefs and learning preferences to the classroom. These act as a filter to teachers' own decision-making, and may be evident in the confidence with which teachers use technology in class or the affective responses they have to its use.

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Results

There is plenty of evidence to suggest that the relationship between learner expectations and teacher example is strong. A teacher is using technology to expand learning opportunities, to facilitate learning at different times and through different tools. Working with young adults in a university setting, she/he is aware of the mobile technologies the learners use, and juxtaposes this with her belief that they do not then expect to come to class and be lectured 'in an old-fashioned way'. Some teachers' problem-based learning activities take place largely outside of her classroom setting; learners make use of her wiki space and she encourages the use of any mobile technology that groups may independently have access to. They are similarly encouraged to present their group collaborations to the class using multimedia, the tool used by learners being Movie Maker, which she describes as being generally available to them, again outside the classroom, on their own laptops or computers.

Conclusion

This final reminder brings us back to our starting points of not only an understanding of what characterises the adult learner, but also of a pedagogy of particularity. This paper has only briefly referred to the implications of mobile technologies; What it does provide is narratives that illustrate the dimensions of the particular in the adult education settings which are home to the teachers and their learners.

In presenting these accounts of how technology finds its place in adult learning contexts, these principles and indeed their socio-cultural caveats variously come to the fore in different decision making. It is also a fact that these accounts represent a snapshot in time; there is no doubt the specifics of technology use will have already evolved in some teachers' practice. However, the dynamics between teacher, learner, technology and context means that already the particularity of another group of adult learners may have provided new insights into the possible and practical.

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PARENTS-SCHOOL COOPERATION AND FATHERS' ROLE IN IT

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Abstract

The goal of this paper is to find out, whether in Georgia fathers are less involved in parent-teacher organization (PTO), and if so, why. The paper will also try to make some recommendations on how to more efficiently involve fathers in their children's schooling. It has been shown in the literature analysis that father involvement depends on the relationships between the spouses, children's age and gender, initiator of father involvement, socio-cultural attitudes towards father's role in caring for children, teacher/administrator gender with whom the father has to communicate, father's engagement in his job, existence of educational knowledge, etc. The research held was empirical and involved a questionnaire on father involvement in PTO. The questionnaire, to which 175 people responded, involved two personal questions in multiple-choice format (which category of the focus group the respondent belongs and his/her residence), five content questions in a 5-point Likert scale-like format and four multiple choice content items. The conclusions made are: fathers should be better involved via mass media about the importance of the role in their children's education, also schools should be active in the process of fathers' involvement.

Keywords: parents-school cooperation, parental involvement, father roles, childcare

Introduction

According to McNeal (2014, p.564), "parent involvement is any action taken by a parent that can theoretically be expected to improve student performance or behavior". Most of the existing research (Lee & Bowen, 2006; Patel 2006) on the issue states that parental involvement is beneficial for students' academic achievement. However, some researchers have found that it is not so (Domina, 2005, El Nokali, Bachman & Votruba-Drzal, 2010). Probably, these inconsistencies deal with too broad understanding of the term. If, for example, we view parental involvement as corporal punishment for poor results, it certainly can only harm student's learning in a long-term perspective, while reading some extracurricular books together will definitely contribute to the child's education (if the books are appropriately chosen). So, if viewed in its positive sense, parental involvement can be viewed as "social relations that are imbued with norms of trust, obligation, or reciprocity" (McNeal, 2014, p. 565).

One of the essential types of parental involvement is parent-teacher (or parent-school) organization or PTO. PTO is beneficial for all three parties: children, parents and school. Children attend lessons, do homework and learn better, as they see that this is important for their family. Parents become closer to their children. School discipline improves, so does the learning environment.

When we mention parent involvement, we, in fact, mean mother (or other female relative) involvement. Although fathers' direct involvement in children's lives (not only via economically supporting the whole family) has been definitely growing recently due to social changes, such as increased female participation in workforce and entailed changes in gender roles in the family (Goldman, 2005), their direct participation in parent-school relationships tend to lag behind (Şad & Gürbuzturk, 2013). The goal of this paper is to find out, whether in Georgia fathers are less involved in PTO, and if so, why. The paper will also try to make some recommendations on how to more efficiently involve fathers in their children's schooling.

Literature review

According to systematic theory of Bronfenbrenner (1995), relationships between the spouses have an impact on father-child relationship either directly or indirectly. Christensen and Sullaway (1984) classify communication models in families as mutual constructive (effective relationship model), mutual avoidance and mutual demand/ withdraw communication (ineffective relationship models). In families where both parents communicate with each other, normally they are more involved in the care for their children. They often share functions in caring for children, they agree what will be done by both parents, and what – by one of them. Parents who communicate with each other on mutual demand/withdraw model argue who will do what, but they seldom come to consensus, so either children are left to themselves, or – in best case – completely to mother's care. In families where there is no communication between spouses one parent (either father or mother) may take care of the child, but more often children feel abandoned, as the model spreads on them as well. Lack of communication between the parents often leads to weaker father/child relationships and becomes the reason of child's numerous problems in the future life (Runcan, 2012).

Father's involvement (or the lack of it) in child's education begins during the pre-school period. Father who has talked to the child on various issues to widen the child's horizons will most probably be interested in his/her education in the schooling period as well. This more often takes the shape of systematic or periodic monitoring of what / how the child is doing at school, helping with homework on his own initiative or child's / wife's request, however, some fathers are also actively involved in taking the child to school (especially if the wife does not drive a car) and even attending parents' meetings or some special school events. Although it is not very traditional to see fathers at school meetings and events, with growing women's engagement in workforce, this is becoming a reality. The impact is definitely positive. Fagan and Iglesias (1999), for instance, found that fathers' involvement in children's (both genders) education causes an increase in children's mathematical skills (many mothers cannot provide effective help in this, traditionally male, area). Research

has shown that fathers with a higher educational level are more often involved in school activities, while the economic status of the father has not been found related to his involvement in school meetings. Men with higher level of income but not very high level of education are usually completely disengaged from their children's schooling (Model, 1981). It was found that, if schools are offering various activities requiring fathers' participation and insist on involving fathers in school life, fathers more often agree to be involved, while fathers seldom participated in school meeting, partly feeling that their participation may cause undesirable curiosity and even conviction, as the majority of fathers seldom attend school meetings (Gürşimşek, Kefi and Girgin, 2007). Older fathers more often are engaged in parent-school relationships than less mature ones (Marsiglio, 1993). Also, the older the child becomes, the more involved in his/her schooling the father usually is (Roopnarine & Ahmeduzzaman, 1993; Yeung et al., 2001). Fathers seldom have the patience of dealing with little kids' education and find it too 'elementary' for them and boring, they prefer to do something more inspiring (Radin, 1981). According to Harris and Morgan (1991) and Fagan (1999), fathers more often engage in sons' educational issues than in daughters' ones.

If mother involvement in children's lives is a universal phenomenon, father involvement in children's education is definitely culture-based. Lopez (2007), for instance, found that "Spanish-speaking fathers reported more negative perceptions of their child's school, less positive contacts with their child's teachers, and were less involved in their child's school than either English / Spanish-speaking or English-speaking fathers" (p. 61). Interestingly, the fathers in Lopez research emphasized the role of whole family, not just mothers in children's education, so they did not deny their role in children's education, they just rejected the cooperation between them and schools. Instead of parent-school link, they stress the importance of family and community in the formation of traditional values. Latin Americans, being an involuntary minority in the USA, generally often demonstrate a derogatory attitude towards the formal education of their children that may serve their assimilation, but it especially concerns fathers (Hidalgo, 2005). Unfortunately, Quiñones and Kiyama (2014) state, Latino families', especially fathers', lack of desire to communicate with school administration often is caused by the latter's racist and / or indifferent attitude towards them. Klein (2008), on the other hand, found that Chinese immigrant fathers, being voluntary minorities, were more active in parent-school relationships than European immigrant and American-born fathers, in their contacts with schools. They gather information about the school, interact with teachers and administration, as well as with other parents. They care that their children attend school, fulfil homework and become 'less strangers' (Klein, 2008, p.109). This is why they have an interest in meeting 'American' families.

In the USA fathers' disengagement in family-school communication (National Center for Education Statistics - NCES, 1997) became such a problem that in 1995 President Bill Clinton issued a memorandum requesting that all executive departments and agencies make a concerted effort to include fathers in their programs, policies, and research programs where appropriate and feasible. The National Household Education Survey of 1996 (NCES, 1997) held phone interviews with parents and guardians of over 20,700 children aged 3-17 and found that fathers' lower involvement in their children's school life was caused by:

- Being busy at their workplaces
- Invitations sent to 'families' or mothers, but never to fathers in particular
- Some of them being ashamed to reveal their low level of education
- Lack of knowledge on how they can help their children in educational issues.

Not only culture, but also teacher gender seems to be an issue, at least in certain countries. Unal and Unal (2010) study held in Turkey found that 33 teachers (both genders) and 232 fathers state: fathers are more inclined to visit school if the teacher/administrator they meet is a male, as they more easily find a common language with him.

Online communication between schools and families can easily solve the obstacle of being busy as well as the discomfort of meeting face to face female personnel (Davidovitch & Yavich, 2015).

In order to provide a higher involvement of fathers in contacts with schools, the problems defined by Levine (1993) should be overcome:

- Schools should initiate fathers' involvement, to relieve them from fear of being misunderstood
- Staff meeting fathers should be represented by administrators and teachers of both genders, where feasible
- Mothers should stimulate / permit fathers (married/in civil marriage/divorced) to be involved

Method

The research held was empirical and involved a questionnaire on father involvement in PTO. The questionnaire involved two personal questions in multiple-choice format (which category of the focus group the respondent belongs and his/her residence), five content questions in a 5-point Likert scale-like format and four multiple choice content items. The participation was anonymous and voluntary. The questionnaire was placed on Facebook, so anybody from the focus group (school teachers and administrators, and school children's caretakers – all living in Georgia) could volunteer to participate. As Survey Monkey and the like programs permit only English (or a language using Latin alphabet), Besides the Survey monkey link, the questionnaire text was also uploaded in Georgian, and, while filling it out, the respondent could use the Georgian text for better understanding. The researcher asked her more than 500 Facebook friends to share the questionnaire, which some of them did. The questionnaire was on the Facebook for 4 months, which is quite a long period, to permit to involve more participants. However, the respondents were not too numerous.

Participants

The 175 participants were from various parts of Georgia – the capital (42.9%), from urban (35.4%) and rural parts (21.7%) of the country. There were 153 (87.4%) females and 22 (12.6%) males among the participants. As for the respondents' relation to the children, 14.3% were public school administrators, 54.3% - public school teachers, 1.4% - private school administrators, 1.4% - private school teachers, 25.8% - parents, and 2.9% - fathers (who stated they attend school meetings). It is possible to notice that the most numerous group of the respondents involves public school teachers. It probably means that they are especially concerned with the problem set in the questionnaire.

Of course, for the population of Georgia 175 respondents is a very modest number and it is difficult to speak about a representative sample. The reason is that the topic is very delicate and too many people believe (as it will be seen from the answers) that it is a sort of an alien approach (of course, school-to-family relations have to be the relations between school teachers and administration, on the one hand, and a mother or another female relative, on the other!). Besides, there were very few male respondents, in particular, fathers, which, unfortunately, is natural, by the same reason. However, certain conclusions can be withdrawn from these data, if we add personal observations during many years (as they do not contradict the obtained results).

Results and discussion

The results are presented in the table 1 below.

- 1 - unaware
- 2 - never
- 3 – almost never
- 4 - seldom
- 5 - regularly

Table 1. Likert scale item results

#	item	1	2	3	4	5
3	How often do fathers attend school meetings with parents?	2.9%	5.7%	17.1%	74.3%	0%
4	If the answer is "never" or "almost never", how often does another male relative (grandfather, uncle, step-father, etc.) attend school meetings? (out of 22.8%)	6.7%	20%	33.3%	40%	0%

5	How often does school request / offer fathers to communicate with it via electronic means (e-mail, mobile phone) on their own initiative?	2.9%	31.4%	17.1%	45.7%	2.9%
6	How often does school invite fathers to participate in special school events (Fathers' Meetings, Father's Day)?	2.9%	35.3%	20.6%	41.2%	0%
7	How often does school invite both parents to participate in special school to family events (sports competitions, planting trees, etc.)?	2.9%	20%	28.6%	45.7%	2.9%

These results reveal that fathers seldom attend school; those respondents who chose answers "never" or "almost never" (22.8% of the respondents), state that another male relative almost never (33%) or seldom (40%) attends school. This means that not only fathers, but also grandfathers or uncles seldom attend school meetings.

On the other hand, we cannot keep only fathers responsible for that. School never (31.4%) or seldom (45.7%) contacts fathers personally via electronic devices, invites them to special events (35.3% and 41.2%), or at least invites both parents to special events (35.3% and 41.2%).

Table 2. Multiple choice item results

		a	b	c	d	e	f
8.	If / when a father is in contact with school, it is because	22.9%	22.9%	11.4%	17.1%	20%	5.7%
9.	What reasons do fathers, who are invited to school, give for not coming?	45.7%	0%	22.9%	27.7%	5.7%	-
10	If the child has violated discipline, who does he / she prefer to go to school?	2.9%	85.7%	11.4%	0%	-	-
11	How does father get information about the child's school life?	5.7%	77.1%	8.57%	8.57%	-	-

The results of this table show that, when father is in contact with school, this is basically due to physical impossibility for the mother to do so (she is dead or has a disability – 22.9%, or she is abroad – 22.9%). Only 20% of the respondents

mentioned that this is due to the fact of father's active involvement in child's upbringing. But even this number is inspiring. It gives hopes that, if relevant measures are taken by school, their number may increase.

45.7% of the respondents believe that fathers do not attend school meetings, as they are too busy. However, 27.7% of the respondents believe that they might have more often contact school, had the latter demanded is from them directly.

85% of the respondents mention that when the child has some disciplinary problems, s/he prefers that mother goes to school (probably, because they expect fathers to punish them more strictly or to be angrier).

77.1% of the respondents stated that fathers get information about their children's life at school from mothers, seldom from the teacher (8.57%) and still fewer respondents chose the answer "from the child", which shows that fathers are not close enough to children in the issues of their school life.

Limitations

As mentioned above, the sample quantitatively is not representative enough. As for its composition, except fathers who attend school meetings, who constitute really a little group in the population of Georgia, all other interested parties are well represented.

The limited number of the respondents is related to the difficulty of reaching respondents, uninvolved position of many fathers not only in PTO, but also in discussion of issues dealing with their role in their children's education, as well as the delicacy of the question under study.

Conclusions

The research held showed that fathers are insufficiently involved in their children's school lives, which is largely due to the widely spread opinion that this is mother's duty (22.9% of the respondents gave that as the reason of fathers not coming to school meetings). Even the electronic devices which enable them contact the school when they are busy do not rescue the situation. The goal of this article certainly was not to blame fathers or schools for the status quo, but to find ways to improve the situation. One of the ways is for the society to inform fathers through various media how important their participation in their children's education is. Here a great role belongs to journalists who should inform public about scientific studies on the issue, on the one hand, and concrete cases, on the other. Another way is that schools take measures to involve fathers in their children's school life, and not just due to disciplinary violations, which is often the case, but for positive events as well (such as Father's day or family competitions).

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Appendix

Items of multiple-choice questions

8. If / when a father is in contact with school, it is because
- His wife has expired or has a disability
 - His wife is working abroad
 - He is unemployed, while his wife has a job
 - His working hours are more convenient for this than his wife's

e) He is generally actively involved in the child's education

9. What reasons do fathers, who are invited to school, give for not coming?

- a) They are too busy
- b) They are divorced and mothers do not let them be involved in the child's upbringing
- c) They view attending school as mother's responsibility
- d) They are not invited personally ('parents' are invited, nobody addresses 'father' personally)
- e) Unaware

10. If the child has violated discipline, who does he / she prefer to go to school?

a) a) father

b) b) mother

c) c) another relative

d) d) unaware

11. How does father get information about the child's school life?

a) a) from the child

b) b) from the mother

c) c) from the teacher

d) d) unaware

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TEACHERS' READINESS FOR CREATING A LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

The paper deals with the necessary characteristics and qualities of a teacher. Being a good teacher is the most rewarding and responsible profession. Teachers are some of the few people who have the power to change the world because the future of the world is sitting in their classrooms. Teachers need to have those characteristics that help them organize and manage the classes successfully. Classroom management aims at encouraging and establishing student self-control through a process of promoting positive student achievement and behavior. Thus, academic achievement, teacher efficacy, teacher and student behavior are directly linked with the concept of classroom management. Educational leaders and researchers agree that teachers have an immense impact on student success. A teacher's ability to create an effective learning environment, including cultivating a sense of mutual respect with students, is an important indicator of success in the classroom and is something to look for in a teacher candidate. Different ways of classroom organization are discussed in the paper. The given work offers key strategies and principles for being ready for the teaching job. The paper also involves a small survey conducted among students in Telavi State University. Advice for being a good teacher is given.

Keywords: teacher's readiness; learning environment

Education is the most powerful weapon a person may have. An educated person has a real chance to make a good career and lead a successful life. The main goal in the educational process is to have teachers who can do everything to turn their students into motivated learners. Although teaching is a very hard and responsible profession, it truly is considered as an enjoyable and rewarding career. Being a good teacher can be the most rewarding and exciting job in the world - however, being a teacher who does not work effectively can be stressful, painful, and exhausting.

A good teacher can have an effective managerial plan of the classroom and can maintain control in the class and arouse a great interest in the subject. Classroom management aims at encouraging and establishing student self-control through a process of promoting positive student achievement and behavior. Thus, academic achievement, teacher efficacy, teacher and student behavior are directly linked with the concept of classroom management. For the students, lack of effective classroom management can mean that learning is reduced in the classroom. For the teacher, it can cause unhappiness and stress and eventually lead to leaving the teaching profession.

Classroom management certainly involves discipline, control and punishment to a great extent. In the traditional theory of classroom management, the aim of classroom management primarily means achieving class control and order. However, the concept of classroom management has shifted to establishing a positive climate for learning (Everston & Emmer, 1982) and “the critical element of the teacher’s role thus shifts from control to management - management of time, space, materials, auxiliary personnel, and students” (Duke, 1982, p. VII).

Educational leaders and researchers agree that teachers have an immense impact on student success. A teacher’s ability to create an effective learning environment, including cultivating a sense of mutual respect with students, is an important indicator of success in the classroom and is something to look for in a teacher candidate. A teacher candidate should have the ability to make students feel valued in the classroom and comfortable enough to take intellectual risks, which can impact student performance and behavior. Expectations also play a large part in creating an environment that is conducive with learning. Students are more likely to perform and behave when a teacher communicates high expectations and insists on hard work. An effective educator gives consistent responses to good and poor behavior or performance so that students understand how the learning environment operates. Students have a better chance at succeeding when their learning environment consists of well-established standards of conduct as well as clear goals and expectations.

Successful teachers should have the following necessary components in order to consider that they are ready for the teaching process:

1. Content knowledge - refers to the subject matter of language teaching i.e. grammar, vocabulary, theories, etc. First of all, this quality is an absolute necessity to being an effective teacher. It does not matter how motivated, passionate, or creative you are if you cannot teach your students what they are there to learn. How can you expect them to learn if you do not even know what they are supposed to be learning?
2. Pedagogical knowledge - teachers’ ability to modify their content knowledge so that it becomes easily accessible for pupils. A good grammarian will not necessarily make a good grammar teacher. They have to decide how to explain, what examples to give, which activities to include.
3. Practical knowledge - how to organize the process of teaching. How to keep students quiet and how to get them talking? It greatly depends on teacher’s experience.
4. Contextual knowledge - how well do you know the educational system in which you work? It refers to knowledge of the students, their level, personal needs and cultural background
5. Motivation - To be an effective teacher one has to be motivated to learn and to help others learn. A good teacher should take a life-long learning strategy to renew all the methods and knowledge s/he has got. Motivation for learning and self-improvement is what separates the truly great teachers from the rest. They are always trying

new ways of teaching and engaging their students and they never tire of being students themselves. Effective teachers are always learning different ways of doing things and take the time to learn from other effective teachers.

6. Emotional Intelligence and Empathy: Understanding your students is an integral part in being an effective teacher. Being able to connect with students on an emotional level and to help them through the problems that come with growing up is what effective teachers do. For many kids, teachers are the ones they turn to for support when they cannot find it anywhere else. This emotional intelligence and empathy can go a long way in not only helping those students be able to learn, but also in changing their lives.

Classroom environment should be like home and teachers should try to make it attractive and active. There are several ways of classroom organization and management that should be kept in mind.

The seating arrangement should be designed in a systematic way so that the organization of the seats helps the students to feel more organized. Sometimes this sense of organization is helped if students have assigned seats. Make sure that the room has only the amount of furniture that is functional and does not contain useless or non-essential furnishings. The entrance to your room and the hallway outside should not cause distractions to students during lessons. Additionally, seats should be arranged in such a way as to reduce traffic distractions. There should be plenty of space for foot traffic, especially around the areas where supplies are stored. Your classroom's lighting and temperature will affect student achievement, so make sure they are adequate. But it should be said that too warm classrooms tend to lead students to be more sleepy, inattentive, and consequently bored and disruptive, so the heating in the classrooms must be moderately cool.

How your classroom is arranged can have a great effect on your ability to effectively manage and teach your class. The overall message about classroom arrangement seems to be that it should be deliberate and well-thought-out. Reflect on what you are trying to accomplish and make your space work for you rather than against you. The things to consider may include:

- Where will you put your desk? Do you still want a teacher's desk in the room or you prefer movement and action in the class?
- Decide which one you prefer group tables or student desks? This one takes experience to decide, and you may even change your mind from year to year.
- Keep in mind which level students you teach and what activity centers are important to you? Elementary level may need more action and motion in the classroom than others.

“In talking about classroom management and student achievement, it may help to think of the teacher as the driver of the car who needs to respond to the passengers’ needs in order to ensure that they reach their destination” (Stronge & Tucker, 2004, p. 63).

According to Maryellen Weimer (2009), there exist 6 key principles for being an effective and successful teacher:

- Interest and explanation – **“When our interest is aroused in something, whether it is an academic subject or a hobby, we enjoy working hard at it. We come to feel that we can in some way own it and use it to make sense of the world around us.**
- Concern and respect for students and student learning. **Good teaching is nothing to do with making things hard. It is nothing to do with frightening students. It is everything to do with benevolence and humility; it always tries to help students feel that a subject can be mastered; it encourages them to try things out for themselves and succeed at something quickly.**
- **Appropriate assessment and feedback** – This principle involves using a variety of assessment techniques and allowing students to demonstrate their mastery of the material in different ways. It avoids those assessment methods that encourage students to memorize and regurgitate. It recognizes the power of feedback to motivate more effort to learn.
- **Clear goals and intellectual challenge** – Effective teachers set high standards for students. They also articulate clear goals. Students should know up front what they will learn and what they will be expected to do with what they know.
- **Independence, control and active engagement** – Good teaching fosters a sense of student control over learning and interest in the subject matter. Successful teachers create learning tasks appropriate to the student’s level of understanding.
- **Learning from students** - Good teaching is open to change: it involves constantly trying to find out what the effects of instruction are on learning, and modifying the instruction in the light of the evidence collected (Ramsden, 1992).

Recently, a very interesting survey was conducted in Telavi State Unievrsity, Georgia. The survey was aimed to reveal what kinds of teachers are preferable for students and what kinds of qualities their favorite teachers have. 40 Bachelor Degree students participated in the questionnaire. The most interesting questions were:

What are the characteristics of your favorite teachers?
Does a teacher’s age have any effect in learning process?

What kind of classroom arrangement is your favorite?
Do your teachers choose tasks appropriate to your knowledge?
Is the classroom environment beneficial for learning?

Students distinguished the following characteristics of their beloved teachers: caring, friendly, creative, active, kind, and forgiving.

All students in the survey noted that the age factor really affects the learning process and, to their mind, middle aged teachers are the best, as young teachers tend to be too forgiving. As for classroom arrangement, 32 out of 40 students noted that they prefer circles in the classroom when they all see each other and are all equal.

Students noted that not all tasks are appropriate to their knowledge and sometimes the tasks are so difficult that in several subjects they need to hire private teachers or spend hours in the library to go into the depths of the topic. Some of the students also said they even hate some of the subjects as they do not understand them and teachers do not try to make them clear in more understandable language.

The classroom environment is really appropriate for learning and comfortable, equipped with all modern technologies necessary for learning.

As a result of the survey, teachers can be advised to become more friendly, caring, creative and forgiving, as, according to students, these are the most important characteristics for good teachers.

Teachers should avoid using inappropriate tasks during teaching. They should try to follow students' knowledge levels and try to ease the job for them, not to make students hate the subjects. Students need both teachers' knowledge and help, to make the learning process enjoyable and beneficial.

In conclusion, it is necessary to note that teaching is a highly complex activity and teachers are among the few people who have the power to change the world because the future of the world is sitting in their classrooms. Those teachers who have knowledge, motivation, emotional intelligence, empathy, and passion are able to make a positive impact on their students' lives. They inspire them to dream their wildest dreams while giving them the tools to achieve them and those are the ones who have the greatest impact. Teachers are our nation builders - the strength of every job in our world grows out of the knowledge, expertise and skills that teachers transfer to our young generation.

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THE IMPACT OF SELF-AWARENESS AND SELF-ESTEEM ON STUDENTS' SUCCESS

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Abstract

The paper deals with the concept and essence of self-awareness and its effect on students' success. Self-awareness is considered to be the ability of being a true judge of one's own performance. It is the process of looking at oneself in order to assess the aspects that are important to one's identity. Self-awareness is about understanding one's own needs, desires, feelings and habits. Self-awareness is an important aspect of the learning process. It is vital both to a students' academic success and their social and emotional growth. It is a valuable learning tool and it helps students evaluate their work, abilities and skill gaps. Understanding how to learn better is one of the keys of growth as human beings. The article presents two major types of self-awareness - private and public. We deal with the self-awareness in the classroom which is an important skill that can also help students learn how to self-advocate and embrace good study habits. Self-awareness leads students to a true self-assessment of their strengths and weaknesses. With the awareness of how they acquire knowledge, students study to regulate their behavior in order to optimize learning. They begin to see how their strengths and weaknesses affect their performance. The paper discusses metacognition as well, which is a component part of self-awareness and is regarded to be the ability to think about one's thinking. Metacognition plays an important role in all learning and life experiences. It enables students to be successful learners. In the article important strategies are offered that teachers can use to raise students' level of self-esteem. The paper includes a short-term research which was conducted in Telavi State University. It might be of great help for teachers to improve their attitudes, methods and ways while working with the students having low self-esteem.

Keywords: self-awareness, self-esteem, students' success

Throughout centuries the study of self has been one of the most interesting and important issues of social psychology. Scientists and education specialists investigate the importance of self-awareness and its impact on students' academic success for ages. Self-awareness is about understanding your own needs, desires, feelings, habits, and everything else that makes you act. The more you know about yourself, the better you are at adapting life changes that suit your needs.

Self-awareness is the ability of being a true judge of one's own performance. It is the process of looking at oneself in order to assess the aspects that are important to one's [identity](#). It is one of the motives that drive self-evaluation, along with [self-verification](#) and [self-enhancement](#). Self-awareness is the process of judgment of own skills, qualities and abilities. It is an important indicator of assessing individual values, strengths and weaknesses.

Self awareness is an important part of the learning process. It is a valuable learning tool and it helps students evaluate their work, abilities and skill gaps. Understanding how to learn better is one of the keys of growth as human beings.

It is generally believed that there are many benefits of having a positive view of the self. Those who have a high self-esteem are presumed to be psychologically happy and healthy (Branden, 1994; Taylor & Brown, 1988), whereas those with low self-esteem are believed to be psychologically distressed and perhaps even depressed (Tennen & Affleck, 1993). High self-esteem provides benefits to those students who possess it and they feel good about themselves, they are able to cope effectively with challenges in learning and they live with the feeling that friends, family, teachers and people around value and respect them. Learners with low self-esteem see the world through more negative colors, and their general dislike for themselves leads them to depression, shyness and failure. The students with low self - awareness are less likely to receive support from other students as the feeling of being disliked prevents them from asking for support.

Self-awareness is vital both to a students' academic success and their social and emotional growth. Essentially, the more you pay attention to your emotions and how you work, the better you will understand why you do the things you do. The more you know about your own habits, the easier it is to improve those habits.

Self-awareness has been called "arguably the most fundamental issue in psychology, from both a developmental and an evolutionary perspective" (Rochat, 2003, p. 717). In social psychology, the study of self-awareness goes back to Shelley Duval and Robert Wicklund's theory of self-awareness. Duval and Wicklund noted that people can focus attention on the self or on the external environment. Focusing on the self enables *self-evaluation*. When self-focused, people compare the self with *standards of correctness* that specify how the self ought to think, feel, and behave. The process of comparing the self with standards allows people to change their behavior and to experience pride and dissatisfaction with the self. Self-awareness is thus a major mechanism of self-control (Duval & Wicklund, 1972).

Thus, self-awareness is a psychological state of students in which a person becomes the focus of one's own attention. There are two main kinds of self-awareness: Private and public self-awareness.

Private self-awareness: when a person is aware of some aspects but others don't have idea about that. For example, when a student has to make a presentation in front of the whole class s/he may be shy and nervous and feel some feelings in the heart and stomach. This process is called private awareness.

Public awareness: This kind of self-awareness take place when students become aware of how other people see them. In case of public awareness students may feel worries about how they appear to others. "Public self-awareness is a state that occurs when people focus on the impressions they make on others" (Van Bommel et al., 2012).

The above-mentioned two types of self-awareness can also be called *audiences and mirrors*. Audiences increase focus on the public aspects of the self and mirrors focus attention on the private aspects of the self. Public self-awareness has the bystander effect. The bystander effect is a phenomenon in which people are less likely to assist another individual in an emergency situation when other individuals or bystanders are present (Schneider, Coutts, & Gruman, 2013, p. 247-248).

Self-awareness in the classroom

Learning self-awareness enables students to see how others see them, and it is an important skill that can also help students learn how to self-advocate and embrace good study habits.

Self-awareness supports students to reflect on what they have achieved and developed, think and plan what is the next step in their learning, identify those aspects that they want to accomplish. Rolheiser, Bower, and Stevahn (2000, p. 35) argue that self-confidence influences “the learning goals that students set and the effort they devote to accomplishing those goals. An upward cycle of learning results when students confidently set learning goals that are moderately challenging yet realistic, and then exert the effort, energy, and resources needed to accomplish those goals”. Self-awareness leads students to a true self-assessment of their strengths and weaknesses and in its own “Self-assessment leads a student to a greater awareness and understanding of himself or herself as a learner” (Ministry of Education, 2002, p. 3).

Teachers should make friendly atmosphere in the classroom to make all students reveal themselves freely and be self-aware. Teachers also should keep in mind that if students reflect on how they learn, they become better learners. Students study in various ways, some prefer to do tasks in complete silence, while other may prefer to do homework with music accompaniment. For some, it may take a long time to study English lesson than History one. With the awareness of how they acquire knowledge, students study to regulate their behavior to optimize learning. They begin to see how their strengths and weaknesses affect on their performance. The ability to think about one's thinking is what scientists call metacognition.

Metacognition is “thinking about thinking” (Rolheiser, Bower, & Stevahn, 2000, p.32). Developing reflective processes can lead to improved metacognition. Rolheiser and colleagues note that when students develop their capacity to understand their own thinking processes, they are better equipped to employ the necessary cognitive skills to complete a task or achieve a goal. They also note that “students who have acquired metacognitive skills are better able to compensate for both low ability and insufficient information” (ibid). Developing reflective processes can lead to improved metacognition.

Metacognition plays an important role in all learning and life experiences. It enables students to be successful and has been associated with intelligence. Metacognition is high order of thinking and implies control over the cognitive

processes that are involved in learning. Activities such as planning how to approach a given task, monitoring comprehension, and evaluating progress toward the completion of a task are metacognitive in nature.

According to various researches a teacher has great influence on creating certain skills in students. The same could be said on increasing the sense of self-awareness in students. If a teacher inspires students to be motivated, hard-working and able to acquire new material, she/he can increase the feeling of self-awareness in students. At first teachers should give easy exercises to students that they will do with no difficulties. It is such kind of incentive for learners. The sense of self-awareness increases in them. If teachers offer students difficult exercises that they won't be able to fulfill, in this case, s/he will fail and lose interest in learning. This makes students lose the feeling of self-awareness. Teachers should make their students sure in their possibilities and teach what is required to achieve success in learning. Students should believe that they are able to fulfill the given task. In such a case they have hope for success and continue learning with big enthusiasm.

Thus, teachers are able to increase the feeling of self-awareness which helps them to endure pressure of peers, take risks during learning and succeed. If students are sure in their abilities they will truly increase self-awareness and study better.

The following ways can be used in the classroom to convince students in their possibilities and raise the level of self-esteem:

- Make encouragement comments for students in order to improve their learning;
- Create such environment where students will make risks without the fear of making mistakes;
- Remind students that you believe in their opportunities;
- Teach students how to attain intended goals, if students reach their aims once (do certain tasks) they will have desire to continue their work with deep self-awareness and the guarantee of progress. Keep in mind that little success leads us towards much bigger success.

It is worth to mention, that when teachers try to increase self-awareness in their students it's essential that they themselves should be aware of it first. The following are our advice for teachers to help them increase self-awareness in students:

- use everyday behavior to show learners how to manage problematic situations in a peaceful way;
- teach students to deal with emotions and the ways how to react positively on an unpleasant issue;
- Encourage them not to be shy and communicate with you freely;

Self-awareness truly has realistic perception for students of who they are and what can and can't they achieve. Self-awareness is directly related to success. It helps learners to work out achievable goals as they can

consider their weaknesses and power as well. It identifies the situations and assists students to make positive behavioral changes that can lead learners towards great success in study process.

Research Survey

This research tried to reveal the problems of low self-esteem in students in Telavi State University. Since the beginning of the autumn semester (September, 2016) until December the students of the first year at the faculty of Education Sciences were observed. There were 15 students in an English class but 3 of them really had low self-awareness. All the students were females.

The 3 students with low self-esteem never desired to present in front of the class and never had their home-work done. Their characterization and problems are presented below.

Student A: turned red all over the face when asked to present in front of the class, said she could not do her home-work as she did not understand the material and sat in a silent way, but in reality she had done her task and simply refused to read it aloud.

Student B: said she did not have enough vocabulary to speak or retell something in front of the class and preferred to listen to others rather than talk herself.

Student C: said she studied German at school and was unable to study as well as others did and wanted to take private lessons first and increase her knowledge and after that she would join others.

To become more aware about the reasons of their low level of self-awareness we asked them to fill the questionnaire. Most of the questions were open-ended. The questionnaire was anonymous.



1. I can't do my home work because----

2. I can't present in front of the class because-----

3. Tick the most suitable answers:

My English language knowledge in the vocabulary is a. ___weak, b. ___moderate, c. ___zero, d. ___normal

4. Is your class friendly a. ___yes b. ___no

5. How can I evaluate my English teacher____

6. My hobby is_____

7. I am good at_____

7. I consider the English language course a. ___important, b. ___very important c. ___less necessary
d. ___unimportant

In case your answer in question 7 is a, answer the following question:

8. I think English lesson is important because_____

9. I like meeting new people a. ___yes b. ___no

10. First underline one from the two bold variants and then write your answer

Being (not being) with people makes me happy (unhappy) because_____

The questionnaire was a great help to decide on the further steps and to try to raise the level of self-awareness of these students.

According to the questionnaires, we found out that one student refused to read out or present in front of the class because she was overweight and did not want to be in the center of attention, all her clothes were tight and when students looked at her she turned red in her face and could not even say a word. Though she often had her tasks done, but she was too shy due to being overweight to answer in front of the class.

Another student answered that when she was at school her classmates and even teacher used to laugh at her pronunciation and she did not want to undergo the same experience. She was not self-confident about her pronunciation and abilities in English.

The third student admitted that because of not having a background in the English language she was unable to learn anything and was very scared of having to retake the course.

Though, according to the questionnaires, the students considered English very important as they knew that knowledge of English language was a precondition of being employed in the future. They neither had problems with their

teacher, but they revealed that the class was not friendly, so they did not meet each other out of the class. Their only destination was home from the University.

Thus, the problems of low self-esteem in the students were revealed. To change the situation, other students' assistance was needed. After that a conversation was held with the rest 13 students in a Facebook group; the teacher asked them secretly to be friendlier with those students and to invite them to cafes, their homes, parties or birthday celebrations. The teacher additionally held classes with those 3 students to improve their English to help them believe that they also can join other students in learning. It really helped. More discussions and group work in class were held where the stimulated these 3 students to talk and present tasks in spite of their errors. The situation has really improved, friendly photos appear in their Facebook pages. The teacher tries to evaluate the students in front of the class positively and to correct publicly all the mistakes they have done. The teacher involved them in group presentations or projects that greatly help them to feel part of the class life. One of discussions was about famous people with their complexes, including obesity, poverty or any other thing, showing that these reasons cannot become real obstacles for people who want to make their career and achieve success. The girls gradually guessed that they should learn lessons and be involved not for others but for their own sake. The low level of self-awareness prevented students from learning and they had low academic achievement, but today everything is the opposite, they are trying to raise the confidence in themselves with the help of other students and teachers. They are happier and more motivated. Being self-aware helped students to create the skills necessary for learning. Teachers can help students increase the level of self-esteem with various methods. Being self-aware means more success and a good future. Confidence plays a crucial role for developing self-awareness and goal-setting. When students develop their capacity to understand their own abilities, they are better equipped to employ important skills in order to complete a task or reach a goal and be more self-aware and self-confident in learning.

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EDUCATION AS A FACTOR IN THE WORLD POLITICS

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Abstract

The problem of education has not become yet such a traditional theme during the consideration of the different aspects of the world politics as economic and legal aspects of human activity. But at the time a person with his/her knowledge and skills is gradually becoming the main active force in the world political development, accordingly, in the world politics. Since the end of the XX century the economic potential of a country somehow has become more actual than the military one. Today the development of human potential is taking the leading place, preceding other priorities and it is understandable, as human being makes his/her contribution to the modern production, economy, culture, and science. A person's future depends on his/her educational level. In this regard, education is becoming the political factor of the modern world.

Keywords: Education, politics, brain-power, integration, students

Introduction

The problem of education has not become yet such a traditional theme during the consideration the different aspects of the world politics as the economic and legal aspects of human activity. But at the time a person with his/her knowledge and skills is gradually becoming the main active force in the world political development, accordingly, in the world politics. Like the fact, how since the end of the 20th century the economic factor has become more actual than the military one, today the development of the human potential is taking the leading place, prevailing before the other priorities and it is understandable, as a human being makes his/her contribution to the modern production, economy, culture, and science. But these factors and the human's future depend greatly on his/her educational level. In this regard, education is more and more becoming a political factor of the modern world.

Knowledge as a decisive factor in the world politics

Knowledge has always been an active force of social progress. At the end of 16th and beginning of 17th century English philosopher Francis Bacon noted, that the force is connected with possessing information (Bacon, 2014). However, with more basis his words can be discussed in the modern period with just one correction, that the force is not the information itself, but the skill of using and analyzing it.

Postindustrial period – with the new technologies and the connected with them information and communication branches, and also bio-technologies – present the new requirements to the personality. It is not by accident that the educational factors in politics are written about by authors, who are oriented on the ideas, which are worked out in the framework of postindustrial or information society. Particularly, D. Bell paid the attention to the fact that forming the new information society is based on the knowledge of ‘Intellectual Technologies’. One of the leading specialists in the field of World economy of global problems, T.L. Thurow (2000) called those new branches the ‘artificial intellectual branches’ (*man-made brain-power industries*).

Orientation on the “intellectual industry” required the changes in the field of education. The sufficient changes in this field were held in the second half of the 20th century, which followed the processes of globalization and connected with them changes, the increased requirements to the human being. Knowledge and the skills of using and creating it are becoming the main resource.

Knowledge and skills, in comparison with raw materials, are not exhaustible resources. Their potential, on the contrary, is gradually increasing: new knowledge creates new skills. According to the World Bank, in the modern time on the traditional, ‘physical’ capital constitutes only 16% of the general volume of the world wealth, 20% - natural and other 64% deal with the human capital, which includes first of all qualification level, entailing education (World Bank, 1995).

The increasing role of intellect and knowledge is especially noticeable in the developed states. The differences between the level of education are becoming the main criteria’s in the gaining the future incomes. If in the USA since 1978 to 1987 the income on average increased for 17% (for whole population), for the college graduates they increased for 48%. At the same time, for the persons, without high education the incomes decreased for 4%. Thus, human being, who gained good education, not only obtained the high social status, but also significantly improved his/her living conditions (Rose & Winship, 2009, p. 40).

Analogous tendencies were observed and continue to be observed in other developed and new industrial states. By this reason education is becoming one of the main life priorities. Thus, at the end of the 20th century, in Japan and South Korea almost all young citizens were visiting school, while in Indonesia – only 45-50% and in Thailand – less than 40% (Lebedeva, 2007, p. 294).

In general, for his/her life, the graduate of the University at the end of XX century and beginning of the XXI Century can earn more than 600 thousand dollars, more than citizen from the same generation without the high education. It is

first of all determined by the rapid increasing in the world the demand on the high education. More and more number of graduates of the schools are intending for study at the high educational institutes. In the developed states, this number is about 50%, at the same time, for example in Malaysia is less than 15% (Lebedeva, 2007, p. 294).

On the global level, the number of students in the world as to July 2009, exceeded 150 million people. According to the General Director of UNESCO Koïchiro Matsuura, in the same year, there was regional inequality in the system of education. For example, in the countries of North America, Western and Eastern Europe about 50 percent of the young population was involved at the higher education, in the Asia-Pacific Region, twice less – about 25%, and in Africa Southern to Sahara desert, less than 6% (Pravda, 2009).

With the increase of the significance of education there the expenses on gaining education are increasing, too. Bachelor degrees are no longer valued too much, possessing Master's and Ph.D. degrees are in demand, i.e. there is a high demand on those people, who can not only use the already obtained knowledge, but are able to create novelties within different disciplines.

According to the view of some experts, for a 20 years period (1970-1990), the tuition fee for education at private US universities increased by 474%, at the same time, the average consuming price index for this period increased only by 248% (Inozemtsev, 1999).

Due to the fact that, according to the modern conditions, it is necessary to gain education continuously, the sphere of services is becoming more and more actual for offering education for the elder part of the population. On the market, there have appeared many different programs and special courses in various fields for this category of people, for example, for gaining computer skills, conducting negotiations, study of foreign languages, personal management, psychology, etc.

The introduction of the new technologies especially significantly changes the face of the modern educational process. Internet represents the most important source for gaining information by the representatives of the different target groups – students, researchers, scientists, businessmen, etc.

According to statistics, as to March 31, 2017, there are 3,731,973,423 internet users in the World, or 49.6% of the world population. At the same time it should be pointed out that Internet users' number has increased during 2000-2017 by 933.8% (Internet World Stats, 2017).

Changes for the requirements for education and skills are followed by the serious social-economic consequences. F. Fukuyama (2006), for example, underlines, that in the modern time the radical polarization of the society is caused by the fact that there are two main categories of people: those who want to gain education, who has the special knowledge, qualification and skills and rest of the people. At the same time, to receive education, despite the fact, that it represents the "democratic resource", is not an easy task. Theoretically, education can be gained by everybody. Even more, at the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (United Nations Organization, 1948), in article 26 it is pointed out:

Article 26

1. "Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.
2. Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.
3. Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children".

However, there is the problem of the access for gaining education, which is determined by the functioning of the good schools, universities, possibilities of using the library, internet, etc.

The significant increase of the expenses on education in the modern world signifies that good education is becoming more accessible for people from the high and middle social classes. Besides, from the childhood period they are forming the appropriate values for education, and they depend on the family and social environment.

With the purpose of gaining a qualified education and also for the finding a qualified and high-income job, after gaining a diploma young people from central and eastern Europe, post-soviet space, Asia, etc. are emigrating to Europe and North America, and it is an ongoing brain drain process. As a result, education is becoming more and more connected with other problems of the global development, such as: migration of the population and polarization by the line "rich North – poor South". The increase of the disproportion at the level of education between developed and developing states causes alarm and strengthens economic and social inequality of the population from different states. In this regard, it should be mentioned about North-South Gap, that particularly today in the developing world (Global South), live about 80% of the world population, however, they produce only 40% of the world GDP (Mukhaev, 2009).

At the same time, taking into account that world population each year is increasing by 80-85 million people, and about 90% of the growth is coming on the countries from the Global South, it can be assumed that each year the percentage of the population in the democratic states from Global North is gradually decreasing (Neidze, 2004). This factor can influence the increasing possibilities of illegal migration from the Global South to the Global North, increasing the level of unemployment, etc. Furthermore, in the countries of the Global South, where the level of reproduction is high, in the age structure young population prevails. But, at the same time, the existence of a 'young bulge' – a large proportion of young adults in the population – increases the risk of state failure through war because large pools of underemployed youths are easily mobilized into military action instead of their involvement in the education process.

For partly resolving the existing problems, despite the level of incomes, an appropriate policy on the national and international levels should be implemented.

Tendencies and policy in the field of education

The main tendencies of the modern world, of course, also depend on the base of education. First of all, the sphere of education experiences influence from globalization, which is shown in the different forms.

The transparency of the borders is the result of the fact that in the modern world students are trying to get qualified education at the most prestigious universities, outside of their countries. In turn, educational institutions are interested that international students are involved in the educational process at those institutes. It permits them to attract an additional financial resources, to have the graduates from different state and non-state structures in the whole world, to promote educational courses by taking into consideration the specifics of other cultures, traditions, etc. Besides, professors' exchange programs expand the professional skills of the teachers, permits to exchange ideas and experiences. As a result, such universities are becoming more attractive during the admission of the new applicants.

Knowledge and information are the sphere which makes it easier to overcome national borders. Due to it, at the stage of globalization various forms of the distance learning become more and more popular, first of all, due to the opportunities which new technologies create. In distance learning the location of students sometimes does not have a great significance for obtaining knowledge, but at the same time there are no direct relations with teachers. There is a language barrier, too – most of the web-sites, and also educational programs – are in English, due to it, not speaking English, also the absence of the basic computer skills seriously hamper gaining knowledge.

Strongly connected with globalization, the *integration* of the modern world is shown in the educational sphere too, first of all – in the field of higher education. This process means the cooperation of different spheres: exchange of students and professors, and the standardization of the educational programs. The Integration of higher education is especially fixed in Europe due to the *Bologna Process*, which represents the policy, directed for the unification of the European Educational Process (European Commission, 2013).

At the same time, integration processes in the field of education have some barriers. There is a list of the new problems, which are determined by cultural differences, national traditions, legal acknowledgement of the diplomas, social-psychological adaptation of foreign students at other states, etc.

Together with the integration in the field of education, there disintegration tendencies are developing, too. Particularly, it is shown in the decentralization of education. As American authors M. Carnoy and Samoff (2014) mention, it means the transition of many functions of management in education in several states from the national to the local and municipal levels. On the one hand, the decisions, which are adopted on the local level, are not always optimal, which affects the quality of education. At the same time, during decentralization, more attention is paid to the private aspects, orienting graduates on the applied aspects and paying less attention to the general (fundamental) tendencies of the global development. Also it should be pointed out that local educational structures are becoming more independent.

The role of the state in the field of education

The state, which is formulating the educational policy, faces the necessity to determine which functions and in which volume to deliver to the local level.

Universities and institutes more and more often depended on market requirements. The phenomenon of the *commercialization of education* is becoming more characteristic for its all levels (school, university), and different types (state, private) of institutions in different countries.

Under the condition of the orientation on the market, one group of institutions, especially universities, attract the funds by offering educational services, opening new branches in other cities and countries, admitting foreign students, etc. At the same time, together with education they conduct consultative and analytical services at the appropriate directions. It provides them not only additional finance resources, but also giving the opportunity for students to have practice at the University. Besides, teachers are directly connected with resolving practical tasks. As a result, consultative and analytical services give the change for universities to gain an important political influence in several fields (for example, international relations, law, economics, and political science). As a result of those processes, the biggest universities are transformed into "transnational corporations", by the accumulating the important material and cultural resources. For keeping such a status, those Universities are oriented not on gaining income in a short-term perspective, but on the long-term purposes. Due to it, they intend to strengthen the educational and scientific base, attract professors with high international authority, etc.

Other educational centers go another way. They try first of all to gain the short-term commercial profit. As a result, the quality of education suffers.

In the field of school education, such type of behavior is followed by the mixture of the priorities. Instead of the evaluation of the child as a unique person, who possesses the basis of fundamental knowledge, he/she is more oriented on applied education, which in the future permits to find a job within a short time period. Decreasing the level of fundamental education is followed by the weakening of attention during the process of education to the principles of ethic, morality, social justice, etc. Those values are outside of the focus of professors. University administration requires the implementation of such tasks, which would bring commercial profit, and not those, which satisfy the social needs. This tendency, according to several experts, is noticed in several universities of Japan, USA, Great Britain, Germany, and more clearly in Russia and China.

In the framework of orientation on the applied education, an especially wide distribution gained the practice of founding of specialized centers, which are involved in the training of the staff in the concrete field, for example, in computer technologies, management, etc. There are many of them, especially in Latin America. Here the process of 'connection' of knowledge, gained at the high school, with production is going on. Classical Universities with the fundamental education and strong teaching base do not have the dominant position in the high education of Latin

America. As it is mentioned by American authors N. Stromquist and K. Monkman (2003), 85% of the institutes, which are involved in higher education process, are the units with a narrow field of specializations, which belong to the private companies. In Columbia, Brazil, Chile, Salvador, and Dominican Republic from 50 to 65% of applicants start the higher education at such type of institutes.

Transnational corporations, which are interested in the training of the staff for their purposes, very often found specialized (technical) higher educational institutions. For example, *Motorola*, *Intel* and other companies have such institutes. Future specialists together with knowledge and production skills obtain the feelings of being team members, i.e. to belong to a concrete company. There are other positive moments. Thus, the government expenditures on education decrease. Business structures, which are interested in recruiting the staff, make important investments in the development of education. First of all, it is going on in the developed states. If in 1960 in USA 58% of the expenses on education were financed from the Federal Budget, in 1990 US Central Government was spending less than 30% on it (Inozemtsev, 2001).

At the same time, this factor also has its negative tendencies. Particularly, gaining the education at the technical colleges and not at the universities, at the first stage of the professional career can have some advantages, because people possess applied skills. However, in the future, because of the absence the fundamental knowledge, it becomes a barrier for their professional development, especially, if they want to start working for another company.

Increasing the role of business in the educational process brings the results, according to which the government is less involved and less controls the field of education. Sometimes these universities are just required to present study programs to the Ministry of Education.

The supporters of more involvement of the market mechanisms in the system of education often underlines the negative role of the state, especially in the developing countries, which has a negative effect - increasing corruption at the Ministries of Education, presence of the non-professional management staff at the Ministries, etc.

At the same time, there is an opposite point of view, according to which government is obliged to establish a strict control on the sphere of education and not permit the development of the processes, which are connected with the commercialization, privatization and decentralization of the education.

There are two different points of view. In reality, in the field of education and in other fields the issue of not abolishment of the role of the state, but changing the role of state in education can be discussed. Nowadays, government has less control on the system of education, but at the same time it has worked out additional regulative mechanisms of the system of education, by being involved in the consideration and adoption of the different norms and rules of behavior. Regulation itself means, particularly, working out the national and international standards, accreditation of universities, certification of educational programs and materials, etc.

It is important to prevent the involvement in university education process of only representatives from the elite groups. International community, by financing and other methods, intends to widen the attraction to universities of

students from different social, ethnical and other groups. At the same time, special attention is paid to the category of population, who before had a limited access to higher education – women, national and religious minorities, invalids. With regard to the last category, there are principally other possibilities of learning, first of all to use internet technologies for those people, who have some difficulties for attending a university. In general, such policy is directed toward the *democratization* of the sphere of education.

The regulatory function of the state is shown in such issues, that determines the place, role and other parameters for the *private education* in the framework of the whole educational complex.

Many west European countries do not limit the presence of the private schools or universities, but such states as Sweden and Norway, are mostly oriented on the state (public) education. At those states, only 1-2% of students learn at private schools, which at the same time are under the strict state control (Lebedeva, 2007, p. 304). In the USA, in the past children were sent to the nearest schools, but today the choice depends on the preference of parents. Even more, the government of the USA issues special certificates, first of all, for those people, who do not have a high income. This practice exists in some other countries, too.

In the sphere of public policy, there are other important topics, which are connected with working out the directions of education development i.e. its planning process. One of the serious problems is the fact that, under modern conditions, the period of working out a national policy in the field of education is decreasing. If before this cycle was measured by 4-5 years, today, according to N. Stromquist and K. Monkman (2003), the programs are founded and “die” within 11-12 months. So, today before the state there is the task to change the orientation from the “strategic planning” to the “eternal flexible reaction” on the changes, which are going on.

With regard to funding, it should be mentioned that economically developed states spend more money on the system of education, than developing ones. For example, within 1958 - 1972, the expenses on education in the USA in general increased from 11.8% to 14.8% of GDP. However, most of the states could not reach the appropriate level of education, which was recommended by the International Commission on Education in the 21st century 6% of GDP (Lebedeva, 2007, p. 306).

Conclusion

In general, it can be assumed, that there are different priorities of various countries in the sphere of education. For example, if in developed states education of elders is directed on the training of those people, who already possess a high level of knowledge and skills, in the developing countries exists another task: to give the basic education for those, who did not get it during the childhood. Unfortunately, those countries demonstrate tendencies, according to which the education of low social classes of population is ignored. It is especially characteristic for the basic education, and also the education of adults. In the beginning of the 21st century, about 860 million people were still illiterate, and over 100 million

children had no access to school. Thus, each seventh person of our planet has problems with gaining a basic education (UN, 2005). In other words, the level of knowledge of those people was extremely low, which did not satisfy even minimal requirements. Mostly it is the population from the "Global South".

Nowadays states more and more closely cooperate with NGO-s, and also business structures, which are founded and are functioning at schools and universities on the regional and international level. The main tasks of their cooperation is more involvement of students in the working activities during the holidays, providing the graduates with jobs, self-governance of schools and universities, etc. At the same time, very often the state itself is the main coordinator of such activities. It is rapidly increasing the coordinative function of the state in the sphere of international integration of education. One of the clear examples is the Bologna Process in Europe.

In the development and planning of education international interstate and international non-governmental Organizations are actively involved. Among them first of all should be mentioned UN and its specialized Agencies, particularly UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization), UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund), UNDP (United Nations Development Programme) and other interstate organizations, which use difference sources of financing. For example, such international institute as UNESCO is oriented on governmental and non-governmental sources; UNESCO gains funds from the contribution of the member states. With regard to the World Bank, it attracts the funds by the agency of the commercial operations.

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SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVISM AND HUMAN DIGNITY - REVISITING STEINBECK IN THE 21ST CENTURY

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Abstract

The technocratic world of the 21st century has ousted feelings and emotions, the passion to live and the quest for new sensations. People are mainly preoccupied with their efforts for survival. This is the reality created by the modern world; but what is the nature of reality, and how it is shaped? The answer to this question is not an easy one as the reality is a multi-faceted notion and the members of society need to come to an agreement as to how to define and shape the reality. From ontological perspective, social constructivism, a theoretical framework used as the basis for analysis in this paper, rejects the idea of single objective reality. Human beings need to try to construct the reality which is not incongruous and has a potential to accommodate the societal needs. How can human beings agree on how to shape the reality if it is not single and objective? The paper tries to seek answer to this question through Steinbeck's literary work – *The Winter of Our Discontent*.

Keywords: constructivism, social constructivism, reality, Steinbeck, morality, human values

Introduction

The technocratic world of the 21st century has ousted feelings and emotions, the passion to live and the quest for new sensations. People are mainly preoccupied with their efforts for survival – to survive every single day at work and the accompanying pressure, or unemployment and again, the accompanying pressure, and everyday tension. This is the reality created by the modern world; but the question raised in this paper is: what the reality is, what the nature of reality is, and how it is shaped. The answer to this question is not an easy one, as the reality is a multi-faceted notion and members of the society need to come to an agreement as to how to define and shape the reality. Human beings need to try to construct the reality which is not incongruous and has a potential to accommodate the societal needs. The dilemma of negotiating individual needs and other people's aspirations is discussed in this paper through Steinbeck's novel *The Winter of Our Discontent*. To analyse the author's work and to find answers to the posed question, social constructivism has been used as a theoretical framework and the basis on which discussion and arguments are placed. From ontological

perspective, social constructivism rejects the idea of single objective reality. Human beings need to try to construct the reality which is not incongruous and has a potential to accommodate the societal needs. How can human beings agree on how to shape the reality if it is not single and objective? The paper tries to seek answer to this question through Steinbeck's literary work.

Social Constructivism and the Nature of Reality

Technocratic world, the world of technology, the digital world of the 21st century has ousted feelings and emotions, passion to live, taste, and feel, or quest for new sensations – the sensations which are real, which can breathe life into the dead world of the modern society engaged in the rate race for survival. And these endeavours for survival tend to create the necessity for constant negotiation of the reality, the one that might give a person an advantage over another; accordingly, the question that might be raised here is, what is the reality, which reality is more objective, and who or what can shape it? The answer to this question is hard to find; however, what can be argued here is that the reality can be multifaceted and individuals need to find the ways to negotiate among each other in order to shape the context which more or less fits everyone's individual requirements and aspirations; and it seems impossible, and has actually proven impossible. What could be the solution to the dilemma?

Human beings need to try to construct the reality which is not incongruous and has a potential to accommodate the societal needs. This kind of perception of reality has been claimed as "a strategy for our new millennium" (Brott, 2001, p. 311). Brott (ibid) develops a very interesting approach viewing life as set of roles which are "... co-constructed, deconstructed and constructed through a collaborative dialogue" (p.311). This metaphor of life as a set of roles is not a novelty or unique as Shakespeare claimed much earlier on that "all the world's a stage, and all the men and women merely players" (Shakespeare, *As You Like It*). However, what is interesting in Brott's approach is an emphasis on collaborative dialogue. Humans live in a social context where *collaborative dialogue* (our emphasis) is of vital importance as it helps shape the reality through socially constructed stories, and this is where *collaborative dialogue* is at play. Collaboration is what makes societal order possible, at least in the society where democratic principles regulate the relationship between individuals. This argument is in line with the theory of social constructivism, which implies that "... what is real is not an objective fact; rather, what is real evolves through interpersonal interaction and agreement as to what is 'fact'" (Ginter et al., 1996 as cited in Cottone, 2001, p. 39). This supports what Brott argued above, and it shows the necessity for people to be in constant dialogue with each other in order to make it possible to negotiate the reality in which individuals would prefer to place themselves.

Epistemological basis of social constructivism theory argues that the only source of knowledge is human interaction as "... all that is known is known through ... social relationships" (Cottone, 2001, p. 39). "Knowledge is actively constructed by the cognising subject, not passively received from the environment" (Lerman, 1989 as cited in Perry & Dockett, 1998, p. 6). These statements further strengthen the argument presented above which showed the importance of collaborative

dialogue to make sense of the existing world, and to do so it is of vital importance to determine how knowledge about this existing world is constructed by a person. "The construction of knowledge is a process of construction of meanings through participation in socially negotiated and discursive activity" (Mishra, 2015, p. 74). From ontological perspective, social constructivism rejects the idea of single objective reality. As it has been noted above, there must be an agreement among individuals within the society as to what 'a fact' is. Social constructivism does not reject the existence or possibility of objective reality; however, this objective reality is known and perceived through each person's individual subjective lenses. "Coming to know is an adaptive process that organizes one's experiential world; it does not discover an independent, pre-existing world outside the mind" (Lerman, 1989 as cited in Perry & Dockett, 1998, p. 6). Likewise, Cottone (2001, p. 39) argues that social constructivism theorizes the reality as "a 'plastic' system that is ever-changing through the influence of social interaction."

Social interaction is not possible without a language; a language is a means of communication between individuals in the society when and while they are trying to negotiate the meaning and make sense of the surrounding world. The language is social by nature, as it cannot exist independent of human beings using it and assigning meaning to it. Thus, giving meaning to a language makes the whole process creative and interactive, and highlights the social nature of a language. "Language is not generated spontaneously; it is socially transmitted. All that is done (in language or otherwise) is bound to heritage. Decisions, therefore, cannot be located 'in' the individual. Rather, they are in the social matrix" (Cottone, 2001, p. 40). Meanings created in a language through negotiation and interaction shapes a discourse affecting the reality and determines the ways people think, speak or behave. Thus, language obtains and owns power and influence over the reality; a language without meaning or influence is just a text – a piece of language with no certain power or influence over the events, and thus not able to affect the reality.

Once social nature of language is agreed, and based on it, the reality as a product of social interaction is negotiated, it is important to define a person's role in shaping the agreed reality. The fact that it has been argued here that the reality is social by its nature and is an outcome of human interaction as an attempt to negotiate what a 'fact' is, does not necessarily mean that there is an unequivocal agreement on what the reality is. As it has been mentioned above, the reality is an outcome of constant negotiation among individuals, and accordingly, the nature of the reality might change based on what the society agrees on. Once it is about human interaction and agreement, the issue of responsibility naturally presents itself – the responsibility over the honesty and dignity while agreeing on the nature of reality; thus, an ethical issue, or to be more accurate, an issue of ethics and morality is raised.

The social constructivism approach to ethical decision making places the ethical decision out in the open – in the interaction between individuals. A decision is never made in a social vacuum. A decision is always made in interaction with at least one other individual.

(Cottone, 2001, p. 40)

Based on the statements presented above, it can be argued that an individual is placed in a social context which is constantly changing based on the societal needs and aspirations, and the agreement among individuals. Accordingly, if the reality depends on the agreement of individuals, as Northcut & Heller (2002) argue, it proves to be relative and members of the society have to confront the consequences of the relative truth, hence relative reality. As the social context is shaped by the participants involved in it, that is members of the society, they try to present their individual perception of the reality trying to create the environment which best fits their world view, needs and requirements. However, this negotiation always involves a decision-making process, the aim of which is to determine which aspect of reality is a 'fact', the fact equally acceptable to the members of the society; and here morality is a major concern; are moral and ethical values determining people's choices while negotiating the meaning for the social context, or do they only care about their personal needs and aspirations? Of course, everyone has their own subjective world view, and they try to construct the reality through their individual perspective, but social nature of reality necessitates negotiation of needs so that everyone's voice is heard, as mentioned above, through collaborative dialogue. Accordingly, morality and ethics are major preconditions of collaborative dialogue, ethical decision making, and human dignity. Everything that is outside ethics, though fitting a person's individual aspirations, is beyond the scope of morality and code of ethics negotiated by the society, beyond human dignity. However, there is a dilemma; once the social context, and morale and ethics of the society depend on negotiation and collaboration, the question is, what if the majority of the community placed in a certain social context somehow manage to agree on ethics that is not ethical at all? The morale that does not fit human understanding of morality traditionally established throughout the history of mankind? This paper tries to find answers to these questions through one of Steinbeck's renowned novels *The Winter of Our Discontent*.

***Winter of Our Discontent* – The Demise of Human Dignity?**

John Steinbeck is often characterized as a 'prolific and unpredictable novelist' (Harcourt, 1996, p. 453). Though the plot of the story is nothing like a sensation with no excessive tragedy or joy, locked in a quite limited geographical location, it gives a reader much to read between the lines.

It is the story of a New England gentleman who, through his honesty and goodwill, has come down in the world and who see a chance, by abandoning his honesty, to regain his fortune and thus the trappings of his social position and self-respect. (Harcourt, 1996, p. 454)

It is a story of a simple man, Ethan Allen Hawley, a descendant of Long Island's aristocracy; having lost all the family fortune, Ethan's father left him with nothing, so he has to work as a clerk in a grocery store. In spite of this, Ethen does not care much about his social status and feels quite happy; however, the rest of the family, especially Ethen's wife, cannot tolerate the fact that they do not belong to high class society. His wife's attitude to Ethen's integrity and sense of dignity is resentful, first and foremost, to Ethen himself; however, in the end he cannot resist the pressure from the family, loses

his integrity and dignity, and through dishonest actions does everything to regain his family's former social status, wealth and position in the high society.

The plot is simple enough, as mentioned above; however, the title itself indicates that there is much more to sense and feel than is given on the surface. 'Winter of Our Discontent', words from Shakespeare's *Richard III* creates a powerful allusion to a tragedy – a turmoil in the soul of the main character of the novel. In the beginning of the novel a reader sees the main character with no special features or personality; however, what should be mentioned here is that Ethan is not a typical character of, for example, Thackeray's no-hero-type novel *Vanity Fair*, in which characters are faceless beings with no specific traits or emotions. In Steinbeck's novel Ethan is just an ordinary person with no special aspirations, content with his life; however, transformation of the character is what the allusion to *Richard III* indicates to – a turmoil in Ethan's soul. A reader observes how the main hero changes gradually, though no overt account of these changes is given by the author. This is what a person needs to read about in between the lines. As Ethan's character begins to change, his luck brings much novelty into his life; and at the end of the book he owns much property in New Baytown, regains his status, but is lost as a person, as he has lost his soul. He should be happy, but actually he feels terrible because he has deceived his boss, the owner of the shop, betrayed his friend and got hold of his land, blackmailed the so-called aristocracy of the town, understands that his wife is vain, and his son a liar trying to win in the competition through cheating and plagiarism. At the end, Ethan understands that he has lost a battle with life – has lost his dignity and faith in human good will.

Steinbeck describes the world of New Baytown; however, this world is perceived by the characters of the novel through completely different perspectives. Thus, the reality is constructed differently, and the interaction between a person and the rest of the society is painted in sharp colors by Steinbeck. Ethan's world is completely different from his family's or the rest of the society; the question about morality might not be relevant to the events at the beginning of the novel; one cannot definitely say that Ethan's simplicity and lack of motivation to gain money is more ethical than his wife and children's aspiration to appear among the aristocracy. What is appalling in the novel is Ethan's metamorphosis. A reader might find his wife's wish to gain money and social status quite appealing, but there is nothing unethical as she is just an ordinary person with a little bit of stupidity, a little bit of vanity and much wish to live in comfort. The same is the case with Ethan's son. Here, the reality that Ethan's family construct for themselves is not much different from the rest of the society as everyone shares the same values and aspirations. They do not show any endeavours to shape reality for themselves; they readily accept the reality constructed by the broader society, to be more accurate, elite of New Baytown. There is nothing to negotiate. However, what Ethan does is the real tragedy as he breaks the rules of what earlier on has been referred to as collaborative dialogue – the reality is shaped by the members of the society through collaborative dialogue which means that everybody's needs and aspirations are taken into consideration, everybody's voice is heard. Does Ethan observe the rules of collaborative dialogue? He starts to claim his portion of reality through the negotiation; but he is well-aware of the fact that the elite of the town have broken the rules of socially constructed reality long before and claimed bigger role for themselves in defining the context in which the society needs to live. Ethan's revenge is

horrible; however, it is a revenge against himself as he caused the biggest damage to himself – he lost his human values and dignity.

Ethan remains relaxed throughout the novel and his behavior never changes overtly; but what he does is aggressive and cruel which actually shows the author's protest against the ruling class and its established order of things. "In *The Winter of Our Discontent*, Steinbeck tries to recover his angry young manner with a blast at the affluent society" (Harcourt, 1996, p. 455). Harcourt (ibid) claims that "unfortunately, the book contains more pose than passion, and the moral anathema sounds curiously like late-middle-aged petulance", but it is easily explicable. Steinbeck, and here parallel could be drawn with the works of many writers of *the Lost Generation*, could not find solution posed by the reality – the society engulfed in vanity cannot breed moral values and the only solution is to die; however, Steinbeck, like Hemingway, loves life and tries to push ideal stoicism into his hero – live on and fight, in spite of the fact that the battle is lost, values are wasted, still the only solution is to live and breed new generations who might find enough power in themselves to change the reality and negotiate meanings which might shape the reality where everybody's voice is heard, where moral values are formed by every single member of the society. Steinbeck applies the principles of old Greek drama – when humans are not able to cope with the dilemma, God comes to the stage – Deus ex Machina – luck or God's will which helps to untie the knot and resolve the conflict. Thus, Ethan's daughter is presented as Deus ex Machina in the novel, and when after realizing that he has lost his face Ethan decides to commit suicide, he accidentally finds in his pocket old family relic – a pink stone owned by the family from generation to generation; Ethan's daughter had probably placed the stone in her father's pocket as a sign to show that in spite of all he needs to carry on living and try to pave way to new generations in the family.

Final Thoughts

The Winter of Our Discontent is a curious book and a strangely moving one, the product of a veteran novelist who throughout his career has managed to retain his faith that out of goodness and simple feelings, more goodness can flow and, as at the end of the novel, the light of life can continue burning. (Harcourt, 1996, p. 455)

The paper tried to analyse Steinbeck's novel through social constructivism ontology which argues that rather than existing independently of human beings the reality is constructed by the society, and every single member tries to assign their own meaning to societal practices. However, the negotiation of societal needs and thus the construction of reality is not always fair, and not everybody's voice is heard. The one who manages to find advantage over another and claim more power and authority, gets a privilege to dictate how the reality will be shaped. This often excludes the presence of collaborative dialogue whose major aim is to devolve power and authority to the members of the society so that everyone has the right to contribute to the formation of the context and the order of things. Steinbeck's novel *The Winter of Our Discontent* brilliantly shows that the society is highly stratified and there is no balance in who claims how much authority. Influence is what people crave for, and in their endeavours to gain this influence, very often they create the order of things

which supports inequality, unfairness, and low morale of the society. However, as Harcourt argues, Steinbeck is an idealist in his approaches and supports the idea of stoicism that fight though the battle is lost. Like Hemingway's old man fighting against sharks, Ethen knows that he lost, but he tries to find power to carry on living and support his daughter who is his last resort.

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DESIGNING STUDENT-ORIENTED LITERATURE TEACHING LESSONS TO PROMOTE FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION

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Abstract

Literature teaching has gained quite a big importance in the field of foreign language teaching. Yet, less is known and written about how to turn non-motivating lessons into truly motivating ones. The present study aims to gain as much detailed information as possible on reading and comprehending literary texts in English in order to consider foreign language learners' attitudes and interests. Through gaining the above-mentioned information the study tries to find out the difficulties that arise while reading and the language learners' coping techniques. The research was carried out among eight 2nd, 3rd and 4th year students of the English Language specialty at Iakob Gogebashvili Telavi State University using the phenomenological approach. Think-aloud sessions, participants' diaries and interviews were used as the research instruments. The research revealed the fact that some strategies turn into anti-strategies due to their ineffective usage that hinder accurate comprehension. Also, the development of most students' reading comprehension by independent reading is very slow and purposeful teaching of using strategies effectively is needed. The study proved that in order to improve students' attitudes and increase their motivation it is necessary to react to their interests, necessities and problems arising while reading. Practical recommendations are suggested in the conclusion section.

Keywords: literature, strategies, reading comprehension, instructions.

Introduction

Numerous researchers in the field of literature teaching emphasize the importance of fiction reading (Banu, 2012; Carter & Long, 1991; Collie & Slater, 1987; Dalmau, Bobkina, & Martes, 2012; Khatib & Shakouri, 2013; Kheladi, 2013; Lazar, 1993; Mokhtari, 2014; Nasirahmadi, Madarsara & Aghdam, 2014; Vandrick, 1997). According to Collie & Slater (1987), literature teaching enhances cultural knowledge, promotes language learning and personal involvement. Researchers also point out that it improves not only reading skill, but also critical thinking and speaking (Durant, 1995), all four skills, vocabulary, grammar and even pronunciation (Banu, 2012).

However, there are some aspects to be considered when teaching literature to students. Researchers warn teacher practitioners about obstacles and problems in the process of literature reading. Yavuz (2014) and Zwaan (1991) consider metaphors and some features of literary works to cause ambiguity in readers and hamper the text comprehension. Alemi (2011), Bobkina & Dominguez (2014), Lima (2010) and Vandrick (1997) point out the importance of selecting appropriate reading materials. Defining Learner's knowledge and text difficulty is essential in this process (Collie & Slater, 1987; Lima, 2010; Nuttall, 2000) as a lot of unknown vocabulary and complicated structures of sentences hinder texts comprehension. Taking readers' interests into account is vital as they are willing to read about the themes that are appealing to them (Bakhtadze, 2015; Collie & Slater, 1987; Lazar, 1993; Lima 2010; Vandrick, 1997, Wu, 2008). Also, when selecting literary works it is essential to consider its length (Bobkina & Dominguez, 2014; Ghazali et al., 2009; Wu, 2008). Besides, according to Bobkina & Dominguez (2014), difficulties often arise from vocabulary, syntax and cultural issues. The lack of teachers' preparation in the field of literature teaching (Banu, 2012) and ineffective teaching approaches are considered to be obstacles and problems in fiction reading (Ghazali et al., 2009; Kheladi, 2013). Paying a lot of attention to text analysis reduces students' motivation (Al-Mahrooqi, 2012). Learning new vocabulary is vital in the process of literature teaching, but paying too much attention to it also negatively effect students' motivation. Teaching methods, as well as students' lack of familiarity with contemporary authors also contribute to negative attitude towards literature reading. According to Wu (2008), some teachers and students have a negative attitude towards literature teaching and learning. This attitude mainly arises from two reasons. The first one is connected with students' opinions about English literature as they consider it boring and old-fashioned, due to the lack of knowledge of contemporary authors. The second reason, according to the same author, is connected with the teaching methodology as some teachers consider that students can understand only fragments of the texts, and some teachers treat them as Americans/British. Because of this perception they teach with the methodology that is neither appealing nor motivating for students.

Although there are many studies aiming to reveal students' and teachers' attitudes towards literature teaching, as well as difficulties, more detailed information is needed about the process of reading and comprehending literary works to help EFL learners tackle these difficulties and overcome obstacles. The study was conducted to describe the process, as well as to research EFL learners' attitudes, interests, difficulties and search for the necessary strategies and coping techniques which will help readers develop their reading comprehension. Therefore, the study was designed to investigate the main research questions:

- What attitude do English language learners have towards reading literary texts?
- What processes take place in an English language learner while reading?
- What problems arise while reading literary texts?
- What strategies do English language learners use?
- Can students read and comprehend literary works independently without help?

- How does reading comprehension improve in the process of literary texts reading?
- What kind of instructions do English language learners need to improve reading comprehension and how can teachers help them to achieve this goal?

Method

The study was conducted at Iakob Gogebashvili Telavi State University. It was carried out in the second term of the 2014-2015 academic year. Qualitative research methodology, namely, phenomenology was utilized in the study. The following phenomenon: reading comprehension of fiction - was the focus of the research.

Participants

The participants were eight 2nd, 3rd and 4th year undergraduate students. They all were English language specialty students. (The research started among 10 students, but two of them decided to quit). In order to ensure the participants' confidentiality letters were given to them according to the alphabetical order (A,B,C...), where indexes (1,2,3...) represent their year of study. The average age of the participant was 20-21 year. A cloze test was administered to determine their reading comprehension ability. The test consisted of one text taken from *Headway, Upper-intermediate* (Soars & Soars, 1998). The participants had to fill the 50 gaps with the missing words. The table 1 shows the test results.

Table 1. The Results of the Cloze Test

A ₃	C ₃	D ₃	E ₂	F ₃	G ₂	H ₂	J ₄
14	40	21	26	26	21	28	27

According to the test results, C₃ was the participant with the highest score, and A₃ with the lowest score.

Reading Materials

In order to get detailed information while reading, four American short stories were used in the study. Two of them were short stories of classic American authors [*An Angel in Disguise*, T. S. Arthur, n.d.; *The Gift of the Magi*, O'Henry, n.d.], and the rest were literary works of contemporary writers [*Aqua Boulevard*, Maile Meloy, 2003; *The Enormous Radio*, John Cheever]. The first two stories were selected because of their international recognition and approval, and the last two stories were chosen considering the fact that the authors received literary awards for them.

Procedure

The research was conducted in the year of 2015 (April-June). 4 think-aloud sessions and 2 interviews were carried out. Besides, participants' diaries were collected. On think-aloud sessions the participants read the first part of the short story (approximately 650 words) and talked about everything that was going through their mind. Their thinking and speaking processes were audio taped and later was listened and transcribed. The rest part of the texts was read independently by the participants at home. They wrote diaries and made notes about the following items: what was easy and what was difficult for them, and how they dealt with these difficulties. Besides, they wrote contents of the short stories so that their comprehension of the texts would be clear for the researcher.

As for the interviews, they were used to reveal the participants' attitudes towards literature reading, difficulties of the reading process, strategy usage, and tendency of their development and desired pedagogical help and instructions.

Data analysis

Research information was analyzed according to typological analysis. Types or themes, as well as subtypes or subthemes were allotted and information was provided according to them. The following steps were taken in the process of the data analysis:

- giving codes to the participants;
- transcribing the audio tapes;
- coding: giving the names to the themes and subthemes;
- finding the codes: highlighting the participants' comments and making notes on the margins;
- clustering the codes;
- assessing the whole reading process and making notes about it;
- finding and describing the relations among different processes;
- reviewing the results.

The important part of the research data was analyzed according to some researchers' strategy classification. We mostly rely on Grabe & Stoller's (2002) classification, but we also use classification of the following researchers: Block (1986); Collins & Smith (1980); Dole, Sloan & Trathen, 1995); Kern (1994); Mokhtari & Sheorey (2002); Phakiti (2006).

Results

Research results according to the think-aloud sessions

Literature reading was not an easy process for most students, but at least it was the process they were able to overcome. The participants used various strategies to help them in reading and comprehending although they sometimes did not use them effectively. Besides, apart from one participant, while-reading processes were less automatic that hampered fast, accurate and effective comprehension. However, most students were able to notice main ideas in case of increasing reading time.

The participants utilized many strategies and less successful ones also used them. More often used strategies were guessing the meaning of a new word from context, using a dictionary, forming a tentative hypothesis, ignoring and going on, rereading the current sentences and mental translation. The students also used predicting the contents of the text or section of text, checking predictions, summarizing information, making inferences, suspending judgment, self-correcting, controlling concentration or attention during reading and so on. Less successful students also used many strategies, but sometimes they weren't able to use them effectively. Table 2 shows some successful and unsuccessful use of the strategies.

Table 2. Strategy Usage

strategy	extract	Participant's comment	
Making inferences	But no one said "I'll take Maggie"... The sad eyes and patient face of the little one touched many hearts, and even knocked at them for entrance. But none opened to take her in. Who wanted a bed-ridden child?	<i>G₂ - nobody wanted to take Megi as she was a cripple.</i>	√
		<i>J₄ - It seems nobody wanted to take Megi because of her bad mother.</i>	×
Self-correcting	A ₃ - Two years before a fall from a window had injured her spine, and she had not been able to leave her bed since, except when lifted in the arms of her mother	<i>A₃ - She fell from the window and injured her spine... (at first A₃ thought that something happened to the mother as she confused the word "window" in "widow", but later she corrected it)</i>	√
		<i>G₂ - I probably made a mistake when I thought that the mother was dead, because underground... it is the tube... (G₂ tried to correct the information she already had, but the strategy was used as</i>	×

		antistrategy and it caused confusion in comprehension).	
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Some strategies were used excessively and there was a need for changing them. For example, the strategy “ignore and go on” was used very often by F₃ and E₂ on the first think-aloud session and much of the information was not comprehended. On the second think-aloud session they changed their style of processing the text and they used a dictionary very often, so they became dependent on it. On the other hand, student C₃, whose reading process was very smooth, used combination of strategies effectively. She ignored the words that were not necessary to look up. She used guessing the meaning of words and forming tentative hypothesis. Her vocabulary was extensive and she easily processed the text information into meaningful units. When encountering the text which was more difficult for her than the other ones, instead of guessing the meaning of every word, she tried to comprehend it by forming tentative hypothesis. So, she could easily evaluate her ability, strength and weakness, reacted to the text immediately and easily compensated the weakness.

Research results according to the diaries

Diary notes gave us sufficient information about participants’ text comprehension. According to the diaries, main ideas were seen by most participants. Some students had difficulties in seeing writers’ intentions and goals. Some students’ comprehension mistakes related with the text content were revealed as well. Diaries revealed that the participants started to think about the authors intended purpose for writing the literary work. They started to look for the words and phrases that would help them understand writer’s ideology and philosophy, his/her opinions and attitudes towards characters and some aspects of life.

The diaries revealed that some students felt more relaxed reading the short stories at home and some information that was incorrect on think-aloud sessions was corrected. Some of them felt relaxed when giving more time for text comprehension. However, participant E₂ seemed to need more time than given (2 weeks per story), because all her diary notes were delayed. It is also important to notice that her diaries reveal better comprehension of the stories than on think aloud sessions. It seems that when given more time she was able to understand texts better. Yet, she needed to work on improving his reading speed while comprehending the texts correctly.

Research results according to the two interviews

The participants’ attitudes towards literature reading were different from each other according to the interviews. More positive attitude and more motivation were revealed in successful students. The participants named the following specific difficulties they encountered while reading: a lot of new vocabulary, word usage in contexts unfamiliar to them, difficulties

in a) understanding author's intentions for writing the text; b) understanding the writer's artistic style; c) comprehending the parts full of descriptions, and others. For more detailed information see the table 3.

Table 3. While-Reading Difficulties of Fiction

	Interview No	A₃	C₃	D₃	E₂	F₃	G₂	H₂	J₄
New vocabulary	I	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
	II	√	√		√	√	√	√	√
Figurative meaning of vocabulary & vocabulary used in unfamiliar contexts	I	√		√	√	√	√	√	
	II			√	√	√	√		
Difficulties of description	I	√			√			√	
Difficulties of the first part of the stories	I	√			√	√	√		√
	II	√					√		
Difficulties of the final part of the stories	II	√	√	√	√		√	√	
Literary style of fiction (metaphors, symbols...)	I	√	√			√			
	II			√		√	√		√
Text structure (not chronological order of the text events)	II	√			√	√			
Understanding writers' opinions and intended message	I			√					
	II	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
Some grammatical aspects, e.g. Passive Voice	I					√			
Little experience of literature reading	II						√		

As it is seen from the table, the students had difficulties in the first and final parts of the short stories. According to the participants A₃ and G₂:

A₃ – I have difficulties mainly in the first and final parts of the stories. In the first part there is a description and I sometimes can't understand it... and the final part is the culmination of everything and I mightn't comprehend it.

G₂ – I think that helping at the beginning of the story will be helpful and useful, because you can guess whether you are going in the right way or not...

The participants expressed a desire of teacher's help in vocabulary, understanding vague parts of the texts, selecting literary works, teaching strategy usage, providing information about authors, their biographies and the period which was

reflected in the text. However, the students also expressed a desire to maintain some autonomy in the process of literature reading. Table 4 shows the aspects that the students are willing to be helped in.

Table 4. Desired Aspects to Be Instructed by Teachers

	Interview No	A₃	C₃	D₃	E₂	F₃	G₂	H₂	J₄
Instructions and help in the text analysis	I	√			√				
Providing information about the author's biography and the period described in the literary work	I	√	√	√					
	II	√			√				
Teacher's help in vocabulary	I	√	√		√	√		√	√
	II	√		√					
Instructions in strategy usage	I					√			
	II					√			
Teacher's instructions about important aspects before reading the text	I		√		√				
Teacher's help in case of ambiguity and questions	I		√		√			√	√
Providing a small review of the text	I			√					
Help in correcting the faulty information	I						√		
	II						√		
Help in the first part of the texts	I						√		
	II						√		
Discussion about the texts to ensure its correct understanding	I						√	√	
	II				√	√		√	√
Teachers' advice when choosing literary works	II		√						

participants. Besides, phrasal verbs, idioms, metaphors, authors' writing style and some other features of fiction are found to be difficult to comprehend for the participants. One of the main obstacles while reading literary works is comprehending authors' intended message to the readers which causes ambiguity and confusion. Lack of knowledge of passive voice, conditional sentences, text structure and discourse markers also hamper comprehending the texts more efficiently. And last, most of the students are not familiar with strategic reading which will enhance better reading comprehension. So, when trying to design student-oriented lessons, it is essential to pay attention to these difficulties and spend some time on working on these aspects.

The participants utilize various strategies while reading. Besides widely used strategies, such as guessing the meaning of the words in contexts, forming the tentative hypothesis, ignoring and going on, using a dictionary, rereading the current sentences and mental translation, the participants also use posing questions and finding the answers, predicting and checking the predictions, making inferences and summarizing the information. Less successful readers also use various strategies, but they are sometimes unable to assess their efficiency that must be followed by taking steps to correct faulty information. Controlling concentration and attention while reading is essentially important, because it enables readers to notice losing concentration and faulty information. Strategies are used by the participants to compensate the less automatic reading processes and less skilful abilities. The participant with the lowest score in diagnostic test utilizes a lot of strategies and they help her comprehend texts in the materials that are not too hard for her. Yet, when encountering a text that is above her foreign language knowledge level, strategy usage does not help much. So, strategy usage itself does not lead to totally successful comprehension, but together with extensive vocabulary it is a guarantee for it. Besides, more successful readers are able to assess their reading ability correctly, react to the texts immediately and alter the strategies according to the text difficulty and reading purpose.

The study also reveals that different students comprehend literary works with different success. So, reading the whole literary works independently at home without giving instructions would be quite a difficult task for students. Teachers' instructions will make the reading and comprehending process easier and smoother.

As it was mentioned above, seven participants confirmed the improvement of their reading comprehension. The development of the participants' reading comprehension is obvious, as they have already started noticing that they need to change strategies for successful text processing. However, it doesn't mean strategic reading, because they do not know which strategies to choose and how to utilize them effectively. Although only one participant points out the need for teaching strategies during the interviews, most of them really need it to enhance better comprehension. While reading fiction students need to use rereading the current sentences and previous contexts as well, because they contribute much to text comprehension. Then, it is necessary to use self-correcting to correct faulty information with the maximum concentration on text information. Also, it is essential to study how to guess meaning of new words, evaluate the importance of the unfamiliar vocabulary, form tentative hypothesis, as well as students need to know when to ignore and

go on. So, teachers need to instruct their students which strategies to use, when to use, how to evaluate their effectiveness and combination of which strategies will be successful for text processing.

As the research revealed, most students do not study new words, so attention must be paid to new vocabulary. It is essential to do vocabulary building exercises in the process of teaching literature. However, the time and attention must be somehow limited, as, according to Al-Mahrooqi (2012), paying too much attention to it can decrease students' motivation which will be the worst consequence.

Conclusions

Based on the discussed issues, we have drawn the following conclusions and recommendations which are desirable to consider when designing student-oriented lessons:

1. Literary text reading is important to develop reading comprehension and turn students into strategic readers.
2. Successful readers need less attention and instructions than less successful ones. Also, successful readers reveal more motivation than less successful ones.
3. Less successful readers also use various strategies and they help them in reading comprehension. However, in the process of literary text reading some reading processes need to be faster and more automatic. Therefore, it is important to develop readers in this regard.
4. Teachers must give instructions, because the tendency of readers' development and its pace through reading literary texts independently is slow and insufficient.
5. Teachers must activate students' prior knowledge. In particular, authors' biographies and the period during which literary texts were written need to be paid attention.
6. Reading the first part at the lessons with teachers' supervision will interest readers, motivate them and help better comprehension. The rest part of the texts must be read at home independently by students.
7. After reading texts by students teachers must give some instructions. Discussion must be organized about what authors intended to say. Paying more attention to important details and some parts that were considered as especially complicated by students are also crucial. Ambiguity, flaws and gaps that arise during reading process also need to be overcome and mistakes to be corrected to achieve successful comprehension.
8. Most Language learners don't study vocabulary intentionally after looking up for it. In the process of developing language learners' reading comprehension vocabulary building is an important part. Purposeful learning is very necessary and special attention is needed to it. Also, vocabulary building exercises must be done to promote learning and acquiring.

9. Teachers must give instructions about text structure and discourse markers, passive voice and some grammatical aspects. Besides, because of the fact that some strategies turn into anti-strategies due to their ineffective usage, teachers must instruct students how to evaluate strategy usage and which combination of them can be used successfully.
10. Teachers must select materials that are very appealing to students but are not very complicated.
11. It is desirable that literature reading should be a more automatic process. Therefore, teachers' role and involvement into the lesson need to be taken into consideration. Reduction of teachers' involvement and their instructions are desirable along with the development of foreign language learners.
12. Instruction needs constant monitoring and evaluating by teachers. In case of unsuccessful teaching approaches and styles, teachers need to change it urgently and implement new styles and approaches.

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TRAINING COURSE ANALYSIS AND INTERNATIONAL YOUTH'S VIEWS CONCERNING DIGITAL STORYTELLING

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Abstract

This research paper manifests conclusions of a study conducted in Armenia by the International Center for Intercultural Research, Learning and Dialogue and European Commission. 26 European youth workers and trainers participated in this study. Youth leaders were supposed to learn how to use digital storytelling through a series of summer workshops conducted by experienced instructors working in Digital StoryLab in the Copenhagen Center for Digital Storytelling. The study investigates the youngsters who are interested in working with young people with a diverse cultural background; the research shows the effects of this study, and reveals the obstacles that emerged in the process of limited implementation of digital storytelling in the non-formal education. The study results suggest that, even though almost all of the adults' perceptions about using digital stories in the organisation were positive immediately after the workshops, in practice, more than half of them did not continue to use digital storytelling during the implementation period. This research is the preliminary study for the further research where teachers need to learn and then to implement digital storytelling in their classrooms. The observation is important how the young learners can understand the principle and the idea of storytelling to see what can be expected from teachers in the future research. Specifically, this paper analyses training participants' and trainers' perspectives on using digital stories in the non-formal environment, the motivating factors, and preferred content areas for the digital story.

Keywords: digital storytelling, intercultural learning, motivation, technology in education, cross-cultural awareness

Introduction

Digital storytelling first appeared in the early 1990s through simply narrated video. In the last period, digital storytelling has established quick access into all stages of pedagogy, stimulated by student use of new literacy away from the formal classroom (Coiro et al., 2009) as well as the official curriculum for teaching 21st century skills (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, n.d.). A sample digital storytelling project scan is found in primary school (Scott County Schools, n.d.), secondary

education, and in college (McLellan, 2007). Research across these levels (e.g., Davis, 2004; Nelson, Hull, & Roche-Smith, 2008) has shown how students are engaged in the creating process as well as how writing skills increase.

Joe Lambert joined their backgrounds in theater, video creation, and interests in social democracy and society working on digital storytelling. In 1994, they established the Center for Digital Storytelling at the University of California at Berkeley. The model created by Lambert (2002) for creating digital stories effectively relies on a blend of these seven elements: point of view, dramatic question, emotional content, economy, pacing, the gift of voice, and soundtrack.

Meadows (2003) concludes that digital storytelling is the social practice of telling stories that make application of low-cost digital cameras, non-linear authoring tools, and computers to create short multimedia stories. The Digital Storytelling Association (2002) describes Digital storytelling as modern expression of the ancient art of storytelling. Throughout history, storytelling has been used to share knowledge, wisdom, and values. Stories have taken many different forms. Robin and Pierson (2005) consider that digital storytelling has taken the imagination of both learners and teachers and the act of planning essential stories has upgraded the experience for learners and educators. Compared to conventional storytelling, digital storytelling audiences are viewed not only as listeners, but also as learners who can cooperate and form the story (Dorner, et al. 2002).

Also, Combs and Beach (1994) indicated that containing storytelling in the social studies curriculum develops learners' recognition of democratic ideals, cultural variety, while participatory citizenship motivates them to learn about the past and present, develops their communication skills, and builds a class bond through shared experiences.

While digital storytelling is often connected with the arts and humanities, research shows that it can also be a powerful approach for learning mathematics and science. In mathematics education, Jonassen (2003) believes that story problems are the most common form of problem-solving in education. "Students begin solving story problems in early elementary school and do not escape until graduate school or beyond" *ibid*, (p. 294).

When analyzing digital storytelling, one may start by examining the concept of the story. It is clear that stories have a great potential. Many adults can still name their beloved bedtime story or remember the name of a great storyteller from their lives. Additionally, we share our individual stories with each other in letters, phone conversations, instant messaging and emails. For children, storytelling and dialogue are a crucial component of their early lives. Not only does storytelling introduce children to the initial stages of communication and literacy, but it also supports them to "share experiences and feelings in an engaging and entertaining way" (Huffaker, 2004, p. 63). These personal experiences and attitudes are the base of many digital storytelling projects. Indeed, Combs and Beach (1994) state: "The stories that are part of the fabric of our lives are personal narratives . . . The human brain is essentially a narrative device. It runs on stories" (p. 464). Storytelling may also introduce students to the means to think through their past and present realities. In fact, research supports that storytelling can help to support students' understanding of the complex and unordered world of experience (Chung, 2007; Ohler, 2008; Sadik, 2008, p. 489). Finally, storytelling can connect the past, present, and future generations to form values and beliefs (Chung, 2007).

Technology integration to enhance the knowledge

Jacobsen (2001) states that many teachers all around the world are not able to integrate technology into teaching and learning activities, and the gap between technology existence in schools and its efficient use is too broad. Many teachers believe that technology adaptation is a difficult, time-wasting and resource-intensive work and is more concern than it is worth (Sheingold & Hadley, 1990). The under-utilization of technology is probably the result of a lack of vision of technology's potential for improving teaching and learning and the difficulty in crossing the bridge between technology's abilities and curriculum requirements. Dexter et al. (1999) specify that the effectiveness of technology integration in teaching and learning largely depends upon its capacity to involve students in learning. Trilling and Hood (1999) consider that the main point of using technology in education is to apply meaningful activities that may engage students to build their knowledge in different ways, and it was not accessible before the technology was introduced.

Significant technology integration is defined as curricula utilizing reliable tasks that purposefully and actively help students to build their meanings from thinking about experiences and permits for more interdisciplinary project-based guidance (Jonassen et al., 1999). Integration is defined not by the number or type of technology used, but by how and why it is used (Earle, 2002).

Meaningful integration of technology is reached when students can select technology tools to support them get information promptly, investigate and synthesize the information and present it skillfully (Harris, 2005). However, harnessing the power of the integration of technology requires not only a new or innovative technology but also a logical way of using the technology to improve learners learning (Schofield, 1995).

Spivey (1997) specified that constructivists view learners as active mediators and see knowledge as built preferably being passively received by students, whose ways of knowing and understanding influence what is known and recognized. Research defines that in order to succeed essential technology integration, learning must be designed from a constructivist method that inspires learners to learn in a social meaning and help them to improve an ability to create new knowledge freely, solve new problems and apply creativity and critical thinking (Griest, 1996; Hoffman, 1997; Mergendollar 1997; Richards, 1998).

Also, the collaboration between students, the flow of ideas and thinking aloud inspire students to foster active learning, in which users realize and address gaps in their understanding when clarifying concepts to others (Kafai et al. 1997; Tyner 1998). Constructivist strategies contain collaborative and cooperative learning approaches, engaging in critical and reflective thinking and evaluation through electronic portfolios (Nanjappa & Grant, 2003). Jonassen and Carr (2000) consider that to help learners to create their knowledge, they should be actively involved in the learning process with the help of ICT tools. Also, Wheatley (1991) claimed that because a student will construct his/her meaning based on his/her understanding, technology can become a vital educational tool depending on the way it is used in learning. Strommen and Lincoln (1992) consider that it does not matter which technology is used, but the most significant are how the technology is used, which is relevant to a constructivist classroom.

Intercultural Awareness

Cultural awareness moves well beyond facts about different cultures. In the late twentieth century, Hofstede (1991) stated that learning cross-cultural communication skills covers three essential steps: awareness, knowledge, and expertise. The first: to have the acceptance to the different behaviors; the second: to know the distinct differences in various cultures and the third: to exercise the specific skills for nonverbal communication. A bit later, authors such as Liddicoat et al. (2003, p. 16) complemented other scopes to the intercultural awareness learning process and stated that it is important to involve the learner in the process of self-transformation; boost total communication skills; accept different perspectives. The student should know learning strategy with its multiple and diverse linguistic and cultural contexts. Authors recognize the need to critically compare others' norms, values, beliefs, assumptions, behaviors and so on with our own. By shifting the focus towards their personal culture, as well as towards other cultures, adults can understand viewpoints within and across any one culture, thus obtaining a deeper understanding of both their culture and other cultures (Ribeiro, 2016).

Fenner (2006) also draws on Hofstede; however, she argues that it is not just gaining knowledge and developing skills, but also a matter of attitude and interaction towards the foreign culture. The author emphasizes the need for openness towards the other and acknowledges that the learning process must be based on self-reflection and self-understanding. Guo and Jamal (2010) corroborate that the exploration of otherness is essential for students to understand the worldviews of others. This paper may be either internal through a process of self-reflection, or external when engaging in activities in which students are required to incorporate alternative viewpoints.

To conclude, preparing students to live and work in plural societies as socially responsible and intercultural informed citizens imply tolerance and flexibility. Where the 'new existential foundations established through the dialogic process between the Self and the Other sustain the quest for knowledge and re-invention using reasoned debate and logical thinking' (Dasli, 2011, p. 34).

Workshop analysis

This project was Erasmus + training course inscribed to youth workers and young leaders involved in investigating the method of Digital Storytelling and its practice for working with young people with the various cultural setting and was designed by International Center for Intercultural Research, Learning, and Dialogue (Armenia). The Training Course "Digital Storytelling for Intercultural Dialogue" was held from 7th to 16th of October 2016 in Armenia. During the project, the participants went through an intensive set of seminars gave them a chance to learn how to create their digitalized stories. 29 youth workers and young leaders from Armenia, Georgia, Belarus, Moldova, Ukraine, Denmark, Poland, Germany, France, and Portugal were participating in this project.

The 29 participants from ten countries were involved in the training course; these countries were Armenia, Portugal, Moldova, Belarus, Denmark, France, Poland, Georgia, Germany, Moldova, Ukraine. The working training language was English.

The host organization was International Center for Intercultural Research, Learning, and Dialogue. The Erasmus+ paid for the training, and the training place was Aghveran, Armenia. As a researcher, I was an observer in this project and had the opportunity to observe the process of the training and the steps of creating the actual digital stories.

There were stated in the program that every single human being has a unique personal history based on their experience, thoughts, and feelings. To share those narratives with others can be a powerful tool, changing the attitudes and encouraging both sides - those who hear the stories and those who tell them.

As we know, the art of storytelling has been a major part of social interactions since the very birth of humanity. However, as nowadays we are being presented to a constant tide of discovery and data, we tend to skip how important and significant is to share our personal experience with others. The digital storytelling is a concept that consolidates two crucial aspects - the power of creating personal narratives and our current demand to "go digital."

The proposed Training Course aims at bringing European youth workers together and teach them what digital storytelling is. How they can use that as a tool for working with young people with several cultural backgrounds. We accept that learning by doing will contribute a broader perception of the practice and therefore help as an inspiration for creating similar projects in participants' neighborhoods. During the project, the participants will go through an intensive set of workshops giving them a chance to learn how to create their digitalized stories.

Developing projects that are based on new methods and approaches seems to be especially important for those youth workers who are dealing with difficult social issues, as they very often lack proper and efficient tools to address their beneficiaries. Digital storytelling is a very general method that can be used in different contexts and therefore we hope the skills and knowledge gained during this Training Course will help members to create a new quality in their everyday work with young people.

The Survey and Findings

A qualitative and a quantitative methodology were used to reveal the participants and their trainers' experiences with a task incorporating digital storytelling. This approach enabled a comprehensive and descriptive account of the participants' experiences to emerge (Merriam, 1998). An interpretive approach to data analysis was employed, providing insight into how participants made sense of their teaching and learning experiences (Mason, 1996). This methodology is supported by educational technology theorists such as Neuman (1989) and Salomon, Perkins, and Globerson (1991) who have advocated more naturalistic studies that provide appropriate data about relevant social and cognitive processes to explore the affordances of innovative technologies.

This paper reports on one component of a larger project investigating potential roles of digital storytelling in teacher education. This more important project explores many aspects of their use, particularly on suitable pedagogical approaches, student assessment and moral and intellectual property problems. This paper concentrates on one context studied in the larger project: the use of digital stories in an original first-year teacher education subject for prospective primary teachers. This paper concentrates on one context studied in the larger project: the use of digital stories in an original first-year teacher education subject for prospective primary teachers.

The objective of the survey was not to investigate the stories themselves but to see adults' perspectives concerning to express themselves. Participants were asked to finish an open-ended and multiple choice 45 questionnaires. These questions focus more particularly on participants' first reactions to the activity. Also, there is an observation on digital literacy issues, to be precise: Elements of digital storytelling, Story circle, Scriptwriting, Film Editing, Sound and voice over recording, copyright, facilitation, project planning, group dynamics and participants' overall perception on learning about intercultural issues through Digital storytelling. In this particular case, we analyzed the open-ended and multiple choice questions from 45 randomly chosen questionnaires, in order to understand the effectiveness or lack of using Digital Storytelling.

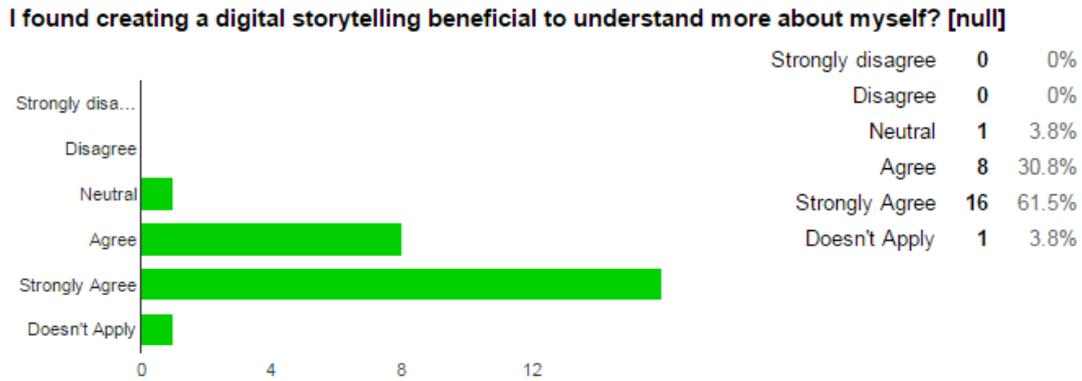
Participants from different countries attended the project to improve understanding of digital storytelling in the intercultural environment. Twenty-six participants answered the surveys. It had two parts, questions before the training and the other one after the completion the program. There were fifteen boys and eleven girls and the age of 19-37.

The survey consisted of open and multiple choice 45 questions, there were five open questions, and the rest have various options. 70% of participants were not familiar with the digital storytelling principles before the training. Also, 25% they partially knew what it was.

Questions: "will I recommend digital storytelling to colleagues?" and "will I use digital storytelling in the future?" 12 people strongly agree, and 14 people agree. So, it means 100 % of participants would recommend this tool for the colleagues and for themselves to use as a beneficial part of their development. The next question if they found creating a digital story beneficial for their education, they also answered positively, and just two people have the neutral position, but not negative. As for the question "I found creating a digital story beneficial for formal education not only for NGO?" just two people had the neutral answer, and they were not sure, but the others had agreed or strongly decided to use this tool for their NGO.

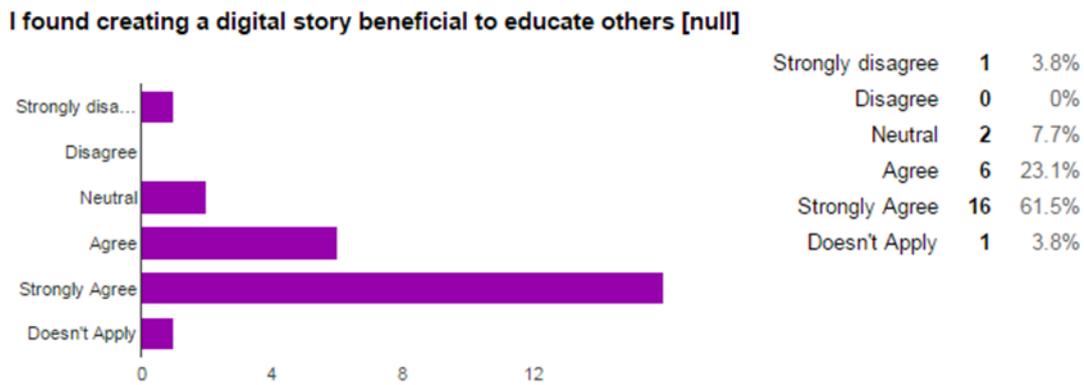
There were interesting answers for the next question "I found creating a digital storytelling beneficial to understand more about myself?" just one person had the neutral position, but the rest were positive.

Figure 1



The same result revealed to the next question: "I found creating a digital story beneficial to educate others."

Figure 2



Members used their digital stories to present their experience and emotions. Some participants were able to integrate deeper analyses of their experiences and appraisal of their learning into their digital story. Relevant survey questions also indicated that adults' held positive perception of their experiences regarding this whole process facilitating reflective processes and clarifying they are developing. All 26 participants either strongly agreed or agreed with the following statement: "I found creating a digital story beneficial for my education" and 25 out of 26 participants either strongly agreed or agreed with the declaration: "I found creating a digital story useful for formal education not only for NGO?"

Furthermore, there was substantial agreement that their digital story enhanced the overall understanding of their hidden experience. The DS assignment described previously has allowed us to collect a considerable number of Digital Stories.

Discussion

The findings highlight the efficacy of using digital stories to enhance learners' experience and knowledge. Project participants appreciated being able to use new media to confidently and creatively describe and justify the selection of their artifacts, synthesize their experiences and in some cases thoughtfully analyze their artifacts and reevaluate experiences. A strong sense of ownership and the personal nature of artifacts heightened their emotional responses. In this sense, the digital stories strengthened connections between the participants' experiences as depicted in their artifacts and reflective activity. The positive findings relating to support participants' reflective processes in one sense are not surprising, given the wealth of positive reports. However, the findings contribute to the discussion about how digital stories might 'fit' into the learning process. The most useful videos were explicit about their artifacts but were able to weave them together with a sprinkling of their life histories, to tell a story of their learning about teaching.

The problems of time and skill level required for these types of tasks (e.g. Hartman, 2004) need attention. Although participants in this study received plenty of technical support, 5 out of the 11 students still found the whole process technically challenging (as ascertained from their survey) and many talked about the time-consuming nature of the task. Such problems will hopefully diminish over time as new media software, and portfolio development software becomes easier to use. Meanwhile, further strategies for mentoring and supporting students need development.

Although assessment issues did not emerge as a major theme from the data relevant to this paper, it must be mentioned that some students were challenged at times between meeting the assignment criteria and producing an original digital story. For example, one of the participants found it hard 'to manage the dual goal of artistic reflection and inclusion of course requirements.' However, he concluded, 'it can be done to a great extent with a fair amount of thought and creativity.' Catering for and encouraging creativity in these tasks needs further exploration. Furthermore, there is a well-documented tension between assessment and reflection (e.g. the discussed by Boud (2001) reflection about journals), and this pressure extends to portfolio assessment. For example, students will usually be interested in portraying themselves in the best light possible and may disguise their weaknesses (hardly encouraging open and honest reflections).

A related issue is the question of audience. The perceived audience will influence students' choice of artifacts, and to some extent, that seemed to be the case with the students in this study who wanted to publish their digital stories in the web-based gallery. To what degree does this notion of audience shape and direct the students' choice and quality of analysis of artifacts? Does this type of issue affect students immersed in a digital culture who are already comfortable publishing their personal content in 'web 2' spaces? Should students make two portfolios: one confidential and one

censored and shaped for a more 'public' audience? Further investigations are needed to explore solutions to these important issues.

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**THE USE OF ICT AS A GREAT MOTIVATOR IN THE RAPIDLY GROWING EDUCATIONAL
WORLD**

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Abstract

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With the development of informational and communication technology the world is becoming much smaller, as connection between individuals in different parts of the world is established within a few seconds. Initially, the pedagogy of the 21st century tried to use technology for organizational purposes of the learning process and it was believed that it would transform and support the so-called "mass learning" process. Over time, the meaning of the term was reviewed. Nowadays the use of technology in the learning process involves the construction of the learning process itself, specifically the formation of the result- oriented learning goals in accordance with the tasks of the lecture, the preparation of teaching materials and the classroom management. The paper is dedicated to the introduction and the use of cyber space into the educational process, which has developed into a totally new direction in Didactics. At the same time, amendments that have been implemented or are being implemented affected and changed in all aspects the educational process, starting from teaching methods and finishing with the demands for the academic level of students or even teachers. Nevertheless, teachers should be ready and open to implement any kind of innovations (aids) that would rise the effectiveness of the teaching-learning process.

Keywords: Blended learning, IT technologies, classroom management, motivation, educational software.

One of the important aspects of teaching English is the content analysis of our students' needs: why they are learning, what their interests' are and what motivates them to learn English. Learners who are highly motivated and want to learn English are more likely to succeed. Many students want to learn a language because it can help them achieve practical

things, such as finding a job. Also it could be the interest in the target-language culture. They may live in a country or family or go to a school where learning a foreign language is highly valued and much encouraged. Knowing this helps teachers to realize the importance of the foreign language for their students and gives learners emotional support as they learn. People who live in a country where people have no desire of learning a foreign language may have little motivation to learn a foreign language. One more reason could be the fact that they may have friends, boy- or girlfriends, business partners, etc. who speak another language. They want to develop their relationships with them. This is a strong motivation to learn a language. Learners may differ in their motivations, some may have a strong motivation, and other learners' motivation may be completely different. There are also learners, who are unmotivated, who have no motivation at all, they are de-motivated. Information technologies are an important part of our educational system because they provide a rising interest in learning, develop constructive cooperation, problem solving, critical and creative thinking, decision making and other skills in students. Teaching unmotivated and indifferent students' is really a challenge. Such students are prejudiced against learning process. Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS, 2014) says that every fourth participant in the survey still loses a quarter of his/her time on the problems caused by the behavior of the students. Against this background, it is important for teachers to use communicational approach in educational process and alongside with traditional educational texts, to use multimedia resources as an aid. Mostly for this reason there are so many different approaches to teaching. The choice of methods depends on the purpose and also the teacher's vision of language, its structure, how languages are learnt and what classroom activities work effectively while learning English.

The changes the teacher must bring about in his students may be divided as practical – students acquire habits and skills in using a foreign language, educational – they develop their mental abilities and intelligence in the process of learning the foreign language and cultural – students extend their knowledge of the world they live in.

The above-mentioned aspects lead us to the importance and necessity of creating and managing a successful class which may be the key to success of a course. An important part of this is to develop teachers' attitude, intentions and personality and their relationships with learners. So, to sum up, it leads teachers to the efficient use of human, physical and time aspects of the lesson. However, certain organizational skills and techniques are also required. Such items are often grouped together under the heading of 'classroom management'.

Classroom management refers to the process of setting up and maintaining a positive learning environment. Nevertheless, it is also the most serious obstacle in promoting effective teaching and is closely linked to the issues of motivation, discipline and respect and is directly connected to student academic achievement, teacher efficiency and student behavior.

Effective classroom management will increase the instructional and learning time, and also students' achievements, as it provides students with opportunity to become active participants in their educational process (Termos, 2012, p. 45). Key concepts in effective classroom management are lesson planning, organization, structured class time, clear expectations, student engagement, motivation and interest.

Teachers choose a method, which fits in with the beliefs they have about language learning and teaching. For example, teachers who believe that learners should be able to communicate in the language they are learning choose methods which include speaking and listening activities. There are many different methods used for English language teaching. For instance: communicative approach, guided discovery, structural approach, lexical approach, (presentation, practice, production) PPP, (test teach-test) TTT, task-based learning and so on. The choice depends on who your learners are and what your teaching conditions are. There should be considered learners' age, level of English, motivation, expectations and of course the previous learning experience. Moreover the aims of the course learners are on, what resources are available to the classroom, class size and number of hours of English in the course. Some teachers select an eclectic approach, which uses classroom practices from a variety of methods. This can be a successful approach, but it needs to be used carefully. It is important to mix techniques in a way which is coherent, so that all activities develop well. Each approach or method has an articulated theoretical orientation and a collection of strategies and learning activities designed to reach the specified goals and achieve the learning outcomes of the teaching and learning processes.

Initially pedagogy of the 21st century tried to use technology for organizational purposes of the learning process and was believed would transform and support so called "massive" learning process. Over time, the meaning of the term was reconstructed. Nowadays the use of technology in the learning process implies not only the usage of TV, radio, video, computer, etc, it involves the construction of the learning process itself, specifically the formation of the result oriented learning goals in accordance with the objectives set, for example the preparation of teaching materials and the organization of classroom management; moreover, evaluation of the mid- and final results of the learning process and if necessary, adjustment of the teaching process.

Teaching a foreign language under conditions, when this is the only foreign language environment, is practically impossible without appealing to students' imagination (Skinner, 1968, p. 12). With IT development and of course with the more and more popular access to the Internet and variety of tools enabling using IT technologies in teaching, encourage many educational institutions and companies to expand their offers with e-learning courses. Owing to that costs for knowledge and learning can be reduced. Moreover course materials can be studied by the employees or students at a convenient time and place, which gives them a chance to even possibilities of getting proper education.

The first attempts of the implementation of computer hardware and software in education and training consider to be the 1940s, when American researchers developed flight simulators which used analog computers to generate simulated onboard instrument data. The arrival of the personal computer, with the Altair 8800 in 1975, changed the field of software in general, with specific implications for educational software. But advances of 1990s in computer hardware made possible to make huge developments in educational process itself. Multimedia graphics and sound became common, and CD-ROMs were and are used perfectly for content delivery of all sorts of information.

Due to affordability of computers and Internet, with the development of informational and communication technology world is becoming much smaller, so that connection between two individuals in different parts of the world

is established within a few seconds (Hanson-Smith, 2000, p.68). Digitalization shall undoubtedly be confirmed as one of all-present generic trends. Educational media and tools can be used for: task structuring support: help with how to do a task (procedures and processes), access to knowledge bases (help user find information needed), alternate forms of knowledge representation (multiple representations of knowledge, e.g. video, audio, text, image, data) Numerous types of physical technology are currently used: digital cameras, video cameras, interactive whiteboard tools, document cameras, electronic media, and LCD projectors. Combinations of these techniques include blogs, collaborative software, e-Portfolios, and virtual classrooms.

Pedagogical elements are defined as structures or units of educational material. They are the educational content that is to be delivered. These units are independent of format, meaning that although the unit may be delivered in various ways, the pedagogical structures themselves are not the textbook, web page, video conference, Podcast, lesson, assignment, multiple choice questions, quiz, discussion group or a case study, all of which are possible methods of delivery.

Educational technology refers to the use of both physical hardware and educational theoretic. It covers several main aspects, including learning theory, computer-based training, online learning, and, where mobile technologies are used, m-learning.

Richey defined educational technology as "the study and ethical practice of facilitating learning and improving performance by creating, using and managing appropriate technological processes and resources." The Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) denoted instructional technology as "the theory and practice of design, development, utilization, management, and evaluation of processes and resources for learning." Educational technology is the process of integrating technology into education in a positive manner that promotes a more diverse learning environment and a way for students to learn how to use technology as well as their common assignments.

Almost all virtual world educational projects consider a blended learning approach. The term 'blended learning' is commonly used to describe how e-learning is used with traditional teaching methods in order to create a new, modern, free teaching methodology (Singh & Reed, 2001, p.53). Blended learning is an education program (formal or informal) that combines online digital media with traditional classroom methods (Baker, 2014). It requires the physical presence of both teacher and student, with some element of student control over time, place or pace. The terms "blended learning", "hybrid learning", "technology-mediated instruction", "web-enhanced instruction", and "mixed-mode instruction" are often used interchangeably in research literature. Although the concepts behind blended learning first developed in the 1960s, the formal terminology to describe it did not take its current form until the late 1990s. Such approaches may combine the use of virtual worlds with other online and offline tools, such as 2D virtual learning environments (e.g. Moodle) or physical classrooms. SLOODLE. For example, is an open-source project which integrates the multi-user virtual environments of Second Life and/or OpenSim with the Moodle learning-management system. Some language

schools offer a complete language learning environment through a virtual world, e.g. LanguageLab.com and Avatar Languages.

Virtual worlds are used for the spectacular and task-based, game-like opportunities. Nevertheless, virtual world language learning can be considered to offer distinct (although combining) learning experiences. That is sort of certain (real or fictitious) environment that can stimulate language learning. Almost all 3D virtual spaces are inherently social environments where language learners can meet others, either to informally practice a language or to participate in more formal classes. A less-developed approach to language learning in virtual worlds is that of constructing objects as part of a language learning activity. There is currently little documentation of such activities.

Pedagogical outline developed for virtual world education sets out possible ways to view an educational activity:

- Exploring: learners explore a virtual world's locations and communities as fieldwork for class.
- Collaborating: learners work together within a virtual world on collaborative tasks.
- Being: learners explore themselves and their identity through their presence in a virtual world, such as role-play.
- Building: learners construct objects within a virtual world.
- Championing: learners promote real-life causes through activities and presentations in a virtual world.
- Expressing: learners represent activities within a virtual world to the outside world, through blogs, podcasts, presentations and videos.

But still what are the types of educational software?

Some educational software is designed for use in classrooms. Typically such software may be projected onto a large whiteboard at the front of the class or run simultaneously on a network of desktop computers in a classroom. This type of software is often called classroom management software. An interactive whiteboard (IWB) is a large interactive display in the form factor of a whiteboard. It can either be a standalone touch screen computer used independently to perform tasks and operations, or a connectable apparatus used as a touchpad to control computers from a projector. They are used in a variety of settings, including classrooms at all levels of education.

With the impact of environmental damage and the need for institutions to become "paperless", more educational institutions are seeking alternative ways of assessment and testing, which has always traditionally been known to use up vast amount of paper. Assessment software refers to software with a primary purpose of assessing and testing students in a virtual environment. Assessment software allows students to complete tests and examinations using a computer, usually networked. Computer-based assessment software with PPA-2 (Plan, Prove, and Assess) methodology creates and conducts computer based online examination. One of the most widespread computer-based assessment software is Moodle, which is an example of open-source software with an assessment component that is gaining popularity. Other popular international assessment systems are Assessment Master, QuestionMark, EvalUNet XT and QuestBase.

Many publishers of print dictionaries and encyclopedias have been involved in the production of educational reference software since the mid-1990s. They were joined in the reference software market by both startup companies and established software publishers, most notably Microsoft.

The first commercial reference software products were reformulations of existing content into CD-ROM editions, often supplemented with new multimedia content, including compressed video and sound. More recent products made use of internet technologies, to supplement CD-ROM products, then, more recently, to replace them entirely.

Wikipedia and all sort of searching software systems' like Google, made up a new departure in educational reference software. Previously, encyclopedias and dictionaries had compiled their contents on the basis of invited and closed teams of specialists. The Wiki concept has allowed for the development of collaborative reference works through open cooperation incorporating experts and non-experts.

Some manufacturers regarded normal personal computers as an inappropriate platform for learning software for younger children and produced custom child-friendly pieces of hardware instead. The hardware and software is generally combined into a single product, such as a child laptop-lookalike. The laptop keyboard for younger children follows an alphabetic order and the qwerty order for the older ones. The most well-known example is Leapfrog products. These include imaginatively designed hand-held consoles with a variety of pluggable educational game cartridges and book-like electronic devices into which a variety of electronic books can be loaded. These products are more portable than genre laptop computers, but have a much more limited range of purposes, concentrating on literacy.

Earlier educational software for the important corporate and tertiary education markets was designed to run on a single desktop computer. In the years immediately following 2000, planners decided to switch to server-based applications with a high degree of standardization. This means that educational software runs primarily on servers which may be hundreds or thousands of miles from the actual user. The user only receives tiny pieces of a learning module or test, fed over the internet one by one. The server software decides on what learning material to distribute collects results and displays progress to teaching staff. Another way of expressing this change is to say that educational software morphed into an online educational service.

There are highly specific niche markets for educational software, including: teacher tools and classroom management software (remote control and monitoring software, file transfer software, document camera and presenter, free tools,...), Driving test software, Interactive geometry software; Language learning software; Mind Mapping Software which provides a focal point for discussion, helps make classes more interactive, and assists students with studying, essays and projects.; Software for enabling simulated dissection of human and animal bodies (used in medical and veterinary college courses); Spelling tutor software; Typing tutors; Reading Instruction; Medical and healthcare educational software.

Some operating systems and mobile phones have videogames to teach users how to use the system. A notable example is Microsoft Solitaire, which was developed to familiarize users with the use of graphical user interfaces, especially the mouse and the drag-and-drop technique. Learning a new language as an adult takes considerable time and effort. Having the right language learning software or app can make a huge difference. The 'right' program depends on a number of factors, such as your previous exposure to the language, personal preferences, and goals (Telitsina, 2002).

When teaching a language, there are different ways or systems teachers can use, each based on a belief or a theory about the best way of teaching a language (Abbott et al., 1981, p. 273). Teachers choose a method, which fits in with the beliefs they have about language learning and teaching. It is difficult to say that one approach is better than another. The choice depends on who your learners are and what your teaching conditions are. Our most important job as a teacher is perhaps to create the conditions in which students have opportunity to learn. Nowadays new products are created on the informational market, which are essential features of the economical development and significant factor of our social life. The informational marketing is the foundation and basis of the e-society and led countries and governments to the integration in the global world network. With the help of informational marketing new ways of informational products are implemented that offer the variety of options to audience, considering their needs and demands. Personal relationships were the main source of the information retrieval before the global informational system was established. The development and usage of the modern informational and communicational Technology (ICT / ICTS) has now become the main factor and precondition for progress in any fields. However, it also affects all public relations as well as the process of creation of the new so called E- society. Without ICT nowadays, it is incredible to achieve in any country worldwide any goals or develop any field of society. Computer Assisted Language Learning expands the ability of learning for individual student and the use of different software programs assists students to learn foreign language more easily by contributing visualization with multimedia technologies.

When it comes to learning a new language, what works for some people might not work for others. Some people need strict guidance on what to study and how often (Skinner, 1965, p. 442). Other people like the freedom to jump around in their language-learning journey, moving between reading passages and playing games designed to build vocabulary. Still others will get the most out of a program that lets them practice speaking and listening with real human beings. Despite the fact, that Georgia slowly but gradually is taking steps towards the introduction of educational software (interactive whiteboard (IWB), assessment software and so on) they are not widely spread in Georgia, since such products are quite expensive. The most usual programs that are used by majority of university teachers' in the educational process are Microsoft programs (Microsoft Word, PowerPoint). But as for supplementary or self-study means there are a lot of opportunities that can be used by teachers' and students' such as translate dictionaries and online teaching software programs (For instance: ' Tellmemore' GTU, etc.). Those kinds of software programs are available on mobile phones' as well.

Currently in Georgia at schools and universities are being introduced modern teaching methods and technologies. Due to the fact that access to technology at schools and universities are different, a lot depends on how teachers' define the usage of technologies in the process of teaching. Moreover, technological means should be wisely coordinated with the educational-academic aims for more efficient outcome. Technology should be an aid and not a burden for teacher as well as for students. The teacher should correlate Classroom Management to the chosen learning strategies. Under these circumstances the main goal could be achieved only with teachers' effort and the use of ICT.

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ANXIETY AND TEACHING/LEARNING A LISTENING SKILL

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Abstract

English dominates among the languages all over the world and teaching English is becoming more and more important. There are many programmes of teaching English created with the modern methodology of teaching a foreign language. Resources are also important. People nowadays have the ability of travelling abroad and there are many exchange programs for students. People can listen to a lot of English TV or radio channels and have a lot of practice of English. However, listening to English still remains a problematic question. Anxiety accompanies foreign language teaching process and it can have a negative impact on learner's success. Anxiety usually appears while teaching/learning listening. This fact is caused by different reasons, such as fear of making mistakes, fear of being laughed at for making mistakes, failure connected with expected results, failure connected with learning a foreign language or low self-esteem. The paper deals with anxiety while teaching / learning. It discusses anxiety while teaching / learning as a negative factor as well as a positive factor. The work also introduces Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) created by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope as a widely used scale for measuring anxiety while teaching/learning.

Keywords: anxiety while teaching/learning, positive and negative anxiety, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale.

Introduction

Anxiety while listening is a widely discussed topic. It is mentioned in many researches and it is mainly identified as a negative factor having a negative effect on teaching/learning. Anxiety in learning / using a language is mainly caused by fear of making mistakes. However, a reasonable level of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety may have a positive and stimulating effect on learners and it may bring positive results to them. A Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (F.L.C.A.S.) by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope permits to measure the anxiety and thus to understand what kind of impact it will have.

Anxiety While Teaching/Learning

The negative character of anxiety while listening is discussed in many works. Daly (1991), Price, (1991), and Young (1991) mention anxiety while learning a foreign language, especially while learning listening and speaking.

Anxiety is an important factor which blocks learning process. It is associated with many negative points. They are: doubt, stress, etc. Heron (1989, p. 33) admits that anxiety appears with three components. They are:

- anxiety connected to accepting (Will they accept me? Will they like me? Will I be necessary for them?);
- anxiety connected to orientation (Will I understand what is happening?),
- anxiety connected to meaning (Will I understand what I am taught?).

It is important to make learners study the given material, though, according to Krashen (1982), anxiety can cause a mental block and a system of mental blocking can be called as affective filter and it can be encouraged by lack of motivation or self confidence. He also admits that speaking is considered to be a skill connected to anxiety, though listening skill is associated with high level of anxiety.

Anxiety may cause nervousness and fear, which may cause low results while studying. This fact will contribute in getting anxious. Fear and tension are connected to cognitive side of stress which is called anxiety. Eysenck (1979) thinks that energy which is lost while facing anxiety may be used for studying. Anxiety is one of the most important factors existing in teaching/learning process but it can be reduced. Learners experience anxiety in different aspects while teaching/learning. These aspects are: speaking a foreign language, relationship with other learners, writing a test. Higher level of anxiety may cause lower results.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) define Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) as "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning (p. 284)".

Like MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986) name Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) as Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) and explains it like "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p. 128).

Marcos-Llinas and Juan Garau (2009) name some reasons for Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety. They are:

- fear of making mistakes;
- fear of being laughed at for making mistakes;
- failure in expectations;
- failure in learning a foreign language;

- low self-esteem.

It is also interesting to look through the variables which are to be taken into consideration while discussing Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (Onwuegbuzie, 1999). For example,

- age;
- academic achievements;
- expectations to their studies;
- self-esteem.

However, Dewaele (2008) disagrees with Onwuegbuzie (1999) that age is important for anxiety. He states that anxiety appears in every age despite having any levels of foreign language. Anxiety is characteristic for every foreign language learner. But the levels of anxiety are connected to the following factors:

- foreign language learners already know some foreign languages;
- foreign language learners often use a target language or strong socialization takes place;
- foreign language learners have high level of a foreign language.

Horwitz (1987) shares Dewaele's (2008) opinion and also adds that there is connection between motivation of students and foreign language anxiety.

To conclude anxiety usually accompanies teaching/learning process and it is mainly caused by fear of making mistakes or being laughed at for making mistakes, failure in learning a foreign language or expectations. Low self esteem also is important factor of causing anxiety.

Negative and Positive Anxiety

Gardner (1985), Skehan (1989), Larsen-Freeman & Long (1991) with different factors which are important for teaching/learning a foreign language name anxiety. They distinguish two kinds of anxiety:

- negative anxiety;
- positive anxiety.

Great number of researchers deal with anxiety as a negative factor. Anxiety while teaching/learning is often named as debilitating anxiety, as it can have negative influence on foreign language learners' achievements. Negative or debilitating anxiety can influence on learners negatively, decrease learners' motivation and form some negative feelings about teaching/learning process.

Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) characterize anxiety as one of the most negative factors while teaching/learning process.

Chen & Chang (2004) also consider that anxiety can have a negative impact on students and doubt that students who experience anxiety are hardly able to be involved in teaching/learning process.

High level of anxiety unables learners to be involved in teaching/learning process and anxiety is mainly characteristic for listening skill. It is a difficult skill and is always accompanied by fear. This fear causes anxiety (Chastain, 1979). According to Dunkel (1991) level of anxiety is connected to learners' self esteem.

Some researchers admit that anxiety while teaching/learning a foreign language is helpful and stimulating (Scovel, 1978). This kind of anxiety is discussed with Ehrman and Oxford (1995).

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety may have positive and stimulating effect on learners and it may bring positive results to learners (Marcos_Llinas and Juan Garau, 2009).

In conclusion some researchers consider that anxiety influences on learners negatively, decrease learners' motivation and forms some negative feelings about teaching/learning process. Although some methodologists find anxiety positive, helpful and stimulating.

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety is a widely studied phenomenon. There exists Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (F. L. C. A. S.) created by Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1991). It covers 33 points and is used in many researches. Some of them are:

- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70(2), p. 125-13.
- Salehi, M. & Marafat, F. (2014). The Effects of Foreign language Anxiety and Test Anxiety of Foreign Language Test Performance. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(5), 931-940.
- Trang, T. T. (2012). A Review of Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope's Theory of Foreign Language Anxiety. *Foreign Language Teaching*, 5,(1), p. 59-75.

According to its usage we may conclude that Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (F.L.C.A.S.) created by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope is a reliable scale measuring anxiety in a foreign language classroom.

Anxiety and Teaching / Learning Listening

Listening is a difficult skill and there are many factors which make influence on it.

Howatt and Dakin (1974) consider that listening skill covers the following questions:

- accent of a speaker;
- expression of a speaker;
- understanding grammar by a listener;
- understanding vocabulary by a listener.

Wilson (2008) also names listening as one of the most difficult skill and speaks about its importance for teaching/learning a foreign language.

Willis (1981) delivers the following tasks of a listening skill:

- predict what others will say;
- guess vocabulary without anxiety;
- use students' knowledge about the listening material to understand it better;
- identify important information about the listening material;
- identify important information from the listening material and make important notes;
- identify discourse markers such as "oh...", "that...", "the second is that..." "at last", etc;
- identify linkers;
- identify different intonation and stress;
- identify a speaker's ideas, intentions, etc.

Richards (2008) was one of the scientists who discussed listening as one of the most important skill in teaching/learning a foreign language and spoke about its important role as it helps to change any information. He claimed that the Communicational Approach in the Language Teaching Methodology increased interest towards a listening skill.

As there is no communication without listening, Croom Helm Cross (1998) shares Richards' idea about a listening skill.

Being one of the most important and difficult skills, listening is connected to anxiety. Christenberry (2003) emphasizes complexity of listening and names anxiety while listening as one of the most disturbing factor. Vogely (1998) advises not to use unfamiliar vocabulary for teaching listening because unfamiliar vocabulary increases anxiety.

Any vocabulary used in listening exercises should be known for students to avoid anxiety (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). Otherwise high level of anxiety cannot be avoided.

To conclude anxiety is one of the most disturbing factors while teaching /learning a listening skill. And one of the ways of decreasing anxiety is connected to students' knowledge.

Conclusion

To conclude

- anxiety is an important factor which blocks learning process;
- listening and speaking skills are associated with high level of anxiety;
- anxiety may cause nervousness and fear, which may cause low results while studying;
- higher level of anxiety may cause lower results;
- anxiety is characteristic for every foreign language learner;
- there is connection between students' motivation and foreign language anxiety;
- anxiety is mainly a negative factor, although in some works it is mentioned as a positive and stimulating one;
- Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (F. L. C. A. S.) by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope is widely used in researches.

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TEACHING ENGLISH THROUGH STORY-TELLING

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Abstract

Stories provide a common thread that can help unite cultures and provide a bridge across the cultural gap. The presented paper deals with the benefits of using storytelling in the classroom, which is based mainly on the shared experience with a famous story-teller and teacher-trainer Michael Berman. The novelty of the given article as well as its theoretical and practical outcomes will be conditioned by presenting the unique records of Michael Berman, reading selected stories from the course-book "Teaching English Through the Story-Telling" (by Nino Dvalidze & Michael Berman), and the methodology of teaching English through those original stories. The article looks at the benefits of storytelling and gives advice on performance skills. Students have an innate love of stories. Stories create magic and a sense of wonder. Stories teach us about life, about ourselves and about others. Storytelling is a unique way for students to develop an understanding, respect and appreciation for other cultures. They can promote a positive attitude to people from different lands, races and religions.

Keywords: story-telling, intercultural understanding

Storytelling and intercultural understanding

There are a number of ways in which storytelling can enhance intercultural understanding and communication. Stories can:

- allow students to explore their own cultural roots;
- allow students to experience diverse cultures;
- enable students to empathise with unfamiliar people/places/situations;
- offer insights into different traditions and values;
- help students understand how wisdom is common to all peoples/all cultures;
- offer insights into universal life experiences;

- help students consider new ideas;
- reveal differences and commonalities of cultures around the world.

Other benefits of using storytelling in the classroom are: stories...

- promote a feeling of well-being and relaxation;
- increase student's willingness to communicate thoughts and feelings;
- encourage active participation;
- increase verbal and written proficiency;
- encourage use of imagination and creativity;
- encourage cooperation between students;
- enhance listening and reading skills.

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Commonalities of cultures around the world

Stories reveal universal truths about the world. Through stories we see how very different people share the same life experiences and how human nature can transcend culture.

Performance techniques

Telling a story can captivate an audience, that is, with the right techniques and a little practice it can help remembering and retelling the plot. For this purpose:

- map the plot as a memory technique;
- use story skeletons to help you remember the key events;
- think of the plot as a film or a series of connected images;
- tell yourself the story in your own words;
- create your own version of the story (adapt, improvise and write down it in your journal of essays) prepare your story for a presentation.

There are three distinct stages which need to be honored for an experience to touch us deeply:

- severance – leaving behind the everyday world,

- entering Sacred Time & Space – going beyond ourselves, and
- re-incorporation – returning with new self-knowledge (Cahill and Halpern (1991)).

There is a strong case for following the same steps in class, as these are the steps that compose memorable experience in our lives.

In a story telling session, you leave the everyday world behind you the moment storyteller says once upon a time, you're transported beyond yourself into another setting during the telling of the tale, and you return with new self-knowledge if the story worked as a metaphor for you. So the next time you plan or analyze a lesson, see whether the three stages described in this model can be applied to it. If they can't, then perhaps there is something missing – a vital ingredient that could make it work better.

A story "The Earth will take its own" adapted from Georgian folk tales, translated by D.G. Hunt and published in 1999 by "Merani" Publishing House in Tbilisi, Georgia (Chikovani, 1999), can be used for upper-intermediate level students. It tells about a boy who grew up without a father who died when he was ten. He kept asking his mother where his father was, and she answered he died - was in the land from which people never come back, but everybody goes there one day. The boy wanted to find a place where people never die, but he couldn't find such a place until he found a very beautiful immortal and ever-young woman. He stayed with her and lived for a very long time, but finally he wanted to see his mother, family and friends. He discovered they all had died a long time ago and chose to die by eating the three magic apples that the ever-young woman gave him.

'The Earth will take its Own' - a possible lesson plan

Setting the scene: As a means of leaving the everyday world behind, start by playing a piece of mood music, ideally something instrumental maybe something from the Republic of Georgia.

Provide the class with the title of the story and hand out the pictures, ask the learners to work in groups and produce a story from the pictures. A spokesperson for each group can then read the group's story to the rest of the class. After telling the stories created from the pictures can then be compared with the version you told to the class.

Tasks to be performed during listening: Ask the learners to make a note of any words that come to mind while they listen, which can be written up on the whiteboard.

Pre-listening discussion: Would you like to live forever? Why or why not? This is the choice the young man in the story is required to make.

While telling the story:

1. Pause after the words 'He walked towards it ...' and ask the listeners to predict what the young man saw.

2. Pause after the words 'She gave him three apples and told him to eat them when he started to feel miserable' to ask what was special about the apples.
3. Pause after the words 'He reached the area where he had been born' and ask the listeners to predict what the young man found there.
4. Pause after the words 'The boy got the apple, and gave it to him,' and ask what happened next.

Post-listening discussion:

What would you have done if you had been the young man?

Exercise 1: Prepare a set of questions about the story. Then exchange your questions with someone else and answer the questions you receive. You can make use of the following frames or alternatively make up your own questions:

- a. What do you think was the most thing about the story?
- b. Was there anything in the story that reallyyou?
- c. According to the story, what?
- d. What reasons are given for?
- e. In what way would you?
- f. Do you agree with the idea / suggestion that ?

Exercise 2: Working in small groups, discuss the questions below. The elect a spokesperson to present your views to the rest of the class:

- a. How important are family ties to you?
- b. Make a list of all the things people do to make themselves look younger. What do you think you would be prepared to do when the time comes?
- c. Are you the sort of person who hangs on to the past or are you able to let go and to move on to new things?

Exercise 3: Help to make the world a better place

Have a look at this list of suggestions and decide which ones you would be willing to take up. Then add a suggestion of your own.

1. Wear bright clothes once a week. It will cheer everyone up.
2. Telephone or write to someone you haven't seen for ages.
3. Take some fruit or a packet of biscuits into your office and buy everyone a cup of tea or a soft drink.

4. Turn off the TV and do something less boring and more sociable instead.
5. Pray, not necessarily to God, but just say a short prayer offering thanks at the end of each day.
6. Risk ridicule – try smiling at strangers or talking to shop assistants.
7. If you see someone lost, show them the way.
8. Take responsibility for your problems and don't blame others for the situations you find yourself in.
9. Your own suggestion:

Exercise 4: Self review

Another way of bringing about re-incorporation after the telling of The Earth will take its Own (or any other story for that matter) is by inviting the learners to complete a self-review process, and the set of questions provided below can be used for the purpose. After taking some time to consider their answers, the learners can then pair up or form groups to compare their findings.

What was new for you?

- a. What was already familiar to you?
- b. How did you react emotionally to the information?
- c. What was the most interesting and valuable insight you had?
- d. What difficulties did you have with the material, and how can you realistically deal with them?

This approach to story telling connects the ritual of folk story-telling with the EFL teaching methods. Children enter the magic world of the story and simultaneously acquire the language and the culture.

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QUALITY ASSURANCE PROCESS AT PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA

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Abstract

The education system is one of the most fundamental things for the country development, on which the development of both individuals and the society depends. The paper views the levers and the mechanisms which are used to provide quality assurance in secondary education, such as school authorization and accreditation. The improvement of the system of education is one of the priorities for the government. The Ministry of Education and Science is carrying out reforms the goal of which is to provide an effective learning environment and the optimal development of each individual student's potential.

Keywords: quality assurance, education reform

Introduction

Education is a social phenomenon prompted by personal requirements. It ensures a person's vital capacity and, therefore, upgrading the quality of education is a state priority. Across the world, the educational system is regarded as a pillar supporting the development of an individual and the society at large. The management and quality assurance of education, namely, the relevant tools and leverages applied at the secondary schools are a major issue.

The Georgian Government declared upgrading the national educational system a priority. Reforms implemented by the Ministry of Education and Science are targeted at formation of a child-friendly educational environment in which each student can fully display his/her potential.

Research into the quality assurance at the general education institutions in Georgia should be worthwhile.

Objective of the Study:

1. Research into the quality assurance at the general education institutions in Georgia;
2. Comparison of the quality assurance techniques and leverages at public and private schools.

Employment of both qualitative and quantitative methods should be instrumental to pursuing the goal of the study.

Discussion item:

- What quality assurance techniques are employed at the public and private schools in Georgia?

The main tasks relevant to the objective of the study:

- Quality assurance techniques employed at public and private schools in Georgia;
- Investigation of differences (if any) in terms of quality assurance at public and private schools.

Public and private schools are the two target segments investigated in this study. Taking the two groups as the indicator was prompted by the following: our primary aim is to consider the quality assurance mechanisms and find the leverages allowing comparison of the instruction process at the two types of schools and, eventually, to analyze the changes, differences, strengths, weaknesses or challenges.

The issue is fairly comprehensive, but this study focuses on detection of the key trends and comparative analysis thereof. Quality assurance, as a concept and a process is defined as follows: Quality is a combination of properties of a product, which, in case of its purposeful use, determine its potential to satisfy (to varying degrees) the customer's actual or presumed requirements. Quality has become an issue as soon as people got engaged in various kinds of activities. Evidence of the early quality inspection is available. The Vikings making boats as early as 3500 BC could clearly 'tell the good from the bad. In the XVIII c., formalized quality inspection was applied in industries. Frederick Taylor used the term "inspection" in his approaches to "Scientific Management" and published a book entitled "Principles of Scientific Management" (Taylor, 1911). In our daily lives, we see it clearly how important quality is. In this regard, the crucial question is how the quality can be ensured, developed, managed or controlled.

Today, quality assurance is a key issue. The term itself embraces all the planned and systematic actions targeted at building trust in appropriateness of a service rendered by a structure, a structural unit or a system.

In the educational system, quality is the type of 'target correspondence' that must meet the general standards set by the educational institutions, their quality assurance departments or academic or professional boards (Chkuaseli, 2014).

At educational institutions, quality may be affected by various factors, such as vision and goals, efficiency and qualifications of the academic staff, admission and assessment standards, the environment in which instruction and learning take place, the quality of libraries and laboratories, the level of management or leadership, etc. (Ishikawa, 1986; IWA 2, 2003)

The so-called PDCA approach also known as Shewhart cycle is one of the most common paradigms in the quality management (Harvey, 1993):

P- plan;

D- do;

C- check;

A- act.

The PDCA cycle is a dynamic model in which completion of a stage heralds the beginning of the next stage, etc., which is in consonance with continuity of quality upgrading.

In Georgia, 2001 is viewed as the first stage of the education reform. In the European countries providing quality education basic education is compulsory. By the 2003 constitutional amendment in Georgia primary or the basic education was declared compulsory.

It should be said that 1998-2003 is a milestone in terms of the education policy, for it was at the time that the Ministry of Education developed an ambitious program whose main components were the curriculum, national appraisal system, professional advancement of teachers and textbooks. Educational programs were developed and introduced at the pilot classes and the national standard for the educational institutions was approved. The document set out the types of the educational institutions, such as pre-school, secondary, etc., the legal status and the licensing and accreditation guidelines thereof (Ministry of Education and Science, 2013).

Since 2005, the legislative framework governing the educational system in Georgia mainly consists of three organic laws:

The law of Georgia on General Education (2005);

The law of Georgia on Higher Education (2005);

The law of Georgia on Professional Education (2007);

However, due to the dynamics of the education, these laws have been repeatedly amended. The changes made in the national educational system have involved its decentralized management, introduction of democratic principles, higher degree autonomy of the educational institutions and its harmonization with the international educational framework.

Later, the Ministry of Education and Science developed the education strategy, which in 2010-2015 was focused on upgrading the education quality through the initiative below: the new national curriculum was finalized by September 2010 and made effective in 2011; a new appraisal system was introduced at public schools in 2010-2011, which involves three key components and the pupils' trimester marks depend on attendance.

Also, since 2006, inclusive education has been declared a priority of the education reform in Georgia. The mentioned model is now the core of the national education policy (Javakhishvili, 2013).

Public and private schools in Georgia have repeatedly been studied by the teams of international experts. In this connection, the analysis of the Georgian data obtained within the frameworks of the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) is noteworthy for it detected major differences between the public and private schools in this country. Namely, the data make it clear that academic progress at private schools is much ahead than that at public schools. Also, the number of private school students satisfying the minimal standards of the general secondary education is fairly larger than that of public schools. According to the analysis of the data on Georgia, most of the schools selected for the PISA test were public. Only 5% of those were private schools. Comparison of the pupils studying at the two types of schools makes the gap evident: the results achieved by the private schools are better than those of the public schools (OECD, 2017).

The results of this inspection are unpleasant for Georgia: in science Georgian 15-year-olds score 411 points compared to average 493 in OECD countries, in mathematics – 404 points compared to 490 points and in reading – 401 compared to 493 points. This means that for the moment the current reforms have not yet brought the desirable results.

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BLENDED LEARNING AN EDUCATIONAL CHALLENGE

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Abstract

Blended Learning has become one of the most common ways to teach EFL (English as a Foreign Language) due to its double component, which integrates Face-to-Face classes with virtual learning in order to offer students a wide range of materials and resources organized in a methodological way. The article deals with the model of Blended Learning, its advantage at foreign language teaching, and also some problems that can arise during its use. The Blended Learning is a special organization of learning, which provides an opportunity of combining classroom work and modern technologies in an electronic distance teaching environment. Nowadays a lot of European educational institutions and companies use such technological approaches. Through this method students are given the ability to learn in a group (classroom) with a teacher and additionally at home at a convenient time; student him/herself sets the optimal speed and intensity of the learning process. This method helps student to discipline him/herself and learn to work independently.

Keywords: Foreign language, information and communication technology (ICT), model of Blended Learning, virtual cool room, technophobia.

The education process is a daily challenge for many students and teachers. Mostly, they are participants of a "game" where they assume different roles; for instance, EFL teachers must be facilitators who help students to go through different stages during the learning of a foreign language (FL) and get them aware of the importance of the resources around them to learn a foreign language. That is to say, there is not only printed material, but also a wide range of technological resources, thanks to the invention of the Internet and technological devices used all over the world to complement face-to-face classes. These are virtual resources such as wikis, blogs, podcasts, emails, websites, video links, iPods, third screen

devices, etc., which strengthen foreign language learning. However, the FL teacher must organize all the technological resources in a methodological way to make them work for students in their learning process.

Nowadays it is impossible to imagine modern education without information technologies. It will take a little more time, and such devices as electronic courses, electronic libraries, latest tutorials and technologies of passing on knowledge will be fixed in concept of traditional training. (Dudney & Hockly, 2007, p. 15). The settled approaches and techniques are changing now and, what is more important, the needs of modern students are also changing. Obviously, it is impossible not to react to these changes. In the conditions of modern information society development these changes are quite natural, and the introduction of innovations in education is a necessary process. Distance education is one of the new innovative technologies at present. Distance education is the type of teaching based on educational interaction of teachers and students, realized by means of telecommunication technologies and Internet resources. Distance education on the Internet is a teaching process when an essential part of training materials and the most part of interaction with teacher is carried out with the use of technical, program and administrative means of the global Internet. True innovation is not a frequent phenomenon in pedagogy. We can say that in the modern educational environment innovation is an introduction into practical activities of discoveries. The prompt development of digital technology in recent decades has led to the fact that learning takes place not only in the classroom and school, it moved to a virtual online world wide web.

Distance education or distance learning is the education of students who may not always be physically present at school. Courses that are conducted (51 percent or more) are either hybrid, blended or 100% done digitally. Massive open online courses (MOOCs), offering large-scale interactive participation and open access through the World Wide Web or other network technologies, are recent developments in distance education. A number of other terms (distributed learning, e-learning, online learning, etc.) are used roughly synonymously with distance education.

Blended learning is quite a new method of teaching. This system of training/teaching combines the best aspects and advantages of teaching in a classroom and interactive or distance education, and creates available and motivating courses for pupils where educational process represents the certain system, consisting of different parts which function in constant interrelation with each other, forming a certain integer (Purnima, 2002, p.1). The model of blended learning is not just use of ICT in independent work of students at home or in a media library after school, blended learning model is a single, holistic learning process, suggesting that some of the cognitive activity of students is carried out in the classroom under the supervision of a teacher, and a part activities of the students, is proposed for distant form, with a predominance of independent work individually or with partners in a small group collaboration.

Blended learning is the system in which its constituent components of full-time and distance education process interact harmoniously. Under a condition, if this interaction is methodically well-organized, in result we get the students' high level of knowledge (Desyatova, 2010, p. 7). Thus, the model of blended learning is not just use of ICT in independent work of students at home or in a media library after school, blended learning model is a single, holistic learning process, suggesting that some of the cognitive activity of students is carried out in the classroom under the supervision of a

teacher, and part activities of the students is proposed for the distant form, with a predominance of independent work individually or with partners in a small-group collaboration. The concept of blended learning appeared not so long ago, and the definitions are sufficiently descriptive. Thus, Darlin Painter in the article «Missed Steps» offers to understand the blended learning as association of strict formal learning tutorials in the classroom, studying of theoretical material with informal, for example, the discussion via e-mail and Internet conferences (in Jentov, n.d.).

Blended Learning is the integration of face-to-face classes with a virtual component where students have a practice opportunity to go beyond what is taught in the classroom. So far, the research done in this field has shown that this hybrid learning offers students a lot of materials, resources, offline and online activities, the integration of what they learn in the classroom with what they learn on their own through the use of a virtual platform. Additionally, one of the most highlighted aspects is the fact that students can develop autonomy towards the English learning process. Thus, EFL teachers can guide students during the process and also give them extra activities to complete on their own; in this way, they are free to choose what to do in a lesson at their own pace. Another benefit that a Blended Course provides is the technological literacy that students get through the use of virtual resources (Marsh, 2012, p.8). Likewise, they can explore their topics in depth, look for information in English on the Internet, and reinforce their learning process through websites related to EFL learning with a wide range of exercises. Moreover, they can use different databases and blogs to contact people around the world, chat with other students and learning communities, construct cooperative learning environments, and organize their own virtual learning environment, among other benefits. Most of the studies that have been carried out on Blended Learning courses present the positive and negative aspects of this form of teaching-learning processes. On the one hand, they share similarities related to how useful a Blended Course could be when it is well-planned. That means taking into account students' needs and interests, and the environment in which the course is going to be implemented while integrating the set of aspects proposed in the octagonal framework, involving pedagogical, technological, institutional, and ethical issues together with resource support, interface design and evaluation. On the other hand, a Blended Course must be implemented gradually, since it takes time for students to become familiar with emerging technologies.

An EFL Blended Course requires a carefully organized methodology. Therefore, students must be trained first in how to use the technological devices and then be guided through the EFL process and all the virtual and printed tools they have available to improve their English command. It is also important to train them on how to use these tools strategically since it is noticeable that some students do not know how to use them effectively. For this reason, the EFL teacher must clearly explain every stage and characteristic of the virtual platform and how it works.

Acknowledging that a Blended Course implies a face-to-face component, the next step is to show students how it complements the virtual component, and to let them know the learning goals they are expected to reach at the end of the course. Therefore, Blended Courses have become a creative way to experience foreign language learning processes. However, it is important that EFL teachers take into consideration pedagogical and methodological strategies to make

the BL course useful and appealing to students. Although technological tools constitute a wide and useful help for teachers to design their Blended Courses and encourage students to master their English level in a more autonomous environment, it is necessary to bear in mind that learning EFL must be the teacher's focus, because occasionally technology is just seen as something useful for drilling or having fun with, but without any pedagogical and learning purpose. Technology by itself does not solve the methodological and learning problem teachers and students go through, thus, it is the EFL teachers' responsibility when it comes to the creation of coherent BL courses. In addition, students need to be given extensions of the face-to-face courses in which they develop skills at their own pace with the guidance of a teacher. All in all, designing and implementing a Blended Course takes time. Likewise, having EFL teachers go through each activity very carefully and see how these interrelate with one another is even more demanding in terms of time. Many methodological issues and strategies need to be addressed in the implementation of a BC to help students become successful and more independent learners. Further research needs to be done in creating, implementing and evaluating different kinds of interfaces that can be more appealing and appropriate to learners. That is to say, researchers could propose different kinds of display materials with which students might feel an identity and can give their own contributions since every learner is a different world and possesses different learning styles, beliefs and attitudes that need to be addressed in a Blended Learning model course. One of the main issues when implementing BL is impersonation. Some research could be done regarding strategies and tools on how to avoid it. Another suggestion for further research concerns how we could get to know our students and their cognitive processes through analyzing and interpreting the several identities they assume, take or create by using technological tools and understanding how different students' behavior in Face-to-Face classes is compared to their behavior in the online environment.

There is little consensus on the definition of blended learning. Some academic studies have suggested it is a redundant term (Clarc, 2003, p. 23). However, there are distinct blended learning models suggested by some researchers and educational think-tanks. These models include:

- Face-to-face driver – where the teacher drives the instruction and augments with digital tools.
- Rotation – students cycle through a schedule of independent online study and face-to-face classroom time.
- Flex – Most of the curriculum is delivered via a digital platform and teachers are available for face-to-face consultation and support.
- Labs – All of the curriculum is delivered via a digital platform but in a consistent physical location. Students usually take traditional classes in this model as well.
- Self-blend – Students choose to augment their traditional learning with online course work.
- Online driver – Students complete an entire course through an online platform with possible teacher check-ins. All curriculum and teaching is delivered via a digital platform and face-to-face meetings are scheduled or made available if necessary.

There are many components that can comprise a blended learning model, including "instructor-delivered content, e-learning, webinars, conference calls, live or online sessions with instructors, and other media and events, for example, Face book, e-mail, chat rooms, blogs, podcasting, Twitter, YouTube, Skype and web boards.

A learning management system, or federation of systems, helps develop a better feel for an online community where discussions can be held to better aid students. This virtual learning environment helps connect professors with students without physically being present, thus making this a 'virtual cafe'. Many schools use this online tool for online classes, class work, question and answer forums, and other school related work.

Students who were born in the last twenty years in first world countries are often known as digital natives. Because of the integration of technology into their lives, digital natives are thought to be adept users of technology. So the uses of IT technologies become necessary for motivation of our students. Information technologies are the important part of our educational system because it provides with the rising interest in learning, develops constructive cooperation, problem solving, critical and creative thinking, decision making and other skills in students'.

Computer-mediated learning is becoming increasingly popular in teaching foreign languages. Modern students often expect online component or support as part of their course. Therefore, many institutions offer online learning options to supplement face-to-face classes. Current research suggests that the best results come from a blended learning method – combining face-to-face classes with digital learning. Blended learning can be very timesaving and provides convenience and flexibility of learning. It has a tremendous potential in teaching foreign languages, as it offers an opportunity to integrate innovative and technological advances of online learning with interaction and participation of the best traditional practices.

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TEACHER BELIEFS AS A STARTING POINT FOR PRE-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING (PRECETT)

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Abstract

The paper describes a part of an ongoing project that aims to fill a gap in existing pre-service teacher training courses by addressing teacher education as more than information gathering and skill development. Educators have long realized the role that teacher beliefs play in their practice and consequently, the importance these beliefs have for the outcome of teacher education courses. This is particularly true for contexts where the educational system is in a state of constant change and innovation, as is the case with Georgia. The article describes a study conducted at the beginning of a pre-service teacher education course and aiming to discover what beliefs the trainees bring with them with regard to teaching, learning and their future role as teachers. This small-scale study used questionnaires and semi-structured interviews to elicit those trainees' beliefs who had no prior experience of methodology courses or any training related to language teaching. The analysis attempted to establish how consistent their attitudes and beliefs were with their stand on the issue of 'traditional' vs. 'modern' methodology. This served as an indication for how receptive they would be to the PRESETT course they were about to start and that was entirely based on learner-centered constructivist approaches.

Keywords: *Pre-service teacher education, teacher beliefs, ELT methodology*

Introduction

Georgia is an interesting place in terms of English language teaching methodology (as it is in many other respects). In the last 25 years we have witnessed a dramatic change in the function of English in our country. Throughout the soviet era English was taught, much like Latin, for the purpose of reading and appreciating literature and by no means for communication. Nowadays, English is a 'lifeline' connecting Georgia to the outside world, practically a second language for many Georgians. It is natural that this change should have affected language teaching methodology, especially as it was during the period when communicative and task-based language teaching became dominant approaches in the world of EFL. The aims of these approaches were fully consistent with the aims of language teaching in the changing

Georgian context. Thus, their arrival in Georgia should have been welcomed by all the stakeholders and their full dominance should have been established fairly soon.

Surprisingly, that is not what we see today. We are not aware of any studies carried out recently that investigate what methods (if any) are currently prevalent in English language classes in Georgian schools, language centres or universities. However, daily contact with language teachers and students and our experience as pre and in-service teacher trainers have led us to believe that the main principles of communicative language teaching have been introduced only partly and only in some places. A mixture of grammar-translation and audiolingual methods that was characteristic of English language teaching in the soviet period is very much in evidence.

There are a number of reasons for that, but it certainly is not a lack of trying. Many in-service trainings have been offered for teachers of English, new international coursebooks based on new approaches have been introduced, a variety of resources has been made available for teachers and students. Whatever other factors are, it is clear that at least part of the reason lies in what Larsen-Freeman (2002) calls 'the hidden side of teaching' i.e. teachers' mental lives or teacher cognition.

Research into teacher cognition has emerged as the result of dissatisfaction with the limited success of earlier attempts to investigate the issues in teaching only on the basis of teacher behaviour. In his review article Larsen-Freeman (2002) traces the transformation of the view of a "teacher as doer, as an implementer of other people's ideas" into the perception of 'teaching as decision-making' (p.5) in the last decades of the 20th century. This transformation implies a more central role of a teacher and especially, of their belief systems as "beliefs are instrumental in defining tasks and selecting the cognitive tools with which to interpret, plan, and make decisions regarding such tasks; hence, they play a critical role in defining behaviour and organizing knowledge and information" (Pajares, 1992, p.325).

Thus, if we hope to change approaches in ELT in Georgia so that they are more in line with current trends worldwide and more adequate to the changed needs of language learners, we need to be more aware of what language teachers' beliefs are and how they affect their practices.

In our previous article (Nijaradze & Zvidadze, 2016) we briefly discussed the role of beliefs, especially for novice teachers and the difficulty involved in challenging these systems during pre-service teacher training (PRESETT). Even though many student teachers have little experience of teaching, it does not mean that their beliefs and attitudes are less fixed and more flexible than those of more experienced teachers.

It is of particular importance to identify and work with student teachers' beliefs during PRESETT. It is advisable to investigate what their beliefs in relation to language teaching are even before the pre-service teacher education course starts. Otherwise, we may be wasting time developing their skills and training them in techniques that they will never apply in class because they clash with their attitude to what learning and teaching should be like. Besides, studying their

beliefs gives teacher educators a starting point for the course and serves as a baseline against which they can measure success of the PRESETT programme.

The Study

Background

Identifying Georgian student teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching on starting PRESETT and then adapting the course according to their identified needs were the aims of the study conducted at Akaki Tsereteli State University English Philology Department.

The participants were twelve 3rd-year students (all female and Georgian) of English Language and Literature BA programme taking English language teaching methodology as their optional course. This one-term course is certainly insufficient for providing comprehensive coverage of what future teachers will need to know and be able to do in order to enter the profession. It only aims to to develop awareness of basic concepts in English language teaching, allow them to gain some practical experience through peer teaching, give students clearer understanding of the complexity of issues involved in teaching and evoke their interest in studying them in more depth.

The course as a whole is based on knowledge-construction view of teaching and advocates using communicative language teaching (CLT) in the broadest understanding of this term. The primary postulate of constructivist theory is that knowledge is not an objective reality, a fixed body that needs to be discovered and can be transmitted from one person to the other, from teacher to pupil. It is rather something that has to be constructed by a subject and in the subject. Thus, a subject (a student) is in the "position of active research (actor) rather than passive absorption (receptor)" (Daniel, 2007, p.1). This view is fully consistent with the perception of learning and role of a language learner as viewed in CLT. According to Harmer (2015), defining CLT is practically impossible as it is more an "extended family of different approaches" than a method. Even so, there are certain characteristics that serve as a common ground for all the methods that have some claim to being communicative and that distinguish CLT from other, previously popular approaches.

- a) CLT advocates shift away from how language is formed to what language is used for i.e. focus not only on grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation but language function, prevalence of meaning over form, fluency over accuracy.
- b) As the aim of CLT is to lead learners towards communicative competence, its supporters believe that communication skills need to be developed by involving learners in realistic communication i.e. communicative activities where everything is done with communicative intent and meaning-making is the driving force.

- c) Achieving communicative competence in the target language depends on the knowledge and skills that every learner brings to the classroom. Thus, the role of a learner as a key stakeholder in the learning process is emphasised in CLT and learner-centeredness is one of the key characteristics of this approach.

These are the basic principles of the ELT methodology course that the study participants were about to start. Our hypothesis was that these principles clashed with the methodology they had been exposed to. Their majority would have been more familiar with the type of methods that are still dominant in Georgian schools as mentioned above and whose principles can be summarized as follows:

1. Of the four language systems grammar and vocabulary are most essential. Pronunciation is of less importance and language functions can be ignored completely.
2. Grammar rules need to be explained thoroughly (mostly in Georgian to help understanding) and then practiced using variety of controlled exercises (drills).
3. Accuracy is important and so all mistakes should be corrected.
4. Teacher is the source of knowledge, a model and an authority. Learners who listen carefully and do all the exercises in the textbook will be successful.

Due to such dramatic difference between the two methodologies and in fact philosophies we felt the need to elicit the students' initial beliefs in order to identify how best to implement the methodology course to achieve the desired learning outcomes.

Data Collection and Analysis

Questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used as methods of data collection. Both were administered in Georgian to facilitate understanding and avoid the effects of participants' unequal competence in the English language.

Questionnaires

The questionnaire (see appendix) contained closed as well as open-ended questions. The first part of the questionnaire consisted of 17 statements each with 4 possible responses: agree, partly agree, disagree and don't know. In the second part participants had to order the statements from 4 to 1 from most to least acceptable. In the third part, in answer to an open-ended question, the participants had to describe a perfect EFL lesson and a perfect language learner.

The statements in the questionnaire aimed to discover the students' attitudes towards strategies, techniques and philosophies that are typically associated with grammar-translation method, audiolingualism and communicative language teaching approach. As the participants of the study were just starting a methodology course and had no

previous experience with teacher education, they were not expected to know what these methods were. Thus, any direct questions about their preferences in terms of methods would have been useless.

The first question dealt generally with the nature of language learning and aimed to find out if the study participants saw any difference between language learning and studying other academic subjects. The opinions here were distributed practically equally among the three options: 3 agreed, 4 disagreed and 5 agreed only partially.

The next five questions focused on the best way/strategy of learning a foreign language. Questions 2 and 4 were designed to describe strategies characteristic for ALM, questions 5 and 6 – for GTM and question 3 clearly referred to CLT. Almost all these statements received full or partial support from the participants. Only one student disagreed with two of the statements. Biggest number of participants (10) agreed with the statement that the best way of learning a language is to be involved in communicative activities. However, the same students also agreed with other statements that are more in line with GTM and ALM.

Questions 7 and 8 tried to contrast the role of focus on form for learning with that of focus on meaning. Interestingly, the statement that language is learnt better if learners' attention is focused on language form did not receive a single negative response. However, for the opposite statement that language is learnt better when attention is focused on something non-linguistic, the participants' opinions were divided (5 agreed, 4 partly agreed and 3 disagreed).

Questions 9-11 dealt with errors. Question 9 described an argument often given in criticism of group work. It claimed that language use should take place with teachers control and supervision so as to avoid students copying each other's mistakes. Only 2 participants were opposed to this view, other 10 either agreed or partly agreed. For statement 10, 9 students agreed and remaining 3 partly agreed that all errors should be corrected from the start or learners will have problems later. Statement 11 proved more controversial. Half (6 students) partly agreed that learners should avoid using language forms if they aren't sure of their correctness, in order to avoid making mistakes. 2 students fully agreed, 3 disagreed and 1 student didn't know the answer.

Statement 12 refers to the use of L1 vs. L2. Quite unexpectedly, only 1 student disagreed that during an English lesson everything should be done in English. Everyone else agreed (5) or partly agreed (6) with this statement.

The next two questions dealt with students' attitudes to pair and group work. Although 9 disagreed and 2 partly agreed that group work should be used rarely as it causes noise and wastes lesson time, only 3 agreed and 7 partly agreed that pair and group work develop skills better than interaction with a teacher. So, it seems that the majority is aware of the need for pair and group work, but they still give preference to teacher-led interaction.

Not surprisingly, overwhelming majority (11 students) agreed that a teacher should create pleasant friendly atmosphere in order to make teaching successful.

The last two questions directly asked the participants whether they supported traditional (statement 16) or modern (statement 17) methods without clarifying what each of these meant. No one claimed to agree with traditional methods.

9 partly agreed and 3 disagreed with this statement. As for modern methods –7 agreed and 5 partly agreed that they were supporters of modern approaches. Interestingly, only three participants who agreed with modern methods disagreed with traditional methods. 5 partly agreed with both, and 4 – agreed with modern and partly accepted traditional methods.

The second part of the questionnaire consisted of two questions. For the first one the students ordered four language systems (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and functions) according to their relative importance for language proficiency. Interestingly, the participants either misunderstood the task or found ranking them difficult, so on several occasions two or even three of the systems received the same point. The results are presented in table #1.

Table 1 Importance of Language Systems

	4 (most important)	3	2	1 (least important)
Vocabulary	8	4	0	0
Functions	7	1	4	0
Grammar	0	8	2	2
Pronunciation	0	1	2	8

The second question focused on how a teacher can best help pupils to learn and listed a) clear explanation, b) allowing to discover and share information with peers, c) giving a model for imitation and d) controlling the process and correction. The results are presented in table # 2.

Table 2 Preference for Teaching Strategies

	4 (most important)	3	2	1 (least important)
explanation	10	1	1	0
discovery	6	4	2	0
model	5	1	0	6
Control & correction	3	5	3	1

As for the third section of the questionnaire, only nine of the participants wrote their responses.

Question 1 asked the students to describe a perfect EFL lesson. Three most common topics identified were creating friendly and pleasant atmosphere, clear explanations, often in combination with varied activities to help understanding, and focus on listening.

Question 2 asked them to identify a perfect language learner. A major topic that emerged here was learners' mastery of vocabulary and desire to enrich it, also ability to speak accurately and avoid mistakes. Almost all the answers referred to speaking skill.

Interviews

In order to try to clarify students' beliefs further and allow them to explain their viewpoints we used the second instrument of data collection – a semi-structured interview. Four of the students were interviewed. The interview questions were mainly adapted from Grijalva and Barajas (2013) and were the following:

1. How is English learned?
2. How should English be taught?
3. How did you learn English?
4. How were you taught?
5. How do you know when you have learnt something?

As with questionnaires, the interviews were conducted in Georgian to enable the interviewees to express themselves freely in their mother tongue. The data was transcribed and coded. Again several common themes emerged:

- Answers for questions 1 and 3 overlapped; when asked how English is learned they all started speaking about how they had learnt it themselves. Only after prompting by the interviewers, they spoke of other people's (their friends, people of different ages, etc) experiences. It was to be expected of trainees with little experience of teaching.
- The answers to questions 2 and 4 were dramatically different. Having spoken about their ideas for teaching in response to question 2, they all emphasized that this was not how it was done by their own teachers, especially at school. Interestingly, two of the interviewees stressed that their language learning experience at university was different, more 'modern' than at school.
- The interviewees' responses revealed some awareness of learner age and level as factors they would need to consider before deciding how language is learnt and how it should be taught, but there were no specific suggestions or ideas how these factors would affect the process.
- There was a similarity in how they all thought languages are learnt: one spoke of the importance of learning words and other things in context, three emphasized importance of videos, internet, face-to-face communication, all of them spoke of reading. So, the focus was on the value of exposure to language use and not so much on practice and classroom activities.

- In relation to the second question, they all mentioned interactive teaching, 'giving freedom to speak', listening, which they clearly associate with 'modern methods'. However, they all explicitly or implicitly referred to the need for combining this with 'traditional' teaching, especially when it comes to teaching grammar.
- In answer to question 5, three interviewees said that they felt they knew something when they did a test successfully or 'confidently'. One of them specified that this was relevant only for grammar. As for vocabulary, she needed to use a word or expression in speech freely before she could say she had learnt it. Trying something in practice, in a conversation was the only criterion for the fourth interviewee.

Conclusion

The results of the study allow us to make some tentative claims concerning the beliefs that trainee teachers bring to pre-service teacher education course in the context discussed above. The findings are quite ambiguous. On the one hand, it is evident that the students see the value of principles and strategies usually identified with CLT. These are

- the importance of involving learners in communicative activities;
- the role of pair and group work;
- the need for appropriate use of language for various functions;
- the benefit of exposing learners to real-life authentic language use (through internet resources, audio and video materials, etc).

On the other hand, the trainees' vision of the teaching process itself is rather vague.

- They are unclear about the best way of learning a language and give more or less equal support to understanding rules, frequent repetition, memorization, imitation and translation.
- They have a cautious attitude to learner errors, view them as a danger and support immediate correction. This could potentially discourage them from using fluency-focused activities and pair and group work in the future.
- They attach a high value to teacher explanations and lean towards the idea that learners benefit less from interaction with peers than with the teacher.
- It clearly emerges from open-ended questions and interviews that many of the participants associate focus on listening and speaking skills with what they call 'modern' methods, while grammar and reading are associated with traditional methods.
- In fact, grammar seems to have a very special status in the trainees' perceptions. Even those who advocate using interactive approaches and learning from real-life communication, seem to believe that this is no way to learn

grammar. It has to be explained, understood and practiced in exercises. It is the aspect of language that cannot be learnt independently or picked up like, for example, vocabulary.

These are some of the issues that will have to be taken into consideration during the methodology course. Although the findings of the study were not wholly unexpected, they have helped identify the topics that will require particular attention, encouraging trainee reflection and more time for peer teaching. Overall, it can be claimed that studying trainee teachers beliefs has given us a clear indication of what background they come from and has allowed us to establish from the start which areas will need particular attention during the course.

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Appendix

1.	Learning a foreign language is the same as learning other academic subjects.	3	2	1	0
2.	A language is best learnt by frequent repetition of words and grammatical forms.	3	2	1	0
3.	A language is best learnt through involvement in real communicative situations.	3	2	1	0
4.	A language is best learnt by memorizing dialogues, songs, tongue twisters, etc. imitating correct pronunciation.	3	2	1	0
5.	A language is best learnt through understanding grammar rules.	3	2	1	0

6.	A language is best learnt by translating from your native language to English and back.	3	2	1	0
7.	A language is learnt better when learners' attention is focused on the language (words, grammatical structures, etc.) they are using.	3	2	1	0
8.	A language is learnt better when learners' attention is focused on something non-linguistic (e.g. a problem, discussion topic, interesting story) rather than on language form.	3	2	1	0
9.	Learners may copy each other's mistakes, so language use in class should occur under teachers' control and supervision.	3	2	1	0
10.	Unless all mistakes are corrected immediately, learners will have trouble speaking well later.	3	2	1	0
11.	Learners should avoid using language unless they are sure of its accuracy in order to avoid mistakes.	3	2	1	0
12.	English lesson should be conducted completely in English.	3	2	1	0
13.	Groupwork produces noise and leads to wasting time. So it should be used infrequently.	3	2	1	0
14.	While working in pairs and groups learners develop more skills than through interaction with teachers.	3	2	1	0
15.	Teaching will only be successful if the teacher creates friendly and pleasant atmosphere in class.	3	2	1	0
16.	I mainly support traditional methods of teaching.	3	2	1	0
17.	I mainly support modern methods of teaching.	3	2	1	0

SOME TYPICAL CASES OF VIOLATING COOPERATIVE MAXIMS

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Abstract

The research paper deals with the study of the phenomena of misunderstanding and self-repair in dialogical discourse. The paper focuses on the analysis of those linguistic, psychological, socio-cultural and pragmatic factors that lead to misunderstanding between the communicants, which finally might end in a discourse failure. The author regards as one of such factors the introduction of a new conversation topic (i.e., subject matter) with the help of proper names and third person pronouns which, due to their sign peculiarities, lack in conceptual meaning and informativeness. Their usage as identifiers violates the principle of communicative cooperation, particularly the maxim of manner, when one tries to be clear and avoids obscurity and ambiguity. Sometimes the phenomenon of misunderstanding may be provoked by the addresser's psychological disposition at the moment of speaking, as well as by the diversions in the socio-cultural background knowledge and pragmatic attitudes of the communicants. In connection with this, the paper concentrates on the study of the cases of self-repair. Hopefully, the analysis and generalization of the phenomena of misunderstanding and self-repair will be helpful both to English language teachers and learners.

Keywords: discourse, misunderstanding, communicative cooperation, conversational maxims, self-repair.

Introduction

Dialogical discourse is considered as verbalized mental activity whose main aim is to deliver or exchange information. Verbal communication has a discrete character, since it consists of separate speech acts, each of which creates its own social-linguistic field, whose main components are:

- a) The addresser and the addressee;
- b) Non-communicative constituents of the speech act, which build the micro-world of the communicants during the process of speech-making. Therefore, they may be converted into the subject matter any time;
- c) The message itself with the help of which the communicants interact;
- d) The time and place where the given speech act takes place.

The correlation of these linguistic and extra-linguistic factors has a stable and cyclic character that predetermines the stereotypicality of the speech act. Taking into consideration the peculiarities of the speech act, one can consider intersubjectivity (i.e., interpersonality) and interactionality as the basic features of the dialogical discourse. In Discourse Analysis, the concept of interactionality is defined as co-participation of the communicants in the process of speech-making, whereas intersubjectivity is understood as the unanimity of their psychological and phenomenological experience (Makarov, 2003, p. 39; Brown, 1995; Geis, 1995). As a result, the development of the dialogical discourse completely depends on the unity of such psychological and pragmatic factors as the communicants' motifs, intentions, presuppositions and expectations as well as their role peculiarities, language and speech competence and the social-cultural context of communication (Makarov, 2003, p. 39; Brown, 1995; Geis, 1995).

In view of the interactonal and interpersonal understanding of dialogical discourse, it is necessary for its participants to be cooperative. In the modern theory of discourse it is indicated that the dialogue represents an information-matching-game during which the communicants should follow certain rules (Brown, 1995; Carlson, 1993; Geis, 1995). In 1975 Paul Grice proposed a theory about how people should use language. Grice's suggestion is that there is a set of rules guiding the conversation. They arise, it seems, from basic rational considerations and may be formulated as guidelines for the efficient and effective use of language in conversation. Grice identifies four **maxims of conversation**, which jointly represent a general **cooperative principle**. This principle and the maxims are expressed as follows (Grice, 1975, p. 46):

The cooperative principle:

Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk in which you are engaged.

The maxim of Quality:

Try to make your contribution one that is true, specifically:

1. Do not say what you believe to be false.
2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

The Maxim Quantity:

1. Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange.
2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

The Maxim of Relevance:

Be relevant. Make your contribution relevant.

The Maxim of Manner:

Be perspicuous:

1. Avoid obscurity.
2. Avoid ambiguity.
3. Be brief.
4. Be orderly.

Grice's maxims specify what the communicants have to do in order to converse in a maximally efficient, rational, cooperative way: they should speak sincerely, relevantly and clearly while providing sufficient information.

Research Methods and Procedures

In view of the above-mentioned, we consider it of paramount importance to study the phenomena of misunderstanding (i.e., non-understanding) and self-repair in dialogical discourse aiming to reveal and generalize those linguistic, pragmatic and cultural factors which hinder or prevent the process of communication. We focus on the "question-answer" micro-dialogues, in which the phenomenon of misunderstanding is fixed by the addressee with the help of the question – "What do you mean?" – or counter-question, after which the initiator of the conversation fills in the informational lacuna or gap in the opening utterance which has provoked the misunderstanding. The results of our research have shown that the development of dialogical discourse is mainly hindered by misunderstanding of the reference identifying the subject matter.

Yule (1996, p. 17) defines reference as a relation between expressions and what speakers use these expressions to talk about. In other words, reference is an act by which the addresser (a speaker or a writer) uses linguistic forms to enable the addressee (a listener or a reader) to identify someone or something: the assertion "George Bush is Republican", the proper name *George Bush* is used to refer to a particular individual, an individual about whom the speaker is going to inform something. We claim that the process of reference is directed by the speaker who, guided by his/her communicative intention, selects the necessary lingual units to express his/her idea in a proper way. At the same time, the speaker has to take into consideration the addressee factor, the contextual information and the socio-cultural context of the speech act.

Research Results

The analysis of the empirical material has shown that misunderstanding of the referential act in dialogical discourse is mainly caused when the subject matter is introduced into the text with the help of a proper name. For instance:

- _ Do you know what my biggest regret is?
- _ What's that, Colin?
- _ That none of you ever met Carol.

_ **Who?**

_ **Carol. My ex-fiancee. She drowned, you know.**

Ayckbourn, "Absurd Person Singular", 1974, p. 139)

In the given example the phenomenon of misunderstanding, to be more precise, of nonunderstanding is created by the initiator of the conversation having introduced the subject matter with the proper name – *Carol*. In linguistic literature, proper names or anthroponyms are considered as rigid designators which is predetermined by the peculiarity of their sign nature. Being devoid of any conceptual meaning, the functioning of proper names in the text is restricted and regulated by certain linguo-pragmatic factors. As a rule, a proper name is used to refer to a particular person who is familiar to the addressee; that is, when the subject matter is fixed in the addressee's mind through his/her background knowledge or contextual information. Otherwise, the introduction of the subject matter with the help of the proper name creates the phenomenon of misunderstanding for the addressee. And, unless he or she is provided with the additional information, the addressee will not be able to identify the referred person. In the above-given micro-dialogue misunderstanding is eliminated instantly, as soon as the addresser provides his interlocutor with the additional anthropological information about the person, who represents the subject matter of their conversation at the given moment.

There are cases when the identification of the subject matter introduced with the help of a proper name requires the addressee's cultural background knowledge. It is almost a truism that the higher the intellectual level of a person is, the more likely he/she can use the names and surnames of famous people. The lack of cultural background knowledge often creates the phenomenon of misunderstanding that embarrasses the addressee. Such kind of misunderstanding is described by the famous American writer Jean Webster in her book "Daddy-Long-Legs". The main character of the book, Jerusha Abbot from the orphanage, becomes a student of one of the best colleges in America, where the freshers from rich and aristocratic families have already got some knowledge in different spheres of culture, among them – literature and art. Naturally, the girl was deprived of acquiring such knowledge at the orphanage. As a result, her cultural background knowledge is fairly behind from that of her co-eds at college. Jerusha is teased by her classmates. She mistook the great Italian sculptor Michaelangelo for *the archangel* because of their similar sounding. Also, hearing the name of the famous Belgian writer, the Nobel Prize winner Maurice Maeterlinck, she thought he was one of the freshmen. Jerusha describes these episodes of misunderstanding in humoristic colours in her letter to Daddy-Long-Legs:

Did you ever hear of Michael Angelo? He was a famous artist who lived in Italy in the Middle Ages. Everybody in English Literature seemed to know about him and the whole class laughed because I thought he was an archangel. He sounds like an archangel, doesn't he? ... I made an awful mistake the first day. Somebody mentioned Maurice Maeterlinck, and I asked if she was a Freshman. That joke has gone all over the college. But anyway, I'm just as bright in class as any of the others – and brighter than some of them! (J. Webster, "Daddy-Long-Legs" p. 20)

The second typical example of referential misunderstanding in the dialogical discourse is caused by the introduction of a new topic of conversation with the help of a third person pronoun. Personal pronouns are considered as deictic lexical units, whose main mission is to organize a concrete speech act identifying the communicative and non-communicative persons participating in it. The results of the research have made it evident that the application of the first and the second person deictic pronouns denoting the addresser and the addressee is not subjected to any restrictions whereas the functioning of the third person pronouns is strictly controlled by the speech act, since they can identify a new subject matter only in the case when the latter is within the sensory-visual perception of the interlocutors, as it is shown in the textual fragment given below:

Scarlett looked up and saw Melanie at the top of the stairs. Melanie's eyes took in the scene below in its entirety, **the sprawling blue-clad body** in the red pool, Scarlett, bare-footed and gray-faced, clutching the long pistol.

'Scarlett', she whispered, 'we must get **him** out of here and bury **him**. **He** may not be alone and if they find **him** here...' _ She steadied herself on Scarlett's arm.

'**He** must be alone', said Scarlett. 'I didn't see anyone from the window. **He** must be a deserter.'
(M. Mitchel, "Gone with the Wind", p. 368)

However, when the referent of the subject matter is not within the sensory perception of the communicants, its initial introduction into the text with a third person pronoun is inadmissible as, in this case, its application is unilateral which creates misunderstanding among the interlocutors. The unilateralism of the pronoun is predetermined by the fact that its application is communicatively relevant and unambiguous only for the addresser, whereas it is absolutely irrelevant and pointless for the addressee since the general semantics of the pronoun would not permit them to identify the referent of the subject matter. Because of this, the addressee is made to fix the ambiguous and obscure component in the opening utterance with the help of a question after which the initiator of the conversation corrects and makes his own utterance concrete.

_ **She** up there?

_ **Who?**

_ **Lady!**

_ No.

(T. Williams, "Orpheus Descending", p. 294)

Carelessness and negligence in the explication of a new subject matter in a dialogical discourse is sometimes caused by the affective psycho-emotional disposition of the speaker in the given speech act due to which the latter loses the ability to take into consideration the addressee factor and subconsciously ignores the possibility of perceiving the

information conveyed in his/her own utterance. To illustrate the above-said, we will provide a fragment from "All the King's Men" by R.P. Warren, in the descriptive part of which the author creates the verbal picture of the speech act situation while in the second part he gives a dialogue between a mother and her son:

There was a noise down the hall from my mother's room, a sound like moaning. The door was open and I ran in. She was sitting on the edge of her bed, staring at me with wide, wild eyes as she cried out:

'You did **it**, you did **it**, you killed **him**!'

'**What?**' I demanded, '**What?**'

'You killed **him**!'

'Killed **who**?'

'You killed **him**!' She began to laugh hysterically...

'Killed **who**?' I demanded, shaking her.

'**Your father**', she said, 'Your father and oh! You killed him.'

(Warren R. P., "All The King's Men", p.317-318)

The introduction of a new subject matter with a third person pronoun is often followed by the self-repair process of the utterance, which is considered as an expression of the so-called 'afterthought' (Ochs & Shieffelin, 1983; Shegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977). For instance:

- Know what **she** used to say? **Ben's mother, I mean**. She used to say it before she died that Southern women painted a triangle of rouge on their faces as if they were going out to scare the hippopotamus.
- Who could have blamed her?

(Hellman L., The Autumn Garden, p. 134-135)

The essence of the phenomenon of self-repair lies in the fact that the addresser duly takes into consideration the addressee factor during which the former realizes that he/she introduced a new subject matter with a pronominal word that might cause misunderstanding for the addressee. As a result, the addresser makes immediate correction in his/her utterance by substituting the pronominal word with a denotative noun phrase. In the above-given example, it is – *Ben's mother*, which is singled out as a detached phrase in the next utterance. It should be noted that in Modern English the lexical marker of the phenomenon of self-repair is the phrase – *I mean*, as is the case in our example.

Conclusion

Thus, our study of the phenomenon of misunderstanding has shown that almost all typical cases of misunderstanding are caused by the addresser who ignores the factor of the addressee and introduces a new subject matter with the help of proper names or third person pronouns thus violating the principles of communicative cooperation, in particular – the Maxims of Relevance and Manner which ensures unambiguity and relevance of the dialogical discourse. By behaving so, the speaker provokes the possibility of communication failure. Proceeding from this situation, we consider it advisable in the process of teaching English as second language to focus on learning and observing the principles of communicative cooperation since the knowledge of speech postulates will help the language learners be more cooperative with their interlocutors by avoiding and self-repairing ambiguity and inaccuracy in their utterances, thus facilitating successful development of the discourse.

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NURTURING COMPLEX COGNITIVE PROCESSES IN LEARNERS

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Abstract

One of the most important goals set by educational institutions in the 21st century is the development of higher-order skills in learners. These skills involve: problem-solving, critical thinking and decision-making. In our competitive world employers have desire to hire staff that are both full of fresh theories from colleges and universities and at the same time, ready to solve real life problems at their work places; who are smart and quick in creative decision-making and those who critically evaluate the situation. Besides, the occupational use of problem solving, critical thinking and decision-making skills, everyday life present many situations for humans who either solve them effectively, think productively to evaluate the evidence or just fail in doing so. Thus, these complex skills are crucial for people. Educational psychology and pedagogy try to help teachers and learners to meet the goals. The aim of the study is to help individuals understand the complexity of these complex cognitive processes and to assist educators in nurturing problem solving, critical thinking and decision-making skills in learners.

Keywords: problem-solving, critical thinking, decision-making, cognitive processes, higher-ordered skills, Educational psychology

Introduction

Child's development can be viewed as the unity of biological, cognitive and socio-emotional processes. Cognitive developmental processes enable children to memorize the material under study, to solve challenging science problems and to evaluate critically the evidence. The overview of the development of neurons and brain regions will provide a wide view of how complex processes happen. Two important aspects of brain development at cellular level include: myelination and formation of synapses. Due to myelination (the process by which the information travels through nervous system at a high speed) brain increases in size which continues into adolescence. The most extensive increase in myelination, which occurs in the brain's frontal lobes, where reasoning and thinking occur, takes place during adolescence (Santrock, 2011). A dramatic growth of synapses (connections between neurons) in pre-frontal cortex is significant for development, as this area is critical for higher-order cognitive functioning, such as learning, memory, and reasoning. "It is noticeable, that in the pre-frontal cortex where higher-level thinking and self-regulation take place, it is not until middle to late adolescence that the adult density of the synapses is achieved"

(Santrock, 2011, p.36). The implication for school teachers is that children's learning, memorization and reasoning skills will improve in adolescent years. They should be cautious in order not to form learned helplessness in learners.

Critical thinking

One of the central objectives of education is to boost in learners the ability to think critically and to make reasonable decisions. Mindfulness is what Ellen Langer (1997; 2005) thinks to be the key to thinking critically. "Mindfulness means being alert, mentally present, and cognitively flexible while going through life's everyday activities and tasks" (Santrock, 2011, p.303). If students form active awareness of circumstances at educational institutions, then they take it through the whole life. Mindful learners generate new ideas, are flexible and view problems from many different perspectives. They critically evaluate what they read and they ask meaningful questions. Teachers should not strive for learner conformity and obedience, but for empowering students to be active and not to accept material without questioning. Santrock (2011) presents several ways for teachers to build critical thinking into a lesson plan. The first is, like Bloom advised in the cognitive domain of his taxonomy, to ask students not only what but also how and why questions, and thus to approach the subject deeply and not superficially. Another way offered is instead of sharing information emotionally, teachers should argue in a reasoned way. Furthermore, teachers should always be open to many different answers from students and by checking and evaluating every single reply, judge which is the best answer. Learners come with different learning experiences, such as passive learning and reciting practices. Teaching that is focused on questions, problems and solutions rather than recitation, will step by step promote critical thinking skills in learners. "Effective teaching of critical thinking depends on setting a classroom tone that encourages the acceptance of divergent perspectives and free discussion" (Slavin, 2003, p. 34). The simple example for university lecturers to help students think critically is to give them many dilemmas and ask them to prove their point while discussing. The focus should be on presenting the logical arguments and not on 'correct' answers. Another example can be to ask learners while reading an article for the seminar discussion to write annotations, questions and comments about the material on the margins. Another helpful activity can be group discussion of a personal incident raised by a student. The ideas about an incident which disturbs the student may become the basis for thesis topic formation and at the same time a valuable activity for every student, as all of them use their critical thinking skills. Using the techniques listed above teacher helps students apply their metacognitive skills, control their own thinking and avoid being controlled by the ideas unreflectively.

Problem solving

Problem solving is regarded as one of the aspects of intelligence. It is crucial for teachers to know the ways of teaching and enhancing in learners the ability to solve complex problems. What is implied in problem solving? As Santrock (2011) defines this is "finding an appropriate way to attain a goal" (p. 317). The problem solving process involves several steps:

the first step is to identify that the problem exists. Problems in classrooms appear as well-defined and ill-defined. Well-defined problems are clearly cut and structured solutions apply. Ill-defined problems that are more and more presented in today's classrooms require real-world skills in learners to solve them. The second step is to choose the strategy for solving the problem. Several strategies that are advised by different authors are: algorithms, heuristics and means-end analysis. "A well-defined procedure for solving a particular kind of problem is often called an algorithm" (Seifertik & Sutton, 2009, p. 190). **Algorithms** are effective in case of well-structured problems. Learners should be advised that using algorithms guarantee well-defined problem solution and that it is the best choice. However, the life presents lots of ill-structured problems which cannot be solved using algorithms. That is why learners today should be exposed to ill-structured problems. Being involved in deciding such problems require real-world skills and classrooms today should host such problem-solving experiences in order to make learners ready for real life. **Heuristics** may not always guarantee full problem solution but it may provide partial remedy to problems. A perfect classroom example can be preparation for the thesis writing, when learners try to find appropriate literature for review. They are not sure the articles they find on internet or books they scan in the university library are exact match for their paper but part of them may be helpful and this strategy is worth trying. Another example can be the multiple choice tests. In case of not knowing the answer learners should be able to apply heuristics by narrowing down the possible solution. They first should eliminate the answers that are most unlikely to be right and then to choose between the narrowed down offer. Skills like this can be enhanced only by using heuristics in the classroom for teacher-presented problems. "A **means-end analysis** is a heuristic in which one identifies the goal (end) of a problem, assesses the current situation, and evaluates what needs to be done (means) to decrease the difference between the two conditions" (Santrock, 2011, p. 318). After finding the solution the following step is to evaluate the solution and as the last step it is important to always redefine problems and solutions.

Learners should know that there are barriers to solving problems and strategies that help in solving them. Common impediments are: functional fixedness and response set. People with these tendencies wrongly represent the problem. "Functional fixedness is a type of fixation in which an individual fails to solve a problem because he views the elements involved solely in terms of their usual functions" (Santrock, 2011, p. 309). Many teachers may experience functional fixedness when assigning classroom management problems to unmotivated and irresponsible students and not viewing many other causes for them, like not interesting delivery by the teacher or not appropriate topic for the age group. In case of response set, people view existing problem as the same one which was previously presented and think about it in the same way. Teachers should be alert to understand what the problems are for their learners and assist them in showing them barriers that prevent them from solving the problem. When learners are aware of above discussed impediments to problem solving they pay more attention to how fresh and new their perspectives are. The only way for learners to become good problem solvers is to be exposed to many meaningful problems for them, those that relate to their personal lives and to be supported by teachers to solve them.

Decision-making

"Decision making involves thinking in which individuals evaluate alternatives and make choices among them" (Santrock, 2011, p. 308). In real life situations decisions are made when the situation is not clear-cut or when the outcomes of the decisions are not known and the information is not enough about the issue. Thus, the process of decision-making is not simple. It is significant to discuss what are the biases and flaws in decision-making process. One type of bias is "Confirmation bias, the tendency to search for and use information that supports our ideas rather than refutes them" (Santrock, 2011, p.308). Learners may make decisions according to their primary beliefs what will have the better outcome and not evaluate any other way. Some teachers talk only with those students and colleagues, whose views confirm their own and ignore others. Another type of bias is an **overconfidence bias**. "Overconfidence bias is the tendency to have more confidence in judgments and decisions than we should have, based on probability and past experience" (Santrock 2011, 309). Teachers should help their students when considering their actions to analyze evidence from the past. Belief perseverance is the tendency to hold on to a belief in the face of contradictory evidence" (Santrock 2011, p. 309). Learners always bring past experiences in the classroom which may hinder or boost their academic success. Teachers should evaluate why a particular student chooses surface approach to learning when every message from the teacher hints on deeper approaches. This may be the past experience that the student has and the role of teacher is to make the learner aware of the fact and help in changing the approach.

Conclusion

Following are the outcomes of the above discussion:

1. Teachers' awareness of the complex cognitive developmental processes in children, in particular the development of brain areas in different developmental stages, is crucial in forming expectations and helping learners not to form learned helplessness, which will impede their academic success.
2. Conformity is not what is desirable for citizens in the 21st century. It is preferable to have a generation which critically evaluate situations, are powerful and never accept anything without questioning. Formation of these skills starts in schools and continues in higher education institutions with the help of powerful, knowledgeable teachers.
3. Teachers should expose learners to many real-world problems that are meaningful for learners and help them in dealing with difficulties.
4. Teachers should remember that learners come from many different past experiences that effect their current learning processes and by choosing relevant strategies educators should help learners become good problem-solvers and decision-makers in the classroom and in the world around them.



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TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS: A SURVEY OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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Abstract

Speaking is generally thought to be the most important of the four skills. The mastery of speaking skill is a priority for many second and foreign language learners. Despite its importance, for many years, teaching speaking has been undervalued by teachers. Students have problems in speaking, especially in the use of grammar tenses and they consider it as the main skill that should be improved. The aim of the paper is to present some of the ways of teaching speaking skills in the classroom focusing on fluency; it offers a variety of practical techniques which can be used in the classroom. These techniques are based on different approaches. The concept of teaching speaking skills is presented with respect to the notion of communicative competence. The paper is the empirical phase of this study. The research tools and procedure used by the researcher to collect data from 70 EFL learners from Tbilisi, Telavi and Gori State Universities in 2016 are described thoroughly. The analysis of EFL learners' questionnaire and discussion of the obtained results are presented.

Keywords: Speaking skills, Teaching speaking, Speaking difficulties

Introduction

Teaching speaking skills is an important component of foreign language teaching / learning. English speaking ability is very important, but at the same time it is the most challenging skill to improve. As early as in 1979, Allwright (1979, p.167) reported that "language teaching, globally, has not led to a satisfactory level of communicative skill in the vast majority of cases".

English is an international language. In this global era, people use English as a media of communication. For most people, the ability to speak a foreign language is synonymous with knowledge in a given language. It is important for University students to develop listening, reading and writing skills, but speaking is frequently a priority. "speaking in a second or foreign language has often been viewed as the most demanding of the four skills" (Bailey & Savage 1994, p. 7).

Students have difficulties to communicate in English. They have a low motivation to speak, do not have enough vocabulary to express their ideas, feeling shy when they speak in front of their friends, cannot express their ideas through oral communication. Besides, students have grammar problems while speaking. Language learners have to make a great effort and spend much time in order to use tenses properly in oral speech.

There have been many studies in different countries to find the ways for tackling the above problems while speaking. This paper emphasizes the last few years when speaking and teaching speaking has finally been paid the amount of attention that it really deserves, based on the books by Thornbury (Thornbury, 2005), Nation and Newton (Nation & Newton, 2009), Hughes (Hughes, 2011), etc.

To cope with the problems of teaching speaking, teachers are required to employ certain techniques in order to achieve the goal of language learning and teaching for speaking skill.

One way to improve students' speaking ability is to use communicative language teaching. The Communicative Teaching Method is based on the principle that learning a language successfully involves communication rather than just memorizing the grammar rules. A teacher in a Communicative Teaching class should try to focus on meaningful communication. During the process of activities, the teacher is a facilitator, an advisor, and a guide to help students to achieve their goal in their learning process. The teacher might attempt to encourage students to use language communicatively, such as role-play, where learners pretend to be in various social contexts and have various social roles.

The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) method can motivate students to be active in communication and minimize the problems they have while speaking English.

Research Methodology and Findings

The research method is based on the learners' quantitative questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed to determine whether teaching English was focused on developing speaking skills and which methods or approaches were applied in teaching speaking.

Prior to the experiment, with the view to study the above-mentioned issue thoroughly, a quantitative study was conducted in three Georgian universities: Gori, Telavi and Tbilisi state universities, the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences during the spring term of 2015-2016 academic year. A questionnaire for students was prepared, which consisted of questions and answers in different formats. The survey involved the total of 70 students and continued for one semester. The age of respondents ranged from 18 to 24. Each opinion was provided anonymously in writing.

Students were asked to answer the questions and write down or specify suitable correct answers. The survey results helped to refine the hypothesis and ensure the accuracy of the experiment.

Upon the completion of the diagnostic questionnaire conducted in three Georgian state universities, the results were statistically processed. The average and standard deviation have been calculated through the SPSS program.

The information presented in the paper is the way to explain whether speaking is a problem in terms of the use of English tenses in high schools. The standard deviation is $\pm 5\%$.

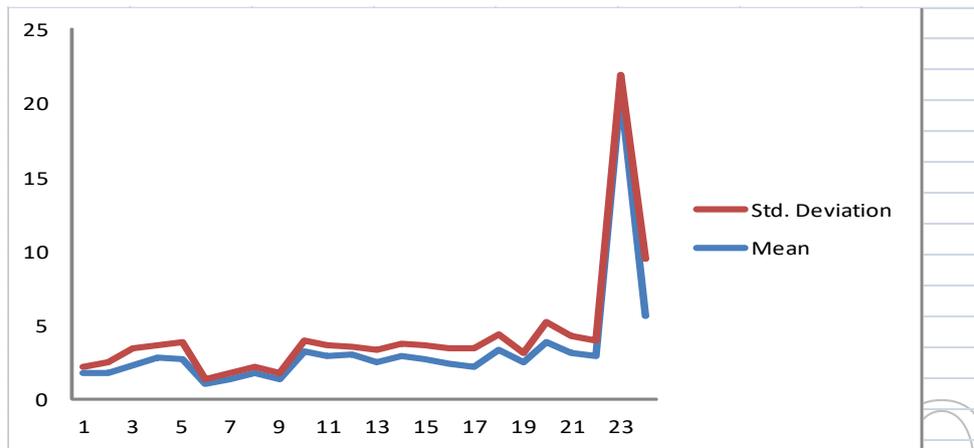


Diagram 1. The questionnaire results have been processed through SPSS.

The respondents were asked how often they spoke in English to find out if they could use the acquired knowledge and produce a speech every day. 37% of the respondents rarely speak; almost never - 8%; once or twice a week - 37%; every day 15%, and 3% refused to answer.

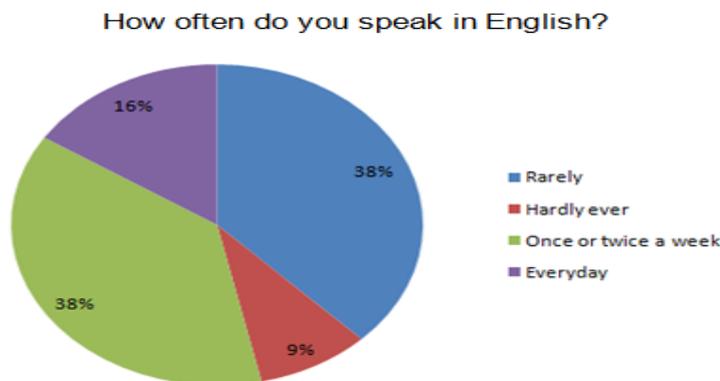


Diagram 2. Graphic image showing the frequency of English spoken by students

To the question how they would evaluate their speaking skills in English, 5% of the respondents answered - Very good, 23%- Good; 55%- Average; 13 % -Poor; 3%- Too bad.

The respondents were asked whether they liked to communicate in English to find out if they liked English language. Accordingly, 30% of the respondents said they like it very much; 60- like; 8%- don't like; and 2%- really don't like;

After the previous question we wondered how often they spoke in English to find out if they could use the acquired knowledge and produce a speech every day. 37% of the respondents rarely speak; almost never - 8%; once or twice a week - 37%; every day 15%, and 3% refused to answer.

It was interesting to learn whether the respondents had difficulty to speak fluent English, consequently: 68% finds it difficult to speak fluently, and for 32 % it is not difficult.

Based on the previous question, It was interesting to see how tiring and annoying was talking in English for the respondents, 18 % said it was tiring and annoying; and for 82% was not.

Especially interesting is the students' attitude to the following question: Is the grammar important when you speak English, the absolute majority of the respondents -92% noted that it is important, while 8% consider it unimportant.

When asked what type of activities respondents did to develop speaking skill, it turned out that - 9% uses role-plays; dialogues - 56%; picture description - 20%; debates - 10%; other types of activities - 3%; and 3% refused to answer.

It was interesting to learn what issues the respondents encounter while speaking in English, accordingly: 30% of the surveyed say they worry about using tenses incorrectly; lack of vocabulary - 21%; speak slowly, or reluctance to talk - 15%; cannot formulate an idea in English - 10%; lacks motivation to show off - 9%; finds it difficult to ask questions - 7%; feels shy to express an idea - 5%; and has no problems- 2%.

During the survey, the respondents were asked to mark the tenses which they often used in conversations. Most often 14% of the surveyed uses Present Simple, also Past Simple - 14%; Future Simple - 12%; Present Continuous - 12%; Past continuous - 10%; Present perfect - 10%; Past perfect - 7%; Future continuous - 7%; Future perfect - 5%; Present perfect continuous - 4%; Past perfect continuous - 3%; Future perfect continuous - 2%.

It was interesting to learn whether the respondents, after the explanation of grammatical tense at the English language lesson / lecture, had the opportunity to use the learned tense in practice, as it turned out 65% produce it and 35% - do not.

The survey respondents were asked to specify the simplicity and / or complexity of the use of acquired tenses in practice through scaling. In particular, the survey included 3 grammar tenses and the respondents had to indicate simplicity and/or complexity of the tense usage through a five-point scale.

"Using the continuous tenses in conversations": very easy - 22%; easy - 28%; neither easy nor difficult - 38%; difficult -5% and very difficult -5%;

“Using the simple tenses in conversations”: very easy - 37%; easy - 32%; neither easy nor difficult - 13%; difficult -7% and very difficult -10%;

“Using the perfect tenses in conversations”: very easy - 2%; easy - 20%; neither easy nor difficult - 37%; difficult -23% and very difficult -15%;

As for the demographic data, 22% were males and 78 % females.

The percentage of the research participants according to the universities was as follows: Telavi State University - 5%; Tbilisi Ivane Javakhishvili State University - 28%; Gori State University - 50%;

It was interesting to see how often teacher corrected mistakes when speaking English, the results were as follows: 15% of respondents said - always corrected; often - 28%, rarely - 27%; sometimes - 27%, and never - 5%.



Diagram 3. Graphic image showing the frequency of error correction by teacher

The survey showed that for EFLs using the grammar rules correctly in speaking is a really challenging task.

Conclusions & Recommendations

In conclusion it is possible to say that the development of speaking skills is a rather complicated process often accompanied by extreme shyness or fear of making mistakes, which can be caused by the lack of knowledge of grammatical structures. Therefore, it is necessary to plan interesting and fun activities for students.

Based on the above-discussed issues, the following appropriate conclusions and recommendations can be made:

One of the reasons why students complain about language teaching inefficiency when it comes to speaking is „lack of genuine speaking activities“ (Thornbury, 2005, p. 28).

The findings of this study support Thornbury’s (Thornbury, 2005) view that students need a lot of opportunities and interactive activities to improve practical skills and teachers usually fail to provide the above at the lessons. If the recommendations are taken into account, they will help to improve speaking in the English language both at school and university levels.

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**DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEPTION OF GIFTEDNESS AMONG JEWISH AND ARAB STUDENTS
IN AN ISRAELI TEACHING COLLEGE**

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Abstract

Although giftedness is perceived as an individual cognitive trait; culture has much to do in its molding. Each culture defines what and who is a gifted person: Athens admires mighty words and dialogues, while Sparta glorifies the ethos of battle. The current research goal is to find out the differences in the perception of giftedness between Israeli's Arabic students and Israeli's Jewish students? The two groups live side by side: Israeli Jews, and Palestinians, Arab citizens of Israel. The two communities are educated in two separate educational systems, united only in college and universities. The first speaks the Hebrew language, the other Arabic. The first group are privileged and the second are a repressed minority. As expected, there are significant differences in lifestyle and values. How are the differences in norms, beliefs, and values expressed in connection with giftedness? A questionnaire survey was administered to 82 students aged 19-25 at a local teacher training college, where students are learning toward a teaching certificate and a bachelor degree. The sample contains 37 Arab and 45 Jews. A few differences arise when comparing the two groups, for example; the students were asked to put themselves in the shoes of a school principal who had a limited budget. The principal must choose only three enrichment courses from a list of 12 options. Three subjects revealed differences between both cultures; these were: 'Current affairs and politics' next to 'fostering leadership' were chosen by Jews considerably more than Arabs. The opposite with 'programming games for mobile phones' was preferred by the Arabs students. Explaining this finding and others is an evidence of how the political situation in the Middle East permeates into every dimension of life. Arab students are detached and excluded from the political realm. The arena of politics and current affairs are a threat and a source of distress. Mastering new technologies is a way of promoting oneself without being dependent on any establishment. On the Jews' side, choosing rhetoric, politics, and leadership as a proper enrichment course for gifted pupils demonstrates the effect of globalization. The survey was conducted a short period after the election of Donald Trump to the USA presidency, and the idea of charismatic leadership prevails on public discourse. In the bottom line, the analysis of findings reflects differences in the social position of the two communities more than in cultural values.

Introduction

Differences in the definition of giftedness occur not only between places, but also over the course of time. Perception of giftedness went through dramatic changes in the history of educational research. From narrow quantitative descriptions based on intelligent tests, focused on mathematical abilities, toward a qualitative and relativist definition. The modern concept of giftedness relates to traits, such as motivation and creativity in a wide subject area. The present study will focus on two cultures in one location. The current research goal is to find out the differences in the perception of giftedness between Israeli's Arabic students and Israeli's Jewish students. As expected, there are significant differences in lifestyle and values of the two groups. Israeli Jews subsist in a modern society, most of the population lives in cities, and women are integrated into the labor market and politics. In contrast, most Arab people in Israel live in the country and preserve many forms of the traditional lifestyle. For example, Arab society has no homes for the elderly; aging parents are taken care of inside the family's house. Although there is some progress, women are still marginalized from the most parts of the public arena. How are the differences in norms, beliefs, and values expressed in relation with giftedness? What is giftedness in the eyes of student teachers from each culture?

Literature Review - Definitions of Giftedness

There are many definitions of the concept of giftedness, which can be reviewed chronologically and demonstrate how social changes make their mark on the concept (Coleman, 2004). Definitions can also be classified based on their affinity to quantitative and qualitative paradigms. The quantitative definition dominated the field for years, according to which a gifted person achieves certain measurable achievements in intelligence tests. The *Binet-Simon* test of intelligence was created in the early nineteenth century in France. According to this approach, the test structure has an affinity to school tasks, and it can assess the probability of a certain individual to succeed in them. The qualitative approach claims, it is not just a matter of quantity, there is something different and diverse in gifted children, they do not hold "more" of the same but something else. An example of such definition is Renzulli's rings model, which perceives giftedness as the point of intersection and the sharing of creativity, motivation, and high performance; the last or the first ingredient is not enough, you need all three together to cook the exceptional individual (Renzulli, 1984; 1999).

Cultural Differences in Perception of Giftedness

Definitions and concepts of giftedness are not only dependent on time or the researcher's paradigm but also depended on the political, economic, and cultural background (Mandelman et al., 2010). Cultures hold different views on who is a gifted. For example, Okagaki and Sternberg (1993) found that Asian-Americans tended to emphasize cognitive abilities in their perception of the concept of intelligence, while Americans emphasized social and emotional abilities.

As a result of this particular cultural tendency, it is reasonable to assume that children raised in Asian communities in America will be socialized in a way that will enhance their ability to succeed in IQ tests. Success in school, which requires a package of skills of a certain kind, is not equally appreciated in all cultures. There is wide agreement among researchers that the concept of giftedness in every culture is a function of traits that society appreciates. Indigenous societies that struggle against natural disasters will define the right, desired, and gifted person in a different way than the one defined by a hyper-technological society.

Sternberg (2007) reviews a series of studies that illustrate the differences in the concept of intelligence between different cultures. For example, Taiwanese and Chinese people consider intercultural communication and understanding in the body of intelligence to be the pinna le of intelligence. In Africa, strive for harmony, compromise, and concern for group stability are just as important as cognitive excellence. In Zambia, responsibility, cooperation, and obedience were perceived as superior qualities. In Zimbabwe, the word "intelligent" also means "caution," in diplomatic relations term. In Kenya, the concept of giftedness also includes courtesy toward the elderly and community service.

The differences in perceptions of giftedness exist not only between the Third World and the Western communities but can occur within a given society, between majority and minority groups. This occurrence has significance in locating the gifted and allocating resources. Studies show that even experienced teachers might hold narrow perceptions of giftedness that ignore cultural connections, and overlook expressions of giftedness when it comes to minority groups. Teachers identify fewer gifted children in minority groups, even when using the same Intelligence Quotient (IQ) test (Neumeister et al., 2007)

The question at the center of this study is the extent to which the perception of giftedness in the Arab minority inside Israel differs from that of the Jewish majority. Any attempt to define the essence of the gifted Arab student will come up with questions: Should a graduate of the Arab-Israeli education system be an asset to his people and his homeland? To which community should he contribute? Which traditions will be his Alma Mater, Western modernism or Arab traditions?

The existence of the Arab community in a cultural and national twilight zone makes it difficult to answer those questions. The Arab community in Israel is torn between modernity and tradition. Therefore, in light of the differences in value systems between the two communities, one can expect a difference in perception of the gifted and the giftedness.

Research method Top of Form

Research method

A questionnaire survey was administered to 82 students aged 19-25 at a local teacher training college. All students were learning toward gaining a teaching certificate and a bachelor degree. The study sample contains 37 Arab and 45 Jews.

The questionnaire was introduced at the beginning of the lesson, and the students were asked but were not obligated to cooperate and to place it, anonymously, on the teacher's desk at the end of the meeting. The results were processed in SPSS - the software for statistical analysis.

Findings

The students were asked to put themselves in the shoes of a school principal who had a limited budget. The principal must choose only three enrichment courses from a list of 12 options, what would it be? Students were offered courses such as, "Experiment in chemistry and physics," "creative writing workshop for poetry," and the "young lawyer – court simulation." The following table presents the overall distribution of choices in descending order in the whole sample.

N=82	Desirable Enrichment courses in descending order, from the most popular to least	Rating in percentage
1	Rhetoric and culture of speech	48
2	Fostering young leadership	46
3	Thinking riddle and mathematical puzzles	34
4	Music in different cultures	29
5	Programming games for mobile phone	28
6	Experiment in chemistry and physics	23
7	Making movies	24
8	Religions in historical perspective	21
9	Young lawyer, court simulation	17
10	Current events and politics	16
11	Creative writing workshop for poetry	9
12	Following the famous paintings	6
	The table does not count to one hundred percent since the participants were asked to select three items from the list	

Observing the selections of the overall sample without dividing it by nationality, reveals that the most popular courses are "rhetoric " and "fostering leadership" the lower rating was given to poetry and painting. Searching for the differences between members of the two cultures present the next distribution:

Percentage of selection among Jews	Percentage of selection among Arabs	Name of tentative enrichment course
92	8	Current events and politics
56	44	Thinking riddles and mathematical puzzles
50	50	rhetoric and culture of speech
41	59	Experiments in chemistry and physics
27	72	Programming games for mobile phones
36	63	Making movies
71	29	Creative writing workshop for poetry
20	80	Following the famous paintings
56	43	Religions in historical perspective
67	32	Fostering young leadership
43	56	Music in different cultures
64	37	Young lawyer, court simulation

Although there were dissimilarities in means, for most topics, there were no significant statistical differences between the selection of Jews and Arabs. Three subjects raised significant differences, and those were, "Current affairs and politics" next to "fostering leadership" which were chosen by Jews considerably more than Arabs, and the opposite with "programming games for mobile phones" preferred by the Arab students.

In another part of the survey, the respondents were asked to grade the level of giftedness in certain individuals. Students were given a matched list of five people: Politicians: the Jewish were asked to grade David Ben Groin, former and legendary prime minister, while the Arabs referred to Gamal Abdel Nasser, former president of Egypt. Two artists were presented: the movie's director, Charlie Chaplin in the Hebrew version and the singer Umm KUL Thom in the Arab one. The athlete was identical - Michael Phelps, the most decorated Olympian swimmer of all time, etc. Differences

between Arab and Jewish selections were not significant except on one issue; the poet was given more credit as gifted among the Arabs. Arabs believed Khalil Gibran ($m=91$) is in a higher sphere of giftedness in comparison with the Jews rating of the national poet, Haim Nahman Bialik ($m=83$). It is a mark of cultural specificity since the Arab culture has a long tradition of glorifying poetry.

Discussion

Several insights arise from the reported finding. Firstly, when asking students to get into the head of school administrators, they give preference to skills over knowledge. Rhetoric and leadership were rated far higher than any discipline, mathematics or humanities. Metaphorically speaking, the student favored the wait over the fish. Despite the recent voices that advise that pupils lack basic general knowledge about the world, the discourse of qualifications and capacity over discipline still prevails in educational discourse.

I would like to suggest that we should understand the popularity of rhetoric and leadership in the context of world politics. The survey was conducted a short period after the election of Donald Trump to the USA presidency. The idea of charismatic leadership was a buzzword in public discourse. Also, as Trump might be an outcome of reality shows in television, so are we. A school principal providing his pupils with skills for a competitive world seems reasonable in the sign of the time.

Three subjects did reveal differences between both cultures, these were, "Current affairs and politics" next to "fostering leadership" chosen by Jews considerably more than Arabs, and the opposite with "programming game for mobile phone" preferred by the Arab students. Explaining this finding and others is an evidence of how the political situation in the Middle East permeates into every dimension of life. For a member of the Arab minority, mastering new technologies is an alternative mobility channel, much as sport, free from state pressures and discrimination. On the Jewish side, choosing rhetoric, politics, and leadership as suitable enrichment courses shows an effect of Western globalization. The main and most surprising finding is the lack of a difference. This means that the two cultures are getting closer, becoming similar to each other regarding proper education and goals in life, even if not within their political aspirations.

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EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION

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Abstract

Education, being a social phenomenon serving the needs of society, is indispensable for society to survive and thrive. It should be not only comprehensive, sustainable, and superb, but must continuously evolve to meet the challenges of the fast-changing and unpredictable globalized world. In the U.S., underlying the pressure to innovate comes from political, economic, demographic, and technological forces from both inside and outside the nation. This evolution must be systemic, consistent, and scalable; therefore, school teachers, college professors, administrators, researchers and policy makers are expected to innovate the theory and practice of teaching and learning, as well as all other aspects of this complex organization to ensure quality preparation of all students to life and work. The paper presents a systemic discussion of educational innovations, identify the barriers to innovation, and outline the potential directions for effective innovations. The paper discusses the current status of innovations in the U.S. education, what educational innovation is, how innovations are being integrated in schools and colleges, why innovations do not always produce the desired effect, and what should be done to increase the scale and rate of innovation-based transformations in our education system. Recommendations then are offered for the growth of educational innovations. As an example of innovations in education, online learning will be highlighted.

Keywords: Education, innovation, implementation, learning efficiency and effectiveness, technology, culture

What Is Educational Innovation?

To innovate is to look beyond what we are currently doing and develop a novel idea that helps us do our job in a new way. The purpose of any invention, therefore, is to create something different from what we have been doing, be it in quality or quantity or both. To produce a considerable, transformative effect, the innovation must be put to work, which requires prompt diffusion and large-scale implementation.

Innovation is generally understood as “...the *successful* introduction of a new thing or method” (Brewer & Tierney, 2012, p. 15). In essence, “...innovation seems to have two subcomponents. First, there is the idea or item which is novel to a particular individual or group and, second, there is the change which results from the adoption of the object or idea” (Evans, 1970, p.16). Thus, innovation requires three major steps: an idea, its implementation, and the outcome that results from the execution of the idea and produces a change. In education, innovation can appear as a new pedagogic theory, methodological approach, teaching technique, instructional tool, learning process, or institutional structure that, when implemented, produces a significant change in teaching and learning, which leads to better student learning. So, innovations in education are intended to raise productivity and efficiency of learning and/or improve learning quality. For example, Khan’s Academy and MOOCs have opened new, practically unlimited opportunities for massive, more efficient learning.

Efficiency is generally determined by the amount of time, money, and resources that are necessary to obtain certain results. In education, efficiency of learning is determined mainly by the invested time and cost. Learning is more efficient if we achieve the same results in less time and with less expense. **Productivity** is determined by estimating the outcomes obtained versus the invested effort in order to achieve the result. Thus, if we can achieve more with less effort, productivity increases. Hence, innovations in education should increase both productivity of learning and learning efficiency.

Educational innovations emerge in various areas and in many forms. According to the U.S. Office of Education, “There are innovations in the way education systems are organized and managed, exemplified by charter schools or school accountability systems. There are innovations in instructional techniques or delivery systems, such as the use of new technologies in the classroom. There are innovations in the way teachers are recruited, and prepared, and compensated. The list goes on and on” (What do we mean by “Innovation”? 2004).

Innovation can be directed towards progress in one, several, or all aspects of the educational system: theory and practice, curriculum, teaching and learning, policy, technology, institutions and administration, institutional culture, and teacher education. It can be applied in any aspect of education that can make a positive impact on learning and learners.

In a similar way, educational innovation concerns all stakeholders: the learner, parents, teacher, educational administrators, researchers, and policy makers and requires their active involvement and support. When considering the learners, we think of studying cognitive processes taking place in the the brain during learning—identifying and

developing abilities, skills, and competencies. These include improving attitudes, dispositions, behaviors, motivation, self-assessment, self-efficacy, autonomy, as well as communication, collaboration, engagement, and learning productivity.

To raise the quality of teaching, we want to enhance teacher education, professional development, and life-long learning to include attitudes, dispositions, teaching style, motivation, skills, competencies, self-assessment, self-efficacy, creativity, responsibility, autonomy to teach, capacity to innovate, freedom from administrative pressure, best conditions of work, and public sustenance. As such, we expect educational institutions to provide an optimal academic environment, as well as materials and conditions for achieving excellence of the learning outcomes for every student (program content, course format, institutional culture, research, funding, resources, infrastructure, administration and support).

Education is nourished by society and, in turn, nourishes society. The national educational system relies on the dedication and responsibility of all society for its effective functioning, thus parental involvement, together with strong community and society backing, are crucial for success.

A national education system is commonly the product of a distinctive set of historical, political, social, cultural, and economic effects. As it is a complete system, its different areas are not only interrelated and interdependent but act together. Subsequently, any change in one of them may generate a change in others. A few examples of innovations in some areas that made a drastic impact on the whole educational system are:

- political (NCLB (No Child Left Behind Act), Race to the Top)
- social (Equal Opportunities Act, Affirmative Action policy, Individuals with Disabilities Education Act)
- philosophical (constructivism, objectivism)
- cultural (moral education, multiculturalism, bilingual education)
- pedagogical (competence-based education, STEM (curriculum choices in school: Science, Technology, English, and Mathematics))
- psychological (cognitive science, multiple intelligencies theory, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, learning style theory)
- technological (computer-based learning, networked learning, e-learning)

Though these innovations left a significant mark on education, which of then helped improve productivity and quality of learning? Under NCLB, we placed too much focus on accountability and assessment and lost sight of many other critical aspects of education. In drawing too much attention to technology innovations, we may neglect teachers and learners in the process. Stressing the importance of STEM at the expense of music, arts and physical culture ignores young people's personal, social, emotional, and moral development. Reforming higher education without reforming secondary education is futile. Trying to change education while leaving dysfunctional societal and cultural mechanisms

intact is doomed. It is crucial, therefore, when innovating to ask, "What is this innovation for?" "How will it work?" and "What effect will it produce?"

Many of us educators naively believe grand reforms or powerful technologies will transform our education system. Did we not expect NCLB to change our schools for the better? Did we not hope that new information technologies would make education more effective and relieve teachers from tedious labor? However, again and again we realize that neither loud reforms nor wondrous technology will do the hard work demanded of teachers and learners.

Innovations can be categorized as evolutionary or revolutionary (Osolind, 2012), sustaining or disruptive (Christensen & Overdorf, 2000; Yu & Hang, 2010). Evolutionary innovations lead to incremental improvement but require continuity; revolutionary innovations bring about a complete change, totally overhauling and/or replacing the old with the new, often in a short time period. Sustaining innovation perpetuates the current dimensions of performance (e.g., continuous improvement of the curriculum), while disrupting innovation, such as a national reform that radically changes the whole field. Innovations can also be tangible (e.g., technology tools) and intangible (e.g., methods, strategies, and techniques). Evolutionary and sustaining innovations seem to have the same connotation as revolutionary and disruptive innovations.

When various innovations are being introduced in the conventional course of study, for instance, UDL (Universal Design of Learning) (Meyer, Rose, & Gordon, 2014); or more expressive presentation of new material using multimedia; or more effective teaching methods; or new mnemonic techniques, students' learning productivity may rise to some extent. This is an evolutionary change. It partially improves the existing instructional approach to result in better learning. Such learning methods as inquiry based, problem-based, case study, and collaborative and small group are evolutionary innovations because they change the way students learn. Applying educational technology in a conventional classroom using an overhead projector, video, or iPad, are evolutionary, sustaining innovations because they change only certain aspects of learning. National educational reforms, however, are always intended to be revolutionary innovations as they are aimed at complete system renovation. This is also true for online learning because it produces a systemic change that drastically transforms the structure, format, and methods of teaching and learning. Some innovative approaches, like "extreme learning" (Research of Extreme Learning, 2012), which use technology for learning purposes in novel, unusual, or nontraditional ways, may potentially produce a disruptive, revolutionary effect.

Along with types of innovation, the degree of impact can be identified on the following three levels:

1. Adjustment or upgrading of the process: Innovation can occur in daily performance and be seen as a way to make our job easier, more effective, more appealing, or less stressful. This kind of innovation, however, should be considered an improvement rather than innovation because it does not produce a new method or tool. The term innovative, in keeping with the dictionary definition, applies only to something new and different, not just better, and it must be useful (Okpara, 2007). Educators, incidentally, commonly apply the term "innovative" to almost any improvement in classroom practices; yet, to be consistent, not any improvement can be termed in

this way. The distinction between innovation and improvement is in novelty and originality, as well as in the significance of impact and scale of change.

2. Modification of the process: Innovation that significantly alters the process, performance, or quality of an existing product (e.g., accelerated learning, charter school, home schooling, blended learning).
3. Transformation of the system: dramatic conversion (e.g., the Bologna Process; Common Core; fully automated educational systems; autonomous or self-directed learning; online, networked, and mobile learning).

First level innovations (with a small *i*) make reasonable improvements and are important ingredients of everyday life and work. They should be unequivocally enhanced, supported, and used. Second level innovations either lead to a system's evolutionary change or are a part of that change and, thus, can make a considerable contribution to educational quality. But we are more concerned with Innovations of the third level (with a capital *I*), which are both breakthrough and disruptive and can potentially make a revolutionary, systemic change.

All innovations are ultimately directed at changing qualitative and/or quantitative factors of learning outcomes:

- Qualitative: better knowledge, more effective skills, important competencies, character development, values, dispositions, effective job placement, and job performance.
- Quantitative: improved learning parameters such as test results, volume of information learned, amount of skills or competencies developed, college enrollment numbers, measured student performance, retention, attrition, graduation rate, number of students in class, cost, and time efficiency.

Innovation can be assessed by its novelty, originality, and potential effect. As inventing is typically a time-consuming and cost-demanding experience, it is critical to calculate short-term and long-term expenses and consequences of an invention. They must demonstrate significant qualitative and/or quantitative benefits. As a psychologist Mihalyi Csikszentmihalyi writes, "human well-being hinges on two factors: the ability to increase creativity and the ability to develop ways to evaluate the impact of new creative ideas (Csikszentmihalyi, 2013, p. 322).

In education, we can estimate the effect of innovation via learning outcomes or exam results, teacher formative and summative, formal and informal assessments, and student self-assessment. Innovation can also be computed using such factors as productivity (more learning outcomes in a given time), time efficiency (shorter time on studying the same material), or cost-efficiency (less expense per student) data. Other evaluations can include the school academic data, college admissions and employment rate of school graduates, their work productivity and career growth.

Assessing the effects of innovation can also be based on the scale of implementation:

- Singular/local/limited
- Multiple/spread/significant
- System-wide/total

This gradation correlates with the three levels of innovation described above: adjustment, modification, and transformation. To make a marked difference, educational Innovation must be scalable and spread across the system or wide territory. Prominent examples include Khan Academy in the U.S., GEEKI Labs in Brazil (GEEKI), and BRIDGE International Academies in Kenya (BRIDGE). Along with scale, the speed of adoption or diffusion, and cost are critical for maximizing the effect of innovation.

Innovations usually originate either from the bottom of the society (individual inventors or small teams) — bottom-up or grass root approach, or from the top (business or government) —top-down or administrative approach. Sometimes, innovations coming from the top get stalled on their way to the bottom if they do not accomplish their goal and are not appreciated or supported by the public. Should they rise from the bottom, they may get stuck on the road to the top if they are misunderstood or found impractical or unpopular. They can also stop in the middle if there is no public, political, or administrative or financial backing. Thus, innovations that start at the bottom, however good they are, may suffer too many roadblocks to be able to spread and be adopted on a large scale. Consequently, it is up to politicians, administrators, and society to drive or stifle the change. Education reforms have always been top-down and, as they near the bottom, typically become diverted, diluted, lose strength, or get rejected as ineffective or erroneous. As Michael Fullan writes in the Foreword to an exciting book, *Good to Great to Innovate: Recalculating the Route to Career Readiness, K-12+*, "...there is a good deal of reform going on in the education world, but much of it misses the point, or approaches it superficially" (Sharratt & Harild, 2015, p. xiii).

Innovations enriching education can be homegrown (come from within the system) or be imported (originate from outside education). Examples that result from revolution, trend, or new idea include the information technology revolution, social media, medical developments (MRI), and cognitive psychology. Innovations can also be borrowed from superior international theories and practices. National reform may also be a route to innovation, for instance when a government decides to completely revamp the system via a national reform, or when an entire society embarks on a new road, as has happened recently in Singapore, South Korea and Finland.

Innovations may come as a result of inspiration, continuous creative mental activity, or "supply pushed" through the availability of new technological possibilities in production, or "demand led" based on market or societal needs (Brewer & Tierney, 2012, p. 15). In the first case, we can have a wide variety of ideas flowing around; in the second, we observe a ubiquitous spread of educational technologies across educational system at all levels; in the third, we witness a growth of non-public institutions, such as private and charter schools and private universities.

Innovation in any area or aspect can make a change in education in a variety of ways. Ultimately, however, innovations are about quality and productivity of learning (this does not mean we can forget about moral development, which prepares young people for life, work, and citizenship) (Camins, 2015). Every innovation must be tested for its potential efficiency. The roots of learning efficiency lie, however, not only in innovative technologies or teaching alone but even more in uncovering potential capacities for learning in our students, their intellectual, emotional, and

psychological spheres. Yet, while innovations in economics, business, technology, and engineering are always connected to the output of the process, innovation in education does not necessarily lead to improving the output (i.e. students' readiness for future life and employment). Test results, degrees, and diplomas do not signify that a student is fully prepared for his or her career. Educational research is often disconnected from learning productivity and efficiency, school effectiveness, and quality output. Innovations in educational theories, textbooks, instructional tools, and teaching techniques do not always produce a desired change in the quality of teaching and learning. What, then, is the problem with our innovations? Why don't we get more concerned with learning productivity and efficiency? As an example, let us look at technology applications in teaching and learning.

Effects of Technological Innovations in Education

When analyzing innovations of our time, we cannot fail to see that an overwhelming majority of them are tangible, being either technology tools (laptops, iPads, and smart phones) or technology-based learning systems and materials, e.g., LMS (Learning Management System), educational software, and web-based resources. Technology has always served as both a driving force and instrument of innovation in any area of human activity. It is then natural for us to expect that innovations based on educational technology (ET) applications can improve teaching and learning. Though technology is a great asset, nonetheless, is it the single or main source of today's innovations, and is it wise to rely solely on technology?

The rich history of ET innovations is filled with optimism. Just remember when tape recorders, video recorders, TV, educational films, linguaphone classes, overhead projectors, and multimedia first appeared in school. They brought so much excitement and hope into our classrooms! New presentation formats catered to various learning styles. Visuals brought reality and liveliness into the classrooms. Information and computer technology (ICT) offered more ways to retrieve information and develop skills. With captivating communication tools (iPhones, iPads, Skype, FaceTime), we can communicate with anybody around the world in real time, visually, and on the go. Today we are excited about online learning, mobile learning, social networking learning, MOOCs, virtual reality, virtual and remote laboratories, 3D and 4D printing, and gamification. But can we say all this is helping to produce better learning? Are we actually using ET's potential to make a difference in education and increase learning output?

Larry Cuban, an educational technology researcher and writer, penned the following: "Since 2010, laptops, tablets, interactive whiteboards, smart phones, and a cornucopia of software have become ubiquitous. We spent billions of dollars on computers. Yet has academic achievement improved as a consequence? Has teaching and learning changed? Has use of devices in schools led to better jobs? These are the basic questions that school boards, policymakers, and administrators ask. The answers to these questions are 'no,' 'no,' and 'probably not'" (Cuban, 2015). This cautionary statement should make us all think hard about whether more technology means better learning.

Technology is used in manufacturing, business, and research primarily to increase labor productivity. Because integrating technology into education is in many ways like integrating technology into any business, it makes sense to evaluate technological applications by changes in learning productivity and quality. William Massy and Robert Zemsky wrote in their paper, "Using Information Technology to Enhance Academic Productivity," that "...technology should be used to boost academic productivity" (Massy & Zemsky 1995). National Educational Technology Standards also addressed this issue by introducing a special rubric: "Apply technology to increase productivity" (NETS 2004). Why then has technology not contributed much to the productivity of learning? It may be due to a so-called "productivity paradox" (Brynjolfsson, 1993), which refers to the apparent contradiction between the remarkable advances in computer power and the relatively slow growth of productivity at the level of the whole economy, individual firms, and many specific applications. Evidently, this paradox relates to technology applications in education.

A conflict between public expectations of ET effectiveness and actual applications in teaching and learning can be rooted in educators' attitudes towards technology. What some educational researchers write about technology in education helps to reveal the inherent issue. The pillars and building blocks of 21st century learning, according to Linda Baer and James McCormick (2012, p. 168), are tools, programs, services, and policies such as Web-enabled information storage and retrieval systems (ISRS), digital resources, games, and simulations, eAdvising and eTutoring, online revenue sharing, which are all exclusively technological innovations. They are intended to integrate customized learning experiences, assessment-based learning outcomes, wikis, blogs, social networking, and mobile learning. The foundation of all this work, as these authors write, is built on the resources, infrastructure, quality standards, best practices, and innovation.

True, these are all useful, tangible things, but where are the intangible innovations, such as theoretical foundation, particularly pedagogy, psychology, and instructional methodology that are a true foundation of teaching and learning? The emphasis on tools seems to be an effect of materialistic culture, which covets tangible, material assets or results. Similarly, today's students worry more about grades, certificates, degrees, and diplomas (tangible assets) than about gaining knowledge, an intangible asset (Business Dictionary, 2016). Both cases demonstrate a socio-cultural trend which we will address below. We may come to recognize that modern learning is driven more by technological tools than by sound theory, which is misleading.

According to the UNESCO Innovative Teaching and Learning (ITL) Research project conducted in several countries, "ICT has great potential for supporting innovative pedagogies, but it is not a magic ingredient." The findings suggest that "...when considering ICT it is important to focus not on flash but on the student learning and 21st century skills that ICT can enable" (ITL, 2013). As Yong Zhao and Kenneth Frank (2003) argue in their ecological model of technology integration in school, we should be interested in not only how much computers are used but also how computers are used. Evidently, before starting to use technology we have to ask first, "What technology tools will help our students to learn math, sciences, literature and languages better, and how to use them efficiently to improve the learning outcomes?"

Thus, the problem of ET innovations is twofold: any integration of technology in teaching and learning has to demonstrate an increased productivity of teaching and learning, but it can be achieved only when ET applications are based on an effective pedagogic theory. Technology innovation will eventually drive pedagogic innovations, without a doubt, however this path is slower, more complicated, and leads to an enormous waste of financial, technical and human resources.

Technocentric syndrome

More disquieting than even the lack of pedagogical foundation for technology-enhanced education is the sincere belief of many educators that technology will fix all the problems they encounter in the classroom be they live or virtual. Consequently, fewer university professors nowadays perceive the need for pedagogic mastery in online teaching in addition to content-area expertise as they reason technology will solve all instructional difficulties anyway. This belief is called "technocentrism" (Pappert, 1990), which, according to Nickols (2011), is common in higher education and e-learning discussions. It is probably common in secondary school as well. Unfortunately, educators often forget that the computer is only an extension of human abilities, not a replacement or substitute. We, as educators, must realize that for technology innovation to produce a positive effect in learning it must be preceded by pedagogic leadership, research, and sound theory; however, the reality is typically the reverse. We are excited to grab the new gadget and try to fit it into the classroom without preliminary assessment of its implementation challenges and potential effects, solid research, or laying out a theoretical foundation based on advanced pedagogic theory which will ensure its effective use. Former Kodak Chairman George Fisher described it this way, "Even good people get locked into processes that may be totally inappropriate to deal with a new technology attacking from underneath (Cit. from Christensen & Eyring, 2011, p. 16).

Technology (as an entity) contains an inherent pedagogical value (Accuosti, 2014, 5). It pushes the limits of what educators can do but is not a magic wand; it is only a means, an instrument, a tool for an innovative teacher and learner. That we overestimate technology's power in education has its roots in human anticipation of a miracle, or a hope of finding a quick fix. But "...we can't just buy iPads (or any device), add water, and hope that strategy will usher schools to the leading edge of 21st century education. Technology, by itself, isn't curative. Human agency shapes the path" (Levasseur, 2012). We are all excited by the technology and information revolution and believe in its potential but "...perhaps the next important revolution isn't technological, even as technology marches forward unabated. Perhaps the revolution that we need, the one we should aspire to, is societal. Indeed, the next revolution should be one of education, empathy, and a broader understanding of the world, and of its people and culture" (Jiang, 2015).

One of my students wrote in a recent online class, "Students learn from their teachers, not from electronic gadgets." Do we understand how students learn in a technology-based environment, one-on-one with the laptop or mobile phone? Can we estimate possible changes in the students' cognition, learning style, behavior, attitudes, values, and social relationships under the influence of electronic devices? It is certainly true that live interaction between students and their

teachers offers worthy examples and enlightening experiences for students and gratifying moments for teachers. Overestimating the power of technology, regrettably, leads to the deterioration of the “human element” (Serdiukov, 2001) in technology-based and, particularly, online teaching and learning. It further underestimates the need for sound pedagogy and quality teacher preparation. It may also have a devastating impact on our ability to socialize, collaborate, and survive. George Friedman argues that computers have had “profoundly disruptive consequences on cultural life throughout the world” (Friedman, 2012, p. 25), which could not have left education unperturbed.

Neil Postman addressed another concern of overemphasizing the role of technology in education, cautioning against “...surrendering education to technology” (Postman, 1993), which may have far-reaching social and cultural consequences (Serdyukov, 2015b). According to Sousa (2014), the widespread use of technology is having both positive and negative effects on students’ attention and memory systems. A strong warning about the negative effects of the Web comes from Maurer, Mehmood, & Korica-Pehserl (2013), who caution that modern media, particularly networked computers, are endangering our capacity to think, to remember clearly, and to read and write with concentration; they also imperil creativity. “New technologies, whether or not they succeed in solving the problem that they were designed to solve, regularly create unanticipated new problems” (Diamond, 2005, p. 505). There are numerous social, cultural and psychological side effects of technology-enhanced or technology-based education, among them placing unrealistic hopes on technology, which leads to weakening a student’s and teacher’s effort and eventually takes the teachers out of the equation. This in turn makes the outcomes of online learning overly dependent on the LMS platform, washing away human interaction and communication by industrializing and formalizing learning.

Clayton Christensen and Henry Eyring (2011), who wrote about disruptive innovations that force universities to change, predict that teaching in the future will be disruptable as technology improves and shifts the competitive focus from a teacher’s credentials or an institution’s prestige to what students actually learn. Their observations support the findings of other studies that indicate learning occurs best when it involves a blend of online and face-to-face learning, with the latter providing essential intangibles best obtained on a traditional college campus. From this statement, one can extrapolate that technology alone cannot ensure productive and enriched learning and, especially, personal and social development as students still need a human element in a technology-enhanced environment. Additionally, when planning to apply a new technology to education, we have to consider its potential pedagogic and psychological effects. Finally, we need a solid, innovative, theoretical foundation for online learning. This foundation would help teachers do a better job in both classroom and online environments than simply integrating computers and other gadgets into learning. It would help enrich students’ otherwise almost entirely independent online experiences using only LMS navigation as a GPS in the world of knowledge with inspiring interaction with a live instructor, peers, and real life.

As technology-based education is unquestionably going to grow, we need to make it pedagogically, psychologically, and socially meaningful and effective. At the same time, we want to minimize its negative short- and long-term consequences, which reaffirms the need for a comprehensive theory of technology-based education and serious research.

Online Learning Concerns

Demand for online learning is largely driven by working adult students willing to have broad access to education and, at the same time, to accommodate learning to their busy lives, rather than by its effectiveness as a cognitive tool, which is determined by its most attractive feature – convenience (Christensen & Eyring, 2011). In studies of student satisfaction, students commonly rate their online experiences as satisfactory, with convenience being the most cited reason (Cole, Shelley, & Swartz, 2014). We observe students' preference for convenience as a consumer strategy, and regrettably, not only in online higher education but across the whole educational system (Kerby, Branham & Mallinger, 2014). Convenience, along with comfort, helps reduce workload and complexity of learning, as well as the strain of face-to-face interaction with the class and instructor. It produces a sense of privacy and self-satisfaction. It also generates a false perception that online learning is easier than learning in the classroom (Aaron, 2007; Westra, 2016), and often leads to online cheating (Spalding, 2009). The convenience, like the happiness factor, however, means a less demanding and less rigorous school experience (Zhao, 2012, p. 137). Convenience can be a blessing for creative people, liberating them from the need to waste time and energy on trifles; however, it may also develop self-gratification and laziness instead of struggling with obstacles and doing the hard job of digging in the knowledge mine.

So, accessibility and, especially, convenience, enhanced by flexibility of the study schedule and comfortable learning environment of one's office or bedroom are evidently the key factors of its popularity among students. The motto of online education, "Any time, any place, and any pace" is extremely seductive. Yet, despite a number of studies showing that online learning is on a par with traditional, campus-based learning (Ni, 2013; Wrenn, 2016), it is going to take more time and effort to really make online learning deliver outcomes comparable to the traditional classroom-based, face-to-face education. Mattan Griffel, founder of "One Month," an online education startup, rethinks online education in the aftermath of the MOOC explosion writing, "[Online education] has kind of overstepped its current effectiveness, and everyone is saying what is possible by painting this picture, but the tools haven't reached that point yet" (Crichton, 2015). We know very well online education suffers from restricted interaction among students and with the instructor, is deficient of live collaboration, and lacks opportunities for relationships that take form in a study group. These collective relationships are crucial for individual success. Productive online learning also depends on well-developed learning, technology, critical thinking, research, and even reading and writing skills, as well as strong intrinsic motivation, perseverance, and self-efficacy, which many students do not possess. Finally, substituting real-life objects and processes with virtual reality is not helpful in developing practical skills, which makes real-world laboratory and experimental work less effective in virtual online environments.

Still, the question remains whether online education has helped improve teaching and learning. With the popularity of online education and enormous investment, do online college programs now prepare better specialists? Have we achieved the result we had expected, besides widening access to education for working adult learners, formerly marginalized groups, such as disabled students and minorities, and people geographically separated from the learning

centers, thus reaching multi-million enrollment in online programs by 2016 and making sure that students enjoy convenience in their studies?

Innovative technology may bring performance enhancement in some ways but does not necessarily produce a direct benefit to education expressed by increased learning productivity. Are the secondary benefits, like convenience or fun with technology, worthy of heavy investment? What, then, is needed to raise the quality of education? The real question here is, as always, do we control technology, or do we let ourselves be controlled by it and those who have created it? "Choose the former," writes an innovative author Douglas Rushkoff, "and you gain access to the control panel of civilization. Choose the latter, and it could be the last real choice you get to make" (Rushkoff, 2010). The raw powers of technology should be harnessed by sound pedagogy.

Pedagogy of online education is just being developed, after two decades of titanic effort (Serdyukov, 2015a). Online learning is a big business (Stokes, 2012), which should be turned into a serious academic endeavor. When improving online learning, we should not narrow our innovative focus down to only technical solutions in all educational issues. We need to develop a broader look at all aspects of teaching and learning rather than trying to resolve problems and overcome barriers with technology alone.

What to Do? Possible Solutions

To create innovations, we need innovators, and many of them. But though innovation is often a spark originated in the mind of a bright person, it needs an environment that can nourish the fire. This environment is formed and fed by educational institutions, societal culture, and advanced economy. Cziksentmihalyi underlines the importance of creating a stimulating macroenvironment, which integrates the social, cultural and institutional context, and also microenvironment, the immediate setting in which a person works. "Successful environment... provide(s) freedom of action and stimulation of ideas, coupled with a respectful and nurturant attitude toward potential geniuses" (Cziksentmihalyi, 2013, p. 140). Control over such an environment, he reasons, is in the educators' hands.

Then, when the invention is created, it must fall into a fertile ground like a seed and be cultivated to grow and bring fruit. Cziksentmihalyi writes, "Creative ideas vanish unless there is a receptive audience to record and implement them.... Edison's or Einstein's discoveries would be inconceivable without the prior knowledge, without the intellectual and social network that stimulated their thinking and without the social mechanisms that recognized and spread their innovations" (ibid, p. 6). The audience is not only the educators but also students, parents, policy makers, and all other members of society who act either as implementers or consumers of the innovation.

Coherent systemic support is essential for growing innovations. As the Innovative Teaching and Learning Research project states, "Important school-level supports tend to be present in schools with higher concentrations of innovative teaching. Based on survey data, in schools where teachers reported higher average levels of innovative teaching practices,

they also tended to report ... a professional culture aligned to support innovation, reflection, and meaningful discourse about new teaching practices" (ITL, 2013). The OECD Report on teaching practices and pedagogical innovation also argues that "Teaching practices... are factors affecting student learning that are more readily modifiable. Moreover, additional professional practices have received attention, especially those that help transform the school into a professional learning community" (Vieluf et al., 2012, p. 3).

Technology integration in education can be successful only when the human element is taken into consideration. This then integrates innovators, implementers, educational leadership, professional community and, certainly, the learners. Walter Polka and Joseph Kardash argue that the effectiveness of a computer innovation project they developed "...was facilitated by the school district leadership because of their focus on the "human side" of change" (Polka & Kardash, 2013, p. 324). They found correlation between the implementation process employed in the district and the concepts associated with the three general need categories of innovation implementers: organizational needs, professional needs, and personal needs, which contributed to the innovation's success. Long-lasting changes require "...a mixture of cultural and institutional changes, commitment from those within the program, and active and engaged leadership," writes Leticia De León, addressing technological innovations in higher education (De León, 2013, p. 347).

When we try to innovate education, we often leave students out of the equation. We do not innovate in students' learning, their mind, attitudes, behaviors, character, metacognition and work ethics enough. Yet, we try everything we can to improve teaching (delivery), while what we actually need is to improve learning. In education, nothing works if the students don't. According to the famous Bulgarian scholar Georgi Lozanov (1988), learning is a matter of attitude, not aptitude. This is where the greatest potential for improving education lies. As a renowned cognitive scientist Daniel Willingham writes, "...education makes better minds, and knowledge of the mind can make better education" (Willingham, 2009, p. 165). The most important goal, thus, should be not so much to learn STEM but to cultivate innovative people in K-12, grow their autonomy, self-efficiency, and foster an entrepreneurial mindset or "a critical mix of success-oriented attitudes of initiative, intelligent risk-taking, collaboration and opportunity recognition" (Zhao, 2012, p. 55). To help develop new survival skills, effective communication and critical thinking skills, and nurture curious, creative, critical-thinking, independent and self-directed entrepreneurs, we must disrupt the ways of our school system and the ways our teachers are prepared. It may be worthwhile to extend the commonly used term "career readiness" to "life readiness".

Research of exemplary educational systems across the world vividly demonstrates that teacher quality is the fundamental element of educational success: "It is especially teachers who shape students' learning environments and help them reach their intellectual potential": (Vieluf et al, 2012, p. 113). Teacher education and professional development are definitely one of the primary areas that call for innovative approaches: teachers must be taught to teach well (Marcus, 2012). The "how" of the teaching (instructional methodology) is as important as the "what" (content) (Morais, Neves, & Pires, 2004). A great resource for effective education is the instructional design and methodology used by teachers, as shown by the Innovative Teaching and Learning Research project: "Across countries and classrooms, the characteristics

of assigned classroom activities strongly predicted the 21st century skills that students exhibited in their work. Students are much more likely to learn to solve real-world problems and collaborate productively with their peers, for example, if their learning activities are carefully designed to offer opportunities for them to do these things. This finding suggests that professional development for innovative teaching might begin with lesson design" (ITL, 2013).

Teacher social status is one of the determining factors of the teacher quality. Teachers' status in the most advanced countries like Finland, Singapore, South Korea, and Japan is very high. It reflects the quality of teaching and learning and also the level of pedagogic innovations. In our drive to enhance educational innovation, empowering school teachers and college instructors may be the most important task. Mattan Griffel writes, "We need to change the role of teachers. What kind of people do we consider teachers? How do we elevate teachers in society?" (Crichton, 2015). He believes we have to make them "rock stars" and bring new perspectives into the profession.

Eventually, the most recognized pathway to education innovation, writes Shelton, is "...basic and applied research...with more and better leveraged resources, more focus, and more discipline, this pathway can accelerate our understanding of teaching and learning and production of performance enhancing practices and tools" (Shelton, 2011). Research focusing on raising productivity and efficiency and improving the quality of learning has to increase in all critical areas of education. One crucial indicator of educational effectiveness is measuring the quality of learning that remains imperfect. "The lack of good measures has severely limited the degree to which market forces can discipline the provision of educational quality" (Massy, 2012). Developing clear and effective measures of educational quality is an important venue for future innovative research.

Societal support for innovative education and building up a new culture of educational preeminence both inside the education system and around it is paramount for its success. J. Brunner (1996) suggests viewing education in a broader context of what society intends to accomplish through its educational investment in the young. The best way to achieve superior education is to shape a new educational culture. As Pasi Sahlberg explains, "We are creating a new culture of education, and there is no way back" (Sahlberg, 2011, p. 2).

Americans' love affair with the car extends to computers, iPhones, and the Internet. Therefore, innovations in education focus primarily on technology and technology applications. Technocentrists want to see education more automated, more technology-enhanced, and more technology-controlled in the hope of making education more effective. The way of doing so would be through more sophisticated LMS's, automated analytics, customization, or individualization of learning and developing the student as an avid consumer of digital information. While we realize there is no stopping the technological revolution, we educators must do all we can to preserve the primary mission of education, which is reflected in a humanistic approach that caters to the whole person wherein efforts are made to develop a free, independent, critical-thinking, active, and effective thinker, doer, citizen, and worker. Educational innovations embrace both views, interacting and enriching each other for society's common good.

Conclusion

US education desperately needs effective innovations of scale that can help produce high quality learning outcomes across the system and for all students. We can start by intensifying our integration of successful international learning models and creating conditions in our schools and colleges that foster and support innovators and educational entrepreneurs, or edupreneurs (Tait & Faulkner, 2016). Moreover, these transformations should be varied, yet systematic, targeting different vital aspects of education. Deep, multifaceted, and comprehensive innovations, both tangible and intangible, have the capacity to quickly generate scalable effects.

Radically improving the efficiency and quality of teaching and learning theory and practice, as well as the roles of the learner, teacher, parents, community, society, and society's culture should be the primary focus of these changes. Other promising approaches should seek to improve students' work ethic and attitudes toward learning, their development of various learning skills, as well as making learning more productive. We also have to bring all grades, from preschool to higher and postgraduate levels, into one cohesive system.

As the price of education, especially at colleges and universities, continues to rise, cost and time efficiency of learning, effective instructional approaches, and methods and tools capable of fulfilling the primary mission of education all will become critical areas of research and inventive solutions. Colleges and universities must concentrate on expanding the value of education, maximizing the productivity of learning, correlating investments with projected outcomes, and improving cost and time efficiency.

Whatever technologies we devise for education, however much technology we integrate into learning, the human element, particularly the learner and teacher, remains problematic. So, while taking advantage of effective educational technologies, we must situate those modern tools within a wider context of human education in order to preserve its humanistic, developmental purpose and, thus, make more effective use of them.

Computers for schools are ready, but are we ready? Our understanding of how students learn and how teachers teach and craft their methodology in technology-based environments remains lacking. Questions to ask are whether current methods help increase learning productivity, and as a result, time and cost efficiency. All technology applications require a solid theoretical foundation based on purposeful, systemic research and sound pedagogy to increase efficiency and decrease possible side issues. When integrating novel technologies in teaching and learning, we must first consider their potential applicability, anticipated costs and benefits, and then develop successful educational practices.

Therefore, the key to a prosperous, inventive society is a multidimensional approach to revitalizing the educational system (structures, tools, and stake holders) so that it breeds learners' autonomy, self-efficacy, critical thinking, creativity, and advances a common culture that supports innovative education. In order to succeed, innovative education must become a collective matter for all society for which we must generate universal public responsibility. Otherwise, all our efforts to build an effective educational system will fail.

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THE ANALYSIS OF BOTTOM-UP MODEL OF CONVERSATIONAL DIALOGUES IN JOSEPH'S VERSE

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Abstract

Most of conversational forms are characterized by a set of conversational features that are found within conversation constituents. The main constituents are the sentences, sequences and turns. Both the smaller units which are the sentences and the larger units which are the sequences and turns work collectively within the structural and lexical features. This study adopts a bottom-up analysis of situational dialogues in Joseph's verse based on a framework developed for this purpose. The framework is based on Maskey & Hirschberg (1980) who classify conversational features into structural and lexical. The framework adopts views proposed by Coulthard and Montgomery (1981); Sacks et al. (1974); Richards (1980), Jakobson (1980); and Paltridge (2012) to identify the role of turn-taking, adjacency pairs and opening and closing sequences in the data. The qualitative method of analysis is applied. The study aims at discovering how participants' choices affect the type of sentences, turns and sequences. The bottom-up analysis shows that sequences are classified differently based on the participants' needs and that turn forms and length are highly dependent on the involved type of conversation. The central issue is that the variations within of sequence-type and turn-type help in categorizing different labels and functions of the situational dialogue constituents.

Keywords: conversational dialogues,

1. Introduction

The bottom-up model is based on analyzing of both small constituents and large turns in the selected samples. The main smaller constituents inside each conversation are the sentences, whereas the larger ones are the sequences and turns, therefore, a turn may have one or more sequences. To do so empirically, a classification of the main features that can be found in any situational dialogue should be identified. The structural features include sequence-type, turn-type, the identification of current speaker and next-speaker, turn-taking and their regulations. The lexical features include the identification of adjacency pair sequences and opening and closing sequences that reflect the participants' needs and intentions.

Previous studies have analyzed conversation from different perspectives. The most common two trends of conversational analysis is either to analyze conversations that are developed by the use of technology or to analyze conversation based on natural situations. Herring's et al. (2005), for instance, empirically investigates technology-based conversations by dealing with the patterns of blogs and the way how these blogs are interconnected, taking as its point of departure randomly-selected blogs. On the contrary, the investigation of conversations in natural situations has been the focus of most studies. The role of questions in classroom-based conversations, which is away from technology, has been addressed by Heritage (2002). He states that the interpretation of the questions cannot be related to the design of the question alone, but rather to the actions that are used to perform and the perceived knowledge state or strength from which the questions are asked. Similarly, Lee (2007) examines the role of turns in teacher talk in a three-turn-sequence. The study focuses on the sequential relations between the teacher and the students inside the classroom. The role of teacher's comment and feedback has an influential role in this study (Kim, 1999). Stivers et al. (2009) try to examine the patterns of turn in different languages trying to prove that all languages may follow the same pattern. One of the important findings is that in all languages people tend to avoid overlapping talk and to minimize of silence-periods between conversational turns. This paper has a close relation with language universals. The most-up-to-date study is carried on by Heritage (2015). The study focuses on the well-prefaced turns. He states that the purpose of this study is to analyze a collection of well-initiated utterances to examine the primary contexts in which turn initial well is produced in conversation and to offer a unified functional account of the use of well in these contexts.

What sets this study as part from other studies is that it focuses on situational dialogues in the holly text which is Joseph's verse. The situational dialogue is meant to refer to the speech that is regulated by a group of participants in specific situations. These situations are related to the main stages of Joseph's life-story. All the situations represent a true story and all the participants play an important role in his life. The data itself has a unique situation due to its holly contexts. Most of the situations teach us moral lessons. The goal of developing a framework that can incorporate almost all the effective roles, turns and sequencing denotes another factor that put this paper as a part from other studies on conversations.

2. Methodology

This study is a qualitative one as it intends to give a descriptive analysis based on a conversational framework developed for the empirical analysis. The aim of the bottom-up analysis is to shed light on a) the type of structural features by incorporating the analysis of sentences, sequences and turns that affect the transition of turns among participants, b) the type of lexical features that reflect the participants' intentions behind using particular type of adjacency, preference, opening and closing techniques over the other types, and c) the overall effect of turn-type on the organization of the conversation in general.

The sample is composed of 111 verses that illustrate the main important events in Joseph's life from his childhood onwards. The name of the surah is derived from the name of the main character Joseph. Joseph's surah has been selected because all the events in the story are uniquely organized in the form of conversational dialogues. The life of the prophet is exemplified by sketching out the most important dialogues that occurred between Joseph and his father, brothers, his friends, the women in the city, the king and other characters. It is also selected because the shifting of turns among participants can be found throughout the data. The main events are transformed based on usage the turn-taking sequences and other related types of sequencing.

3. The analytical framework and methods

The conversational features include the structural and lexical features. The structural features have a close relation with the exchange sequences and turn-taking regulations, whereas the lexical features include the adjacency pair sequencing and the opening and closing sequences. According to Maskey & Hirschberg (2005), the structural features focuses on position in turn, speaker type, next-speaker type, previous-speaker type, speaker change, turn position, whereas the lexical features focuses on the name of person, organization, and place.

In this study, the structural features have a distinctive role in a) categorizing the types of exchange sequence, b) figuring out the types of regulations that are applicable to the data, c) classifying turn-allocation and construction. The lexical features have different functions as they are more related to the inquiries and intentions that are intended by the participants. These features embrace factors such as a) the participant's identifications and roles, b) the types of adjacency pairs that are used by the participants to convey their message and c) the way these pairs are perceived by the other participants.

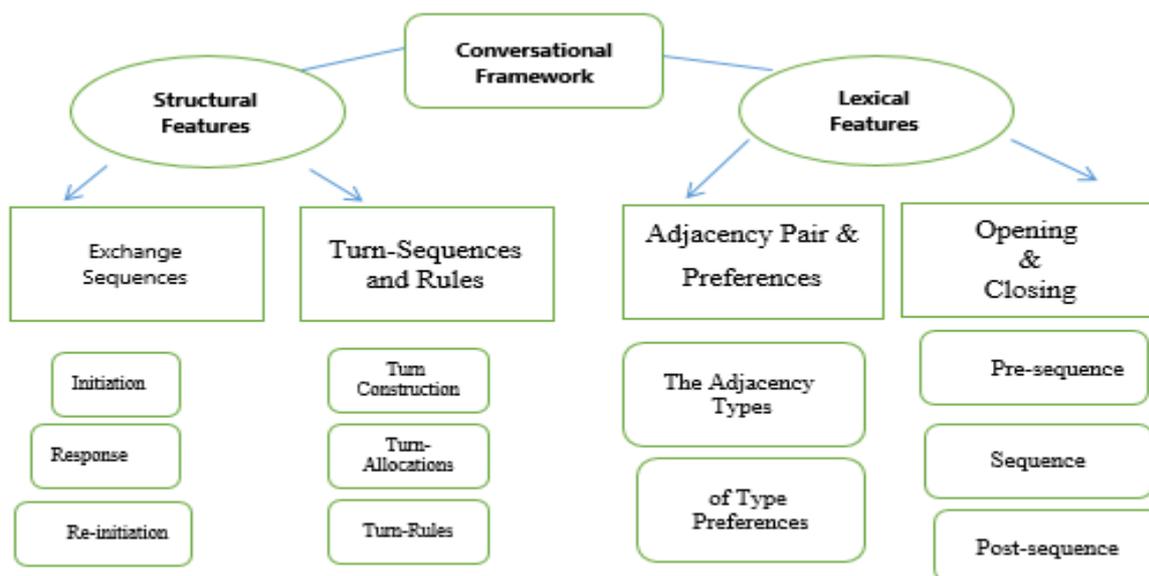
The bottom-up approach implies that the analysis takes into consideration various constituents of conversations. Thus, the study focuses on providing an overview about the main sequences and turns. One of the influential sequences is the exchange sequence. It is assumed by different conversationalists that an exchange may consist of an initiation and a response with a re-initiation. The initiation and the response are considered as the complementary elements of exchange structure in the sense that a given realization of initiation is seen as prospectively constraining the next response, while a given realization of response is thought of as retrospective in focus and attempt to be appropriate (Coulthard & Montgomery, 1981). The exchange sequence sheds light on the overall organization of the conversation. On the contrary, the turn-taking sequencing helps in showing how the sequences can function collectively. The best way to study these sequences is by focusing on the rules of their implementations. Sacks, et al put forward a model for the organization of conversation in terms of "turn-taking" system. This system is characterized by a number of rules and two components which introduce certain important terms such as: turn, transition relevance place, current participant, next participant ...etc. Subsequently, Sack's et al two components are applicable to the present data. The first component deals with "turn-constructural" in which each turn consists of one or more "turn-constructural" units. These units include the sentences,

the clauses, the phrases and the lexical constructions. In the data, the turns are composed of simple, compound and complex sentences. The second component deals with the “turn-allocation technique” in which allocation is distributed into two groups: (a) turns in which the next turn is allocated by a current speaker selecting a next speaker or participant , and (b) turns in which a next turn is allocated by self –selection (Sacks etal,1974).

The sequences that reflect the participants' needs and intentions can be best tackled within the adjacency-pair sequencing. The adjacency pairs are utterances produced by two successive participants, such that the second utterance is identified as related to the first by being an expected follow to the first (Richard, 1980).The adjacency pair sequence operates on turn-taking sequence by enabling the current participant to allocate turns to the next participant. This forms the first pair part of the adjacency pairs. The second pair part is formed when the second participant takes his turn (Paltridge, 2012).

The last sequencing focuses on both how to open and close a conversation that may have different types of sequences such as pre and post sequences. The post- sequences are important for both initiating and closing the conversations. In this respect, Jakobson (1998) states that the opening of a conversation can be investigated in terms of three components which are the pre-opening, the opening and the post opening. The Pre-opening component includes the utterances that signal the opening of the talk. The opening component includes utterances that open the talk or the conversation between the participants. The closing system in the data under analysis can be investigated from two different respects. The first respect answers the question 'who is responsible for the closing of conversation?' and the second respect answers the question 'what are the components of the closing system?' The following figure represents the main parts of the framework adopted in the study.

Figure 1 The Conversational Framework



4. Results

4.1. The structural features of the exchange sequences

The exchange sequence is seen to have an influential role in building up the structure of the situational dialogues. Most turns are seen as composed of the previous mentioned elements, namely, the initiation and the response. The initiation may take the form of commanding as in (She said, "Come you") and the response is (I seek the refuge of Allah. Indeed, he is my master, who has made good my residence. Indeed, wrongdoers will not succeed.).The imitation may take the form of question as in (They said while approaching them, "What is it you are missing?"). The response is usually provides an answer. Responses are usually followed by re-initiations which are carried out by the first participants who start the initiations. In line with this Edmondson (1981) states that the exchanges are composed of two elements, first of which is a stimulus for the second which is a response to that stimulus. Accordingly, the participant who initiates an exchange will initiate the following exchange as well. In the data, the forms of the exchange sequence are of two types, namely, the closed and open. The following table shows the forms of the exchange sequences and the example are taken from the data.

Table 1. The Exchange Forms in Situational Dialogues

Exchange Forms	Initiation	Response	Re-initiation
The Closed Form A-B-A	A -So when they entered upon Joseph, they said, "O 'Azeez, adversity has touched us and our family, and we have come with goods poor in quality, but give us full measure and be charitable to us. Indeed, Allah rewards the charitable."	B -He said, "Do you know what you did with Joseph and his brother when you were ignorant?"	A - They said, "Are you indeed Joseph?" He said "I am Joseph, and this is my brother. Allah has certainly favored us. Indeed, he who fears Allah and is patient, then indeed, Allah does not allow to be lost the reward of those who do good."
The Open Form A-B-C	A -The king said, "Indeed, I have seen [in a dream] seven fat cows being eaten by seven [that were] lean, and seven green spikes [of grain] and others [that were] dry. O eminent ones, explain to me my vision, if you should interpret visions."	B -They said, "[It is but] a mixture of false dreams, and we are not learned in the interpretation of dreams."	C -The freed man remembered after a time said, "I will inform you of its interpretation, so send me forth."

The form of the exchange sequence is dependent on a) the number of the participants and b) the participant who takes the floor during the initiation and response exchange. The two factors result in two forms of exchange which are the closed and open. In the closed form of (A-B-A), the re-initiation is carried out by the same participant who carries out the first initiation (who is Joseph's brothers). This is due to the fact the conversational exchange has two participants only. Such a type of exchange is seen to be as a "close" unit in the sense that when an exchange is completed, both participants are in a position to close the matter in hand producing an "outcome". The closing of each exchange leads to the initiation of another exchange. The re-initiation, accordingly, is considered as a new exchange to which a response has to be made. On the contrast, the conversational exchange in its open form is composed of three participants. The first participant reports the initiation (who is the king). The second participant reports the response (who is the king's counselors). The re-initiation is not carried out by the first participant, but rather it is carried out by the king's page that provides the informing re-initiation.

Based on the previous observation, the initiation and response sequences are one of the striking facts in the conversational dialogues and they play an important role in guiding the participants. Thus, the participants know what to say, how to say it and when exactly to start saying that. This type of sequence results in a highly organized form of communication which grantee the spontaneous flow of conversations.

4.2 The structural features of turn-taking and its regulations

The structural feature is related to the turn-taking sequences which are regulated based on a set of rules. One of the basic rules of conversation is that the roles of the participants change resulting in one party at a time without gapping or overlapping. The current participant who is Joseph takes the floor stating (When Joseph said to his father, "O my father, indeed I have seen [in a dream] eleven stars and the sun and the moon; I saw them prostrating to me"). His father takes the floor as soon as Joseph leaves the floor stating that (He said, "O my son, do not relate your vision to your brothers or they will contrive against you a plan. Indeed Satan, to man, is a manifest enemy).

The roles of Joseph and his father have changed. The current participant who is Joseph (referring to the participant who produces the utterances of the current turn) is capable of taking the floor to convey his message and is also capable of leaving it to the next participant. The next participant is his father (referring to the participant who claims the speaking rights upon the completion of the current turn) to provide the previous participant with the needed information. Similarly, this participant can leave the turn to the other participant. This means that the participant change does not only occur but it recurs with the transition from one turn to the other without gapping or overlapping.

The size and the length of turns vary as the participants tend to produce various constructional units, thus, the more constructional units are produced, and the larger the size of the turn; and the longer the conversation will be. The wife of the minister has a short turn that is composed of one simple sentence in her dialogue with Joseph as she states 'Come, you'. This stands in contrast with the Joseph's brother's turn in their speech with their father as they said "O our father,

why do you not entrust us with Joseph while indeed, we are to him sincere counselors?" The following table represents the variations in the length of the turns and the way the turns are allocated among participants.

Table 2. Turn-Constructions and Allocations

Turn –Constructional	Examples	Turn-allocation	Examples
Simple Sentences	She said: "Come, you."	Self-allocation	And there came a company of travelers; then they sent their water drawer, and he let down his bucket. He said, "Good news! Here is a boy." And they concealed him, [taking him] as merchandise; and Allah was knowing of what they did.
Compound/Complex Sentences	-When they said, "Joseph and his brother are more beloved to our father than we, while we are a clan. Indeed, our father is in clear error." -They said, " If a wolf should eat him while we are a [strong] clan, indeed, we would then be losers."	Other-allocation	And the king said, "Bring him to me." But when the messenger came to him, [Joseph] said, "Return to your master and ask him what is the case of the women who cut their hands. Indeed, my Lord is Knowing of their plan." Said [the king to the women], "What was your condition when you sought to seduce Joseph?"

In the data, most of the turns have a combination of three types of sentences which are simple, compound and complex. Some turns, however, may have one type. The first turn has a group of simple sentences, whereas the second has one simple sentence.

The turn-allocation technique regulated by the current speaker or by self- selection. Self-selection is represented in cases where one of the participants takes the floor without being selected from any participants who are engaged in the conversation. The water- drawer in the table is not selected by any participant but rather he selects himself as a participant when he saw the young man (Joseph) in the pit.

Other selection is obvious when the current participant can select the next participant. The selection by naming enables the other participants to take the floor and has the right and the obligation to speak. The other- selection in the example above is implemented by Joseph when he asks the messenger to go back and ask about the bad deeds of the women. Accordingly, the king starts his role by Joseph's selection or other selection and asks the women to expose their bad deeds.

The next important issue is the turn-type, namely, continuous and discontinuous turns. Continuous turns are those which have the sequences of participant changes, and in which each turn continues till it reaches transition relevance place. Discontinuous turns, on the other hand, are those in which the discontinuity is not due to the interruption from other participant or / and self- selection, but rather the discontinuity is due to the explanations and events that are provided to give the readers detailed descriptions, comments, and clarifications between these turns. The examples that are given in the table below exemplify these types.

Table 3. Continuous and Discontinuous Turns in Conversational Dialogue

Continuous Turn	Example (3)	Discontinuous Turns	Example(4)
Explanations	Alif, Lam, Ra. These are the verses of the clear Book. Indeed, We have sent it down as an Arabic Qur'an that you might understand. We relate to you, [O Muhammad], the best of stories in what We have revealed to you of this Qur'an although you were, before it, among the unaware.	Participant(A)	And women in the city said, "The wife of al-'Azeez is seeking to seduce her slave boy; he has impassioned her with love. Indeed, we see her [to be] in clear error."
Participant(A)	When Joseph said to his father, "O my father, indeed I have seen [in a dream] eleven stars and the sun and the moon; I saw them prostrating to me."	Explanations	{So when she heard of their scheming, she sent for them and prepared for them a banquet and gave each one of them a knife}
Participant (B)	He said, "O my son, do not relate your vision to your brothers or they will contrive against you a plan. Indeed Satan, to man, is a manifest enemy.	Participant (B)	She said [to Joseph], "Come out before them."

The continuous turns are evident when the explanation introduces the situational dialogue without interpreting the flow of information among the participants. The explanation that introduces the dialogue between Joseph and his father paves the way to important elements in the story. It illustrated the a) the setting of the story which is Joseph's father house, b)

the importance of the Holly Quran and c) the importance of stories of this Book in giving lessons and guising people. After this brief introduction, the two participants start exchanging their roles. The discontinuous turns, on the other hand, are characterized by the addition of specific explanation that interrupts the flow of communication between the participants. The discontinuity of turns is not due to the participant interruption, but rather to the needed explanation which is provided between the turns. The explanation that is inserted indicates a) the response of the minister's wife to what is said by the women in the town and b) her reaction and behavior towards their accusation.

Most of the rules that are applicable in everyday conversation is applicable to the situational dialogue. Both of them seem to share the same rules. The application or the non- application of Sack's et al rules and components is shown in the table below where "y" indicate the application of these rules and components, "N" indicates the non- application of these rules and components.

Table 4. The Applications of Socks' et al Rules and Components

No	Rules and Components	Applications
1.	Participant change occurs and recurs	Y
2.	One participant at a time	Y
3.	Turn-allocation technique is distributed by: (a) Current Participant (b) Self-Selection	Y
4.	Translation occurs without overlapping or gapping	Y
5.	Turn order is fixed	N
6.	Turn size is not fixed	Y
7.	Length of conversation is not fixed	Y
8.	Talk distribution is not fixed	Y
9.	Talk can be continuous and discontinuous	Y
10.	Various Constructional units are used	Y

The dialogues in the conversation follow the general rules that are applicable to every-day conversation. Most of the rules that are proposed by Sacks et al. (1974) are implemented. The only exception is concerned with turn order which seems to have various form based on the number of the participants enrolled and the type of turns.

The turn taking is a tool used to show the transition of the main events in the story. The transitions of these turns don't only reflect that the conversational dialogues in the data are highly organized, but rather they reflect that transition of events, participant's points of view and their arguments. The variation of turns in terms of continuous and discontinuous supports this fact. Whenever more information is needed, a description is added. The description has a supportive role in setting the introduction, shifting the setting and illustrating the events. Finally, the application of these rules in the turn taking helps in creating a spontaneous flow of communication that ensures the right transitions between participants based on the strategies of self and other selection.

4.3 The lexical features of the adjacency pair sequences

The analysis of data reveals two types of adjacency pairs, namely, question –answer, and request-order acceptance-refusal pairs. The adjacency pair sequences may have three sequences instead of two. The third one is labeled 'insertion sequence'. This pair is a transitional stage before the last stage is performed. Paltridge (2012) states that the insertion sequence is used when “the adjacency pair comes between the first and the second pair part of another adjacency pair” (p.118).

Conversely, the second pair part can be classified as preferred or dis-preferred based on the situation itself. In this respect Richard (1980:21) states that when the next participant in question –answer pairs provides the current participant with the required answer, the answer is classified as preferred second. However if the provided answer is not the required one, the answer is classified as dis-preferred second. The following table shows the most common types of adjacency-pairs in the dialogue.

Table 5. Adjacency- Pair Types in Conversational Dialogue

Types of Adjacency Pairs	First Pair Part	Insertion Sequence	Second Pair Part	Type of Second Pair
Mono-Adjacency Pair Question-answer Request-Acceptance	He said, "Do you know what you did with Joseph and his brother when you were ignorant?"	They said, "Are you indeed Joseph?"	He said "I am Joseph, and this is my brother.	Preferred
	They said, "O our father, ask for us forgiveness of	-----	He said, "I will ask forgiveness for you from my Lord. Indeed, it is He	Preferred

	our sins; indeed, we have been sinners."		who is the Forgiving, the Merciful."	
Dual-Adjacency Pair-Question-answer & Request-Acceptance	They said, "O our father, why do you not entrust us with Joseph while indeed, we are to him sincere counselors? Send him with us tomorrow that he may eat well and play. And indeed, we will be his guardians.	-----	[Jacob] said, "Indeed, it saddens me that you should take him, and I fear that a wolf would eat him while you are of him unaware."	Preferred
Mono-Adjacency Pair Question-No-answer Request-Refusal	Said [the king to the women], "What was your condition when you sought to seduce Joseph?"And the king said, "Bring him to me."	-----	They said, "Perfect is Allah ! We know about him no evil." But when the messenger came to him, [Joseph] said, "Return to your master and ask him what is the case of the women who cut their hands. Indeed, my Lord is Knowing of their plan."	Dis-preferred

As it is shown in the table, the data reveals that adjacency pair may work individually or in group of dual pairs based on the participant's needs. The use of one type of adjacency pair reflects that the turn is tend to be simple and the participant has one issue to deal with. The situation, however, seems to be more complex when a group of dual adjacency pairs are used. The current participant seems to have more than one issue to explain and needs more clarification from the next participants.

The first adjacency pairs represent the mono-adjacency-pair that has only one type which is a question-answer with the inserted –sequence, whereas the second example contains a request- acceptance pair in which the request is carried out by Joseph’s brothers and the acceptance of the order is carried out by Joseph’s father. The second pairs are classified as 'preferred'. The third example denotes more than one type of adjacency pairs which are the question-answer and request-acceptance. The first pair is composed of the question “What ails thee, that thou truest us not with Joseph? and the order “Send him forth with us tomorrow to folic and play! The order is accepted indirectly by their father. The second pair part of the adjacency pairs can be classified as preferred. In the last two examples, the second pair parts are considered as dis-preferred seconds since the participants cannot provide the next participant with the required information in the question-no-answer pair and the order is rejected and an account for the rejection is given.

The preference sequencing helps in exemplifying the participants' main purposes and the intentions throughout the story. It works as a carries of their needs whenever they have the intention to ask a question or to make a request . The significance of the preferences sequencing stems from the fact that it functions in terms of a circle. The first step is made whenever the participants initiate a question or a request. The second step is emphasized when the other participants take the turn by accepting or rejecting the first participant's purpose. It goes around in circle among the participants who can take the turn and start a new question or request.

4.4 The lexical features of opening and closing identification

Part of the lexical features is the analysis of the opening and closing sequences. The pre- opening component is characterized by: (1) the use of certain mysterious letters with implied meaning; (2) the use of the explanation which sheds lights on the importance of this book as a whole and the importance of this verse in particular. The opening component includes utterances that open the talk or the conversation between the participants. This component is represented by the “attention-getting” expressions, that is, the vocative elements and it is followed by main ideas that the current participant wants to convey to the next participant.

The closing of conversation is carried out by investigating who is responsible for the closing sequence. It is assumed that either the participant who initiates the conversation closes it, or the participant who responds for that initiation. The second aspect deals with the main components of this system. Following Jacobsen (1980), the closing system is composed of two components: closing components which have utterances that signal upcoming closing and terminal component which in turn have the utterances that end the conversation either by summing up the whole talk, the evaluations of certain situations, commenting on certain matters. The table below represents the opening sequences.

Table 6. The Opening and Closing Identifications

Pre-opening Sequences	Pre-opening Example	Opening Sequence	Opening Example	Post-opening
Mysterious Letters Explanation	Alif, Lam, Ra.These are the verses of the clear Book.Indeed, We have sent it down as an Arabic Qur'an that you might understand. [Of these stories mention] when Joseph said to his father, "O my father, indeed I have seen [in a dream] eleven stars and the sun and the moon; I	Vocative Element (Attention-getting)	When Joseph said to his father, "O my father, indeed I have seen [in a dream] eleven stars and the sun and the moon; I saw them prostrating to me."	He said, "O my son, do not relate your vision to your brothers or they will contrive against you a plan. Indeed Satan, to man, is a manifest

	<p>saw them prostrating to me."</p>			
Closing-Participants	Closing Examples	Closing Styles	Examples	Closing Examples
<p>The initiating participant "Joseph's brother" The responding participant 'Joseph himself '</p>	<p>They said, " If a wolf should eat him while we are a [strong] clan, indeed, we would then be losers."</p> <p>He said, "My Lord, prison is more to my liking than that to which they invite me. And if You do not avert from me their plan, I might incline toward them and [thus] be of the ignorant."</p>	<p>God's Names or Characteristics -Praying</p>	<p>Indeed, my Lord is Forgiving and Merciful."</p> <p>My Lord, You have given me [something] of sovereignty and taught me of the interpretation of dreams. Creator of the heavens and earth, You are my protector in this world and in the Hereafter. Cause me to die a Muslim and join me with the righteous."</p>	

The (attention-getting) element is represented by the vocative element(Oh my father) which is followed by Joseph's wonder about his dream (or his idea).The post-opening component actually ensures that the conversation takes place by the formation of one or more exchange, that is, the post opening component occurs when the next participant takes the floor and starts his role. It is worthy to note that not all conversations in the analyzed date have pre-opening component, and that the opening-system is identified one since the involved participants are identified to the readers either by the use of vocative elements or by the use of certain descriptions and clarifications.

As for the closing system, it seems that most closing turns have a closing sequence that represent the final event. The whole story is closed by a prayer on Joseph's behalf and thanking God for his blessings. Other conversational dialogues end either by the closing as in (He said, "I will ask forgiveness for you from my Lord. Indeed, it is He who is the Forgiving, the Merciful.").This closing is carried by Joseph in his last dialogue with his brothers. Most of the closing part has the god's name or characteristics.

Conclusion

The analysis of conversations in the verses of Joseph reveals that these conversations have their own "building-constituents". Each constituent helps in forming the meanings, the ideas, the thinking and the relations among the involved participants or the main characters of these conversations. The participant within each conversation produces

different types of sequences and turns. They are also capable of showing how one can start, end, take or leave the floor. It also shows how the various sequences and turns operate in the data.

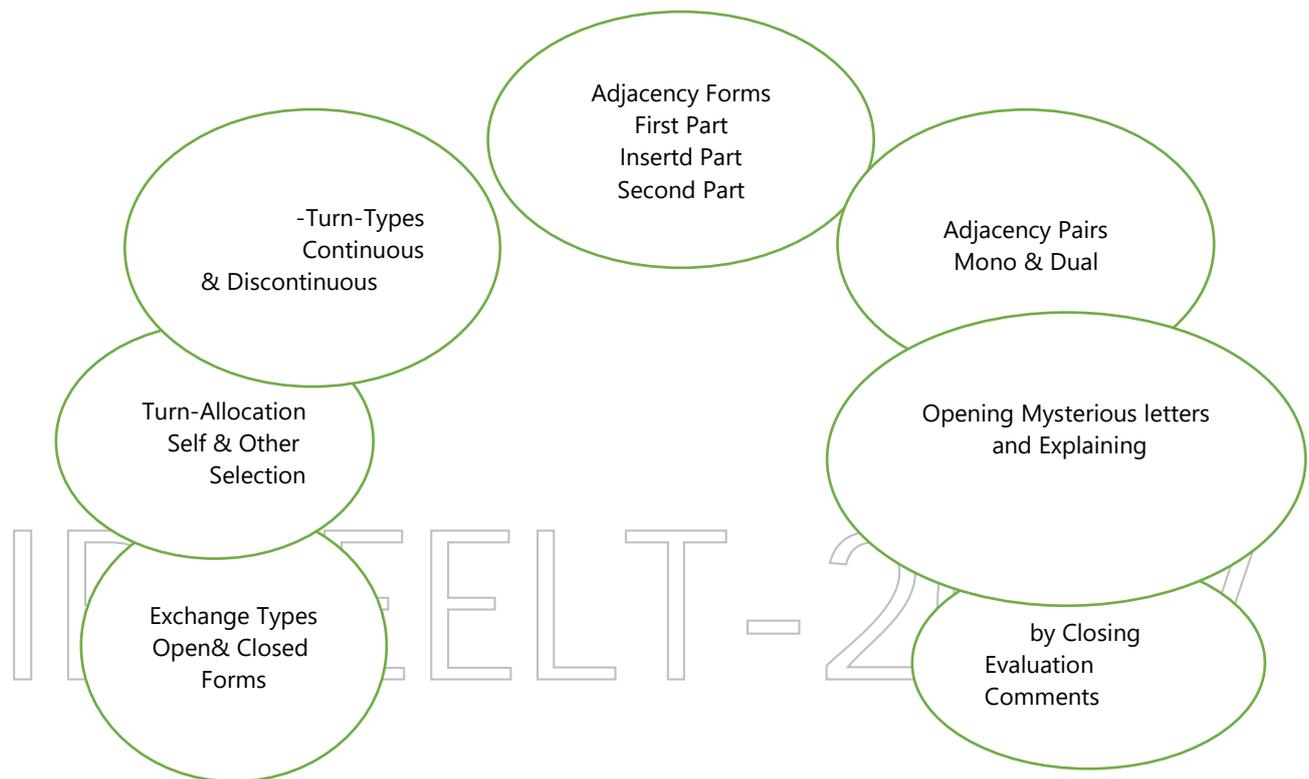
The analysis of the structural features gives a substantial account of the types of exchange sequence that are implemented in the conversational dialogues. All these sequencings work together collaboratively to produce an organized type of conversation. Unlike natural conversations, this type of conversational dialogue lacks any type of interruption and overlapping. Its flow of communication is highly regulated in terms of these sequences.

The findings suggest a strong universal basis for the regulations of turn-taking in the data. The participants follow a set of rules in their conversations that maintain simple transition between participants. The importance of this finding lies in the fact that the turn-taking helps in regulating the events in the story. Most of the events are explained on the behalf of the involved participants. Thus, when the turn taking is implemented in the right way, the organization of the events will be efficiently obvious. The turn-taking is the key factor behind the spontaneous transitions among turns and participants. The analysis of turn-taking gives an insight to the turn constructional and turn-allocation. Turn-constructions may vary in length based on the types of sentences and number of sentences. The longer the turns, the more constituents are found. Turn-allocation, on the other hand, is dominated by current or self-selection. The forms of turn may be continuous or discontinuous due to the added explanation given.

The analysis of the lexical features draws on the variation of adjacency pair sequence, opening and closing sequences. The organization of adjacency sequences sheds light on two types of sequences, namely, the mono and dual adjacency pairs. This classification is based on the number of adjacency pairs. The demand for a question and request that are accepted or rejected is one of the influential factors that reflect participants' intentions and needs. The availability of the necessary information or the lack of the information as a response of a question is categorized under the preferred or dis-preferred. Similarly the acceptance or refusal of an order or request comes under the same categorization. The preference sequencing is a means of exploring the participants' purpose and intentions. It supports the flow of information in terms of endless circles of requesting or questioning that can be followed by the other participant's acceptance or refusal. The use of this sequencing is a technique that is implemented to reflect the natural flow of events as they are derived from a true story.

The fact that the situational conversation starts with a general description emphasizes the holiness of the texts and functions as a pre-opening for all the dialogues to follow. Some dialogues have their own pre-opening by providing information about the place or the participants. These pre-opening sequences whether they appear in the form of descriptions or sequences are followed by opening and post-opening. The same is applicable for the closing sequences. The identification of the participant who is responsible for closing proves that either the participant who initiates the conversation closes it, or the participant who responds for that initiation. The main clustering of all the previously mentioned types of sequences and turn are given below.

Figure 2. Clustering of Conversational Features in Joseph's Surah



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INVESTIGATING TEACHER OPINIONS ON POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

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Abstract

Positive psychology has an approach that focuses on the positive aspects of the individual rather than focusing on the individual's negativity. Positive psychology in the context of human capital has been seen as a separate capital in recent years when the concept of man-oriented management has developed. Within positive psychological capital there are components such as psychological resiliency, self-efficacy, optimism, hope, extroversion, trust and so on. Positive psychological capital is found to be related with burnout, organizational happiness, enthusiasm to work, performance etc. Therefore, it is thought that teachers with high positive psychological capital will provide positive contributions to many situations in the education process. The purpose of this research is to examine teachers' views on positive psychological capital. Teachers were asked what the positive psychological capital implied, which factors decrease the positive psychological capital, and what to do to increase it. The research is limited to these three sub-goals. The study group of this research, which is designed by qualitative method, constitutes 23 teachers working in Mardin province. A semi-structured interview form has been prepared for the research. The data were collected by researchers and analyzed by means of descriptive analysis. At the results of the research; first of all, the teachers recall positive psychological capital as being positive, self-empowered, money, pollyannaism, and so on. When teachers were asked about the source of the factors that decrease the positive psychological capital, they named educational administrators and politicians, parents and environment, besides, students, teachers, the school climate and the education system. Finally, the teachers were

asked to propose solutions for each component in order to increase positive psychological capital, and the results were presented.

Keywords: Positive psychology, psychological capital, Turkey

Introduction

Looking at contemporary management theories, it seems that a human-centered approach is taken as their basis. It is possible to say that in human-centered management approaches the key role in achieving the objectives of the organization is human, thus the human resource have a priority importance over the material resources. In this context, we can accept people as a kind of capital (Luthans & Youssef, 2004, p. 146). Since the human nature has a complicated structure (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 14) it is very difficult to recognize, understand, and determine the interests, abilities and attitudes of humans and to investigate people in a standard. Therefore, when it comes to human capital, it is not possible to talk about a single capital (Bourdieu, 1986). Human capital can then be diversified in view of a number of human functions. On this basis, it is possible to talk about the social, cultural, moral, intellectual and psychological capital of human capital.

Concerning the capitals examined regarding to the human capital; social capital is reflections of individual's social life to the human resources (Putnam, 2003; Bourdieu, 2010); intellectual capital is transforming the value of information into competitiveness (Tösten, 2015); cultural capital is everything related to the high-status cultural displays (things, preferences and behaviors, skills, etc.) used in social and cultural separation (Lamont & Lareau, 1988, p.164; Bourdieu, 1986; Avci, 2015); moral capital refers to the social shaping of affecting others through moral behavior, and the management of perceptions in the context of good-bad (Çelik, 2014). Psychological capital, on the other hand, is a kind of human capital approach which focuses on to understand inner side of individual and to discover the potential of human (Tösten, 2015).

The concept of positive psychological capital has been born on the premise of researchers who are interested in the positive aspects of psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) and who strive to transform positive organizational behaviors into capital (Luthans et al., 2004). Positive psychological capital is an approach that focuses on the positive aspects of the individual rather than focusing on their negative aspects (Keleş, 2011; Akçay, 2011; Tösten & Özgan, 2014). The positive psychological capital have essentially four components however, it is possible to increase these components. Luthans et al. (2004) examined four key components as optimism, self-efficacy, resilience and hope. Tösten and Özgan (2014) also added outwardness and trust components, taking into account the cultural characteristics of Turkey.

Self-efficacy includes the motivation, accumulation, ability, behavior style and organization related to the task which individual wants to accomplish (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998, p. 66; Bandura, 1997, p. 3). *Hope* involves the ability to figure out the ways to the desired destinations and to motivate to utilize these paths and the perceptions of this capacity (Synder,

2000: 8). *Optimism* is the positive causes and endures that an individual put forward in explaining the causes of an event regardless of whether it is positive or negative, happens in the past, present or future (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007, p. 87). *Resilience* covers the individual's ability to withstand difficulties, flexibility, adaptation, and reaction to change (Özkalp, 2009). *Outwardness* includes features such as being alive, enterprising, chatty and social (Eryılmaz, 2014). *Trust* can be defined as an emotional power that begins with an appreciation of self-worth and extends over time, just like the radius of a circle, and touches everyone in the unit, group and organization (Töremen, 2002).

This approach which takes the basis of focusing the positive aspects of individual in the developmental studies in educational organizations and increasing teacher performance should be examined in detail with qualitative research. Therefore, this research is important in terms of detecting the factors which hinder the positive psychological capital of teachers and presenting suggestions regarding to increasing the teachers' positive psychological capital.

Method

In this section; the research model, study group, information about data collection and analysis are given.

The Research Model

This study is conducted as qualitative research design. Qualitative research is defined as "a qualitative research process in which qualitative data collection methods such as observation, interview and document analysis are used to reveal a perception and events in a natural and realistic way" (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005, p. 39).

This research was analyzed by descriptive analysis method. Descriptive analysis is a technique in which the data is summarized and interpreted according to the pre-determined themes, direct citations are used frequently to strikingly reflect the opinions of the interviewed individuals, and the results are interpreted within the context of the causal relationships. In this research from the data collection methods of the qualitative research model, interview technique and document analysis were conducted.

Study Group

The study group constitutes 23 teachers selected voluntarily from the public schools located in the city center of Mardin/Turkiye in the academic year of 2015-2016. Table 1 gives some personal characteristics of the teachers participated in the study.



Table 1. Some Personal Characteristics of Participant Teachers

		Gender	Seniority	School Type
1.	Teacher	Male	3 year	Secondary
2.	Teacher	Female	2 year	Secondary
3.	Teacher	Male	6 year	Secondary
4.	Teacher	Male	6 year	High school
5.	Teacher	Male	5 year	Primary
6.	Teacher	Male	5 year	Secondary
7.	Teacher	Male	5 year	Secondary
8.	Teacher	Male	1 year	Secondary
9.	Teacher	Female	1 year	Secondary
10.	Teacher	Male	5 year	Secondary
11.	Teacher	Male	3 year	Secondary
12.	Teacher	Female	2 year	Secondary
13.	Teacher	Female	4 year	Secondary
14.	Teacher	Male	5 year	Secondary
15.	Teacher	Female	2 year	Secondary
16.	Teacher	Male	2 year	Secondary
17.	Teacher	Female	4 year	Secondary
18.	Teacher	Male	3 year	High school
19.	Teacher	Female	1 year	High school
20.	Teacher	Male	2 year	High school
21.	Teacher	Female	4 year	Primary
22.	Teacher	Female	15 year	Secondary
23.	Teacher	Female	2 year	Secondary

As can be understood from the Table 1, among the teachers who participated in the study 10 are female and 13 are male. 12 of the teachers have 1-3 years of occupational seniority 8 are 4-5 years, and 3 are 6 years or more. 2 of teachers are in primary school, 17 of them are in secondary school and 4 are in high school.

Collection of Data

The school administrators were visited to discuss the methods to be followed regarding the interviews. After the appropriate time for the teachers was arranged, face to face interviews were held in a quiet environment selected at the school. Voice recordings were taken with the permission of the interviewers in order to ensure the records and the controls.

Analysis of Data

According to Miles and Huberman (1994) (cited in Yildirim and Şimşek, 2005), the data analysis process takes four stages. To present the findings to the readers in an organized and interpreted way; the obtained data are described in a logical and understandable way, these descriptions are interpreted, the cause-effect relations are analyzed and some results are reached. The themes that arise among the interpretations of the researchers are related, interpreted, and predicted. The results are analyzed and the results are obtained. Based on these results, some estimates were made. When these are done, "descriptive analysis" process has been followed. The data obtained from interviewed teachers are described and interpreted. It is tried to investigate why the results are related and to reach the summarized information that readers can easily see. In this study, the obtained data are described and interpreted. By examining the cause-effect relationships the results are obtained. Based on these results, forward-looking estimates were made. When these are done, "descriptive analysis" process has been followed. The data obtained from interviewed teachers are described and interpreted. It is tried to investigate the cause-effect relationships to reach the brief information that readers can easily understand.

Validity and Reliability

The reliability of the study is based on Huberman's reliability formula. According to the results, controversial views were revised and regulated. The validity of the study was based on the opinion of 4 field experts. Direct quotations have been given to increase the validity.

Findings and Comment

1. Teachers' Positive Psychological Capital (PPC) Associations

During the interviews, teachers were asked the question "What does the concept of positive psychological capital first evoke in you?"

From the participant 15 of the teachers stated that the positive psychological capital first evoked "having positive emotions and positive outlook". 5 teachers expressed that it recalls "feeling themselves strong", one teacher stated it evokes "money" and one teacher stated it evokes "polyanism". One participant did not state any opinion (Table 2).

Table 2. Teachers' Positive Psychological Capital Associations

Themes	f
Having positive emotions and positive outlook	15
Feeling themselves strong	5
Money	1
Polyanism	1
Total	22

The majority of the participant teachers stated that the PPC evoked the facts about having positive emotions. Direct citations from teacher views are as follows:

The whole of positive thoughts in the mind of the person. Both in business life and in social life will be negativities. These will cause even more negative events when they are projected outward. Since positive psychological capital affects the attitudes and behaviors of a person, one should be able to produce positive situations in the event of a possible error (Teacher 1=T. 1).

In the sense of positive psychological capital, it comes to my mind to resist the negative situations that we can live in every moment of our daily life and to continue to think positive thoughts (T. 6).

When I hear this concept, I first realize that people should pay more attention to positive features than to think negative side of any situation. In short, "the full side of the cup" came to mind (T. 10).

Positive psychological capital has recalled me to perform educational activities by always considering positive results in the field of education. Positive thoughts that the teacher have are indispensable for him to perform a better education and training (T. 11).

We can say that is what positive thinking has brought us throughout lifetime. Positive situations and the results that we have in our lives. The positive feedback we receive as a result of our positive approaches... the accumulation of reinforcements and reflection of it into our philosophy of life... (T. 12).

As for positive psychological capital, the first associate has become: It is always to think positively. Whatever the end result is to produce a good idea from that thing... That is to think the full side of the cup... to have a positive side out of everything. Never think negatively. To have the power to do the best in every circumstance and condition. Never losing desire to work (T. 14).

Think positively, live positively, be positive. People constantly underline the negativity in their lives. When they look back, they see only negativity. We do not see the beautiful ones... I mean, people are ignorant of good things or good things, and are able to forget them, but they are the keepers of everything that is negative. In that case, what should be done is to fill in the gaps of the phrases you have formed as "I like my work because ...". You will love your work more and your inner light and energy will be reflected out (T. 17).

Teachers' views that express PPC connotations as "feeling themselves strong" are as follows:

Positive psychology is that the individual feels emotionally strong and accordingly follows his goals with certain steps (T. 5).

Positive psychology is the most important force, capital possessed by individuals who have passed through the stage of self-recognition, have internalized truths, and show a determination with a strong character in the face of changing circumstances (negative situations)(T. 13).

2. Factors Preventing Teachers from Increasing PPC Levels

The question "What are the obstacles that prevent you from increasing your PPC level?" directed towards the participants and responses were analyzed (Table 3). Teachers have stated the different elements that lead to the fall of the PPC level. Many teachers refer to more than one factor. The reasons are as follows: 17 of the teachers stated senior management and politicians, 16 stated the environment, 14 stated the students, 13 stated the individual elements (teachers themselves) and 12 stated the school climate.

Table 3. Factors that Prevent Teachers from Increasing PPC Levels

Themes	f
Senior management and politicians	17
Environmental factors	16
Students	14
Individual elements	13
School Climate	12
Total	72

The teachers mostly indicated the senior management and politicians as obstacles to increase their PPC. Below are some of the teacher statements:

This issue is a multidimensional and complex issue, but it is mainly due to the activities of political authorities. Because everything done in education affects the teacher, student and parent relationship. So they say, "The fish smell all over." To get rid of wrong practices, you have to start from the top first (T. 10).

Political authority, family and environment, institutions, superiors prevent teachers from increasing positive psychology... (T. 16).

Principal may not provide a good working environment and do not support or understand the teacher adequately. Unnecessary rules and the lack of flexibility affect negatively. Moreover, constantly non-understandable rule changes without taking the teachers into account... politicians' puzzle-like practices on education and their inadequacy in education system, their not seeing the needs... (T. 17).

I think that is a result of responsible people or institutions' not fulfilling their responsibilities (T. 22).

Below are the opinions of the teachers about the environmental factors which they see as obstacles to the increasing of PPC.

The environment, family and students can cause a teacher's psychological state to change. But I think the work environment most affect the teacher's desire to work and psychology. While the positive energy in school raises the teacher's positive point of view, the negative energy can drag the teacher to do nothing (T. 2).

The most important factor is the decline in the value that the environment gives teachers. The prestige of the teachers are nor high as in the past (T. 7).

The reasons are; the education system of Turkey, that valuable occupation's not being appreciated enough (T. 8).

Below are the opinions of the teachers about the student factor which they see as obstacles to the increasing of PPC.

Living conditions, environment and especially student behaviors. If the teachers do not receive the feedback they expect from the students, they of course become desperate (T. 19).

The fact that the teachers do not see the performance they expect from students decreases the psychological capital and belief (T. 23).

Below are the opinions of the teachers about the individual elements which they see as obstacles to the increasing of PPC.

Many factors may cause decreasing of teachers' positive psychological capital, but in my opinion the personality traits of the individual are the most important. If the teacher has the components of the positive psychological capital, he will find the power, diligence, patience and continuity to overcome all of these problems (T. 1).

Many things can cause this, but I think that whatever it is, the teacher must keep positive psychological capital by enduring the difficulties (T. 3).

Below are the opinions of the teachers about the school climate which they see as obstacles to the increasing of PPC.

The most important factor is the uneasiness of the institution in which he works. If a teacher goes to the school unwillingly every morning, that decreases his positive psychological capital. Like everybody, teachers want a happy and peaceful environment at work (T. 21).

3. Developing Teachers' Competence of PPC

The participants were asked the question of "Up to your opinion, how the competences of teachers regarding the dimensions of PPC (self-efficacy, optimism, hope, resilience, outwardness, trust) can be improved?" and the responses are classified under sub-dimensions (Table 4-5-6-7-8-9).

3.1. Development of PPC in the Dimension of Self-Efficacy

In the first sub-dimension, regarding the development of self-efficacy; 13 teachers referred to personal effort, 11 teachers stated environmental support and 5 teachers stated structural arrangement. Some teachers expressed opinions in more than one category (Table 4).

Table 4. Development of the PPC in the Dimension of Self-Efficacy

Themes	f
Personal effort	13
Environmental support	11
Structural arrangement	5
Total	29

The issue most concerned with the development of self-efficacy of teachers in this dimension concerns the personal efforts and development of teachers. Direct quotations from teacher views in this theme are as follows:

The teacher must constantly improve himself/herself in the field, follow innovations in education and technology, utilize different sources and current examples in his/her class (T. 11).

I think personal exploration should be the basis for the development of psychological capital competence. We focus more on what is going on outside and what we have missed from the eye; what happens outside is the end of what happens inside. Since the concept of self-sufficiency is defined as the belief that mental resources can be mobilized for desired outcomes, then the teacher must strive for that (T. 13).

If a teacher wants to improve his/her self-efficacy, he/she should improve himself/herself. They should stay as students constantly. They should not lose learning features. They must be mentally strong (T. 14).

Teachers should improve themselves about their field continuously. New resources related to this should be read and necessary notes should be drawn. The more qualified he is in the subjects, the higher the self-efficacy (T. 17).

He has to read books, watch movies and do frequent researches so that he can feel sufficient at his field. He should be aware of innovations in his area (T. 19).

Direct quotations of teachers' views on environmental support for developing self-efficacy are as follows:

Rather than reacting reactively to any failure of the teacher, helping him to be successful increases his belief in the individual's own abilities (T. 1).

School administrators should be able to analyze their teachers well and give them reasonable tasks in the first step. Teachers should be given tasks to remind them of their self-efficacy. Efforts made with compulsion and imposition will not solve this issue (T. 23).

Direct quotations of teachers' views on structural adjustment to improve self-efficacy are as follows:

The environments where the teacher can recognize and express himself/herself should be created. Self-efficacy can be developed by creating a learning environment within a life complex where the teacher can feel belonging (T. 2).

Teachers should be given opportunities to improve their self-efficacy such as in-service seminars, courses, exhibitions related to their field (T. 12).

3.2. Development of the PPC in the Dimension of Optimism

Regarding the development of the second dimension "optimism", 12 of the teachers referred to personal effort, 10 teachers stated environmental support and structural arrangement, and 2 teachers stated awareness and appreciation. Some teachers have expressed opinions in more than one category (Table 5).

Table 5. Development of the PPC in the Dimension of Optimism

Themes	<i>f</i>
Personal Effort	12
Environmental support and structural arrangement	10
Awareness and appreciation	2
Total	24

The most mentioned issue concerning the development of teacher optimism in the dimension of optimism concerns teachers' personal efforts and developments. Direct quotations from teacher views in this regard are as follows:

The teacher who constantly faces negative situations in the society is not expected to be optimist. For example, we encounter bad and sometimes ridiculous surprises every day such as changing regulations, parents and students' evaluating teachers. Teachers should make personal effort to be optimist (T. 12).

The outcome that living conditions create in humans is different... Mental and emotional work can be done to strengthen teachers' optimism (T. 13).

The teacher should always look at life positively, always think of the full side of the cup, keep optimism alive, and make a positive outcome from everything. He should not exaggerate anything at heart (T. 14).

Despite every negative situation, the teacher should think about the good side of everything (T. 6).

Teachers' views on environmental support and structural arrangement to improve optimism are as follows:

It is necessary to send teachers to the environments and social formations they often encounter with positive events (T. 5).

The teacher should develop a positive school environment and not reflect the disturbances that he or she has experienced outside or at school to his courses and students (T. 6).

Financial and spiritual reinforcements can be considered to raise a teacher's sense of optimism. Raising the moral prestige of the profession can be considered as the removal of people with psychological problems (T. 15).

Teachers' views on awareness and appreciation to improve optimism are as follows:

If the teacher's even smallest achievement is appreciated and rewarded, the individual will work and increase interest (T. 1).

For the continuation of the teacher's idealism and optimism; students and parents' awareness should be raised, teacher fees need to be improved, some teacher needs (housing, etc.) should be improved (T. 13).

3.3. Development of the PPC in the Dimension of Hope

Regarding the development of the third dimension "hope"; in this dimension 12 teachers stated to giving belief and imagination, 6 teachers stated support, 1 teacher increasing authority and 1 teacher sharing experience. 3 teachers did not declare any ideas (Table 6).

Table 6. Development of the PPC in the Dimension of Hope

Themes	f
Giving belief and imagination	12
Support	6
Increasing authority	1
Sharing experience	1
Total	20

In the dimension of hope, the most stated opinions about development of the teachers are giving belief and ability to imagine. Direct quotations from teacher views in this regard are as follows:

I believe that hopeful sentences should be used in the class, school, and other areas of social life. We must express what we desire as experienced such as 'Everything is okay' or 'We get the desired performance in our students'. It has to be done systematically and it needs to be widespread to give hope to the teachers (T. 13).

The teacher should keep his beliefs alive, should live in life, should love the life, should take pleasure of life, should not lose his light and should see his target point constantly (T. 14).

A teacher should be taught to imagine... A teacher without goals can not develop society (T. 21).

The concept of hope recalls imagination. The teachers who reached their dreams in the society should be introduced as models to the other teachers (T. 23).

Below are the opinions of the teachers who stated support to increase the hope of the teachers in this dimension:

The more steps a teacher can make in hierarchical needs, the greater the level of hope in the face of events. The level of fulfillment of needs and hope is directly proportional (T. 2).

If there is a teacher who is having problems in this matter, the best solution is to provide psychological support to improve their situations (T. 10).

It is difficult for the teacher who has worries about the future to be hopeful of his students' success and to focus on it. This means that the teacher must be hopeful about his own life and should be provided guarantees for the future (T. 12).

Below are the opinions of the teachers who stated increasing authority to increase the hope of the teachers in this dimension:

The teachers must be trained in the process for their development. Teachers should be given more authority so that they do not fall into despair (T. 3).

Below are the opinions of the teachers who stated sharing experience to increase the hope of the teachers in this dimension:

Sharing of successful life stories of the teachers who have overcome to the crucial problems despite the difficult circumstances... (T. 4).

3.4. Development of the PPC in the Dimension of Resilience

In the fourth dimension, regarding the development of the resilience of the teachers; 13 teachers referred to individual elements, 7 teachers stated the need of support, 2 teachers stated valuation, 1 teacher stated the school climate and 1 teacher stated worship. A teacher gave opinion in more than one category (Table 7).

Table 7. Development of the PPC in the Dimension of Resilience

Themes	<i>f</i>
Individual elements	13
Support	7
Valuation	2
School climate	1
Worship	1
Total	24

In the dimension of resilience, the point that teachers are most concerned about is that resilience can be improved depending on individual factors. Direct quotations from teacher views in this regard are as follows:

The teacher should think that education is the art of human growing and should think that it is normal to be encountered with all kinds of negative situations related to students, parents and administrators. He must strive not to distort his psychology or he loses his resilience and love of profession by saying "Why do these problems always find me?" (T. 11).

It can be increased greatly by personal effort... Intrinsic motivation is the base of it... (T. 15).

If the person wishes he does everything... (T. 6).

Below are the opinions of the teachers who referred to support to increase the resilience of the teachers in this dimension:

The financial satisfaction of the teachers helps them to increase their resilience by giving them the wish of more work (T. 10).

In order to increase resilience, the social activity field of the teacher should be improved and technical and economic assistance should be provided. They should be provided to participate in cultural activities such as theater, cinema, libraries (T. 12).

One of the factors that will increase the resilience of a teacher is to share experiences with more experienced colleagues. Their guiding to the solution of complicated events in the classroom or administration will increase teacher's resilience (T. 23).

Below are the opinions of the teachers who referred to valuation to increase the resilience of the teachers in this dimension:

I believe that some work should be done to enable students to gain values to increase the psychological capital of teachers. This age is faced with students who are to lose their values. For example, as teachers we had been imposed to be respectful to the teachers however one of the troubles that we are facing today is disrespectful students (T. 13).

3.5. Development of the PPC in the Dimension of Outwardness

In the fifth dimension, regarding the development of the outwardness of the teachers; 13 teachers referred to supporting the teachers in some aspects, 10 teachers referred to the individual factors (Table 8).

Table 8. Development of the PPC in the Dimension of Outwardness

Themes	<i>f</i>
Support	13
Individual factors	10
Total	23

In the dimension of outwardness, the point that teachers are most concerned about is that outwardness can be improved by supporting the teachers in some aspects. Direct quotations from teacher views in this regard are as follows:

To provide environment and experiences that will enable them to express themselves in the institution. The management should add the teachers to the decisions by the spirit of leadership. It is also necessary to keep the mechanisms of criticism and self-criticism open (T. 2).

With financial and spiritual support... (T. 4).

It is extremely important to keep the teacher away from psychological distress and problematic responsibility (T. 5).

A teacher who wants to educate his/her students as social individuals first personally he must be an example. If he can not implement them, he should get support from various places. Because there is to be outward facing in the essence of teaching (T. 6).

The educational environment is already handling most of this problem on its own. However, if there are teachers who are still having problems, they can take psychological support to solve the problem by participating in seminar (T. 10).

Below are the opinions of the teachers who referred to individual factors to increase the outwardness of the teachers in this dimension:

This depends on the will of the individual. The individual himself can only increase it. He may interact, travel, make dialogue etc... (T. 7).

He must be at peace with his environment, cheerful and friendly. He should not be cold, sulky. He should share his knowledge with others. He must develop himself. He should be planned, programmed. He should know what he wants (T. 14).

They should take care of the people around, listen to them and make sense. They must realize that they live with others. They should strive to strengthen communication (T. 17).

3.6. Development of the PPC in the Dimension of Trust

In the sixth dimension, regarding the development of the trust of the teachers; 11 teachers referred to individual factors, 9 teachers referred to environmental support. 3 teachers did not express any opinion (Table 9).

Table 9. Development of the PPC in the Dimension of Trust

Themes	<i>f</i>
Individual factors	11
Environmental support	9
Total	20

In the dimension of trust, the point that teachers are most concerned about is that trust can be improved by teachers' having some individual abilities and their struggle. Direct quotations from teacher views in this regard are as follows:

Trust is not something that can make much difference afterwards. It is a personality feature that that comes from the human nature. In this regard, unless a person himself takes a step, external factors remain inactive (T. 2).

The teacher should be particularly competent in his field for self-confidence. I think that what they say and what they do must fit (T. 6).

The teacher should be self-confident and should trust to the students. Positive psychological capital of high-trusted teachers will also be high. The teacher should strive to avoid behaviors that undermine the trust of the environment and self-confidence (T. 11).

Below are the opinions of the teachers who referred to environmental support to increase the trust of the teachers in this dimension:

The teachers should be awarded for their success and should be provided all kinds of support for their insufficiency (T. 5).

The society should trust teachers so that the teachers trust their colleagues, the students and parents. In short, the social status of the teacher should be improved materially and spiritually. Thus, the confidence of the teacher who sees value will develop (T. 12).

Trustfulness develops when we are treated appropriately. It is the external factors that increase the trust of the person. Teachers need to be supported to improve their confidence in themselves and their surroundings. The appropriate situation needs to be created (T. 13).

The teacher's confidence in the working environment should be supported by the administration and his colleagues. Managers must fulfill the promises and care about the teacher's ideas. An administrator who takes the teachers into consideration at this decision point supports the trust in the school (T. 23).

Results and Discussion

The results of the findings of interviews with 23 public school teachers working in Mardin province center are as follows: Teachers gave different answers about what positive psychological capital first recalled them. More than half of the teachers stated that positive psychological capital evokes having positive emotions and a positive perspective. Only one teacher has stated that it evokes the concepts of money and one teacher as polyanism. It can be said that the concept is understood correctly by the teachers when it is taken into consideration that positive psychological capital components are a kind of capital that holds positivities (Luthans et al., 2007; Tösten, 2015; Akçay, 2011; Keleş, 2011).

As a source of decreasing positive psychological capital, the majority of teachers showed top management and politicians. The teachers mentioned environmental factors, students, their characteristics and school climate respectively. It can be said that in terms of teachers' positive psychological capital, management units and politicians' attitudes and decisions are very influential. This is thought to be the result of puzzle-like politics by politicians, the applications decided without studying, the sudden structural changes (Akyüz, 2003; Karagözoğlu, 2009; Okçabol, 2006; Küçüker & Gürbüz, 2012; Tösten, 2015) and negligence of educational politics.

In terms of the development of positive psychological capital competencies of teachers, the teachers declared different ideas in each dimension. Their opinions about the dimensions are as follows: In the dimension of self-efficacy, they addressed the need for personal effort, environmental support and structural arrangements. The most emphasized subject in this dimension is that the teachers must personally strive and try to improve themselves. In the dimension of optimism, they have stated personal effort, environmental support and structural regulation and awareness and appreciation. More than half of the teachers stated that optimism can be mainly raised with personal effort and struggle. In the dimension of hope, teachers declared opinions such as giving belief, imagination, support, increasing authority and sharing experience. The issues most emphasized by teachers are that their being hopeful, giving the belief that will ensure the continuity and enabling the ability to imagine. In the dimension of resilience, teachers who refer more to individual elements have also addressed issues of support, valuation, school climate and worship. According to the majority of the teachers increasing the resilience of teachers depends primarily on the organization and development of individual characteristics. In the dimension of outwardness, teachers referred more to environmental support than to individual elements. More than half of the teachers stated that the environmental elements should be arranged in favor of the teacher and the conditions should be improved so that the teachers can improve the outwardness. In the dimension of trust, the issue most emphasized by teachers is the individual elements as well as environmental support. Nearly half of the teachers stated that they must have some individual features and that they should strengthen the trust dimension of personal effort.

There seem to be two main points in the development of teachers' positive psychological capital. These are the efforts of the individual and the support of the environment. Looking at the factors that will put the individual effort into action, it seems that teachers find the solution primarily in social support. The fact that the problems that are experienced

in the school-family cooperation (Gökçe, 2000; Şimşek & Tanaydın, 2002; Çelenk, 2003; Erdoğan & Demirkasimoğlu, 2010; Doğan, 2011) prevent teachers' optimism and that not getting enough support from their families despite their own efforts cause negativity in teachers (Tösten, 2015). Moreover, in the results of the study conducted by Taşdan, Tösten, Bulut and Karakaya (2013) on school management problems, it was found important that teachers are reluctant to renew themselves, families are unconscious and indifferent, and the environment is insensitive to education. Teachers think that self-efficacy decreases as a result of such problems and environmental stimuli should be actuated to increase the desire for change and empowerment.

It is also important for the managers to add the employees to the decisions and management (Celep, 1996; Özdemir & Cemaloğlu, 2000). It is known that there is an increase in quality and productivity with the increase of human value and a good motivation will be provided by the participation of the employees in the decision process (Özden, 1996; Özdoğru & Aydın, 2012). In this way, both the outwardness of the teachers and their motivation will be increased. Personal effort and contribution at the individual level will move to the collective level and then it will contribute significantly to the performance of the organization (Sezgin, 2005).

As a result; it is possible to examine the factors that decrease teachers' psychological capital in two categories as individual and environmental factors. Teachers show the environmental factors as the precondition for introducing individual factors in increasing psychological capital. Environmental factors include support from the environment, the including families in to the process, the politicians and government's including teachers to the decisions. Individual factors are teachers' endeavor, motivation, need for change and entrepreneurship.

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TEACHER BELIEFS AND PYGMALION EFFECT

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Abstract

Teacher beliefs concerning the course taught, the materials used and the students' ability to master them both have an impact on how teacher plans and realizes the lesson. The materials are chosen by the teacher according to his/her positive or negative views on the three factors described above. The activities will be completely teacher-centered or rather student-centered, depending on the views that the teacher holds. Teachers and students views on the described factors may differ, but, anyway, teacher views do have an impact on student views and, correspondingly, their learning behaviors. The paper will present the possibilities for English language teachers to impact positively their students' language learning, especially their listening skills development.

Keywords: Teacher beliefs, Teacher expectations, Pygmalion effect, listening comprehension, emotional support, constructive feedback

Introduction

The Pygmalion Effect deals with the positive impact of teacher positive expectations and views of his/her students (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968; 1992). The term deals with the ancient Greek legend about the sculptor Pygmalion who created a statue of a perfect woman and fell in love with her, begging gods to turn her alive, which eventually happened. Significantly later, George Barnard Shaw wrote a play, entitled Pygmalion, about Lisa Doolittle, the cockney sprout young woman whom professor of phonetics Henry Higgins transforms into a lady through teaching her good English and good manners. Like the ancient Pygmalion or Henry Higgins, a contemporary teacher can largely contribute to his/her students' eventual success by believing in his/her students' ability to learn the foreign language successfully, even if students fail to do so for a relatively long time, and demonstrating that belief through constant support and constructive feedback. Eccles and Jussim (1992, p. 948), for instance, claim that "teacher expectancies influence students' academic performance to a greater degree than student's performance influences teacher expectancy."

The most key finding from this investigation paper is that English language teachers to affect positively their student' language learning, especially their listening skills development.

Besides the humanistic load that the theory carries, it can be interpreted in the market economy terms as 'customer (i.e. student) is the king', so teachers need to believe in students, in order to be able to 'sell' their work to them, and to get the product to which both of them have contributed. Anderson et al. (1991) explain that, if a teacher believes a student to be bright, they will fruitfully cooperate, so as to help that this expectation to come true. While instructor support with positive verbal words in the classroom those overseeing wishes effects are ordinarily influenced student learning limit and give them more prominent commitment in regards to raise those understudy's academic execution.

The Pygmalion Effect, of course, would not be so resultative, had it involved only student's praise by the teacher. Brennan (2004) showed that affect can be transmitted from a person to another person and can create an atmosphere that helps or impedes work and learning. A teacher can develop the Pygmalion Effect by:

- underlining the success, when it occurs;
- demonstrating patience, when errors are made, and providing the information (or its source) needed for solving the problem;
- providing the useful drilling to overcome the diagnosed problems;
- choosing a more knowledgeable student to help the student struggling to learn;
- and taking the responsibility for students' failure, instead of constantly blaming the student (trying to improve the teaching, adjust it better to the students' abilities, learning styles, etc.).

Teacher expectations and their impact on student learning

"There are really two kinds of expectations: positive and negative, each reflecting how we envision what is to come" (Brandt, 1984, p. 206). If teacher regularly demonstrates negative expectations, student eventually comes to believe that the given task is insurmountable for him/her and abandons trying – this is called Self-Fulfilling Prophecy (Riley & Ungerleider, 2012). Self-fulfilling prophecy is a term similar to Pygmalion effect, but dealing mostly with negative expectations. On the contrary, positive expectations help students to keep struggling, even if the success is not fast to come. Good and Brophy (1980) describe the mechanism of this impact as follows:

1. Early in the school year, teachers form differential expectations for student behavior and achievement.
2. Consistent with these differential expectations, teachers behave differently toward each particular student.
3. This treatment tells students something about how they are expected to behave in the classroom and perform on academic tasks.

4. If the teacher treatment is consistent over time and if students do not actively resist or change it, it will likely affect their self-concepts, achievement motivation, levels of aspiration, classroom conduct, and interactions with the teacher.
5. These effects generally will complement and reinforce the teacher's expectations, so that students will come to conform to these expectations more than they might have otherwise.
6. Ultimately, this will affect student achievement and other outcomes. High- expectation students will be led to achieve at or near their potential, but low expectation students will not gain as much as they could have gained if taught differently.

Compared to teaching methods and activity types used that have a direct impact on learning (memorization, understanding, ability to analyze and apply the material under study), Pygmalion Effect, like other affective factors, has an impact on student's desire to learn, on involvement in activities, on reducing the anxiety and increasing the internal motivation and self-confidence (Andres, 2002; Berne, 1995; Gardner & Macintyre, 1993).

Role of listening and teacher contribution to the development of students' listening skills

To master a language, listening is essential, in turn, one cannot start speaking, unless listening skills are developed. According to Krashen (1982), listening provides comprehensible input which is critical to learning the native as well as the target language. Thus, listening skills are crucial for language communication and communicative second / foreign language learning (Dunkel, 1986; Oxford, 1993).

The quality of listening comprehension may affect interpersonal relationships, both at work and in personal life. As much learning is done through listening, the quality of listening skills has a huge impact on the quality of learning.

According to Feyten (1991), 70% of our waking time is spent in participating in some form of communication. Of that time, 11% is spent writing, 15% - reading, 32% speaking, and 42 to 57% - listening. Along these lines, it is important to discover the student' level of listening capability and to do our best to improve it.

Listening is not simply hearing, but rather 'translating' what has been heard with a focus on the thoughts / ideas expressed by a speaker. Subsequently, demonstrating listening aptitudes involves getting the information from, being persuaded to act by or sharing the emotions of the interlocutor. Thus, while practicing listening comprehension, teachers should expect students not simply to fulfil listening tests, as it often is, but

- to answer adequately to the heard question,
- to be able to reformulate the heard information, in order to prove its understanding,
- fulfil the heard instructions correctly,

- express their attitude towards the heard message.

Although the ability to listen in the native language seems to be inherent, to be really effective, it needs to be developed (Weisberg & Peters, 2007).

After learning successfully a certain amount of foreign language vocabulary and grammar, it may be really frustrating to discover that you do not understand even a simple utterance addressed to you, but this often happens, especially if / when students start listening to audio recordings of native speakers. This is why teachers need to be really supportive and plan the listening activities in such a way that their students manage to understand what they hear. Teachers need to explain that, while learning to understand while listening to the native language, it takes children hours of daily listening practice for at least five years, before they learn to understand well enough what they hear. Students should not be disappointed if they do not understand what they hear in the target language for a certain period of time. The text length and its linguistic complexity should increase gradually, some visual support (video recording instead of audio one) should be provided initially, task difficulty should slowly increase (from understanding the place where the conversation occurs, participants' roles and the general topic of the conversation to deep comprehension of details and cause-effect relationships). Teacher has to involve students in listening practice in the target language both in and beyond classroom. She/he needs to explain that without at least few hours a week of listening in the target language students will not progress, and their failure has nothing to do with lack of ability, but just with lack of practice.

Teacher needs to diagnose student's problems dealing with the development of listening skills in order to provide constructive feedback, to recommend to students effective for them listening strategies, to organize effective practice, and not in order to dishearten them by stating their 'low' ability for listening (which may or may not be true).

Rost (2002) enumerates the following principles of teaching language acquisition while listening:

1. choose input to increase student motivation (it has to be comprehensible and interesting (informative and/or emotional));
2. design clear pre-, while and post-listening tasks that focus on meaning;
3. encourage the use of active listening strategies (understand on the whole; apply background knowledge, hypothesize and check the hypothesis);
4. build steps into activities that enhance language awareness (teaching students to be more observant, e.g., note down the words dealing with beauty or the applications of Passive mood).

Besides telling students that they are or will in the nearest future be successful if they keep trying, to provide Pygmalion Effect, language teachers have to look friendly, serve as effective models with clear pronunciation and effective comprehension strategies (like asking leading questions). They have to select exciting and comprehensible listening materials. Interactive activities, such as games and team competitions should be used while practicing listening. Language

teachers need to apply visual support to listening (mimics, gestures, objects, pantomime, video recordings), monitor that all students are involved in activities, apply efficiently various technologies (including, for instance, mobile phones).

Conclusion

Pygmalion Effect is an uncommonly loaded with feeling approach to manage the affective variables, such as students' anxiety, motivation, perspectives, risk-taking, and self-confidence. It does not have a direct impact on learning, like various teaching methods do, but an indirect one, increasing student effort and insistence in the process of learning.

Listening skills are critically important for language acquisition and learning in general. Rost (2001), for instance, stresses that "a key difference between more successful and less successful acquirers relates in large part to their ability to use listening as a means of acquisition" (p. 94). Dunkel, Henning, and Chaudron (1993) emphasize that listening aptitudes is more basic than speaking ones, as, if a listener cannot respond to an utterance addressed to him / her, communication will fail.

Thus, the paper offers the ways how a language teacher can develop Pygmalion Effect while teaching listening and asserts that it has a positive impact on the development of students' listening comprehension skills to the desirable level.

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TRAINING OF STUDENTS FOR DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF DISEASES

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Abstract

Differential diagnosis is based on the comparison of resembling signs of a disease, in an examined patient, with manifestations of all the diseases with similar clinical presentation. The criterion of probability of clinical diagnosis is the convincing exclusion of all, except the one, possible diseases, based on the signs that confirm this disease. In the course of differential diagnostics process, it is necessary to adhere to the following methodical sequence: determining a number of all the diseases with clinical manifestations and findings of additional methods of examination similar to the patient's ones; tabulation of symptoms, syndromes, functional tests, findings of other methods of examination of the patient and of similar diseases; making up a summary table which is to contain the most complete list of clinical signs and findings of supplementary methods of examination of similar diseases in the abstract (classical) manifestation; structure of the table is to be resembling with symptoms of the examined patient; comparing sequentially clinical signs of the disease in their classical manifestation and, by means of the exclusion method, emphasizing the distinguishing features in the setting of seeming resemblance; in methodological aspect, performing the comparison of patient complaints with the complaints, which are characteristic for such a disease; anamnestic data are to be compared with anamnestic ones, objective manifestations with results of objective examination, and findings of supplementary methods with the same ones in a similar disease; differentiation, beginning with the most pronounced manifestations in resembling diseases, which are the most dangerous for surgical patient; differentiation, lying in detection, by comparison, of inequalities between patient symptoms and symptoms of a resembling disease; exclusion of a resembling disease is based on the considerable distinctions in symptoms, which are under comparison in these diseases, by character and intensity, presence of opposite symptoms, and also by absence of pathognomonic symptoms and unusual findings of auxiliary methods of examination. The methodological sequence of the differential diagnosis performance is based on the comparison of complaints,

findings of anamnesis, physical examination, other methods of examination of the supervised patient, with similar findings at the diseases of resembling clinical presentation.

Keywords: differential diagnosis, diseases, training

Introduction

The Bologna Declaration adopted in June 1999 put in motion a series of reforms needed to make European Higher Education more compatible and comparable, more competitive and more attractive for Europeans and for students and scholars from other continents. A reform of Higher Education was needed then and reform is still needed today if Europe is to match the performance of the best performing systems in the world.

Initiated by the European Commission (EC), the Erasmus project was founded in 1987. After two years the European Commission felt that, whilst it was successful in terms of physical mobility of students, the Erasmus scheme was not working as well as it should because frequently the period of study of the student was not recognized by the student's own university (The European higher education area. Joint Declaration of the European Ministers of Education. Bologna, June 19, 1999).

This meant that often study had to be repeated and examinations retaken. Ways were considered of making improvements and the idea was put forward of a European Credit Transfer System (ECTS).

First experience of our proposed pilot credit module system in teaching knowledge and control of surgery (2005-2016) based on the outcomes of several modules indicates that approximately 10% of students are on level sum score 90-100% "excellent", 50% of students - the level of "good", 35% of students - the level of "satisfactory" and 5% of students need to re-sit modules.

The results indicate that there is an increase in objectivity in the control of knowledge from teachers and students in order to increase interest in teach the subjects that are allowed to integrate in medical education and, in future, in practical public health of Ukraine and other countries.

Differential diagnosis is based on the comparison of resembling signs of a disease, in an examined patient, with manifestations of all the diseases with similar clinical presentation.

In consideration of the importance of preparing qualified specialists, it is natural to increase the quality of education in medical institutions, so it is necessary to embody the credit transfer system in the training course of surgery in Ukraine by preparation of physician – general practitioners.

Methods

The criterion of probability of clinical diagnosis is the convincing exclusion of all, except the one, possible diseases, based on the signs that confirm this disease. In the course of differential diagnostics process, it is necessary to adhere to the following sequence:

- to determine a number of all the diseases with clinical manifestations and findings of additional methods of examination similar to the patient's ones;
- tabulation of symptoms, syndromes, functional tests, findings of other methods of examination of the patient and of similar diseases;
- summary table is to contain the most complete list of clinical signs and findings of supplementary methods of examination of similar diseases in the abstract (classical) manifestation; structure of the table is to be resembling with symptoms of the examined patient;
- to compare sequentially clinical signs of the disease in their classical manifestation and, by means of the exclusion method, to emphasize distinguishing features in the setting of seeming resemblance;
- in methodological aspect, to perform comparison of patient complaints with the complaints, which are characteristic for such a disease; anamnestic data are to be compared with anamnestic ones, objective manifestations with results of objective examination, and findings of supplementary methods with the same ones in a similar disease;
- differentiation begins with the most pronounced manifestations in resembling diseases, which are the most dangerous for surgical patient;
- differentiation lies in detection, by comparison, of inequalities between patient symptoms and symptoms of a resembling disease;
- *exclusion* of a resembling disease is based on the considerable distinctions in symptoms, which are under comparison in these diseases, by character and intensity, presence of opposite symptoms, and also by absence of pathognomonic symptoms and unusual findings of auxiliary methods of examination.

Procedures

First of all it is expedient to emphasize that the process of educational preparation of students in educational medical institutions III-IV of levels of accreditation of independent Ukraine for the last years has been based on the principles of credit and modular system of training that testifies to official transition of the higher medical school of the country to the European educational standard.

However, an intricate problem for teachers of chairs is the content of pedagogical technologies in the organization and carrying out the educational process as traditional/classical ("Soviet") forms/methods of teaching are still dominating with such main characteristics as: mass character, stability, traditional character, end, normative, specific goal and as always: *result > knowledge*.

Therefore, in our opinion, transition to the European educational standard requires to apply new classical and post-classical forms and methods of teaching. It also would resolve, in the end result, to prepare the future doctor at a pre-diploma stage of education for such lines of his professional activity, as: identity, instability, innovations, a continuity, creativity, originality, end in itself and to realize it everything in the simple scheme of study: *result > competence >> abilities > independence*.

The credit and modular system provides the new status of the teacher-consultant who is not called from a tribune as from an Ambon, to proclaim common truths – but, being nearby, in partnership, to be ready to answer all professional (and not only) questions of the pupils.

There is also another important component of teacher's work: assessment of students' knowledge and skills. The leading role is played here by the test and computer monitoring system. Thus, the results of intermediate cuts have exclusively informative character, the basic – an adjusted total. So not all universities have rejected subject examinations.

Very often in fundamental disciplines intermediate modular control and total examinations are connected – interviews to identification of level of assimilation of theoretical knowledge and practical skills (for example, preparation). By the way, in the presence of modern material base, in the form of the most various electronic models, models, at EU universities, after the adoption of the all-European legal charters, when studying morphological disciplines much (first of all, system and clinical anatomy), students work directly in section halls, preparing physical bodies.

Students study all clinical disciplines on the basis of own profile of university clinics, as a rule, the most prestigious and equipped in the best way, in which they are not in the status of uninvited guests, but full accomplices of medical process. From 50 to 70 percent of vacant places of the average medical personnel in these clinics take undergraduates.

Results

Active techniques in the course of training of students on clinical departments, in particularly, are used by teachers on a practical training on such subject matters, as: "Abdominal Surgery" (Module No. 1), where future doctors used creative situational tasks, enter dialogue with the teacher on occupations through system of questions as teacher to the student, and the student to the teacher that allows to turn the one who studies in "subject" of process of training (Bereznytskyy, Zakharash, & Mishalov, 2016).

It is required to notice that practical occupation is a form of educational occupation where the teacher carries out the realization of detailed consideration by students of separate theoretical provisions of a concrete subject matter, and also forms the ability and skills of their practical appendix by individual performance by the student of the corresponding prepared tasks.

Besides, practical occupation in the course of training of the student is considered in department as his concrete intellectual activity irrespective of the contents and subject of a situational task as any its decision demands from the future doctor to apply the acquired theoretical materials to a creativity basis in the performance of practical work.

The main didactic objective of practical occupation is reduced to expansion, deepening and specification of the scientific knowledge received by students at lectures and in the course of independent out-of-auditorium work which goes on to increase of level of assimilation of the training material, high-quality formation of practical skills, development of clinical thinking and an oral production of students, and also further continuous to the growth of professional career.

Conclusion

The higher medical education of independent Ukraine needs to solve a difficult pedagogical task – to urgently and systemically pass from classical methods of teaching of subject matters to post-classical that would allow various organizations' and their administrative and medical (preventive, diagnostic, medical, rehabilitation) personnel to deal with the greatly increased volume of medical information and also scientific genesis to turn it into students' knowledge, and to transform the theoretical knowledge received by the same student into his professional skills and abilities.

Such a system and methodical transition would allow forming at the same time among medical students and motives to aspiration to study, to ability and desire to work, investigate and learn. All this together outlines the importance of the scientific and methodical research executed by us and makes it actual in own contents.

In the course of the higher medical education *the phrase "study method"* should be understood as a set of organizational methods of study. In the preparation of the future doctors *"the study method"* should be interpreted as a way of the ordered mutual activity between the teacher and the student directed on the solution of concrete educational tasks, including in the higher medical education of Ukraine.

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WINE MARKETING – EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMS AND EMPLOYABILITY ON A LABOUR MARKET

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Abstract

Georgia is a small country well-known for its traditions, history, hospitality, culture and wine, the last component being an indispensable part of the Georgian culture and one of the most important products produced in Georgia. Wine has a vital role in the development of country's economy. There are hundreds of wine-producing companies in the country, and some of them are very successful on international market. However, wine production requires specific knowledge which should be taught by professionals, but unfortunately, there are no high-quality programmes which would be able to prepare specialists meeting the requirements of the labor marketing wine industry. The presented research addressed this specific issue. The author wanted to analyze what specific criteria a marketing manager should meet, and whether any university could provide a high-quality education, meeting the demands of the day. According to the research findings, the job requirements differ from what universities are currently offering to students. The author designed a syllabus for Wine Marketing study course.

Keywords: wine, wine production, wine marketing, educational programmes, vocational education

Literature Review

Higher education and employability

Employability is a relatively new concept for Georgia. It seemed simple for the generation of our grandparents; one was either employed or not, and that provided a solid statement about a person's worth. On the contrary, for current generations entering the workforce, 'employability' is an everyday concept they have learnt to accept. Despite it being somewhat complex and elusive, it is possible to broadly relate it to the abilities a person has developed in the past and to his/her projection of an abstract, strategic future (Valenzuela).

Employability in Georgia is a big problem not only because of high rates of unemployment, but also because of inappropriateness of education given here. This topic is really popular, as nowadays students go to universities and their parents pay thousands of GEL for their studies and the results are not satisfactory. One of the fields not really well-taught

is Wine Marketing, while labor in this field is much demanded. Let us understand what wine marketing is and why it is such an important discipline in Georgia and then discuss what can be done to improve the whole situation.

Wine Marketing definition

Wineries or wine companies need to have clear understanding of what exactly the discipline of marketing encompasses in order to be able to effectively compete in today's saturated wine market. Only with clear understanding can a company work seamlessly toward offering products to customers that are both willing and able to purchase them. According to observations it can be concluded that companies are not including marketing as an important element in fulfilling company mission. Nowadays wine companies are oriented on sales' increase and they are using only several aspects of marketing in the process of production. They are concentrated on the promotional side of marketing like bottling, labels, packaging, store displays, tasting events, and exhibitions. These are, of course, vital elements, but they should not be the main ones, as wine marketing means more. It means creating a strategy, a message behind all the events.

So what is marketing?

"Marketing is a total system of business activities designed to plan, price, promote, and distribute want-satisfying products to target markets to achieve organizational objectives" (Etzel, Stanton, & and Walker, 1997).

"Marketing is the science and art of finding, keeping, and growing profitable customers" (Philip, 1999).

So, these two definitions make us realize that main focus is on consumer. Marketing should be consumer-oriented. While creating any marketing strategy, companies should have existing and potential target audience in mind.

The marketing management process is a long and complicated process. It consists of several steps:

- Marketing research and segmentation is beginning step and its goal is to identify the markets that exist for wine or a specific niche, analyzing the competitive situation and assessing the organization's strengths and weaknesses. A market is a group of people or organizations with wants to satisfy, money to spend, and willingness to spend. Market is a group of people or organizations which are potentially the ones whom producer can deal with. Market research is needed to understand niches. Those people who drink wine are the market. Market research gives specific segmentation of the market, those who love the taste, those who take care about special varieties, and those looking to just get drunk. These are target audiences and market research and positioning will help wine companies understand and realize the potential market.
- Targeting and Positioning Targeting markets offers an opportunity for winery to focus its business competencies on the requirements of one or more specific groups of buyers. Its purpose is to consider the differences between markets and what those differences are based on.

- Once the market has been targeted, it is up to the winery to position their product. Positioning seeks to place the product in the mind of the consumer and to distinguish the company, product, or brand from the competition. In order to effectively position wine in the minds of consumers, a marketing mix strategy needs to be developed, oriented toward a specific target market. For wine companies it is important to be extremely consistent in the development of the marketing mix. If one element is not consistent with the others, the specific wine or line of wines may fall from the consumer's tactic memory, thus destroying the winery's positioning.
- The Marketing Mix. From winery's perspective, the marketing mix involves the ways how a specific wine or line of wines will be developed, priced, promoted, and distributed. The development of the marketing mix depends on the target market. This market should always be the source of reason for choosing one element over another. It may help to look at the marketing mix from the consumer's perspective, such as consumer value (not product), cost to the customer (not price), communication to the customer (not promotion), and convenience (not distribution). (Philip, 1999)

Wine marketing in Georgia

Georgia is a small developing country and it is difficult to win the competition against huge economically stable countries in terms of goods production, export and quality standards. This has been a well-known and widely-spread stereotype in Georgia which has been believed from the past and it still keeps its actuality. This mentality has to be changed if we want to develop and improve the economic situation in the country. The production of commodities should grow, quality standards have to be increased, and then our country has a real potential to become one of successful countries in the world.

What is the role of Georgian wine in this whole process? – Wine is main product from the not very long list of products which are made in Georgia and which are exported. Georgian wine development is important for the whole country. Wine in Georgia has a cultural significance as on every step of Georgia's history wine had an important role. Culture and traditions of our country consider having a supply of Georgian wine in every home. "Georgian Supra" is not imaginable without Georgian wine. Every celebration, every important event is held with the presence of Georgian wine. This all proves that wine is an inseparable part of Georgian culture. So, wine production and trade development will not face conflict of interests with the Georgian culture.

Another important factor to be mentioned is wine and religion relationship in Georgia. Our Orthodox Church recognizes Georgian red wine as blood of Christ. This is another factor proving there's nothing against development of our wine.

If production of Georgian wine increases and export level increases proportionally country will have step forward in economic development. Export level is depended on demand in foreign countries if there's no demand increasing the

production will lose the purpose. What should be done to increase demand? - I came up to marketing. We need to raise brand awareness of Georgian wine in foreign countries, spread the information and attract new customers by using marketing strategies. Marketing strategies cannot be created and developed if there is no appropriate level of education in this field. This is why we decided to focus on this topic.

Research

The research was done in the manner of observation. We looked for the vacancies on the position of marketing manager in wineries. Web pages with vacancies gave us information about what wine companies demand from their potential marketing managers. Later we contacted to the companies themselves to get more information about their criteria. We created the list of requirements after mixing two sources of information.

List of requirements:

- Higher education degree in marketing (Bachelor, Master)
- Minimum 2 years experience of working in the related field
- Knowledge of: Branding
- Creating marketing strategies for wine,
- Knowing wine industry features
- Making market research and positioning
- Creating marketing plans and implementing them
- Budgeting marketing strategies and auditing them

As we see companies demand all the necessary knowledge in the current field from their potential employees but the question is if students are taught these steps at universities.

Overview of curriculums of Marketing Schools at the universities of Georgia

We searched for the curriculums of different universities in Georgia to understand how much knowledge the students get in the field of wine industry. The result was surprising, as none of Georgian universities have the subject Wine Marketing in the curriculum. There are so many wineries in Georgia and these companies have vacancies where the students of the school of marketing will potentially be working. By the results of the research we decided to create the syllabus for the subject Wine Marketing which contains all important aspects of the topic and will definitely be useful for students who will become successful marketing managers of wine companies in Georgia.

Syllabus

Wine Marketing

<p>I. Catalog Description: An in-depth study of marketing from the perspective of the California wine industry. The course emphasizes wine marketing planning, including an analysis of wine consumer segments. The wine industry's economic, legal, social and competitive environment, industry trends, major problems and opportunities, and strategic alternatives as related to wine varieties and brands, pricing, promotion and distribution are discussed.</p>
<p>II. Prerequisites: BUS 117</p>
<p>III. Course Learning Objectives: Upon completion of this course, students should:</p>
<p>a. understand the basic role, processes, and purpose of strategic brand management in the wine industry.</p>
<p>b. grasp basic terms and concepts specific to the wine industry.</p>
<p>c. understand strategic options for large versus small wineries.</p>
<p>d. understand the concepts of segmentation, targeting, and positioning as they relate to wine consumers.</p>
<p>e. recognize the role of ongoing wine market research.</p>
<p>f. appreciate, from a global perspective, the external and internal variables impacting wine marketing strategy, such as environmental, legal, political, social, and competitive issues.</p>
<p>g. understand the psychological, social, and situational issues affecting wine consumption decisions.</p>
<p>h. appreciate the role of strategic brand management as it relates to planning, implementation, and control.</p>
<p>IV. Course Materials: An appropriate upper division textbook on Wine Marketing or Strategic Brand Management, subject to approval by the marketing area faculty. Study guides, reading packets, cases, readings and/or access to the Internet may also be required.</p>
<p>Teaching Methods: The course may involve one or more of the following approaches: lecture, discussion, guest speakers, application exercises, case analysis, short papers, team projects, in-class group activities, and a final project.</p>
<p>V. Evaluation Tools: Typically 2-3 exams (including a final exam), and/or quizzes. Several written assignments (e.g. wine marketing plan). Other evaluation techniques (e.g. team or individual exercises and oral presentations) may also be used.</p>
<p>VI. Course Content:</p>
<p>A. Course Topics:</p>
<p>a. Wine Consumer Segments</p>
<p>b. Wine Judging, Varietals, Wine Publications</p>
<p>c. Wine Distribution and Pricing</p>
<p>d. Promotion Planning and Implementation</p>

e. Objectives and Budgets
f. Appellations and Country of Origin
g. Competitive Strategies for the Small Winery
h. Laws, Licensing, Governing Agencies
i. Tasting Room Strategies
j. Special Event Strategies
k. Importing and Exporting
l. Ethics and Social Responsibility
m. Building and Managing Brand Equity
B. Interdisciplinary Skills:
Required Graded Work Other Than Exams?
Oral Communication Yes
Written Communication Yes
Critical Thinking Yes
Working in Teams Yes
Note: The teaching method and evaluation tools used by the faculty member will influence the amount of time devoted to each of these skills. Case analysis, final project, written assignments, oral presentations, and essay questions on exams are used to assess student's skills.

Conclusion

To sum up, we made a research to understand requirements for the marketing manager at wine companies. We searched for the similar subject as Wine Marketing in the curriculums of universities. We analyzed the results and made summaries. After all we created Syllabus for the subject Wine Marketing. We hope that teaching the new discipline will help the current field develop. Universities will be able to bring up students with the knowledge they will definitely use in future. Here in Georgia most of the Georgian families own vine yards and produce wine. The understanding of wine marketing can be used to make family business succeed in wine industry. Thus, above discussed issues are dramatically important nowadays in Georgia and we have made really important step by creating new discipline in marketing studies.



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SHIFTING THE FOCUS OF ACTIVITY FROM THE TEACHER TO THE LEARNERS

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Abstract

Learner-centered teaching methods shift the focus of an activity from the teacher to the learners. These methods include active learning, in which students solve problems, answer questions, formulate questions of their own, discuss, explain, debate, or brainstorm during class. Rather than sitting in class copying from a book, or listening passively to a teacher, student-centered learning encourages students to be actively engaged in their learning and can promote a higher engagement and motivation in the classroom. Student-centered teaching has been proven effective in its ability to teach students the material they need to know. The active nature of the student-centered approach helps students actually work with information and therefore learn it and store it. In a student-centered approach, it is students themselves who are responsible for the success of a lesson and therefore they tend to feel more responsible for the success of their own learning.

Keywords: Learner-centered teaching, learner-centered approach, language acquisition, foreign language communication activity, in-class activities

Introduction

Theoretical and methodological research of the domestic and international scholars, concerned with philosophical, psychological, linguistic, general pedagogical and methodological issues of foreign language teaching, has shown that implementation of the learner-centered approach in teaching of foreign languages at the higher educational institutions is a complex and under-researched psychological and educational problem. Many educators would agree that when it comes to the 21st-century learning, having a student-centered classroom is certainly the best practice. Student-centered teaching shifts the focus from teacher to student. Educational researchers indicate to the following three teaching roles:

Facilitation: open-ended questioning, problem posing, Socratic seminar, and guided inquiry;

Direct instruction: demonstration, modeling, and lecturing;

Coaching: providing feedback, conferencing, and guided practice.

Student-centered education

Language, with its multiple and complex functions, has long been considered in isolation from humans. Kapterev (2006) states that language can't be taught, you can only create conditions for its learning. As noted by Brown (2000), starting point of the modern theory of learner-centered teaching is the idea of an individual as a purpose and factor of the educational process; the main objective of an educator is to create the conditions necessary for harmonious development of student's personality in the learning process.

The concept of 'condition' as a philosophical category expresses the ratio of the subject to the surrounding phenomena, without which it can't exist. The fact that target language in the natural environment is both a means of communication and understanding between people in everyday life reinforces the importance of a pragmatic process of language acquisition and motivates people's foreign language communication activity. However, foreign language in isolated conditions is only an instructional medium which mainly exists as a means of communication in the process of in-class activities.

However, according to Galskova (2008) mastering of foreign language outside the country of the target language and without immediate contact with native speakers will be efficient, if it gains all the possible characteristics of the natural process of language acquisition, and as close as possible approaches with its main parameters to the conditions of facilitated language acquisition in the natural language environment.

Student-centered learning encourages active participation on the part of the students and requires that they monitor their own thinking. Students are also expected not only to be conscious of their learning but also to assume responsibility. Student motivation generally increases with student-centered learning, as does student achievement and overall satisfaction with the school experience.

There are many ways to incorporate student-centered techniques into classroom resources and lessons:

- **Allow for student choice and autonomy.** This might mean providing project, classroom and homework assignment options.
- **Use open-ended questioning techniques.** This practice encourages critical and creative thinking and enhances problem-solving skills. Open-ended questioning encourages clear communication and provides students with reassurance that their thoughts and ideas matter.
- **Engage in explicit instruction.** Explicit instruction moves away from the skill and drill attitude of teaching. It is a much more direct and engaging method of instruction that pulls the students right into the heart of the lesson. Students are active participants in what is going on, rather than bystanders and onlookers.

- **Encourage student collaboration and group projects.** When students work with each other they are learning a great deal more than just the lesson content. They are gaining an appreciation for the diversity that exists in schools and communities.
- **Encourage student reflection.** Student reflection allows students to slow things down a bit and take a step back to analyze things. It also allows time for their brains to process what they have been learning. Reflection creates space and time for individual and group growth.
- **Create individual self-paced assignments.** All students don't work at the same speed and assignments should reflect this. Allowing students to move through material at a rate that best fits their learning styles and needs makes it more likely that they will gain deeper understanding of the subject matter.
- **Get the students involved in community-based activities and service-learning projects.** This helps students to see their important role in the larger world. Learning becomes more organic and less rigid. Students have the opportunity to see firsthand that learning opportunities surround them everywhere where they go (Saafir, 2015).

The study of the foreign language teaching problems can be approached based on the modern theory of learning which is an essential part of humanistic approaches to learning of foreign languages: cultural, learner-centered, individual creativity, etc. (Obskov, et al., 2015).

One of the features of foreign language teaching is integration of professional and educational activities of teachers with learning and cognitive activities of students. The main functions of a teacher in this process are organization and management of foreign language activities and to help students develop the necessary skills for becoming independent learners. Dickinson (1987) suggests that this can be achieved by providing learners with opportunities to practise language for communicative purposes: "... many teachers using such (communicative) methods are, consciously or not, involved in helping their students to learn how to learn" (p. 34).

The objective of a student is mastery of different types of speech activity in the foreign language, continuous development of skills and vocabulary that is mastering 'foreign language experience' (Frei, 2007).

Hence, a learner-centred methodology is based on real-life needs and the communicative goals of the student but also the practice of communicative methods plays a significant role in learner training. This assumption is supported by Nunan in his definition of "the good communicative lesson": The "good communicative lesson" will:

- derive input from authentic sources;
- involve learners in problem-solving activities in which they are required to negotiate meaning;
- incorporate tasks which relate to learners' real-life communicative needs;
- allow learners choices in what, how and when to learn;

- allow learners to rehearse in class, real-world language tasks;
- require learners and teachers to adopt a range of roles, and use language in a variety of settings in and out of the classroom;
- expose learners to the language as system;
- encourage learners to develop skills in learning how to learn;
- integrate the four macro-skills;
- provide controlled practice in enabling micro-skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing) ;
- involve learners in creative language use (Nunan, 1989, p. 132).

In student-centered teaching, we center our planning, our teaching, and our assessment around the needs and abilities of our students. The main idea behind the practice is that learning is most meaningful when topics are relevant to the students' lives, needs, and interests and when the students themselves are actively engaged in creating, understanding, and connecting to knowledge. Students will have a higher motivation to learn when they feel they have a real stake in their own learning.

Instead of the teacher being the sole, infallible source of information, the teacher shares control of the classroom and students are allowed to explore, experiment, and discover on their own. The students are not just memorizing information, but they are allowed to work with and use the information alone or with peers. Their diverse thoughts and perspectives are a necessary input to every class. The students are given choices and are included in the decision-making processes of the classroom. The focus in these classrooms is on options, rather than uniformity.

Essentially, learners are treated as co-creators in the learning process, as individuals with ideas and issues that deserve attention and consideration. Student-centered teaching helps us design effective instruction for every member of the classroom, no matter what his or her diverse learning needs. By its nature, student-centered teaching is adaptable to meet the needs of every student. In order to design any lesson, the teacher must first think of the students, rather than the content, and so we are assured that the students' needs are being considered.

Student-centered teaching has been proven effective in its ability to teach students the material they need to know. There are numerous studies that followed students who were taught in the student-centered approach that found that not only does student motivation increase, but actual learning and performance do as well. Students taught in a student-centered classroom retain more material for longer periods of time. In order to learn, the brain cannot simply receive information; it must also process the information so that it can be stored and recalled. The active nature of the student-centered approach helps students actually work with information, and therefore learn it and store it.

For foreign language students, especially, the student-centered method has special benefits. When students use the language, they retain it more than if they would simply hear it. They get practice in actively producing meaningful

conversation and they take a more direct route to fluency than they would take, for example, if they filled out worksheets with sentences created by the teacher.

Conclusion

The creativity inherent in student-centered activities adds an element of surprise to each class. As a result, even though foreign language learning can be frustrating and intimidating, the students stay engaged and willing to learn. Even beyond learning what they need to know, students benefit from a less academic side effect of student-centered teaching, they take on new responsibilities and succeed with these responsibilities, they come to gain confidence in themselves as competent problem-solvers. In a student-centered approach, it is the students themselves who are responsible for the success of a lesson and therefore they tend to feel more responsible for the success of their own learning.

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**POTENTIAL OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING TO AUGMENT IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS'
AUTONOMY: AGE, GENDER, AND PROFICIENCY LEVEL IN FOCUS**

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Abstract

This study aimed at investigating the effect of cooperative learning (CL) on the autonomy of Iranian EFL learners with different age groups, gender, and proficiency levels. The participants in this study were the intermediate and advanced EFL learners at Safir and Sadr English language institutes in Isfahan, Iran. To achieve the objectives of this study, 136 male and female English learners studying at intermediate and advanced levels between the age of 13 and 45 were assigned to four groups based on their performance on the Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT). All learners were asked to fill out an autonomy questionnaire at the outset of the study, and then, while the control groups were exposed to the traditional approach to reading comprehension, the experimental groups were subjected to three approaches of Jigsaw Reading, Reading Puzzles, and Newspapers, which all required group work. All the participants were then given the post-experiment autonomy questionnaire in order to examine the effects of cooperative learning on learners' autonomy. The results of data analysis revealed that (a) the treatment (i.e. CL) helped intermediate and advanced EFL learners improve their level of autonomy, (b) gender did not affect the way cooperative learning improved Iranian EFL learners' autonomy, and (c) adolescents and adults were considerably different with respect to their autonomy gain scores. The implications of the study for learners, material developers, and teachers are presented at the final section of the paper.

Keywords: Age, Cooperative learning, Gender, Learner autonomy, Proficiency level, Reading comprehension

Introduction

Learners' autonomy in foreign language teaching consists of six sections: the first section is devoted to the theoretical definition of cooperative learning (CL), methods, features, and characteristics of CL, CL and social skills; the second section deals with empirical researches on CL. The third section deals with the theoretical definition of learners' autonomy, characteristics of autonomous learner. The fourth section presents empirical researches on LA. The fifth section is the researches on the relationship between CL and LA which includes learner autonomy versus learner isolation, and cooperative learning contribution to learner autonomy promotion, which includes CL enhancing self-esteem and self-

confidence, CL increasing high motivation, CL encouraging learner responsibility for learning, CL enhancing self-management skills, and moving learners from interdependence to independence through CL.

Different CL theorists define cooperative learning differently. Cooperative learning has been defined as "small groups of learners working together as a team to solve a problem" and it has also been defined as "The instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning" (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991, p. 14). The point is that cooperative learning involves more than just asking students to work together in groups. Instead, conscious thought goes into helping students to make the experience as successful as possible.

Cooperative learning is a strategy that has been around for hundreds of years. Francis Parker was one of the leading American advocates of cooperative learning in the last three decades of the 19th Century. He helped lead the way for many later theorists such as Vygotsky. He believed that learning was using what one learned to help others and that students would fully develop their capacities only if cooperative learning was encouraged (Johnson & Johnson, 2009). Individuals seek outcomes that are beneficial to themselves and beneficial to all other group members. Through collaboration and social interactions with peers, students are able to exchange information and insights, correct one another, and adjust and build understanding on the basis of others' understanding.

A survey of research and trends in cooperative language learning reveals that the incorporation of cooperative learning into educational programs was first initiated in content areas such as social studies, science, and mathematics. However, after these innovative methods proved to be effective in educational research, the researchers in the field of language teaching and learning turned their attention to this approach. Cooperative learning is a teaching approach in which learners of diverse abilities, talents and backgrounds work together in small groups to attain a common goal. "Cooperative learning is group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others" (Olsen & Kagan, 1992, p. 8, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Gillies (2008) investigated the effect of structured and unstructured cooperating groups on students' behaviors, discourse and learning in junior high school. One hundred and sixty-four grade 9 students participated in the study. The students were videotaped as they worked in three to four persons, mixed-gender and ability groups on a science-based categorization activity. The results showed that the students in structured cooperating groups demonstrated more cooperative and helping behaviors such as giving more elaborated help and guided directions to assist understanding than their peers in the unstructured groups. Moreover, they demonstrated more complex thinking and problem-solving skills both in their discourse and their responses on the follow-up learning probe. These findings are discussed in the context of the importance of structuring cooperative learning experiences if students are to attain the benefits widely attributed to this approach to learning.

Smith (2002) described two types of autonomy: Strong version and weak version. In strong version, the teacher gives the initiation of activities and the responsibility of decision making to the students. Students might be engaged in “taking charge of classroom-based learning” (p. 6), in the following areas: “Determining the objectives, defining the content and the progressions; selecting methods and techniques to be used; monitoring the procedure of acquisition” (Smith, 2002, p. 6). This strong version is similar to the proactive type of autonomy proposed by Littlewood (1999) which, for many scholars and researchers in this field, is the only type of autonomy. Proactive type of autonomy is common in the Western educational system, and proactive autonomous students initiate the activities and select objectives and materials.

Martinez (2008) examined, using a predominantly qualitative methodology, the subjective theories about learner autonomy of 16 student teachers of French, Italian and Spanish. These students were studying at a university in Germany and were taking a 32-hour course about learner autonomy at the time of the study. Data were collected through questionnaires, interviews, and observations during the course. Results showed that the student teachers had positive attitudes towards learner autonomy and that these were informed largely by their own experiences as language learners. The conceptions of autonomy held by the student teachers generally reflected the view that (a) it is a new and supposedly better teaching and learning methodology; (b) it is equated with individualization and differentiation; (c) it is an absolute and idealistic concept; (d) it is associated with learning without a teacher.

Little (1996) shows that second language learner requires interaction. From a communication point of view, Benson (1997) argues that the individualistic view of autonomy leads to social atomism, which disempowers individuals; he emphasizes the importance of collective autonomy in the exercise of autonomy. Candy (1991, p. 337) points out that the teacher and the learner can work towards autonomy by creating a friendly atmosphere characterized by “low threat, unconditional positive regard, honest and open feedback, respect for the ideas and opinions of others, approval of self-improvement as a goal, collaboration rather than competition”.

In CL environment, learners help each other and in doing so build a supportive community which raises the performance level of each member. CL fosters a higher level of performance by learners. Their critical thinking skills increase and their retention of information and interest in the subject matter improves. When learners are successful, they view the subject matter with a very positive attitude because their self-esteem is enhanced. This creates a positive cycle of good performance building higher self-esteem which in turn leads to more interest in the subject and higher performance yet. Students share their success with their groups, thus enhancing the individual's self-esteem.

Peer support can be a powerful motivator for shy, insecure or even uninterested students. For most learners, being a member of a group of peers who are all striving towards similar ends, and who are struggling with similar difficulties and problems, can be a tremendous help in maintaining morale and in motivation. In cooperative groups, individuals know that they can get feedback and assistance in making their contributions as clear, relevant and appropriate as possible. This, in turn, can motivate them to continue to try, especially when peers encourage and support their contributions. Cooperative Learning involves task or reward structures which better ensure that all members of the group

will participate and do so at their own level of proficiency. Resource, goal and reward interdependence contribute to motivation, and enjoyable activities encourage participation as well (Crandall, 1999).

Cooperative Learning promotes self-determination among students, helping them to become more autonomous and self-controlled, and less dependent upon outside authority. Students learn greater autonomy gradually, relying first on each other for direction and assistance, and over time, through leadership experiences in their groups, acquiring greater independence in their own learning, actively choosing to use the resources of the teacher and other group members, rather than merely relying on them to get things done. In carrying out various cooperative activities and tasks, learners engage in an increasing variety of procedures formerly limited to the teacher (for example, planning the task; monitoring its progress; identifying and obtaining needed resources). They also become much more responsible for the groups' and their own learning. The step to independence is one which gradually unfolds, as learners become increasingly autonomous (Crandall, 1999).

Methodology

Participants

To choose the participants of this study, EFL learners at Safir and Sadr English language Institutes in Isfahan, Iran, were asked to take part in the study. One hundred male and female English learners were assigned to four groups of intermediate and advanced after taking an Oxford Quick Placement Test. Considering the learners' proficiency level, two classes were advanced, and two other classes were intermediate, and at each proficiency level, one class was labeled experimental and the other was chosen as the control group. Control groups included 22 advanced and 28 intermediate students. Concerning the age of the learners, they were divided into three groups of age range; there were 16 children (9-12), 15 adolescents (13-19), and 19 adults (20-31) in the experimental groups. There were also 21 children, 13 adolescents, and 16 adults in the control group.

Materials and Instruments

An Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT) of Oxford University Press (2001, version 1) was used in this study. The instrument included 60 items in the form of multiple-choice question, cloze comprehension passage, vocabulary, and grammar sections. All of the test items in the OQPT had been checked through Oxford ESOL quality control procedures. In order to understand the students' attitudes toward their responsibility in English learning, Learner Autonomy Questionnaire was used. This questionnaire was a part of a study about learner autonomy in ELT which contained 28 items about learners' attitudes toward their responsibility in English learning; the questionnaire items were 5-point Likert scale items named Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree. Also two books were used as the materials for group work in order to make a group of students for reading a text from the book and collect data aimed at finding out the effect of cooperative learning on learner's autonomy.

Procedures

This study was conducted in four phases, with four groups of participants: two experimental and two control groups. For the first phase of the study, an Oxford Quick Placement Test was given to the 136 EFL learners. There were two experimental and two control groups, each of which consisted of 50 learners: experimental groups included 23 advanced and 27 intermediate students and, the number of students were 22 advanced and 28 intermediate levels in control groups. For the second phase of the study, both experimental and control groups were provided with the autonomy questionnaire adopted from a study about learner autonomy, which contained 28 questions about learners' attitudes toward their responsibility in English learning. In the third phase, first of all, the control groups were exposed to the traditional approach to reading comprehension. In fact, they were asked to go through the whole passage on their own to carry out silent reading. Next, blocking or problematic vocabularies were checked and followed by providing definitions by the teacher. Afterwards, some of the students were assigned to read the passage out loud for the class to conduct oral reading to move to the follow-up or culminating activities.

Results

The current study employed a quasi-experimental design with pre-experiment/post-experiment surveys, and treatment to investigate the effectiveness of CL in LA by intermediate and advanced Iranian EFL learners. For the sample, 100 EFL learners were chosen out of 136 learners available to the researcher, based on a QPT, to serve as the participants of the study. The 100 participants constituted four groups of Intermediate Experimental Group (IEG), Advanced Experimental Group (AEG), Intermediate Control Group (ICG), and Advanced Control Group (ACG). The learners in all these four groups were both male and female, with different age groups. The four groups took the pre-experiment autonomy questionnaire, and the experimental groups were subsequently exposed to the treatment (i.e. Control Group Work), while the learners in the control group attended their regular classes devoid of any CL. At the end of the study, a post-experiment Autonomy Questionnaire was handed out to all the learners to gauge the any possible changes in the autonomy level of participants in the experimental and control groups. The results of data analysis of the present study are detailed in what follows.

Results of the QPT

The QPT was administered to help the researcher determine the level of proficiency of the participants in the study. The test contained 60 questions, and those who obtained 30 to 45 were considered intermediate, while those who obtained a score above 45 were labeled advanced. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the participants in these groups on the QPT.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for the QPT Scores of the IEG, AEG, ICG, and IAG Learners

Groups	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	Minimum	Maximum
IEG	27	38.21	3.48	30.00	45.00
AEG	23	51.91	4.01	46.00	58.00
ICG	28	37.09	3.53	30.00	45.00
ACG	22	52.12	4.19	46.00	57.00

Abbreviations: EIG (Intermediate Experimental Group), AEG (Advanced Experimental Group), ICG (Intermediate Control Group), ACG (Advanced Control Group)

Mean, standard deviation, and other descriptive statistics of the four groups are shown in Table 1. The intermediate groups were not significantly different at the QPT (as indicated by results of an independent-samples *t* test, $p = .63$). Likewise, the advanced groups were not significantly different in terms of their language proficiency at the outset of the study ($p = .17$).

The Answer to the First Research Question

The first research question of the study was “Does cooperative learning have any effects on EFL learners’ autonomy?” To find out the answer to this research question, the pre-experiment and post-experiment autonomy scores of the learners in IEG were compared via a paired-samples *t* test. The same statistical procedure was used for the learners in AEG. Table 2 shows the results of descriptive statistics performed for comparing the pre-experiment and post-experiment scores of the IEG learners.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Comparing the Pre-experiment and Post-experiment Autonomy Scores of the IEG Learners

Questionnaire	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>Std. Error Mean</i>
Pre-experiment	27	64.14	6.91	1.33
Post-experiment	27	76.88	6.46	1.24

For the IEG, the pre-experiment mean score ($M = 64.14$) was noticeably lower than the post-experiment mean score ($M = 76.88$). Whether this difference between the pre-experiment and post-experiment autonomy scores of the IEG was statistically significant or not could only be determined by checking the p value under the *Sig.* (2-tailed) column in the paired-samples *t* test table below.

Table 3. Paired-Samples t Test Results for Pre-experiment and Post-experiment Autonomy Scores of the IEG Learners

	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i> (2-tailed)	<i>Std.</i> Deviation	<i>Std.</i> Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
IEG Pre-Post-experiment	-12.74	26	.000	8.98	1.72	-16.29	-9.18

According to Table 3., there was a statistically significant difference between the pre-experiment and post-experiment autonomy scores of IEG learners since the *p* value was smaller than the specified level of significance ($.000 < .05$). It could be thus concluded that the treatment (in this case, Group Work) helped intermediate EFL learners improve their level of autonomy significantly. This is also evident in Figure 1 below:

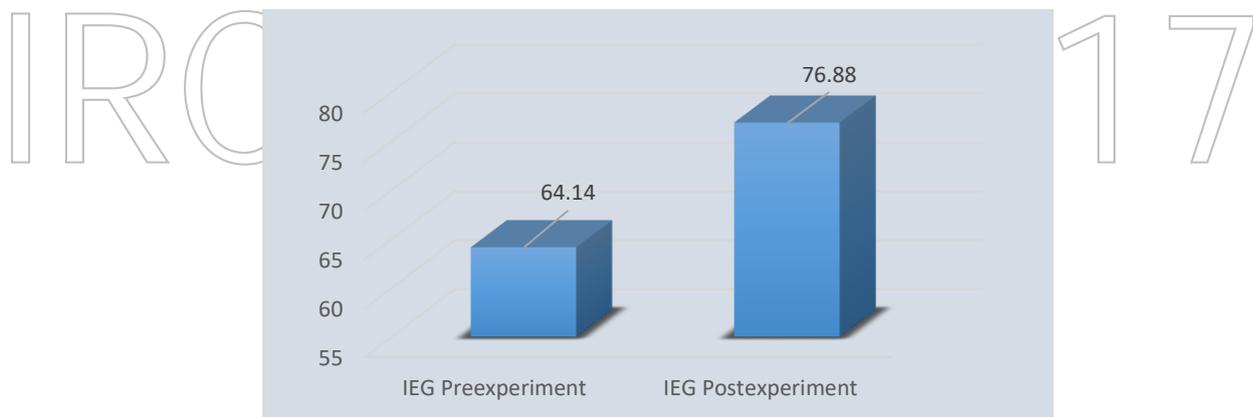


Figure 1: Comparing the pre-experiment and post-experiment autonomy scores of the IEG learners

It could be noticed in Figure 1 that the post-experiment autonomy score of the IEG learners was conspicuously higher than their pre-experiment mean score, giving rise to the conclusion that group work played a significant role in helping intermediate Iranian EFL learners become more autonomous. The results for AEG learners are shown in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for Comparing the Pre-experiment and Post-experiment Autonomy Scores of the AEG Learners

Questionnaire	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>Std.</i> Deviation	<i>Std.</i> Error Mean
Pre-experiment	23	73.91	7.14	1.48

Post-experiment	23	83.26	6.55	1.36
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As was the case with IEG learners, for the AEG learners, there was a considerable difference in the pre-experiment mean score ($M = 73.91$) and the post-experiment mean score ($M = 83.26$). To figure out whether this difference between the pre-experiment and post experiment scores of the AEG learners was of statistical significance or not, one should examine the p value under the *Sig.* (2-tailed) column in the paired-samples t test table (Table 5).

Table 5. Paired-Samples t Test Results for Comparing the Pre-experiment and Post-experiment Autonomy Scores of the AEG Learners

		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i> (2-tailed)	<i>Std.</i> Deviation	<i>Std.</i> Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
AEG	Pre-Post- experiment	-7.98	22	.000	5.61	1.17	-11.77	-6.92

Based on the information presented in Table 5, there was a statistically significant difference between the pre-experiment and post-experiment scores of AEG learners because of the fact that the p value was found to be less than the level of significance ($.000 < .05$). Therefore, it could be inferred that the treatment provided for the AEG (i.e. group work) caused advanced EFL learners to promote their level of autonomy to a substantial extent. This conclusion is also represented in Figure 2.

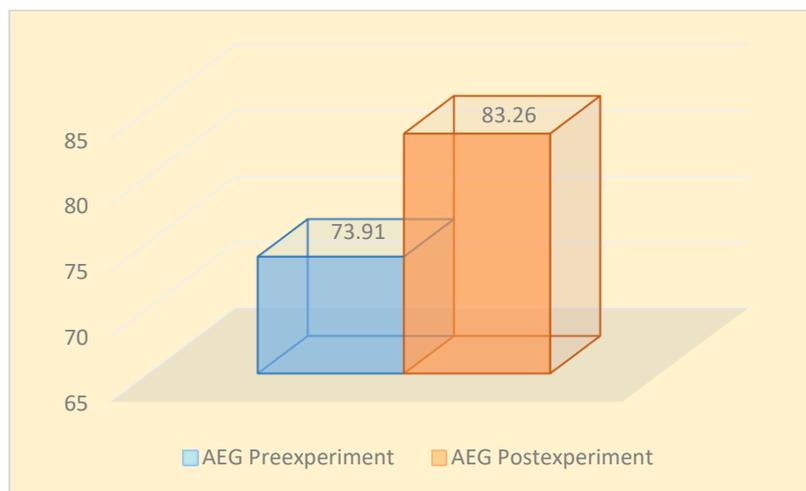


Figure 2: Comparing the pre-experiment and post-experiment mean scores of the AEG learners

Figure 2. leads us to the conclusion that the post-experiment mean score of the AEG learners was considerably higher than their pre-experiment mean score, which, along with the conclusions reached above for the intermediate learners, leads to the rejection of the first null hypothesis of the study.

The Answer to the Second Research Question

The second research question was “Does cooperative learning have the same effects on EFL male and female learners’ autonomy?” To uncover the difference between males and females in the IEG regarding their autonomy scores, their pre-experiment autonomy scores were compared via an independent-samples *t* test, to make sure they were not drastically different with respect to the variable under investigation at the outset of the study. An independent-samples *t* test was used anew to compare the IEG learners’ autonomy scores after the experiment was completed. The same statistical procedure was followed for the learners in AEG. Table 6 shows the descriptive statistics related to these analyses.

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics for Comparing IEG Male and Female Learners Scores on the Pre- and Post-experiment Autonomy Questionnaire

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-experiment	Female	17	62.88	6.79	1.64
	Male	10	66.30	6.92	2.19
Post-experiment	Female	17	76.17	6.70	1.62
	Male	10	78.10	6.19	1.95

On the pre-experiment questionnaire, the mean score of female IEG ($M = 62.88$) was slightly lower than the mean score of the male learners ($M = 66.30$). Likewise, on the post-experiment questionnaire, the mean score of female IEG learners’ ($M = 76.17$) turned out to be lower than that of male learners ($M = 78.10$). To check the statistical (in-) significance of these differences between the pre-experiment scores of the two group and between their post-experiment scores, one needs to consult the *Sig.* (2-tailed) column in the *t* test table which follows.

Table 7. Results of the Independent-Samples t Test for Comparing IEG Male and Female Learners Scores on the Pre- and Post-experiment Autonomy Questionnaire

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t test for Equality of Means			Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
F.	Sig.	t	df	Sig.			

					(2-tailed)			Lower	Upper
Pre-experiment	.01	.91	-1.25	25	.22	-3.41	2.72	-9.03	2.19
Post-experiment	.06	.80	-.74	25	.46	-1.92	2.59	-7.27	3.42

According to Table 7, there was not a statistically significant difference in pre-experiment scores for female ($M = 62.88$) and male learners ($M = 66.30$) in the IEG, $t(25) = -1.25, p = .22$ (two-tailed). This is so because the p value was greater than the specified level of significance (i.e. $.05$). Similarly, the p value was greater than the alpha level ($.46 > .05$) for the post-experiment analysis, and thus the difference between the female ($M = 76.17$) and male learners ($M = 78.10$) in the IEG was not statistically significant. The conclusion to be drawn would be that the two intermediate gender groups were at roughly the same level of autonomy prior to the experiment, and also after the experiment, their level of autonomy did not differ significantly. This conclusion is also represented in Figure 3.

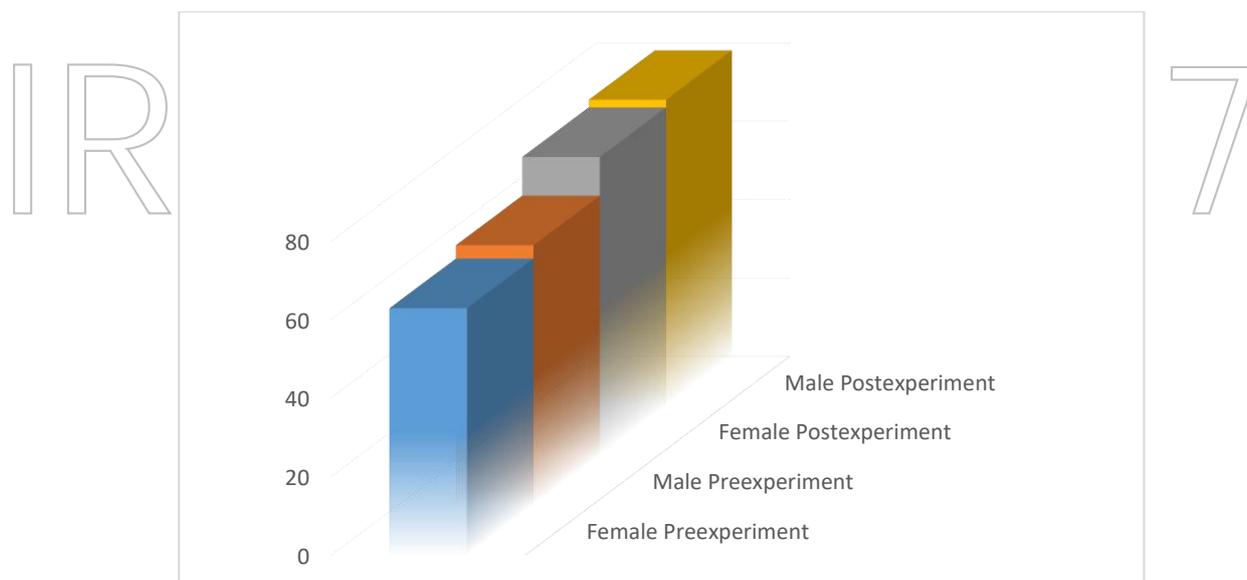


Figure 3: Comparing the pre-experiment and post-experiment mean scores of the AEG learners

As it could be seen in Figure 3, although male learners could gain higher scores than females on both pre-experiment and post-experiment autonomy questionnaires, the differences between male and female learners on these two occasions were not of statistical significance. The following tables deal with similar analyses for male and female learners in AEG.

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics for Comparing the AEG Male and Female Learners Scores on the Pre- and Post-experiment Autonomy Questionnaire

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-experiment	Female	13	74.92	6.13	1.70
	Male	10	72.60	8.43	2.66
Post-experiment	Female	13	83.76	5.74	1.59
	Male	10	82.60	7.74	2.45

As is shown in Table 8, on the pre-experiment questionnaire, the mean score of the AEG female learners ($M = 74.92$) was more than the mean score of the AEG male learners ($M = 72.60$). In much the same way, on the post-experiment questionnaire, female learners' mean score ($M = 83.76$) turned out to be larger than that of male learners ($M = 82.60$). To check the statistical (in-) significance of these differences between the pre-experiment scores of AEG male and female learners and between their post-experiment scores, one should examine the p value under the *Sig.* (2-tailed) column in Table 9 below.

Table 9. Results of the Independent-Samples t Test for the AEG Male and Female Learners Scores on the Pre- and Post-experiment Autonomy Questionnaire

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t test for Equality of Means		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	d				L	U
Pre-experiment	.257	.617	2.32	21	.45	2.32	3.03	-3.98	8.62
Post-experiment	.661	.419	1.16	21	.68	1.16	2.80	-4.67	7.01

Based on the information presented in Table 9, there was not a statistically significant difference in pre-experiment scores for females ($M = 74.92$) and males ($M = 72.60$) in the AEG, $t(21) = .76$, $p = .45$ (two-tailed). Moreover, the p value was higher than the significance level ($.68 > .05$) for the post-experiment scores of the two groups on the autonomy questionnaire, and, therefore, the difference between the females ($M = 83.76$) and males ($M = 82.60$) did not reach statistical significance. It could thus be concluded that both female and male learners in the AEG had approximately the

same level of autonomy before the commencement of the experiment, and after the completion of the experiment, this was also true for them. Figure 4 shows the results obtained for the preceding analysis.

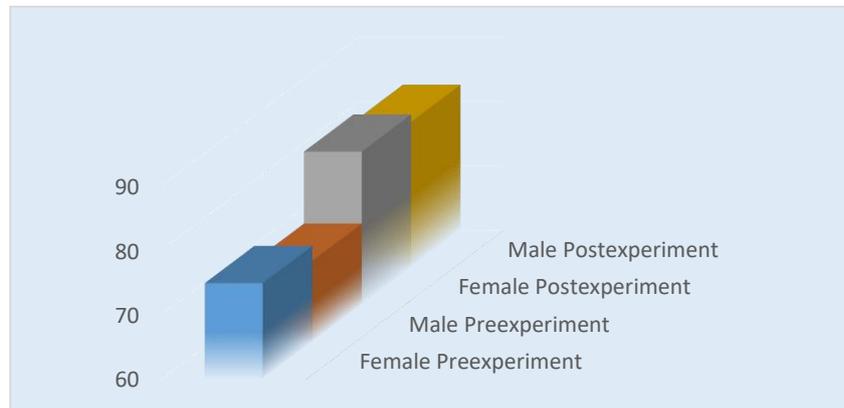


Figure 4: The mean scores of AEG male and female learners on the pre- and post-experiment questionnaire of autonomy

Figure 4 demonstrates the rough equality of the AEG female and male learners on the pre-experiment questionnaire of autonomy. The two groups' difference on the post experiment questionnaire of autonomy was, likewise, statistically insignificant, giving rise to the conclusion that gender did not affect the way cooperative learning affected Iranian EFL learners' autonomy.

The Answer to the Third Research Question

The third research question of the study was "Does cooperative learning have the same effects on EFL learners' autonomy in different age groups?" To come up with an answer to this question, the autonomy gains scores (i.e. post-experiment minus pre-experiment score) of the experimental group learners in different age groups (children, adolescents, and adults) needed to be compared via one-way between-groups ANOVA.

Table 10. Descriptive Statistics Results Comparing Different Age Groups' Autonomy Gain Scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Mean
Children	16	5.50	3.28	.82	3.74	7.25	5.50

Adolescents	15	9.60	4.53	1.17	7.09	12.11	2.00	17.00
Adults	19	6.57	3.86	.88	4.71	8.44	1.00	17.00
Total	50	7.14	4.18	.59	5.95	8.32	1.00	17.00

The autonomy gains score of the children ($M = 5.50$), adolescents ($M = 9.60$), and adults ($M = 6.57$) were different from one another. To figure out whether the differences among these mean scores were significant or not, one needs to check the p value under the *Sig.* column in the ANOVA table below.

Table 11. Results of One-Way ANOVA for Comparing Different Age Groups' Autonomy Gain Scores

	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Between Groups	139.78	2	69.89	4.57	.01
Within Groups	718.23	47	15.28		
Total	858.02	49			

As is displayed in Table 11, there was a statistically significant difference in the autonomy gain scores for children ($M = 5.50$), adolescents ($M = 9.60$), and adults ($M = 6.57$) because the p value under the *Sig.* column was smaller than the specified level of significance (i.e. $.01 < .05$), indicating that the three age groups differed significantly in terms of their autonomy gains. To find out where exactly the differences among the three age groups lay, the Scheffe post hoc test was conducted.

Table 12. Results of the Scheffe Post Hoc Test for Comparing Different Age Groups' Autonomy Gain Scores

Groups		Mean Difference	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Children	Adolescents	-4.10*	1.40	.02	-7.65	-.54
	Adults	-1.07	1.32	.72	-4.43	2.27
Adolescents	Children	4.10*	1.40	.02	.54	7.65
	Adults	3.02	1.35	.09	-.39	6.43
Adults	Children	1.07	1.32	.72	-2.27	4.43
	Adolescents	-3.02	1.35	.09	-6.43	.39

In the top row, it could be seen that the difference between children ($M = 5.50$) and adolescents ($M = 9.60$) was statistically significant. This is so because the relevant p value in front of children-Adolescents was less than the alpha

level (i.e. $.02 < .05$). However, the difference between children and adult learners ($M = 6.57$) was no statistically significant ($p = .72$). Likewise, there was not a significant difference between adolescents and adults in terms of their autonomy gain scores. The obtained results of this part are also shown in the bar chart below.

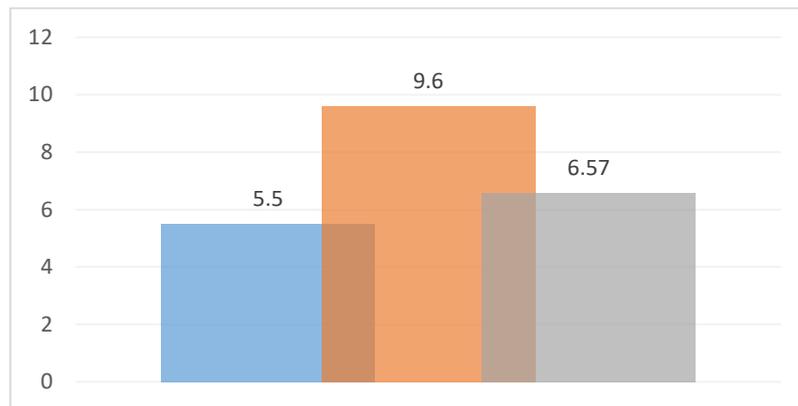


Figure 5: The autonomy gains scores of different age groups

From the results obtained in the Scheffe post hoc test, as illustrated in Figure 5, it could be concluded that children and adolescents were considerably different with respect to their autonomy gain scores, but neither the difference between children and adults nor the difference between adolescents and adults reaches statistical significance.

The Answer to the Fourth Research Question

For reasons of convenience, the fourth research question is rewritten here: Does cooperative learning have the same effects on EFL learners' autonomy at different proficiency levels? To answer this research question, the pre-experiment autonomy scores of the experimental and control group learners at each level of proficiency had to be compared, and also their post-experiment autonomy scores had to be compared. For this purpose, one-way ANCOVA was once conducted for intermediate learners and once again for advanced learners. This way the researcher could control for any possible differences between experimental and control groups on the pre-experiment autonomy questionnaire and then compare their post-experiment autonomy scores. The results of the ANCOVA tests are presented below.

Table 13. Descriptive Statistics for Comparing the Post-experiment Autonomy Scores of the IEG and ICG

	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
IEG	27	76.88	6.46
ICG	28	67.03	8.08

Such descriptive statistics as mean and standard deviation are shown for both IEG and ICG learners in Table 13. The post-experiment autonomy score of the IEG ($M = 76.88$) was greater than the post-experiment autonomy score of the ICG ($M = 67.03$). To ascertain whether this difference is statistically significant or not, one needs to look down the *Sig* (2-tailed) column across the row in which Groups is placed in the ANCOVA table below.

Table 14. Results of One-Way ANCOVA for Comparing Post-experiment Autonomy Scores of the IEG and ICG

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	14.07	2	703.81	13.18	.000	.33
Intercept	2117.41	1	2117.41	39.65	.000	.43
Pretest	73.15	1	73.15	1.37	.247	.02
Groups	1274.83	1	1274.83	23.87	.000	.31
Error	2776.48	52	53.39			
Total	288297.00	55				
Corrected Total	4184.19	54				

In Table 14, if you find Groups in the leftmost column and read across this row, under *Sig.* column, you can find the p value, which should be compared against the significance level. The p value here was lower than the specified level of significance ($.000 < .05$), indicating that groups (i.e. experimental/control) significantly affected the post-experiment autonomy scores of the intermediate learners.

Under Partial Eta Squared, the relevant value was .31, which shows that Groups accounted for 31% of the variance in the post-experiment autonomy scores of the intermediate learners. Another noteworthy piece of information in Table 3.14 concerns the influence of the covariate (i.e. the pre-experiment questionnaire). If you find the line in the table that corresponds to the covariate, and read across to the *Sig.* level, you can see that the p value here was .24, which was greater than the significance level, meaning that the covariate was not significant. In fact, it explained only 2% of the variance in the post-experiment autonomy scores of the intermediate learners. Tables 3.15 and 3.16 show the results of comparing AEG and ACG post-experiment autonomy scores through one-way ANCOVA.

Table 15. Descriptive Statistics for Comparing the Post-experiment Autonomy Scores of the AEG and ACG

	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>Std.</i> Deviation
AEG	23	83.26	6.55

ACG	22	75.27	7.31
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Table 15 shows the descriptive statistics (i.e. mean and standard deviation) for both AEG and ACG learners. The post-experiment autonomy score of the AEG ($M = 83.26$) was greater than the post-experiment autonomy score of the ACG ($M = 75.27$). To find out whether this difference in the post-experiment autonomy scores of the two groups was a significant one or not, one needs to look down the *Sig* (2-tailed) column in front of Gender in Table 16.

Table 16. Results of One-Way ANCOVA for Comparing the Post-experiment Autonomy Scores of the AEG and ACG

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Squared	Eta Squared
Corrected Model	1581.75	2	790.87	27.57	.000	.56	
Intercept	529.32	1	529.32	18.45	.000	.30	
Pretest	864.23	1	864.23	30.13	.000	.41	
Groups	381.54	1	381.54	13.30	.001	.24	
Error	1204.55	42	28.68				
Total	286165.00	45					
Corrected Total	2786.31	44					

In Table 16, in front of Groups, under the *Sig.* column, the p value was less than the specified level of significance ($.001 < .05$), indicating that the treatment (operationalized through experimental and control groups) affected the post-experiment autonomy scores of the AEG and ACG. Under Partial Eta Squared, the relevant value was .24, which shows that Groups accounted for .24% of the variance in the post-experiment autonomy scores of the AEG and ACG. In addition, the *Sig.* value in front of the covariate (i.e. pre-experiment questionnaire) was .000, which was lower than the significance level, indicating that the covariate was significant. In fact, it explained 41% of the variance in the post-experiment autonomy scores of the advanced learners.

The Answer to the Fifth Research Question

The fifth research question of the current study was "How well do cooperative learning, age, gender, and proficiency levels predict Iranian EFL learners' autonomy?" To answer this research question, multiple regression analysis was performed. Table 17 shows the correlation coefficients for the relationship between EFL learners' autonomy and their age, gender, proficiency level, and cooperative learning.

Table 17. Correlation Coefficients for the Relationship between EFL Learners’ Autonomy, and Their Age, Gender, Proficiency Level, and Cooperative Learning

		Autonomy	CL	Age	Gender	Proficiency
Pearson	Autonomy	1.00	.14	.02	.13	.40*
Correlation	CL	.14	1.00	.04	-.01	.89*
	Age	.02	.04	1.00	.27*	.02
	Gender	.13	-.01	.27*	1.00	.01
	Proficiency	.40*	.89*	.02	.01	1.00

Note: * means a significant relationship

The relationship between autonomy and CL was a weak positive one ($r = .14$), and this relationship was not of statistical significance. Likewise, autonomy was positively correlated with age ($r = .02$), and gender ($r = .13$). However, the relationship between autonomy and proficiency level appeared to be a moderate one ($r = .40$) which was statistically significant. To find out whether CL, age, gender, and proficiency level could account for the autonomy of Iranian EFL learners, one needs to examine the multiple regression analyses table below.

Table 18. Model Summary for Multiple Regression

Model	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> Square	Adjusted <i>R</i> Square	<i>Std.</i> Error of the Estimate
1	.64	.41	.39	7.15

In Table 18, the value given under the *R* Square column shows how much of the variance in autonomy is explained by CL, age, gender, and proficiency level of the learners. The value here is .41. This means that the four independent variables mentioned above accounted for 41 percent of the variance in autonomy scores of the learners. To examine the statistical significance of this result, Table 19 should be consulted.

Table 19. Statistical Significance of the Multiple Regression Results

Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
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Regression	3493.42	4	873.35	17.06	.000
Residual	4862.81	95	51.18		
Total	8356.24	99			

In Table 19, *Sig.* equaled .000, which is smaller than the alpha level ($p = .000 < 0.05$), indicating that the model reached a statistical significance. In other words, CL, age, gender, and proficiency level could significantly predict learner autonomy. Now it is high time we looked at the Table 20 to see which of these variables contributed more to the prediction of learners autonomy.

Table 20. Predictive Power of CL, Age, Gender, and Proficiency Level for Learner Autonomy

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics		
	<i>B</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
CL	-8.92	1.43	-1.07	-6.20	.00	-11.77	-6.06	.14	-.53	-.48	.20	4.92
Age	.131	.94	.01	.13	.89	-1.74	2.01	.02	.01	.01	.92	1.08
Gender	1.75	1.54	.09	1.13	.26	-1.31	4.82	.13	.11	.08	.91	1.08
Proficiency	25.1	3.18	1.36	7.87	.00	18.78	31.44	.40	.62	.61	.20	4.91

To compare the predictive power of CL, age, gender, and proficiency level, the values under *Beta* in the column-standardized coefficients should be checked. Looking down this column, one could notice that the largest value was the one for proficiency level. Proficiency level thus made the strongest unique contribution to explaining learner autonomy. The relevant *Beta* value for CL was the second highest value out there, indicating that it made less of a contribution. The other values were .09, and .01 respectively for gender, and age; these variables' contributions to the prediction of learner autonomy were very small.

For each of these variables, the value under the column marked *Sig.* must be checked. This shows whether this variable was making a statistically significant unique contribution to the equation or not. The *Sig.* values for CL and proficiency level were less than the significance level (.05); it could thus be concluded that among CL, age, gender, and proficiency level, CL and proficiency level could significantly predict learner autonomy.

Discussion and Conclusion

Discussion

The relationships between learner autonomy and other related factors (e.g. the teacher's role, beliefs and attitudes, motivation, learning environment, culture, etc.) have been investigated through either theoretical analysis or using empirical studies. The present study attempted to fill the gap and find out which of the above-mentioned independent variables can better contribute to and predict Iranian EFL learners' autonomy. The results provide evidence that the treatment (i.e. CL) helped intermediate and advanced EFL learners improve their level of autonomy; gender did not affect the way cooperative learning affected Iranian EFL learners' autonomy; teenagers and adolescents were considerably different with respect to their autonomy gain scores. It also indicated that the treatment affected the post-experiment autonomy scores of the both intermediate and advanced group learners significantly. These obtained results are discussed and compared with the relevant previous studies below.

Discussing the First Research Question

The first research question aimed at examining the effect of CL on EFL learners' autonomy, and the results showed that the treatment (in this case, Group Work) helped intermediate and advanced EFL learners improve their level of autonomy significantly. Cooperative learning promoted learner autonomy probably because, as Little (2004) suggested, autonomy is dependent upon learner involvement, referring to active participation of learners in the learning process; the learners in the current study were involved in the learning process by means of the group work they had to fulfil, and thus became more autonomous.

Bilgin and Geban (2006) studied the effects of the cooperative learning approach over traditional instruction on 10th grade students, which was created to assess the conceptual understanding and achievement. The results showed that students in the experimental group had better conceptual understanding, and achievement. In another study, Almanza (1997) examined the effectiveness of cooperative learning and the directed reading thinking activity during reading stories. Findings, based on a reading comprehension test, indicated that the majority of children scored higher in the cooperative reading groups than their counterparts from the directed reading thinking activity groups. The study suggested the use of cooperative learning as a useful instructional strategy. The results of the present study could be supported by those of Bilgin and Geban, and Almanza.

Discussing the Second Research Question

The second research question was intended to find out whether CL had the same effect on EFL male and female learners' autonomy. Based on the information presented above, the difference between the two gender groups in AEG on the post-experiment questionnaire of autonomy was statistically insignificant; it could thus be concluded that both female and male learners in the AEG had approximately the same level of autonomy before the commencement of the experiment, and after the completion of the experiment, this was also true for them, giving rise to the conclusion that

gender did not affect the way cooperative learning affected Iranian EFL learners' autonomy. Two intermediate gender groups in the IEG were also at roughly the same level of autonomy prior to the experiment, and also after the experiment, their level of autonomy did not differ significantly. In language learning strategy research, many studies across different cultures show more frequent strategy use by females than males, especially the social-based strategies (Oxford, 1993). However, some findings revealed that males employed more strategies than females (Zamri, 2004), and some even suggested that there were no significant differences between males and females on their use of language learning strategies (Chang, 1990; Chou, 2002). The case of learner autonomy might be a special one, which could not be affected by the gender of the learners. This claim becomes more plausible when in a situation like the one in the present study, a third factor such as CL is at work. The interplay between the two may not be so enormous as to affect different genders differently.

Discussing the Third Research Question

The third research question of the study was "Does cooperative learning have the same effects on EFL learners' autonomy in different age groups?" the obtained results of this part showed that teenagers and adolescents were considerably different with respect to their autonomy gain scores, but neither the difference between teenagers and adults nor the difference between adolescents and adults reached statistical significance.

Discussing the Fourth Research Question

The fourth research question aimed at examining whether cooperative learning had the same effects on EFL learners' autonomy at different proficiency levels; the pre-experiment and post-experiment autonomy scores of the experimental and control group learners at each level of proficiency were compared, and the results indicated that the treatment affected the post-experiment autonomy scores of the both intermediate and advanced group learners.

Many research studies showed the effect of proficiency level on different variables such as the acquisition of lexicon, idioms and collocations, and a lot of other different language related variables. Odlin (1989) suggests that both children and adult learners show their strong and weak sides while acquiring a new language. Thus, children of lower age are better at learning and imitating language prosody while adult students are better at writing and have better metalinguistic awareness.

Discussing the Fifth Research Question

The fifth research question of the current study was "How well do cooperative learning, age, gender, and proficiency levels predict Iranian EFL learners' autonomy?" The obtained results for the last research question indicated that among CL, age, gender, and proficiency level, CL and proficiency level could significantly predict learner autonomy.

Kucuroğlu (2000) found that a learner-centered approach in language teaching promoted learner autonomy as it was designed with the principles of communicative language teaching and learner-centeredness in language education.

In the present study, it was also revealed that gender and age of the learners could not significantly predict learners' autonomy, but CL and proficiency level contributed significantly to the autonomy of the learners.

Conclusion

This study was in fact an attempt to shed more light on the point of as to whether cooperative learning could bear any influence on the learners' autonomy of Iranian EFL learners. In addition, the study also tried to determine whether learners with different ages, genders, and proficiency levels, were effected by cooperative learning as well. As it was illuminated in the preceding section of the study, the findings of the study revealed that: first, cooperative group work helped intermediate and advanced EFL learners improve their level of autonomy significantly. Second, gender did not affect the way cooperative learning affected Iranian EFL learners' autonomy equally. Third, teenagers and adolescents were considerably different with respect to their autonomy gain scores, but neither the difference between teenagers and adults nor the difference between adolescents and adults reached statistical significance. Fourth, the treatment (group work) affected the post-experiment autonomy scores of the AEG and IEG. Thus, based on the results obtained from the statistical analysis, it can be safely claimed that among CL, age, gender, and proficiency level, CL and proficiency level could significantly predict learner autonomy. The findings of the present study have some pedagogical implications for teachers, learners, and materials developers.

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EFL TEACHERS' ROLES AND COMPETENCE IN A NO-TEXTBOOK CLASSROOM

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Abstract

The study deals with analyzing which roles English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers must play when conducting lessons without relying on a course book and what sort of competences they must bring into such an enterprise. On the one hand, the paper presents findings and conclusions based on literature review concerning the issue and, on the other hand, it supports these conclusions with teacher surveys. The aim of the study is to raise EFL teachers' awareness in terms of challenges and requirements they face when endeavoring to arrange lessons without a textbook.

Keywords: teacher role, teacher competence, no-textbook classroom

Teaching English is an extremely complicated process and it is based on a teacher-student interaction. A teacher is a concrete individual in the classroom who has to perform various things for educating students. A language teacher should be equipped with diverse tools, numerous pieces of information and proficiency which are necessary for improving his/her students' language knowledge and competence. Teacher's role in the classroom is one of the most significant issues in English as a foreign language teaching-learning processes. Teachers have to be clear about their roles, as it is considered central to the way in which the classroom environment emerges. In general, teachers play an immense role in engaging students' attention. To acquire language fluency and competences, teachers have to enhance learners' expertise in four basic language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). While acquiring language skills, teachers should stimulate learners' interest towards the language. Therefore, teachers are key factors in attracting students' concentration by generating interest, raising motivation and sustaining both among them (Richards, 1998).

The present paper deals with analyzing which roles EFL teachers have to play when conducting language lessons without relying on a textbook and what types of competences should they bring into the classroom while teaching without a textbook. The purpose of the paper is to clarify what are teaching strategies to make students form and produce a new language in order to achieve learning aims and objectives.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) define the concept of teacher roles and they connect them with the following issues. Teacher roles are types of functions teachers are expected to fulfill. Moreover, these roles are related to the degree of

control that a teacher has over the way learning takes place. They are interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners and, finally, roles determine the degree to which a teacher is responsible to determine the content of what is taught (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). While conducting lessons without an English textbook, teachers should play distinct roles, such as of a tutor, facilitator, resource, prompter, manager, participant, observer, resource, etc. (Harmer, 2013).

It is evident that absolutely essential roles which ELF teachers should play during no-textbook lessons are the following: manager and organizer, participant and performer, language model and provider of comprehensible input. The six roles named above are paired as they are really close to each other and in fact mean the same thing. EFL teachers have to organize and manage no-textbook lessons on their own if they venture to, no one will do it instead of them, for fulfilling such an adventurous initiative teachers need classroom management skills to flexibly cope with unpredictable situations, unexpected reactions and behavior of students, faster or slower than the expected and planned flow of activities, etc.

It is logical as well that during activities which do not rely on an EFL textbook teachers will have to participate in them, and the more reluctant students are to be engaged in activities, the more burden will lie on teachers in order to stimulate learner participation and contribution, EFL educators will have to perform in the target language in order to make students follow them, acting as a role model how to speak, how to act, etc.

Tightly tied to the above roles, is the necessity to act as a language model and provider of comprehensible input. If during textbook-relying lessons EFL teachers manage to hide faults and deficiencies in their language competence and performance, during no-course book lessons nothing can be concealed. EFL teachers are the first presenters and demonstrators of the language learnt, they must be exemplary in this respect, to be imitated by learners, to be admired by them, to arouse respect and trust in students, otherwise successful learning will not take place. As for comprehensible input provider, in case of graded as usual textbooks the language existing in them is taken for granted and it is more or less graspable unless the book is wrongly chosen and there is a discrepancy between students and its level, but in case of no-textbook lessons teachers must prepare comprehensible language for learners taking into account their level and tune their speech to it considering those principles which are proposed by Krashen (1982) in this respect. It will almost guarantee effectiveness of no-textbook lessons.

English language teaching-learning processes have been teacher-centered for many years. The main issue in modern teaching methodology is transformation from teacher-centered lessons to student-centered ones, where the focus is on the students' active involvement in the learning process and such methodology shift has caused changes in teachers' roles. Teachers should create active classroom atmosphere for the students and make sure learners fully participate in the language learning process. The model of no-textbook lessons suggests a student-centered method of teaching language as it is considered as a more efficient, challenging and motivating way of teaching. Based on the methodology changes, the teachers' roles are transferred from information provider to facilitator. According to Choudhury (2011), facilitation

involves empowering learners by giving them more initiative and responsibility when EFL teachers put the textbook aside and teach with authentic resources, the role of facilitator encourages students to participate actively in the classroom. Harmer describes a facilitator teacher as a democratic rather than an autocratic one who fosters learner autonomy through the use of group and pair work and by acting as more of a resource than a transmitter of knowledge (Harmer, 2013). In terms of no-textbook English lessons, teachers arrange most of the activities in groups or in pairs. The students are given instructions, they are facilitated by teachers and later they perform their tasks independently. One of the ideas of teaching English without a course book is raising motivation in students. In this process, a teacher as a facilitator creates an environment where the students acquire knowledge by doing various activities themselves.

One more role which teachers hold while teaching English without a textbook is of a prompter and it is tightly connected to the modern approach of learner-centered classroom. Such a model of lesson focuses on communicative language teaching which includes a wide range of activities with the aim of developing communicative competence. Students are involved in various communication activities and games and the need of a teacher as a prompter arises in such a situation, e.g., there are cases when students lack vocabulary knowledge and they are lost for words. Teacher should prompt students the words to enable them to speak the target language with appropriate vocabulary rather than using their first language. Role-plays have a crucial part in developing learners' speaking skill and teachers often prompt during such an activity, they offer words or phrases and help students sensitively and in a supportive way. Teacher as a prompter stimulates students to contribute to the lesson, encourages them to think creatively and gives suggestions how students may progress in the activity. Based on Harmer, prompting means holding teachers back and letting students work things out for themselves instead of "nudging" the latter forward (Harmer, 2013, p. 60). One of the advantages of no-textbook lessons is developing student's learning autonomy and a prompter helps students only when it is necessary.

One of the roles which the teachers possess in the process of teaching with authentic resources is of as a tutor. Despite of the fact that lessons without textbooks are interactive and most of the activities are done in pairs and in groups, it is essential that teachers act as tutors. In a project or during an individual work teachers can act as a coach and provide guidance and advice. They have to be sure that all of the groups or individuals are seen and addressed, because without access to their tutor students can feel distressed. Students must have chance to feel themselves helped and supported and class atmosphere is improved as a result. Being a tutor is sophisticated in a very large group as it indicates more intimate relationship compared with the other roles. In terms of teaching English without a universal course book, from time to time teachers have to act as tutors, because of more personal nature of such practice. The students have opportunity to be supported and encouraged by the teachers. They feel more confident and they participate in the production of different activities more freely.

As it was mentioned above, lessons which are not based on universal course books are more interactive and communicative; students actively participate in pair or in group works. As a production task they often have free speaking activities which require active observation from teachers' perspective. Observer teachers monitor the process of task

performance; they make notes about students' mistakes and perform post-activity duties, such as feedback provision or correction. By observing teachers monitor the flow of activity, they are involved in the process and it can be considered as a positive learning experience for learners. It helps students in the process of teachers' observation to monitor their own language. Observing activities is beneficial for collecting information about particular students according to their performances. Being an observer is good for teacher' development as during monitoring they determine aspects of lessons which have to be improved. Finally, being an observer is a constructive role when EFL teacher puts the course book aside and uses authentic resources to conduct a lesson.

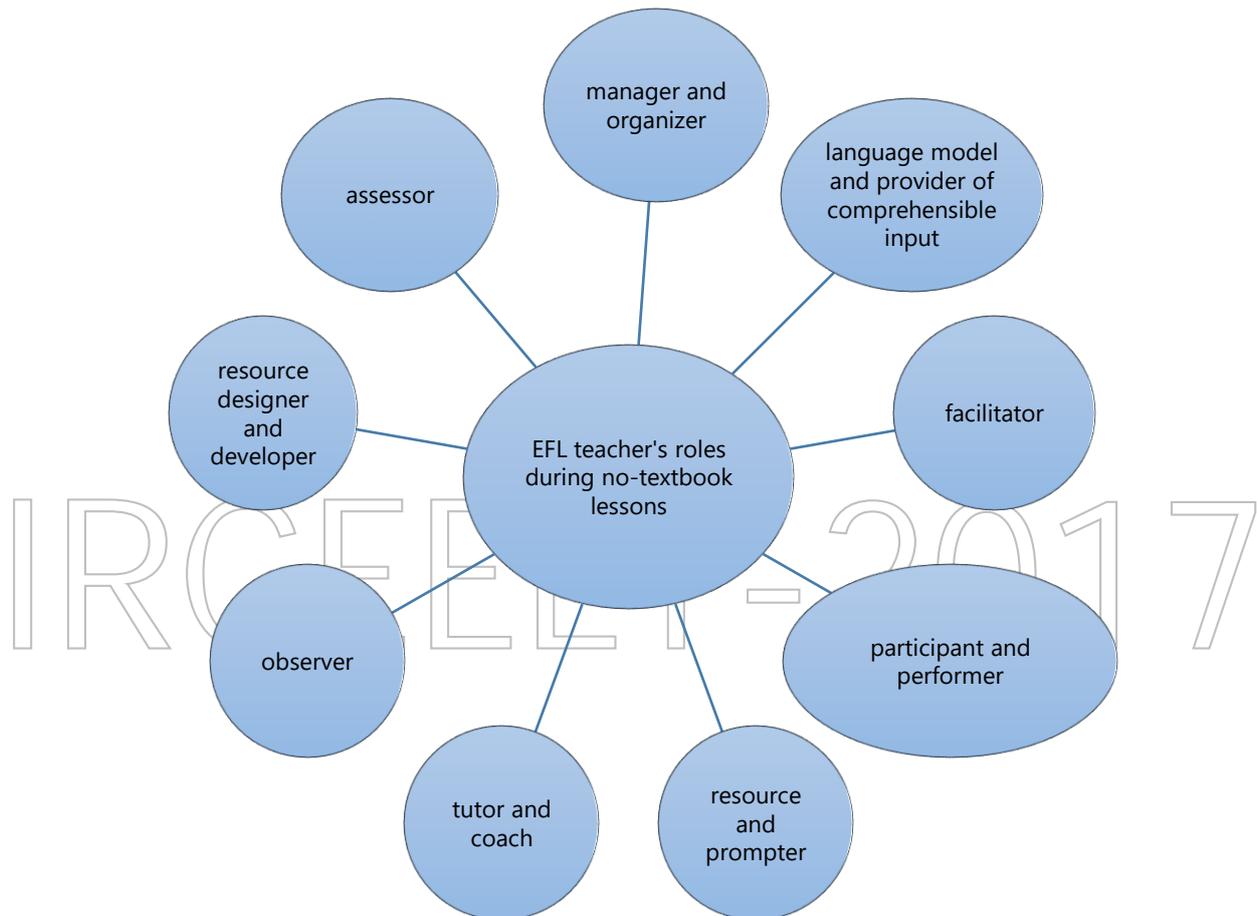
In the process of teaching English without a textbook teachers have a role of designers and of a resource. Such practice requires designing the course material and the course itself which naturally requires much time and energy incorporated with the aim of developing not only students' language skills and enhancing academic achievements but also inciting their inner motivation. While doing particular activities, students may need a teacher as a resource. This role is relevant when students independently work at the activity, and they might need to know specific information about the task, logically, students may ask teachers what a phrase or a word means. This is the situation when EFL teachers can act as resources. As Harmer states when we are acting as a resource, we will want to be helpful and available, but at the same time we have to resist the urge to spoon-feed our students so that they become over-reliant on us (Harmer, 2013). Based on Adams, the teacher is a kind of walking resource center ready to offer help if needed, or provide learners with whatever language they lack when performing communicative activities. The teacher must make her/himself available so that learners can consult them when it is absolutely necessary (Adams, 2014).

One of the most important tasks, which teacher faces is assessing students' language competences. The assessor's role is recognized as different from other roles. While all of the roles discussed above aim at assisting students in a variety of ways with the purpose of achieving the course goals, EFL teacher as an assessor passes judgment on students. Based on Murray et al, given the importance of assessing students' performance in university teaching and in students' lives and careers, instructors are responsible for taking adequate steps to ensure that assessment of students is valid, open, fair and congruent with course objectives (Murray et al, 1996). When teachers hold lessons without a textbook, assessment is a really serious part of learning process. The teacher has to utilize assessment rubrics for evaluating various skills and especially speaking skill. In the process of teaching with supplementary resources, the teacher has to do formative as well as summative assessment. For measuring the development of students' language competences after certain period of time of teaching without course books, teacher has to do summative assessment. Finally being an assessor is crucial for giving students feedback on their performance and effort.

The last role to be mentioned is teachers as a resource developer. As teachers put their course book aside they are only creators and designers of lessons. With this role teachers become creators of new learning environment and as developers of learning materials teachers should keep up with the changes in the informational technologies and use

them for their benefit. Being a resource developer requires high competence and awareness from teachers' perspective because they should be competent for choosing the right resources for students which are valuable for learners.

EFL teachers roles during no-textbook lessons presented above can be summarized by means of the following chart.



In conclusion, the needs of the 21st century English classroom are different from those on which teacher-centered language lessons used to be based. The practice of teaching English without a textbook responds to the challenge of modern teaching methods. The roles of EFL teachers which were discussed if performed duly and relevantly by EFL educators will enhance learners' knowledge and competence fast and effectively.

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THE CONCEPT OF EPIPHANY AND JAMES JOYCE'S AESTHETIC THEORY

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Abstract

The paper is an attempt to decipher the development of the concept of epiphany in James Joyce's *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*. The paper contains a brief introducing of Joyce's early theory of epiphany, which he developed in *Stephen Hero*, and its later development in his aesthetic theory introduced in the fifth chapter of *Portrait*. The existing differences between the two are discussed on the basis of some of the classical articles written on the above-mentioned subject. To achieve the purpose of research, the paper additionally focuses on exploring the close connection of Joycean aesthetics and Thomist theories of beauty, goodness, etc.

Keywords: epiphany; aesthetic theory, Joyce, deity, Thomas Aquinas

The Concept of Epiphany and Its Significance in Joyce's Aesthetic Theory

If we tried to summarize James Joyce's work in a word, epiphany would be a great choice. The concept epitomizes Joyce's not only early works, where he explicitly tries to develop the theory of epiphanies, but also his later works where the concept merges with the everyday experience of some of Joyce's most iconic characters. From the flirtatious dialogue of a couple in *Stephen Hero*, to the prolonged contemplation of Mr. Duffy in *The Painful Case*, to the sexually charged horrifying dream in *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, to the heart-breaking dreams that Stephen has of his mother in *Ulysses*, these chunks of word combinations create some of the most brilliant pieces of writing that history of literature has ever witnessed. This is perhaps where Joyce's genius lies; he managed to find a word for a human experience that seems to be indefinable.

The concept itself has many different applications, however, according to Florence Walzl (1965), the word has its roots in Greek language. In Greek ἐπιφάνεια (epiphaneia) means appearance or manifestation, while as a verb it means to display or show forth. However, this is not the only application that the word finds in the Greek language, since it also is used to refer to the climactic moments in Greek drama, when some kind of deity appears on the stage in most cases 'to resolve conflict' (Kim, 2012, p. 8). According to Walzl, the word epiphaneia gained a religious denotation in the early Christian period; however, its definition is not exactly different from its Greek counterpart, since it also puts an emphasis

on the manifestation or revelation of a divine element. Additionally, its religious application is also connected to a very specific date - 6 January, which is also known as the feast of the Epiphany. This date commemorates the day when a bright star led three Magis to the newborn Jesus Christ.

According to Umberto Eco (2006), Joyce adopted the concept of epiphany from Walter Pater's works, especially from his *The Renaissance: Studies in Art and Poetry* and *Marius the Epicurean*. Pater's (1888) works just like Joyce's early works can be distinguished with the fascination that these authors express towards beauty, life and small things which through their significance turn out to be gigantic. Pater's influence on Joyce is more than Joyce cared to admit, in most cases Joyce tried to at least subtly hide it, but it seems that he never really managed to free himself from it.

Thus, in the 1900s eighteen-year-old Joyce, who was extremely intrigued by linguistics, started recording his acquaintances and in some cases even made observations about strangers. He used to record everything, every trivial moment that he thought to have some kind of significance and these recordings contained dialogues between his friends, family members or strangers, it contained his observations about the environment around him, about his beloved ones and about strangers, also dreams and in some cases the most pivotal recollections from his personal life. Eventually, these recordings became his sketch-book and these sketches were referred to as Epiphanies.

The essence of Joyce's sketch-book is more or less explained in the manuscript of Stephen Hero. The book, had it been finished, would have been about Joyce's favorite topic, which is describing a person's journey from childhood to adulthood, however, while knowing this, the manuscript still seems to have been created around and for the concept of epiphany. If the epiphanies in the collection lack the context, in the manuscript they acquire it. One such occasion of undergoing the process of epiphany breeds the Joycean definition of the concept. While strolling on Eccles' Street Stephen comes across a couple talking flirtatiously on the background of 'brown brick houses' that represents 'a very incarnation of Irish paralysis'. This trivial occasion illumines Stephen's mind and he decides to collect such moments. In these moments Joyce meant 'a sudden spiritual manifestation, whether in the vulgarity of speech or of gesture or the memorable phase of the mind itself. He believed that it was for the man of letters to record these epiphanies with extreme care, seeing that they themselves are the most delicate and evanescent of moments' (Joyce, Stephen Hero, 1956, p. 215).¹ Aside from the fact that Joyce certainly secularized the concept of epiphany in his works, in the sense that he exterminated the divine element from it completely, the process of manifestation still somewhat stays divinely inspired, we could argue that his definition given in Stephen Hero combines both above-mentioned understandings (Greek and religious) of the concept.

Thus, the Greek understanding of the concept can be seen through Joyce's usage of the word 'manifestation' in his definition. However, religious implications in it are far more obscure, almost hidden. Aside from the fact that to human mind these manifestations seem divinely inspired, Florence Walzl separates another factor, which is Joyce's inclination to writing coming of age stories. Christian church calendar consists of a never ending cycle where everything always comes back to the start, 'the start' in this case could be interpreted as the day of Epiphany or when the newborn Christ manifested

himself to Magi. Through and through we have 'Christmas representing his youth, Easter his mission as a redeemer and Pentecost his teachings as preparation of his second coming' (Walzl, 1965, p. 437). Thus, Joyce not only secularized the initial understanding of epiphany, but he also secularized the religious connotations of the concept. He took Christ's journey and transformed it into an artist's journey. Joyce gifted his artist with the highest ability there could ever be that is being able to recognize the moments that give life purpose and the ability of appreciating them.

Even in *Stephen Hero*, Joyce regarded beauty to be a precursor of experiencing epiphany. Joyce developed his theory by using Thomas Aquinas's elements that are crucial for perceiving beauty which, as mentioned, leads to experiencing epiphany. According to Stephen, the three elements necessary for perceiving beauty are 'integrity, a wholeness, symmetry and radiance' (Joyce, *Stephen Hero*, 1956, p. 217). These elements can essentially be regarded as steps, which in this case an artist goes through in order to achieve epiphany. Before Joyce starts explaining the essence of Thomist elements to Cranly, he gives him an example of how an eye, which usually at the same time sees and not sees many objects, manages to stop its focus on one specific thing and seconds later comprehends its essence. Later in the manuscript Joyce introduces a far more detailed description of how epiphany can be achieved. As already mentioned, the precursor of any Joycean epiphany is beauty, since it is what attracts the eye. A mind manages to fix its vision on one specific thing, which is subtracted from the rest of the world and apprehended in its singular form, this is the first step of the process or integrity. The second step would be apprehending the fact that the thing that mind just envisioned exists and really is a thing or in other words wholeness. As for the third step, Stephen introduces his assumption that what Aquinas meant in 'claritas' is really 'quidditas' or 'whatness' of the thing. "Its soul, its whatness, leaps to us from the vestment of its appearance. The soul of the commonest object, the structure of which is so adjusted, seems to us radiant, the object achieves its epiphany" (Joyce, *Stephen Hero*, 1956, p. 218). The third step is the most important in Joycean theory, because it talks about the result that the mind could expect from undergoing the above-mentioned steps. If we go back to the Joyce's primary definition of the concept, everything that Joyce characterizes as epiphany (suddenness, manifestation, etc.) is embodied in the above-mentioned Thomist elements, the result of which is the eventual apprehension of beauty.

When Joyce first met W.B. Yeats, he showed the poet the sketch-book of epiphanies. Yeats called Joyce's collection immature and certainly he was right. The same type of immaturity can also be found in *Stephen Hero*, which perhaps also explains the reason why Joyce never really finished the novel and instead reworked it. The result of this was *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*.

What exactly creates an artist? Joyce tried to answer this question in *Stephen Hero*: "the artist, he imagined, standing in the position of mediator between the world of his experience and the world of his dreams – a mediator, consequently gifted with twin faculties, a selective faculty and a reproductive faculty" (Joyce, *Stephen Hero*, 1956, p. 82). A combination of these two faculties makes an artist accomplished, since through the combination of these faculties an artist is capable of separating things from each other and discovering significance where it is mostly overlooked. Such an attentive child

is Stephen in *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*. In the book, the above-mentioned is expressed through Stephen's heightened senses. Martin Schiralli in his essay argues that Joyce emphasized Stephen's as artist's psychology through a distinguished ability of having acute sensory feelings. Stephen's recollections of his early childhood seem to be meticulous, because he remembers such details, as the appearance of his father's face, while Dad is telling him a story of a cow, he remembers what it felt like to touch his bed after he wet it, etc. These heightened feelings of perceiving the world around him in a meticulously detailed manner is exactly what makes Stephen an artist. Martin Schirelli adds about the twin faculties: "When sufficiently developed, these faculties produce works of art" (Schiralli, 1989, p. 42).

The idea of feeling and perceiving inexpressible things in the environment is continued in Joyce's aesthetic theory in *A Portrait*, where Stephen tries to articulate differences between emotions and the common grounds that they have with art. Joyce separates two types of emotion and their effect on human mind. According to Stephen, feelings like pity and terror 'arrest' mind, they stupefy it. Additionally, the tragic emotion can comprise of both pity and terror and Stephen's usage of the word 'arrest' can be equated with the condition of stasis. These emotions can be provoked by different kinds of art. Stephen introduces various arts that provoke different types of emotions. For example, art that incites desire or loathing can be referred to as 'kinetic'. Therefore, to Joyce a static emotion is most valuable, because in the condition of stasis "the mind is arrested and raised above desire and loathing" (Joyce, *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, 1921, p. 240). Stephen further argues that improper emotions can only be aroused by improper arts, because they can only be 'physical' and therefore can never be spiritual. This brings Stephen to the assumption that 'beauty expressed by the artist' can never cause kinetic emotion, or emotion that is purely physical. We can argue that through this differentiation Joyce alludes to Platonic idea of horses and the charioteer, where the charioteer represents the logical part of the unity. While horses represent good and bad parts of the unity and only way the charioteer can manage the two horses is when they move harmoniously, which allows the soul or entity to fly (Hofstadter & Kuns, 1964, p. 56). The wings can represent the divine, which in case of Joyce is obviously interpreted as beauty. Thus, metaphorically speaking, Joycean idea of stasis can be seen as 'the good horse', because it is the part of the mind that can only inspire an artist in a beneficial way, while, on the other hand, kinesis is 'the bad horse', which could never inspire an artist in the right way.

"... An image of the beauty we have come to understand – that is art" (Joyce, *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, 1921, p. 242). However, before Joyce would write this sentence in *A Portrait*, he was already obsessed with the idea of beauty and its connection with art when in 1904 he wrote Thomas Aquinas's words as an epigraph of one of his entries in his Pola notebook. "Pulcera sunt quae visa placent", which is translated by him as, "those things are beautiful the apprehension of which pleases" (Scholes & Kain, 1965, p. 81). The same phrase is translated by the author in *A Portrait* as: "that is beautiful apprehension of which pleases" (Joyce, *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, 1921, p. 243). As already mentioned, the Thomist concept of beauty is the most important piece in the puzzle that is Joycean aesthetic theory. The Thomist definition of beauty is perceived by Stephen as something that would never arouse such feelings as desire or loathing, which means that to the protagonist it, in its origin, can only incite stasis and never kinesis.

Although Aquinas certainly was among one of Joyce's certain inspirers, it has to be mentioned that throughout years there has been a lot of arguments whether Joyce willfully distorted Aquinas's ideas or he simply developed his own ideas based on Thomist principles. It has already been made clear throughout years, that Joycean aesthetic theory combines the concepts of beauty, goodness and truth. In Pola notebook Joyce wrote: "Bonum est in quod tendit appetitus" (Scholes & Kain, 1965, p. 81) - and inscribed St. Thomas Aquinas's name under it (the quote is also mentioned in *A Portrait* by Stephen). Joyce also provides his own translation of the mentioned sentence: "the good is that towards the possession of which an appetite tends: the good is the desirable" (Scholes & Kain, 1965, p. 81). While 'Question 5, article 4 of the *Summa Theologiae* states: "Nam bonum proprie respicit appetitum, est enim bonum quod omnia appetunt" (O'Rourke, 2011, p. 99), the quote in *Summa Theologica* is translated as: "Goodness properly relates to the appetite (goodness being what all things desire)" (Aquinas, 1947, p. 33). The same can be demonstrated with the second quote that Stephen uses in order to explain his idea of beauty: "Pulchra sunt quae visa placent" (Joyce, *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, 1921, p. 243). There are several problems with this particular citation, first and foremost, Joyce, when he used it in the Pola notebook, he misspelled the first word and wrote 'pulcera', and changed the spelling of the word in *A Portrait* into 'pulchra'. Moreover, Aquinas's quote seems to be completely different: "Pulchra enim dicuntur quae visa placent" (O'Rourke, 2011, p. 99). Additionally, Joyce substituted original 'dicuntur' with 'sunt'. As it is visible from the original quote, Joyce not once, but three times distorted Aquinas's idea. Once again in the Pola notebook Joyce translates the quote as: "Those things are beautiful apprehension of which pleases" (Scholes & Kain, 1965, p. 81), while the actual translation of Aquinas's quote in *Summa Theologica* is: "For beautiful things are those which please when seen" (Aquinas, 1947, p. 33). There is no doubt in the fact that Joyce knew Latin, however, these misinterpretations do bear questions about whether Joyce really had read Aquinas or not. Fran O'Rourke provides information that he was never taught Aquinas at University College Dublin, thus, we can only assume that Joyce was quoting Aquinas as he remembered it. Additionally, Joyce in the Pola notebook connects the beauty and the truth, which he elaborates in *A Portrait*, it seems that Joyce unknowingly contextualized Aquinas's idea, who said: "As the good denotes that towards which the appetite tends, so the true denotes that towards which the intellect tends" (Aquinas, 1947, p. 121).

There is one more aspect that differentiates Joyce or Stephen and St. Thomas Aquinas and that is their view of art. While both Joyce and Stephen idealized art almost as spiritual subsistence of any human, Aquinas "considered art as subordinate to prudence in the effecting of human ends, and all temporal activity as subject to divine sanction" (Block, 1950, p. 179). According to another hypothesis suggested by Fran O'Rourke about the above mentioned ambiguities, Joyce could have distorted Thomist ideas on purpose to make it look 'naïve', since he was portraying a young, ambitious artist, whose ideas are quite dispersed both in *A Portrait* and *Stephen Hero*. This hypothesis has a lot of validity, especially considering Joyce's fixation on reality and details. Perhaps, Joyce wanted to transfer Stephen's naivety onto his theories as well as to match his personality, which could be the reason why his theories are so disordered and scattered both in *Stephen Hero* and *A Portrait*.

Plato once again appears in Stephen's aesthetic theory, only in this case it seems that the allusion is made to his Theory of Forms. The short idea behind Plato's theory is that there are two realms in the world, the realm of appearances and the realm of ideas or forms. The realm of appearances, which would be our world, people in a very simplistic manner see two similar things and in most cases, not thinking about anything, call them one and the same name. However, the realm of forms is distinguished, because things are perceived there, where the essence of the commonest, the most trivial things are foregrounded and apprehended. Therefore, if a table is simply a table in our world and does not differ from other tables, in the perfect world this table is judged by its 'tableness', in other words, its essence is contemplated and eventually understood. Thus, if a common human being is unable to envision the true form of the object, an artist has to have this quality of apprehending the real, perfect form of everything. This theory perfectly fits the Joycean concept of 'esthetic apprehension' (Joyce, *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, 1921, p. 244)', which in its essence is nothing more than Joycean theory of epiphany.

Regardless of the fact that Joyce no longer uses the word epiphany in his later works, since he substitutes it with apprehension in *A Portrait*, he still sees beauty as its aesthetic end and once again uses Thomist elements to define what an aesthetic end or beauty in its core represents. "Three things are needed for beauty, wholeness, harmony and radiance" (Joyce, *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, 1921, p. 248)." This differentiation is demonstrated by Stephen through the example of butcher's boy's basket and once again presents the process of apprehension as the steps that the artist experiences. The first phase of the process is the perception of 'integritas' or the wholeness of the object, the phase when the artist is able to focus his/her vision on one object and separate it from the rest of the world. On the second phase the mind understands that this object is a thing. "You apprehend it as complex, multiple, divisible, separable, made up of its parts, the result of its parts and their sum, harmonious. That is *consonantia*" (Joyce, *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, 1921, p. 249). The third phase Stephen interprets as "quidditas, the whatness of a thing" (Joyce, *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, 1921, p. 250). What is interesting about this last phase of the apprehension is that it is Platonic in its core. Stephen in both *Stephen Hero* and *A Portrait* mentions that the Thomist term has confused him and after certain contemplation he came to the conclusion that Aquinas used the term in a metaphorical way and in reality radiance describes the 'whatness' of the object which is to be apprehended. As already mentioned, the aesthetic end or the result of the apprehension is the perception of the perfect, real and true form of the object and this can only be achieved in the perfect world. However, Stephen is not a resident of the perfect world, although, being an artist, he has the capacity and disposition to apprehend objects in their true forms.

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A STUDY ON THE APPROACHES OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

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Abstract

Several approaches and numerous theories propounded from time to time have left a huge impact on teaching and acquisition of any second language and as such they are stressed upon as guiding baseline during the process of teaching. This succinct research is intended to explore some of these key theories. Generally, these approaches and theories provide information about how people acquire knowledge of the language and about the conditions which promote successful language learning. This research is aimed at concentrating on the dimensions and demands of three theories: The Creative Construction Theory, the Communicative Language Teaching theory and the Cognitive Approach.

Keywords: Approaches, theories, process of acquisition, learning hypothesis, skillful application.

1. Introduction

Second language acquisition is a process-bound activity and teaching is an art; hence as with all other arts, acquisition of any second language has its own dimensions to be observed, its own principles to be followed and its own criteria to be met. Regarding the acquisition of second language, as with all other branches of arts, different theories and different approaches have been propounded and practised at various phases of history in order to reach the desired results. Theories give birth to practice and practice, in exchange, gives birth to new theories. This cycle continues till the desired results are reached, but it has never been possible to culminate in an ideal situation. The room for reformation ever remains, the need for novelty ever arises and the looking for the ways of effacing the flaws is ever strived. This paper is meant to have a critical look at the three popular theories of this field, namely, the *Creative Construction Theory*, *Communicative Language Teaching* and the *Cognitive Approach*. It is to be noted here that in the real situation of acquisition process of any second language, the success depends upon the artistic blend of the theories and putting them into practice skillfully.

2. Creative Construction Theory or the Naturalistic Approach

The Creative Construction theory or the naturalistic approach is based on the assumption that language acquisition is innately determined and that we are born with a certain system of language that we can call on later. Numerous linguists and methodologists support this innateness hypothesis. Chomsky, who is the leading proponent, claims that each human being possesses a set of innate properties of language which is responsible for the child's mastery of a native language in such a short time (cf. Brown 2002, p. 24). According to Chomsky, this mechanism, which he calls the 'language acquisition device' (LAD), 'governs all human languages, and determines what possible form human language may take' (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen 1982: 6ff).

Noam Chomsky has a very naturalistic or innate view of human nature. According to Chomsky (Soper, 1998), he sees a human being as a biological organism like any other, except that it is endowed with a unique intellectual capacity to think and reason and to express these thoughts and reasons (communication), and that these are contingent upon freedom. He believes that these abilities are internally linked to our genetics just as our visual system, muscular system and all other biological systems. During an interview with Michel Foucault, Chomsky (1971) states:

If this hypothetical Martian were then to observe that every normal human child immediately carries out this creative act and they all do it in the same way and without any difficulty, where as it takes centuries of genius to slowly carry out the creative act of going from evidence to a scientific theory, then this Martian would, if he were rational, conclude that the structure of the knowledge that is acquired in the case of language is basically internal to the human mind.

Some linguists, in particular Stephen Krashen, distinguish between acquisition and learning. Acquisition is supposed to be a subconscious process which leads to fluency. Learning, on the other hand, is a conscious process which shows itself in terms of learning rules and structures. Furthermore, Krashen claims that there are three internal processors that operate when students learn or acquire a second language: the subconscious 'filter' and the 'organizer' as well as the conscious 'monitor' (cf. Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982, p. 11-45). The 'organizer' determines the organization of the learner's language system, the usage of incorrect grammatical constructions as provisional precursors of grammatical structures, the systematical occurrence of errors in the learner's utterances as well as a common order in which structures are learnt. The 'filter' is responsible for the extent to which the learner's acquisition is influenced by social circumstances, such as motivation, and affective factors, such as anger or anxiety. The 'monitor' is responsible for conscious learning. Learners correct the mistakes in their speech according to their age and self-consciousness (cf. Dulay, Burt, & Krashen 1982, p. 45).

3. Krashen's Input Hypothesis

This input hypothesis by Stephen Krashen is one of the most controversial theoretical perspectives in Second Language Acquisition. It is based on a set of five interrelated hypotheses that are listed below:

1. The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

As mentioned above, Krashen claims that there is a difference between acquisition and learning. Acquisition is 'a subconscious and intuitive process of constructing the system of a language, unlike the process used by a child to 'pick up' a language'. Learning is a conscious process in which 'learners attend to form, figure out rules, and are generally aware of their own process' (Brown 2002: 278).

2. The Monitor Hypothesis

The monitor hypothesis has nothing to do with acquisition but with learning. The learned system acts only as an editor or 'monitor', making minor changes and polishing what the acquired system has produced. According to Krashen, three conditions are necessary for monitor use: 1. *sufficient time*, 2. *focus on form*, 3. *knowing the rules* (cf. Lightbown & Spada, 1995, p. 27).

3. The Natural Order Hypothesis

This hypothesis states that we acquire the rules of a language in a certain order that is predictable (cf. Lightbown & Spada, 1995, p. 27). However, this does not mean that every acquirer will acquire grammatical structures in exactly the same order. It states rather that, in general, certain structures tend to be acquired early and others to be acquired late. (cf. Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 28)

4. The Input Hypothesis

This hypothesis states that it is important for the acquirer to understand language that is a bit beyond his or her current level of competence. This means, if a learner is on a level *i*, the input he gets should be $i + 1$. This means that the language that learners are exposed to should be just far enough beyond their current competence that they can understand most of it but still is challenged to make progress (cf. Brown 2002, p. 278).

5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis

The affective filter hypothesis states that it is easier for a learner to acquire a language when he/she is not tense, angry, anxious, or bored. According to Dulay, Burt, & Krashen (1982), performers with optimal attitudes have a lower affective filter. A low filter means that the performer is more open to the input language. (cf. Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 38).

Krashen's assumptions have been hotly disputed. Many psychologists like McLaughlin have criticized Krashen's unclear distinction between subconscious (acquisition) and conscious (learning) processes. According to Brown, second language learning is a process in which varying degrees of learning and of acquisition can both be beneficial, depending upon the learner's own styles and strategies. Furthermore, the $i + 1$ formula that is presented by Krashen raises the question how *i* and 1 should be defined. Moreover, what about the 'silent period'? Krashen states that after a certain time, the silent period, speech will 'emerge' to the learner, which means that the learner will start to speak as a result of

comprehensible input. Nevertheless, there is no information about what will happen to the learners, for whom speech will not 'emerge' and 'for whom the silent period might last forever' (Brown, 2002, p. 281).

4. Communicative Language Teaching Approach

4.1 Background

The communicative approach has its roots in the changes in the British language teaching tradition dating from the late 1960s and more generally in the developments of both Europe and North America. This approach varies from traditional approaches because it is learner-centred. Also, linguists state that there is a need to focus on communicative proficiency in language teaching and that Communicative Language Teaching can fulfill this need. There are numerous reasons for the rapid expansion of Communicative Language Teaching: the work of the Council of Europe in the field of communicative syllabus design; the theoretical ideas of the communicative approach found rapid application by textbook writers; and there was an overwhelming acceptance of these new ideas by British language teaching specialists and curriculum development centers. Proponents of this approach state that the goal of language teaching is communicative competence. Another aim is the development of procedures for the teaching of the four language skills (writing, reading, speaking, listening). Moreover, the four skills build the basis of the interdependence of language and communication (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 64-66).

According to Littlewood (1981), one of the most important aspects of 'communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language' (p. 1). One of the most important aspects is pair and group work. Learners should work in pairs or groups and try to solve problematic task with their available language knowledge. Howatt also distinguishes between a weak and a strong version of Communicative Language Teaching. The weak version, which seems to be standard by now, stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes. The strong version claims that language is acquired through communication (Howatt, 1984, p. 279).

As mentioned above, there was and still is a wide acceptance of the communicative approach. This approach is similar to the more general learning perspective usually referred to as 'Learning by doing' or 'the experience approach' (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 68). Generally, Communicative Language Teaching focuses on communicative and contextual factors in language use and it is learner-centered and experience-based. There are many supporters but also numerous opponents, who criticize this approach and the relatively varied ways in which it is interpreted and applied. Nevertheless, it is a theory of language teaching that starts from a communicative model of language and language use, and that seeks to translate this into a design for an instructional system, for materials, for teacher and learner roles and behaviours, and for classroom activities and techniques (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 69).

4.2 Theory of language

A central aspect in Communicative Language Teaching is communicative competence. Hymes (1972) defines competence as what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community. This includes both knowledge and ability for language use. In his book *Teaching Language as Communication*, Widdowson (1978) presented a view of the relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values in text and discourse. Moreover, Canale and Swain (1980) found four dimensions of communicative competence that are defined as; 1. *grammatical competence*, 2. *sociolinguistic competence*, 3. *discourse competence*, and 4. *strategic competence*.

4.3 Theory of learning

Although there is little discussion of learning theory, there are still some elements that, according to Richards and Rodgers (1986), can be defined as communication principles, task principles and meaningful principles. The first one includes activities that involve real communication which are supposed to promote learning. The second element describes activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks which are also supposed to promote learning. The last one states that language which is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process. Of great importance is meaningful and authentic language use (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 72).

5. The Cognitive Approach

Cognitive psychologists claim that one of the main features of second language acquisition is the building up of a knowledge system that can eventually be called on automatically for speaking and understanding. At first, learners have to build up a general knowledge of the language they want to understand and produce. After a lot of practice and experience they will be able to use certain parts of their knowledge very quickly and without realizing that they did so. Gradually, this use becomes automatic and the learners may focus on other parts of the language. The cognitive theory is a relative newcomer to second language acquisition and there has been only a few empirical studies about this approach so far. Although we know that the processes of automatizing and restructuring are central to the approach, it is still not clear what kinds of structures will be automatized through practice and what will be restructured. Also it cannot predict which first language structures will be transferred and which will not. As far as the phenomenon of 'restructuring' is concerned, psychologists state that things that we know and use automatically may not necessarily be learned through a gradual build-up of automaticity but they may be based on the interaction of knowledge we already have. They may also be based on the acquisition of new knowledge which somehow 'fits' into an existing system and may, in fact, 'restructure' this system (Lightbown & Spada, 1995, p. 25).

5.1 McLaughlin's Attention-Processing Model

This model connects processing mechanisms with categories of attention to formal properties of language. Consequently there are four cells. The first one refers to 'focal automatic processes' like the student's performance in a test situation or a violin player performing in a concert. The second one characterizes 'focal controlled processes' such as the learner's performance based on formal rule learning. The next cell refers to 'peripheral controlled processes' such as the phenomenon of learning skills without any instruction. The last cell focuses on 'peripheral automatic processes' and can be related to a learner's performance in situations of communication. 'Controlled processes are "capacity limited and temporary", and automatic processes are "relatively permanent"' (McLaughlin et al., 1983, p.142). Automatic processes mean processing in a more accomplished skill which means that the brain is able to deal with numerous bits of information simultaneously. According to McLaughlin (1990), 'the automatizing of this multiplicity of data is accomplished by a process of restructuring in which the components of a task are co-ordinated, integrated, or reorganized into new units, thereby allowing the ...old components to be replaced by a more efficient procedure' (p. 118).

5.2 Implicit and Explicit Models

According to Brown and other linguists, there is a distinction between implicit and explicit linguistic knowledge. Explicit knowledge means 'that a person knows about language and the ability to articulate those facts in some way' (Brown, 2002, p. 285). Implicit knowledge is 'information that is automatically and spontaneously used in language tasks. [...] Implicit processes enable a learner to perform language but not necessarily to cite rules governing the performance.' (Brown, 2002, p. 285) Instead of implicit and explicit Bialostok uses the terms 'unanalyzed' and 'analyzed' knowledge. Unanalyzed knowledge is described as 'the general form in which we know most things without being aware of the structure of that knowledge; on the other hand, learners are overtly aware of the structure of analyzed knowledge' (Brown 2002, p. 286). Furthermore, these models also distinguish between automatic and non-automatic processing which is built on McLaughlin's conception of automaticity. Brown states that 'automaticity refers to the learner's relative access to the knowledge. Knowledge that can be retrieved easily and quickly is automatic. Knowledge that takes time and effort to retrieve is non-automatic' (Brown 2002, p. 286). Another significant fact in second language performance is 'time'. It takes learners a different amount of time until they produce language orally.

6. Conclusion

The discussion brings to the conclusion that all theories of language learning discussed in this paper are so inter-related and so inter-influential that many teachers prefer to use classroom methods which may have a link with all three approaches. It has been observed that teachers who are native speakers prefer to use Krashen's Natural Approach more than others. But this approach has been hotly disputed and it seems that it took a back seat in the foreign language

learning classroom during the last few years. Communicative Language Teaching has established itself in the last twenty years. It somehow builds the basis of language learning and can now be found in almost every language class and language schoolbook, whereas the Cognitive Approach is a rather new approach and therefore not very widely applied. All in all, a teacher should be aware of different theories and approaches and use them as a basis for teaching suitable according to the situation. In short it will not be out of place to stress that the value of a theory depends upon its skilful application to obtain the desired motives.

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SEMANTIC RELATEDNESS VERSUS ESP VOCABULARY RETENTION

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Abstract

Teaching semantically related sets of vocabulary is common practice among ESP instructors. The current research was conducted to compare teaching vocabulary items through related and unrelated sets to Iranian ESP students. This study was conducted with 90 university students over 4 weeks. To have a comparison between the effects of presenting semantically related words and unrelated words, an experimental approach using two groups of participants (experimental and control) was employed. All the participants learned the same 35 English words through one of the two methods (the experimental group was taught using related vocabulary instructional method while the control group was taught using unrelated clustering method). Then, the participants were asked to complete a recall matched post-test to measure the impact of both techniques on learning. The results showed that while both techniques were effective in acquiring new words, presenting words in unrelated sets in ESP classes seems to be more effective in comparison with presenting words in related sets.

Keywords: Semantics, semantically related sets, semantically unrelated sets, vocabulary, ESP

1. Introduction

Defining semantics is a difficult task. For instance, despite the fact that Wittgenstein (1953) claims that it is impossible to give the meaning for some expressions, some scholars have taken semantics to apply to an 'internalized component of a speaker's linguistic competence in a particular language', as well as to the linguistic theory about this internal semantic

competence or others scholars have taken it to be a 'theory about the semantic facts of a language without any commitment to its being a theory of semantic competence' (Davis & Gillon, p. 2004).

Semantics can be defined as dealing with the meaning of the constituents in linguistic philosophy (Klu & Kaburise, 2014) in spite of differences in its definitions. Meaning is believed to be the most obvious feature of words and expressions, or more generally language. Meaning is believed to be quite complex to study because of its subjective nature (Klu & Kaburise, 2014).

Regarding viewpoint on semantics, it can be sad that there are six main theories in lexical semantics as historical-philosophical semantics, structuralist semantics, generativist semantics, neostructuralist semantics and cognitive semantics (Geeraerts, 2009) that is binary position with sentential semantics.

Semantic relatedness and semantic similarity are one of the domains of semantics that are sometimes used interchangeably. According to Ballatore, Bertolotto & Wilson (2014), semantic relatedness includes any relation between two terms, while semantic similarity only includes "is a" relations. For example, "car" is similar to "bus", but is also related to "road" and "driving". Regarding the differences, concept of semantic similarity is more specific than semantic relatedness, as the latter includes concepts as antonymy and meronymy, while similarity does not (Budanitsky & Hirst, 2001). Semantics relatedness has been studied from different points of view. One of the domains of semantic relatedness research fields is teaching it as conducted by Hamada (2015). Gholami & Khezrlou (2014), Sunitha & Aghila (2013), Postma (2013) among others. Some works put questions like: should EFL Teachers Present Vocabulary in Semantically Related Sets? (Ibarrola & Hidalgo Gordo, 2015) and discuss issues like necessities of semantically related sets and conclude that presenting words in unrelated sets seems to be more effective while both techniques successfully help the learners to acquire new words in an attempt to show how both semantically related/ unrelated sets are effect.

To have a better understanding of the issue, a review of literature is presented in the following part.

2. Review of literature

A review of literature shows that lexical collocations are investigated by many scholars as Ibarrola & Hidalgo Gordo (2015), Thompson & Diani (2015), Erten and Tekin (2008), Finkbeiner & Nicol (2003), Schneider, Healy, & Bourne (1998), Tinkham (1993, 1997) and Waring (1997) among others.

Heidari & Araghi (2015) argue that clustering is more effective than pictures in comparing the effects of songs and pictures on Iranian EFL Learners' L2 vocabulary acquisition. This study confirms that through using clusters of words we can claim that the relevant schema is activated in effective manner.

Ibarrola & Hidalgo Gordo (2015) in a study with proposing a question on how EFL teachers present vocabulary in classroom?; semantically related sets or semantically unrelated sets?, shows that while both techniques (semantically related and unrelated sets) successfully help the EFL learners to learn new general words. This study focuses on EFL among

school students. This study shows that its findings are in accordance with other works (Erten and Tekin, 2008; Finkbeiner and Nicol, 2003; Schneider, Healy, and Bourne, 1998; Tinkham, 1993, 1997; Waring, 1997).

Ghaderi & Afshinfar (2014) that studies the effects of animated versus static funny pictures on Iranian intermediate EFL students' intake and retention of idioms shows that using animated funny pictures could develop intermediate students' intake and retention of idioms.

Zhang (2012) shows that there are more prototypical examples at low proficiency levels in analysis of "wh" sentences in EFL textbooks in Chinese EFL textbooks, elicited native and nonnative speaker data and written native and non-native speaker corpora. It also shows that when teaching the interrogative, textbooks focus is mainly on grammatical words, particularly at the beginners' level. It indicates that the analysis of "wh" sentences taken from Chinese speaking learners of English and expert users of English shows that the prototypical structure is completely common in both sets of data, despite the fact that native speakers are eager to use 'more prefabricated chunks of language'. Another point about this study is the fact that the analysis of "wh" sentences from native speakers and non-native speakers' written corpora regarding the study suggests that subordinate clauses are seen dominantly in both corpora, except for the word "why" in non-native speakers' data.

Mukoroli (2011) which focuses on effective vocabulary teaching strategies for the English for academic purposes ESL Classroom proves that 'most ELLs have a deficit in second language vocabulary and teachers have a limited time for direct instruction'. Also, some ESL teachers have a 'difficulty in choosing whether to concentrate on developing vocabulary or promoting extensive reading' and 'there was a lack of formative assessment in one of the ESL classes'. Considering these issues, the study proposes some effective vocabulary teaching strategies in the English for Academic Purposes classrooms.

Al-Jaboori (2008) considers that the variation of modal interpretation in the textbooks and by the EFL teachers is importantly caused by very short contexts. This study confirms that textbooks reflect 'individual or small groups' perceptions of modal interpretation'. The finding of this study proposes some suggestions as considering 'simultaneous interpretations when discussing context instead of prescribing one meaning for a contextualized modal'.

3. Objectives

Teaching vocabulary items through related and unrelated sets to students is of the most important domain as of linguistics in general and EFL scholars in particular. Investigating learning vocabulary items through related and unrelated sets to 60 university students over 4 weeks, this study seeks to reach the following objectives:

1. Have a comparison between the effects of presenting semantically related words and unrelated words.
2. Study similarities and differences of teaching both related and unrelated sets to students
3. Compare the sets.

While both techniques were effective in acquiring new words, presenting words in unrelated sets in ESP classes seems to be more effective in comparison with presenting words in related sets.

4. Significant of study

Teaching vocabularies in both techniques (semantically related sets versus semantically unrelated sets) are very important part of semantics in general and ELT in particular. A review of literature shows that most works on semantically related/unrelated sets on in general vocabularies as in (Ibarrola & Hidalgo Gordo, 2015) focusing on ELT or Mukoroli (2011) was focusing on ESL. The current study aims to consider ESP semantically related/unrelated sets in the context of Iran.

5. Research questions

Based on the mentioned objectives, the current study strives to answer the following research questions:

1. Does semantically related set of specific vocabulary develop Iranian ESP learners' short term retention?
2. Does semantically unrelated set of specific vocabulary develop Iranian ESP learners' short term retention?
3. Which technique is more effective in acquiring new words?

Hypotheses of the paper are:

1. Semantically related set of specific vocabulary develops Iranian ESP learners' short term retention.
2. Semantically unrelated set of specific vocabulary develops Iranian ESP learners' short term retention?
3. Both techniques are effective in acquiring new words in ESP classes.

6. Method

As an initial step, a standard placement test designed by the authors was carried out to ensure about the subject's homogeneity in proficiency level. To be administered to ascertain that the subjects were not familiar with the ESP vocabularies, a trail to criterion test was administered.

Two groups of students were chosen to answer matching test items for pretest and an immediate recall posttest quiz was done in the study. Two different groups of subjects were tested on two types of clustering namely semantically related and semantically unrelated instruction. Each group of candidates was given one minute to answer each item. The vocabularies applied in the study were listed into two groups; 50 related and 50 unrelated words.

6.1 Procedure

About the homogeneity of the participant, they were senior students of Economics.

To pilot the participant, 10 ESP university students from diverse linguistic backgrounds were chosen. The participants of the study are 60 university students majored in Economics. Two authors of the paper administered the tests on the students. The students were analyzed in two groups: 1) Group one: semantically-related clustering 2) Group two: semantically unrelated clustering (SU).

About 30 words were chosen in two subcategories as semantically related and semantically unrelated sets. These 60 words were selected from words which were unknown to the students. Relevant pictures were presented in class and to elicit the vocabulary.

For elicitation, each student was given a set of flashcards and the instructors were asked to show the words and picture to the students. At the end of each the sessions a matching test was taken from students to assess their short term recall.

7. Results

Table 1 shows the results of post-test scores for both groups in both treatments.

Table 1: Rate of correct words in post-tests in both groups

	Unrelated ESP vocabulary set	Related ESP vocabulary set
Group one	60.66%	60.73%
Group two	60.06%	60.16%

As far as table 1 is concerned, group one and group two have scored over 50 per cent in both tests. It can be meant that both techniques successfully help the learners to acquire new ESP words o the on hand and presenting ESP words in unrelated sets seems to be more effective for vocabulary learning on the other hand. To have better understanding of the issue, let's see the results of each individual in detail.

Table 2: Post-test individual scores

Group one Post-test individual scores			Group two Post-test individual scores		
number	unrelated ESP set	related ESP set	number	unrelated ESP set	related ESP set
1	10	9	1	9	6

2	5	6	2	6	8
3	6	6	3	6	5
4	8	7	4	7	7
5	5	6	5	6	7
6	6	5	6	7	5
7	4	5	7	3	5
8	7	5	8	7	5
9	8	7	9	10	7
10	3	4	10	3	5
11	9	8	11	9	8
12	10	10	12	8	10
13	10	10	13	8	10
14	4	3	14	6	5
15	6	6	15	7	5
16	7	5	16	0	0
17	8	7	17	8	7
18	8	9	18	8	7
19	8	7	19	8	6
20	5	7	20	7	6
21	5	5	21	4	5
22	4	3	22	6	5
23	4	3	23	2	3
24	4	5	24	4	5
25	9	7	25	7	7
26	10	9	26	9	7
27	10	9	27	10	6
28	0	1	28	7	8
29	9	7	29	10	7
30	8	6	30	10	8
Mean score	6.66	6.06	Mean score	6.73	6.16

Post-test individual scores show that in both groups most learners obtained better scores in the unrelated set in comparison with related set. A look at the score show that only six learners did better with the related set in group one and ten learners in group two. As it is seen in table two, mean score of post-test individual scores in group one is 6.66 in unrelated ESP set and 6.06 in related ESP set while the respective means for mean of post-test individual scores in group two are 6.73 for unrelated ESP set and 6.16 for related ESP set.

Some participants obtained the same score in both related and unrelated sets of ESP vocabularies. It can be sad that both sets have high level of effectiveness for these participants and it also can be argued that their ESP vocabulary level or expositions to the specific ESP sets are different from other students. Also, one participant could not answer the questions. Regarding what is mentioned, there are differences between two groups in acquiring related and unrelated vocabulary sets. Of course, this fact does not mean that there is not significant point between them rather as far as the obtained results are concerned, presentation of vocabulary in semantically unrelated sets over the presentation in semantically related sets is more effective among ESP learners.

8. Discussion

As it was mentioned earlier, the current study is conducted towards the presentation of new vocabulary to ESP learners in university level. Findings of this study are in accordance with some other contexts like Greek, Spanish among others (Ibarrola & Hidalgo Gordo, 2015; Papathanasiou, 2008). Of course, the study suggests reevaluating the same practice of words presenting in semantically related and unrelated sets to shed more light on the issue. Also, this study confirms that both techniques seem to be effective although one is more effective than the other. This finding of the study is in accordance with Ibarrola & Hidalgo Gordo (2015) but is not in accordance with other studies as Tinkham (1993, 1997) claiming that presentations of semantically related vocabulary sets impede rather than facilitate learning and therefore should be discouraged.

The current study suggests that teaching ESP new vocabularies in both sets has implication for ELT as well as ESP instructors. That is, when presenting semantically related sets, the instructors could also provide unrelated terms in their language classes despite the fact that in most EFL and ESP textbooks contain a bulk of semantically related words.

Based on what is mentioned, we can answer the proposed research question in the following way:

1. Semantically related set of specific vocabulary develops Iranian ESP learners' short term retention.
2. Semantically unrelated set of specific vocabulary develops Iranian ESP learners' short term retention?
3. While both techniques were effective in acquiring new words, presenting words in unrelated sets in ESP classes seems to be more effective in comparison with presenting words in related sets.

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Appendixes

Table 1: Rate of correct words in post-tests in both groups

	Unrelated ESP vocabulary set	Related ESP vocabulary set
Group one	60.66%	60.73%
Group two	60.06%	60.16%

Table 2: Post-test individual scores

Group one Post-test individual scores			Group two Post-test individual scores		
number	unrelated ESP set	related ESP set	number	unrelated ESP set	related ESP set
1	10	9	1	9	6
2	5	6	2	6	8
3	6	6	3	6	5
4	8	7	4	7	7
5	5	6	5	6	7
6	6	5	6	7	5
7	4	5	7	3	5
8	7	5	8	7	5
9	8	7	9	10	7
10	3	4	10	3	5
11	9	8	11	9	8
12	10	10	12	8	10
13	10	10	13	8	10
14	4	3	14	6	5
15	6	6	15	7	5
16	7	5	16	0	0
17	8	7	17	8	7
18	8	9	18	8	7
19	8	7	19	8	6
20	5	7	20	7	6
21	5	5	21	4	5
22	4	3	22	6	5
23	4	3	23	2	3
24	4	5	24	4	5
25	9	7	25	7	7
26	10	9	26	9	7



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27	10	9	27	10	6
28	0	1	28	7	8
29	9	7	29	10	7
30	8	6	30	10	8
Mean score	6.66	6.06	Mean score	6.73	6.16

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LEXICAL COLLOCATIONS USED IN IRANIAN VERSUS ENGLISH ELEMENTARY TEXTBOOKS

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Abstract

Habitual co-occurrence of individual lexical items is defined as collocation. It plays a crucial role in language learning. The current study was aimed to examine the distribution of lexical collocations in two selected series of general English textbooks; English for the schools Prospect (Iranian elementary English text book) versus *Let's go* series. As far as the results are concerned, two types of lexical collocations, verb + noun and adjective + noun, were much more common in series than other types. Another finding of the study regarding lexical collocations was that in some situations textbooks do not refer to actual use of language by native speakers in choosing and presenting collocations.

Keywords: collocation; lexical collocation; corpus

1. Introduction

Greece is believed to be the starting point of studies of collocations that dates back to 2300 years ago. Giving a definition of collocation is not as simple as it is supposed to be. It can be defined as "a sequence of one or more consecutive words that has characteristics of a syntactic and semantic unit, and whose exact and unambiguous meaning or connotation cannot be derived directly from the meaning or connotation of its components" (Manning & Schütze, 1999, p. 83).

Regarding studies related to collocation study in Iran, the first studies may refer but not limited to: Mollanazar (1990); Safavi (1382); and Afrashi. (1378). Studies related to collocations in general and lexical collocations in particular may cover numerous topics, such as phraseology as propounded by Michael Halliday (1966), collocation extraction (Manning & Schütze, 1999) or other related fields. One of the most interesting domains of collocation studies is in textbooks or other

pedagogical pathways as in Ahangari & Zununi Vahed (2013), Prlando (2009), Wang & Good (2008; 2007). In works done on lexical collocations that cover related issues little attention has been made to the Textbooks especially lexical collocations used in Iranian versus English elementary textbooks as a comparative study.

To have a better understanding of the issue a review of literature is presented in the following part.

2. Review of literature

A review of literature shows that lexical collocations are investigated by many scholars as Agah & Soori (2015), Iranmanesh & Azadmanesh (2015), Molavi, Koosha, & Hosseini (2014), Shahbaiki & Yousefi (2013) and Nofal (2012) among others.

Agah & Soori (2015) compared collocations in Farsi and English to elaborate more on cultural as well as linguistic difference between them. The study concluded that as far as ELT is concerned, collocations should be learned and acquired when someone will learn the foreign language since "collocation" has linguistic and cultural bases. For instance, the authors recommended that students are recommended to memorize the definitions of collocations, and be aware of the differences of them in English and Farsi.

Iranmanesh & Azadmanesh (2015) studied translations of Adjective-Noun, Noun-Noun collocations from English into Persian. This study investigated different translation strategies of collocations of the famous novel, "Great Gatsby", from English into Persian using "Vinay and Darbelnet's model" to find the used strategies. Having compared 340 collocations according to Benson's and Ilson's model the study showed that the employed strategies in translation are Equivalence, Literal Translation, Modulation, Transposition and Borrowing. It also proved that the most frequently employed strategy was Literal, though the occurrence of other strategies was evident.

Molavi, Koosha, & Hosseini (2014) studied the distribution of lexical collocations in three selected series of general English textbooks, through analyzing, face to face and telephone conversation scripts. This study showed that especial attention had been paid to specific types of lexical collocations noun + verb and adjective + noun on the one hand and the frequency of collocations in the studied books could not have an affective on learners' collocations learning.

Shahbaiki & Yousefi (2013) conducted a comparative study on Farsi and English collocation translation with an attempt study the translation of Adjective-Noun collocations from English into Persian based on two different translations of collocations of the famous novel, Jane Ayre, from English into Persian. Shahbaiki & Yousefi (2013) showed that Employed procedures are Equivalence, Literal Translation, Modulation, and Transposition in both translations. This study also confirmed that Equivalence emerged as the most conspicuous procedure in Afshar's translation and literal translation was the most frequent one in Bahrami's translation.

Nofal (2012) declared that the arrangement of the material related to collocations is often idiosyncratic and unsystematic in Arabic dictionaries and there is much that is obsolete and no longer relevant to Modern Standard Arabic. Mentioning some weak points of Arabic dictionaries, this study confirmed that some contemporary bilingual dictionaries

contain a certain amount of collocation information that is not systematic which could assist learners of Arabic. This studies compared Arabic and English dictionaries from the view point of collocations as concludes that ‘there is no single modern efficient Arabic –Arabic dictionary anywhere in the Arab –world comparable in quality and ease of reference to Webster’s for example.’ This study confirms that a detailed study of contemporary Standard Arabic at various levels of language is vital specially the lexical, ‘with particular attention to collocational usage’.

As far as literature review is concerned, scholars have tried to study lexical collocations in different contexts, but little attention has been paid to considering lexical collocations in terms of their types and frequencies in Iranian versus English elementary textbooks.

3. Objectives

English books taught in Iranian languages institutes play a significant role in elementary level of language literacy. *Let’s go* is among the most wildly used reference taught in Iran on the one hand and *English for the schools Prospect* is a newly published book with the same purpose for the Iranian students. Investigating face to face conversations from the series of general English textbooks (*Let’s go* versus *English for the schools Prospect*) this study seeks to prepare a set of lexical collocations to reach the following objectives:

1. Consider lexical collocations in terms of their types and frequencies in the selected books.
2. Study similarities and differences of lexical collocations applied in the corpus.
2. Compare the selected textbook series.

4. Research questions

Based on the mentioned objectives, the current study strives to answer the following research questions:

1. What types of lexical collocations are seen in the textbooks series of this study?
2. How are the selected textbooks different in terms of representation of lexical collocations?

5. Method

The current study is focused on the analysis of the occurrence of lexical collocation entries in the mentioned textbooks.

5.1 Corpus

The corpus of the present study contains *English for the schools Prospect* (Iranian elementary English textbook) and *Let’s go* series.

5.2 Procedure

To find answers for the posed research questions, the researchers studied the selected textbooks in order to analyze the occurrence of lexical collocation entries. To achieve this goal the following data collection process is done: counting,

grouping, and further recording collocational units. To see if any series of words is a collocation, after studying all transcripts in each series and underlining all possible lexical collocations, they are checked and confirmed according to the following references:

1. Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2009).
2. Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2003).

6. Results

Top ten lexical collocations observed in *English for the schools Prospect* are: last name, how do, who is, first name, fill out, nice to meet you, English teacher, how are you, good morning excuse me. Regarding collocations obtained in *English for the schools Prospect*, some co-occurrences of individual lexical as "Wh + do/be" (take who do/ who is for instance) are deleted from the list of collocations gotten from the text or in some cases some other co-occurrences of individual lexical as "fill out" are not included in the list either since they are seen in the instruction and practices of the book. Based on what is mentioned, frequencies of lexical collocations of the present study corpus are seen in the following table:

Table 1. Top six lexical collocations used in *English for the schools Prospect*.

number	Lexical collocation	Frequency	type of lexical collocations
1	last name	11	Adj + N
2	first name	9	Adj + N
3	nice to meet you	8	Adj + to + V
4	English teacher	8	Adj + N
5	good morning	5	Adj + N
6	excuse me	3	V + N

As it can be seen in the table, two types of lexical collocations, Adj + noun (take "last name" for instance) is more common in *English for the schools Prospect* than other types. Adj + to + V (take "nice to meet you" for instance) is another set of collocations and V + N is the last collocation set seen in the text. To have a better understanding of the issue, the set of collocation types are presented in the following: Top three lexical collocation types obtained from *English for the schools Prospect*:

1. Adj + N = 72/72%
2. Adj + to + V = 18/18%

3. Adj + N = 6/81%

According to the presented results, lexical collocations of Adj + N is more common in *English for the schools Prospect* than other types with 72/72% while Adj + to + V got 18/18% that ranked second collocation type and Adj + N with 6/81% was ranked the third in *English for the schools Prospect*. In comparison with *English for the schools Prospect* the other part of the current study namely *Let's go* represents different lexical collocation pattern as it is seen in the following:

Table 2. Top six lexical collocations used in *Let's go*.

number	Lexical collocation	Frequency	type of lexical collocations
1	thanks you	4	V + N
2	nice to meet you	4	Adj + to + V
3	take out your book	3	V + pro
4	favorite color	8	Adj + N
5	new doll	2	Adj + N
6	32 verbs	each once	V + N (pro)

As it can be seen in the table, V + N (pro) is the most common type of lexical collocation seen in *Let's go*. To have a better understanding of the issue, the set of collocation types are presented in the following: Top three lexical collocation types obtained from *Let's go*:

1. V + N (or pro) = 73/58%
2. Adj + N = 15/09%
3. Adj + to + N = 7/54%
4. Adj + N = 3/77%

According to the presented results, lexical collocations of V + N (or pro) is more common in *Let's go* than other types with 73/58% while Adj + N got 15/09% that ranked second collocation type and Adj + to + N with 7/54% was ranked the third and Adj + N with 3/77% in *Let's go*.

7. Conclusion

Comparing *Let's go* versus *English for the Schools Prospect* shows that the former is a kind of localized form of the latter. That is, pictures and names chosen in *English for the Schools Prospect* are completely Iranized. For instance, lesson in both *Let's go* in *English for the schools Prospect* is about greeting that in the former Scott, Kate and Andy are greeting at a school context while in the latter which is a school context, a teacher named Mr. Ahmad Karimi in introducing himself to

his class and one of the student's name is Ali Mohammadi in one part of unit one and another female teacher named Mr. Moradi and Kimia Komijani have the same introductory dialogue in the other part of the unit. Regarding the pictures and names, *Let's go* has chosen the names and dress code according to Western or European costume while in *English for the Schools Prospect* females are wearing hijab (a veil worn by Muslim women in the presence of adult males outside of their immediate family, which usually covers the head and chest).

About distribution of lexical collocations in two selected books, the authors of the books have chosen different lexical collocations to teach English. *English for the schools Prospect* has picked Adj + N as its dominant lexical collocation pattern. It is worth mentioning that in addition to Adj + N, other lexical collocation patterns of this book are as Adj + N, Adj + to + N and Adj + N successively. In another word, *English for the schools Prospect* has chosen lexical collocation patterns that start with an "Adjective". Meanwhile, the authors of the *Let's go* has picked V + N (or pro) as its dominant lexical collocation pattern. Of course, the next set lexical collocation patterns of this book are as Adj + N, Adj + to + N and Adj + N. As it seen, this book has the combination of both "Verb first" and "Adjective first" lexical collocation patterns.

It can be argued that both books have picked different lexical collocations but the pattern that is used in *English for the schools Prospect* is lexical collocation patterns that start with just "Adjectives" but the *Let's go* has picked both Verb first" and "Adjective first" lexical collocation patterns. In another word, the variety of lexical collocations patterns in *Let's go* is higher than *English for the schools Prospect*.

Another finding of the study regarding lexical collocations was that collocations used in this study text books are mostly refer to actual use of language by native speakers. This finding of the study is no accordance with Molavi, Koosha, & Hosseini, (2014) that proclaimed that "in some situations, textbooks do not refer to actual use of language by native speakers in choosing and presenting collocations" when considering distribution of lexical collocations in three selected series of general English textbooks (Interchange, American Headway and American File), through analyzing, face to face and telephone conversation scripts.

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Appendix

Table 1. Top six lexical collocations used in *English for the schools Prospect*.

number	Lexical collocation	Frequency	type of lexical collocations
1	last name	11	Adj + N
2	first name	9	Adj + N

3	nice to meet you	8	Adj + to + V
4	English teacher	8	Adj + N
5	good morning	5	Adj + N
6	excuse me	3	V + N

Table 2. Top six lexical collocations used in *Let's go*.

number	Lexical collocation	Frequency	type of lexical collocations
1	thanks you	4	V + N
2	nice to meet you	4	Adj + to + V
3	take out your book	3	V + pro
4	favorite color	8	Adj + N
5	new doll	2	Adj + N
6	32 verbs	each once	V + N (pro)

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REPRESENTSTION OF CULTURE IN THE EFL CLASSROOM: CHALENGES AND REMEDIES

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Abstract

This paper addresses one of the key TEFL issues, namely cultural representation in the EFL classroom. It sets off by critically examining the major pitfalls and limitations of cultural representation in a sample of global materials which have dominated the TEFL landscape over the past few decades. These include (a) heavy bias in favor of the target culture, (b) presentation of an unrealistic stereotyped view of the English culture, (c) under-representation of substantial ethnic groups of the English-speaking societies (d) failure to address serious political and social issues of the target society (e) cultural inappropriateness of some topics to learners in several EFL contexts, (f) inclusion of topics that do not relate to EFL learners who often find such topics 'demotivating', and (g) lack of intercultural activities. The paper then suggests some remedies that aim to counteract those defects. Among these are integrating the learner's native culture in the classroom through the provision of supplementary materials, enhancing intercultural competence by creating opportunities for learners to compare and contrast native and target cultures and organizing such class activities as group discussion and role play that address, both directly and indirectly, some of the aforementioned deficiencies in the representation of the target culture. In the implementation of the suggested remedies, the paper stresses on the need to adhere to the structure of the TEFL syllabus used at the level concerned as well as to consider such psycholinguistic and pedagogical principles of grading, sequencing and recycling in the provision of supplementary texts and exercises.

Keywords: language; culture; intercultural communication; TEFL global materials

1. Introduction

The present study addresses the representation of culture in the EFL classroom with a special reference to global materials that are used in the Arab context. Although numerous definitions of culture have been proposed in various disciplines, there exists no single definition that satisfies everyone (Tang, 2006). For the purposes of this study, culture is defined, following Brown (2007, p.188), as a way of life, the context within which people exist, think, feel and relate to others. In this sense, culture includes the ideas, customs, skills, arts and tools that characterize a certain group of people in a given period of time. As regards the relationship between language and culture, it is almost universally agreed that an inseparable link binds the two. The fact that language expresses, embodies and symbolizes cultural reality clearly shows

that language and culture are bound together (Kramsch, 1998). However, it was not until the mid-1980s that culture was widely taught in ESL/EFL classes in which instructional materials play an essential role in imparting cultural knowledge with a special focus on the target culture. Meanwhile, the growing role of English as an international language in recent years and its widespread use as a means of communication by culturally heterogeneous groups in different communities across the globe added a significant dimension that focuses on the teaching of English for intercultural communication. According to Moran (2001, p.5), intercultural communication may be defined as *"the ability to enter other cultures and communicate effectively and appropriately, establish and maintain relationships, carry out tasks with people of these cultures."* Prompted by the rise of Communicative Language Teaching, researchers have highlighted the need for writers of culture-related teaching materials to accord a paramount importance to the development of the EFL learner's intercultural communicative competence (Alptekin, 2002). The latter, as Deardoff (2004, p.194) states, refers to *"the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills and attitudes"*. Some scholars (Byram, 1997) have proposed making the development of the learner's intercultural communicative competence one of the goals of foreign language study.

2. Studies on The Cultural Content of EFL Materials: An Overview

Numerous studies have been published over the past three decades or so (Byram 1989, 1997; Clarke & Clarke, 1990; Sleeter & Grant, 1991; Kramsch, 1993, 1996; Pennycook, 1994; Canagarajah, 1999; Shi, 2000; Moran, 2001; Fenner, 2001; Gray 2002, 2010; Widdowson, 2005; Heinrich, 2005; Taylor-Mendes, 2009; Reimann 2009; Shin, Eslami, & Chen, 2011; Yuen, 2011; Forman, 2014; Hilliard, 2014) which addressed, in varying degrees of detail and depth, various aspects of the cultural content of EFL materials. These studies have focused on the following five main areas: portrayal of the cultural character of the target community, representations of gender, race, class and ethnicity, cultural beliefs, values and attitudes, presentation of content through the intercultural perspective and provision of sufficient and effective intercultural activities, and representation of the learner's own culture. Researchers of some studies have further made several suggestions aimed at rectifying what they believe to be the drawbacks and limitations of the cultural content in the EFL materials investigated.

Regarding the cultural character of the target community, EFL books have been criticized in their portrayal of the target culture as a "tourist culture" by focusing on travel, famous landmarks and the new exciting experiences of visitors abroad. The negative aspects of travel as experienced by travelers such as the prejudices and discrimination against foreigners are never addressed thus giving learners an overly positive, unrealistic view of the target culture (Hilliard, 2014). However, the most significant criticism of EFL textbooks is related to the biased and stereotypical representation of gender, race, culture, class and ethnicity. One facet of this problem is that despite attempts in recent years to include a more multicultural content in these materials, there has been a tendency to overemphasize Western in particular North American and British cultures while other cultures are either under-represented or unrepresented. For example, Yuen

(2011) who examined two English language textbooks used in Hong Kong found that Asian and African cultures were underrepresented. Even when non-Western cultures are represented, a stereotypical view of such cultures is discerned. This has been demonstrated by Reimann (2009) who made a critical analysis of nine popular EFL textbooks five of which are international used in Japan found that such books reinforce the false belief that the Japanese have a natural difficulty in international situations because cultures are different and unique. A related aspect of the problem is that EFL books tend to communicate the values of individualism and materialism which are associated with white male North American and British cultures. This "hidden curriculum" has been criticized in many studies since the early 1990s (Phillipson, 1992; Pennycook, 1994; Canagarajahm 1999; Gray, 2010). In the representation of women in EFL textbooks, some studies (e.g. Gray, 2002, 2010) found that later books tended to represent them more fairly, as compared to earlier ones. However, minority groups including North Americans and Britons who are of color, poor and/or disabled are under-represented, stereotyped, or inaccurately portrayed in EFL materials as revealed in several studies (Clarke & Clarke 1990; Sleeter & Grant, 1991; Taylor-Mendes; Gray, 2002).

Another major criticism of EFL textbooks is that cross-cultural perspectives are either non-existent or deemphasized. Several studies (Yuen, 2011; Forman, 2014, Shin et al 2014; Hilliard, 2014) have shown that the cultural knowledge provided in these books may help in raising the learner's cultural awareness, but they fall short of engaging them in deep reflection. Moreover, the cultural activities included in such materials lack variety and depth and fail to create opportunities for objective comparison with the learner's own culture or develop the learner's intercultural communicative competence. A further concern expressed in some studies (e.g. Reimann, 2009) is that most EFL textbooks do not consider the learner's native culture. These books which are marketed for wider audiences tend to generalize in terms of cultural content. In a statement made in 2008 (as cited in Reimann, 2009, p. 85), the Marketing Manager of Oxford University Press stated that *"to market texts for any specific demographic in this context would be unprofitable"*. However, unfeasibility in terms of marketability for international publishers may not be considered a good reason for the non-representation, in such EFL materials, of significant cultural communities worldwide.

Parallel to the critical evaluation of the cultural content of EFL textbooks, some recent studies (Reimann, 2009; Hilliard, 2014) made several suggestions aimed at minimizing the negative impact of the deficiencies in such content. Reimann (2009) stressed on the teacher's role in exposing and uncovering biases in the cultural content of those books, engaging learners in effective and critical discussions of alternative perspectives and answers to perplexed questions and preparing supplementary materials to fill the gaps in the cultural content provided in such materials. Meanwhile, Hilliard (2014) called upon textbook publishers to improve the cultural representation of minorities, include a variety of accents in audio materials and improve the depth of cultural information and effectiveness of cultural activities.

Finally, some useful techniques have been presented by some researchers (Hughes, 1986; Krasner, 1999; Peterson & Coltrane, 2003) for presenting intercultural content in EFL contexts. These include the “comparison method”, “role play”, “cultural assimilators”, “cultural capsule”, “the culture island”, and “mini drama”.

3. The Study

3.1 Objectives

This study aims to:

- a. Examine critically the presentation of cultural content in global TEFL textbook that are used in general English courses taught in public and private universities in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) with special reference to one of the most widely used textbooks, namely *Headway (Pre-Intermediate)*. More specifically, the study addresses the following key questions:
 - i. What kind of cultural information about the target community is provided in the textbook?
 - ii. What perspectives of culture in terms of beliefs, values and attitudes are presented in the textbook?
 - iii. To what extent is the presentation of gender and ethnic, social and sub-cultural groups balanced in the textbook?
 - iv. To what extent does the book provide an objective presentation of major economic, political and social issues in the target community objective?
 - v. To what extent does the textbook consider the student’s native culture?
 - vi. To what extent does the textbook include intercultural activities that would help to develop the students’ intercultural communicative competence?
- b. Propose some recommendations for tackling the possible drawbacks and limitations in cultural presentation in the textbook examined in the study.

3.2 Rationale

This study may be justified on the basis of the following considerations:

- a. Although a considerable number of studies on the evaluation of cultural content of global EFL situations have been published over the past three decades or so, only a few of such studies have dealt with this issue within the Arab context.
- b. Instructional materials are the locus of cultural content par excellence. As Fenner (2001, p.50) states, “*texts can be seen as representing the personal voice of culture*”. Such materials in particular the textbook play a crucial role in influencing, positively or negatively, learners’ perceptions of the target culture.

- c. The centrality of the textbook in the teaching of English contexts coupled with the unconditional acceptance, by most EFL teachers, of its content. Indeed, as Forman (2014) rightly notes, for those teachers, “the textbook is the curriculum” with an authority beyond criticism”.

In view of the above, it would be necessary to take a critical look at the cultural content of global EFL textbooks in order to expose the possible negative influences of such textbooks on learners. It should be pointed out that the selection of a textbook from the *Headway* series is made on account of their frequent use for many years in teaching general English courses in most universities across the Arab gulf region.

3.3 Context

A relatively greater use of English is made in the UAE than in other countries in the Arab region. It is considered a necessary tool for business in the UAE which is regarded as the hub of commercial, banking, technological and touristic activities in the Middle East. Moreover, English is used as a form of “lingua franca” among almost all sections in the community including Arabs, Indians, Pakistanis, Persians, Bengalis, South-East Asians, Europeans, and Americans. In education, English is a compulsory subject in both public and private schools and colleges in addition to its use as a medium of instruction in several majors at the tertiary level. English is also taught over one or two semesters as a university-required course to all non-Arabic majors. In this course, which is usually taught by instructors who hold TESL/TEFL Master degrees from English-speaking countries, global English materials produced by such publishers as Longman, Oxford, Cambridge, McMillan and Thomson Heinle. It should be noted, however, that English serves no communicative functions inside the local Arab community and it is only used by locals in their communication with non-Arabs. Hence, the status of English in the UAE is perhaps best described, in light of standard distinctions in the ELT literature, as a foreign rather than a second language.

3.4 Method

In this study, the writer makes a critical evaluation of a major global EFL textbook often used in general English courses in most universities in the UAE, namely, *Headway (Pre-Intermediate; Student Book)*. The writer employs a descriptive-analytical method of analysis of the book and seek answers to the six key questions (See Section 3.1 above) which embrace the various dimension of cultural content in those textbooks.

3.5 Limitations

This study is constrained by its investigation of the cultural content in only one global EFL textbook viz. *Headway Pre-Intermediate; Student Book*. Other textbooks such as *Cutting Edge*, *North Star* and *Interactions* which are also used in

some Arab universities including those in the Gulf region have been excluded for space restrictions. It must be noted, however, that although the results of the study would particularly pertain to the textbook examined, the generalizability of such results to similar EFL textbooks cannot be ruled out.

4. Results And Discussion

The textbook examined in this study i.e. *Headway(Pre-Intermediate)* falls into fifteen units and aims at developing the learner's four language skills as well as grammar and vocabulary. It constitutes one of the component parts of a 4-level series that has been designed for teaching English as a second or foreign language in a systematically graded manner along both traditional and communicative lines. In this section, the cultural content of the book will be examined by utilizing the descriptive-analytical method of investigation.

A careful look at the topics, texts and dialogues included in the book indicates clearly its overemphasis on the British culture. A much less cultural content involves the US and a few European (France, Spain, Italy, Germany and Norway) countries. Other cultures are almost unrepresented as is the case with African, East European and South American cultures, or only minimally represented as those of a few Asian countries (Japan, Brunei and Nepal). This greatly diminishes the intercultural character of the book. The book introduces some general information about the target (British) culture including geography (population, area, and weather), history (King Arthur, the Suffragate movement in the mid-19th century), education (schools) art (Charli Chaplin, the Beetles). However, it focuses on the "touristic" aspect of that culture (famous landmarks, travel into British cities and holidays). It must be pointed out that while the book presents an overly positive view of the target community, it fails to address any of its rather serious economic, political, or social issues. EFL Learners in various communities worldwide who often read stories in their local newspapers and magazines about rising unemployment, bigotry, the increasing rate of crime and drug addiction in Britain and other Western countries and watch on national television channels recurrent scenes of violence on the streets of major cities in such countries will easily recognize that the book they are studying does not portray a realistic image of that community.

In its representation of social and cultural groups in the target (British) community, the book leans heavily towards the white middle class group while other groups are either deemphasized or unrepresented.. For instance, people of color are only minimally represented whereas the poor and the disabled are simply overlooked. However, a fair representation of women is quite evident throughout the book. This lends support to Gray's (2010) study which found a trend toward "the feminizing content" in recent global EFL books (section 2 above). With regard to the "hidden curriculum" (Cunningsworth, 1995), that is the values and attitudes conveyed in the book, it may be noted that values of the white British culture in particular materialism and individualism are emphasized as evidenced in several texts (Examples: adventures of James Bond; Marks and Spencer; million dollar reward). The same values underlie other texts involving a few other minimally represented cultural communities. Examples include those texts which tell the stories of a black American Hollywood actress, a black American top model and the richest man in the world, the Sultan of Brunei.

Examining the book from the perspective of the Arab-Muslim cultural community to which most EFL learners in the UAE belong, the writer of the study found that no single text, dialogue or activity refers, directly or indirectly, to that culture. Such learners who usually take pride in what they perceive as their “rich culture” and are often aware of the economic and geopolitically strategic significance of their region in today’s world would be “demotivated” to study a book that simply ignores their culture.

As for the intercultural activities included in the book, these are limited to two forms, namely the “comparison technique” (Examples: Compare schools in Japan and your country – Unit 2; Compare Madrid and your town - Unit 4) and the “discussion technique” which revolves around the “what do you think” question type (Examples: arranged marriages – Unit 5; living with parents of mixed nationality – Unit 13). However, no attempt is made by the authors of the book to include any of the more interesting intercultural activities proposed in various studies (Section 2). Meanwhile, activities that specifically aim to develop the learner’s intercultural communicative competence such as the ones suggested in some studies (Section 2) are lacking in the book.

5. Conclusion And Recommendations

A considerable number of studies have discussed the pitfalls and deficiencies in the presentation of culture in global EFL textbooks. Some of these findings have been substantiated by the present study which examined the cultural content of one of the major EFL course books (*viz. Headway: Pre-Intermediate*) in a further EFL context, namely, the Arab context, which has not been researched as yet. Such deficiencies include overemphasizing the target (British) culture while other cultures are almost unrepresented or only minimally represented, communicating values of the white British culture in particular materialism and individualism, focusing on the “touristic” aspect of the target culture, failing to address serious socioeconomic and political issues of the target community, underrepresenting ethnic groups. On the positive side, the book makes a fair representation of women.

Regarding the intercultural activities included in the book, the study has revealed that they are limited to two forms: the “comparison technique” and the “discussion technique” that centers around the “what do you think” question. Besides, the book does not include any of the activities proposed in relevant literature that help to promote the development of the learner’s communicative competence. As for the culture of the EFL Arab learners, which is the concern of the study, the writer has found that the book does not include a single text, dialogue or activity that refers, directly or indirectly to that culture.

Based on the results of the study, the writer recommends that the publishers of the Headway series make further improvements in the book in light of the critical evaluation attempted in several studies, including the present one. Special emphasis may be placed on engaging learners in such intercultural activities as the “comparison method”, “role play”, “cultural assimilators”, “cultural capsule”, “the culture island”, and “mini drama” suggested by some researchers. The writer

would further call upon EFL teachers who use the course book under study to integrate the learner's native culture in the classroom through the provision of supplementary. In doing this, however, teachers in government-run schools and colleges will have to adhere to syllabus prescribed by the educational authorities. Moreover, they should consider such psycholinguistic and pedagogical principles of grading, sequencing and recycling in the provision of those supplementary texts and exercises.

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ELECTRONIC SPEAKING PORTFOLIOS AS A MEANS OF ALTERNATIVE ASSESSMENT IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSES

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Abstract

The study deals with analyzing the role of Electronic Speaking Portfolios in formative assessment, also the necessity of shifting from traditional assessment to alternative assessment, application of which has increased within the last few decades. Alternative assessment describes multiple forms of evaluation that reflect student learning, achievement, motivation and attitude to classroom activities. Alternative assessment attempts to achieve multi-dimensional goals regarding what each student has learned. Of all the ways of alternative assessment, portfolios arguably stand out as the most comprehensive type of alternative assessment, since they may include other types of alternative assessments as their components. Portfolios establish a powerful setting for individual learning. The paper represents findings and conclusions based on literature review concerning the issue. The aim of the study is to show the purpose of electronic speaking portfolios, which represent, on the one hand, its benefits and, on the other hand, the downsides of portfolios.

Keywords: Alternative assessment, authentic assessment, performance based assessment, formative assessment, electronic portfolio, oral portfolio, speaking portfolio.

Introduction

Within the last few decades the importance of issues such as individual differences, multiple intelligences and a variety of learning styles have dramatically increased. These issues have started to be considered in grading and assessment. Such moves have brought a few changes in classroom dynamics as well. The changes from behaviorist approach to constructivist ones caused the shift in teacher's role and gave more chances to the learners to build upon their own knowledge, counting on their own experience (Mabry, 1999). The shift from teacher-centered to student-centered approach, made teachers to relieve their control and to have more democratic attitude towards teaching and assessing (Anderson, 1998). Teaching and assessing learners in such a setting have been viewed as alternatives to traditional teacher and student roles. These days traditional approaches concerning assessment give way to alternative ones, which allows teachers to increase the awareness of students' thinking, through reflection, review of written works, student's

presentations, projects and portfolios, together with interviews, tests and quizzes. These different visions on student work over time and in different contexts permit teachers to identify outlines in thinking and problem solving, which is essential for modern education and assessment.

The terms “authentic assessment”, “performance-based assessment”, and “alternative assessment”, can be used interchangeably in different situations (O’Malley & Pierce, 1996). According to O’Malley and Pierce, the difference between authentic assessment and alternative assessment is that alternative assessment is a broader term, while authentic assessment is precisely correlated to authenticity or to what degree the tasks are real-life like. As for performance-based assessment, it is incorporated while the learners are asked to show or demonstrate skills by doing something that is observed and assessed as it occurs (Mabry, 1999). Alternative assessment incorporates both authentic and performance based assessment and therefore will be used as an umbrella term for all varieties of alternative assessments in this paper.

Alternative assessment defines various forms of estimation that reflects student learning, achievement, approach towards classroom activities and motivation (O’Malley & Pierce, 1996). Learners not only complete and establish anticipated behaviors, but also achieve them in a real-life setting, rather than fairly by responding to the question (Cole, Ryan, & Kick, 2000). Alternative assessment tries to achieve multi-dimensional goals concerning what individual student has learned in a certain period of time (Cole et al., 2000). Alternative assessment has been claimed to have multiple advantages since it authorizes learning, is allied to curriculum outcomes, encourages higher order thinking, deals with learning as an active process, highlights both process and product, and makes connection amongst cognitive and affective aptitudes of learners (Anderson, 1998). Alternative ways of assessment also consider individual differences and multiple intelligences (Mabry, 1999). However, according to Baron and Boschee (1995), there might be mentioned some disadvantages of alternative assessment, such as the chance of subjectivity in marking the results, and the difficulty in representing the reliability and validity of the results.

Types of authentic assessment comprise several varieties of student’s work, some of them are: story or text telling, demonstrations, experiments, oral interviews, writing samples, projects and exhibitions, performance tasks, journals, simulations, activity worksheets, seminars, concept mapping and portfolios (Brown, 1998). These assessment forms share similar features for learners, such as their self-monitoring, self-assessment and peer-assessment skills, hence all of them take into account learner’s individual differences and contribute to their high-order thinking skills (Brown, 2004). Among various ways of alternative assessment, portfolios arguably are distinguished as the most wide-ranging, as they may comprise the other kinds of alternative assessment as their components. Recently portfolios became popular alternative to traditional assessment ways and means, since they offer stakeholders to evaluate, review and communicate learners’ achievements and headway.

Portfolios as a Means of Alternative Assessment

Portfolio development and assessment are in alignment with contemporary learning theories in regard to differences in pace, learning styles and cognitive development of students. (Yurdabakan, 2011). Considering above mentioned aspects portfolios create a powerful setting for individualistic learning. Portfolio assessment is a continuing process. A continuous assessment is a process of learning that observes and documents learner improvement at definite intervals. For this reason portfolios are appropriate for formative assessment, which is currently seen as a cohesive part of the learning and teaching process, and not an isolated activity. Formative assessment provides feedback to aid and guide students learning. Students become aware of their abilities as well as their strong and weak point. Formative assessment is learner-centered, since the main focus is on learning and learner. Most importantly formative assessment empathizes the need of constant improvement (Looney, 2011). The main goal for formative assessment is to help students develop skills for self- and peer assessment (Luoma, 2004). On the one hand, educators establish vivid learning goals and share norms for assessing the quality of work with students. On the other hand, students develop skills to monitor their own work so they can measure how well they are doing relatively to an established standard. Students may develop new understandings of themselves as learners, and reinforce self-efficacy. Consequently students build skills for "learning to learn" (Luoma, 2011, p.30). Portfolio assessment follows the same principles, it inspires students to grow into more autonomous learners, be in a control of their own learning, make judgements, be engaged in self-assessment and increase their problem solving skills.

Educators as well as learners are assigning different meanings to portfolios according to particular learning needs within their own settings (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996). There are a number of definitions of portfolios. According to Yang (2003), portfolios are a collection of student's work, that documents their effort, improvement and success in their learning, and their reflection on the resources assigned for the portfolio. In Mabry's (1999) words portfolios are "a collection of information by and about a student to give a broader view of his/her achievement" (p.17). Baron and Boschee (1995) define portfolios as the compilation of student's works that offer confirmation of their knowledge capabilities and academic advancement in relation to recognized outcomes. Alongside with these definitions, there have been described different types of portfolios. One general classification of portfolios is as "process" and "product portfolios".

In process portfolios students collect their works over a period of time. Receive feedback and review those works for improving their own performance.

In product portfolios, learners collect their work and are assessed based on their artifacts (Tierney, Carter, & Desai, 1991). O'Malley and Pierce (1996) suggested three groups of portfolios: "Showcase portfolios", "Collection portfolios" and "Assessment portfolios".

In showcase portfolios student display their best and most representative works to the institution or educator. There should be included only complete piece of work. Students have to self-evaluate in order to select appropriate works for this type of portfolio. Therefore their grade depends on how efficient their self-assessment is. This kind of portfolio is also known as presentation portfolio. It is possible to develop the presentation portfolio with a diversity of tools. However it

is usually made up of a set of hyperlinked web pages. This type of portfolio is especially well-suited with audio-visual work development. The learners reflect on the accomplishment of specific outcomes, aims or standards, based on guidance provided by the institution, hyperlinking to the supporting documents. Showcase portfolios can be conserved for a long time. They are suitable to compare students' accomplishments through time.

Collection portfolios can be regarded as working portfolios, where students include all their artifacts, from drafts to finished works, in such way students provide evidence of process as well as products. This is a collaborative teacher-student portfolio that supports communication among teacher and student. Working portfolios are not carefully planned and organized and become meaningful when definite items are chosen out to focus on specific learning goals and experiences. Working portfolio can also be used to diagnose learner's needs. Students as well as teachers have evidence of learner's strengths and weaknesses in achieving learning goals. This information is valuable in designing further instructions and in taking next steps in learning.

The assessment portfolios focus on arranged collection of learners work, learners' self-reflection, self-assessment and teacher assessment. Every item in this kind of portfolio is scored, rated, ranked, or evaluated. For assessment portfolios learners have to put all their products to show their headway in relation to the fulfillment of the goals set in advance (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996). The general purposes of portfolios are to permit students to demonstrate their works representing their interests and capabilities and to document of their performances (Baron & Boschee, 1995). For the assessment portfolios learners choose works according to curriculum. They analyze their works to identify which item best embodies the syllabus. Assessment portfolios can be used to show students' achievements in all four macro skills as well as their mastery in any curricular area (Danielson & Abrutyn, 1997).

Oral Portfolios with Technology for Formative Assessment

In EFL classes, portfolios could focus on all four macro skills of a learner as a whole or could be developed in to improve one particular skill, for instance speaking, reading or writing. These types of portfolios are called specific skill based portfolios. Oral portfolios are one of them. They are designed to improve learner's oral skills that helps them to communicate more effectively. Speaking is viewed as one of the most challenging skill in language classes (Luoma, 2011). Important challenge with speaking is that EFL setting students are deprived of a natural environment to communicate with native people. Teachers need to search for more authentic ways to expose their learners to the target language regularly rather than just with exams or exam practice (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996). Brown (2004) suggests teachers to concentrate on meaning, to focus on the essential link between speaking and listening, to give students chances to initiate verbal communication and encourage the improvement of speaking strategies, to deliver intrinsically motivating methods, and inspire the use of authentic language. Brown also emphasizes the importance of providing students with timely and proper feedback.

It is challenging to assess speaking since it is pooled with other skills. One of the challenges of speaking assessment is that the success of speaker during an evaluation rests on many factors such as decent command of linguistic features (grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary) the interlocutors understanding of the assent of the speaker and the subject itself and the speakers anxiety (Luoma, 2004). Speaking assessment is also affected by listening skills of the speaker. These different factors make difficult to ensure validity and reliability of the speaking assessment. Brown (2004) proposes that in order to deal with common problems in assessing speaking teachers might take the subsequent steps, they might find a way to apply an eclectic approach, to meet students' needs, and promote communicative language teaching as well as raise their students awareness of meaningful and correct features of their language and to record students speaking presentation to mark and check reliability. Another wide-spread problem with assessing speaking is the lack of regular assessment of oral language and lack of assessment which evaluates not only final products but also the process to them (Yoshida, 2001). To take into consideration all above mentioned suggestions, and deal with the potential problems of speaking assessment oral portfolios with technology might be an effective way in an EFL classes. Nowadays technologies has radically altered routines and practices in language teaching. Lately incorporating technology in alternative assessment methods such as portfolio use has been of interest in ELT classrooms. Technology based portfolios maintain individualized as well as large group teaching. Oral portfolios are meant to deal with the problems of portability, practicality and time restrictions. The types of the most widespread technology based oral portfolios are, audio, visual and electronic portfolios. The well-known technology based portfolio is the electronic portfolio- which is a web-based information management system that uses electronic media and services (Johnson & Rose, 1997). Learners build and preserve a digital storehouse of their works which they can use to demonstrate, competence and reflect on their learning. Compared with paper-based portfolios, electronic portfolios give opportunity to students to collect, manage and store their artifacts in a more efficient and easier way. However there are not many studies regarding technology based portfolios to promote and assess oral skills. Electronic portfolios propose the advantages of availability and portability of artifacts, faculty or advisor's evaluation and student's reflection, therefore it is appropriate for assessing oral skills.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Speaking Portfolios

Learner autonomy, self-reflection, peer-assessment and motivation are frequently emphasized as the fascinations of portfolio assessment, as well as self-monitoring and self-confidence. Portfolios empower learners to realize gaps in their own learning and to take some risks. Portfolios promote learner –centered practice in a collaborative environment, and help increase learning rather than to rank or reprimand students (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).

Learner autonomy is one of the major advantages of speaking portfolios. Student authority or ownership, caused by the requirement to review their works in their portfolios. Students take responsibility for their own learning and are able to regulate themselves by adapting themselves, setting goals, and planning their own learning process. Learner

autonomy is the umbrella term that includes both self-assessment and reflection. In the learning process if learners reflect on their performance and assess themselves, they can easily take ownership of their learning (Little, 2007).

Self-assessment, is a method where students evaluate themselves according to criteria determined by the teacher or the students (Yurdabakan, 2011) while assessing themselves students could also reflect on their own performance to evaluate it in alternative assessment.

Reflection, involves processing learners own understanding of what and why they are doing and the effect of it on themselves (Boud, 1999). Although self-assessment and reflection can be used interchangeably there is difference between them, self-assessment puts an emphasis on what has been achieved and reflection encompasses the ideas on to what extent the work has been done, how it could be improved (Boud, 1999). Self-assessment and reflection on its side lead to the construction of learner autonomy. Paris and Ayres (1994), proposed that self-autonomous learners choose their goals and work on different tasks, adapt the difficulty in the tasks they choose, are aware how to use the available sources, establish meaning and evaluate and analyze their behavior in ways that promote further effort. They also reflect upon their performance.

Peer-assessment, is another advantage of electronic speaking portfolios, it gives possibility of promoting collaboration within the classroom. Collaborative assessment may be achieved through peer-assessment or peer-feedback. "Peer-assessments are any assessments that require students to judge the language or language performance of one or more other students" (Brown, 1998. p.54).

Different scholars (Brown, 1998; O'Malley and Pierce, 1996; Yurdabakan, 2011), came to an agreement that peer-assessment or peer-feedback have significant advantages, such as developing metacognitive abilities, empowering communication skills, allowing teachers to evaluate more than one student at a time, increasing students confidence in their work, give students opportunity to appreciate their peers work and provide collaborative environment requiring little time or resources.

Risk taking in the target language, is also one of the characteristics of electronic speaking portfolios. Since students are unrestricted from the immediate audience they can experiment with new concepts and find various ways for self-expression. Therefore the level of anxiety is reduced.

Motivation, is one of the most complicated problems in education settings. But at the same time motivation can be a key to success. Motivation plays an important role in language learning either positively or negatively. (Brown, 2001). Speaking portfolio as alternative assessment is assumed to be motivating in the learning process. It promotes involvement in learning, integration of cognitive abilities along with motivation, and the importance of attitudes towards learning in an educational context (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996). According to Johnson and Rose (1997), learners become intrinsically motivated when the tasks assigned to them are meaningful. When learners are permitted to set goals and plan their own learning, they enjoy the process more.

Besides their benefits speaking portfolios might have some disadvantages as well and cause problems for both students and teachers. One problem can be validity and reliability. Compared to traditional standard tests, which are believed to be objective, consistent and standard, portfolios bring about the problem of subjectivity, reliability and validity caused by reflections, evaluations or peer feedback (Baron & Boschee, 1995). Another problem can be practicality, it is one of the most common difficulties stakeholders face, is how practically apply such an instrument. Practicality is directly related to time, effort portability finance, and ease of implementation, as well as scoring, and interpretation (Brown, 2004). One more problem related to portfolios is time constraints, since portfolio implementation requires considerable time and effort both from teachers and students side. Although Johnson and Rose (1997) stated that it is quite acceptable to spend time on process-based assessment. Another negative point of portfolios might be the lack of compatibility between the assessment and instruction. Mabry (1999) believed that teachers could not fully understand how students need to perform while using portfolios, especially in parallel to curriculum needs. They give little detail about what students know and can really do and thus the incongruence between curriculum and assessment may occur in the learning context.

In spite of these challenges, it is arguably of great importance to balance between the positive sides and downsides of portfolio implementation, with great emphasis on both institutional objectives as well as the individual needs of the students (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996). The benefits of speaking portfolios outweigh its negative sides that makes it wonderful tool for alternative assessment.

Conclusion

Portfolios are significant to engage the learners more in the evaluation process by promoting their autonomy and reflection skills, however, portfolios posture some difficulties as well. Oral portfolios focus on the enhancement of speaking skills, intended to improve learners' oral performance, empower reflection and evaluation skills, endorse autonomy and increase their motivation.

Thanks to novel digital tools portfolios have become more and more widespread and effective means of formative assessment, since they facilitate a student-centered learning environment and endorse self-reflection and risk-taking in the target language. When we deal with teaching speaking, it is ultimately important to select a tool that encourages impromptu speech, allows for personalized feedback, and gives evidence of students' learning. The use of electronic portfolios to teach and assess EFL, affects both teachers and students who are adapted to traditional methods of teaching and learning English. This method also encourages teachers and students to think about the ways to advance their teaching and learning. Eventually, electronic portfolios will help teachers and students to interact with a more globalized world community.

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TEACHING CREATIVE WRITING VIA MEDIA LESSONS

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Abstract

Newspaper articles can be used as samples of writing in such genres as news and reviews. This is especially useful for students of journalism specialty; however, it may be an enjoyable activity for students majoring in various specialties. The lecturer can make a special selection for students, to demonstrate the genre peculiarities and style of newspaper articles on topics interesting for students, not necessary politics. These may be educational, cultural, scientific or sports news or reviews of recent events in the spheres. Students will be asked to create their own texts about events in their university, using the suggested selection as samples. In this way students will practice writing, as well as improve their vocabulary and grammar skills.

Keywords: EFL, creative writing, newspaper text, media lessons

Introduction

Newspapers or, more exactly, mass-media information placed on the Internet nowadays constitute the largest part of the reading matter of contemporary adults. Whether we like it or not, this is the reality: people seldom read on-paper books, especially thick fiction novels. They mostly look through the news that mass-media offer them. This is why it is essential to use mass-media materials available on the internet for teaching English as a foreign language(EFL).

Traditionally, while teaching students majoring in English philology or English language and literature a course in Mass-Media (Newspaper) is involved. This course usually involves working on vocabulary specific for newspapers, reading comprehension, probably, some speaking practice (discussions / debates around the content of the articles under study) and translation. The goal of this paper is to show how a class in Mass-Media can be used for the purposes of creative writing.

Strange enough, the English module for journalists in Georgia usually does not involve a component "Mass-Media" / "Newspaper", to say nothing about students majoring in other specialties. Another goal of this paper is to demonstrate that the class in Mass-Media can be used for the development of creative writing skills.

According to Alan Maley (2007), "creative writing may take the form of poems or stories, though they are not confined to these genres. Letters, journal entries, blogs, essays, travelogues, etc. can also be more or less creative". Among the benefits of creative writing for students he names:

- Development of all language skills (grammar, vocabulary, spelling, discourse)
- Willingness to use the language
- Involving the left (logical) and right (emotional) hemispheres of human brain
- Increase in self-confidence and self-esteem

Among the benefits for teachers of using creative writing on one's language class Maley(2017) enumerates:

- Teachers serve as models, which keeps them fit (they have to practice their writing skills as well)
- Teachers employ various activities, which makes their daily routine more colorful
- Creative writing in which teachers are facilitators improve teacher/student relations, help them understand each other better

Application of creative writing while teaching Mass-Media / newspaper

Joyce (n.d.) mentions that, to involve students in working with newspapers, the teacher should:

- choose various newspapers, to satisfy the students' needs and tastes
- use the online version of newspapers
- talk to students about learning strategies that will make the reading (and writing!) process easier

News digest

The first creative writing activity that comes to mind is writing a newspaper digest. For students whose language skills are on a relatively low level the selection of the articles may be prepared by the teacher. The teacher selects 5-7 short articles on a common topic (depending on students' majors, the topic may be: war/peace news, news on international relations, culture, arts, inventions and high tech, health, etc. With groups of students with higher level of language skills the order may be vice versa: the teacher gives a topic, holds a brainstorming activity, to provide the key words for search, and then asks students to find 5-7 short / medium-size articles on the topic. In this case scanning and skimming reading skills will be involved in the process. In both cases students will sum up the articles. This is linguistically not difficult, as students can borrow from collocations to whole sentences from the texts. A competition on the best digest may be held, to provide extrinsic motivation.

Writing newspaper headlines and leading sentences

First, the teacher will need to introduce the language peculiarities of English newspaper titles (tense, articles, application of proverbs, puns and famous quotes, etc.) (Beare, 2014). This is basically an activity for pair or small group work, however, it can also be given as individual home work. If different groups are given the same articles, a competition for the best title can be held. Also, role play (especially for journalism students) can be held: editorial board meeting, choosing the best headlines for articles. Article by Alex Case (n.d.) suggests many interesting activities for headline comprehension writing and discussion. Useful recommendations for writing headlines and leads can be found on <http://www.bbc.co.uk/schoolreport/19055226> and <http://www.englishlessonsbrighton.co.uk/8-grammar-rules-writing-newspaper-headlines/>

Sample-based writing

The teacher finds a good short / medium-sized article, which is well-structured and contains clichés typical for the given the given genre (political, business, economic, scientific news, review, editorial, life story, success story, analytical article; etc.). She/he presents the article to the students and explains the peculiarities of the structure and the language. Then, students in small groups or working as a whole class (depending on the size of the group) transfer the article into an article "skeleton" – a frame, according to which any article on the issue can be written. For example, the article "Wheels" (which is high-tech news) by Quain (April 6, 2017) can be turned into the following model:

- Attractive short introduction, sounding like science fiction
- Giving technical details
- Giving VIP's opinions
- Giving particular examples

Students will be asked to create their own texts about events in their university or city, some events that they personally attended or participated in, using the suggested selection as samples. In this way students will practice writing, as well as improve their vocabulary and grammar skills.

Conclusion

To make the classes of newspaper more various and motivating, to apply such classes not only for students majoring in English or journalism, but practically in any sphere, to develop student creativity and collaborative skills, to link language learning with real-life activities, creative writing via media lessons is an inspiring idea.



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REVIEWING THE WAYS OF TEACHING EFFECTIVE BUSINESS WRITING TO EFL STUDENTS

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Abstract

Writing in general requires a conscious effort and much practice in composing, developing, and analyzing ideas. Students writing in a second language are also faced with social and cognitive challenges related to second language acquisition. The paper explores some of the challenges of business writing in English and emphasizes the importance of teaching effective business writing to EFL students for their better career opportunities and further success.

Keywords: business writing, EFL, composing, editing, analyzing, reader-friendly environment

Introduction

Language is the principal means of communication. To a manager it is very important to be able to write well, because there is no communication unless the receiver of the written communication understands the thoughts and ideas of the writer. The basic purpose of any written communication is to convey a message to the reader. To serve this purpose well, the message must be easily understood and quickly read.

A well-written document approaches the subject logically and shows that the writer has thorough knowledge of the subject. The message is simple, clear, and direct. The ability to write well is not a naturally acquired skill; it is usually learned or culturally transmitted as a set of practices in formal instructional settings or other environments. Writing skills must be practiced and learned through experience. Writing also involves composing, which implies the ability either to tell or to retell pieces of information in the form of narratives or description, or else to transform information into new texts, as in expository or argumentative writing.

We all understand that being able to write in a clear and professional style is important to business. For most people, business writing is simply a challenging and overwhelming task. In this type of writing, there are so many factors that one needs to take into consideration in order to get one's message across.

Teaching Business writing to EFL students

The decision to use written rather than oral communication often rests with the manager - the communicator. In such cases, the communicator must weigh the advantages and disadvantages of each form of communication in order to make an intelligent decision.

The advantage of oral over written communications is that a complete interchange of thoughts and ideas can take place faster. The speaker is in direct contact with the listener (receiver) and is challenged to make him/herself understood. Too frequently the listener fails to ask the right questions, so he does not receive the message clearly. This, in turn, can result in wasted efforts and costly errors.

Written communications also have advantages. They are usually more carefully formulated than oral communications, so the message conveyed tends to be more clearly stated. Written messages also can be retained as references or legal records (Smalley, 2001).

There are some disadvantages of written communications. First, the writer often fails to carefully compose his thoughts and ideas. When a poorly prepared message has to be followed by many written or oral communications to clarify the writer's original written word, the real message becomes garbled and the process becomes costly and time-consuming.

Second, people tend to retain voluminous written documentation for use as a means of defense or attack. A file of such documentation is often referred to as a "Pearl Harbor file." The advantages of written information for legal purposes are usually obvious; however, there are occasions when such information is either duplicative or unnecessary. Effective managers recognize the importance of document retention and develop sensible procedures and practices for that purpose.

The most important question that you, as a manager-and writer-can ask yourself is, "Have I stated my message clearly?" If you are to be an effective writer, you must do a good job of informing the intended receiver of your message. There is nothing more important to you, if you wish to be an effective manager, than being informative and properly understood (Guffey, 2009).

A message that is easy to understand is informative. This does not imply that it is 'readable'; i.e., easy to read. In recent years there have been many presentations or articles on readability. These articles have offered some simple solutions to common writing problems, such as: use everyday words, short sentences, and brief paragraphs; keep the 'fog content' down; don't use complicated or foreign expressions, overworked phrases, and unfamiliar jargon. Compliance with this advice may appear to be quite simple, but cannot be considered a panacea for all writing problems. Strict adherence to the advice in these articles does not ensure that your next staff paper or report will be informative. Informative writing involves paying proper attention to the choice of words, construction of sentences, and logical presentation of thoughts and ideas.

The meanings assigned to words have two characteristics - denotation and connotation. Denotation is the meaning or idea conveyed by the word through common usage; connotation is the thought (personal or emotional) attributed to the word. 'Democracy', for example, generally has a denotative meaning. From a connotative aspect, its meaning is much broader. In trying to communicate effectively - in writing as well as speaking - we risk being misunderstood. We can only hope to know the common meanings (the denotative characteristics) of most frequently used words. Unfortunately this is not always a simple task. The uniqueness of a word should be known by the writer when he chooses it to convey an idea (Berry, 2004).

Despite the advantages of written communication a number of business people make a number of mistakes when they are writing. Here are some of the main ones.

The first big mistake I've noticed is that writers tend to write for themselves and not for their readers. But readers don't have the same understanding of the subject, the same objectives and the same interests as the writer. So, if you don't think of the reader's needs as you write, you simply won't engage them.

Secondly I've noticed that writers often fail to make their point early on. You need to bear in mind that readers are busy people. If you bury the important point halfway down the page, they may never get that far.

The third common error is failing to stick to the point. As you are writing, something else occurs to you and you veer off at a tangent, exploring another interesting but not vital subject area. This lack of focus is confusing for the reader as it blurs the key message.

Poor structure is the fourth frequent problem in business writing – and it occurs because people fail to plan before they write. If the structure of a document is poor, readers will not be able to follow what you are saying. Again, they may give up before they reach the main point you are trying to communicate.

But structure isn't just about organising the content in a logical sequence. Many business documents are poorly structured at a deeper level. To write well you have to consider the structure of your paragraphs and your sentences. Structure is a vital part of your reader's experience, they won't particularly notice if it is good, but they will be most confused if it's bad.

Correct grammar and punctuation are major hurdles for many business writers. The nuts and bolts of writing really do matter – both to make your meaning clear and to support the image you are trying to create of a competent person who knows what they want to say.

Last but not least in this list of problems is the failure to write clearly and simply. Years ago most people in business thought that elaborate, jargon-filled written language helped to communicate and enhance their status. But if you write like that today, your meaning will not be clear and people will think that you are stuffy and old-fashioned. So get rid of the bureaucratic words and phrases and just try to write more as you would speak.

Reports, emails, plans, minutes, articles and presentations: business writers have to write any of these, and write them well. Poor writing causes irritation and lost opportunities. Good writing saves time and gives your organisation a professional image (Guffey, 2009).

Teaching effective business writing will give your students the skills definitely useful in their further career and confidence to make the right impact, no matter which kinds of documents you have to compose.

There are eight reasons why we why should we care about teaching effective business writing to EFL students:

1. Everyone writes.

With a computer in every office and lab and at every worksite, employees in all disciplines are required to write. Yet few have learned to write effectively. Many U.S. employers believe that only about a third of their employees actually have the writing skills most valued by the organization, according to surveys published in 2004 and 2005.

2. Everyone sends email.

For tasks that formerly meant picking up the phone or meeting in person, people now send email. The surveys linked above have shown that 98+ percent of U.S. companies and state governments use email to communicate "frequently" or "almost always." Yet in a recent survey conducted by Information Mapping, 40 percent of respondents stated that they wasted 30 minutes or more each day because of ineffectively written email.

3. Readers have changed.

Our readers used to be down the hall or across the country. Now they speak English as a second, third, or fourth language, and they work around the globe. An estimated 1.4 billion people use English in business communication, yet only 400 million of them are native English speakers. Having a global reading audience places new demands on writers. Your writing should be reader-friendly to get the best outcome.

4. Schools do not teach business writing.

Colleges and universities require undergraduates to take composition and rhetoric--not business writing. Graduate schools require research papers and dissertations---not persuasive proposals and action-oriented email. Academic writing is different from business writing. (Email me for an article describing how it is different, with tips and strategies for making the shift to business writing.)

5. Even highly talented associates may not write well to varied audiences.

Data analysts may write perfect reports for other analysts. Engineers give the right detailed findings to their fellow engineers. But when any employees communicate outside their peer group--let's say, to senior executives or customers--they need special skills to organize information, eliminate jargon, and focus on their readers' needs.

6. Smart software doesn't ensure smart writing.

Templates, wizards, spell-checking, and grammar-checking do not guarantee documents that are clear, concise, strategic, and focused on the reader's needs. Unfortunately, software builds false security--not strong documents. When company administrators say, "We have the budget for only essential classes like software training," those who care about writing need to respond, "But what do employees do with the software they learn to use? They compute, design, analyze, and write."

7. Bad writing is as damaging as bad customer service and bad products.

Everyone has horror stories describing situations like these:

Ineffective, embarrassing messages are sent to customers, clients, and other stakeholders.

Time and money are squandered to rectify writing errors--sometimes in court.

Proposals fail when writers don't meet readers' expectations or deadlines.

Supervisors and managers waste time editing and rewriting documents.

Employees miss out on opportunities to contribute. They don't write proposals, recommendations, and other important documents when they lack skills and confidence.

8. Good writing can do great things.

Effective reports, proposals, requests, assessments, and other business documents can:

Get results.

Inspire action, confidence, and commitment.

Sell products and services.

Create and maintain goodwill.

Save time and other resources.

Lead to personal fulfillment and professional success.

Therefore, how can teachers support EFL students to excel at business writing? They need to instruct students as follows:

1. Establish your objectives. This is by far the most important element in business writing. Before you start tapping on your keyboard, think of the things that you would like to achieve in writing your business communications. Would you like to inform? Would you like people to take action? Would you like to reprimand somebody? Would you like to motivate your people? If you cannot establish an objective for your message, then there is really no point in taking up your audience's time with it, right?

2. Define your audience. You need to know ahead of time the people to whom you are writing your messages for. You need to know their level of comprehension, their language, and the things that can push their buttons. Knowing these people inside and out can help you choose the best strategies and writing techniques so you can easily get your message across with minimal or no confusion at all.
3. Anticipate questions. Know all the questions that your audience might have when reading your messages. Make sure that you answer all the who, what, why, where, when, and how questions of these people to promote better understanding.
4. Create a draft. After collecting and putting your thoughts into writing, have an objective third party to read it. This is very important so you can determine if you have the right tone, the right words, and the right information. Consider revising your draft to make it more appropriate to the audience that you are serving.
5. Keep it simple. You really don't need to sound like a rocket scientist when doing business writing. Keep in mind that your main goal is to inform and this will not possibly happen if you make it extremely difficult for your audience to understand you. Use terms that your audience are familiar with and define highly technical terms before using them on your content.
6. Keep it short. More and more people have limited attention span these days. If really want your target audience to read your messages in their entirety, I highly recommend that you make all your messages short, brief, and to the point.

Conclusion

Teachers need to constantly tell students that the only way to improve their writing is to write, keeping in mind that with enough practice in writing and revision (involving problem-solving and reflection), they would eventually acquire the fundamentals, or at least the standards, required of academic discourse. Teachers also need to convince their students that the basic purpose of any written communication is to convey a message to the reader. To serve this purpose well, the message must be easily understood and quickly read. Besides this, a well-written document approaches the subject logically and shows the writer has a thorough knowledge of the subject. The message is simple, clear, and direct.

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RAY BRADBURY'S "FAHRENHEIT 451" AS A FUTURE PREDICTION

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Abstract

The paper aims at exploring surprising similarities between a dystopian society depicted in Ray Bradbury's novel "Fahrenheit 451" (1953) and modern life. Using an extrapolation technique which is characteristic of dystopian novels the writer, based on contemporary social and political events in the beginning of the 2nd half of the XX century, predicts possible future problems which people are facing now. In Ray Bradbury's novel an interest in books is continuously decreasing caused by a negative influence of mass media. Most people tend to read summaries of books rather than authentic texts losing an ability to feel the author's style. In addition, advanced technology is used as a means of manipulating and diverting the attention of people. Also, a flawed educational system is unable to spread intellectualism among students providing them with useless information but not teaching how to do analysis and connect facts. Gain is the main criterion while choosing a future profession - humanitarian subjects are rapidly disappearing from curriculum as people are likely to earn much more money with a diploma in technical sciences. While drawing a parallel between the novel and the reality the paper sets Ray Bradbury's novel "Fahrenheit 451" as an example of undesirable future which can still be avoided.

Keywords: dystopia, extrapolation technique, future, modern life

Ray Bradbury, a leading science fiction writer of all time whose novels and short stories have been made into well-received movies, plays and TV series, is probably best known for his dystopian novel *Fahrenheit 451* (1953). The novel contains major dystopian themes, such as freedom of mind and speech, importance of the past, critical perception of the government and society, prediction of an imaginary nightmarish future. The novel depicts a futuristic American society where the government burns books with the consent of people. Ray Bradbury's *Fahrenheit 451* is usually believed to be against censorship considering the fact that the novel was created and published during the era of McCarthyism characterized by xenophobia, blacklisting and censorship (Booker, 1994). However, according to Ray Bradbury, while working on the novel his true intention wasn't to write about censorship (Johnston, 2007). Writing *Fahrenheit 451* Ray Bradbury's main goal was to predict possible future problems which, unfortunately, we are facing now. Using an extrapolation technique to draw a parallel between an imaginary world presented in the novel and a real world, the writer

based on social and political events in the beginning of the 2nd half of XX century shows catastrophic results of his contemporary society's thoughtless actions. Even though it's hard to define exactly when the action takes place in *Fahrenheit 451*, as there aren't any direct indications in the novel, the writer must be referring to the near future. Yet, Ray Bradbury probably wouldn't have imagined that his predictions would come true so soon, only after 64 years from the first publication of the novel. The aim of the presented paper is to explore the similarities between Ray Bradbury's novel *Fahrenheit 451* and a modern life and prove that our present might be the very nightmarish future the writer actively warns the reader against in his novel.

Losing an interest in books caused by a negative influence of mass media is the first main similarity between Ray Bradbury's novel *Fahrenheit 451* and a modern life. As stated in the survey of 2,558 US parents and children conducted in 2015 by the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA), 51% of children enjoy reading books, compared to 58% in 2012, and 60% in 2010. As for the adults, the number of American adults reading literature is falling. In 2015, 43% of adults read at least one literary work during the year. NEA has been observing reading decline since 1982 and this is the lowest result since then (Ingraham, 2016). Such constant decline might be explained by the fact that after the Second World War television screen became a serious threat to printed word. From the 1940s when commercial industry flourished a TV set has been accused of causing cultural decadence establishing new Dark Ages. During the Golden Age of Television Ray Bradbury was one of those few who managed to see a tendency of decreasing intellectualism. In Ray Bradbury's novel books lost their value as they couldn't compete against numerous forms of entertainment provided by broadcasting companies. Members of the futuristic society are obsessed with flat-screen TV sets which often take up entire walls. Future Americans spend most of their time watching live news programmes, entertaining mind numbing shows or commercials which are frequently so senseless that people can't explain what they are watching: "What was it all about? Mildred couldn't say. Who was mad at whom? Mildred didn't quite know. What were they going to do? Well, said Mildred, wait around and see" (Bradbury, 1953, p.6). A critical approach to commercials is seen when Guy Montag can't concentrate and read the Bible because of the commercial about tooth paste "Denham" in the metro station. The metro passengers stamp with the music and mumble the words of the commercial: "The people who had been sitting a moment before, tapping their feet to the rhythm of Denham's Dentifrice, Denham's Dandy Dental Detergent, Denham's Dentifrice Dentifrice Dentifrice, one two, one two three, one two, one two three. The people whose mouths had been faintly twitching the words Dentifrice Dentifrice Dentifrice (Bradbury, 1953, p.37). Future Americans resembling modern people prefer watching TV to reading books as they feel much happier when they have fun without thinking. The situation has worsened now due to the frequent use of computer and the Internet. Presently, books have to fight not only against television, but computer and the Internet as well.

Ray Bradbury sees advanced technology as a means of manipulating people and diverting their attention from important issues which is relevant to modern reality. For Patrick Brantlinger (1983) a TV set is a magic mirror barbarizing and zombifying its viewers (p. 252). A clear example of zombified people is real life housewives and imaginary housewives from Bradbury's novel on the ground that their brains are full of useless information. Sports, shows, even political elections

broadcast on television create a Roman spectacle, bread and circuses, and their aim is to narrow people's mind, placate them and avoid discontent. For instance, elections are associated with entertainment for Mildred and her friends. They decide to vote for a candidate who looks best. It is obvious that the government knows the psychology of people well and deliberately introduces them with two totally different candidates one of whom is physically attractive while the second one is plain. People in futuristic America have an illusion that they are involved in social and political events. They will unconsciously choose a candidate who is acceptable to the government though. Today, a large majority of people believe what they are told about candidates in commercials. If a candidate has a good commercial, people will vote for him. Also, if a candidate appears more attractive or trustworthy, he will be chosen. But if television can stupefy people and affect their decisions, why is it still supported? The answer is simple, it's easy to control stupefied people. As it is argued in Patrick Brantlinger's article television aspires towards fascism. One of the ideal conditions for flourishing autocracy is massification of people and television serves this purpose (p. 254). The future American society's anti-intellectualism and disability to evaluate current affairs is successfully used by the Government. The future American government has turned into a totalitarian state which feeds the people with lies. For example, the totalitarian nature of the government is obvious when an innocent person is imprisoned and killed instead of Montag.

An overuse of technology not only prevents people from evaluating a situation objectively but it also negatively alters healthy relationships. Nowadays, children are forced to compete with technology for attention of adults since many parents neglect them while they prefer to spend time in front of a TV or computer. Moreover, as reported by a Kaiser Family Foundation study, young people spend their whole free time using media when they aren't at school (Flood, 2015). Even though Mildred and Montag's house is equipped with modern technology and they live comfortably, it's impossible to have a warm relationship with ever-present technology. Mildred doesn't pay much attention to her husband, while she calls the people behind the screen "relatives". Although they barely talk to each other, Mildred isn't concerned with a cold relationship with her husband and she wants to have a fourth wall of the TV set: "why it'd be just like this room wasn't ours at all, but all kinds of exotic people's rooms" (Bradbury, 1953, p. 9). Citizens of future America never have an opportunity to be alone with their family members. They always have shells in their ears listening to monotonous programmes which replace real emotions and create fake human feelings.

Nowadays, many people tend to read summaries of books rather than authentic texts which reminds us of Ray Bradbury's novel once again. Before starting to burn books there was a long transition period in *Fahrenheit 451*, the beginning stage of which was shortened books. According to Captain Beatty, books were simplified in consequence of changes in XX century - life was speeding up together with appearance of new technologies: "Picture it. Nineteenth-century man with his horses, dogs, carts, slow motion. Then, in the twentieth century, speed up your camera. Books cut shorter. Condensations, Digests. Tabloids. Everything boils down to the gag, the snap ending" (Bradbury, 1953, p.9). Unbelievably, William Shakespeare's *Hamlet* was so oversimplified that finally its length reached one page only.

Simultaneously, time for book reviews was eventually reduced from fifteen to two minutes in radio programmes. During the second stage of the transition period people insisted on banning publication of books difficult to understand. To avoid a massive protest, the writers started writing books easily perceptible for all readers. On the third stage of the transition period minorities demanded to prohibit books against their beliefs: "Coloured people don't like Little Black Sambo. Burn it. White people don't feel good about Uncle Tom's Cabin. Burn it. Someone's written a book on tobacco and cancer of the lungs? The cigarette people are weeping? Bum the book" (Bradbury, 1953, p.29). In the end, valuable books were replaced by sex journals and commixes. Describing this situation Ray Bradbury refers to a tendency starting in the USA in the 1950s – publication of book summaries. Currently, the summaries of multiple paged books are accessible to everyone through the Internet. As a result, people seldom read authentic texts, they don't value literature losing an ability to think independently and feel the author's style. Modern society holds the first stage in the transition period considering the fact that we have already started to simplify books. Still, there is hope to make a difference and avoid further complications leading to book burning.

Another similarity between the novel and the reality is that a flawed educational system isn't able to spread intellectualism among students providing them with endless information not teaching how to do an analysis and connect facts logically. Although Ray Bradbury criticizes an educational system of America through his novel *Fahrenheit 451*, his criticism is generally related to the whole world. A kindergarten and college have become the same educational institutions in the dystopian future: "Do you see? Out of the nursery into the college and back to the nursery; there's your intellectual pattern for the past five centuries or more" (Bradbury, 1953, p. 26). Timetable at school is arranged in such a way that playing and sports are given more time than studying: "An hour of TV class, an hour of basketball or baseball or running, another hour of transcription history or painting pictures, and more sports" (Bradbury, 1953, p. 14). Lessons are conducted using TV and radio. Television and radio can be useful to develop people mentally, but the government doesn't do it and instead uses them to dumb people. Number of schools has been reduced, discipline has been lightened. The aim of schools has become to exhaust children and make it easier to control them. There are more sportsmen among high school graduates than intellectuals. Educational system of future America doesn't focus on improving intellect and critical thinking of young people: "but do you know, we never ask questions, or at least most don't; they just run the answers at you, bing, bing, bing, and us sitting there for four more hours of filmteacher" (Bradbury, 1953, p. 14). Being educated means to have systematic knowledge - one should be able to question and analyse what he/she sees. A truly educated person in Ray Bradbury's novel should have guessed what was the real aim of television. Unfortunately, majority of people living in futuristic America couldn't foresee the actual purpose of mass media. "Give the people contests they win by remembering the words to more popular songs ... chock them so damned full of 'facts' they feel stuffed, but absolutely 'brilliant' with information. Then they'll feel they're thinking," (Bradbury, 1953, p. 29) wrote Ray Bradbury in *Fahrenheit 451* and with these words he makes us think about educational system critically. At present, children graduate from high schools without being able to read proficiently. What's more, many students aren't prepared to enter university, most teenagers don't have any idea what an intellectual life is and they aren't capable of waiting patiently to become

professionals. On top of that, even at universities students aren't taught how to do an analysis and evaluate political or social events objectively.

As gain has become the main criterion when choosing a future profession, both in the novel and modern life, subjects that fall under the Humanities are rapidly disappearing from curriculum. Professor Faber says regretfully that in the 1950s an interest in Humanities decreased, subjects such as philosophy, history, literature and languages were removed from a curriculum. The tendency of neglecting Humanities is noticeable today as well. An analysis by American Academy of Arts & Sciences shows that from 2012 and 2014 a number of bachelor degrees in Humanities has decreased by 8.7%. Such kind of drop has been caused by the fact that women have lost an interest in Humanities (Jaschick, 2016). The reason for this change might be a wish to get a better paid job that Technical Sciences can offer. North Carolina Governor in 2013 Patrick McCrory claimed that the change of legislation on higher education funding was caused by the wish the students to have majors which would guarantee to find jobs. The problem doesn't exist only in the USA. It's a global problem as funding of Humanities has declined throughout the world.

In conclusion, Ray Bradbury's novel *Fahrenheit 451* is a vivid picture of XXI century. The similarities between the novel and a real life are so obvious that one cannot ignore them. Books are becoming less popular thanks to television. However, a computer and the Internet are further major distractions that threaten books in today's life. Technology provides people with food and circuses and diverts their attention from serious matters allowing the Government to act willfully. Also, because of technology human relationships have lost their traditional value. Besides, Reading summaries of books has become a habit for many ignoring the fact that summaries don't give readers an opportunity to think critically and independently. An educational system doesn't guarantee that students will receive a quality education and develop as intellectuals. Humanities are losing their popularity among students under the shade of Technical Sciences. These similarities prove that an undesirable future Ray Bradbury described in *Fahrenheit 451* might be our present. In spite of these similarities there is still hope that our society will soon become aware of flaws of modern life. An undesirable future can still be avoided by making changes – reading valuable books, critically evaluating a negative influence of mass media, paying more attention to people rather than a TV or computer and resisting the process of becoming a dumb zombified senseless robot.

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ENGLISH LANGUAGE LESSONS GARNISHED WITH BIOLOGY VOCABULARY

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Abstract

The aim of this conference paper is to present the ways of holding an integrated lesson as well as to present its importance in Georgian school reality from a number of perspectives. Nowadays, according to the Ministry of Education of Georgia, holding an integrated lesson is one of the ways and components for Georgian teachers to gather credits. Gathering credits is quite vital for Georgian teachers. It is due to the credits that teachers have a possibility to maintain their title of Practitioner or to gain higher titles such as Chief, Leader or Mentor. Although, taking into consideration the fact that there are no guidelines provided by the Ministry of Education about how an integrated lesson should be held, very few teachers are aware of its techniques. Furthermore, integrated lessons can be seen as a tool to help students develop meaningful understanding of a particular topic and promote critical thinking - the skill that is highly valued in the 21st century. This paper will try to shed some light on this challenge on the example of the English language lessons integrated with biology lessons as a way to develop Georgian high school students' reading skill for academic purposes.

Keywords: Interdisciplinary approach, integrated lessons, English for Academic Purposes, reading skills, vocabulary.

Introduction

Nowadays it is considered that Japan and Finland have the best Educational systems. Finnish students have results in international tests on the worldwide scale. In 2000 Finnish education system made headlines when in Programme for International Assessment Test (PISA) in 2003 students from Finland had the highest scores in reading, and in in 2006 – in Math and in Science (Lewis, 2017). It means that Finland is on the right way from the points of view of Educational system.

As for Georgia, its results ranked the 59th in Science, the 62nd in Math and the 64th in reading out of 72 countries (PISA, 2015). Consequently, the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia has a long way to go in order to meet the worldwide 21st century requirements and challenges and to keep up with the latest educational trends. However, it is worth noting that the issue of education is gaining more and more interest and importance in contemporary Georgian society.

One of the main ingredients and secrets of the successful Japanese and Finnish educational systems can be considered the integrated or the so-called interdisciplinary approach to education (Ministry of Education and Culture, n.d.).

The word “interdisciplinary” is defined in on-line Oxford dictionary as “relating to more than one branch of knowledge” (Oxford Dictionary). In this research only two branches Biology and English language will be related to each other. The idea of integrated studies – considered as a student-oriented approach – originated from such splendid educators as John Dewey and Howard Gardner. They praised the virtues of studying subjects in a holistic, contextual way rather than in vacuum. But the history of integrated or the so-called interdisciplinary curriculum and syllabus was first tested and dates back to the famous Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association.

...Since then 80 nominative or comparative studies have been carried out on the effectiveness of integrated programs. In nearly every sentence students in various types of integrative/interdisciplinary programs have performed as well or better on standardized achievement tests than students enrolled in the usual separate subjects. (Vars, 1991)

Generally, integrated education might imply a range of themes, including international relations and environment. Reading and writing occupy an important place in the curriculum (Japanese Embassy in Georgia, n.d.). Furthermore, teachers have total freedom in interpreting the curriculum the way they want. In addition, students are actively involved in the process of lesson planning. This approach gives the possibility to students to explore the topic in a deeper way through the interdisciplinary inquiry (Lewis, 2017).

In the era of educational reforms in Georgia the teacher-oriented approach was substituted by the student-oriented approach and an interdisciplinary approach in education was implemented as well, but some of reforms, including the interdisciplinary approach were a total failure. The interdisciplinary approach was evaluated critically for multiple reasons. Some thought that there were no properly trained teachers and others considered that integrated curriculum was of low efficiency as there was lack of proper textbooks and materials (Ganatlebis..., n.d.).

In 2014, according to the United Nations Development Program, one of the Millennium Development Goals in Georgia was insurance of a proper functioning of interdisciplinary educational programs (Mtavroba, 2014). Three years after it the above-mentioned problems are still common. Maybe one of the reasons is the evidence that, despite the fact that integrated lessons are a part of the National Education Plan, very few teachers implement them in their teaching routine and the Ministry of Education and Science does not impose teachers to adopt the interdisciplinary approach. Furthermore, as this research reveals, not many teachers are familiar with the techniques of holding integrated lessons.

Thus, the aim of this research and conference paper is to prove that the lack of the textbooks have nothing in common with the low efficiency of integrated lessons. Its aim is to show that just the lack of the right educational policy, will and motivation of teachers and the lack of knowledge of techniques of holding integrated lessons are the main

reasons that prevent the successful implementation of the interdisciplinary approach in Georgian schools. The research aims as well at revealing the fact that embracing interdisciplinary approach is a key to teachers' and students' success.

It is well-known that at an early age students have difficulties with analyzing, synthesizing or generalizing abstract ideas. For this reason a well-planned integrated lesson can be seen as a tool that will let students better understand the content of the subject or explore it in a new context and at the same time to develop their reading skills or its sub-skills such as vocabulary sub-skills of the reading skills. In addition, it will allow teachers not only to meet their students' needs, but also to conform to the requirements of the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia. According to the National Education Plan, school should ensure applied studies that imply the step-by-step and plury-lateral explanation of the educative materials, the examination of new topics and concepts in a totally new context and direction of interdisciplinary links and work out the common aspects of various courses (subjects). It is important that in the process of the development of language skills every subject is implemented and the integrated approach of teaching is adopted. Language bridges must be created between the school subjects. It will allow students to share with each other the knowledge of the language and the experience gained in different contexts. In Georgia adopting an interdisciplinary approach is useful not only for students, but also for teachers, as it allows them to gain credits in order to either maintain their status or to have it promoted to Chief, leader or Mentor Teacher's position. Being involved in the Teacher Professional Development Schema (it is compulsory for every teacher who works at a public school in Georgia) means that teacher has to gather credits for various activities that increase their professional level.

Litterature Review

Reading Strategies in EAP

Learning or teaching English is a great challenge, as students come to the English classes with different experiences, different backgrounds and different objectives. Teaching English has become a very demanding job, especially nowadays, when fluency in English is required almost at any qualified job. But there are moments when a person is fluent in English but lacks knowledge of the reading strategies that prevents him/her from being a successful employee. Thus, reading is one of the most important and at the same time the most often mastered, receptive skills in the EAP, ESL or EFL classes, but as for the reading strategies, only 2% of classroom time is dedicated to their development (Houston, n.d.)

First of all, the terms 'reading skills' and 'reading strategies' should be differentiated from each other, because these two terms are very often mixed up by the students and by the teachers, too. Reading strategy can be defined as a "deliberate, goal-directed attempts to control and modify the reader's efforts to decode text, understand words, and construct meanings of text" (Afflerbach, Pearson & Paris, 2008, p.368), as for the reading skills, they are automatic actions that result in decoding and comprehension with speed, efficiency, and fluency and usually occur without awareness of the components or control involved. Being a strategic reader means that reader can chose on his own in an automatic

way the strategy that will help him to easily understand the text that he reads. Strategic reading is a dynamic process that pushes the student to make decisions on the strategies according to the type of the text and goals and requirements. As for the reading skill, it is sort of habit that is practiced automatically, without the reader's control and conscience (Afflerbach et al., 2008).

Actually, it is very difficult to give an exact definition of the word 'reading' because it is not only the receptive skill or a process of decoding the written language, but also a very complex process of interaction. According to Dutcher (1990), reading can be seen as a process of interaction of the reader's background knowledge and the written text or language.

As for McNamara (2007), he considers that reading is a sectional process: as every new skill, it is based on the mastery of the skills that have been learned previously. For example, at first a child learns how to decode the words, later to understand the meaning of the words, sentences or of the full texts. It is considered that decoding problems are seen as the root of most reading disabilities.

Being fluent in reading means that the reader has the ability to read between the lines, be familiar with reading strategies and to have ability to use background knowledge to process the new information (Wiggins, 1989). Reading not only improves concentration, communication, imagination and literacy level that in turn improve opportunities of learning, educational subject areas, but also develops empathy and social skills, work and personal wellbeing. Within the time reading strategies gain more and more importance as students with good reading skills usually have a rich vocabulary that leads to highly developed language skills and higher ability to successfully comprehend the text and also to overcome problems that might arise while reading (O'Reilly et al., 2007). In other words those who master reading strategies are better in reading comprehension, but strategy instruction is particularly important for those students who have less domain knowledge or lower reading skills (ibid).

The process of reading is not only the process of reading the text. It starts with the reader's critical thinking before the reader starts reading the text. The process of reading can be divided into three main steps: a) pre-reading, b) during reading, c) post-reading. In pre-reading activity the reader should ask himself what his intention to read the text is: a) to find some information, b) to become informed, c) to get some particular knowledge, d) to communicate with others, e) to make something, f) to get pleasure or any other (Centre FORA, 2013). Once the choice is done, the reader can start a) predicting - actually we as readers do it in our everyday life. For example, when we buy a newspaper, we do not read every page, we decide which article is interesting for us by looking at the headlines, sub-titles, pictures and any other visual effects. This is sort of familiarization with the text; the same should be done before reading the EAP text. b) skimming - means looking through the text, most often in that case the reader reads only the first lines of each paragraph to understand the main idea, c) scanning - when the reader looks at the numbers, names, key words and symbols to answer the questions or d) reading the text for detail - that is the moment when understanding of each part of the text is

important (EAP resources online reading, n.d.). All these steps can be considered as during reading strategies and finally comes the post-reading strategy that involves drawing and analyzing information, paraphrasing, summarizing, etc.

Generally there are several approaches in reading strategies: a) bottom-up, b) top-down or also known as inside-out processing and c) interactive one. The bottom-up strategy can be seen as a constructive process where the reader tries to decode the orthographic input, words linked into sentences and paragraphs. As for the top-down process, it happens when the reader tries to read the text as a whole and understand the meaning of the language, relying on the few context clues, instead of stopping at each new word or sentence that is unfamiliar for the reader (Bartram, 2014).

Devine (2012) says that using only bottom-up or top-down approach is not always efficient and that the reader should keep a balance between them. An interactive reading strategy has been developed by David E. Rumelhart in 1977. In the interactive reading strategy the reader uses both bottom-up and top-down approaches are used at the same time to draw the meaning from the text. In the interactive approach the reader relies mostly on his/her background knowledge to predict the content of the text used in the text.

Generally saying, reading strategies are classified in different ways, but the most common division has been done by O'Malley and Chamot (1995). They divide reading strategies into cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Cognitive strategies involve paraphrasing, summarizing or guessing meaning from context, repetition or using imagination or mnemonics to better memorize the text. Metacognitive strategies can most of all be seen as self-management and evaluation, it is a sort of thinking about thinking.

In this paper most attention will be paid to the development of the pre-, during and post-reading strategies such as predicting, skimming, scanning and reading for detail.

Definition of English for Academic purposes

In the era of globalization of economics and culture English has become the major language of higher education as well. Students from different countries are moving around the world to get education. "Fluency in the norms of English language academic discourse is important as process and product of learning" (Flowerdew, 2005, p. XIII). Migrant students most often need to understand the lectures, take the notes, follow the textbooks and get good marks at the examinations. As for researchers, they try to publish their works in English as it allows their works to be spread in the world faster and read by more people than it would be in their mother tongue.

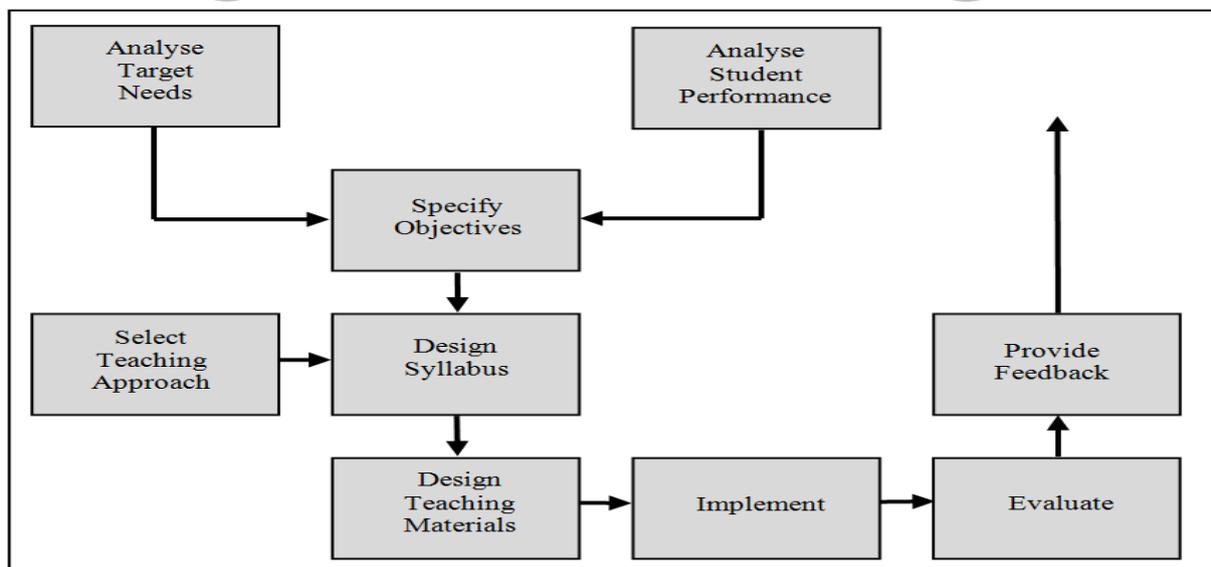
All these factors have been the reason of the development of the field called English for Academic Purposes. The field of EAP counts more than 30 years of existence and interest towards it grows day by day.

Actually, EAP emerged from the field of English for Specific Purposes. In the 1980s Carver divided ESP into three main groups such as: 1) English as a Restricted Language, 2) English for Academic and Occupational Purposes and 3)

English with Specific Topics. So, EAP as well as EOP were presented as one group of ESP (Shing, 2011). Maybe that is the reason why EAP is very often mixed up with English for Occupational Purposes. The border between these two terms is not very accurate. Consequently, it seems that not all the researchers are able to give an exact definition of the term 'EAP'.

In reality EAP differs enough from EOP as well as from English from English for General Purposes and aims to make learner's study or research easier in English. According to Coffey (as cited in Sagar, 2002), EAP can be seen as a 'quick and economical use' of English to proceed along the course of academic study. On the other hand, Zhu and Flaitz (2005) describe EAP as a "key responsibility" to assess the ESL students' proficiency in English that is considered to be the guarantee of their academic success. As for Khen, (2002, p. 2) EAP's main aim is "to provide insights into the structures and meanings of academic texts, into the demands placed by academic contexts on communicative behaviours and into the pedagogic practices by which these behaviours can be developed" It covers the following fields:

- Pre-tertiary, undergraduate and postgraduate teaching (from the design of materials to lectures and classroom tasks).
- Classroom interactions (from teacher feedback to tutorials and seminar discussions).
- Research genres (from journal articles to conference papers and grant proposals).
- Student writing (from essays to exam papers and graduate theses).
- Administrative practice (from course documents to doctoral oral defenses).



As Dudley-Evans (2001, p. ix) notes, EAP often tends to be a practical affair, and these areas are typically understood in terms of local contexts and the needs of particular students (Hyland, 2002). An EAP course itself implies the four skills that by Dudley-Evans are divided into five different units: Monologue, Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. In EAP

course great attention is paid to the aims and expectations that the students have according to their occupations such as studying, working etc. Consequently the objective of EAP is to identify students' needs and then to analyze them and find out what kind of practices and language will they have to pay attention to. Gillet (2015) offers the following diagram to show how it works.

To sum up, it encounters all aspects of teaching amongst them curriculum and materials development, assessment, language analyses and methodology (Flowerdew, 2005). It implies theory development as well as innovative practice of teaching EFL.

Method

As the interdisciplinary approach is controversially viewed by the teachers of Georgia, the effectiveness of this method in teaching reading strategies and vocabulary for Academic Purposes are analyzed. This mini-research is quantitative with some elements of qualitative methods. The research question of the study is the following: Does the implementation of the interdisciplinary approach in English classes really promote the enrichment of the vocabulary in EFL students and make the students master reading strategies? The results of the experiment group (EG) where interdisciplinary approach was applied and the control group (CG) where traditional approaches were applied were compared and analyzed.

The study was performed during one semester at a private school N.L.E. "Chveni Skola," Tbilisi, Georgia. Before the experiment a paper-based questionnaire was delivered to the Public School #11 and private school N.L.E. "Chveni Skola" teachers. Some of these teachers were interviewed as well. The interviews were recorded and then a transcript was done.

The aim of the questionnaire and interviews was to detect whether teachers were aware of the interdisciplinary approach, of what its advantages and disadvantages are or whether there is any particular age group that supports interdisciplinary approach and which subject pairs are most common, also what advice they would give to the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia or to their colleagues concerning the issue.

After conducting the interviews and the questionnaire some students were randomly selected. They were from N.L.E. "Chveni Skola" - tenth and eleventh graders aged between 16 and 18. As in this school each class counts no more than 14 students, 28 students participated in this research. For this reason at the beginning of the research an English language placement test was given to the students that revealed that the groups were not homogenous and there were students with three different levels in both groups.

The 14 students from each class were equally divided into the Experiment and the Control Groups. Consequently, seven tenth-graders were in the experimental group and seven - in the control group. The same was done in the eleventh grade. Each group – the EG as well as the CG - had students with pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate English proficiency. On the whole the groups' language level was similar.

A pre-test was held before starting the study in order to find out whether students were familiar with the vocabulary used in the scientific texts they would be exposed to during the experiment. The test included 150 scientific terms and students had either to write the definitions in Georgian or to leave a blank if they were not familiar with the meaning of the word. Finally 100 words were chosen to be taught through the interdisciplinary approach. The test included a new text that was followed by tasks that required the application of the bottom-up, top-down and interactive reading strategies.

Before the experiment the EFL teacher, in collaboration with Biology teacher, made up a list of topics out of the Biology and EFL textbooks that were common and that would give them the possibility to hold the lessons together. Afterwards students were offered the list of topics and they had to tick those that seemed the most interesting to them. Finally, an integrated syllabus, integrated lesson plans as well as teaching materials such as texts, exercises and presentations were created by the Biology and EFL teachers. The lessons were dedicated to the development of teaching reading strategies, such as bottom-up, top-down and interactive reading, putting the theoretical knowledge of the strategies in practice and to teaching vocabulary.

As the idea how many new words should EFL students be taught in a lesson is an issue of discussions (some scientists agree on two and others at nine new words per day (Sparks, 2013), students were exposed to no more than five new words per contact hour. As for the exercises that followed, the texts were designed in a way that not only the reading strategies were practiced but also the new vocabulary. Exercises included productive skills, such as speaking and writing, that ensured repetition of the new words at least 10 times that promoted a better memorization of the new words, although, according to some studies (Sparks, 2013), a new word should be encountered at least 28 times in order that the word was transferred in the long-term memory of a student.

During the research the EG was taught during 45-minute lessons with the interdisciplinary syllabus that involved EFL lessons held not only in collaboration with the Biology teacher, but in solo, too. As for the CG, they followed the ordinary EFL syllabus that involves only the textbooks that are authorized by the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia.

At the end of the experiment (duration - 20 lessons) a post-test was introduced. The test included a list of 100 new words and students had to write their definitions in L1. The aim of the test was to find out whether the students gained any new scientific vocabulary. There was also a test that involved a new text followed by the tasks that would enable to see whether the students have developed their reading strategies. Both pre- as well as post-test were assessed out of 100 points.

At the end of the experiment two post-tests were provided. One test was to check whether the students acquired the reading strategies and another one - to check whether the students acquired scientific vocabulary. The results of EG and CG were compared.

Results

Placement Test

Before the start of the research an on-line placement test was held in EG and CG. The test assessed their grammar and vocabulary skills. Questions became easier or harder according to how well the students answered them. There was a time-limit: ten minutes for grammar and vocabulary. The test revealed that in the tenth as well as in the eleven grades there were students with A2 and B1 levels (see diagram № 1). So the classes were not homogenous. But the difference between the classes was really slight - only thirteen percent with A2 level in tenth grade and seven percent in eleventh grade. The rest of the group had B1 level in both groups in grammar as well as in vocabulary.

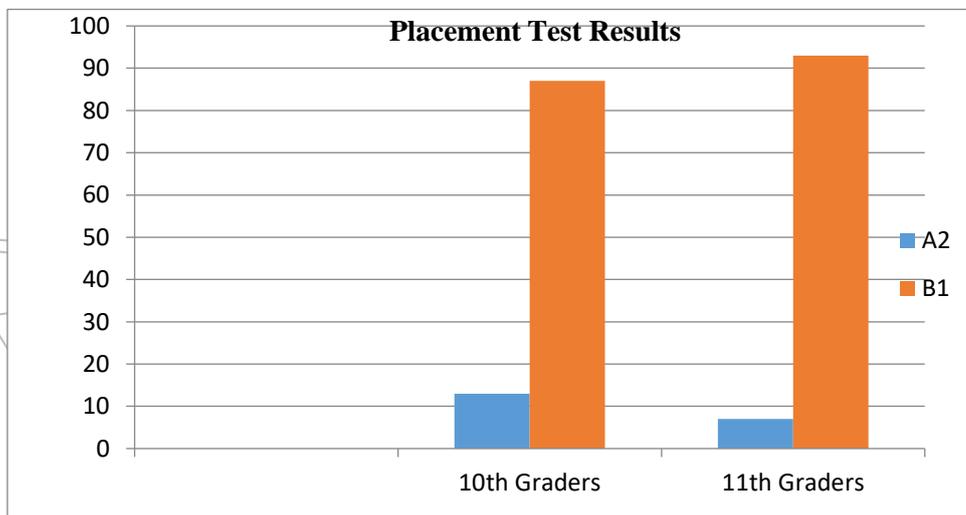


Diagram № 1

Pre Test and Post Test in Vocabulary

A list of 150 words related to biology was delivered to students of the EG and the CG. The students had to write definitions in L1 or leave a blank if they were not familiar with the meaning. It revealed that the students were not familiar with more than 46 words in the list. So 100 words were chosen out of 150 and implemented in the texts and materials designed for the integrated lessons.

At the end of the experiment the same test №2 was introduced with the EG and with the CG. It revealed that the students from EG acquired and remembered on average 77 new scientific words, while the students from CG they were familiar with no more than 19 new science words (see diagram № 2).

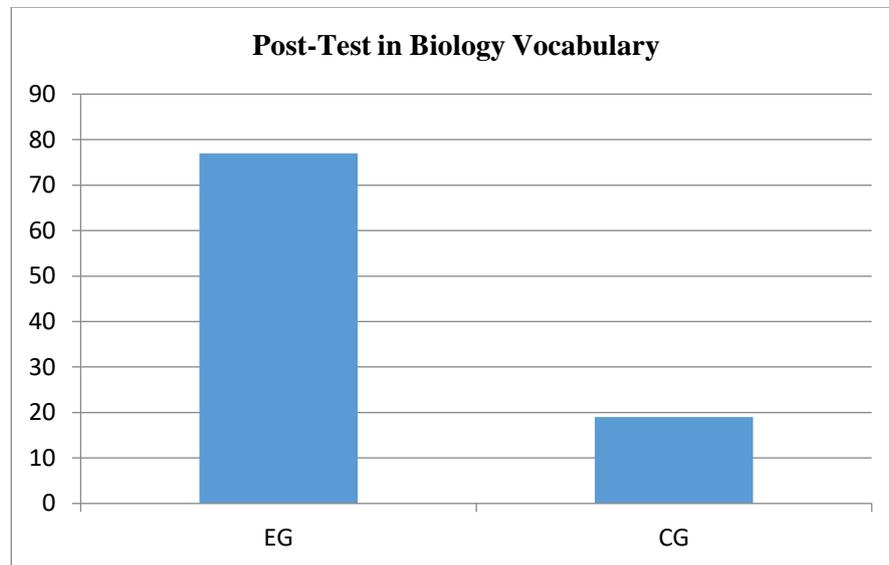


Diagram № 2

Reading

A pre-reading test revealed that 27% from the EG and 25% from the CG managed to gather highest scores; as for the rest of the participants, 49% from the EG and 50% from the CG got average scores and 24% from the EG and 22% - below the standard (see diagram № 3).

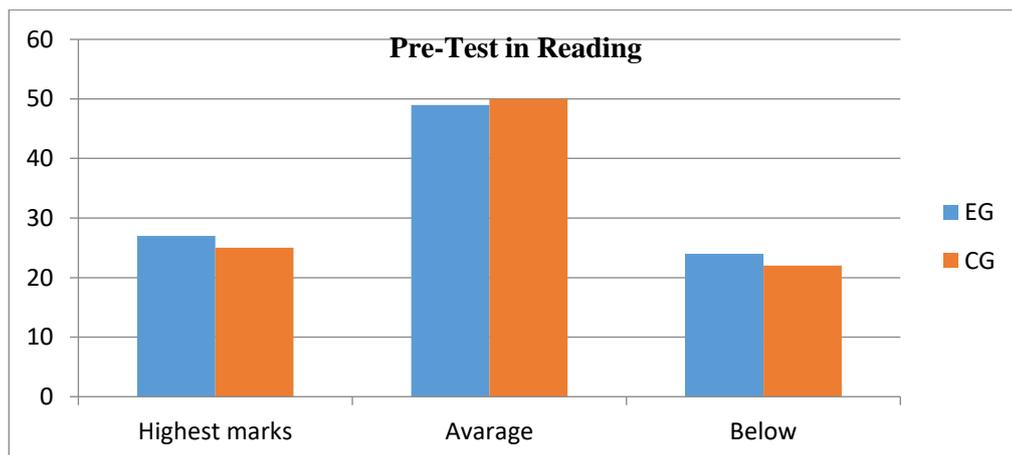


Diagram № 3

As for the post-test in reading, it revealed that the participants from the EG made a more significant progress than the CG participants. Namely, the EG made a 6% progress in gathering the highest scores and an 11% in gathering average scores. Only four percent got marks below the standard. Meanwhile, the CG progressed only by 3% in

gathering the highest scores and 2% - in gathering average scores. 22% gathered below the standard results (see diagram № 4).

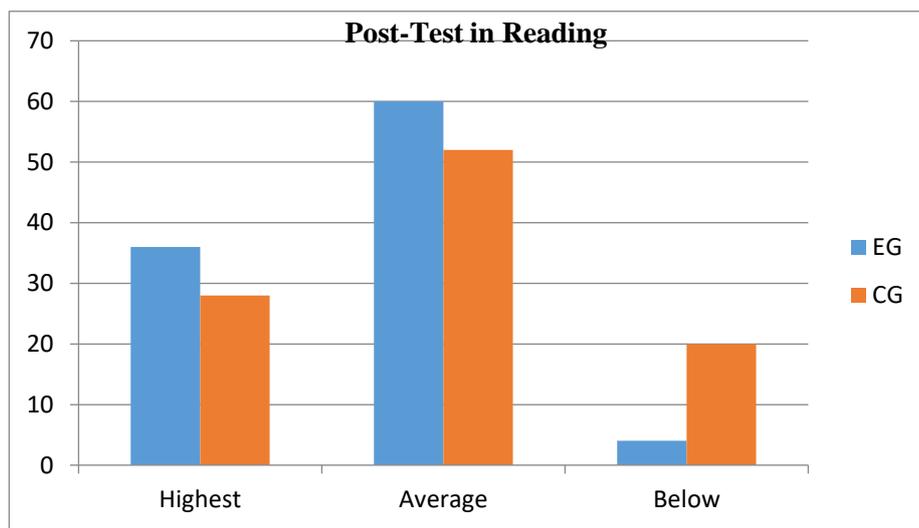


Diagram № 4

Questionnaire and interviews

All in all 31 teachers filled in the questionnaire and were interviewed. Interviews were in the form of semi-structured dialogues. As for the survey, it was paper-based. The questionnaire consisted of different type of questions. There were some close-ended and open-ended questions. There were some yes-no questions or questions with multiple choice answers.

Sample questions:

1. Full name (optional): _____.

2. Your age:

22-30 31-40 41-50 51-60 61-70 70>

3. You are a teacher of

Foreign languages: (specify) _____ Georgian language and literature Geography

History Maths Chemistry Physics Sports Art Science and Biology

Civil education and security Informational technologies

4. Are you familiar with the concept of the interdisciplinary approach?

Yes No

5. Where did you first hear about the interdisciplinary approach?

6. Are you familiar with the techniques of holding integrated lessons?

Yes No

7. In your opinion, during the integrated lessons how many teachers should be present at the lesson?

One Two Both answers are possible

8. Have you ever implemented the interdisciplinary approach in your teaching routine?

Yes What made you motivated? _____

No - why? _____

9. What do you think are advantages of interdisciplinary approach?

10. What do you think are disadvantages of interdisciplinary approach?

11. If you hold integrated lessons, which discipline you integrate it with?

Foreign languages: (specify) _____ Georgian language and literature Geography

History Maths Chemistry Physics Sports Art Science and Biology

Civil education and security Informational technologies

13. What advice would you give to the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia or to the school managers in order that the interdisciplinary approach is fully adopted?

The surveys and interviews revealed that 45% is aware of the concept of integrated lessons, but only 6% out of it have the experience of conducting integrated lessons in collaboration with another teacher (see diagram № 5).

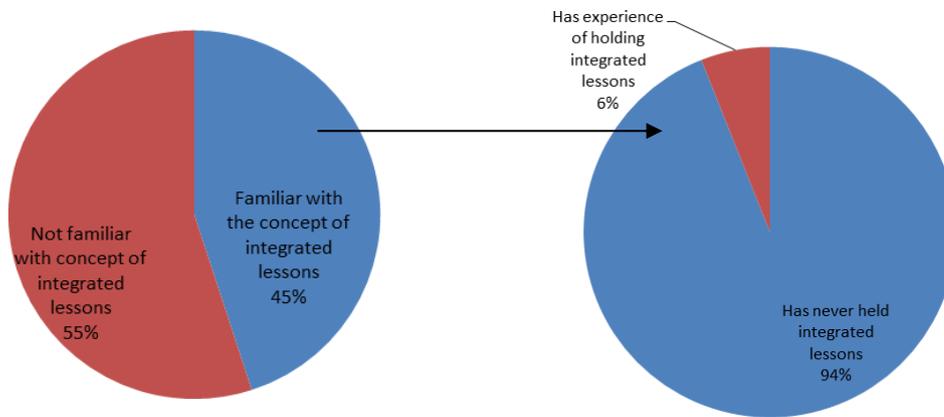


Diagram № 5

In most cases there were biology, chemistry, physics, history and geography teachers who were aware of the interdisciplinary concept, because, as they stated, several years ago interdisciplinary textbooks were created by the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia. Science was paired with chemistry and biology and history - with geography. The rest of the respondents heard about the interdisciplinary approach not via the National Plan of Education of Georgia (which has to be used every year by teachers as a guideline to write the syllabus) but mostly in training centers.

When these teachers were shown the extract from National Education Plan of Georgia that says that school should ensure applied studies that imply the step-by-step and plury-lateral explanation of the educative materials, the examination of new topics and concepts in a totally new context and direction of interdisciplinary links and work-out of common aspects, there were someone who said: "I usually do not read the whole text of the National Plan of Education, I read mostly those bits that directly concern my subject, so I have never read this part."

There were also teachers who claim that, despite the fact that they read the National Education Plan of Georgia, they were not aware of the techniques and did not have an idea how the approach should be adopted. "I had an idea about an interdisciplinary approach, but I did not know about the procedures, it seemed too mysterious to me before the day I attended the trainings organized by one of the NGOs." .."I think these kinds of trainings should be organized by the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, not by NGOs. It would give an equal chance to all teachers to get familiar with the approach and techniques".

Interviews revealed that in most cases gathering a credit was/is/will be the motivation to hold an integrated lesson. One of the teachers said: "I do not remember if it was the previous year or two years ago, but I hold an integrated lesson with a Russian Language teacher. It was a real challenge. I even recorded a video and uploaded it to my blog hoping that I would gain at least one credit but I have not been assessed yet. Actually, the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia

changes things every time. It is not normal. We lose motivation to do something new... and yes, honestly, gathering credits was my motivation”.

Another teacher said: “Actually, integrated lessons require so much time and energy and we are paid so little money, I do not think it is worth holding them, it is just an extra “head-ache” for me”.

There are also teachers who already held or are eager to hold integrated lessons just because they do love challenges and are happy when they are able to teach something new to their students. In this research they were aged between 22 and 40. They said that the increased motivation of students increases their motivation as well and that they were eager to diversify the tools of teaching despite the challenges they had.

One of the teachers said: “Planning an integrated lesson is already a challenge, you must approach the director and ask to change the time-table (one 45-minute lesson is not always enough), you must find a partner who will be as motivated as you, create materials and then conduct a lesson. I admit that it is a really hard job, but I think it is worth it, because students get a great benefit out of it and it makes me happy”.

4% of the respondents think that it is worth to embrace the interdisciplinary approach because it is one of the ways to increase students’ internal and external motivation, to let students form new skills and at the same time to let students use the already acquired knowledge in a new context that makes the process of remembering important materials easier and the learning process more enjoyable and productive. They note that the interdisciplinary approach adds depth to the lessons and the way of teaching, it enables to bring out students’ hidden skills and knowledge and use it for the differentiated learning, it makes the syllabus much more flexible and enables the teacher to share experience with other colleagues. The approach gives a possibility to promote critical thinking in students and acquire new skills and knowledge.

However, some teachers who have the experience of holding integrated lessons are categorically against the approach. “I think it is a waste of time, students did not learn much. Furthermore, from my point of view, the lessons require to be planned in detail, it requires too much time and energy. “Time consuming”, “energy-consuming,” “waste of time” are those attributes that the teachers used to evaluate the interdisciplinary approach.

The older generation says that they have difficulties with pacing up with all those novelties that are being introduced by the Ministry of Education and Science and, furthermore, they think that the salary is not enough to be worth those efforts that the integrated lessons require. Even though the interdisciplinary approach can be seen as one of the ways to gain credits, they say that there is no point in wasting time and energy, because private schools do not increase salary due to it anyway, as for teachers, they do not think of changing the working place and moving to public schools where the work of qualified teachers is being much more appreciated from the point of view of salary. As for those who think to move to public schools not all of them are motivated to gain a higher status and become promoted. They say that according to the latest changes in Educational laws teachers have the right to work just as practitioners, they are not eager to bother in order to have higher salary. “I am satisfied with my salary, I would definitely be happier if I had more,

but I think that the difference in the salary I will get if I gather enough credits to be promoted is not worth bothering, I will work until the school director fires me, and I already have my pension.”

The questionnaire showed that despite the fact that integrated lessons are a part of the Education Plan, very few teachers implement them in their teaching routine. If they implement them, they try to make their task easy and to integrate lessons only with related subjects. For example, there are mostly L1 and L2 or L3 that are paired or history and geography. There are also pairs of chemistry and physics or physics and Math.

Instruction for the integrated lessons

Besides the recommendations, interviews gave a possibility to take note of key concepts of plans and procedures of giving integrated lessons. To sum up, there are two ways of holding integrated lessons: 1) in duo, 2) in solo.

1. Holding lessons in duo means holding lessons in presence of a biology teacher. In other words there are two teachers in the classroom – an EFL and a Biology teacher - and they take turns while holding the lesson according to the needs, tasks and the goals of the lesson. The lessons are planned in advance in cooperation with each other. The lessons are held in two languages: Georgian (because in Georgia biology teachers are not always good enough in English to give the lessons in English) and in English by the EFL teacher. There is no teacher who is dominant during the lesson.
2. As for the lesson in solo, it means that there is only one teacher who is in the classroom, but the lesson might be planned in solo or in cooperation with another subject teacher. The lessons are held only in English, but there are moments when the application of terms in the L1 becomes necessary.

Generally, at least two subjects might be integrated, but integration of more than two subjects is also possible. Before planning the lesson and activities, several factors should be taken into consideration: the goal of the lesson, students' profile, the type of the lesson (revision or introducing current materials), teaching strategy as well as the duration of a lesson.

In any case, integrated lessons are usually preceded by the collaborative work of teachers of these two subjects. The lesson activities are planned in the most precise details.

The stages of planning the integrated lessons are the following:

- 1) Choosing a topic;
- 2) Planning a lesson individually or in cooperation with one of colleagues;
- 3) Preparing all necessary materials;
- 4) Holding the lesson;

5) Feedback.

How to choose a topic for an integrated lesson and how to plan it?

First of all, being aware of the presence of students with special needs or being familiar with the students' language level or background knowledge is very important. It allows teachers to predict and to be ready for the difficulties that might arise during the lessons.

If it is a group that you do not know yet, a pre-test or a level test must be held. Once we are aware of the students' strengths or weaknesses and their background knowledge, it is time to choose the topic. The topic should allow students to learn the same issue from different point of views. The topic must be in the frames of the National Curriculum of Georgia and in correspondence with the level of the class. For this reason practitioner teachers mention that choosing a topic is the most difficult part of the integrated lesson. So, collaboration with the colleagues plays a vital role.

There are two ways of choosing a topic. A topic is chosen at first and then a group of teachers starts working about it. Or it is a group of teachers who gathers to choose a topic. There are moments when an EFL teacher thinks that there is a topic that would be better acquired by students if it is explained in cooperation with a Biology teacher. So the EFL teacher offers a topic to Biology teacher, and if he/she agrees, they plan an integrated lesson together.

For example, if a scientific text is introduced in EFL textbooks (e.g. Stages of development of butterflies), most probably, the material is already familiar to students from the science lessons. In that case students are asked to say what they know about the topic. Students brainstorm in English. Afterwards, students think of the questions that they would like to be answered by their Biology teacher. Then, students read the text from the textbook in English and do the exercises that follow the texts. The discussions are conducted.

There are also moments, when the information in the Biology textbooks about some particular topics is not enough and the Biology teacher wants to provide further information. In that case an EFL teacher finds some materials on the internet, adapts the texts in a way that they are comprehensible for students and at the same time useful to develop reading strategies and informative, and makes up exercises for vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension.

Once the topic is selected (preferably several topics), they should be in advance presented to students. As one of the interviewees said, there are moments, when teachers choose a topic, but just in the middle of holding the integrated lesson teachers realize it is not at all interesting for students and instead of boosting their interest students become bored and demotivated.

As soon as the topics are presented to students and as soon as one of them is chosen by the majority of students, teaching strategies should be defined in advance, adequate and effective activities should be planned and exercises designed by the teachers in a way that at least one skill and competence set by the National Curriculum are acquired by students. Sometimes pre-teaching new vocabulary is necessary.

Very often one 45-minute lesson is not enough and the school timetable needs to be changed or the lesson continues another day. Or a group of teachers of the same class thinks that teaching together is more fruitful. In that case they choose a topic together. If the lesson is held in order to collect credits, then teachers should register in advance with the school coordinator.

Recommendations

It seems that in order that the approach is adopted, only teacher's internal motivation is not enough, but the external motivation plays a very important role as well. Namely, the adoption of the integrated approach that is nowadays optional should become compulsory, timetables should be much more flexible. Not all the school managers are eager to apply timetable changes (for example, if an integrated lesson should be held in 9th grade, and the Biology teacher is busy at that time and has a lesson in another group, the timetable needs to be changed). In some schools changes in the timetable cannot be done without hiring a specialist that is related to extra expenditure. What if the timetable were much more flexible from the very beginning? The initiative of holding an integrated lesson should be much more stimulated by the school managers. Qualified teachers working at private schools are not refunded according to their achievements, so some of them lose motivation and try to find jobs in public schools where their professional development is much more appreciated. As for the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, it should not allow those teachers who are not motivated to develop professionally and are happy and satisfied with where they already are to work at school. It is evident that Georgia does not have enough resources to substitute less qualified staff with qualified teachers in a very short period, because the number of non-qualified teachers exceeds that of qualified ones, but the process of replacement should somehow start even though it will be too slow and will require a long period of time. In addition, more training should be dedicated to the introduction of the interdisciplinary approach or to teaching techniques of holding integrated lessons or a video-recorded model- lesson with an interdisciplinary approach and instructions should be accessible for all teachers. Writing new textbooks or developing new materials would definitely be a good idea as well, but teachers should be given freedom in choosing subject pairs and students should also be involved in creating school syllabus.

Limitations Of The Study

Taking into consideration the fact that study was conducted in only one school with only one group of tenth graders and one group of eleventh graders in one school with the duration of only one semester, the results might not be generalized. The introduction of the concept of interdisciplinary approach itself in Georgia does not have a long history. Consequently, in order to provide results which would be possible to generalize, some further empirical studies must be conducted in more schools with more participants.

Conclusion

In the research the interdisciplinary approach for teaching science vocabulary can be evaluated as a more effective in comparison to traditional approaches of teaching. The pre-test revealed that despite of the heterogeneous groups at the beginning of the experiment there is no difference between the EG and CG in knowing science vocabulary, Meanwhile after conducting an experiment the post test showed that the EG acquired much more vocabulary and remarkably improved in reading strategies as they got higher marks than students from CG. The interdisciplinary approach is important for multiple reasons. There is no limitation in subject pairing because the National Education Plan of Georgia ensures the possibility to find the common topics in any subject. Those teachers who embrace this approach have chance not only diversify their ways of holding lessons but also to grow professionally as they have to exchange their ideas and experience with their partner colleagues. Embracing this approach gives them possibility to get a credit too. This approach enables students to bring out their skills and background knowledge, to acquire new skills and sub-skills and also to significantly improve their test results as they gather knowledge in different contexts and analyze information from different point of views and perspectives that enables them to memorize information better and longer. This research enabled to describe the whole process of the integrated lesson planning that might be useful to those who have not practiced integrated approach yet or to those who are just novice in this field. A full adoption of an interdisciplinary approach by the Georgian schools will be one step forward to the successful education, successful students and a way to come closer with those countries who occupy the first ten places in PISA.

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APPENDIX

Sample of integrated lesson plan

A lesson plan front page				
Teacher/s' name/s:	Date:	Length: Two of 11 45mns lessons	Grade: 11	Main focus: Vocabulary
Main aim/s: (EFL) By the end of the lesson, the students will have acquired the following reading strategy: reading for gist (B)		Subsidiary aim: By the end of the lesson, the students will have acquired the vocabulary related to biology		
Class profile:		Assumptions:		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A group of male and predominantly female Georgian teenager learners with intermediate and mostly upper-intermediate level. • Some learners are dominant and some learners lack self- confidence, thus they express themselves only when they are asked. 		Most of the students are familiar with basic vocabulary that will be in their textbook.		



Context (the situation will we use)	Materials and resources:
Daily morning routine via PPP	Power Point Presentation Text book Advertisement from internet Handouts Marker Board
Anticipated Problems:	Solutions:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some new comer students might not be familiar with basic vocabulary that they will encounter in the text from the textbook. There might not be enough students to create pairs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide handouts Let some students work in pairs of three
Teaching strategies:	
Differentiation strategies	

Time	Interaction	Activities
5 mins	EFL T-SS S-S SS-T	Stage: lead-in Aim: To rise ss'interest and practice the language for fluency Procedure: Ask students to name the activities that are seen as healthy life style by the society. Feedback: Ask randomly selected students to present his/her partner's idea.
10 mins	EFL T-SS	Stage: Pre-teach vocabulary Aim: to pre-teach to students the vocabulary that they will encounter in the reading activity. It will make students more self-confident. Procedure: Elicit the vocabulary needed for the reading activity through the Elicit / introduce a new word -Elicit from phonology and meaning

		-Highlight pronunciation, stress - Drill
5 mins	EFL T-SS S-S S-T	Stage: reading for gist Aim: Develop reading strategy. Students get ideas about what the text is about. Procedure: Ask students in pairs to look at the text during 5 seconds. Ask them the following questions: -How many people can you see in the picture -What the document is about? - What kind of document is it? Feedback: Ask randomly selected students to present his/her partner's findings
5 mins	EFL T-SS S - T	Stage: Reading for details Aim: To introduce and develop the reading strategy skill Procedure: Ask students to read the text once more and do the following tasks: (N) Feedback: Ask randomly selected student to present the answer of his pair
5 mins:	EFL T- SS S-S	Stage: interviewing/ladder discussion Aim: Produce a newly acquired vocabulary Procedure: Students in pairs have to imagine that they are doctors/patients. Doctors have to make at least 6 questions and the patients have to answer them by using the following words: Sleep, cancer, inflammation, memory , repair
5 mins	BT - SS S-S	Stage: lead-in Procedure: Ask students how they feel after sleepless night. Feedback: Ask randomly selected student to share his/her experience.
10 mins	BT- SS	Stage: lecture about the importance of sleep for the proper functioning of human body.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSE CONTENT DEVELOPMENT: PSYCHOLINGUISTIC NATURE OF SPEAKING SKILL

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Abstract

Foreign language teaching and learning is a complex phenomenon that involves four interconnected language skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. Despite the importance of mastering proficiency in each skill to become a well-rounded communicator, the most popular and effective way to communicate is through speaking. Regarding the fundamental role of speaking in communication, this study aims to investigate the way in which operations of the human mind make the speech production possible to enable educators to design a foreign language course more profoundly. Taking into consideration the processes happening in the mind during the act of speaking, teachers have an opportunity to develop the course content, including teaching methodology, techniques, activities, and assessment.

Keywords: *Psycholinguistics, speaking skill, speech production, speech production problems, course content,*

Introduction

Speech production is one of the most complex processes of human beings. The speaker must simultaneously perform several operations, such as monitoring of what he has just said in order to control the relevance to his intention, planning his next word/sentence that will fit the topic of the speech, and attempting to consider listeners' understanding and perception (Goh, 2003). This process is studied by psycholinguistics, which the branch of linguistics and psychology.

Psycholinguistics explores the relationship between the human mind and language. It treats the language user as an individual rather than a representative of a society - but an individual whose linguistic performance is determined by the strength and limitations of the mental apparatus which we all share. Its agenda is to trace similar patterns of linguistic behaviour across large groups of individual speakers of a particular language or of all languages. ...the way in which the configuration of the human mind shapes communication - even though the process involved may be so well established that we are no longer aware of them. (Field, 2003, p. 2)

The concern of psycholinguistics is the two interrelated goals of the notion of language as a product of the human mind: to set up understanding of a language as a systematic process, and to study language as a product of the human mind, analysing the way human beings establish their ideas/thoughts (Field, 2003).

An Overview of Speech Production Processes

Teachers usually consider speaking as a skill or a product paying no attention to the process of performance creation and the nature of the speaking skill. That is because they usually expect speaking as a product to occur automatically if students know the corresponding vocabulary and grammar. Focusing on speaking as a skill and a product of a language, teachers are able to set the objectives of a lesson and choose the tasks and activities to develop/improve learners' oral language abilities. Furthermore, teachers can easily observe and assess students' learning behaviours and outcomes, however, they are not enough or ineffective for a comprehensive approach to teaching speaking. This is because students' speaking micro-skills (or sub-skills) are the result of the interaction of psychological mental processes and other variables (Goh, 2003).

Willis (1996) defines speaking as a complex of different components that may vary from very spontaneous, investigational and ephemeral to more well-organized, edited and rehearsed production. According to the role each component plays, they "can be divided into those that create the skeleton of an utterance and those that flesh the skeleton out" (Bock & Levelt, 2002, p. 405). A fluent speaker may produce two or three words per second by recalling them from his/her memory, which holds thousands of elements (Levelt, Roelofs, & Meyer, 1999). This performance seems to be very easy to produce, however, the main processes (the nature of speaking process, factors influencing the speed of performance and effects of pre-task planning) are exceptionally complex (Goh, 2003).

A general framework for analysing the major processes of speaking production is suggested by Levelt (1993), which consists of three components: conceptualizing, formulation and articulation.

1. **Conceptualizing** is an intentional process of a speaker that involves selection of the topic/content or notion/information to be expressed. Once the speaker decided on the topic, s/he focuses on ideas and information for expression, making links between what was already said before, and using his/her previous knowledge about the world stored in memory. This process helps learners to activate their passive vocabulary and to retrieve the knowledge from the long-term memory.

2. **Formulation** is the process of converting the selected concepts into a language which requires the choice of words and grammar, paying attention to coherence (logic) and cohesion (tense choice, mood, numbers, personal and possessive pronouns, etc.). In other words, encoding the message with the help of various linguistic and non-linguistic language tools.

3. **Articulation** the process which "requires that elements of the non-linguistic conceptual system be mapped onto syntactic roles in sentences" (Bock & Warren, 1985, p. 47), which is conveyed through the activation and control of particular muscles of the articulatory system to carry the linguistic message to the listener in the form of sound and waves.

See below my graphic presentation of this idea.

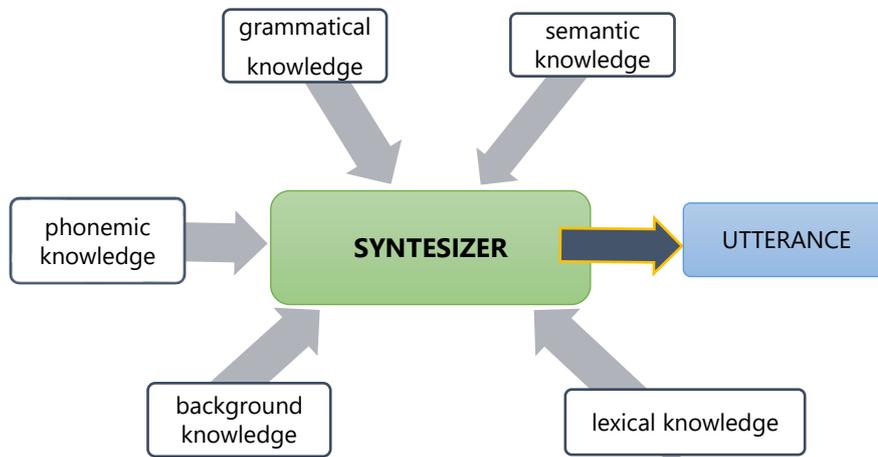
Figure 1. Major Processes of Speaking Production: Linear Model



The three processes of speaking activity (conceptualizing, formulation, articulation) all together are known as planning. The amount of time necessary to perform planning depends on the type and context of the speech produced, as well as linguistic competence of a speaker (Goh, 2003). For instance, comparing spontaneous and prepared speeches, it is possible to observe a distinct difference in performance, however, in both situations the speaker, producing his/her speech, undergoes the same steps. In a spontaneous talk (such as conversation) speakers do not have much time to plan, so conceptualizing, formulation and articulation take place simultaneously, so the speech may be less fluent and coherent. On the other hand, prepared speech (such as debates, presentations, etc.) is more successful in terms of grammar, word choice, fluency, pronunciation, as it is edited and rehearsed.

In the middle of the twentieth century, Serialist and Connectionist models of language processing were suggested, which generally explain the speaking process as "a number of cognitive stages which follow one another in a neat and orderly manner" (Goh, 2003, p. 34). This serial or linear model was later strongly criticized by the researchers, who propounded a new theory about the interactive nature of processing, which included both top-down (knowledge-driven, that relies upon evidence that is physically present, from context and whole words to word and phoneme production, and relies upon external information (Field, 2003) and bottom-up processes (data-driven, the one that starts from lower levels, such as morphemes and words, and ends on lexical, syntactic, and semantic levels (Kess, 1992)). Even though the speech production process in some particular situations may follow top-down or bottom-up models, in most situations in real life communication processes "occur simultaneously through a process of spreading activation of interconnected neural networks in the brain" (Goh, 2003, p. 34). Below (Figure 2.) is my graphic presentation of this idea.

Figure 2. Major Processes of Speaking Production: Interactive Model



Analysing speech processes as mental processes is not complete if metacognitive processes are not mentioned. Metacognitive processes are equally important in speech production processes because they manage and regulate them. In an average situation, every individual is able to control his/her speech output. However, it is possible to observe errors in pronunciation, grammar, weak fluency and other problems of speech production (Levelt, Roelofs, & Meyer, 1999). These errors and problems may appear both during and after the production of speech. Some speakers may avoid or even ignore self-corrections to improve what they said previously.

Factors Influencing Speech Production

In teaching speaking in a foreign language, it is necessary to know and understand the factors influencing speech production. Learner knowledge and ability to choose the most appropriate word, grammatical structure, relevant and interesting content, and other factors of how effectively speech is produced "can have a direct impact on the quality of spoken language" (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 42). Discussing the quality of speech, three characteristics may be distinguished (Bygate, 1998):

1. **Fluency.** The meaning is communicated coherently with few pauses and hesitations that cause minimal understanding difficulties for the listeners. The attention is focused on speakers' ability to express themselves easily and freely. If the message delivered by a speaker is easily understood, errors are not taken into consideration.
2. **Accuracy.** The message is communicated using correct grammar and pronunciation. The form of oral performance plays the major role. Accuracy is an important aspect of speaking competence, however, alone it is insufficient. Competent speakers are also required to use speech appropriately to reach their communicative goals.

3. **Complexity.** The message is communicated precisely, more complex grammar forms are used, which are appropriate for speech in relation to the social and cultural context, as well as the roles of, and relationships with, interlocutors. Such an awareness provides students with the ability to make a decision about the type of information needed, and the way the oral message is sent to the audience.

Unfortunately, for foreign language learners, it is difficult to monitor fluency, accuracy, and complexity because they lack accuracy and have problems in paying attention to all the processes simultaneously under time pressure when speaking. Thus it is possible to observe learners' limited cognitive capacity for processing meaning and linguistic knowledge at the same time, and they may not always use correct grammar (even if they know the rules) when they speak (Goh & Burns, 2012). This leads to students' intention and effort given primarily to the expression of meaning than on accuracy. They make an effort to formulate their thoughts and ideas with limited capacity in their working memory, thus the accuracy is most likely to be sacrificed. In addition, retrieving the vocabulary may also affect students' speech, because usually there is not enough time to access the knowledge stored in their long-term memory. On the other hand, if students concentrate on accuracy, they may be totally unable to speak.

Foreign language learners, especially beginners, are likely not to have enough knowledge to produce speech that is morphologically or syntactically accurate. Different from a child learning a first language, foreign language learners may try to construct the sentences based on their first language knowledge, using the same structures as in the target language (that is why their utterances often look like a chain of words without connection between each other). With the development of their knowledge of grammar, they start supporting words by better use of grammatical forms linking words together, for example, with the help of morphemes. Very often, even a high level knowledge of grammar may not help the speaker to communicate fluently, as s/he still may need time to formulate the message. Further extensive practice develops learners' ability to apply grammar rules to their speech.

On the next stage of speaking ability development learners pay more attention to the complexity of their speech, which depends "on various aspects of the sociocultural context where talk is produced, such as the relationships between speaker and listeners, the extent to which they are familiar with each other, their feelings towards each other, and the distance of the speakers in time and space from the topics being discussed" (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 44-45).

While teaching a language, the teacher should plan various types of activities to improve learners' fluency, accuracy, and complexity. Depending on the aim of the activity, learners may be required to pay more attention to accuracy, fluency, or both to master them properly. However, assessing learners' speaking abilities, proficiency (i.e., ability to achieve the communicative goals) must be first of all taken into consideration. For example, beginner learners can focus only on one aspect (fluency or accuracy), and not able to use them simultaneously, expecting them to do both may become the reason of demotivation. Besides, it is not the number of errors that matters, but their impact on comprehensibility. Sometimes one wrong word/form/structure can turn the whole utterance into a wrongly perceived one or as totally incomprehensible, but sometimes many minor errors may permit to communicate tolerably.

Speaking seems to be very natural, but there are some of the cases connected with human psychology, that influence their oral performance. Ur (2012) distinguishes four major problems:

1. **Bashfulness and suppression.** Different from writing and listening performance, speaking requires speakers' disclosure (to some degree) to listeners. Students are very often afraid saying things in the target language in the classroom, because they worry about making mistakes and being criticized, or simply shy of being in the centre of the other people's attention.

2. **Having nothing to say.** Sometimes, even very sociable and not shy students may complain that they do not know what to say and have no any idea about the topic. Moreover, giving students interesting speaking topics may also not be enough to motivate students for active participation. Thus, students must be given topics and speaking activities that will motivate them to participate and give them a feeling of satisfaction of being able to contribute to the discussion.

3. **Unequal participation of individuals.** The time given to each student to speak (so s/he is to be heard) in a class is usually limited, especially in a large group. On the other hand, very often there are students, who dominate in the classroom, speaking more than other students. This leaves a little or no opportunity to some students to speak.

4. **First language use.** There are classes, where several or all the students' first language is the same, so they find it easier to speak their native language with each other reducing the use of English during the lessons (and after the lessons). This is problematic, especially in the countries where English is not spoken, and the classroom is the only one opportunity to use and improve speaking skills.

These problems may be avoided, or at least reduced by careful planning, activity and strategy selection, as well as praising students, to encourage them on further learning. It is not an easy job, and teachers (especially novice) may need a special training to be able to understand what students' particular needs are and to design the learning process in the appropriate way.

Conclusion

Speaking is a complex cognitive process that involves a wide range of factors which influence it. Very often the processes that take place during speech production are only viewed focusing on the final product. That may prevent from a deep understanding of how students learn, which, in turn, will not let teachers help them to develop/improve their speaking skills. Educators should pay more attention to speech as a psycholinguistic process, then they can create a more efficient approach when planning lessons on speaking. In this case, teachers can facilitate more efficient oral performance among the learners of the language and can provide a more cumulative and continuous impact on their foreign language development as a whole.

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EDUCATION OF MEDICAL STUDENTS ON SYNDROMIC PRINCIPLE OF DIAGNOSTICS

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Abstract

Syndromic diagnostic principle includes the recognition of diseases that is based on the mental processes only with that range of pathological conditions and diseases, which manifest themselves with a single leading syndrome, regardless of affiliation to different nosological units. At the beginning of the examination of a patient, a doctor must actively identify symptoms of the disease. Herewith the researcher does not know which disease is characterized by this or that symptom as a set of the same symptoms may occur in various diseases. At the same time, only complete identification of all clinical symptoms and features of their manifestation gives an opportunity to form isolated syndromes, which make it possible to recognize and substantiate provisional diagnosis. The main syndromes of surgical diseases include pain syndrome of various location, fever, jaundice, motor evacuators disorders of the gastrointestinal tract and other disturbances. In other words, syndrome is a complex of symptoms, outwardly unified for various diseases of the various organs and systems regardless of the etiology and pathogenesis of the disease as well as the affected organ or system. The most important advantage of the syndromic principle of diagnostics is that the syndromes are so obviously different from each other that they cannot be confused. Already this first, rather simple stage of medical thought should become a basis of boundary economical diagnostic thinking. All the subsequent mental activity is going on inside the given syndrome, at that, its features, manifestations, connections with other symptoms and syndromes are analyzed. In consideration of the importance of rapid and qualitative analysis of the revealed symptoms and syndromes of the disease, a certain sequence of elementary mental operations that can be represented as a specific diagnostic algorithm is required. Moreover, it is the stage of education that is very important for mastering the principles of unified and standardized approach to the detection and analysis of the findings. At the same time, it is the rapid and accurate recognition of the disease that makes it possible to start early and targeted treatment. This is the improvement of the effectiveness and quality of medical

diagnostics that forces to modify some of the principles and thinking processes at learning that can provide higher probability of diagnostics and bases of high quality treatment.

Keywords: *education, diagnostic, syndromic principles*

Introduction

Nosological principle of training that exists in most clinical departments, unfortunately, does not meet the practical work of a doctor, so we came to forming the curriculum by the syndrome principle: a practical training combines several pathological conditions, with features, such as the module "Abdominal surgery", it consists of two modules of content (substantial modules): "Urgent abdominal surgery" and "Surgical Gastroenterology and Proctology".

The syndromic diagnostic principle includes the recognition of diseases that is based on the mental processes only with that range of pathological conditions and diseases that manifest themselves with a single leading syndrome, regardless of affiliation to different nosological units.

At the beginning of the examination of a patient, a doctor must actively identify symptoms of the disease. Herewith, the researcher does not know which disease is characterized by this or that symptom, as a set of the same symptoms may occur in various diseases. At the same time, only the complete identification of all clinical symptoms and features of their manifestation gives an opportunity to form isolated syndromes, which makes it possible to recognize and substantiate provisional diagnosis.

The main syndromes of surgical diseases include pain syndrome of various location, fever, jaundice, motor evacuators disorders of the gastrointestinal tract and other disturbances. In other words, a syndrome is a complex of symptoms, outwardly unified for various diseases of the various organs and systems regardless of the etiology and pathogenesis of the disease as well as the affected organ or system.

Methods

To implement the system of planning, monitoring and evaluation of the education quality for a real degree of assimilation of international students with specific components of the program during the academic year of surgery training and discipline for module "Abdominal surgery" is in general based on the cumulative number of ranking points for the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS).

This will improve the quality of learning discipline among the four-year of students enrolled this year, and develop common indicators for the professionally-oriented exam after 6 years of study to get a general level of theoretical and practical knowledge and skills of physicians interns of surgery.

Procedures

The Department of Surgery № 1 (in 2015 – 95 years from being founded) of the State Organization “Dnipro Medical Academy Ministry Health of Ukraine” (in 2016 – 100 years from being founded) conducted a structured, multiple planning of the study process and the use of different forms of the staging control.

Taking into account the Standard program of the discipline, a curriculum, and a working program for the department were developed by teachers, for students and of interns of surgery to gain theoretical and practical knowledge, necessary resources and a sequence of technological operations with the use of credit-modular system.

In 2011 in the Department of Surgery № 1 of the State Organization “Dnipro Medical Academy Ministry Health of Ukraine” was founded Ukraine's first training center “Endoscopic technologies in medicine”, based on which foreign interns learn to use mini invasive operating technologies in surgery.

Thus, the substantial module “Surgical Gastroenterology and Proctology” includes “Syndrome of chronic pain in the upper region of abdominal cavity”, “Syndrome of mechanical jaundice”, “Syndrome of an acute pain in perianal area”, “Syndrome of rectal prolepses” and “Diarrheic-inflammatory syndrome”, combining similar diseases or their complications in the form of so-called educational elements, where, for example, a practice training for “Syndrome acute pain in perianal region” contains “Acute hemorrhoids”, “Acute anal fissures”, “Acute paraproctitis” and “Inflammation of the epithelial coccygeal passage”.

This approach is appropriate for expediently using the time of practical training, examining patients according to pathological syndrome, mastering the skills in classes with medical simulators, and performing differential diagnosis with the definition of a rational treatment program.

To support the learning process developed by the principles of credit-modular system using multimedia lectures, the textbook “Surgery” (Bereznytsky, Zakharash, & Mishalov, 2016), a methodological guide of development for teachers, a hand book and individual plans for students and interns, and the teacher’s journal were developed.

For the practical training the division’s computer class (10 computers) was used for computer testing of students and interns, while two classes of medical mannequins and simulators (products firm “3B Scientific”) were used for acquiring and mastering practical skills, supervision of patients in the surgical department, supervised and theoretical survey in training rooms.

For the interns, besides the basic work in the surgical department with patients, it is necessary to master the operational equipment in operation and manipulation rooms, as well as to master mini invasive surgery technology in the learning center “Endoscopic technologies in medicine”.

Results

The most important advantage of the syndromic principle of diagnostics is that the syndromes are so obviously different from each other that they cannot be confused. Already this first, rather simple stage of medical thought, should become the basis of boundary economical diagnostic thinking. All the subsequent mental activity is going on inside the given syndrome, at which its features, manifestations, connections with other symptoms and syndromes are analyzed.

For the establishment of diagnosis, a careful inspection of a patient is needed. The earlier the signs of display of disease are discovered, the greater the probability of correct diagnostics.

After the careful questioning and physical inspection of a patient, it is necessary to conduct a counsel, to select the pathological symptoms both in subjective and in objective their displays. The previous diagnosis is a grounded reference to the complaints of the patient, using them successively, beginning from the most expressed. In every complaint it is necessary to specify this entire patient has different subjective tints of pain display (for example: localization of pain, its change, intensity, character, irradiation, and what facilitated it).

After the successive reference to every complaint, for a ground anamnesis of disease are used: the time of the origin of the disease, the character of motion, the subjective estimation, and the possible factors which resulted in the origin of the disease.

At the protracted or recurrent motion of the exploration, the applied methods of earlier conducted researches and their results, kinds and volume of treatment, and its efficiency are taken into consideration.

At presence of in anamnesis of life of factors which have an etio-pathogenetic influence on the origin of disease, it is necessary to specify them (presence of stress situations, character of feed, condition of labor, etc.).

Then the previous diagnosis is grounded objective, pathological changes are found out, beginning from general, and then local. Using objective displays, it is necessary to adhere to the methodical chart - at first to bring a review over, then conduct palpation, percussion, and auscultation, to analyze the results of rectal and vaginal researches.

The previous diagnosis plays an important role for forming of troubleshooting routine and the algorithm of its implementation, that in connection with a clinical picture possibility of establishment of correct clinical diagnosis is determined (Kirby, Taylo &, Civetta, 2005).

Conclusion

In consideration of the importance of a rapid and qualitative analysis of the revealed symptoms and syndromes of the disease, a certain sequence of elementary mental operations that can be represented as a specific diagnostic algorithm

is required. They have to be taught to medical students. The stage of education is very important for mastering the principles of unified and standardized approach to the detection and analysis of the findings.

Only the complex estimation of subjective and objective displays of the disease, complemented information of the special methods of research, provides high-quality diagnostics of both planned and exigent, surgical diseases. Thus, the information of additional methods enables to objectively assess the state of the patient, the dynamics of motion of the disease, the influence of medical measures, to find out the nascent complications, and to define the prognosis of disease.

At the same time, it is the rapid and accurate recognition of the disease that makes it possible to start early and targeted treatment. This is the improvement of the effectiveness and quality of medical diagnostics that forces to modify some of the principles and thinking processes at learning that can provide a higher probability of diagnostics and the bases of high quality treatment (Parsons & Winner-Kronish., 2006).

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TEXTBOOK "SURGERY": PRINCIPLES OF MAKING OF THE PRELIMINARY DIAGNOSIS

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Abstract

The textbook "Surgery" for English-speaking students includes information on methods and principles of preliminary diagnosis. The following methods of diagnostics are viewed: a) Analogy method, which is possible in case of typical (classical) manifestation of a disease (in uncomplicated external abdominal hernias and acute purulent surgical infection of soft tissues); b) Inductive method, which is based on the initial hypothetical generalization with the findings validation; c) Substantiated diagnosis, based on the doctor's mentally synthetically activity, who sequentially analyses all the present symptoms and verifies their compliance with the disease d) Method of differential diagnosis (most reliable), which excludes all signs of other similar diseases. To establish a diagnosis, a thorough examination of a patient is required. The more signs of the disease manifestation are revealed, the more probable the accuracy of the diagnosis is. The methodology of the preliminary diagnosis is discussed. After the thorough questioning and physical examination of the patient the doctor has to make sampling of pathological symptoms in their both subjective and objective manifestations. Preliminary diagnosis is substantiated by referring to the complaints of the patient, using their successive presentation, starting with the most evident ones. Each complaint must include all various subjective shades of the pain manifestation in this patient (for example, localization of pain, its displacement, intensity, character, irradiation, and ways of the pain relief). After the sequential referring to each complaint, in order to justify the preliminary diagnosis, the anamnesis is used that shows the time when the disease arose, the nature of its course and the patient's subjective evaluation of possible factors that led to occurrence of the disease. At prolonged or recurrent course, methods of previously performed examinations and their results, types and extent of the treatment and its efficiency are ascertained. If the factors that have etiopathogenetical impact on the disease occurrence are present in the anamnesis, they must be pointed out (the

presence of stressful situations, type of nutrition, working conditions, etc.). Preliminary diagnosis is substantiated by objectively revealed pathological changes, starting with general changes and then using the local ones. Using objective manifestations, it is necessary to comply with the methodological scheme at first to carry out physical examination, then palpation, percussion, auscultation and, finally, to analyze the results of rectal and vaginal examinations.

Keywords: Textbook "Surgery", preliminary diagnosis, principles

Introduction

For the quality of treatment of patients, doctors need to learn and master the stages of diagnosis.

The methods of diagnostics are as follows:

- *Analogy method*, which is possible in case of typical (classical) manifestation of a disease (in uncomplicated external abdominal hernias and acute purulent surgical infection of soft tissues).
- *Inductive method*, which is based on the initial hypothetical generalization with the findings validation.
- *Substantiated diagnosis*, based on the doctor's mentally synthetically activity, who sequentially analyses all the present symptoms and verifies their compliance with the disease
- *Method of differential diagnosis (most reliable)*, which excludes all signs of other similar diseases.

The most important thing in education in the training of the future doctor is the **method of preliminary diagnosis** of any disease, including surgical.

The previously used textbooks on surgery have described mainly the clinical manifestations of diseases and their treatment techniques, without clarifying the principles and preliminary diagnosis capabilities for students.

After general medical practice tasks medical education of doctors determines the basic requirements of the scope of knowledge and practical skills for graduating student of institute of higher education of IV level of accreditation: goal-directed methodic algorithm of questioning of the patient (getting anamnesis), physical examination, substantiation of provisional diagnosis, determinate algorithm of additional methods of investigations with analysis of received results, differential diagnosis, forming clinical diagnosis, substantiation of treatment program and it's realization.

In the future the young doctor will be able to work not only as a family doctor, but also the expert of other directions, for example - a surgeon. For preparation to practical work the textbook "Surgery" for students can be applied, including the information on methods and principles of forming the preliminary diagnosis (Bereznytsky, Zakharash, & Mishalov, 2016).

Methods

For education of medical students, the textbook "Surgery" including information about methodology of the forming preliminary diagnosis can be used.

After the thorough questioning and physical examination of the patient, the doctor has to make sampling of pathological symptoms in both their subjective and objective manifestations. The preliminary diagnosis is substantiated by referring to the complaints of the patient, using their successive presentation, starting with the most evident ones. Each complaint must include all various subjective shades of the pain manifestation in this patient (for example, localization of pain, its displacement, intensity, character, irradiation, and the ways of the pain relief).

After the sequential referring to each complaint, in order to justify the preliminary diagnosis, the anamnesis (history) of the disease and patient's lifestyle are analyzed. That shows the time when the disease arose, the nature of its course and the patient's subjective evaluation of possible factors that led to the occurrence of the disease.

The method of physical examination for forming the preliminary diagnosis includes special methods: visual inspection of patient's body, palpation of his/her body (abdomen and other parts), percussion (chest and abdomen), and auscultation (chest and abdomen) for getting information about the pathological manifestations of any surgical diseases.

Correct results of the questioning method and method of physical examination may be applied for effective forming of preliminary diagnosis.

All stages of the method of forming the preliminary diagnosis are very detailed in the textbook "Surgery" and allow medical students to effectively study the discipline Surgery under primary diagnosis.

Procedures

To implement the system of planning, monitoring and evaluation of the education quality for a real degree of assimilation of students with specific components of the program during the academic year of surgery training and discipline for module "Abdominal surgery" is in general based on the cumulative number of ranking points for the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) (The European Higher Education Area, 1999; Magna Charta Universitatum, 1988).

This will improve the quality of learning the discipline among the four-six years students enrolled this year, and develop common indicators for professionally-oriented exam after the 6th year of study to get a general level of theoretical and practical knowledge and skills of physicians interns of surgery.

The Department of Surgery № 1 of the Dnipro Medical Academy conducted structured, multiple planning of the study process and the use of different forms of the staging control. Taking into account the Standard program of the discipline, curriculum, and working program for the department were created, which involve the specific actions of

teachers, students and interns of surgery to achieve theoretical and practical knowledge, necessary resources and sequence of technological operations with the use of credit-modular system.

Thus, the substantial module "Surgical Gastroenterology and Proctology" includes "Syndrome of chronic pain in the upper region of abdominal cavity", "Syndrome of mechanical jaundice", "Syndrome of an acute pain in perianal area", "Syndrome of rectal prolapses" and "Diarrheic-inflammatory syndrome", combining similar diseases or their complications in the form of so-called educational elements, where, for example, a practice training for "Syndrome acute pain in perianal region" contains "Acute hemorrhoids", "Acute anal fissures", "Acute paraproctitis" and "Inflammation of the epithelial coccygeal passage".

This approach is appropriate to expediently use the time of practical training, examine patients according to pathological syndrome, mastering the skills in classes with medical simulators, and perform preliminary and differential diagnosis with the definition of a rational treatment program.

To support the learning process, principles of credit-modular system were developed, using multimedia lectures, the textbook "Surgery", methodological guide of development for students and interns, methodological guide of development for teachers, hand book and individual plans for students and interns, journal of the teacher.

Results

The textbook "Surgery" for medical students includes all educational information about diagnostic methods of surgical diseases, and preliminary diagnosis, in particularly.

Education of students of the 4-6 years of a medical university using the proposed textbook increased their interest and motivation. With this tutorial, students prepared not only for the clinical manifestations of disease and surgical techniques, but also for their medicamental therapy.

This tutorial helps students learn different methods and the stages of diagnostics of surgical diseases, starting with preliminary diagnosis.

The experience of using the textbook "Surgery" and credit-modular system in teaching and measuring knowledge of surgery since 2016 suggests that this approach is effective.

The received results underscore the increased objectivity in the control of knowledge on the part of teachers' interest and increasing students and medical interns' interest to master the subject, that allowed to prepare a general practitioner in surgery and surgeons, and integrate in the future in practical public health in Ukraine and worldwide.

Conclusion

Given that the level of qualification of the doctor is in the first place in various gradational systems of educational societies the necessity to improve the quality of medical education in institutes of higher education is understood, in which the credit module system is implemented to the educational process.

The doctors' of the general medical practice tasks determinate the basic requirements of the scope of knowledge and practical skills for graduating student of institute of higher education of IV level of accreditation: goal-directed methodic algorithm of questioning of the patient (getting complains, anamnesis), physical examination (visual inspection, palpation, percussion, auscultation), substantiation of provisional diagnosis on the basis of the revealed syndromes, determinate algorithm of additional methods of investigations with analysis of received results, differential diagnosis between similar diseases, forming clinical diagnosis taking into account the International Classification of Diseases in Edition #10, substantiation of treatment program (place of treatment: home, ambulatory or clinic; time beginning of treatment: urgent or plan; methods of treatment: medicaments or surgical intervention; rehabilitation and prevention of recurrent after treatment) and its implementation.

The new textbook "Surgery" may be used for effective preparation of students and young doctors for forming preliminary diagnosis, as the first stage of diagnosis of diseases.

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E-TEACHING: THE SAME AS “BRICK & MORTAR” TEACHING?

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Abstract

The present paper addresses the practice of a new English classroom on the model of e-teaching/learning which may pose innumerable problems if approached with the same methods and techniques utilized in “brick & mortar” classrooms. The aim of the paper is to abolish three of the most wide-spread myths related to online teaching/learning. In doing so, we will be comparing methods and techniques used in traditional classroom with the ones exercised when delivering lessons online. The comparison between “brick & mortar” and “click & mortar” approaches will help to disentangle the tip of the iceberg and dig deeper, trying to reveal the gallimaufry of problematic issues that can arise if no distinction is drawn between the traditional and online teaching.

Keywords: online education, student motivation, student dropout.

The ad infinitum advents in the sphere of technologies have led to new opportunities in the field of online education. Though being in the spotlight of modern education, online teaching still poses challenges for educators, ranging from a high rate of dropouts (Onah, Sinclair, & Boyatt, 2014), the argument whether online learners perform so well as those engaged in face-to-face education (Dutton, Dutton, & Perry, 1999) to the relevance of designing lesson plans for the virtual environment.

Learning online is, of course, not the same as learning face to face, and that is likely good news for anyone who can recall an hour lost listening to an interminable lecture in an overheated classroom (Chandler & Burlington, 2012). This quote and similar ones can be encountered quite often, especially throughout the last decade, when more and more high-rank universities have been offering online courses, ranging from non-certificate to certificate and even degree courses. In the meanwhile, the opposite viewpoint, stating that online teaching/learning will eventually kill conventional education, which has been evolving since times immemorial and that online teaching/learning has proved itself as the only reliable means of knowledge acquisition, can be traced even more often. Three of the main reasons the opponents of online teaching/learning tend to bring in favour of “brick & mortar” classrooms are listed below:

- the teacher is able to cater the individual needs and learning styles of every student,
- the teacher is able to motivate the students,
- there is a personalized feedback provided by the teacher.

Most online educators recognize the challenge of learner retention. Research suggests that approximately 70 per cent of adult learners enrolled in a corporate online program do not complete it and that the dropout rate of learners engaged in online courses is higher than that of students attending face-to face courses (Hiltz, 1997; Meister, 2002). Though some researchers might associate a high dropout rate with a failure in online education, others (Diaz, 2002) argue that the factors affecting the dropout decision are not subject to any control and a high dropout rate is not necessarily indicative of academic non-success.

For the sake of proving that the aforesaid three reasons can well be implemented in online teaching/learning, grounding our statement that it is quite possible to cater the individual needs and learning styles of every student online and with the aim of making the list of online learners, and learners in general, longer, we will first turn to the theory of Multiple Intelligence (hereinafter referred to as MI). In this respect we are fully in line with C. Green and R. Tanner who in their article "Multiple Education and Online Teacher Education" bring about four main reasons for their own belief that accommodating MI theory into online teacher education is worthwhile. They firstly define that just as in an on-site classroom, online learners are individuals who have a range of experiences; each possesses his or her stronger or weaker intelligences. By being aware of these differences, an online instructor can differentiate and individualize instruction. Secondly, an "MI-friendly" course might attract more learners who find it more appealing at the conscious or unconscious level. Thirdly, by using tasks relating to more intelligences, we provide more variety in our courses, which makes them more attractive and memorable. Lastly, by explicitly presenting tasks that accommodate several intelligences, the teacher educator can serve as a model (Green & Taner, 2005).

Learners with a **strong intrapersonal intelligence** enjoy working alone and are talented at reflecting on their experiences and feelings, and learning from these reflections. As T. Armstrong (2009) highlights in his article "Teaching Strategies for Intrapersonal Intelligence", most students spend about six hours a day, five days a week in a classroom with 25 to 35 other people. For individuals with strongly developed intrapersonal intelligence and an introverted personality, this intensely social atmosphere can be somewhat claustrophobic. For an intrapersonal learner, online education (unlike a face-to-face classroom situation) provides more time to ponder individually about online discussions, to formulate written responses and to participate in their own time (Green & Taner, 2005)

Learners with a **high interpersonal intelligence** enjoy working in groups and "charge their batteries" through constant interactions with others. In "brick & mortar" classrooms these students at times tend to disturb the natural flow of the lesson, especially when they are assigned a task of working alone. In "click & mortar" environment the possibilities

of using live chat rooms, sharing experiences, group projects and online group work appeal to these learners. Their potential can also be fully utilized as far as group monitoring is concerned.

Learners gifted in the **linguistic intelligence** are sensitive to the meaning of language and words. In traditional classrooms they enjoy communicating through reading and writing, and speaking and listening. Communication helps these learners see the purpose of language, and helps them take an interest in it. They really enjoy writing and receiving letters from classmates or e-pals. They are real explorers and quite often brick & mortar classroom environment is not enough for them and they tend to get carried away, with frequent attention wavers. Conversely, they thrive in an online course, since the basic components include a lot of reading and writing. They typically explore all corners of the online medium, follow up links, jump from one link to another, and read many of the posted discussions.

Learners strong in the **logical-mathematical intelligence** are able to notice numerical or logical patterns. It enables to perceive relationships and connections and to use abstract, symbolic thought, sequential reasoning skills, and inductive and deductive thinking patterns. They enjoy statistical, factual input and often connect new input with what they have already learnt. They enjoy ranking or analytical tasks.

Learners with a keen **visual-spatial intelligence** have a three-dimensional relational sense, think in pictures and see visual relationships. In traditional classrooms learners might experience certain difficulty if there is no visual aid. If it is a lecture with no visualization, they tend to become bored and lose interest. They learn well with visual input (illustrations, video clips, charts, tables, etc.), which forms an indispensable part of every online course and enjoy seeing photographs of fellow online participants.

Learners with a good **musical intelligence** have an ability to perceive, appreciate and produce rhythm, pitch and music. As the name suggests, these learners are especially keen on video or audio input (perhaps of classroom situations or interviews) and tasks involving thinking about or using music, rhyme, or rap.

Learners with a powerful **bodily-kinesthetic intelligence** seem to be the group, which, according to a common belief, will have most problems in an online environment, since they enjoy physical manipulation tasks, such as dancing or acting something out. However, we are inclined to believe, that it is quite possible for tasks, which will involve movement or physical activity and reporting back to the course later.

Learners possessing a strong naturalist intelligence are able to organize and categorize the natural world. Useful tasks for them involve natural objects or thinking about or going into the natural world, which go beyond the confines of the virtual classroom and yet can be incorporated into the online curriculum.

Notwithstanding the fact that C. Green and R. Tanner (2005) suggest eight types of learners, we thoroughly support the standpoint of H. Gardner, who also highlights existential intelligence, which is defined as sensitivity and capacity to tackle deep questions about human existence, such as the meaning of life, why we die, and how we got here. This type

of learners usually needs more time to contemplate over different issues, since they are always inclined to dig deeper, hence, online environment can be an ideal milieu for them (Green & Taner, 2005).

For any online course to be successful, it is crucial that all these learner types be taken into account when designing it. If individual learning styles of the learners are taken into account, the chances that they will become demotivated and will quit the course will be much less. One option, to make sure that all learning styles have been taken into account will be designing a matrix which will serve as a roadmap, aimed at making the tasks in line with the learner type. Below we illustrate our version of a similar matrix:

Intelligence	Symbol	E-task/activity for socializing
Intrapersonal		Write just a word out of a story you would like to tell to you e-mates if they manage to guess at least some participle of the said story.
Interpersonal		Communicating with your e-mates find someone who owns two PhDs.
Linguistic		Read your e-mates posts, choose one person and describe his/her character and/or type of personality based on what you have read. Do not name the person, as others need to guess who s/he is.
Logical-mathematical		Write a list of the most important characteristics of an online course. Include the ones that can encourage your active participation and share it with your e-mates.
Visual-spatial		Choose a picture, portrait or a piece of art, which you think is closely related to your personality, post it online, let your e-mates listen to it and try to guess why the song is particularly dear to you.
Musical		Choose a song and/or a melody, which you think is closely related to your personality, post it online, let your e-mates listen to it and try to

		guess why the song is particularly dear to you.
Bodily-kinesthetic		Elaborate your most preferred way of studying new words (e.g. colourful double-sided stickers and the like), take a picture of them and post it online. In case it is a colourful sticker, post only one side of the paper and let your e-mates guess the meaning of the word based on your explanation provided.
Existential		Describe the ideal way of communicating with your e-mates online and explain the reason why you think that particular method/way is the best one.
Naturalistic		Depict or post a picture of something taken from the nature or the world in general (e.g. a flower, a leaf, a fly etc.) which best characterizes you. Let others guess what the link is.

It is of interest to note that the above-mentioned activities are not only for isolated learning types, but can combine a couple of intelligences; like the one with making up the list of 10 most important characteristics of an online course, which can be equally suitable for visual, interpersonal and linguistic learners. Hence, choosing activities, which will fit every learning style, can considerably decrease the number of dropouts and ensure the sense of community, which is considered fundamental in e-learning. The separation of student and instructor is the core characteristic of distance education (Simonson et al., 2012, p. 28), contributing to one of the biggest challenges to distance education—attrition (Dueber & Misanchuk, 2001, p. 2). By the very nature of distance education, students are in different locations from one another and their instructor. The instructor’s challenge is to figure how to make students feel connected and able to succeed in this new learning environment. The development of a sense of community is an effective and efficient way to help ensure the success of the distance education program and can directly address the challenge of distance education. By developing a sense of community, an instructor can create an environment that is conducive to student success (Moore, 2014).

Having highlighted the MI theory and its implication in e-learning, we do consider it necessary to follow the below-given recommendations in order to elaborate a successful online course:

- conduct a pre-course survey to gather preliminary information about the preferred learning styles of the audience,
- introduce the concept of MI theory by means of online materials,
- help them discover their own strongest and weakest intelligences,
- make sure the tasks incorporate all learning styles,
- ensure the students have enough choice as far as assignments are concerned, yet be attentive not to include abundant choice,
- be aware of your own intelligence profile as a teacher and resist the temptation of including the tasks which appeal to you,
- encourage both formal and informal, qualitative and quantitative feedback on the part of the learners as far as assignments are concerned.

The aforesaid recommendations, in their turn, will boost student motivation. Motivation is defined as a person's degree of willingness to act toward a goal (University of Kentucky, 2006), and can be categorized into two types: intrinsic and extrinsic. When developing online courses, two characteristics of motivation to keep in mind are value and expectancy (University of Kentucky, 2006). By implying "value" the relevance to the learner is concerned:

- Is the task useful?
- Does the learner have control over the task?
- What is the reward?

As far as expectancy is concerned, it refers to the likelihood that the learner can complete the task successfully:

- Does the learner have the skills?
- Does the learner have similar past experience?
- Is the task too difficult?

Intrinsically motivated people tend to follow a deep learning approach, which is associated with better retention, application, and reflection. Deep learners want to understand the meaning of the content. Conversely, extrinsically motivated people tend to follow a surface learning approach, which is associated with lower comprehension, weaker academics, and overload. They want to attain the reward without necessarily having to master the content (Kawachi, 2002).

In a case study on motivational influences in self-directed online learning, three types of intrinsic motivation to learn were identified: "motivation to initiate, motivation to persist, and motivation to continue" (Kim, 2004, p. 460). This distinction, simple and clear as it might seem, is fundamental throughout the whole course. This implies that some learners

might be so-called “slow-starters”, which means they will need extra assistance to get started, but once they commence, they become fully and thoroughly involved. Some others might jump right into the course, yet lose their interest quite easily. Knowing this, the teacher will be able to prevent many instances of dropouts and ensure learner motivation is still there.

As we have highlighted above, the very first step of motivating the learners is creating the sense of belonging to a community. However, this will not be enough if the individual learning styles of the learners are not taken into account. More than this, the content and the format the e-course has is a decisive factor for the learners as well. Being able to elaborate the needed information in a user-friendly format sets a positive tone for online learning. Learners appreciate straightforward, clear-cut information (assignments, due dates, resources, etc.). Dr. Saul Carliner, an expert on e-learning, information design, and technical communication, defines a three-part framework for designing information that includes physical, cognitive, and affective principles (Carliner, 2000):

- physical design addresses document appearance — select media and construct information,
- cognitive design focuses on process — determine learner goals and develop solutions to help learners understand information,
- affective design captures the learner’s attention — make learners comfortable and encourage them to perform.

When developing information for online use, it should be kept in mind that “...reading online is slower than on paper, and they (online content elaborators) should take steps (using bigger font sizes, high contrast between text and background) to enhance online reading speed (Kurniawan & Zaphiris, n.d.).

However, even beautifully designed information can frustrate learners if they have difficulty navigating through the content. Conducting a pre-course survey to find out what the learners require and tailoring information accordingly is the key to learner retention and success.

Cloria Scuito, in her *Motivating & Retaining Adult Learners Online (Chapter 10)*, describes distance learners as older than traditional undergraduates, employed, requiring online accessibility because of physical limitation, job/personal commitments, or location, and able to manage time effectively (Sciuto, 2002). Scuito advises providing online orientation, clear instructions, and learning objectives. Online orientation should show learners how to access the online course and navigate through the site, how to contact the instructor and other students, how to upload/download assignments and course information, and who to contact if they have technical problems. Providing detailed instructions alleviates extraneous work (i.e. emailing the instructor with questions about where information is located, assignment due dates, etc.). Though Scuito has written this work back in 2002 and many things have changed since then, these issues are still very actual, even given the speed with which technological advancement takes place and hence these seemingly minute details need to be paid heed to when designing e-courses.

Applying learner-centered principles that integrate value and expectancy include the following activities (University of Kentucky, 2006):

- *choose meaningful assignments just beyond learners' comfort level*: choosing too easy or too difficult assignments will inevitably lead to discouragement and eventually result in dropouts. Yet, if the level of tasks is reasonably above students' level, they will neither struggle with nor lose the interest in them. However, for being able to decide the due level, a pre-course survey is a mandatory requirement.
- *offer choices to learners*: it is at this point that the types of learners must be taken into account to ensure that all learning styles are covered.
- *communicate expectations clearly*: learners need to have a clear idea as to what expectation from them are. The course should have a clear-cut learning outcome. What is more, every single task should communicate an accurate message as to what expectations and the ILOs are.
- *encourage learners to evaluate their own progress*: engaging learners into assessment procedures will considerably increase their motivation and result in better understanding of the errors/mistakes made.

Another key to successful online course and retention of students is a personalized feedback. In this respect, we are fully in favour of the teaching tip: "Provide feedback to students within 24 hours, excluding weekends and holidays. Timely feedback makes students feel that the instructor is attentive." highlighted in the handbook "Teaching and Learning Online. Communication, Community and Assessment" (Poe & Stassen, n.d.). Students need to have a sense the instructor is really "there," not "missing in action." This means responding in a timely manner to individual questions or issues that are raised in discussion groups. It also means making your presence known by participating in online discussions, giving students regular feedback on their work and their comments, and being flexible enough to make changes to the course mid-stream based on student feedback (Poe, Martha). Some teachers argue that it is impossible to give a personalized feedback to e-students since it is very time consuming. However, we completely oppose this point of view, since we are inclined to believe that a short feedback like "Good job, Sue", "A nice point Harry", "Very interesting Ann, could you elaborate a bit more?", "Have not heard from you for ages Marry!" can encourage the learners and set the right mood for the whole week and even throughout the course.

To summarize what has been highlighted above, it can be concluded that click & mortar teaching/learning can be as effective as the brick & mortar one, at least as far as the three concerns stated in the introduction to the paper are concerned. In particular, it is quite feasible to cater the individual needs and learning styles of the learners when elaborating tasks and appropriate content for an e-course and the ways and methods of doing so are various and allow diversification. Motivation can be boosted and retained if learner-centered principles, that integrate value and expectancy, are implemented and reflected in activities. Finally, personalized feedback does not always and necessarily imply long and tedious texts; it will be enough to make the learners feel that the teacher is present and pays attention to whatever is

being done in terms of forums and/or any other assignment. What is more, it should be kept in mind that personalized feedback also boosts motivation and enhances the feeling of belonging to a community.

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