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Dear Colleagues;

Welcome to the 8th International Research Conference on Education, Language and Literature (IRCEELT 2018) which is held on 20-21 April 2018 at International Black Sea University, Tbilisi, Georgia.

The scope of the conference embraces interesting disciplines: education, history of education, educational psychology, classroom management, educational leadership, management and administration, methods of teaching English, using information communication technologies in teaching and learning, Anglo-American linguistics, culture and literature.

The aim of the conference is to bring together researchers, practitioners and policy makers to discuss issues, tackle challenges, develop professionally, share opinions, find solutions and explore opportunities in the areas of education. The conference serves the purpose of promoting a tight link between theory and practice and explores different perspectives on the application of research findings into practice. The conference usually attracts participants from 27 different countries: Georgia, the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Greece, Israel, Turkey, Russian Federation, Algeria, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Finland, Georgia, Hungary, India, Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Latvia, Malaysia, Nigeria, Oman, Philippines, Qatar, South Korea, Spain, Thailand, Ukraine,.

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The committee is not responsible for correct facts and originality of papers, authors are responsible for that.

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PRAGMATIC ANALYSIS OF UPIN AND IPIN ANIMATION SERIES

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to identify the types of maxims which benefit to Upin and Ipin animation series. They are selected based on six maxims according to Leech's (1983) Politeness Principles. Besides, this research also aims to identify the statement that contradicts those maxims. This kind of descriptive qualitative research analyses data through visual material transcription from season one of Upin and Ipin animation series. The findings show that all six types of maxims were adapted in the animation series selected. Same goes with the contradictions of maxims' aspects. It was found that six maxims had maxim contradictions. The tact maxim is the most frequently used in this animation series, however, the statement that contradicts from the tact maxim shows the highest frequency. Nevertheless, the number of statement that contradicts from all six maxims is less than those that aggress to it. Leech's Politeness Principles are succeeded in accentuating the language politeness aspect in this animation. In regard to that, however, if these types of western theories are combined with Islamic theories such as Rashid Theory's Language Perfect Principle would make this research more interesting, as the approach of such kind is more holistic in nature.

Key words: pragmatic analysis, politeness principles, animation, maxims

Introduction

The basis of all pragmatic study of the earliest known as the Philosophy of Natural Language Speech Treatment or theory was pioneered by Austin (1962) and Searle (1969). This theory explains that the treatment of speech has three main components, namely: first, locution which consists of opposition or information components; Second, which is a component of illocutionary acts; and the third, which is a locution component impact on the listener. This theory has become the basis for a pragmatic study of language.

Speech Treatment theory was developed by Grice (1975) through his Implicature Conversation theory. He considered that the conversation between speakers and listeners is a join activity, the conversation have mutually agreed goals. Grice Cooperation Principles consist of four maxims of conversation, i.e. the maxim of quantity, quality, relevance and clarity.

Pragmatic Theory of Grice has been adopted and extended by Geoffrey Leech (1983) by introducing the principle of modesty because of the opinion that the principle of cooperation is not sufficient to explain the relationship between meaning and the power in the conversation situation. Politeness theory involves two important things, which is the cost-benefit and continuity-inaction for the purposes of modesty and politeness. Leech has outlined six maxims to explain the degree of modesty, which are the maxim of politeness, generosity maxim, maxim of support, modesty maxim, maxim of approval and sympathy.

Next, Sperber and Wilson (1986) studied the pragmatic based on Relevance Theory. According to this theory, any internal stimuli that supply inputs to the cognitive processes may be relevant to an individual at a time.

In the following year, Brown and Levinson (1987) has reviewed the concept of modesty in pragmatic communication. The principle of modesty is different Politeness Principle of Leech (1983). Brown and Levinson explained that they were engaged in a conversation has a positive face and negative face. This is something rational as the face changes occur by the action of a party.

Out of the five above pragmatic theories, the researcher simply applies the Politeness Theory Orchestra (Leech, 1983) in analyzing the study. This study is a study in form of pragmatic analysis based on Politeness Principle of Leech (1983). This study was conducted with the aim of researching the kinds of maxims which is used in the famous animated series Upin and Ipin. In addition, based on these principles as well, researchers will examine the expressions that deviate from these maxims in the animated series selected.

Animated Film Upin Dan Ipin

According to Bernama, 2009 in Mahmor and Nasihah Aida Noor Hashim (2015), the animated story was first introduced in Malaysia in the 1990s. Malaysia's first animated story is usop sontorian (1995) and Silat Lagenda (1998). Following this, the production of animation work is growing and many television series, films and telefilms related generated animation. In Malaysia, the animation sector has a huge potential in developing the national economy. Now it is estimated that more than 200 companies listed below creative multimedia content industry in Malaysia.

Upin and Ipin are the best examples for the success of the animated story and had sparked a new phenomenon in contemporary literature Malaysian children. Upin and Ipin is a children's animated series created by Hj. Burhanuddin Radzi, Hajah Ainon Arif, Mohd Nizam Abdul Razak and Mohd Safwan Abdul Karim. Animation began airing on 14 September 2007 by Les' Copaque Production Sdn. Bhd. a display about the life and adventures of two children aged 5 and twins, Upin and Ipin, living in a rural community in Malaysia.

This animated tale revolves about Upin and Ipin everyday life in families, schools and communities. The animation also featured naughtiness, innocence and intelligence of Upin and Ipin in a way that is quite funny and relaxed. The message was delivered by the force applied and the fine and decent. Problems and conflicts highlighted in the series Upin and Ipin resolved with wisdom characters produced by authors such as Opah character.

The first six episodes of Upin and Ipin are compiled in the premier season have featured the issue of fasting and festivities of Ramadan and celebrate Eid. The goal is to educate children to live up to the month of Ramadan and fasting. In addition, the festive mood of Hari Raya is also highlighted as a sign of success for those who fast.

The subsequent episodes feature characters of Upin and Ipin life with family and friends in their daily life. Overall, there are nine seasons with 228 episodes (Noor Aida Mahmor and Nasihah Hashim, 2015). However, this study involves the animated series Upin and Ipin first season only as a sample.

The first season of Upin and Ipin was awarded Best Animation Kliff 2007. In December 2010, the franchise Upin and Ipin reported combined earnings of RM12 million, mainly the result of sales of Upin and Ipin animated series to international broadcasters. The success to fascinate viewers, Upin and Ipin has been listed in the Malaysia Book of Records 2011. In addition, Upin and Ipin also awarded the Best on Screen Chemistry 2009 by Shout and Leadreship Brand Award 2010 by the World Brand Congress India. Upin and Ipin character is also a UNICEF ambassador for Malaysia 2013. Upin and Ipin also received NEF-Awani Tun Dr. Mahathir Award 2010 and Anugerah Bintang Popular Berita Harian 2012. In Malaysia, Upin and Ipin also aired in Indonesia, the Philippines, Singapore, Turkey, Brunei, Thailand, Vietnam, Cambodia, Hong Kong and South Korea through the channel Disney Channel. In addition to the television channel, episodes of Upin and Ipin can also be viewed via DVD, the video streaming service in the official account of 'Copaque on You Tube and tonton.com.my (Mahmor and Nasihah Aida Noor Hashim, 2015).

The main characters in this animation are Upin and Ipin, the twin sister to Kak Ros. Kak Ros's sister, who liked to tease her sisters. Opah is the grandmother of the siblings. In addition, other characters were also highlighted as a member of the community of Kampung Durian is Tok Dalang also known as Atok, Ah Ting, Uncle Muthu, Red Salleh, Ms Jasmin Jetty Motel Jetty Large, Red Tiger (Madame Tiger) and red Hamzah and classmates Upin and Ipin is Mei Mei, Fizi, Jarjit, Devi, Susanti of Dhul, clay, Ehsan Mail. Based on the privileges and power of the animated series Upin and Ipin this then, the animated story is taken as study material.

Problem Statement

Studies in Pragmatics are apparently growing. This scenario of which can be proved through the study Zaitul Azma Zainon Hamzah (2000), Siti Hajar Abdul Aziz (2010), Nor Hashimah Jalaluddin and Juliana Nopiah (2011), Norajihah Muda and Raja Ariffin (2014) and Nur Hafizah Razali and Normaliza Abd Rahim (2016). However, the study did not lead to pragmatic studies in animation. If viewed from the aspect of the theory, all of the above pragmatic study did not use Politeness Theory Leech as the foundation of their study as carried out by researchers in this study. Two of the study, namely a study conducted by Zaitul Azma Zainon Hamzah (2000) and Nur Hafizah Abd Rahim Razali and Normaliza (2016) have used the Relevance theory championed by Sperber and Wilson (1986). In addition, there is also the use of image theory, namely through research Norajihah Muda and Raja Ariffin (2014). The writings of Siti Hajar Abdul Aziz (2010) only introduced models pragmatic study of linguistics. Next, Nor Hashimah Jalaluddin and Juliana Nopiah (2011) also conducted a study without using a theoretical basis. Although these studies have been classified as pragmatic study, but the use of theory for these studies is not consistent with the theoretical basis of this study.

In fact, a study using Politeness Principle of Leech (1983) have been carried out. Among the studies performed by Siti Saniah Abu Bakar (2011) which examines the meaning of the affective in radio ads, Noor core Zolkifli and Siti Saniah Abu Bakar (2011 and 2012) which examined the euphemism in the novel is chosen, Muhammad Faisal Hashim (2013) analyzing Arab society politeness language in clay animation, Norhana Bakhary (2014) who studied politeness in wording calls for indigenous communities and Sara Pepatih Beden and Indirawati Zahid (2015) which analyzes the politeness language in the selected novel. Based on these studies, there is only one study that is almost equal to the study conducted by researchers in the future, a study done by Muhammad Faisal Hashim (2013). However, the study did not examine the local culture as will be further examined in this study, but the study was more focused on cultural and outdoor animation, namely Arabic.

Studies related to animation, especially the study of language in Malaysia so far are very limited. Studies such as those conducted by Abdullah and Md Fadli Ahmad Ishak Sidin (2010) are focused on the development of human resources in the animation sector in Malaysia. Norhayati Che Hat (2011) also tried to look at the effectiveness of the use of animation in learning Arabic. Special study on the animated series Upin and Ipin conducted by Salawani Nur Mohd Nadzri and Hanita Hassan (2013) are almost identical in form to the study conducted by Noor Aida Mahmor and Nasihah Hashim (2015). Each study focused on the identity of ethnic languages in Malaysia and a reflection of the female characters in the animated series Upin and Ipin. However, these studies did not examine aspects of politeness adopted in the animated series.

Arising from the problems on the animated series Upin and Ipin, the researchers have been tempted to choose the animation for this study to analyze the implementation of the maxims set forth in the Principles of Politeness Orchestra with special attention to utterances that deviate from the maxims of the series the selected animation.

Methodology

This study is a qualitative study, which is a descriptive study. Creswell cited in width by Othman (2014) defines qualitative research as a process of inquiry to understand social problems or problems of mankind, based on a comprehensive and complex, with deep insights informants and conducted in a real and natural.

To achieve the objectives of this study the researchers have used the pragmatic theory, the principle of modesty highlighted by Geoffrey Leech (1983) as a guide to the study recognized its validity. Politeness principle is a result of his criticism of the principle of cooperation proposed by Grice. Orchestra in Beden and Indirawati Sara Zahid (2015) explains that Grice's theory only emphasizes the cooperation principles to describe the relationship between power and purpose. For Orchestra, in addition to that provided by Grice, elements of language politeness are also needed to understand the meaning of an utterance.

Findings

Maxim Decent Courtesy

Maxim decent courtesy is the maximum to minimize costs for others and maximize the benefits to others. Maxim is more centered on others. It is divided into two main things, which is negative for the listeners that minimize losses and maximize the positive benefits to the listener.

Maxim is also known as a maxim of wisdom (Sara Beden and Indirawati Zahid, 2015). The concept of wisdom is referring to manage a situation without offending others while communicating. For example, such as calling or greet others in order to create intimacy in communication in addition to maximizing the benefits to the listener.

Courtesy Maxim Compliance

Examples speech identified in compliance with the maximum decent in the animated series selected are as follows:

Example 1: E1

Situation A: Upin and Ipin are on the porch of the house dressed in baju Melayu as he talked about the experience when the first fast to friends.

Upin: Friends do not want to hear a story? Ha, .. sitting ...! Sit down! Initially like this ... Ahhh ... .. Ehh ... Upin Ipin ...

Ipin: Play marbles (whispering)

Upin: Haaa .. we are playing marbles that time ..

Ipin: Really Really Really ...

Based on the situation in the episode A E1 above Upin and Ipin are inviting friends when they hear their first experience of fasting. Upin's invitation to his friends ... wanna hear a story like that? ... and ... ha..sit down..sit down .... a decent speech comply maxim. In the context of the speech, which aims to strike a warm invitation is considered civilized by Leech.

Furthermore, the speech is to minimize costs for the opponent who, being friends Upin and Ipin can avoid feeling tired standing when hearing the story of their experience. At the same time, Upin maximize the benefits to his friends by telling stories about the experience of fasting as an activity to fill their time with beneficial activities. In addition, through the invitation also indirectly strengthen the friendship between them.

Deviation of CourtesyMaxim

Next, examples of speech that identified deviate from the maximum decent in the animated series selected areas follows:

Example 1: E3

Situation C: Upin and Ipin wait time to break in the living room. Kak Ros come to call them to the kitchen.

Kak Ros: Heh! What are you guys watching?

Upin: Hhaa .. waiting for Maghrib prayer summon.

Ipin: Erm ... erm ...

Kak Ros: AIK! Never seen you guys waiting for maghrib summon before.

Ipin: Erm sister .. .. .. kind of noisy as if you don't know.

Kak Ros: Enough enough. Let's go it's time to break the fast.

Based on the situation C for episode E3 as above, the situation tells of a conversation between Upin, Ipin and Kak Ros while waiting for breaking the fast. Kak Ros has criticized the act that was done by Upin and Ipin before, the wait for the sunset call to prayer that marks the breaking of fasting for Muslims. Kak Ros rebuke them in the form of satire.

Based on the context of the speech Kak Ros, means Kak Ros has maximized the cost of her sisters who had just learned to fast full. It also means that satire is not beneficial for the Upin and Ipin instead to create a conflict between them. As speech is classified in the category that maximizes the cost for others and minimize benefit others, the speech was a departure from the polite maxim.

Generosity Maxim

Generosity is to minimize the maximum benefit for themselves and maximize the cost to themselves. Maxim is more centered on themselves and benefit others. Practices like this maxim in a communication or everyday actions able to avoid one of jealousy, envy and resentment among fellow human beings.

Comply Philanthropy Maxim

Examples of speech identified compliance maxims of philanthropy in the animated series selected are as follows:

Example 1: E2

Situation D: After returning home, Upin and Ipin rushed to the kitchen and approached Kak Ros and Opah.

Upin: Kak Ros, can we eat now?

Kak Ros: Not yet, soon.

Upin: so, what else? I'm hungry ... Thirsty...

Kak Ros: Haaa .. Akak have bought a new book. It's on the table.

Upin and Ipin: New book? (Jump for joy)

Ipin: Huh? Huh?

Upin: Wow ... oooooo ...

A a ... YAM yam. Chicken!

Based on E2, the situation D is the tale about the atmosphere in the house Upin and Ipin. Upin and Ipin just returned from playing alongside their friends on the outside. They were hungry and thirsty from fasting to ask their siuster, namely Kak Ros about the remaining time period of fasting for the day. They are already looking forward to breaking the fast. However, Kak Ros has managed to persuade them with new books were bought specially for her brothers. Upin and Ipin are very excited with the book so forget hunger and thirst.

Kak Ros speech that offers new books bought to minimize Upin and Ipin have benefits for herself as well as maximizing the cost to herself. This is because the speech to highlight the nature of a sister who is willing to struggle and make sacrifices to buy books for her brotherss in order to give impetus to the spirit as well as her brothers in order to fast full. This also means, the speech is more advantage to the listener, namely Upin and Ipin than the speaker itself Kak Ros. The speech was in compliance with the maximum generosity.

Support Maxim

Support maxim that minimizes the denigration of others and maximize the praise of others. Support maxim can be characterized as dishonest with the aim of propping. This maxim can be identified by praise or appreciation for others.

Complying Support Maxim

Examples of speech support identified in compliance with the maximum support in the animated series selected are as follows:

Example 1: E1

Situation C: Upin and Ipin having dinner with Opah together. Kak Ros still in the living room to hear the proclamation of fasting through television.

Ipin: Kak Ros what channel is that?

Kak Ros : TV9

Ipin:.. Haa ..., good .. good ...:

Kak Ros: Opah, tomorrow we will start fasting.

Situation C appearing in episodes of E1 is connected with Kak Ros Ipin conversation. Kak Ros Ipin greeted with questions about the television program being watched by her brother. Kak Ros who was watching TV9 to hear the proclamation of fasting has answered questions Ipin well and briefly only. Kak Ros Ipin praised for representing the family to hear the declaration of fasting through the channel TV9.

Ipin utterances like Haa, good .. good ... rated as politeness strategies that meet the maximum support, namely that minimize and maximize the insults heaped on others. Through the speech, the speaker has maximized Ipin compliment to the listeners, ie Kak Ros. In the context of this speech, no insults were uttered. This means that it has fulfilled the maxim speech support.

Approval Maxim

Approval maxim is the maxim that minimizes conflicts between an individual with others and maximize the agreement between yourself and others with the aim of reaching an agreement. This maxim can be identified by the approval of the opponent in a communication. Conversely, when the listener refuses and disagree totally what is uttered by the speaker, the speech is considered rude to this maxim.

Approval Maxim Compliance

Examples of speech that identified compliance with the maximum approval in the animated series selected are as follows:

Example 1: E1

Situation C: Upin and Ipin and Opah are having dinner together. Kak Ros is still in the living room to hear the proclamation of fasting through television.

Ipin: Kak Ros you are in which channel?

Kak Ros: TV9 ...

Ipin: Haa ... nice ... nice ..:

Kak Ros: Opah, tomorrow we will start fasting.

The two of you must also fast.

Opah:: Huh? Fasting? (Surprised while touching Ipin playfully)

Upin: Huh! Oooo ... can, can, can ... (while biting chicken)

Based on the situation C for episode E1, Kak Ros is listening to the declaration of fasting through TV9 broadcasts. Then, Kak Ros deliver the announcement to Opah that the next day is the start of fasting for Muslims.

Thus, Opah urged Upin and Ipin to fast the next day. Upin and Ipin are surprised to hear that Opah ordered them to fast. But Ipin's speech ... Can, can, can ... explain that he agreed to answer Opah callveswithout any reason. So, this is indirectly proved that the speech was to minimize conflicts and maximize the agreement between himselves and the others, namely Opah.

Approval Maxim Deviation

Next, examples of speech that identified deviate from the approval maxim in the animated series selected are as follows:

Example 1: E2

Situation E: Ipin dream of getting a lot of fried chicken.

Ipin: Hah! (While the capture of fried chicken)

Ermm ... Huh? (Surprised to see more fried chicken)

Waaaaa ....Waaa ... .. Erm ... waaa..

Upin: Hey, I booked first! (Patting book on the table)

Ipin: Hey! That's not fair!

Situation E in E2 episode tells the rivalry between Upin and Ipin to have their favorite books that have been purchased by Kak Ros. Finally, Upin managed to get the book first before Ipin. However, Ipin's dissatisfaction is clearly demonstrated by the speech ... Hey! That's not fair!

In the context of the speech, the speech was Ipin maximize and minimize infighting among others approval, the kings because they have a favorite book in advance. Indirectly, this proves that speech has deviated from the maximum approval should minimize conflicts and maximize the approval of others.

Humility Maxim

Humility maxim is a maxim that minimizes the compliment to yourself and maximize diatribe against yourself. Maksim shows properties more civilized and polite.

This maxim may be identified through humble action such as thanks for the compliments received even apologized to avoid opponents felt offended. In addition, the maxim of humility also identified through use of a particular word as a disparage against yourself.

Humility Maxim Compliance

Examples of speech identified in compliance with the humility maxim in the animated series selected are as follows:

Example 1: E4

Situation A: Upin and Ipin are still on the varendah of their home while continuing the story of Tarawih.

Upin: After breaking the first day that we fell asleep ...

Ipin: We didn't go to the surau. Ish Ish .Ishhh. .. ..

In the E4 episode, situation A actually flashback of events that Upin and Ipin recall that occurred on the first day they fasted. Actually, they have promised to Opah that they want to follow along to the mosque to perform the Tarawih prayers. However, they fell asleep due to fatigue and satiation after iftar.

In such situations, Upin's speech, ... After breaking fast the first day that we fell asleep ... shows that people with low heart they admit their negligence that led to the sleep after breaking of fast and thus they were unable to perform the prayers at the surau. According to the context of the speech, Upin been minimizing compliment to themselves that they have managed to fasting for the first day. However, at the same time also Upin has maximized the denigration of themselves as asleep after fasting.

For the second utterance, Didn't go to the surau... Ish Ish .. .. Ishhh .... show their honesty to admit the truth of what happened. In the context of the speech, Ipin fully maximize its denigration of themselves asleep after breaking fast cause they can not perform the prayers for the night. Based on the description above, it is clear that the two utterances have been complied with humility because maxim respectively minimize and maximize compliment diatribe against yourself.

Humility Maxim Deviation

Examples of speech that identified depart from the maxims of humility in the animated series selected are as follows:

Example 1: E4

Situation C: Once they reached their destination, Opah and Kak Ros directly entered the surau. Upin and Ipin bumped Fizi and Ehsan.

Upin: Waah ... so much money. You are rich.

Ehsan: Haaaa ... I get one ringgit for a day I fast.

Upin: Eh! Why we didn't get that Ipin?

Ipin: Ak'aaalaaaa ... .We will fast for one whole month.

Situation C found in E4 episode tells the story of Upin and Ipin are excited to see Ehsan who was holding a lot of money because he got a fee of a dollar for a day of fasting.

Under these circumstances, the first speech uttered by Ehsan like ... Haaa....I get one ringgit for a day I fast ... brings out the character of Ehsan who prides himself for he gets a lot of money compared to Upin and Ipin. The fact is, Upin and Ipin full fasted compared to only Ehsan only half day fasting, but did not get fee like Ehsan. This suggests the speech was Ehsan praise maximize and minimize diatribe against yourself.

Next, for the second speech, the speech uttered by Ipin like ... Ak'aaalaaaa ...we will fast for one whole month is a form of speech complaints. Ipin is not satisfied with the prevailing situation. The fact is they, Upin and Ipin better than Ehsan as a full fast, but do not get fee like Ehsan can. This shows that Ipin have praise maximize and minimize diatribe against themselves.

Based on the above, the two speech samples were found to have deviated from the maxims of humility because each has maximized the praise and denigration of self maximize speaker itself.

Sympathy Maxim

Sympathy maxim is a maxim that minimizes hatred among themselves with others and maximize the sympathy between yourself and others. This maxim can be identified by the attitude of caring and compassion when listening to the problems of others for the purpose of expressing sympathy toward others.

Sympathy Maxim Complinace

Examples of speech identified in compliance with the maximum sympathy in the animated series selected are as follows:

Example 1: E2

Situation B: Upin and Ipin are in the kitchen in the morning in the fasting month. They opened the food shelves and food cover and were surprised when no breakfast was provided.

Upin: Huh? Huh? (As he opened the door of the food shelf)

Ipin: Ermmm ...

Upin: Haaa .. (he ran to the table and opened the food cover) Aik? Kak Ros, No breakfast?

Kak Ros: Hi, today is fasting. There's no breakfast.

Ipin: So, I cannot eat?

Kak Ros: Yes.Must wait for the time to break the fast

Based on the above situation, the situation that occurs in the episode B E2, Upin and Ipin have forgotten that they are fasting. They were surprised because there is no breakfast on the day. Then, Upin inquired about breakfast ... Aik? Kak Ros, no breakfast? ... Then, Kak Ros explained to them that on that day is a day of fasting. Because of the fast day, no breakfast provided to them so that they can train full fast. After hearing the explanation of Kak Ros, Upin was also trying to woo the Kak Ros sympathy through speech like ... So, I cannot eat? ... But Kak Ros firmed to discipline them so they can learn fast full.

In the context of the speech, both the speech uttered by Upin and Ipin have to minimize hatred and to maximize the sympathy between themselves and the others, namely Kak Ros. Therefore, it is clear that the two utterances have been complying with the maximum sympathy.

Conclusion

The data were analyzed as a whole show that the animated series studied have used the principle of modesty as standards introduced by the orchestra. Although there are utterances which deviate from the maxims outlined, but does not mean that the animated series is not concerned with politeness.

Through the insights gained from the study found that the utterances deviant sometimes contain implied meaning to advise someone for satire, as a threat to make a positive change, a strike aimed at disciplining someone, the answer is unequivocally in defense of God’s command and others. In short, it is clear that this animated series contains the high values of modesty and able to serve as guidelines in real life.

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ON THE REALIZATION OF THREAT SPEECH ACT AMONG IRANIAN FAMILIES

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Abstract

This article is an investigation into the various realizations of threat speech act between parents and children in Iranian families. After devising and piloting a discourse completion test (DCT), we administered it to 133 male and female university students living in dormitories. In formulating the DCT scenarios, we employed possible situations in families which could lead to the use of threat speech act on the part of parents. After constructing the DCT, we piloted it among the target population to get ready for the main study. In order to further illuminate the results of the main study, we conducted focus group discussions with about twenty participants to comment on the relevancy and appropriacy of the scenarios. Finally, the DCT was administered and all participants were required to complete the devised scenarios and specify the particular wordings of threat speech act encountered in their families or other situations between parents and children. The results indicated that imaginary threat was the dominant type of threat resorted to by parents against their children aged between 3 to 7 years old. Parents would try to resort to some real or imaginary creatures who could come and hurt the child. With regard to the other age ranges, namely, children between 8 to 12 and 13 to 17 years old, the threat types could be mainly placed on a continuum from more severe (e.g., physical threat, deprivation threat) to less strict strategies (e.g., rational threat), with fathers and mothers as the major actors voicing more direct and less direct threats, respectively. The results of the present study would have significant contributions to our understanding of the way threat speech act is manifested in societies wherein families are patriarchal in nature.

Key words: threat speech, Iranian families, discourse completion test, patriarchal society

Introduction

People employ a variety of linguistic and non-linguistic tools in daily communication and interaction to convey their meanings, implicitly or explicitly, to their interlocutors. These meanings and information, called speech acts (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969), are sometimes communicated using the conditional form of if p then q (Haigh et al., 2011). For instance, "If you study hard, you'll succeed" or "If you do it, I will not help you". Since its introduction by Austin (1962), the use of various speech acts has been recognized and investigated in everyday life or in institutionalized settings. For example, the speech acts of request (Akutsu, 2006; Félix-Brasdefer, 2005; Li, 2000; Soler, 2005), advice and suggestion (Jiang, 2006; Martinez-Flor, 2005; 2006), apology (Afghari & Kaviani, 2005), gratitude (Cheng, 2005; Farnia and Raja Rozina, 2009; Schauer & Adolphs, 2006), and refusal (Aliakbari & Changizi, 2012; Félix-Brasdefer, 2008), to name just a few.

One of the speech acts that is mostly formulated using if p then q structure is the speech act of threat. Threats are described as "a possible action (q) that has negative utility for the listener. In this case, if q is a potential action of the speaker, it is threat" (Haigh et al., 2011, p. 420). As the given structure indicates, such threats are mostly conditional and are employed by an interlocutor to intimidate or manipulate the listener into doing or not doing some action by exerting some consequences which are not favorable for the addressee (Beller, 2002; Vanderveken, 1990). In a similar vein, Fraser (1998) posits that an utterance is a threat if three prerequisites are met: there must be an intention to perform the act of threat; the act of threat is not favorable to the addressee; and there must be an intention on the part of the addresser to intimidate the addressee. However, these conditions are rendered void if the addresser has no power and authority to voice threatening utterances (Shon, 2005).

As the literature reveals, different speech acts have been widely investigated, yet the dearth of research on the speech act of threat is highly noticeable. Even Austin's (1962) mention of such speech act is very scanty until Searle (1975) made an attempt to subsume the speech acts of promise and threat under one general category of commissives (Salgueiro, 2010). This lack of research on the speech act of threat may be due to the meager use of such speech act in everyday life (Salgueiro, 2010).

Some researchers have tried to explore this speech act, particularly in institutionalized contexts (Beller, 2002; Carter, 2010; Fraser, 1998; Hepburn & Potter, 2010; Shon, 2005; Storey, 1995). Carter (2010), for instance, investigated the differences and similarities between terrorists and non-terrorists' utilization of the threat speech act. The focus of the study was on the use of pronouns and sentence types. This corpus based study revealed that threats made by terrorists employed the nominative pronoun we more often than their non-terrorists counterparts. With regard to sentence type, in both sets of data, declarative sentences were ranked as the most commonly found sentence type with If-then sentence raking second in both threats made by terrorists and non-terrorists. This finding resonates with what Fraser (1998) found in his study. He stated that the overwhelming majority of direct verbal threats are conditional, that is the form if p then q; he also contends that such speech acts are mostly formulated declaratively. Beller (2002) in his study tried to put forward a multi-level analysis of conditional threats and promises. Using and administering a scenario-embedded questionnaire to 40 participants, the researcher indicated that conditional promises and threats are formulated based on the motivational background of the speakers, concluding that conditional promises and threats pertain to people's "goals, actions, and incentives, and are thus highly emotional speech acts" (p. 118).

In another study, using interactional sociolinguistics and conversation analysis, Shon (2005) investigated the police-citizens encounters by audio-recording 50 traffic stops. Arguing that threats and warnings are fraternally related, Shon stated that "the presence of a gun transforms the talk into an intimidating and a coercive one" (p. 841) in police-citizens encounters. He further argues that "the entire interaction is peppered with a coercive dressing" (p. 837) in such interactions, in which messages are delivered rather than exchanged. In an interesting study, Hepburn and Potter (2011) explored how threats are issued and responded to in family mealtimes with young preschool children. Drawing upon discursive psychological approach and conversation analysis, they video-recorded 16 mealtimes without the presence of the researchers since the family was given a camera and asked to record their mealtimes. They concluded that "[t]he basic form of a threat delivered in talk has an 'if–then' grammar that makes negative consequences of some kind contingent on the recipient of the threat's actions." (p. 115). They argued that one of the characteristics of threat issued in their data is that the addresser has the power and authority to utter the threatening act. They also emphasize the contingency of threat speech act in order to distinguish it from warning and scold, saying that a threat is uttered to keep off a negative upshot whereas the latter is an unfavorable assessment of an addressee's behavior.

As it was highlighted, few studies have specifically explored the speech act of threat. Lack of research in this area becomes even more discernable in Iranian context. Almost no research, to date, has specifically investigated the speech act of threat in Iran, particularly among Iranian families. Thus, the present study is an attempt to fill this gap by employing the methodology which follows.

Methodology

Instrument

Though Beebe and Cummings (1996) believe that questionnaires, particularly DCTs, are not a reliable and valid tool of collecting authentic language use, others (e.g., Limberg, 2009) argue that the use of this instrument in speech act studies can be considered a reflection of the speaker's tendency to behave in a certain direction. In the present study, we employed DCT as the major source of data collection to explore the possible use of the speech act of threat in Iranian families, between parents and children. In formulating the DCT scenarios, we employed possible situations in families which could lead to the use of threat speech act on the part of parents. After constructing the DCT, we piloted it among the target population. We also conducted focus group discussions with about twenty participants. Compared with individual interviews, in focus group discussions participants mostly interact with each other rather than with the moderator and the outcome has the advantage of being from a collective rather than an individual perspective (Cohen et al., 2007).

Participants

The DCT was distributed among 133 (male=76; female=57) university students. The rationale for opting for such a sample was their availability, and the fact that they were almost the only indirect safe source through whom we could investigate the phenomenon under study without intrusion. We considered them to function as mediators who have the potential to connect us to families with various socioeconomic statuses. As Table 1 indicates, some questions were included in the DCT to gather demographic information about female participants' age, father's and mother's educational levels and jobs. Out of 57 female participants, 52.6 percent were aged between 18 and 22, 35.1 percent between 23 and 28, and 12.3 percent were 29 and above. With regard to their fathers' educational level, 35.1 percent had diploma, 54.4 percent had B.A degrees, and 10.5 percent had M.A degrees. In terms of their mothers' educational levels, 7.0 percent were illiterate, 70.2 percent had diploma, 3.5 percent had A.A, 15.8 percent had B.A, and 3.5 percent had M.A. Regarding male participants, out of 76 students, 53.9 percent were aged between 18-22 years old; 39.5 percent were aged between 23-28 years old; and 6.6 percent were aged 29 and above. With regard to their fathers' educational level, 36.8 percent had diploma, 57.9 percent had B.A, and 5.3 percent had M.A. In terms of their mothers' educational level, 6.6 percent were illiterate, 75.0 percent had diploma, 5.3 percent had A.A, 10.5 percent had B.A, and 2.6 percent had M.A.

With regard to father's and mother's job, we let the questions be open-ended. The overwhelming majority of male and female participants' answers to the inquiries into their fathers' job was categorized into those who were employed in state-run organizations and those who were self-employed in various areas; in the case of their mothers' job, housewife was a major category. In the present study, 64.9 percent of the female participants categorized their fathers as an employee of the state organizations and 35.1 percent as self-employed. These percentages were almost the other way around with regard to the job of the female participants' mothers; 10.5 percent were employees of the state organizations and 89.5 percent were housewives. Regarding male participants' answers to these enquiries, 60.5 percent of their fathers were employees of state organizations, and 39.5 percent were self-employed. 15.8 percent of their mothers were employees of state organizations, 1.3 percent were self-employed, and 82.9 percent were housewives.

Table 1. Males & females demographic information.

age		18-22	23-28	29 & above			
	F	52.6	35.1	12.3			
	M	53.9	39.5	6.6			
FaEd		Illiterate	Diploma	A.A	B.A	M.A	Ph.D.
	F	0.0	35.1	0.0	54.4	10.5	0.0
	M	0.0	36.8	0.0	57.9	5.3	0.0
MoEd		Illiterate	Diploma	A.A	B.A	M.A	Ph.D.
	F	7.0	70.2	3.5	15.8	3.5	0.0
	M	6.6	75.0	5.3	10.5	2.6	0.0
FaJob		Employee	Self-employed				
	F	64.9	35.1				
	M	60.5	39.5				
MoJob		Employee	Self-employed	Housewife			
	F	10.5	0.0	89.5			
	M	15.8	1.3	82.9			
Note: FaEd (father's education); MoEd (mother's education); FaJob (father's job); MoJob (mother's job).							

Procedure

The DCT included scenarios describing possible situations featuring threat speech act that the participants would encounter in their families. In each scenario, parents were those who would utter threat statements against their sons and daughters. The age range of the children in the scenarios were from three to seventeen. Accordingly, we divided the age ranges of the children into three main categories: three to seven, eight to twelve, and thirteen to seventeen years old, which along with parents' and children's gender specification yielded twelve scenarios altogether. That is, in six scenarios father was the one who uttered the threat statements, three for male and three for female children relative to the three age groups; and in the other six scenarios, mother was the one who uttered the threat statements.

After formulating the scenarios, in order to ensure the comprehensibility of the statements and remove any source of possible misunderstanding and cultural-sensitive issues, we piloted the DCT to about twenty students from the target population. The results yielded several modifications in the Persian wording and contents of the scenarios. It also provided us with a provisional list of categories and codes which we employed and applied deductively (Cohen et al., 2000) to codify and categorize the participants’ responses in the main study. However, in situations where new themes were extracted and the list could not accommodate the new information, the provisional list was revised in an inductive manner (Cohen et al., 2000). After devising and piloting the DCT, we also conducted focus group discussions with about twenty male and female participants from the target population. In the male discussions, one of the researchers was the moderator (Wilkinson, 2004), and in the female focus group discussion a trained researcher assistant adopted the role of the moderator. In these discussions, while taking field notes, we mainly asked questions about possible ways a specific threat could be formulated and stated in their families. In the final version of the DCT, we included some questions to elicit the participants’ demographic information, such as age, gender, father’s and mother’s education, and father’s and mother’s job. We included these queries at the end of the DCT since it is argued that bringing personal background questions at the beginning of a questionnaire can be discouraging (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012).

After administering the DCT and collecting them, we tried to codify the participants’ answers to each scenario of the DCT according to the provisional list of the categories. In order to ensure inter-rater reliability, we employed a trained rater to codify the answers. The point of difference was almost in ten percent of all answers. In order to alleviate the problem, we employed a third expert rater whose decision would determine the final categories of the answers on which there was disagreement. After the codification process, we entered the final codes (Table 2) into SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) to determine the frequency of each code and category for each scenario of the DCT.

Table 2 shows the taxonomy of various formulations of threat speech act used by parents in Iranian families.

Table 2. Final categories of threat speech act and their descriptions.

Categories	Description
1. Physical threat toward person	Utterances in which parents threaten their children with the general conditional sentence: “æge in kâr ro ænjâm bedi (nædi), mi-zænæmet” - “If you do (not do) this, then I will hit you”.
2. Physical threat toward object	Utterances in which parents threaten to damage objects which are their children’ assets: “æge in kâr ro ænjâm bedi (nædi), râyâne-æt ro miŝkænæm” - “If you do (not do) this, then I will break your computer”.
3. Imaginary threat	Utterances in which parents threaten their children (mostly aged between three and seven) that a real or imaginary creature would come and hurt them: “æge in kâr ro ænjâm bedi (nædi), gorbe mi-yâd mikhorædet” - “If you do (not do) this, then the cat will come and eat you”.

4. Rational threat	Utterances in which children are threatened against the rational upshot of their deeds: "æge in kâr ro ænjâm bedi (nædi), æz mædrese ekhraj miŝi" - "If you do (not do) this, then you'll be expelled from school".
5. Hyperbolic threat	Utterances which are exaggerated and represent the impossible as actually happening: "æge in kâr ro ænjâm bedi (nædi), æz khune mindâzæmet birun" - "If you do (not do) this, then I'll throw you out of home".
6. Authority threat	Utterances in which one of the parents threatens their children that s/he will keep an authority (such as the father or the teacher) apprised of the children's deed: "æge in kâr ro ænjâm bedi (nædi), be bâbât migæm" - "If you do (not do) this, then I'll tell your dad".
7. Deprivation threat	Utterances in which children are threatened against being deprived of a privilege.
7.1. Personal	Utterances in which parents threaten to deprive their children of something which is desirable for children: "æge in kâr ro ænjâm bedi (nædi), hæq nædâri tâ yek hæfte be televezion tæmæŝâ koni" - "If you do (not do) this, then I won't let you watch TV for a week".
7.2. Social	Utterances in which parents threaten to deprive their children of social mingling and interaction: "æge in kâr ro ænjâm bedi (nædi), hæq nædâri be modæte do hæfte beri birun" yâ "nemizâræm beri be mehmâni" - "If you do (not do) this, then you'll be grounded for two weeks" or "then I will not allow you to go to the party".
7.3. Emotional	Utterances in which parents threaten to deprive their children (mostly aged between three and seven) of any affectionate behavior toward them: "æge in kâr ro ænjâm bedi (nædi), dige bâhât bâzi nemikonæm" yâ "dige duset nædâræm" - If you do (not do) this, then I will not play with you" or "then I will not love you".
8. Confiscation threat	Utterances in which parents threaten to take away an asset which is already in the possession of children: "æge in kâr ro ænjâm bedi (nædi), do-ĉærkhæt ro æzæt migiræm" - "If you do (not do) this, then I'll impound your bicycle".
9. Threat of degradation	Utterances in which parents threaten their children against losing their face and degradation as the upshot of their deeds: "æge in kâr ro ænjâm bedi (nædi), dustât poŝte særet hærf dær miâræn" – "If you do (not do) this, then your friends will talk maliciously behind your back".

Results

Females' results

In this section, we will dwell upon the frequencies of the participants' answers to the DCT scenarios in each category. As we mentioned before, the DCT included twelve scenarios. Table 3 delineates the frequencies of our female participants' answers to the scenarios in each category. In the first scenario, the dominant categories of the threat employed by the parents were 'Imaginary threat' (29.8%), 'Emotional threat' (28.1%), and 'Rational threat' (24.6%) respectively. In the second scenario, the dominant threat types were, respectively, 'Physical threat toward the object' (35.1%) and 'Personal deprivation threat' (29.8%). In the third scenario, the female participants considered 'Physical threat toward the object' (42.1%) and 'Confiscation threat' (33.3%) as the dominant threat types. In the fourth scenario the dominant threat types were, respectively, 'Emotional threat' (31.6%), 'Imaginary threat' (26.3%), and 'Rational threat' (22.8%). With regard to the fifth scenario, the dominant types of threat were 'Rational threat' (31.6%) and 'Degradation threat' (29.8%). In the sixth scenario, the dominant threat types are 'Degradation threat' (33.3%), 'Rational threat' (29.8%), and 'Physical threat toward the person' (21.1%). In the seventh scenario, the dominant threat types were, respectively, 'Emotional threat' (31.6%) and 'Imaginary threat' (28.1%). In the eighth scenario, the female participants considered 'Confiscation threat' (36.8%), 'Personal deprivation threat' (22.8%), and 'Physical toward person' (21.1%) as the dominant threat types employed by parents. Regarding the ninth scenario, 'Personal deprivation threat' (33.3%), and 'Authority threat' (31.6%) were the dominant types of threat. In the tenth scenario, the dominant threat categories were, respectively, 'Social deprivation threat' (31.6%) and 'Emotional threat' (26.3%). In the eleventh scenario, the female participants highlighted 'Rational threat' (33.3%) and 'Degradation threat' (31.6%) as the dominant threat types used by parents. And in the last scenario, 'Degradation threat' (38.6%) and 'Authority threat' (29.8%) were considered to be the dominant threat types.

In the first scenario, the dominant categories were 'Imaginary threat' (28.9%), 'Emotional deprivation threat' (28.9%), and 'Physical threat' (21.1%). The dominant categories of the second scenario were 'Physical threat toward object' (32.9%) and 'Personal deprivation threat' (28.9%). With regard to the third scenario, the dominant categories were 'Physical threat toward person' (32.9%) and 'Confiscation threat' (30.3%). In the fourth scenario, the dominant categories were 'Imaginary threat' (30.3%) and 'Emotional threat deprivation' (34.2%). The dominant categories of the fifth and sixth scenarios were, respectively, 'Degradation threat' (43.4%, 44.7%) and 'Rational threat' (26.3%, 28.9%). In the seventh scenario, 'Authority threat' (23.7%) and 'Emotional deprivation threat' (21.1%) were the major categories. With regard to the eighth scenario, the dominant categories were 'Rational threat' (26.3%), 'Personal deprivation threat' and 'Confiscation threat' (22.4%), and 'Physical threat toward person' (21.1%). In the ninth scenario, 'Authority threat' (31.6%) and 'Confiscation threat' (22.4%) were the dominant categories. The major categories of the tenth scenario were 'Imaginary threat' (26.3%) and 'Authority threat' (18.4%). In the eleventh and last scenarios the dominant categories were, respectively, 'Degradation threat' (40.8%, 31.6%) and 'Rational threat' (25.0%, 26.3%).

Table 3. The frequency of female participants' answers to the DCT scenarios in each category.

Categories	PyThtPr (1)	PyTht Ob (2)	ImTh (3)	RaTh (4)	HyTh (5)	AuTh (6)	PrDeTh (7.1)	SoDeTh (7.2)	EmTh (7.3)	CoTh (8)	DeTh (9)
Scenarios											
1	10.5	0.0	29.8	24.6	7.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	28.1	0.0	0.0
2	19.3	35.1	0.0	0.0	15.8	0.0	29.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

3	42.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	15.8	0.0	8.8	0.0	0.0	33.3	0.0
4	1.8	10.5	26.3	22.8	7.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	31.6	0.0	0.0
5	7.0	0.0	0.0	31.6	15.8	0.0	0.0	15.8	0.0	0.0	29.8
6	21.1	0.0	0.0	29.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	15.8	0.0	0.0	33.3
7	14.0	0.0	28.1	0.0	12.3	14.0	0.0	0.0	31.6	0.0	0.0
8	21.1	0.0	0.0	17.5	0.0	0.0	22.8	0.0	0.0	38.6	0.0
9	7.0	0.0	0.0	14.0	0.0	31.6	33.3	0.0	0.0	14.0	0.0
10	14.0	0.0	17.5	0.0	5.3	5.3	0.0	31.6	26.3	0.0	0.0
11	3.5	0.0	0.0	33.3	0.0	17.5	14.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	31.6
12	7.0	0.0	0.0	14.0	0.0	29.8	0.0	10.5	0.0	0.0	38.6

Males' results

In the first scenario, the dominant categories were 'Imaginary threat' (28.9%), 'Emotional deprivation threat' (28.9%), and 'Physical threat' (21.1%). The dominant categories of the second scenario were 'Physical threat toward object' (32.9%) and 'Personal deprivation threat' (28.9%). With regard to the third scenario, the dominant categories were 'Physical threat toward person' (32.9%) and 'Confiscation threat' (30.3%). In the fourth scenario, the dominant categories were 'Imaginary threat' (30.3%) and 'Emotional threat deprivation' (34.2%). The dominant categories of the fifth and sixth scenarios were, respectively, 'Degradation threat' (43.4%, 44.7%) and 'Rational threat' (26.3%, 28.9%). In the seventh scenario, 'Authority threat' (23.7%) and 'Emotional deprivation threat' (21.1%) were the major categories. With regard to the eighth scenario, the dominant categories were 'Rational threat' (26.3%), 'Personal deprivation threat' and 'Confiscation threat' (22.4%), and 'Physical threat toward person' (21.1%). In the ninth scenario, 'Authority threat' (31.6%) and 'Confiscation threat' (22.4%) were the dominant categories. The major categories of the tenth scenario were 'Imaginary threat' (26.3%) and 'Authority threat' (18.4%). In the eleventh and last scenarios the dominant categories were, respectively, 'Degradation threat' (40.8%, 31.6%) and 'Rational threat' (25.0%, 26.3%).

Table 4. The frequency of male participants' answers to the DCT scenarios in each category.

Categories	PyThtPr (1)	PyThtOb (2)	ImTh (3)	RaTh (4)	HyTh (5)	AuTh (6)	PrDeTh (7.1)	SoDeTh (7.2)	EmDeTh (7.3)	CoTh (8)	DeTh (9)
Scenarios											
1	21.1	0.0	28.9	5.3	15.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	28.9	0.0	0.0
2	15.8	32.9	0.0	0.0	15.8	0.0	28.9	3.9	0.0	2.6	0.0

3	32.9	0.0	0.0	5.3	17.1	0.0	9.2	5.3	0.0	30.3	0.0
4	2.6	10.5	30.3	9.2	13.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	34.2	0.0	0.0
5	6.6	0.0	0.0	26.3	7.9	0.0	0.0	15.8	0.0	0.0	43.4
6	17.1	0.0	0.0	28.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	9.2	0.0	0.0	44.7
7	15.8	0.0	19.7	0.0	10.5	23.7	0.0	9.2	21.1	0.0	0.0
8	21.1	0.0	0.0	26.3	0.0	0.0	22.4	7.9	0.0	22.4	0.0
9	6.6	0.0	0.0	19.7	0.0	31.6	19.7	0.0	0.0	22.4	0.0
10	6.6	0.0	26.3	0.0	14.5	18.4	0.0	17.1	17.1	0.0	0.0
11	2.6	0.0	0.0	25.0	0.0	9.2	22.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	40.8
12	6.6	0.0	0.0	26.3	0.0	17.1	7.9	10.5	0.0	0.0	31.6

To further examine the data, we employed chi-square independence test (Pallant, 2013) to investigate the significance of the associations between our participants' answers to the scenarios and the four demographic variables addressed in the present study. As Table 5 indicates, there is almost no significant relationships between mother's job and the answers to the scenarios of the DCT. Notwithstanding this, the association between mother's job and the second scenario is relatively significant, $X2(10, N=133) = 56.260$, $p < 0.001$. The other significant association was found between mother's job and scenario five, $X2(8, N=133) = 23.884$, $p = 0.002$. With regard to father's educational level, the most significant associations were found between the variable and scenario four, $X2(10, N=133) = 43.116$, $p < 0.001$; scenario five, $X2(8, N=133) = 55.362$, $p < 0.001$; scenario six, $X2(6, N=133) = 24.629$, $p < 0.001$; scenario nine, $X2(8, N=133) = 29.119$, $p < 0.001$; scenario ten, $X2(10, N=133) = 33.232$, $p < 0.001$; and scenario twelve, $X2(10, N=133) = 48.207$, $p < 0.001$.

Table 5. The chi-square independence tests between the four variables and answers to the scenarios.

Scenarios	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Chi-Square Test (FaEd)	.002	.027	.185	.000	.000	.000	.014	.762	.000	.000	.004	.000
Chi-Square Test (MoEd)	.006	.098	.004	.008	.003	.019	.042	.004	.002	.166	.026	.573
Chi-Square Test (FaJob)	.024	.020	.450	.000	.000	.000	.017	.517	.002	.068	.001	.000
Chi-Square Test (MoJob)	.289	.000	.239	.138	.002	.076	.731	.482	.521	.034	.633	.756

The association between mother's educational level and the scenarios was also significant. The most significant relations were found between the variable and scenario nine, $X2(16, N=133) = 36.726$, $p = 0.002$; scenario five, $X2(16, N=133) = 36.072$, $p = 0.003$; scenario three, $X2(20, N=133) = 41.053$, $p < 0.05$; scenario eight, $X2(16, N=133) = 34.628$, $p < 0.05$; scenario one, $X2(16, N=133) = 33.812$, $p = 0.006$. Regarding father's job, the most significant associations were found between the variable and scenario four, $X2(5, N=133) = 26.097$, $p = 0.000$; scenario five, $X2(4, N=133) = 31.308$, $p = 0.000$; scenario six, $X2(3, N=133) = 20.138$, $p = 0.000$; and scenario twelve, $X2(5, N=133) = 23.797$, $p = 0.000$.

Discussion and conclusion

In this study, we made an attempt to investigate the various realizations of threat speech act among Iranian families. To this end, we devised and piloted a DCT with twelve scenarios, each consisting of several important variables which could have influences on the way our participants would formulate their answers; variables such as gender and age of children and gender of parents, namely father and mother, who utter the threat.

In four scenarios (1, 4, 7, 10), the age range of children at whom parents would direct threat was between three to seven years. In the first and fourth scenario father is the one who utters threat against his son (1) and daughter (4), and in the seventh and tenth scenario mother is the one who utters threat against her son (7) and daughter (10). These situations produced some answers which resonate with each other across the four scenarios with some variations. In these situations, one of the major threat types was imaginary threat. Parents would try to resort to some real or imaginary creatures who could come and hurt the child. Regardless of the gender of the child and parents, we could say that the crucial factor triggering this type of threat was the age of children as the percentage of its occurrence in other age ranges is nil. In the focus group discussions, the participants implied that since children might not be able to have developed rationality, and they also might not as yet recognize their parents' authority, they could be most susceptible to some 'foreigner' threats which could change and modify their behavior. The other major threat type occurring exclusively at this age range, was depriving children emotionally; that is, parents would threaten their children to deprive them of any affectionate behavior. We can argue that since the playmates of children of this age range are mostly their parents and the accompanying emotional communications occurring between them, parents would try to modify or change children's behavior by eliminating and depriving them of such a privilege. The Chi square analyses revealed that except for mother's job, the other three variables, namely the educational levels of parents and also father's job, could have influences on parents' use of emotional and imaginary threat.

The DCT also included four situations (2, 5, 8, 11) in the second age range, children aged between eight to twelve years old. Two of the scenarios described situations in which father was the one who directed threat at his son (2) and daughter (5), and in the other two situations mother was the one who would utter the threat statement against her son (8) and daughter (11). In scenarios 2 and 8, physical threat toward person is a major stimulus for behavior modification. As was implied by the participants in the focus group discussions, in the second scenario, we could say that since father is the one who utters threat statement, physical threat toward object has a high rate of occurrence reported by both male and female participants, whereas in scenario eight the percentage is nil; mother might never resort to such a threat due, in part, to her femininity. We can relate the occurrence of these two threat types to the age and gender of children in these two situations. Because of their age, children are developing rationality and have playmates other than their parents, such as their friends and personal possessions. In these two situations, parents also employed rational, personal deprivation, and confiscation threat to modify behavior. An interesting point is that in scenario 2, in which father is the one who utters threat, the percentage of rational threat is nil, and it is just mother who resorts to this threat. We can attribute this phenomenon to the affectionate nature of mother who tries to modify behavior rather than employing strict strategies.

On the other hand, in scenarios 5 and 11, the percentages of physical threat toward person and object are, respectively, very low and nil. Also, both parents resort highly to rational and degradation threat to modify behavior. We can say that the gender and age of the person at whom the threat is directed are very influential. Since children in these two situations are female, and also since they are developing rationality, parents prefer to employ lenient ways to modify behavior. A point worthy of some appreciation is the high occurrence rate of degradation threat. In the focus group discussions, the participants expressed that since in Iranian families deference is highly admired and persevered, every wrongdoing of children, particularly of female children, is deemed as a potential threat to that deference. Hence, parents try to rationalize with children and threaten them against the consequences of their wrongdoings which could bring dishonor to the social status of families.

The DCT also consisted of four situations (3, 6, 9, 12) in the third age range. In scenario 3 both the person who utters threat and the threatened person are male. This variable and the age of the threatened person could have influences on the way our participants formulated their answers. As a result, strict ways of behavior modification, such as physical threat toward person and confiscation threat, are opted for by father. However, this is not the case in the ninth scenario in which the percentage of physical threat is near to nil. In this situation, mother attempts to resort to authority, personal deprivation, and rational threat. In terms of rationality, as expounded upon earlier, mother tries to modify behavior by reasoning with children. On the other hand, we can argue that since Iranian families are mostly patriarchal and mother would not choose to deal directly with children aged between thirteen and eighteen, she would prefer to devolve the onus of behavior modification on father. Similarly, rather than resorting to physical threat toward person and object, in this situation mother tries to deprive children from personal possessions and hobbies which are favorable to children; in other words, mother hopes the absence of a stimulus would modify behavior.

Considering the eleven threat types proposed as a taxonomy in the present study, as indicated in Table 2, we can roughly divide them into more direct and strict strategies to less direct and soft strategies for modifying behavior. Strict strategies, such as physical threat toward person and object, hyperbolic threat, confiscation threat, and personal deprivation, are mainly employed by fathers to modify and change sons' behavior. As Tables 3 and 4 indicate, for instance, the common thread running through all the scenarios, regardless of age and gender of children and parents, is the use of physical threat toward person with varying degrees of occurrence. The highest occurrence of such a threat is in the third scenario with father as the person who threatens his son in the third age range. Likewise, hyperbolic threat is also occurred mainly in the first six scenarios in which father is the one who utters threat against his son. On the other hand, soft and less severe strategies, such as rational threat, imaginary threat, authority threat, and degradation threat, are mainly employed by mothers to modify and change daughters' behavior. For instance, as Tables 3 and 4 indicate, authority threat is exclusively employed by mothers as an indirect threatening strategy. Without having the tendency to treat these two threat divisions as dichotomous, we can argue that in Iranian families fathers are mostly expected to be harsh and strict when it comes to children's behavior modification; this could be the result of the patriarchal nature of families in Iran. This nature could also be the reason behind mothers' preference for less direct ways of behavior modification.

We can argue that parents' orientations towards various strategies for behavioral modification, as delineated in the present study, can be found in other similar societies in which families are patriarchal in nature. In such societies, fathers would enjoy higher social statuses in terms of different decision making situations. Dealing directly and more strictly with children misbehavior to remove or modify it swiftly, for instance, is one of the responsibilities devolved upon fathers in these societies. However, the situation and the ways threats are formulated could be different in less patriarchal societies, which needs further research. The results of the present study could be used as illuminating in various Sociolinguistics modules. In the same vein, the results could also be beneficial for teaching Persian as a foreign language (TPFL) in improving the pragmatic competence of Persian language learners. However, we issue a caveat regarding the applications of the results of the study. Since the participants are from a limited population, and also because we only investigated the formulations of threat speech act among Iranian families, research into other domains of life, particularly public arenas, would undoubtedly deepen our understanding of various realizations of threat speech act.

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BILINGUALISM: L2 INFLUENCE ON L1 LITERACY SKILLS (READING)

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Abstract

Learning and using another language have been linked to all kinds of benefits for children and adults. This is particularly true for young children's expanding cognitive abilities. According to Dr. Laura-Ann Petitto of Dartmouth College, children who have been exposed early to a second language possess an overall "cognitive edge." Numerous studies have also linked language education to higher scores on many standardized tests. A study from Canada's York University suggests that bilingualism may in fact impact the development of literacy in a number of significant ways. Dr. Ellen Bialystok, one of the world's foremost experts on bilingualism among children, led a group of researchers from York University in analyzing the effects of bilingualism on a group of over 100 children learning to read. Summarizing the results, Bialystok (1988) commented, "Our research has shown that reading progress amongst all bilingual children is improved" over monolingual children. In a separate statement, she said, "I think there's a lot of worry out there about other languages conflicting with a child's ability to learn to read in English, but that's absolutely not the case. Parents should not hesitate to share their native tongue with their children—it's a gift." More particularly, Dr. Bialystok and her team found the advantage in literacy bilingual children possessed was due to two specific effects of bilingualism, effects—a greater "metalinguistic awareness" and an ability to transfer reading skills and principles from one language to another.

Key words: bilingualism, literacy skills, reading

Introduction

There has been a great amount of research about the influence of the first language on the second, with the general result that the mother tongue is indeed a significant factor in second language development. But what about the influence that second language learning has on first language literacy skills, particularly on reading skill? Learning to read is indisputably the premier academic achievement of early schooling. It prepares children for their educational futures and is the key to the possibilities that their futures hold for them. Thus, if knowing two languages at the time that literacy is introduced, or learning to read in a language that is not the child's dominant one, or acquiring literacy simultaneously in two languages affects the outcome of literacy instruction, then it would be important to know that. These possibilities affect a sizable portion of the world's children: A significant number are bilingual at the time they begin reading, many are instructed in a language they do not speak at home, and some number of those are expected to acquire this skill in two languages.

Different opinions about L2 influence on L1 reading skill

So, what effect does it have on L1 reading skill? This question has been addressed especially in studies on immersion education. Critics of immersion programs had predicted that the students' L1 abilities as well as their overall academic development would suffer as a result of instruction in French. But the results of empirical research showed no evidence of a lag in development English proficiency in early immersion programs (Swain & Lapkin, 1982). Although immersion students lag behind their monolingual peers in some aspects of English literacy skills, these differences disappear when instruction in English is introduced into the curriculum (from grade2 to grade 4). Studies show that bilingual students often even outperform the monolinguals (Cummins, 1980). The reduced amount of instructional time in English does not seem to have a negative effect on English literacy skills, general results are invariably positive.

Lambert and Tucker (1972) investigated an early French immersion program in Montreal, the goal of the so–called St. Lambert experiment was to provide English-speaking children with functional competence in both written and spoken French, while at the same time promoting and maintaining normal levels of English development. All instruction was in French during kindergarten and grade 1. English language arts instruction was introduced in grade 2. Lambert and Tucker compared an immersion students group and an English control group after grade 1, 2, 3 and 4. Before the English language instruction began, for example, in grade 1, the immersion students scored significantly lower in English literacy skills, such as reading comprehension, spelling, and written vocabulary (Lambert & Tucker, 1972, p. 43). However, this lag was made up by the end of grade 2 (ibid, p. 103). In oral skills, such as listening and oral production, oral vocabulary the immersion students did not fall behind. Lambert & Tucker explained the positive results for the immersion group by their early development of a linguistic "detective "capacity (ibid, p.208). They suggested that the French immersion experience encourages students to engage in a kind of "contrastive linguists" by comparing similarities and differences in both languages. This has positive effects on their skills in English, and helps them both "to build vocabulary and to comprehend complex linguistic functions" (ibid, p. 208).

They also introduced the idea of a "transfer of skills" from one language to the other, or the development higher order cognitive skill, which is developed in one language, and can be used for the proficiency in the other language. This idea is comparable to Cummins` "Interdependence Hypothesis" which proposes that there is an interaction between the language of instruction and the type of competence a child has developed in his L1 prior to school and L2 achievement is likely to occur at no cost of L1 competence. This hypothesis, represented as a "dual-iceberg", posits that every language contains surface features; however, underlying those surface manifestations of language are proficiencies that are common across languages. The dimension of language used in more cognitively demanding tasks that involve more complex language is CALP, (later explained) which is transferable across languages.

Whereas, his second hypothesis "Threshold hypothesis" states that the level of L1 competence already reached by a student determines if he or she will experience cognitive deficits or benefits from schooling in second language, this means that here should be a certain "threshold " in first language before benefits of studying a second language can develop (Cummins, 1976). It explains the relationship between bilingualism and cognition, supporting the notion that individuals with high levels of proficiency in both language experience cognitive advantages in terms of linguistic and cognitive flexibility while low levels of proficiency in both languages result in cognitive deficits.

In his article reviewing findings about the reading skills in first and second language, Genesee (1979) reports high correlations between L1 and L2 reading skills, and concludes that this proficiency is most likely transferred from one language to the other (Genesee, 1979, p. 77). Swain and Lapkin (1982) carried out immersion studies in Toronto and Ottawa. The results of their longitudinal study showed that whereas the immersion students seemed to have lower literacy skills than monolinguals students in the first two years, these differences disappeared as soon as English Language Arts were officially introduced into the curriculum in grade 3. In grade 5, the immersion students even outperformed the English – only program students in some aspects of English language skills. These results were confirmed by Harley, Hart, and Lapkin (1986). In a more recent study Reeder, Buntain, and Takakuwa (1999) examined the effect of increased use of French instruction in an early immersion program in Vancouver, and found the higher amount of instruction in French did not lead to significant differences in English language literacy skills. In a report conducted by Turnbull, Hart, and Lapkin (2000) the same is stated, that by grade 6, immersion students clearly outperformed the regular program students in all skill areas. To sum up all these studies, it can be concluded that language abilities developed in one language can be transferred to the other one, without loss of any of the languages and literacy skills. According to Lambert (1990, p. 217) there is mutually beneficial interplay between L2 (the Language of instruction) and L1 (the basic language of thought and expression for the children at the start of the experience). In an elaboration of his interdependence hypothesis Cummins (1980) introduced the term 'cognitive academic language proficiency' (CALP) and 'basic interpersonal communication skills" (BICS)'. The higher level cognitive skills, such as problem-solving skills and literacy skills (CALP) are transferable, since they represent general cognitive skills; whereas the BICS (including surface aspects such as orthography and fluency) rely more on the context and on specific language. Reading academic texts would be an example of CALP and thus be transferable from French to English.

Another idea expressed by Coulmas is represented in Ellen Bialystok, Gigi Luk, and Ernest Kwan's (2005) study where it is claimed that the writing system that a language uses affects children's acquisition of literacy because each system is based on a different set of symbolic relations and requires different cognitive skills (Coulmas, 1989).

There are two reasons that literacy may proceed differently for bilingual and monolingual children. The first is that bilinguals develop several of the background skills for literacy differently from monolinguals; the second is that bilinguals may have the opportunity to transfer the skills acquired for reading in one language to reading in the other. In both cases, the relation between the writing systems in the two languages determines the commonality in the cognitive skills required for reading and may also determine the extent to which bilingualism affects literacy acquisition. This study examines the role of bilingualism in early literacy acquisition for children whose two writing systems have different relations to each other.

Three skills crucial for literacy acquisition are oral proficiency, metalinguistic awareness, and general cognitive development.

Oral vocabulary has been shown to influence children's acquisition of literacy, but preschool bilingual children command a smaller vocabulary than comparable monolingual speakers of each language. In a large-scale study of nearly 1,000 Spanish–English bilinguals in Miami reported superior vocabulary by monolinguals even after controlling for socioeconomic status (SES), a gap that did not close until fifth grade; the gap persisted even for bilingual children in English-speaking homes, although the size was reduced. This relation with home language replicates a result reported by Bialystok and Herman (1999) for English–French bilingual children. These differences in vocabulary level may disadvantage bilingual children in early literacy compared to their monolingual peers.

Regarding metalinguistic awareness, research has repeatedly confirmed the importance of phonological awareness for alphabetic reading, but it is also related to children's progress in learning to read non-alphabetic languages such as Chinese. Relatively little research has examined the acquisition of phonological awareness for bilingual children, but studies typically report a bilingual advantage for 5-year-olds that disappears by age 6 when children begin reading instruction. In sum, however, there is no clear evidence that bilinguals are more advanced in developing phonological awareness than monolinguals.

Finally, levels of cognitive development are clearly related to literacy achievement, and some of these may also differ between monolinguals and bilinguals. Research by Geva and Siegel (2000) reported an interaction between cognitive factors such as working memory, and language- specific factors, such as orthography, that even varied within language when the orthographic demands changed, specifically, whether the vowelled or unvowelled form of written Hebrew was used. These results set important limits on attempts to generalize the effect of cognitive development on reading outcomes by demonstrating the contribution of the language and how it is written. Therefore, if there are overall bilingual advantages in acquiring literacy skills, they should be limited by the language and writing systems of the two languages.

The second reason that bilingualism might alter the course of literacy acquisition is the possibility that skills can transfer to a similar domain in the other language. The majority of this literature has shown positive transfer of literacy skills across languages. Many factors conspire to predict children's success in acquiring early literacy skills, so isolating the unique role of bilingualism must be undertaken in the context of these other factors. Does bilingualism, in other words, influence the acquisition of early literacy, all else being equal? The research has shown that oral vocabulary, phonological awareness, and working memory contribute to children's early progress in reading, and the bilingual children in this study differed from the monolinguals in their performance on some of these skills. The interpretation of the results is that bilingualism makes two contributions to children's early acquisition of literacy. The first is a general understanding of reading and its basis in a symbolic system of print. This general understanding can be acquired in any writing system and gives children an essential basis for learning how the system works and how the forms can be decoded into meaningful language. To this end, all the bilingual children showed some advantage relative to the monolinguals. The advantage given to the Chinese–English bilinguals was modest, and under conservative criteria for pairwise comparisons, their adjusted scores were no better than those of monolinguals. The second advantage of bilingualism is the potential for transfer of reading principles across the languages. This transfer is facilitated if the two languages are written in the same system, enabling children to transfer the strategies and expertise that they build up in one of the languages. Thus, the two groups whose two languages were both based on an alphabetic principle enjoyed the additional advantage of applying the concepts of reading that they learn to their two languages, enhancing both and boosting their passage into literacy.

The main goal of the study by Margarita Kaushanskaya, Jeewon Yoo, and Viorica Marian (2011) was to examine the influence of second-language experiences on native-language vocabulary and reading skills in two groups of bilingual speakers. English-Spanish and English-Mandarin bilinguals were tested on vocabulary knowledge and reading fluency in English, their native language. Participants also provided detailed information regarding their history of second-language acquisition, including age of L2 acquisition, degree of L2 exposure, L2 proficiency, and preference of L2 use. Comparisons across the two bilingual groups revealed that both groups performed similarly on native-language vocabulary and reading measures. However, in English Spanish bilinguals, higher self-reported reading skills in Spanish were associated with higher English reading-fluency scores, while in English-Mandarin bilinguals, higher self-reported reading skills in Mandarin were associated with lower English reading-fluency scores. These findings suggest that second-language experiences influence native-language performance, and can facilitate or reduce it depending on the properties of the second-language writing system.

Acquisition of a second language is often viewed as a process that differs from native-language acquisition and it is frequently assumed that factors influencing one's ability to acquire a second language (e.g. motivation) do not play a role in native-language development (e.g. Dörnyei, 2001). However, it is also well-established that knowledge of a second language impacts the ability to manage information in the native language (e.g. Marian & Spivey, 2003). Yet, the degree to which acquisition of a second language influences native-language function remains underspecified, and thus, knowledge regarding the interactivity of two languages within a single cognitive system remains incomplete. While the transfer of native-language abilities to second-language skills in bilinguals has been a focus of many studies, significantly less is known about the inverse relationship between bilinguals' second language and their native-language skills. Only a few studies have examined the transfer of language skills from bilinguals' L2 to their L1, and these have been largely limited by their focus on literacy. Relying on cognitive models of bilingualism that incorporate the notions of interactivity between bilinguals' two languages and on the cross-linguistic transfer literature, the goal of the current study was to examine the effects of knowing two different second languages on bilinguals' native language performance. Specifically, the researchers tested whether factors that influence second language acquisition also bear a relationship to native-language vocabulary and reading skills in two groups of bilingual speakers: An English-Spanish bilingual group and an English-Mandarin bilingual group. Since English and Spanish share the writing system (both are alphabetic), they expected positive relationships between knowledge of Spanish and performance on the English reading task. Conversely, since English and Mandarin do not share the writing system (English is alphabetic, while Mandarin is logographic), they expected a negative relationship between knowledge of Mandarin and performance on the English reading task. However, similar relationships between L2 experiences and bilinguals` native-language vocabulary performance were expected in the two groups of bilinguals.

Procedure

Both groups of bilingual participants filled out the Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (Marian, Blumenfeld & Kaushanskaya, 2007). Data from this questionnaire were used to determine participants' self-reported levels of L2 proficiency, L2 exposure, and L2 experience. All participants were also administered standardized tests of receptive vocabulary, expressive vocabulary, and reading fluency in English.

Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (LEAP-Q)

A reliable questionnaire elicits internally consistent self-reported data regarding bilinguals' language proficiency, age of acquisition, and history of prior and current language exposure across all languages. The questionnaire was validated in a large sample of bilingual speakers against standardized measures of language ability across various domains (phonology, vocabulary, and morphosyntax), and was shown to be highly predictive of bilinguals' actual linguistic performance in both the L1 and the L2.

Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-III (PPVT-III; Dunn & Dunn, 1997).

The PPVT III measures receptive vocabulary ability by requiring a participant to listen to a stimulus word and to choose the picture that best represents a stimulus word given four options. The difficulty level of the words increases incrementally with less frequent and later-acquired words appearing later in the test.

Expressive Vocabulary Test (EVT; William, 1997).

The EVT measures expressive vocabulary ability by requiring a participant to produce a synonym to a target word. For example, an experimenter reads a target word "walk" while showing the picture of a person walking, and the participant produces a synonym to a target word. The correct responses would be "stroll," "stride," "pace," etc.

Reading Fluency

Participants' reading skills in English were indexed by the Reading Fluency sub-test of the Woodcock-Johnson III - Tests of Achievement (Woodcock, McGrew, & Mather, 2001). This test measures how quickly and accurately people read English sentences. Participants are presented with 98 sentences and are given three minutes to read as many of them as they can. After reading each sentence, the participant needs to judge the truth value of the sentence by circling a Yes or No response provided on the answer sheet. The difficulty level of sentences gradually increases.

Analysis (see the Appendix)

Native-Language Vocabulary and Reading Fluency Performance

This showed that there were no significant differences in bilinguals' performances on standardized measures of native-language vocabulary and reading. This was true for the PPVT-III and Reading Fluency.

L2 Acquisition History. Independent-samples t-tests were used to compare the two bilingual groups to each other with regards to proficiency, exposure, and experience with the second language (Spanish vs. Mandarin). There were differences between groups in the timing of L2 acquisition, including the age of L2 acquisition and the age at which both speaking and reading fluency in L2 were attained. English-Spanish bilinguals acquired their L2 (Spanish) later than English-Mandarin bilinguals acquired their L2 (Mandarin). There were also differences between the two bilingual groups with regards to self-rated L2 reading proficiency. English-Mandarin bilinguals reported lower levels of L2 reading than English-Spanish bilinguals, although both groups reported similar levels of L2 speaking and understanding.

Extent of prior exposure to L2 correlated negatively with L1 vocabulary skills in both English-Spanish bilinguals and English-Mandarin bilinguals.

Extent of current L2 exposure correlated negatively with L1 vocabulary skills in both groups of bilingual speakers.

Self-rated L2 proficiency levels did not correlate with L1 vocabulary skills in English-Spanish bilinguals. However, English-Mandarin bilinguals demonstrated a negative correlation between self-rated L2 reading proficiency and receptive vocabulary skills in the L1.

For English-Spanish bilinguals, age of L2 acquisition correlated positively with L1 reading fluency. Specifically, L1 reading fluency correlated positively with both the age at which L2 speaking fluency was attained and the age at which L2 reading fluency was attained. This suggests that later acquisition of Spanish was associated with higher reading fluency in English for this group of bilinguals. A similar relationship was noted between English-Spanish bilinguals' age of L2 acquisition and L1 vocabulary performance. However, there were no significant correlations observed between the age of L2 acquisition and reading fluency in L1 for English-Mandarin bilinguals.

For English-Spanish bilinguals, the extent of prior L2 exposure did not correlate with L1 reading fluency. However, for English-Mandarin bilinguals, L1 Reading Fluency was negatively correlated with the number of years spent in a Mandarin -speaking country.

For English-Spanish bilinguals, there was no correlation between the extent of current L2 exposure and L1 Reading Fluency. However, for English-Mandarin bilinguals, L1 Reading Fluency correlated negatively with the extent of current exposure in the context of L2-speaking friends, and correlated positively with the extent of current exposure in the context of L2-speaking family.

Generally, L2 proficiency correlated positively with L1 Reading Fluency in English-Spanish bilinguals, but negatively in bilinguals. In sum, our findings suggest that acquisition of a second language is related to bilinguals' performance in the native language.

Distinct patterns of findings were observed for the relationship between L2-acquisition-history and L1 vocabulary skills in the two groups of bilinguals. While in English-Spanish bilinguals, later acquisition of L2 was associated with higher L1vocabulary performance, in English-Mandarin bilinguals, later acquisition of L2was associated with lower L1 vocabulary performance. The relationship between L2 acquisition age and L1 vocabulary in English-Spanish bilinguals can be easily interpreted, since later exposure to Spanish would have allowed English-Spanish bilinguals more time to be exposed to English, thus yielding higher English vocabulary scores later in life. However, the relationship between L2 acquisition age and L1 vocabulary in English-Mandarin bilinguals cannot be explained using the same logic, since earlier exposure to Mandarin should have reduced exposure to English, thus decreasing English vocabulary performance. One possible explanation for the inverse relationship between L2 acquisition age and L1 vocabulary skills in English-Mandarin bilinguals is that early exposure to two highly distinct languages like English and Mandarin may actually facilitate the ability to acquire vocabulary later in life. Evidence for such a mechanism was obtained by Bialystok (1997), who showed that while at 4 years of age, children exposed to both Chinese and English performed less successfully on literacy tasks than monolingual children or children, by 5 years of age, this disadvantage resolved, and English-Chinese children actually outperformed the monolingual group. Similarly, Kaushanskaya and Marian (2009) found that early exposure to English and Mandarin yielded enhanced word-learning skills in adult English-Mandarin bilinguals compared to monolingual speakers of English. Clearly, then, further studies are necessary to delineate the possible differences in how exposure to two different L2s early in life can impact on subsequent vocabulary development. However, the correlation patterns obtained in the current study indicate that differences in L2s acquired in childhood can yield distinct influences on native-language vocabulary performance in adulthood.

The extensive literature on cross-linguistic transfer strongly suggests that (1) literacy-related skills in L1 are more likely to transfer to L2 when the two languages share the writing system and (2) that bilinguals' literacy skills are positively impacted by the knowledge of a language that shares the reading principles with the target language (and this appears to be especially true when the native language is more transparent than the second language (e.g., Bialystok, Luk & Kwan, 2005; Da Fontoura & Seigel, 1995).

In the current study, there were clear differences between how L2 acquisition history and L1 reading fluency were related in the two groups of bilingual speakers. In English-Spanish bilinguals, there was no relationship between L2-immersion-related variables and L1 reading fluency, but there was a positive relationship between bilinguals' ratings of their L2 proficiency and L1 reading fluency. This suggests that English-Spanish bilinguals who were more proficient in Spanish were more likely to be better readers in English. Conversely, there were consistent negative correlations between L2-immersion-related variables and L1 reading fluency in English-Mandarin bilinguals, and most notably, there was a robust inverse relationship between bilinguals' ratings of Mandarin proficiency and their performance on the English reading fluency task. This indicates that English-Mandarin bilinguals who were more proficient in Mandarin were less fluent readers of English.

In conclusion, the current study indicates that knowledge of a second language can influence bilinguals' performance on native-language vocabulary and reading tasks.

Moreover, different L2 experiences (i.e. acquisition of Spanish vs. Mandarin as the L2), yield distinct influences on bilinguals' vocabulary and reading performance. These differences between English-Spanish and English-Mandarin bilinguals in the relationships between the history of L2 acquisition and native-language skills are all the more notable, since the two groups were in fact matched on their English vocabulary and literacy performance. Therefore, the distinct relationships that were observed between L2 acquisition and L1 function in the two groups of bilinguals indicate that seemingly comparable patterns of performance in bilinguals may obscure differences in the mechanisms that underlie L1 and L2 performance. In general, observing L2 influences on L1 suggests bi-directionality of connections between the native language system acquired at birth, and a second language acquired later in life.

A Survey – students' self- assessment of their reading abilities and L2 influence on L1 literacy skills.

This case study was conducted in Georgia and university students were involved in it.

The aim of the survey was students' reflection on their own abilities related to Reading in their native as well as Second Language (English). The survey (see the Appendix) implied answering 25 questions, including multiple choice and open questions, where students had to express their opinions by writing several sentences connected to Reading.

Data presented here is collated from 28 freshmen and sophomores with their English language level C1, the age varied from 18 to 20; 46% - female and 54% male participants; As for their Native language 65% mentioned it was Georgian and the rest of the percentage is assigned to different languages: Arabic, Azerbaijani, Turkish. 39% were from bilingual families, the rest 61% – from monolingual families; the majority of the participants started their second language (English) between 5 to 7 years, only some of them mentioned that they started at a later age like 10 or 12.

Being asked to assess their vocabulary level and reading abilities in their L1 and L2 the participants reacted quite positively with some exceptions who needed more practice in both languages. As for their speed of reading they gave more or less the same number of words per minute from 160 to 250 in both languages, but it`s worth mentioning that some of the participants pointed out the complexity of text is a major factor and comprehension is vital. Rating scale from 1 - 10 was used to identify perception of their own language skills. Vast majority claims that their L1 reading proficiency level out of 10 is exactly 10, in L2 it is 8/10.

One of the examples of the question is the following:

“When choosing to read a text available in all your languages, which language would you choose and why? Assume that the original was written in a language which is unknown for you.” The majority of participants nominated English for various reasons: some pointed out that it depended on the field they were reading in, or some mentioned the factor that English translation is always better due to its sentence structure; and others stated that they wanted to enrich their vocabulary and that was the main reason for choosing English translations. However, it must be propounded that there were some who expressed open preference towards their native language. As for their attitude towards general influence of L2 on L1 they responded quite positively. Though some exceptions were presented, most importantly they mentioned “code switching“ from one language to another, especially while speaking in their L1 they use English words rather than their native ones. In their opinion it is a core issue due to international words already being fixed in Georgian language.

Almost all participants agree with the statement “The earlier you start studying a second language, the better”, they have various opinions regarding reading skills. The majority of them think that starting to read in two languages simultaneously can have negative effect not only on L1 but on L2 as well due to many reasons, such as the confusion caused by age factor; whether L1 and L2 are of the same origin or absolutely different. Hence, we can conclude that some students share Ellen Bialystok’s idea regarding the above-mentioned writing systems where it is claimed that “the writing system that a language uses affects children’s acquisition of literacy because each system is based on a different set of symbolic relations and requires different cognitive skills”.

All in all, the overall conclusion from the survey can be the following:

The result of the survey showed that the majority of the focus group have positive attitude to starting to read at an earlier age in both languages (L1 and L2) if some additional and outer factors are taken into account. From their own experience they claim that they did not have any significant difficulties in starting to read in both languages due to some background benefits that they had from families or others, but still they indicate it is better to get enough skills of reading in L1 and then start acquiring the same skill in L2. Obviously, by testing their own abilities in reading (in L1 and L2) they do not mention any negative influence of L2 on L1 reading skills.

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Appendix

Table evaluating English – Spanish and English- Mandarin correlation

	Prior exposure to L2 with L1 Voc. skills	Current exposure to L2 with L1 Voc. skills	Self-rated L2 proficiency in reading with L1 voc.	Age of L2 acquisition with L1 reading fluency	The extent of prior L2 exposure with L1 reading fluency	Current L2 exposure and L1 reading fluency
English –Spanish	Negative	Negative	No correlation	Positive (later Acquisition)	No correlation	No correlation
English –Mandarin	Negative	Negative	Negative	No significant correlation	Negative (the years spent in mandarin –speaking country)	Negative

You can see the Survey questionnaire on the site:

https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLScjYZ1jLkCvUh7ZmEGJtRcUql50VWMXw3hiOQuIHUc90buqCQ/viewform

PUBLIC ADMINISTARATION STUDENTS' ESP NEEDS ANALYSIS

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Abstract

The article focuses on teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP). More precisely, it deals with public administration students' needs analysis. Examination of students' needs is a complex process that plays an essential role in the teaching of ESP. It gives teachers a chance to arrange the course appropriately. The significance of the issue triggered our interest. In order to assess students' needs we have surveyed thirty Georgian students. The subjects of the study were second and third year students. This study aimed at examining the necessities, lacks and wants of public administration students. The findings are based on the analysis of the questionnaire that comprised various types of questions. The questionnaire consisted of a range of questions about the frequently used language skills, the area where students need to use English, the form of language use, the areas where students need help, etc. The results of the study will hopefully help teachers and other interested parties and provide them with the necessary information. In the conclusion of the article recommendations and pedagogical implications are suggested.

Keywords: ESP, needs analysis, ESP for public administration students

Introduction

Previously, knowledge of a foreign language was an indication of a person's mental-intellectual development. The foreign language was primarily used for translating from the target language to the native language. No attention had been paid to the communicative nature of the language (Brown, 2007; Tsitsishvili, Nizharadze, Darchia, Tevzaia, Tkavashvili, 2006:47-48). In modern world the process of globalization has closely connected different nations with one another and hence, it has enhanced their human and professional relations.

What is ESP?

The formation and the development of ESP were influenced by three reasons: the demands of the post-World War II world, the emergence of new ideas in linguistics and in educational psychology. In this period "English … became subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people other than language teachers" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1998:6-8).

The explanation of ESP is provided by many authors. Hutchinson & Waters (1998) define ESP as "an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (p. 19). Definition of ESP is also stated by Strevens (1988) who defines ESP as "a particular case of the general category of special-purpose language teaching" (p. 1). The author presents absolute and variable characteristics of ESP. Absolute characteristics: ESP consists of English language teaching which is:

- designed to meet specified needs of the learners;

- related to content, to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;
- centered on the language appropriate to those activities, in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc;
- in contrast with general English.
- Variable characteristics: ESP may be (not necessary):
- restricted to the language skills to be learned (e.g. reading);
- not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

Hutchinson and Waters (1998) present ESP as one of the branches of EFL or ESL which is divided into three large ESP courses (English for Science and Technology, English for Business and Economics and English for Social Sciences) with "general nature of the learners' specialism" (p. 16). These courses, depending on the learner's need, are divided into English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). EAP and EOP offer individual ESP courses taking into consideration whether the learner need English for Academic study (EAP) or for work (EOP) (Hutchinson & Waters, 1998:16-17).

In Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics needs analysis or needs assessment is defined as "the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities. Needs assessment makes use of both subjective and objective information (e.g. data from questionnaires, tests, interviews, observation) and seeks to obtain information on:

- the situations in which a language will be used (including who it will be used with)
- the objectives and purposes for which the language is needed
- the types of communication that will be used (e.g. written, spoken, formal, informal)
- the level of proficiency that will be required" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 252-253).

As ESP teachers are not "primary knowers" (Dudley-Evans & St John, 2007) of the content of the material and they are "often reluctant dwellers in a strange and uncharted land" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1998: 158) they need to find out the needs of their students and properly develop the syllabus.

Methods of study

In order to reveal ESP needs of Public Administration students we distributed a questionnaire to thirty Georgian students. The aim of our research was to examine the necessities, lacks and wants of them.

The questionnaire comprised closed-ended and open-ended questions. It contained the following questions:

1. How often will you use English while working in public administration sector?

2. Which language skills are important for public administration jobs? Rank the skills from the most important (1) to least important (4).

3. In which area do you need help?

4. Write the topics/themes which will be interesting and helpful for you.

The subjects

The subjects of the study were second and third year students. Their age varied from twenty to twenty-two. The respondents were males as well as females.

Data analysis and results

The analysis of the data showed the following:

Majority (78%) of the students of Public Administration program consider that they will use English very often while working in public administration sector. 11% think that English can often be used in their major. Only 11 % considers that English can sometimes be used in their major.

The students (50 %) claim that the most important language skill in their major is speaking. 50 % of them states that the least important is writing.

54 % of the learners lack speaking skills and they need help to develop them. They also need to enhance their word-stock.

Many of the respondents (50%) avoided answering to the last question (about topics and themes). Those who answered the question wish to learn topics connected with politics and public sector. Only one student out of thirty considers that it is not necessary to learn ESP.

Conclusion

ESP teachers should assess the needs of their students. Needs analysis will help them to evaluate learners necessities, lacks and wants and properly develop the syllabus. Syllabus which meets students' needs and wants will positively promote learning process. ESP needs analysis of Public Administration students show that the English language is frequently used while working in the field of public administration. Majority of respondents have poor speaking skills and wish to develop it. What concerns to the topics and themes, students wish to learn materials that focus on politics and public sector.

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ANALYSIS OF HAROLD PINTER'S POLITICAL BELIEFS ON THE BASIS OF HIS NOBEL PRIZE ACCEPTANCE SPEECH

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Abstract

The famous English playwright Harold Pinter delivered his Nobel Prize acceptance speech in 2005, which lasted 47 minutes and is largely based on his political views and beliefs. Despite of the fact that Harold Pinter is not known as a political writer in English literature, the given speech confirms that politics has always been implicitly present in his oeuvre. This speech can be considered as a work of art and can be called a creative essay of a dramatist, since it clearly illustrates how art should challenge politics. This speech is a source of better understanding Harold Pinter's political plays, as these political outlooks shed a light on the period of playwright's dramatic work that can be called the period of political plays.

Key words: politics, political plays, speech, art, playwright.

Harold Pinter's Nobel Prize acceptance speech undoubtedly emphasis how deep and comprehensive his knowledge regarding world politics is. And not only is he concerned about political issues, but also how politics has always been part of his mental turmoil. The given speech appears to certain extent a brief summary of his outlooks that he had been expressing throughout many years in different spots. But it was this speech that draw public attention and made it obvious for everyone that Harold Pinter has not been merely a dramatist with random political expressions but a playwright whose political beliefs had played a key role in shaping his plays and particularly his later political plays. Certainly, it would have been harder to get deeper insight of his plays if his political opinions are rejected or not taken into consideration by his readers.

As stated above, Pinter had made different political statements while visiting different establishments at different occasions. But because those claims hadn't reached wider audiences, he tried now to use this given opportunity of his Nobel Prize speech and reiterated his strong resentments and revulsion about vices of politics once again. First of all, his political outrage starts with the criticism of American Foreign Policy. In 2004, prior to Pinter's Nobel Prize speech, while visiting Imperial War Museum Pinter stated that the objective of America's foreign policy was to obtain full dominance.

> "America's foreign policy now aims at 'Full Spectrum Dominance' – that is the US Administration's term, not mine. Full spectrum dominance means control of air, sea, land, and space. It also of course means control of the world's resources. The United States has over 700 military installations in 132 countries" (Pinter, 2004).

The 2005 Nobel Speech contains the same statement that he made a year earlier. However, there are minor amendments in regard with words, but content remains the same:

> America's official declared policy is now defined as 'full-spectrum dominance.' This is not my term, it is theirs. 'Full-spectrum dominance' means control of land, sea, air and space and all attendant resources. The United States now occupies 702 military installations throughout the world in 132 countries. (Pinter 2005)

Even though Pinter highlighted his political visions before and his Nobel Prize speech is not a pure novelty, it was after this speech that he was quoted as a political playwright in British literature.

One of the significant issues that Harold Pinter addresses in the given speech is the use of language by states in political discourse. To his mind, thanks to the political language and, in particular, language about democracy and freedom, countries, in particular America, manages to bring fear, torture, bombs, murder, poverty and death in the world. However, because it is done on behalf of democracy and freedom, it is justified. E.g. 100,000 Iraqis were killed by American bombs. However, their death does not exist. Their death is not even to be recorded. As American General Tom Frank claimed, they did not count dead bodies.

> We have brought torture, cluster bombs, depleted uranium, innumerable acts of random murder, misery, degradation and death to the Iraqi people and call it 'bringing freedom and democracy to the Middle East. (Pinter, 2005)

The above mentioned unfair and fierce facts have become a precondition for Harold Pointer's negative attitude. He was angry with the fact that a number of states managed to move forward through political language and democracy was declined by a reasonable and purposeful propaganda about democracy. The language was the greatest instrument to implement desired policy. It is due to this democracy language that the death toll of thousands is still present; People are physically and spiritually mutilated. Consequently, the function of the language has been distorted, it's become a set of lies and a constant masquerade.

> Language becomes a permanent masquerade, a tapestry of lies. The ruthless and cynical mutilation and degradation of human beings, both in spirit and body, death of countless thousands – these actions are justified by rhetorical gambits, sterile terminology and concepts of power which stink. Are we ever going to look at the language we use, I wonder? Is it within our capabilities to do so? (Pinter, 1990)

Harold Pinter has all this well-portrayed in his political play "One for the Road" which illustrates how people are manipulated by different political systems and how politics ruin people's lives. And how politics appear a tool to belittle, diminish and destroy human beings and their psyche through dictatorship and censorship. Like in his speech, this political play clarifies how language is used to justify evil and wrong-doing in the name of god and goodwill.

> What is extraordinary about the play is the attempt of the protagonist to justify himself and his constant appeal to God, family, the state as a substitute family, to vindicate his actions and he's always looking for reassurance from his victims that what he is doing is sincerely and honestly motivated, that is not based on his personal sadism but upon moral convictions. (Gillen & Gale, 1999: 113)

Another political play which echoes Pinter's political visions from his Nobel Speech is "Ashes to Ashes". We meet a couple in this play. Their relationship has entered a deadlock. Readers witness the use of violence and politics in interpersonal relationships and how they destroy humans.

One may wonder why has Harold Pinter used his speech for the discussion and criticism about politics rather than art? Why is he so much obsessed with politics? At least one is obvious, as a playwright, Pinter feels obliged to address those issues that should worry not only politicians but also those who write for eliminating and fighting vices. As a playwright, Harold Pinter with his words and pen, tries his best to tackle existing oppressions that prevail in the world. Art, in this case, doesn't exist as a separate field, but it appears to be the main and inseparable part in the political chain. In this regard Harold Pinter resembles George Orwell. It should also be highlighted here that politics for Harold Pinter doesn't mean any support or praise of party politics. For him politics implies a deliberate and clear purpose: to bring the prevailing evil into the day's light and criticize the actions of the oppressors. As Harold Pinter himself says, "When we look in the mirror, the image that we encounter is accurate. However, you can also get millimeters and the image will be changed. In fact, we look at a constantly changing reflection. But sometimes the writer has to get rid of the mirror at all, because this is the truth from the other side of the mirror "(Pinter 2005).

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MOHAMMAD BAHMANBEIGI AND PASTORIAL EDUCATION IN IRAN

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Abstract

In the history of education in the third world, no one was successful like Mohammad Bahmanbeigi. During the 1950s he established Talimat-e Ashayer (meaning pastorial education) in Iran. Bahmanbeigi, who was from a noble pastorial family, came to the conclusion that the only solution to nomads' plight was education. His approach was that nomads' life was so hard that teachers from cities were unable to endure it, and therefore teachers of these nomads had to be from nomads themselves. During two or three decades of hard work, he could educate 9000 teachers from children of ahayer (nomads); gradually, the number of graduated teachers increased so much that they could go to other parts of Iran and educate people themselves. Bahmanbeigi also had concerns about women and hundreds of girls became teachers in his Daneshsara. After the 1979 Islamic revolution, his Talimat-e Ashayer was closed down, but even now that he has been passed away for eight years, his work still continues affecting the Iranian society.

Keywords: Pastorial Education; Nomadic Education; Moahammad Bahmanbeigi; Talimat-e Ashayer

Introduction

James Watt invented steam engine in 1776 and changed the face of the earth forever. The Western world became modernized soon and steam ships helped Western powers to start a new chapter in colonialism. They wanted to be more efficient and therefore they needed to deploy more scientists on the field; but, these scientists were more acquainted with the calm and civilized environment of universities and therefore the scale of misery of the colonized nations constantly agonized them. Finally, they came to the conclusion that there was an in-the-head variable that hindered people to do something about themselves and this was the beginning of a research and action field named Communication for Development. Colonial powers were aware of these issues and countered efforts to produce and circulate knowledge among the colonized people and this created a constant struggle for acquiring knowledge. For example, in 1888 Naser el-din Shah the king of Iran secretly wrote a letter full of lexical and grammatical errors to president of the United States Grover Cleveland and naively lamented about how Britain and Russia not only drained the resources of Iran, they also banned efforts to import science:

The government of Persia, which is an old established and independent kingdom of the world, have special message to her young and prosperous and powerful sister. . . But we have two great neighbors which instead of assisting us . . . always internally endeavoring to prevent us . . . you help us with your sicences (sic) and industries and send your companies and merchand (sic) and manufacturies (sic) to our country . . . Hoping that our reqist (sic) for the present will be strictly secret from any person besides your highness . . . (Shahghasemi, 2017: 81) .

The importance of education and learning has been reiterated myriad times in the Iranian classic texts, and for hundreds of years many great Iranian poets, teachers and writers have seen education as a panacea for human misery. But, no one can claim he or she has been so successful like Mohammad Bahmanbeigi in employing education to remove plight of the people. I also think in the history of education in the third world, no one has been successful as Bahmanbeigi and his Talimat-e Ashayer were. I am myself from south part of Iran and my own family and relatives have been engaged with Bahmanbeigi's project; therefore, the information I'll provide is a kind of lived experience in addition to many texts I have read about Mohammad Bahmanbeigi.

Life

Mohammad Bahmanbeigi was born in a pastorial (it is called ashayer in Iran) Qashqai family in south Iran in 1919. He was a small child when the central government of Iran exiled his family along with many khans of Qashqaies and Lors in south Iran to Tehran to keep them under close surveillance and make sure no further revolts would occur. In Tehran, Bahmanbeigi could receive modern education. His extraordinary talent convinced everyone that he would be a successful man; but, young Mohammad was more ambitious than this.

After WWII, his family were able to go back to their land and start pastorial life again. After a short ambivalence, Bahmanbeigi decided he was not made for a modern and successful life and started thinking how he could help to minimize the misery of his people. At this time -1950s - ashayer were almost illiterate, very poor, and suppressed. Gendarmes, hand in hand with landlords, swindled people and there was epidemic diseases. People's life was a nightmare in comparison with today's standards and women's situation was even worse.

Bahmanbeigi sacrificed his personal life in order to change the situation and he did more than that, as we will see in this paper. He married two times. His first wife was from Qashqai tribe who speak a Turkish dialect, and his second wife was from Lors, who are another group of ashayer who speak a dialect of Persian named Lori. Both wives were supporter of him in his project but his second wife Sakineh Kiani Bahmanbeigi (29 years his junior) was herself a teacher and his assistant. After Bahmanbeigi's death in 2010, she is working with Bahmanbeigi Foundation.

Education

After a deep contemplation, Bahmanbeigi came to the conclusion that all miseries emanated from 'ignorance' and he famously said that the key to our problems lies in the alphabet. He started a small educational project but found that there was invisible impediments, like lack of interest in parents, the reluctance of those who were in power to let people have education, and hardships of living a pastorial life for educated teachers. He then made a very important decision: teachers should have been from ashayer themselves, so they could endure hardships and also they would have a more powerful motivation to reach out to their fellow tribes' people. In order to educate these young would-be teachers, he decided to put all educational activities among ashayer under a new and independent body and this was how Tilamat-e Ashayer was born in 1953. Bahmanbeigi established headquarters of Talimat-e Ashayer in Shiraz, south of Iran. At that time, and even now, all main official bodies were located in Tehran, but Bahmanbeigi successfully convinced the government officials that geographical proximity with ashayer would help him be more efficient. In 1957 Bahmanbeigi contributed in the establishment of a special college named Daneshsaray-e Ashayeri (meaning nomad college) (Beck, 2017). All instructors Daneshsaray-e Ashayeri (including my own father) were from Ashayer themselves.

After two decades, Bahmanbeigi's Daneshsaray-e Ashayeri had more than 9000 graduates (Taylor, 2013), among them about 900 were girls (Shahghasemi, 2010). The number of these graduates were far more than what was needed and therefore many of these young teachers were sent to nearby regions. After some years, again more graduates were unable to find jobs and therefore they were sent farther to Kurdistan, Azarbaijan and Ardebil. Many of these young teachers married there and are still living there. After some years, Bahmanbeigi found that children of ashayer only could finish primary school and therefore he decided to establish a boarding school for highly talented students. This Dabirestan-e Ashayeri (nomad high school) was established in mid-1960s and more than 98% percent of its graduates could enter a program from top 5 universities of Iran.

Women

Bahmanbeigi had a special view towards women. His ideal woman was the one who had both traditional and modern qualities. From the outset of his project, Bahmanbeigi was deeply concerned about women and this is reflected in his writings. By that time, women were living in a horrible condition and many would die while giving birth. Many people thought daughters should not inherit from their fathers and they received no education (see, for example, Beck, 1991). Bahmanbeigi became very sad when he was told after boys were enrolled in ashayeri schools, their sisters had to work harder in order to compensate shortcomings in daily work. He started a cultural campaign to convince families that both boys and girls should have education. In order to do so, he resorted to personal talks with people to let them know how girl education would contribute into the well-being of the whole family. He also invited influential women to visit his Talimat-e Ashayer and sometimes to his ashayeri schools to let local people know women had more capabilities than they were thinking. His third, and possibly most efficient, strategy was to accept young girls in Daneshsaraye Ashayeri. This meant these girls would become teachers who receive salary and besides, their position would gradually change people's view on women, and it really did. Bahmanbeigi was a great fan of ashayeri music and dance and on occasion, he and his wife would participate in traditional dance. In this elegant dance women and men dance together and therefore Muslim clerics criticized, and continue to criticize, it. He also encouraged boys and girls to participate in artistic activities and he attended their performances. Bahmanbeigi's Daneshsara had about 900 female graduates and in the subsequent years these women made a great progress for the women's rights and for the whole society.

Yet, Bahmanbeigi was very sensitive of mask and hedonism. He openly warned his young teachers that any relationships outside conventional marriage would be destroying. He warned young men that "you receive salary, you are better educated and you are more sophisticated; never let these advantages to contempt you in deceiving women." Of course, his standards for women were more rigorous. Strong systems control sexuality and I think his strategy of controlling sexuality was one of the main reasons he succeed in his work. He would immediately oust those who infringed his laws of morality.

Another project Bahmanbeigi seriously pursued was midwifery. Maternity death was very high in Iran until recently. People were so desperate that they had resorted to superstitions. When Bahmanbeigi himself was born in 1919, they separated a mare from her colt to force her to neigh beside the tent were Bahmanbeigi's mother was giving birth, because they thought this would dispel Als (in Persian and Caucasian cultures Al is a kind of childbirth demon that damages or kills women while giving birth). Bahmanbeigi thought educating traditional midwifes would solve part of this problem and started to do so. After an initial success, he started a systematic program of midwifery and educated hundreds of midwifes to go to the most remote places and help women. Maternity deaths did not stop but its rate dropped dramatically.

Wit

Despite his busy schedule and hard working condition (he personally travelled to remote places via car, horse or even on foot to evaluate performance of his teachers) Bahmanbeigi was a very good writer. He was able to rehearse many poems by Sa'adi, Hafez, Ferdousi etc. and he recited these poems in his speeches, exactly where they were most meaningful. I saw him speaking several times and I have personally talked to him. He was very apt in oratory and as we will see in the next section, he used this ability most to secure fund for his project.

Bahmanbeigi wrote several books and in each book we can see how he was a multitasker genius. His Bukharaye Man, Ille Man (meaning 'my Bukhara is my tribe') is perhaps the most admired book of him; I read it first when I was a small child. This book is a series of short but real stories either about Bahmanbeigi himself or about other people and all of these stories happen in ashayeri environment.

Bahmanbeigi was an extraordinary clever man. All people who had worked with him have told me that he never forgot anything. He had thousands of teachers in half of Iran, but he almost knew everything about each of them, and he continued to keep this wonderful memory until his death. He was also very good in recognizing who can better do what and in this sense his students call him "the legendary director general."

Politics

Bahmanbeigi was never a political person, though he was deeply engaged with politics. In order to secure fund for his project, he approached politicians of all walks; as we saw in the last section, he was a supremely social being and was able to entertain and attract almost every body. Now that we can see the past from our vantage point of 21th century, we are amazed how he was successful in convincing politicians, foreigners, international bodies and even local landlords to pay for his project.

He thought Iran was a country in the third world in which governments would come and go and a majority of politicians only were in their positions to benefit themselves. Therefore, for him, children of ashayer must not intervened in politics because if they did, they would fail anyway, never mind the results. Three years before the Islamic Revolution of 1979, he gathered university students who were graduates of Ashayeri High School in a place in Tehran and warned them that the rate of changes was so high that a revolution would be imminent. He asked them not to join the revolution because if they did they would be losers; students, many of them now adhering to communisms, rejected his ideas because they thought Bahmanbeigi was a collaborator with the incumbent regime.

After the Islamic Revolution, Bahmanbeigi was accused of being a collaborator with the fallen regime of Shah. He was also accused of being an American agent. He had to leave his establishment and flee to Tehran to live for several months in a hideout. After three years, he was cleared of accusations and went back to his home, but, there was nothing left.

Immediately after the revolution, the Education Ministry of Fars province attacked Talimat-e Ashayer and plundered it. They were annoyed for more than a decade because of widespread activities and efficiency of Talimat-e Ashayer and therefore chaos after the revolution helped them to revenge. An excited mob also attacked Ashayeri High School, beat the students and vandalized it because they thought this school was an extension of an anti-Islamic and Western establishment.

Even some of Bahmanbeigi's students, teachers and colleagues turned against him and harassed him for a decade or so, but most of them later said they were not fair in their behavior and asked for his forgiveness, which he accepted.

Criticism

Despite his widespread popularity, there has been accusations against him. First, his opponents accuse him of working with Americans. He received aid from Point Four Program of Truman; he never denied it and in his speeches he defended his strategy; he said the money was spent on education of the poor children of ashayer and therefore the money was spent on empowerment of people who would possibly raise up against foreign intervention.

Another group of critics accuse Bahmanbeigi of being a collaborator in handing over German Nazi agent Bernhardt Schulze-Holthus to the British (to see a personal account of how Schulze-Holthus was surrendered by a group that included young Bahmanbeigi, see Taheri, 2015). By that time, Qashqaies were fighting against the British but after recognizing that the fight was futile, they gave in and accepted the British terms including surrendering Schulze-Holthus. Nazis were to some extent popular in Iran (O'Sullivan, 2014) (and they are not unpopular even now) partly because Iranians hated the British and the Russians and partly because Iranians perceived themselves as having kinship with Germans.

Bahmanbeigi is also criticized as a person who enjoyed of being lauded. He liked other people to boast about his project. Some people deny this tendency but based on my experience, I can say that he did like people to admire his project. Yet, I never thought he was a megalomaniac as he had done his job so good that he was –and is- worth it.

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VIOLENCE AS A COPING MECHANISM IN JAMES JOYCE'S DUBLINERS

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Abstract

Dubliners by James Joyce provides a candid portrayal of the early 20th century Irish capital, with its overwhelming paralysis and stagnation that affects the life of every citizen, despite their age, gender or social standing. Dubliners find it hard to avoid the debilitating influence of their environment and although they are unable to break the mould and change the situation, they still resort to coping mechanisms like drinking, self-imposed isolation or violence to forget the grim reality. The paper discusses the incidents of violence in two stories by Joyce - A Little Cloud and Counterparts. The stories belong to the same, adulthood cycle of the collection, but the protagonists are quite different in their age, characteristic features or lifestyle. Still, both stories refer to violence as a coping mechanism, a means of escaping from reality. The paper discusses similarities and differences between these two cases.

Key words: Dublin, paralysis, coping mechanism, violence, escape, isolation

Dubliners, a masterpiece by early James Joyce, is a chronicle of the Irish life on the verge of the 19th and 20th centuries. Joyce created fifteen stories, unified by the themes of paralysis, estrangement, decay and death- all of them characteristic for the Dublin and Dubliners of those days. Joyce termed this collection as the series of epicleti in his letter to Curran "I am writing a series of epicleti - ten - for a paper. I have written one. I call the series Dubliners to betray the soul of that hemiplegia or paralysis which many consider a city." (Joyce, 1975, 22). And in his letter to Stanislaus Joyce, 24 Sept. 1905 (Joyce, 1975, 111) we read: "When you remembers that Dublin has been a capital for a thousand years, that it is the "second" city of the British Empire, that it is nearly three times as big as Venice, it seems strange that no artist has given it to the world." So he decided to provide a candid portrayal of Dublin in his short stories and divided the stories, centered on the capital city of Ireland, into four main cycles- "the order of the stories is as follows. The Sisters, An Encounter and another story [Araby] which are stories of my childhood: The Boarding House; After the Race and Eveline, which are stories of adolescence: The Clay [sic], Counterparts and A Painful Case, which are stories of mature life: Ivy Day in the Committee Room, A Mother and the last story of the book [Grace] which are stories of public life in Dublin" (Joyce, 1975), 112). In addition we have to mention The Dead, the final, 15-th story of the collection, which stands apart from the whole collection, does not belong to any of the cycles, and at the same time sums up all the motifs and themes of the book.

As we have already noted, paralysis, certain sort of hemiplegia is the state that affects Joyce's Dublin and its inhabitants, who are unable to escape the deadening and debilitating influence of their environs. They refer to various coping mechanisms, such as drinking, violence, isolation to forget the state they are in, though these attempts can hardly be termed as successful and provide only temporary relief from the moribund reality of Dublin. This paper deals with these mechanisms, and particularly, analyzes the motif of violence on the example of two stories from the collection, where it is overtly and explicitly manifested- A Little Cloud and Counterparts. Still, at first we have to talk briefly about the reasons of the Dublin paralysis and its forms, depicted by Joyce in the collection.

On the verge of the 19th -20th centuries Ireland is anything but an independent country. The Union Act "abolished the Irish Parliament by providing for Irish representation at Westminster only, effective from 1 January, 1801. " (Welch (1996), 579) and "the Union, far from enhancing Anglo-Irish economic exchange, pauperized the Irish capital, by drawing it off its aristocratic elite and its prime investors. In the 19th century the erstwhile capital of the Anglo- Irish nation became the "dear, old and dirty Dublin" of Lady Morgan's phrase "(Welch, 1996, 579) the country became a marionette in the hands of a more powerful empire. Inability of making independent political decisions paralyzed all spheres of life in Ireland- its social, cultural, spiritual realms. By the end of the 19th century Ireland could have obtained its independence via the Home Rule act and moreover, it had the outstanding political leader - Charles Stuart Parnell, capable of gaining the victory in this fight, but a personal scandal, connected with Parnell's illegal affair with a married woman ended up his political career and terminated Ireland's hopes for better future, dividing the country into two feuding camps of Parnellites and anti-Panellites. The disheartened and frustrated Dubliners buried their hopes for independence together with Parnell and tried to escape the daily drudgery of their petty lives, to forget their obscurity via different coping mechanisms- drinking, praising their glorious past and referring to violence, as a means of proving their own significance.

The paralyzed state of Dublin captivates its inhabitants, despite their age difference. Still, we have to notice that as the characters grow and become more mature from cycle to cycle, the tone of the collection becomes grimmer and the plotline- more tragic. The two stories, selected by us, serve as a good example of the above-mentioned - Farrington is a darker projection of Little Chandler's figure, his more mature and tragic counterpart. The approach is quite characteristic for the collection, e.g. Eveline from the adolescence cycle can have two developments in the adult cycle of the collection- as Mrs.Sinico and Maria. The Little Cloud and Counterparts where the obvious choice for our research, for they most overtly and explicitly depict the physical manifestation of violence, as a coping mechanism. The protagonist of The Little Cloud, Little Chandler is a shy, quiet young man, happily married and a proud father of a baby. He has a job and leads a very peaceful, quiet life style of a lower middle class and still, he is not content with his fate. In his article about the Counterparts Jim Hansen claims that the question of primary importance is, "what Farrington wants" (Mahaffey, 2012, 185.) The same can be true about Little Chandler, who does not seem content with the peaceful and monotonous life he leads. Although the lifestyle of these kind suits Little Chandler's coy nature, he is driven by his ambitions and feels that he is capable of much more. Again, he feels that he will never be able to do something exciting in Dublin, where everything is so gray and drab, hence, he is longing for escape. He has a very good role model in this perspective- his former friend Gallaher, who fulfilled the dream of all Dubliners and escaped the dead realm of Dublin, left the provincial capital of Ireland for a successful journalistic career in a European megapolis. He is an actual antithesis of Chandler, discussing these two characters, Vicki Mahaffey notes: "The narrator emphasizes the contrast between the temperaments of Little Chandler and Gallaher: the former is melancholy and timid, the latter lively and brave (if somewhat vulgar). Their values are also sharply opposed: Chandler champions morality, whereas Gallaher advocates a salacious freedom. One wants to be a poet, and the other is a successful journalist, and their attitude towards marriage and childbearing differ significantly as well. Chandler is a homebody; Gallaher poses as a world traveler. Chandler prefers a romantic style; Gallaher is a gritty realist. Chandler does his wife's bidding; Gallaher presents himself as almost contemptuous of women: he sees women as instruments for the gratification of his sexual appetite and eventually for economic security; he means "to marry money" (Mahaffey, 2012, 184). Their meeting in the bar proves to be really ruinous for the ambitions and hopes of Little Chandler. Looking down on his former friend, Gallaher makes him understand that he is not born for great deeds; he will never be able to escape the monotony of Dublin and his family life. Little Chandler is hurt acknowledging by his failure and tries to direct his anger outward, on somebody else. He does not want to see that his meek and passive character makes him a more organic part of dormant Dublin than of any vibrant European city. After all, he is a "small flame", compared with "fierce light" of Ignatius Gallaher, according to Vicki Mahaffey and Marian Eide. Still, he is painfully cognizant of the paralysis his native town dwells in and unable to escape from these deadening influence, he refers to two most widespread mechanisms of coping, familiar to Dubliners- drinking and violence. If we compare his drinking habits with Farrington's or Mr.Kernan's boozing, it is more than clear that he is a moderate drinker, he drinks just for an encouragement before the conversation with Gallaher, to keep him a company, to prove that he is definitely not worse than others.

"Little Chandler allowed his whisky to be very much diluted.

"You don't know what's good for you, my boy," said Ignatius Gallaher. "I drink mine neat."

"I drink very little as a rule," said Little Chandler modestly. "An odd half-one or so when I meet any of the old crowd: that's all." (Joyce, 1982, 125)

Still, the drink makes Little Chandler more sensitive to his failure and triggers violence in him, so in a final, culminative scene, all the anxiety of the day finds its way in aggression and Little Chandler shouts on his little baby. This is not the act of physical aggression, his anger is manifested verbally. Moreover, when the baby starts crying loudly, scared of his father, Little Chandler is immediately filled with the huge sense of remorse: "Little Chandler felt his cheeks suffused with shame and he stood back out of the lamplight. He listened while the paroxysm of the child's sobbing grew less and less; and tears of remorse started to his eyes" (Joyce, 1982, 128). The peaceful nature of Little Chandler immediately abhors his act of violence towards the baby and his timid character shows itself, when he is staggering apologies to his wife, a woman who he blamed for all his failures just seconds ago. It is apparent that violence is not an inherent feature of his character; it is rather a sudden explosive reaction, one-time coping mechanism and not a norm of behaviour. Still, we must not forget that Chandler is a character from the first story of "adulthood" cycle and every initial story of a new cycle in Dubliners incorporates in itself characteristic features of the previous cycle. Hence, A Little Cloud has much in common with "young adulthood" stories. The protagonists of this cycle have the only chance of escaping from Dublin's mundane reality, but they fail to use this chance and are doomed to follow the same close circle until their death. Still, as they are at the beginning of their way, they are not fully affected by the Dublin paralysis; they are not yet coarsened and deadened by their monotonous life. Hence, drinking, violence and abuse have not yet become the casual aspects of Little Chandler's behavior. He has already realized that he is doomed for monotonous, dull existence in Dublin and will never fulfill his dreams, but he has not yet realized how deadly boring and senseless his existence is going to be. He has already chosen a very typical model of behavior for his countrymen- putting the blame on others, but his instant anger towards his wife and a child, whom he portrays as obstacles on his way towards fame and poetry, quickly subsides. His consciousness is not yet lulled by drinking or debilitating influence of daily drudgery and he recognizes his act of violence as shameful and the tears of remorse on his eyes are a certain marker of catharsis. The reader, well aware of Joycean vision of his contemporary Dublin cannot trust this catharsis too easily. Little Chandler will not be able to maintain his timid nature, morality and compassion for too long, under the debilitating influence of uninteresting and monotonous job, mundane family life and burden of responsibility, with no poetic inspiration or talent to save him from Dublin paralysis, in a decade or so he will inevitably turn into Farrington, the protagonist of Counterparts.

Counterparts is a story from the same "adulthood" cycle, but with a more mature, weary and less sensitive protagonist- Farrington. The man has the most monotonous and senseless job, he serves as a scrivener and the daily routine of his job drives him mad. He periodically leaves his job to make a sip or two and is strictly admonished by his boss. Somehow he manages to answer him back in a rather acrimonious manner that makes his boss extremely angry. Farrington knows that from now on his life will turn into hell. Even though he hates his job, he needs it to earn the miserable salary that hardly allows him to support his family. The boss, who is quite offended by Farrington's words, will do everything to complicate his life. Still, the manifestation of his verbal violence towards his Boss makes Farrington inebriated- via his bold words he proved his own worth, showed that he is not a slave but an independent human being. Now he has to share his triumph with others, to justify that he is a real man and at the same time, he needs to drink to quite the gnawing inner feeling of unease- he pawns his watch and hits his friends in the pub. There he tries to prove his superiority by taking part in a violent contest of arm wrestling, but loses. The drink does not provide him with desired forgetfulness and angry and frustrated, he goes home, where he, like Little Chandler, attacks his own child- this time violence is not only verbal, but physical. It is not a spontaneous attack of uncontrollable anger, but a deliberate act, the attempt to prove that at least, he is stronger than his meek and unprotected child. Beating up his son, Farrington tries to direct all his anger outward, but his revenge affects not the paralyzed world of Dublin, which turned him into a monster, but the weak and poor creature he has to protect and take care of, his offspring, his son, and his own future. His rage, directed towards the boy, reminds us of Cronos, who used to devour his own children. This rage shows that the generation of fathers, who refer to violence to gain back their self-esteem, is doomed for paralysis and then, eventually, for death. In Dubliners we have no anthisesis of characters, who rifer to violence as a coping mechanism, but we see such characters in "Ulysses", in the figure of Leopold Bloom, who offers a totally different approach to the personal and national problems, then blind fury, hatred, violence and abuse.

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DRIVING FORCES OF TUITION FEES AND SUBSIDIES REGIME IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS (International Background and Case of Georgia)

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Abstract

The paper provides the international background of higher education tuition fees and subsidies policy and discusses the factors and driving forces for their implementation. It explores different kinds of forces that shape the subsidy and tuition fee regimes and the effects of economic and political climate on the higher education funding. The article reviews several cases of tuition- subsidy regimes around the world and the historical background of their development. Furthermore, it studies the case of Georgian tuition–subsidy regime and its imperatives.

Key words: tuition free, education subsidies, political and economic factors

Introduction

The paper tries to find out the driving forces of funding and subsidizing higher education tuition. Before the main discussion, it is logical to discuss briefly, why higher education is funded. Everyone agrees that higher education plays the vital role in a "knowledge-based economy". According to the triple helix model of innovation (Etzkowitz & Leydesdorff, 1995) the collaboration of government, higher education institutions and industry serves the same mission to empower country's economy. Higher education institutions became the "laboratories" producing the skilled workers for the global market. The academia became state-subsidized entrepreneur aiming to adapt internal, global, social, political and economic challenges. Thus, supporting the higher education became the number one priority for the state.

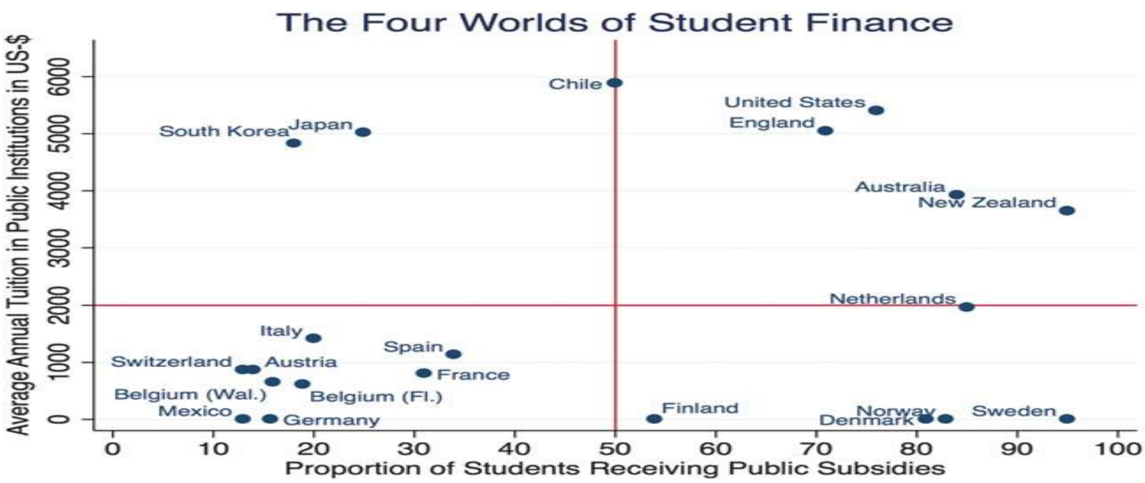
Despite the importance of the role of higher education in the economic progress of the country, the trends and strategies of funding systems differ across the world. According to Etzkowitz and leydesdorff (1995), the funding system depends on the interactions between government and the academia and the country's policy towards tertiary education. If the higher education is public, the government has more rights to intervene in academia, they refer the case of continental Europe, where the research is largely funded by the state. This model fails if we take the case of the United States, higher education is decentralized but universities still receive funding. Different global factors can influence the education funding policy, one of them is wartime. The period of World War II and the Cold war is known as the funded research in physics.

Despite the fact, the higher education subsidies, tuition fees, education funding are very popular topics, the comprehended study of higher education driving forces was not available till the publishing of Garritzmann's (2016) book The Political Economy of Higher Education Finance. He states that despite the vast number of literature about tuition fees and subsidies no lack comparative analysis. “To illustrate, in November 2015, Google Scholar produces 33,900 results for the joint search terms “tuition fees” and higher education and 83,400 hits for the combination “higher education” and “subsidies” (Garritzmann, 2016, p, 57). The majority of them depicted the variety of subsidies and tuition fees, types of loans and grant systems.

The studies before Garritzmann (2016)’s publishing and even today tend to be country-specific, descriptive than comparative. To compare today’s data, the results of google scholars in April 2018 reach about 120, 000. The increase of google scholar hits has not changed the basic content of literature. Still, they are descriptive, country-specific than comparative and systematic. The top results of research deal with the university budgets and budgeting systems, revenues and enrollment, tuition fees and financial aids (Balderston, 1995), revenue supplementation, cost-sharing (Johnstone, 2004), the role of fees and loans in higher education (Johnstone, 2004; Wilkins, 2012). Garritzmann (2016) tries to explore the policy of higher education funding system by comparative and systematic analyses, he uses the multi-method design and illustrates the case studies, develops the theory that higher education financing depends on the current ruling political parties and their left-wing or right-wing politics. He analyses the “four world of students’ finance s” and conducts the qualitative research to determine the role of the politics in financing systems. The paper discusses the Garitzman’s model the different kinds of funding-subsiding systems and tries to find the perspectives of his model in the case of the higher education funding system in Georgia.

“Four worlds of students’ finances”

Table 1. The four cluster of Student Finance



Garritzmann (2016) overviews and analyses systematically and compares publicly available data of various higher education tuition-subsidies systems across the globe and finally, clusters them in four groups of finances. First group countries have low tuition fees on higher education and simultaneously, low subsidy regime. Mainly in continental Europe (Italy, Spain, Switzerland, Austria, France, Belgium, Germany) and Mexico. Nordic European states tend to have low tuition fees and high subsidies, the third group is called “high tuition-high-subsidies’ group of the United States, England, Australia, New Zealand, Netherlands. The four group includes the countries with very high tuition fee higher education having rare subsidies from the government (South Korea, Japan, and Chile).

Which driving forces developed the four different types of financing, why do the countries with advanced democracy have absolutely different approaches towards students funding system? If we compare, all above-mentioned countries used to have almost same strategies before the World War II. What happened after that? According to Garritzmann (2016), the higher education funding policy determines the politics, he develops the partisan hypothesis that the higher education spending depends on positions of political parties in the government. The partisan hypothesis is the theory used in political economic literature and means the parties' constant positions and constant ideologies. According to partisan theory, parties are not eager to compromise opponent parties and strongly support their ideologies.

According to partisan theory (Garritzmann, 2016), left wing politics stands for social equality and egalitarianism, they aim to advocate social justice. The funding the education is one of the tools to create equal opportunities to everyone, the subsidies aim to fund the students from low economic background to give them the equal access to be part of the just society. Thus, left-wing parties tend to be more generous in terms of subsidies. In contrast, right wing parties oppose the student subsidies. They highlight the importance of quality of higher education, their main priority to support the higher socio-economic class and education is for the "elite". They are afraid of losing quality of Higher education by increasing the access of higher education and become "mass" education. Some students might enroll just because of the subsidies. From the Cristian democrats and conservative parties' perspective, the students supporting and funding is responsibility of the families. Thus, ideal right wing government would prefer to decrease the taxes and support the families rather than establishing the subsidy systems.

Table 2. Right/left ideologies on economy and education

	Right- wing parties	Left-wing parties
Economy	Income equality; higher tax rates on the wealthy; government spending on social programs and infrastructure; stronger regulations on business.	Lower taxes and less regulation on businesses; reduced government spending; balanced budget
Education	Favor expanded free, public education.	Believe parents who want to home-school their kids or send them to private school should be able to get vouchers for opting out of the public school system. Generally not opposed to Public education.

As we mentioned, left parties will oppose the tuition fees and right parties will support them. The psychological and sociological assumptions about students from low income and low social-economic background families prove that they tend to be cautious to risk to take debts for education, they are not risk takers and prefer short-termed programs and low tuition education, they enroll in cheap and worse institutions. The left-wing parties consider students preference as another social and economic containment, therefore, they opt to abolish tuition fees or at least, decrease them (Garritzmann, 2016).

Contrary, students from high-income families are not attracted by the subsidies, the amount of tuition does not change their attitude toward enrolling in higher education institutions. Thus, left party's emphasize the importance of quality of higher education than the equal access to it. They would take an advantage of the tuition as the mean of increasing revenues. The same will happen with the subsidies, the right parties will oppose the subsidies, will leave parties will favor them (Garritzmann, 2016).

Garritzmann (2016) claims that not only the position of the political parties but the duration of their authority determines the tuition-subsidy regimes. He provides the case of the Japan where the right-wing parties were dominant and consequently, they have high tuition fees and favor low subsidy systems. Contrary, the Finland ruling mainly parties supporting egalitarianism and having generous subsidy system and low tuition fees. In case the left party rules for a short time, they would start implementing the low tuition-high subsidy regime, when the right parties come to the office, we expect from them to decrease spending on subsidies. This causes low tuition and low subsidy regime.

To illustrate, the case of Germany, when the left wing parties in 1970 introduced very substantial subsidies and could not manage to decrease the tuition fees, in 1980 right-wing parties took the office and were afraid to lose the electoral votes, thus they did not abolish the subsidies , but also did not change the tuition fees. In the case of America, in 1944 during the Democrat's office, by the introduction of G.I. Bills, the veterans of the world war II were had the vide access to higher education. Republicans avoid to abolish the subsidies because of the popularity of the public, they realized that it would be electorally costly, thus they increased the tuition fee. We can formulate Garritzmann's model in the following scheme:

- Left-wing predominance _ no(low) tuition, high subsidies
- Right-wing predominance _ high tuition, low subsidies
- Right-wing after longer leftwing government _ high tuition, high subsidies
- Right-wing after short leftwing government _low tuition, low subsidies

It is noteworthy to mention that there is almost no change in students' finance regimes in the four world. What explains the stability of low-subsidy regime? The research shows (Garritzmann, 2016) that the stability of the regime depends on the positive feedback effect. If people are happy with the existing model they support it. The parties realize the risk of the losing the electoral votes.

The case of Georgia

What are the implications of Garritzmann's model of higher education tuition-subsidy policy in Georgia? First of all, we should not ignore the fact that Garritzmann (2016) studied the cases of tuition-subsidy regimes and their transactions (from WWII till 2015) in countries of advanced democracies (Finland, Germany, The USA, Japan, etc.). Georgia is developing country on the democratic path. After the WWII, Georgia was part of the Soviet Union, in 1991 after the collapsing Georgia had the hard times to find its identity, interest conflicts, and economic crisis. Due to these factors, it is difficult to define its clear political ideology. Nevertheless, we can still find the implications of the partisan hypothesis (Garritzmann, 2016).

During the Soviet regime, Georgia was governed by the Soviet socialist republic (1021-1990) and was governed by left-wing fronts. According to their leftist ideology, higher education plaid the crucial role in the rapid development of the industry. Thus, the Soviet government provided free of charge mass higher education. The Soviet government could be clustered in the low tuition-high subsidy regime. Article 121 of the Soviet Constitution (1936, December 5) reads:

Citizens of the U.S.S.R. have the right to education. This right is ensured by the universal, compulsory elementary education; by the fact that education, including higher education, is free of charge; by a system of State scholarships for the overwhelming majority of students in the higher educational establishments; by instruction in the schools being conducted in the native language, and by the organisation of free vocational, technical and agronomic training for the toilers in the factories, State farms, machine and tractor stations, and collective farms. (p.14)

After the collapse of the Soviet Union, despite the many social, economic and political challenges, Georgia chose the democratic ideology it had different parties. In the multiparty system it is very important to distinguish the different ideologies. It helps the voters identify themselves with the certain political group. Georgian parties recognized the importance of the different ideologies and started to identify themselves as the left-wing, right-wing or center. During the nineties', being "left" wasn't prestigious trend and was associated with soviet union, therefore the majority of the governing parties called them "rights" which referred with the USA. Sometimes, different political groups had the similar approaches and but they had never tried to unified, even more, they rarely had the dialogue. The general public had also unstainable ideology, they supported the particular party according to the charismatic leader and his personality. (Nodia & Scholtbach, 2006)

During the nineties, the higher education was corrupted and was accessible for the "elite" class. From the very beginning of independent Georgia, the majority of the political parties identified themselves as the right-wing parties. Discussing the political left-right ideologies in terms of access to higher education during the nineties' seems pointless when the system was corrupted and the access to Higher education depended on the nepotism.

The funding system of higher education institutions was significantly changed after the Rose Revolution (European Commission, 2017). In 2004 direct finding replaced with student-related funding. This transition aimed to fight corruption. The voucher scheme took the form of government grants to students. It became available for the qualified students to receive subsidies such as grants (30%, 50%, 70% and 100%) by the indirect government funding. Another step for supporting the students was the introduction of a student loan system in 2006 by the commercial banks of Georgia.

All of the above-mentioned reforms of higher education finance were implemented during the government of right-wing parties (The Unified National Movement, Georgia). Supporting students by grants and vouchers supports the left-wing policy. But as we mentioned, in the case of Georgia, distinguishing political ideologies is a complicated issue. The members of the Unified National Movement identify themselves as the right-wing but their policies and actions sometimes tend to be "leftists". Nodia & Scholtbach(2006) state that "It positions itself as the party of the nation, the unifying force that serves all social groups and aims to strengthen the state in general."(p.119).The introduction of the student loans could be clustered in the right wing policy because it means that students have to pay back.

In 2012, the Georgian Dream-Democratic Georgia won the election in coalition with six other opposition parties. The party identifies itself as the center-left parties. There is some evidence of implications of their left-wing policies in higher education spending. In 2012, the country declared that education is the number one priority, very soon they increased the higher education spending by 41 %. In 2012 the state started to fund fully tuition fee of all students enrolled at bachelor's level to the priority 21 specialties (Agronomy, Veterinary, Forestry, Food Technology, Animal Husbandry, Education Science, Teacher Education, Engineering Physics, Energy and Electrical Engineering, Agricultural Engineering, Construction, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology/Life Sciences/Applied Biosciences, Economics, History, Philology, Philosophy, Architecture, Archaeology). The government allocated 46,9 000,0000 Gel, then 2,520,000 GL for Social Program for the Students (disadvantaged groups: mountainous regions, refuges, students of whose parents died in the fight for the territorial integrity of Georgia and the missing people in the war, orphans, students with special needs). Advocating the disadvantaged groups and giving the high access to education is the feature of the left-wing policy.

Conclusion

Through the review of the existed literature on driving forces of Higher education tuition and subsidy funding, we can derive the conclusion that the students' funding systems and its distribution depend on the countries' policy and its ideological preference. Both stability and the preference of the tuition-subsidy regimes depends on the electoral votes and public's feedback. The partisan hypothesis (Garritzmann, 2016) partly applies the Georgian case and reveals that the changes in the financing reforms depend on the office of the political parties. Their preference still questions, whether they consider the ideological approaches or voters' feedback, it requires more systematic analysis. Unfortunately, from the literature lacks the role of the education experts' reports of the effectiveness of the existed models in the decision-making process.

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THE ROLE OF RECASTS IN IRANIAN UNDER-GRADUSTE EFL LEARNERS' PARAGRAPH WRITING IMPROVEMENT

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Abstract

In any language classroom the correction of learners' errors is an inseparable part, as learners consider correction as a source of improvement, yet the most proper time for correction and the best type of it is still a controversial issue. The present study aimed at finding out whether declarative and interrogative feedback could help Iranian undergraduate students improve in their academic writing. For this purpose, 57 BA students of English were selected as the participants and were divided into two groups. Both groups received a paragraph writing test before the treatment. While one group received interrogative feedback on their writings, in the other group, the teacher provided the students with declarative recast. At the end of the instruction, both groups took part in a posttest of paragraph writing. The results indicated that interrogative feedback could help involved learners outperform in their writings. The results also revealed that there was not any significant difference in the writing performance of male and female students who received interrogative feedback.

Key words: correction, declarative recast, feedback, interrogative recast, paragraph writing

Introduction

One of the main challenges teachers have is the best way to correct students' errors in order not to hurt their feelings and discourage them accordingly and, on the other hand, help them learn better. According to Brown (2007, p. 379), "corrective feedback includes responses to learners' produced utterances which repair or call attention to their errors". There are many ways supported through research that can actually do the job. Teachers can show the errors that a learner makes differently to show him the current state of his language and to inform him of his progress and weaknesses. For this purpose, they can make use of different types of correction (Brown, 2007; Celce-Murcia, 2001).

In his paper, Brown (2007) talked about overt or explicit and implicit correction; on the other hand, the same categorization was used by Richards and Schmidt (2002) through a different naming, direct and indirect classification. Others referred to use peer-correction (Paulston & Bruder, 1976), self-correction (Swain, 1985), clarification request, repetition, recast, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation (Brown, 2007) as various forms of error correction.

Previously, errors disregarding whether they were linguistic or nonlinguistic, spoken or written, and syntactic or semantic, were not considered as the signs of learning and development. While reading students' written assignments, teachers highlighted all mistakes in red ink. Recently, however, in English classrooms, there has been a shift in attitude to errors. Errors are regarded as indicators that the learner is learning and that the learning process is a developmental one.

There are many empirical studies in which the positive role of corrective feedback has been confirmed. Lyster and Saito (2010), for example, performed a meta-analysis of quasi-experimental studies carried out in classroom settings. They aimed to measure the importance of corrective feedback in language pedagogy, focusing on various independent and dependent factors such as timing and correction types. They assessed the effects of corrective feedback in relation to instructional settings, length of treatment, and age. The Results revealed that, no matter what the instructional settings and focus of the errors were, it is facilitative of second language learning.

Recasts are considered a type of corrective feedback and defined as "utterances that rephrase someone's utterance by changing one or more sentence components while still referring to its central meaning" (Long, 1996, p. 434). It has elsewhere been defined as "the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 46). Confirming the positive role that teacher's corrective feedback can provide on the improvement of EFL students' language learning process, the present study aimed at finding out whether there is any significant difference in the writing performance of Iranian EFL students when they are given declarative or interrogative recast. This study was also an attempt to explore whether male and female students show different writing improvements if they are given these two types of feedback or not.

Literature Review

Language teachers have different ideas about the causes of errors and the way one should deal with them in teaching a language. Schachter (1991) states corrective feedback is a term often found in the pedagogical field of second language learning or teaching. Long (1996) believes that input can be offered to learners in the form of positive and negative evidence. Long defines positive evidence as providing the learners with models of what is grammatical and acceptable in the target language, and negative evidence as providing the learners with direct or indirect information about what is unacceptable. Lightbown and Spada (1999) define teachers' corrections as "any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect" (p. 171).

One of the most popular approaches to error correction for the teachers is to adopt what Sheen (2007) called "focused corrective feedback". In this approach, one ungrammatical form is corrected at a time while waiting for other types of linguistic problems to be corrected in future lessons. In the literature, there are some studies which shed light on the effectiveness of focused correction (Lyster, 2004; Bichener, Young, & Cameron, 2005).

Ferris (1999) investigated text revisions and writing. He reported that direct corrective feedback leads to more correct revisions (88%) than indirect on (71%). However, students who received indirect corrective feedback reduced their error frequency rates substantially more than those who received direct feedback. Ashwell (2000) compared methods of providing feedback, grammar and content feedback, content and form feedback, and no feedback. The results of the study showed that all the groups receiving feedback significantly made more improvement in their writing accuracy than the group with no feedback.

Ferris and Roberts (2001) examined the effects of three different feedback treatments including error marked with codes, errors underlined but not labeled, and no error feedback, and he concluded that the first two groups significantly outperformed the group who did not receive any. In the coded feedback strategy, the exact place of the error is determined, and the error type is marked with a code; uncoded feedback refers to cases in which the teacher underlines an error, or places an error in the margin of the paper, but learners should identify the correct forms of erroneous structures.

Through an empirical study, Ferris (2002) found the beneficial effect of error correction feedback on improving learners' accuracy in the short term. She showed that the positive attitudes her students gained about the effect of feedback actually encouraged them to be independent self-editors. Russell and Spada (2006) performed a meta-analysis of 15 corrective feedback studies. They found that it facilitates second language development; they identified a very large effect size of 1.16. Russell and Spada (2006) concluded, however, that "the wide range of variables examined in corrective feedback research is spread rather weak. They claimed that more work is needed to consolidate efforts and focus on those variables which appear to be particularly fruitful for future investigation" (p. 156). Mackey and Goo (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of 28 interaction studies. They discovered that providing teacher's correction in L2 interaction has a medium effect size of 0.71 in immediate posttests and a large effect size of 1.09 in delayed posttests. These results supported the consensus that focus on form through corrective feedback is beneficial.

Recasts are considered as a form in which real-life correction happens. Sheen (2006) defines recasts as "the reformulation of the whole or part of a learner's erroneous utterance without changing its meaning" (p. 278). He adds that it is as "the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance that contains at least one error within the context of a communicative activity in the classroom" (ibid, p. 365).Typically, it is the way people react to learners' errors, and it is generally how parents correct their children. Recasts are an indirect and gentle way of giving feedback, in which the teacher reformulates all or part of an utterance into a correct or more appropriate version of what a learner is trying to say. Sheen (2007) believes that students are most likely to repair their errors following declarative recasts. She also points out that interrogative recasts do not lead to a high level of repair declaring that "uptake and subsequent repair are more likely when the linguistic focus of recasts is on pronunciation and when the type of change involved substitution because these characteristics are linked with length, word or short phrase, and a single change" (p. 386). Lyster (1998) classifies recasts into two major types: declarative and interrogative recasts. Declarative recast is provided with falling intonation as a declarative statement. Interrogative recast is provided with rising intonation as a question. He states that "interrogative recasts often serve as conformation checks" (p. 201).

Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001) highlight that recasts are "utterances that repeat a learner's incorrect utterance, making only the changes necessary to produce a correct utterance, without changing the meaning" (pp. 732-3). Besides, Ohta (2001) suggests that "recasts are immediately subsequent to the erroneous utterance and that they may contrast with learner's utterances phonologically, morphologically, syntactically, or semantically, but are based on the learner's erroneous utterance and maintain semantic contiguity with it" (p. 141). In other words, "a response was coded as a recast if it incorporated the content words of the immediately preceding incorrect utterances and also changed and corrected the utterance in some way (e.g., phonological, syntactic, morphological, or lexical)" (Braidi, 2002, p. 20). Recasts are also viewed as "utterances in which the caretaker produces an expanded grammatically correct version of a prior child utterance" (Mitchell & Myles, 2004, p. 162).

Loewen and Philp's (2006) study revealed that interrogative recasts have the effect of developing learners' accuracy. Additionally, they concluded that "an interrogative recast is ambiguous as corrective feedback because the learner may interpret it either as corrective or as a request to confirm the intended meaning" (p. 540). However, a small body of research generally suggests that declarative recasts are more salient (Kim & Han, 2007). On the contrary, in Mackey and Goo's (2007) work on the students watching their own classroom errors being corrected by the teacher indicated that only 36% of teacher's feedback was perceived in the way that teachers had intended. Considering recasts, interrogative recasts were more accurately perceived than declarative recasts.

Erlam and Loewen (2010) distinguished between implicit and explicit recasts depending on the number of moves and the intonation of teacher's corrections. Recasts may verify the degree of its implicitness or explicitness, for example in Erlam and Loewen (2010), the "implicit recasts (interrogative) - including correction of the error made, with rising intonation -- is in contrast with explicit recast, declarative, which consists of two uninterrupted feedback moves. In the first, students' errors were repeated with rising intonation" (p.886). In the second, a correction was provided in declarative form.

Long (2006) states that a corrective recast may be defined as a reformulation of all or part of a learner's immediately preceding utterance in which one or more non-target-like items such as lexical, grammatical, etc. are replaced by the corresponding target language form(s), and where, throughout the exchange, the focus of the interlocutors is on meaning not language as an object. Thus, the teacher reformulates all or part of the student's utterance but does not explicitly say that the student's utterance is wrong.

Another research on recasting is Carpenter, Jeon, MacGregor, and Mackey's (2006) investigation of learners' interpretations of recasts in interaction. Video tapes of task-based interactions including recasts and repetitions were shown to advanced English as second language students. Although both groups viewed the teacher's feedback through recasts, repetition, or other methods, one group saw video clips that had been edited to remove the learners' non-target-like utterances that had triggered the feedback, and another group saw the same video clips with the initial non-target-like utterances included. The Findings showed that learners who did not overhear initial learner utterances were significantly less successful at distinguishing recasts from repetitions. This suggested that learners were not looking for nonverbal cues from the speakers. It was further indicated that recasts on structure and vocabulary were less accurately recognized than phonological or lexical recasts.

McDonough (2007) examined the effectiveness of recasts and clarification requests, either of them included opportunities for immediate repair, and detected no crucial distinction between recasts and clarification requests, even though both correction types were more effective than no corrections. Mariko (2007) studied grammatical development in second language acquisition (SLA) via identifying Japanese learners' errors of spoken and written English in terms of noun-, verb-, and other part-of-speech-related errors. Substantial bodies of spoken and written data were used to investigate differences between spontaneous spoken production and less time-pressured written production to show the acquisition sequence of certain grammatical features in the different modes. The results revealed that verbal errors were firmly associated with lower-level learners, and nominal errors with advanced-level learners. Moreover, some types of errors did not steadily disappear during the acquisition process.

Perdomo (2008) examined the effectiveness of oral recasts on the right use of auxiliary verbs and the use of past participles in the present perfect tense. Thirty-eight college students and a female teacher took part in the study in a western state in Venezuela. They were randomly divided into two groups, recast versus explicit negative feedback. Positive feedback was provided for both groups. Pictures were used to elicit conversation, and an oral test was administered to collect the data. Findings lead support to the efficacy of recasts over explicit negative feedback.

Abeywickrama (2010) focused on errors in English essay writing of Sinhala speaking undergraduates to identify whether the first language (L1) transfer is the major cause for errors in English writing of Sinhala undergraduates if this were to be true, then it could be concluded that the reason behind all those errors was negative L1 transfer/ mother tongue interference. He identified and described Sinhala essay writing and tried to minimize the problems encountered in their English writing. Samples of written assignments were collected from 60 students in the first and the second academic years. The results revealed that correction improves students' writings.

Kovac (2011) examined the frequency and distribution of speech and writing errors, as well as the influence of the task type on their rate. 101 engineering students took part in this study in Croatia. A recorded and written speech sample in the English language (L2) lasting for approximately ten hours was analyzed, whereby more than three and a half thousand errors were recorded. Morphological errors were dominant both in writing and speech due to a significantly frequent omission of articles.

More recently, Mohaghegh, Zarandi, and Shariati (2011) studied the frequency of the grammatical errors related to the four categories of preposition, relative pronoun, article, and tense using the translation task. The quantitative component of the study further looked at the differences between literature and translation students in the frequencies in different categories. A total of 60 junior EFL students (30 Literature and 30 Translation), all studied at Shahid Bahonar University of Kerman, Iran took part in this study. Four translation tests, three in Persian and one in English, were given to the participants to investigate the difficulties of the Persian native speakers learning English. They found that errors will reduce with teachers' highlighting the errors.

Abadikhah and Ashoori (2012) conducted a study to explore whether written corrective feedback have any effect on the performance of EFL learners after pair-work activity. The findings of this study showed that the students who received written feedback on their productions outperformed those who did not receive feedback. As Golshan and Ramachandra (2012) confirmed, a generous allocation of the language teaching handbooks to error correction indicates that this aspect of teaching practice deserves due attention in a classroom setting.

Following the studies confirming the positive influences of teachers' correction on students' language performances, the present study was built upon the following research questions:

Does declarative feedback help the Iranian under-graduate students outperform in their writing ability compared to interrogative recast?

Is there any significant difference in the writing performance of male and female students who received the better type of feedback?

Accordingly, two null hypothesis were formed.

Method

Participants

The participants of this study were 57 male and female EFL students studying at the Zand Institute of Higher Education, Shiraz, Iran. The students were at the age range of 21-27.All participants had passed basic writing and structure courses which were prerequisite of advanced writing at the university before.; therefore, they were assumed to enjoy the same language knowledge.

Instruments

Two instruments were used for the data collection procedure: one pre- and one post-test of paragraph writing. The students' performances were scored on Weir's communicative scale. Thus, the students' writings were rated objectively. The content of the test was consulted with two colleagues to see if topics were appropriate for the level of the students or not. As they confirmed the topics, which were *Divorce* and *Having One or Two Children*, they were given to the students to write their paragraphs on before and after the instruction.

Procedures

The aim of the present research was to compare the effect of two methods of recast, that is, interrogative and declarative one, on the writing ability of Iranian EFL students at the BA level. For this purpose, first the participants were selected non-randomly according to convenience sampling as they were the only available participants to the researcher and were divided into two groups. After that, a pre-test of paragraph writing was administered at the beginning of the instruction to see if the participants were homogeneous. As the results revealed that the participants were at the same level of writing ability before the instruction, their scores were kept to be compared to the post-test scores at the end of the term.

The pretest involved a test of paragraph writing under the title of *Divorce* to be written in not more than 300 words in 30 minutes. The students' performances were rated by the researcher on Weir's Communicative Writing Scale. Then, for the instruction which took about three months, the students in the first group wrote paragraphs and their papers were rated while their mistakes where highlighted and comments were given in the form of questions.

For the other group, however, after the students' papers were rated, the mistakes were highlighted using descriptions of and explanations of correct forms. At the end of the instructional period, the participants in both groups took part in the posttest of paragraph writing entitled *Having One or Two Children.* Then, the students' pre and post test scores were analyzed to answer the research questions.

Results

To answer the research questions, first the two groups' writing pretest scores were compared through an independent t-test. Table 1 shows the related descriptive statistics.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for the Two Groups' Writing Pretest Scores

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pretest	Intrerog.	25	13.3600	2.34307	.46861
	Declar.	32	13.9062	2.14565	.37930

As Table 1 shows, the mean scores for the first and second group were 13.3600 and 13.9062 respectively. In order to see if the observed difference was significant or not, an independent sample t-test was run. Table 2 shows the results.

Table 2. Independent Sample T-test to Compare the Two Group Participants Pre-test Scores

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Sig.
pretest	Equal variances assumed	.218	.642	-.916	55	.364	-.54625	.894
	Equal variances not assumed			-.906	49.349	.369	-.54625	

As Table 2 reveals, the value of t is lower than that of the significance level, which implies that the difference between the groups' pretest scores was not significant. In other words, they were all at the same level regarding their writing ability.

Then, after the post test, the participants' gain scores in both groups were obtained as it was the difference between the posttest and pretest scores in order to see how much improved each group had after the instruction. Table 3 reveals the related descriptive statistics.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Both Groups' Gain Scores

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
prepostgrps	interrog	25	3.1200	.60000	.12000
	declerat	32	.3125	.85901	.15185

As the table shows, while the mean score for the participants' gain scores in the interrogative group was 3.1200, for the declarative group, it was .3125. To see if the observed difference was statistically significant, an independent sample t-test was used, the results of which are presented in Table 4 below.

Table 4. Independent Sample T-Test for the Students' Gain Scores

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Sig.
prepostgrp	Equal variances assumed	14.721	.000	13.895	55	.000	2.80750	.000
	Equal variances not assumed			14.506	54.403	.000	2.80750	

As Table 4 suggests, the difference between the gain scores of the interrogative and declarative groups is statistically difference at the .000 significance level. This means that the interrogative group outperformed the declarative group in their paragraph writing. Therefore, the first research null hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference between interrogative and declarative groups' writing ability is rejected here.

In order to answer the second research question, the male and female students' scores in the interrogative group were compared. Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics related to their gain scores.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics for the Male and Female Students' Gain Scores in the Interrogative Group

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Gained scores	male	8	3.3750	1.06066	.37500
	female	17	3.0000	.00000	.00000

As it can be seen, male scores' mean score was 3.3750 and that of the female students was 3.0000. In order to see if the difference is statistically significant, an independent t-test was conducted. Table 6 below reveals the results.

Table 6. Independent T-test to Compare Male and Females' Gain Scores in the Interrogative Group

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Sig.
Equal assumed	12.164	.002	1.495	23	.149	.25088	.000
Not assumed			1.000	7.000	.351	.37500	

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Table 6 reveals that the difference between the mean scores of the male and female students was not statistically significant. It can be concluded that the second research hypothesis stating that there is not any difference between male and female students' gain scores in the interrogative group is retained here.

Discussion

The studies supporting recasts, in general, suggested that this approach is better than overt correction because it requires students to engage in guided learning and problem solving. In addition, recasts promote the type of reflection that leads to long-term acquisition and are learner-centered, i.e. they are contingent on what the learner is trying to communicate, and are unobtrusive, i.e. they highlight the error without breaking the flow of communication (Leeman, 2003; Long, 2006; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Trofimovich, Ammar, & Gatbonton, 2007).

A number of studies investigated the impact of corrective feedback on the students' writing accuracy improvement. Some stated that there was no main effect for corrective feedback, and there was not any significant difference between the performance of the learners who received corrective feedback and those who did not have any form of feedback (Kepner, 1991; Rahimi, 2009).

Similarly, the results support Chastain's (1988) findings stating that recast is necessary, and without it, the process of language learning is not complete. Gass (1991) argued that corrective feedback is an attention-raising strategy that helps language learners diagnose the differences between their language and the target language and causes them to learn the target language more easily.

The findings are also in contrast with Sheppard (1992) and Fazio (2001) who did not report a positive role for corrective feedback on the learners' writing accuracy improvement to the factor of practice effect. The findings of the study are consistent with Ashwell (2000) and Ferris and Roberts' (2001) claim that corrective feedback has some beneficial effects on learners' improvement in writing.

Guénette (2007) attributed these conflicting results to the differences and flaws in research designs and methodology. Besides, the majority of the studies done measured learners' accuracy only on rewrites, and it remains unclear whether the students who receive error feedback also perform more accurately in subsequent assignments overtime than those who are not provided with any feedback by their teachers.

Language teaching methodologists in favor of overt correction suggested that it is more helpful for learners because it reduces the confusion that they may experience when they fail to understand or remember the meaning of error codes used by teachers and provides them with sufficient information about their errors (Chandler, 2003; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Dabaghi & Basturkmen, 2009).

In contrast to Sheen's (2006) view regarding the beneficial effect of declarative recasts which lead to a high level of repair compared with interrogative one, the findings of the current study support Mackey and Goo's (2007) study in which interrogative recasts were more accurately perceived than declarative recasts. The students' preference for interrogative recasts in the present study reveal that an interrogative recast is not ambiguous as corrective feedback and students are fully aware of the types of error corrections employed by their instructor, which is in contrast to Loewen and Philp's (2006) findings pertaining to the ambiguity of interrogative recasts. In short, little research suggests that declarative recasts are more salient (Kim & Han, 2007).

Conclusion

The purpose of the present research was to see if interrogative feedback or declarative one could better help Iranian EFL male and female students improve in their paragraph writing or not. Additionally, this study was an attempt to find the possible difference in the performance of male and female students in the better group. The results of the study confirmed what was proposed by Mackey and Goo (2007) who stated that interrogative feedback is more influential in language learning than other types of feedback. It was found that there was not a significant difference in the writing performance of Iranian male and female students considering the use of interrogative feedback, which was indicated to be better than declarative one. The study findings are in agreement with the view of second language acquisition as cognitive skill acquisition, according to which corrective types of feedback, in general, and recasts, in particular, are an essential element in the complex process of language learning.

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USING SIMULATION OF ART AUCTION AS A WAY OF ALTERNATIVE TEACHING ENGLISH TO STUDENTS MAJORING IN ARTS

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Abstract

Arts students are often introvert or simply not too talkative, as verbal communication is definitely not their dominant intelligence type. They are normally good at drawing, painting, making sculptures and installations, shooting videos, etc., but few of them are good speakers. They are not very motivated to speak about art, as they believe that a piece of art should speak for itself. However, the desire to sell their piece of art may make them more talkative. Simulation of arts auction (or a real small-scale auction organized for charity purposes) may be a good way to motivate arts students to speak English. A small-scale research was held at Batumi Arts Teaching University. The results revealed that students found this activity motivating, creative, authentic and professionally beneficial.

Key words: multiple intelligences, visual-spatial intelligence, simulation, teaching EFL to arts students

Introduction

According to Gardner's Multiple Intelligence Theory (MIT) (1983), arts students have a highly developed visual-spatial intelligence. They have a good feeling for color, shape, size, perspective, etc. Their visual imagination and creativity is well developed. Correspondingly, their verbal-linguistic intelligence may not be developed on such a high level. Thus, to involve them actively in English classes, we need use their dominant intelligence and authentic for them situations.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is based on Contextualized Teaching and Learning (CTL) - a "conception of teaching and learning that helps teachers relate subject matter content to real world situations" (Berns & Erickson, 2001, p. 2). This, in turn, is connected with the idea of authenticity. Authenticity in the language classroom deals with using authentic (not created for language teaching purposes, but for some practical goals, such as informing, advertising, etc.) texts and simulating authentic activities (which are part of students' future professional work). Besides, teachers have to "address the needs and interests of students, engaging them in authentic, real-life tasks, allowing them ownership of the curriculum" (Felix, 2005, p. 88).

Arts students are normally not too motivated to speak about art, as they believe that a piece of art should speak for itself. However, the desire to sell their piece of art may make them more talkative. Simulation of arts auction (or a real small-scale auction organized by the university for charity purposes) may be a good way to motivate arts students to speak English.

According to Gaines (2015), simulation activities increase students' involvement and self-confidence.

Students of art usually have some tasks to create pieces of drawing, painting, sculpture, etc. The English teacher can ask them to bring their works to an English class and to simulate an auction. For the "auction" each student has to prepare a short (e.g., 100 or 300 words) description of their work, discussing its title, topic, and outstanding features. In this way, writing descriptive essays will be practiced. Then another student will read the description to the "audience" (reading / listening skills will be practiced). Then the "audience" will not only offer their price, but also explain where they want to use the piece and why they think it adequate for the purpose (practicing speaking skills). Some attendants of the auction might play the role or artistic critics and write a report on the auction. Thus, all four major language skills will be practiced by all students in the group in an authentic situation.

Method

An action research followed by an interview was held. The simulation of an arts auction was held by the researcher during her English class. In her previous class the teacher showed students a video of real art auction. Then they worked on some useful vocabulary that they came across in the video. They also discussed how interesting and/or useful in their opinion arts auctions were.

Besides the group of 12 students, some students from other groups and arts teachers were also invited to attend, to make the simulation more natural. But the guest number was limited 98 people), not to make the class too messy, and to have enough space.

Afterwards, and interview was held with the participant students. Interviewees were volunteers, however, the majority of the students who took part in the action research readily agreed to participate in the interview as well. The students answered questions dealing with interest, motivation, involvement, and difficulties (if any). Below find some more interesting answers.

Question 1: Did you find the class interesting?

Student one: I enjoyed the class. It was active, unusual, and seemed to me useful for my professional skills.

Student three: It was real fun. I enjoyed playing the role of successful professional artist.

Student six: It was unusual. I don't know if I'd like to have such classes very often, but once or twice a semester why not.

Student nine: I liked it. I even asked my friend to make a video of my presentation and showed it at home.

Student eleven: I was skeptical it would work, but finally it did. It was interesting to combine language learning with my future profession.

Question 2: What were your motives to participate in the activity?

Student two: To see if I would be able to advertise my work in real life. I've never done it before.

Student five: I wanted to see what my peers and teachers would say about my work.

Student nine: Seeing that everybody participates, I didn't want to be behind.

Student ten: To use language practically is nicer than to fulfill exercises.

Student twelve: I wanted to show what I can – professionally and from English speaking viewpoint.

Question 3: Were you actively involved? Why (not)?

Student four: Yes, it was fun, like a theatre, and I think I'm a good actor, so I was actively involved.

Student five: In the beginning I felt shy. What if they criticized my work or I made some mistakes in English. But then I saw that the situation was very friendly, and I got actively involved.

Student eight: Normally I'm silent at English lessons. I may sit and draw something during the English class. But this time I did participate.

Student ten: Maybe not as actively, as others, as I have some problems with English. But the teacher permitted to ask for help and use electronic dictionary in the phone, so I also contributed to the "auction".

Student twelve: Yes, I was very active, even got tired in the end.

Question 4: Did you have any problems (difficulties) during the auction?

Student two: Not really. It was easier than to retell texts or do grammar exercises.

Student seven: Yes, with the language. But the teacher helped us, and I could use the dictionary on my mobile phone, so the problem was not so big.

Student eight: I felt quite shy in the beginning. But then it was OK. I'm glad I overcame my shyness.

Student eleven: I felt quite at ease. I was not assessed, so, there was nothing to worry about.

Student twelve: I was eager to demonstrate what I can, so I did my best. No real difficulties.

Question 5: Would you like to have this activity again?

Student one: Yes, and, probably, in front of the whole faculty.

Student three: Yes, who knows, maybe one day my paintings will really be at an auction.

Student five: Maybe not exactly the same, but something as creative and relaxing.

Student seven: Yes, learning English in a practical way is better.

Student nine: Well, I wish all classes were like this. I understand that we need to learn some vocabulary and grammar, but using language for your professional reasons and at the same time having fun is great.

Analysis of results and discussion

Students' answers have shown that students were actively involved in the simulation, they did have some minor problems, which they easily overcame. They found the class useful for their future professional life and enjoyable. This coincides with findings of other researchers (Gaines, 2015; Huang, Tindall, & Nisbet, 2011; Ortiz, & Cuéllar, 2018), so, although the research was limited to one lesson held with a group of 12 students at one particular university, it permits the researcher to recommend the activity for a wider application.

Conclusion

Application of simulation of arts auctions is a creative, communicative, motivating and involving activity. It is in congruence with Gardner's MIT as well as with Contextualized Teaching and Learning, so both its theoretical basis and practical application proves it to be an efficient tool for teaching English to arts students.

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PROJECT-BASED LEARNING IN THE CLASSROOM

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Abstract

Today there are lots of approaches / methods that support teaching and learning. One of them is Project-Based Learning (PBL). It makes the process of learning much easier and more productive. Exploring real-world challenges and problems, students acquire a deeper knowledge and different skills that help them to solve authentic problems and produce results. For this purpose students do everything themselves: they gather information, synthesize, analyze, and derive knowledge from it. Their learning is very valuable because it is connected to something real and involves adult skills such as collaboration and reflection. At the end, students demonstrate their newly acquired knowledge and are judged by how much they have learned and how well they communicate it. Though a project is a student-centered activity, teacher's role is also important in it. He/she presents a problem to the students, gives advice what to do and how to do it, guides their work and involves all the students.

Key words: collaboration, reflection, problem, knowledge, skills.

Introduction

"Education is not preparation for life; education is life itself" (Dewey, 1897)

The issue of learning and teaching languages is crucial today. Teachers try to find new methods, strategies and new approaches to make the learning process more effective. Students aim at getting a good education, make the process of learning a bit easier and more productive. Project-Based Learning (PBL) is one of the most productive and effective ways to teach and learn English.

PBL has a long history. It is connected with the name of John Dewey. In his article My Pedagogical Creed (Dewey, 1897) he outlined the concept of 'learning by doing'. History has shown that most of the great discoveries and innovations were a result of 'learning by doing'. PBL is also based on 'learning by doing'. That is one of the reasons why teachers prefer to use PBL in the classroom.

What is Project-Based Learning?

There are quite a lot of definitions of PBL. They are similar, however, there is a slight difference between them. PBL is still an innovative, systematic teaching method that promotes student engagement through deep investigations of complex questions. Simply put, it is learning by doing. PBL is a student-centered pedagogy that involves a dynamic classroom approach in which it is believed that students acquire a deeper knowledge through active exploration of real-world challenges and problems. Thomas Markham (2011) describes PBLin this way: "PBL integrates knowing and doing. Students learn knowledge and elements of the core curriculum, but also apply what they know to solve authentic problems and produce results that matter (p.38). PBL is a teaching method in which 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. Project-based learning is a form of situated learning and it is based on the constructivist finding that students gain a deeper understanding of material when they actively construct their understanding by working with and using ideas. Thus, PBL is an approach to, a method of classroom teaching and learning that is designed to engage students in investigation of authentic problems.

Why Project-Based Learning?

Practice shows that Project-Based Learning in the classroom works well. Students are presented a question/challenge/problem and work together in groups to solve it. Students are also given the tools to find the solution to the problem. As Gwen Solomon (2003) says: "For this students gather information, synthesize, analyze and derive knowledge from it. Their learning is very valuable because it's connected to something real and involves adult skills such as collaboration, creativeness, and reflection. At the end, students demonstrate their newly acquired knowledge and are judged by how much they've learned and how well they communicate it".

What is the teacher's role in this process?

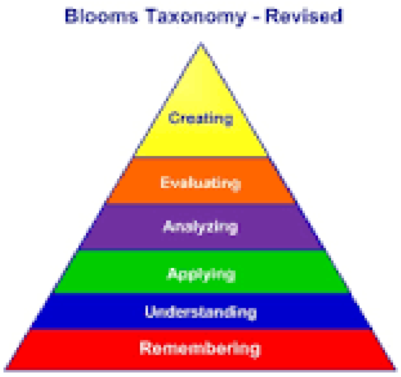
Teacher presents students a problem, gives advice what to do and how to do it. He/she guides their work and involves all the students. On the other hand, students are also interested in participating in the project because they are doing something real. They learn the problem and the way how to solve it. And the main thing is that they get a deep knowledge and gain authentic experiences doing some investigation/research and solving a real challenge/problem.

Why are educators interested in using this teaching method? The answers are various. A lot of students nowadays consider their lessons to be very boring. Educators try to enhance their students' motivation in order to make their lessons more effective and enjoyable for them. They consider PBL to be one of the most effective and successful methods. It involves all students. They become more active and motivated, their interest increases as they are doing everything themselves.

PBL is acceptable both for teachers and for the students. Teachers are pleased because all students gain knowledge and are involved in the lesson. Students are also pleased because they get knowledge and are able to use their knowledge in a real situation. In addition, they develop skills that will be very important for their career in future. Students learn to work in groups, to listen to each other, to solve the problem, and to communicate. They also improve and develop critical thinking, collaboration and presentation skills. Besides, they learn how to use technology for getting information.

In order to investigate the reasons of the problem, on the one hand, and to solve the problem that is taken from the real life, on the other hand, to make the educational process more effective, students learn to solve the problem themselves. Working on the problem teaches students to become active citizens. So, the impact of this method on the learning process is great. When students understand that their work is ultimately valuable as a real problem that needs solving, or a project that will impact others, they're motivated to work hard.

PBL gives an opportunity to teachers to teach English effectively. It includes/covers environmental, social, and every day challenges and problems. "The classroom is a place where people can live a fulfilling life together as a community of learners, if needs and concerns are appropriately expressed. Problems can be discussed. Support, encouragement, and models can be provided by both teacher and peers. Where expectations for children's learning are high, it is important that the social interaction itself is designed to facilitate learning" (Chard, n.d.).



Nowadays a lot of English teachers use PBL in their classroom. We also did it, but in a different way. We tried to adapt the PBL steps to Bloom's Taxonomy - Revised (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001) to encourage students to think more critically about the topic and find the solutions to the given problem. Here are the steps we used in our project.

Step 1: The teacher and the students work together and choose the topic either given in the textbook or interesting for the students. In our case the topic of the project was - Food problems and its sustainable development. Food today is really a great problem. The whole world suffers from the results of eating unhealthy food. We combined step 1of PBL with category 1 - Remembering of the Bloom's Taxonomy - Revised. We asked students to recall the terms /words / phrases / facts related to food, its problems and sustainability with the help of questions like this:

What terms do you remember related to food?

What kind of food is organic / junk?

Can you give a list of organic / junk food?

What are the results of eating junk food?

What can we do for food sustainable development? etc.

Step 2: The 2nd step was to design the project plan - what to do and how to do. The aim was to study the food problems and to find the ways to solve them. One of the advantages of using PBL in teaching languages is involving students in planning. Thus, an accurate plan, materials and resources make the learning process more effective and productive.

Besides, students feel proud when they are actively involved in designing the plan and making decisions. It increases their motivation.

We divided the class into three groups of four and gave separate tasks to each group. Group 1 had a task to do a research in Food Security, Group 2 – in Food Accessibility, and Group 3- in Food Sufficiency with the problems in the spheres.

Step 3: We asked the students to get the information about the given topic from the internet in order to deepen their knowledge in this sphere. Coming to the lesson, students demonstrated their ideas about the issue and highlighted food problems comparing organic food with the junk food, named facts and stated main ideas, translated the interesting passages from Georgian sources into English. Students used the verbs, such as 'demonstrate', 'explain', 'show', 'compare', 'classify', 'illustrate', 'relate', etc., given in Understanding - the second category of Bloom's Taxonomy-Revised.

Step 4: Now time came to find the solutions to the problems. The groups worked together and created an accurate project schedule -what, when and how to do. We assisted them to:

make a questionnaire;

choose target groups of survey (population, shop –assistants, owners and managers of restaurants, cafes, bars university and school canteens ……);

define the duration of the project;

set a deadline of the project.

Step 5: In this step we combined categories III - Applying and IV - Analyzing. Students examined and broke information into parts by identifying the causes of the given problems. Each group presented their solution to the problems by applying the acquired knowledge, results of interviewing, techniques and rules in a different way. The groups presented the results of the questionnaire by graphic organizers. The students used the verbs given in above mentioned categories, such as 'apply', 'identify', 'organize', 'plan', 'solve', 'analyze categories', 'classify', 'conclude', 'discover', etc.

Step 6: Evaluating – Group assessment

Each group presented and defended their opinions by making judgment about the information, validity of ideas, or quality of work, based on a rubric offered by the teacher.

Rubric Date:

	Poor	Good	Excellent
Actuality of the research			
Students' involvement and activity in the survey			
Collaborative work skill			

Presentation skills of the topic (fluency, accuracy)			
Judgment skills / participating in the discussion			
Summarizing the group research			
Graphic design of research results			

Step 7: The last step is creating. Students compiled the information and proposed the solutions in a different way. Each group created an advertisement with problems and solutions. They presented them in front of their classmates. At the end, they wrote a report about the topic of the project and published it in university e-newspaper.

Conclusion

So, PBL is one of the successful methods in teaching languages. It is a student-centered activity, however, we cannot ignore teacher's role in it during the whole process. PBL simultaneously develops several skills. Its combination with Bloom's Taxonomy – Revised stimulates the students to use the verbs which are necessary for judgment.

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EMPLOYABILITY SKILLS DEVELOPMENT: ARE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS (HEIs) RESPONSIBLE?

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Abstract

Today's challenging world means that it is no longer sufficient for a new graduate to have knowledge of an academic subject; more and more it is crucial for the 21st century learners to gain the skills which could be developed within one situation (in our case in higher education institutions) and then transformed in other situations, like employment or future life. Fadel, Trilling, & Bialik (2015) indicate that the system of education does not adequately prepare learners to succeed in today's or tomorrow's world. One of the reasons is that the world continues to transform dramatically, while education is not adapting quickly to meet all the demands these transformations are bringing. Hence, nowadays, we are expecting HEIs to include employability skills more fully into the curriculum and provide various teaching and learning opportunities for the learners to acquire the skills. Since employability skills (transferable skills, generic skills, core skills, life skills, the 21st century skills or key skills, as they are labelled in various ways by different authors) are essential for effective performance not only in the workplace, but also in life, HEIs should promote the development of these general skills that are relevant to a broad range of disciplines. Consequently, this paper sheds light on the perception of educators in European context regarding the role of HEIs in promoting the development of the essential skills, as well as it describes how this process could be encouraged in HEIs.

Key words: employability skills, development, higher education institutions, teaching, learning process

Introduction

The primary goal of the education is to provide the quality that ensures contemporary students not only with subject knowledge, but also with the key skills needed for the 21st century world. I do believe that the Philosophy of Education lies within the process of developing transferable/employability skills in learners. Nowadays, education could be discussed as the process of acquiring knowledge, skills, attitudes and competencies. Various scholars discuss the aim of education from different perspectives. For some, education is understood as the tool of social transformation, which helps us to create the future society. Therefore, the objective of education is to form the future citizens that means that the learners have to acquire the competencies and skills necessary in practical life. In order to achieve this aim, the learners' role is active and the teachers act as facilitators and guides. The learning and teaching processes should be interactive and modern methods should be used. Education should aim at integrating social context in the learning content. Moreover, one of the main objectives of education is the development of personality. Hence, the centre of education is each learner, his/her abilities, possibilities ,interests and needs, which means that the process of education needs to be organized in a way to meet learners interests and needs with implementation of the individual approach. So that, each student is valued and is given the opportunities during the learning process to develop skills and competencies. This paper explores the role and the importance of developing employability skills in graduates within higher education setting, as well as, it clarifies the concept of employability skills by various authors.

Literature review

As one of the main goals of the education is to support learners to acquire key skills during their studies, it is crucial for Higher Education Institutions (hence HEIs) to promote the skills development, in order to prepare their graduates for the 21st century challenges. Various scholars and educators have discussed different skills which are needed for the 21st century learner. Therefore, the paper presents common skills shared by different authors. Since, there are ongoing concerns about the gap between the policy and its actual application, this issue is still challenging for HEIs all over the world. Talking about making the skills development explicit into curriculum design is not a new concern. It began to be the topic of interest in the late 20th century. The Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS, 1991), published the report concerning the framework that was designed for the purpose of introducing clear demands for the graduates, in terms of the skills which were expected from them in the workplace in the United States context. These skills were like, critical thinking skills, research skills, problem solving, lifelong learning skills, decision making skills and many others. Later, as it is cited in Kwok, (2004), the Conference Board of Canada (CBOC, 2018) also compiled the schema for the skills which were the focus and were necessary for every graduate. This framework was almost similar to the previously compiled one by SCANS, with the only difference that these skills were grouped under different categories: fundamental skills, team working skills and personal management skills. Accordingly, the interest towards this issue started a long time ago and it has been growing since that time. Despite the fact that, the understanding of the sets of skills and the names of the skills, differ from country to country, the essence of it still is common for all and the priorities for them might depend on the country's labour market requirements. Jennifer Gibb (2004, p. 34) states that, "the scope and definition of generic skills have differed considerably between countries and over time." Cauley (2011) also shares the view that, there is no a universal clarification of the term and it tends to be defined in different ways by various authors. The reason for it could the context it is used in, so the definition of the term could depend on the context matter. Additionally, it is noteworthy to mention that not only definition, but also the term itself might be different. For instance, according to Fallows and Steven (2000), the skills might also be labelled as 'key skills', 'common skills', and 'core skills' or 'transferable skills' in different literature. This paper follows the most common and preferred term associated with the skills- 'employability skills'. The term might lead us to the confusion and the first idea that can come to our mind is connected to the employability. But, in fact, employability skills carry a broader understanding and they are not only those skills which are important for job purposes. So, beside the fact that in different literature, we meet various terms, like generic skills, soft skills, competencies, key skills, life skills, 21st century skills or transferable skills, Andrews and Higson (2008), note that employability skills is the name which is often mentioned by the industry and then it is also commonly shared by scholars and educators. The definition which this paper follows is that these are the skills which carry generic nature and the possession of the skills is necessary for every individual, as it allows to apply the skills in various contexts, starting from the workplace to a daily life. Robinson (2000) believes that employability skills are fundamental skills that are only needed for the career purposes and in the workplace. In contrary, The Conference Board of Canada (CBOC, 2018) in their report stating their profile of the skills, argue that these skills are not only meant for the world of work, they are also beneficial in personal activities, in other words, in life, in general. Therefore, while talking about this concept, for some it might be directly tight with the job, but what contemporary education believes is that the skills have much more possibilities of the practical application and it could be beyond the working environment.

In the research work by Fadel, Trilling, & Bialik (2015), introducing the framework, it is obvious that the key components for the 21st century learner alongside with knowledge, meta-learning, character, are the skills. Consequently, when we are discussing that every learner should be equipped not only with knowledge, but also with the skills, of course this issue is tightly connected with HEIs, as the university context is the place, where the skills could be developed and promoted during the studying years. What European Commission point out is worth considering. "Graduates increasingly need knowledge and skills sets that they can apply in different and dynamic settings" (European Commission, 2016, p. 1). That is why the role of HEIs is not only knowledge transmission, but they contribute a lot to the development of the skills in graduates. UNICEF also agrees with this and introduces the term life skills, which is believed to be the primary focus of contemporary education. It includes, a) "a bread group of interpersonal and psychological skills", and "process of teaching and learning about these skills" (UNICEF, 2000, p. 15). In addition, Katherine (2015, p. 18) indicates that, these skills are "relevant across many fields and in all walks of life." Hence, while discussing the concept of employability skills, it is clearly seen that the focus of this work is on general meaning and it is viewed as not discipline specific, but as the ones which could be relevant to various fields. If we look at the most recent profile of the skills, developed by European Commission, these categories are required to be possessed by a recent graduate:

- "Cognitive skills: analytical, critical, reflective, creative thinking;
- Methodological skills: time management, problem-solving, decision-making, learning (strategies), planning, digital skills;
- Social skills: interpersonal communication, teamwork, conflict management and negotiation, inter-cultural understanding." (European Commission, 2016, p.3)

After looking at these range of skills, a question arises, 'do HEIs facilitate the enhancement of the skills in their learners?' There are some researchers, such as Fadel, Trilling, & Bialik (2015) or Jones (2009), who consider that among HEIs, there are still noticeable lack of incorporating the skills in their teaching practice and focusing on the development during the studying years, which make them state that today's education is not sufficiently preparing their graduates for future life challenges. Since, there are rapid changes, education needs to adapt to all these transformations. It is quite challenging for education to keep up with all changes, because advancements are happening really rapidly. But, this should not be an excuse for not striving to make things better and to meet new demands of the world. With the regards to this opinion, Andrews and Higson point out that "Universities across the globe are increasingly required to produce highly skills graduates who are able to respond to the ever changing and complex needs of the contemporary workplace" (2008, p. 1). Hence, we are expecting now HEIs to focus more on the development of the skills of students through implementing various methods, approaches and offering opportunities, in order to facilitate the development process during the studying years. It still remains challenging issue for HEIs to ensure the development of the skills, because of different factors. For instance, Bologna process in a European context, including Georgia, since 2005, encouraged HEIs to determine the learning outcomes for their educational programmes. Some suggested skills, but not limited to, by the document are "communication, team work, problem solving" (European Commission, 2016, p.1). Besides, McGann (2010) considers that employability skills need to be explicitly integrated into the curriculum. Knight and Yorke (2004) also shares this view and adds that not only skills are needed to be incorporated into the curriculum, but also attention should be given to the teaching and learning methods which support the skills development.

Conclusion

Consequently, considering the demands of the 21st century world, the role of HEIs in the enhancement of employability/transferable skills is significant. Duo to the fact that, the primary objective of today's education is no longer only pouring the knowledge, but also supporting learners in acquisition process of the skills, needed for the 21st century, it is crucial to apply the policy into practice within higher education. There are still questions and criticism whether or not HEIs work enough for making the skills more explicit in their teaching practices, this paper has some limitations, as it does not cover the research data, so, the research needs to be done in Georgian HEIs context to see the picture between their role and actual practical application. Hence, as it is indicated above, the role of HEIs in this particular issue remains undermined and they need to work more towards the skills initiative. Encouraging skills development should be the key part of their policy, in order to equip students with essential skills needed for today's challenging world.

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"THIRD SPACE" AND MULTICULTURALISM: A POSTCOLONIAL STUDY IN BETOOL KHEIDARI'S A Sky so Close

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Abstract

The study explores the importance of postcolonial literature as a resource for examining histories that lie outside, or athwart, the Eurocentric mainstream. In this context, postcolonial studies offer a way to combine social critique with a sense of ethical engagement, while affirming the intellectual necessity of reading novels. This study basically examines two postcolonial novels, Salman Rushdie's Shame (1983) and Ali Bader's The Tobacco Keeper (2008). The central concern of the study is to emphasize the role of history in the postcolonial novel. Both novels are a mixture of politics, history, satire, fantasy and allegory. They offer a fanciful jumbling of historical items. Politics, religious and cultural events contribute to the entirety of historical events form the backdrop of the novel. Rushdie's Shame covers the history of Pakistan over a period of thirty six years - from 1947 to 1983, from the creation of Pakistan as a country to the present, the year of the publication of the novel, while Bader's The Tobacco Keeper sheds light on the ethnic and political history of the Middle East from 1926 – 2006. Both Rushdie and Bader fictionalize the factual events collected from history. The study also offers an account of the narrative strategies that both writers have used in this novel such as metafiction, intertextuality and fantasy.

Key words: postcolonial, Homi K. Bhabha, third space, multiculturalism, Cross-culture, Cultural hybridity

Postcolonial literature

Postcolonial writing is a new type of literature produced by countries which were under the machine of colonialism. Using the work of Fanon (2008), Said (2003; 2007), Bhabha (1990) and Spivak (2004), it becomes popular to argue that these texts are primarily concerned with writing back to the center, actively engaged in a process of questioning colonial discourses. Postcolonial literature is deemed to pose direct challenges to colonial center from colonized margins, negotiating new ways of seeing and giving voice and expression to colonized and once-colonized peoples (McLeod, 2010, 25-27). Postcolonial literature was actively engaged in the act of decolonizing the mind. This approach was crystalized in an important book that appeared at 1989-title The Empire Writes Back: Theory and Practice in Postcolonial Literature, co-authored by three critics from Australia, Bill Ashcroft, Gareth Griffiths and Helen Tiffin. This book shifted the approach to literatures from the once colonialized nations away from the abstract issue of a text's universal and timeless value and towards a more politicized approach that analyzed texts primarily within historical and psychological contexts (McLeod, 2010, 25-27).

Postcolonial literature is generally defined as one critically or subversively scrutinizes the colonial relationship. It is the writing that sets out in one way or another to resist the colonialist's perspectives, a change in power, and a reshaping of dominant meanings. Postcolonial writing, therefore, is deeply marked by experiences of cultural exclusion and division under empire. Especially in its early stages, it is also often a nationalist writing. Building on this, Postcolonialism can be defined as that condition in which colonized peoples seek to take their place, forcibly or otherwise, as historical agents in an increasingly globalized world (Ashcroft, 2004, 3).

Thus, this type of postcolonial writing emerges as a resistance literature, which resists all the phases of colonialism perspectives that include: a change in power balance, and a reshaping of new identities. Postcolonial writing appears as a record to the colonial experience of both the colonized and the colonizer as well. Postcolonial discourse is deeply rooted to the construction of the cultural authority for the colonizers, both in the metropolis and in the colonies. Postcolonial discourse, therefore, is related to the colonization issues such as the myths of power, the race divisions, and the imagery of subordination (Loomba, 1998).

Postcolonial Arab writers project the Arab by way of themes and types that negotiate between different cultures. They present not the exotic or alien but the comprehensible and acceptable. Moving beyond an internal audience, Arab writers have the capacity to play a crucial role in disseminating through the wider world their images of hyphenated Arabs and of the Arab people as a whole, thereby fostering acceptance through understanding. The tension between the center and the periphery, the 'homeland' and the 'host land' raises familiar issues of belonging, allegiance, and affinity. Some commentators find the experience of migration and hybridity are highly enriching and invigorating agents (Kheydari, 2001).

Betool Khedairi

The Iraqi novelist Betool Khedairi is one of the rare few of Arab novelists with a distinguished style in the construction of events and characters. Her Iraqi origin, spirit and passion exist together with her British education and behavior. This complex mixture of race, language and emotions has given her a lot of freedom and spontaneity in expressing herself clearly. She is an Iraqi writer who found herself in the midst of two civilizations that clash sometimes and try to make peace at other times, and she was able, with her Eastern emotionality and Western rationality to utilize these circumstances for her benefit in a beautiful saga of success (ibid). Her economic use of language in describing details, her Baghdadi figures and the atmosphere in which they live, depicted in her first novel, A Sky So Close (1999). A Sky So Close, set in Iraq and written in Arabic and translated into English (Kheidari, 2001), Italian, French, and Dutch, has established her as a strong new voice in Iraqi postcolonial literature who endeavors to create a cultural identity as the one Bhabha describes that "gives rise to anodyne liberal notions of multiculturalism, cultural exchange, or the culture of humanity" (Bhabha, 1994, 34).

Khedairi's A Sky So Close is a novel that falls under the literature of the third space which has the marks of being 'in-between' both cultures (Bhabha, 1990). The whole story was enclosed with a war between Iraq and Iran and how the war affected the lives of people, especially especially the female character's emotional and psychological aspect (Rekhangel, 2013). Khedairi goes beyond feminist concerns and depicts in the wider context the themes of exploitation of women, social conflicts, tradition and modernity. Khedairi, an expatriate writer, is chiefly regarded as the most talented Iraqi woman novelist. She is concerned with the plight, status and attitude of the woman in Iraq under the stress of changing social, economic, modern, and political forces. She is the most outstanding modern novelist who deals with feminism (ibid). Being a feminist novelist, Khedairi draws the picture of woman in the context of Iraq. She portrays the plight of the 20th–century woman, a woman fluctuated between peace and war, survival and death, East and West and double heritages (ibid).

Khedairi's novel as Khedairi stated is "about a little Iraqi girl growing up in Baghdad with a very English mom, as opposed to her very Iraqi dad, with all their conflicts of cultures, religion, habits - even eating habits, ...in Baghdad, she is the daughter of a foreign woman, and in England, she is an Arab" (Rekhangel, 2013). Khedairi succeeds in the representation of political and social everyday Iraqi life, yet she manages to interest readers who may know little about the country. Khedairi says "I was pleasantly surprised that I managed to connect to the West, I managed to show them what the Iraqi human being is about, rather than what they know through their media" (ibid). Khedairi admits that she had no political agenda when she wrote A Sky So Close; she only hopes that it can help mend the chasm between East and West. She adds "some people actually think we still use camels in this part of the world ... As a writer if I can't change anything...at least I can give a bridge between cultures for people to understand each other more" (Ashkroft, 2007, 3). A similar statement was made earlier by Edward Said in his book Orientalism when he refused the extensively propagated false attitudes of orientalist toward the Arabs as "camel-riding, terroristic, hook-nosed, venal lechers whose undeserved wealth is an affront to real civilization" (Said, 1979, 108).

'Third Space' and the crisis of identity

One of the main issues examined in postcolonial writings is the aspects of the 'other' culture to which Bhabha refers in The Location of Culture (1994) and Said in his Culture and Imperialism (1993). Bhabha's The Location of Culture focuses on the politics, emotions, and values that exist in the space between the colonizer and the colonized. In other words, cultures are more than 'us' and 'other'; they are the sum of their histories. Bhabha calls this space as 'the ambivalent space of cultural identity' or a "third space" which is a space between two poles or binaries. It is a space of cultural creation where two cultures are mixed (Ashkroft, 2007, 183).

Accordingly, Bhabha lays emphasis on the survival even under the most potent oppression of the distinctive aspects of the culture of the oppressed, and shows how these become an integral part of the new formations which arise from the clash of cultures. Also, it emphasizes how hybridity and the power it releases may well be seen as a feature and a contribution the postcolonial, allowing a means of evading the replication of the binary categories of the past and developing new anti-monolithic models of cultural exchange and growth (Simon, 2000).

Examining the identity of the narrator, Khedairi's A Sky So Close can be read as the problem of hybridity and hyphenated existence that many people experience in an increasingly globalized and transnational world. As Sherry Simon, the well-known translator and cultural writer, speculates in the introduction to her book, Changing the Terms, "the existence of large diasporic and migrant communities in movement across the globe makes any fixed definition of hybrid identities difficult" (Simon, 2000, 21).

The unnamed protagonist of Khedairi's semi-autobiographical novel, A Sky So Close is the fictional figure of the novelist Khedairi herself. This novel reflects the clash between two different sets of values in her house and the subsequent confusion and loss of identity she suffers. After her father's death in 1990, she left Iraq to live in London with her mother, who has been treated from cancer (Rekhangel, 2013). The novel as Khedairi stated is "about a little Iraqi girl growing up in Baghdad with a very English mom, as opposed to her very Iraqi dad, with all their conflicts of cultures, religion, habits - even eating habits, ...in Baghdad, she is the daughter of the foreign woman, and in England, she is the Arab" (Rekhangel, 2013). The protagonist of A Sky So Close occupies a special situation as member of minority - a situation not easy to accept. When she thinks of East-West binaries of her identity separately, she feels confused between them. But when she takes the same two elements together, she finds herself face to face with her own specificity. For example, when someone asks her where she is from, she replies, "I am not from here, nor am I from there. That is the problem... I am the product of a contrasting mixture"(Kheidari, 2001, 43). This statement shows clearly her blurred vision of identity. She can never have the feeling of being entirely belonging to one place, as Bhabha called it a "third space". The narrator occupies a special place where cultures overlap and produce a more complex figure or identity. It is a "feeling neither here nor there, unable to indulge in sentiments of belonging to either place" (McLeod, 2010, 217).

Even the father and the mother who fell in love and got married, can never perceive their identity in the same way as does a couple of the same nationalities. As stated by the critic Amin Maalouf in his book, In the Name of Identity, "both partners will always carry within them the ties their parents handed down at birth, but these ties will henceforth be perceived differently and accorded a different importance (Maalouf, 2014, 11) Even after her return to England, the mother no longer feels as a British woman. She has lost the sense of belonging to her original homeland too. In the following dialogue, she confesses to her daughter that when she looks back at her life, she finds only loss and failure:

- I can no longer remember what I fought against in the past.
- Have you forgotten your loneliness, the strange culture and language, and the unbearable heat?
- She rests her head back on the pillow, as though it was too heavy to hold up.
- I've never in my life felt that I am such a failure as I do now.
- She continues, talking to herself:
- I failed in so many different ways. I became pregnant with you by mistake, and I failed to correct that mistake ... please don't misunderstand me.
- She says that as though she was becoming delirious.
- Then I got married ... and I failed to make my husband happy ...
- Then I emigrated, and failed to understand my husband's culture ...
- Then I loved a man from my own background behind my husband's back, and even there I failed, and could not keep my lover.
- Her summing up of her life resembles a telegram, its segments separated by sighs composed of the word "Then."...
- She gazes at the ceiling for a while, then adds,
- I stopped belonging here when I left England and decided to try and belong to the East. In spite of all my efforts, I could not belong there either, and now that I'm back here again, I find that I no longer belong to my original homeland. Everything is so different.

- Why are you talking like this, as if tomorrow will not come? We have so much time to correct the past, and to talk about these things.
- She smiles helplessly.
- It is a foolish notion, this question of belonging. We only belong to the shadows of our bodies which follow us around as long as we're alive. (Kheidari, 2001, 200-201)

In the novel, it is noticeable that the narrator's mind is loaded with childhood memories that are aroused now and then throughout the work. Some of them are conscious and others are presented through dreams. It is nostalgia for the past and for her homeland. In England, she speculates: "I wish that row of palm trees would disappear from my dreams" (ibid, 197). She transcribes her thoughts and emotions interiorly within her mind: "I close my eyes, inhaling the fragrances, wishing it was the Shorja market in Baghdad"(Kheidari, 2001, 198).

However, the novel central theme of identity could be read also through exploring the world of war. Searching for identity during war is significant because it expresses the quest of the individual for his being. During the course of the novel, the narrator experiences two brutal wars. The first is the war between Iraq and Iran and the second is The Gulf War by United States and Allied Forces against Iraq. One of the work's major concerns lies in its critique of war. War raises some unsettling questions about the values that govern the world during its course. People begin to question the validity of their identity and nationalism, which seem to vanish under such loss of life and economic devastation. "What is the point of surviving (Kheidari, 2001, 160)?" Khedairi asks through the mouth of her protagonist. Merely being alive is neither the true test for existence nor is it sufficient reason for living. Living as a human is more important than just having a life. War is not glamorized at all in this novel. It is presented in a very real and horrifying fashion from the perspective of the narrator.

In the words of the critic Ferial Ghazoul, "this subtle and moving novel is first and foremost a plea for life and harmony in a world full of strife"(Ghasoul, 2003). It is meant to draw attention to the chasm between cultures. Life is a creator of differences. Every individual without exception possesses a composite identity. Identity is a special case. Humankind itself is made up by special cases. Even one's identity isn't given once and for all. It is built up and changes throughout a person's lifetime (Maalouf, 2000, 20-22). And when reading the novel in the context of postcolonialism, it seems to be involved to elevate the notion of cultural diversity and in promoting peace against aggression. Khedairi says:

> I find it fascinating to be able to trip in and out of cultures to explore one's own dimensions: ambitions and limitations at the same time. Positives and negatives from both worlds mesh into one open tolerant mentality that is accepting and forgiving. This is what I learnt through my writing, working as a translator to both cultures in my own words. If we could only build bridges between East and West instead of fighting the differences, then maybe we would come one step closer to a peaceful planet. (Voykowitsch, 2003)

Multiculturalism and ‘everyday nature’

The idea that diversity of cultures is good and positive and ought to be encouraged has been widespread within the postcolonial perspective. ‘Multiculturalism’ represents, as Homi Bhabha indicates, “An attempt both to respond to and to control the dynamic process of the articulation of cultural difference, administering a consensus based on a norm that propagates cultural diversity" (Bhabha, 1990, 208-209). While many cross-cultural forms are now considered familiar and welcomed in the postcolonial world, some of them are still rejected by the West. The dominant Western vision is still haunted by the stereotype images of the late orientalists, which have been circulating for hundreds of years. On the other hand, positive cultural changes have been taking place in the new postcolonial and multicultural policies that encourage cultural diversity through publications of a number of cross-cultural texts. This may be seen as a good move toward a positive hybrid Eastern Western vision in an attempt to get the benefit of the espousal of the two different cultural identities. It is a fertile soil in which, in the words of Bhabha, "gives rise to something different, something new and unrecognizable, a new area of negotiation of meaning and representation" (Bhabha, 1990, 211).

In this regard, Edward Said, in one of his interviews, advocates multiculturalism as an element of strength:

> There has to be an understanding, finally, that there is no political or national grouping that homogenous. Everything we are talking about is mixed, we deal in a world of interdependent, mongrelized societies. They are hybrids, they are impure... to me is a virtue. (Said, 2005, 392)

One of the important features of the novel A Sky So Close, as Khedairi confesses, is the representation of everyday Iraqi life. This type of literature, combining as it does the traditional novelistic focus on character and daily life with a heightened awareness of the meaning of place, offers a unique locus for a study of the everyday environment and the richness of everyday experience. The everyday environment are those places that one inhabits daily they are the most local places in that sense: 'Everyday nature', Scott Hess writes, "is not just a location, but rather a kind of attention, or better yet, a way of defining our identities and values through local relationship rather than through imaginative escape" (Hess, 2010, 91).

Khedairi indicates that this novel gives "a glimpse of how the Western eye looks at an issue and how the Eastern eye looks at the same issue" (Rechangel, 2013). The first three chapters of the novel are dominated by conflicting values and different ideas of the narrator's parents who are unable to agree on anything including how to raise their daughter. Each one of them tries to impose his/her way of living and his/her own beliefs. The narrator's mother forbids her from playing with the shoeless neighbor children fearing diseases and lice. She is horrified whenever she knows that her daughter goes to the farm and meets her friend Khaddouja. The narrator insists: "the more she refused Khaddouja, the more I longed for the second half of the day, when I encounter her brown face on the dusty track (Kheidari, 2001, 24). The mother calls Khaddouja "the filthy lice-bearer"(ibid, 24). On one occasion, the narrator, by mistake, tells her mother that Bibi Hijjia had combed her hair with her wooden comb; the narrator complains: "It was as if I had announced the end of the world"(ibid, 26) The mother scolds her daughter roughly and stops her from visiting the mud hunts for two weeks after that episode. Whenever the mother knows that her daughter has made another trip to the farm, she flies into rage shouting with her daughter:

- You mean you were with that dirty little girl again? Didn't I warn you not to mix with that lice-ridden child?"
- But Mummy, she's my friend.

She scolds:

- No! She's not your friend, she will only give you her diseases. Did you eat anything when you were with her?
- Only a small piece of bread with some cheese.

She erupts again:

- My God! Haven't you seen how her mother uses dried cow dung for the fire with which she bakes the bread? Haven't you seen the hordes of flies that swarm around that cheese they make with their filthy hands. (Kheidari, 2001, 8-9)

As for ballet dancers in the novel, their dreams clash and break in reality; "we don't know anything except dancing and this language does not work in the war, perhaps we were wrong in holding with what you call dream … Anyhow hope declines with war ending soon. We are about to graduate. So let us be wiser than asking for the impossible things" (Khedairi, 2001, 111).

As the girl grows up, the family moves to Baghdad and, at her mother's insistence, she studies ballet. Ironically, Western dance frees her from the self-loathing produced by her mother's intolerance. The mother insists that her daughter must attend the School of Music and Ballet in the city to be more cultivated according to her value system. She prefers high culture associated with her part of the world over the local folk culture which she considers primitive and savage. On the other hand, her father, with whom the narrator identifies herself, fears that joining this school will make her spoiled. Instead, he encourages her to mix with the peasants near their house to learn their language and traditions. He keeps arguing with his wife about the way they raise their daughter and asks her to listen to him. The parent's dialogue on this critical issue reflects the cultural gap between the two:

- \- The girl will be spoiled!
- \- But the schools out here are so deprived. I want my daughter to learn languages, dancing, and socialization. I'm not asking for much.
- \- Dancing and socializing, not asking for much! But one day, she may pay too high a price for your decision.
- \- I won't let her go to a primitive school!
- \- Don't you realize, woman, that we're now in the Arab, Islamic world, and she and I are Muslims? This education, which you are calling "arts," could damage her future prospects.
- \- It would be better than damaging her morale in your local girls' schools. She's showing promise and talent.
- \- Woman, you're talking about a culture you don't understand. I've warned you about the differences we'd face in raising her. I know what I'm talking about, why don't you listen to me?
- \- I listened to you in the past, that's why we didn't send her to nursery school at the age of four like the other children, because we're so far away from civilization. But now I'm sick of this isolated village and primitive people…

- - Woman, let her mingle with the peasants' traditions, there's no harm in that. Let her bond with the land, with the people and their animals, the way we are raised. For God's sake, let her see what you can't see! (Khedairi, 2001, 9-10)

The violent atmosphere at the protagonist's home may represent this 'in-between'; the hybrid identity of the protagonist who is fluctuating between the Eastern and the Western cultures. Bhabha maintains that "the importance of hybridity is not to be able to trace two original moments from which the third emerges; rather hybridity is the 'third space' which enables other positions to emerge. The third space displaces the histories that constitute it and set up new structures". While the narrator feels happy in merging the difference within her psyche, her hope in bridging the gap between her father and mother or, broadly speaking, between the East and the West, is not an easy attainable dream, and this seemingly embraceable sky hanging over pastoral Za'farania will be ruined ultimately by bombs of the war.

Intermarriage is supposed to be a solution to various racial and ethnic conflicts in the postcolonial world. Love and tenderness between husband and wife may be able to melt down differences or obstacles that face them through their life. Nevertheless, in A Sky So Close when love representations are vanished after several years of living together, they find that their marriage is a mistake. The heroine suffered from emotional deprivation because she did not have love and compassion of her mother who had neglected her; her mother was "immersed in skin moisturizers" that take care of her skin and her father who was not seen "even in the weekend" (Khedairi, 2001, 30). The heroine suffered from the family disintegration, which was caused by the psychological divorce between the parents, which led to the actual request of mother's divorce, but the father rejected that fearing of his daughter. The parents were really living in a cold war, they quarrel for trifle reasons. The contrast between the two couples appears to be sharp and not possible to be overcome. The mother usually complains to her English friends about her husband. Once she said "He's very attached to this rural lifestyle, which reminds him of his youth. I can hardly believe this is the same man I met when he came to study in England" (ibid 30).

Living in a multicultural family means being exposed to different habits and styles of living. The narrator spends her childhood observing each one of her parents acting in a distinct way even in the smallest details:

> My mother has toast with jam and butter. You father chew on a small piece of brown khubuz – our local round, unleavened bread. You are waiting for one of the peasant farmers to bring over the thickened cream they make. She never allows me to have any, because of what she calls 'those strange black spots' on its surface... As you lift your cup of tea, she lowers her cup of instant coffee. (Khedairi, 2001, 15)

The narrator also notices that politeness may take diverse ways. She remembers how her mother "stopped her from eating rice with her fingers the way her father does with such delight, insisting that she uses a knife and fork. She taught her the proper way to eat soup. The daughter didn't know that soup should be sipped from the side of the spoon and not the front" (Khedairi 33). Also, her mother complains about the eastern disregard for punctuality, but her father explains to his wife: "this is the way the invitation should be. It would be improper for us to insist on them arriving at a specific time. We're not in England, my dear" (Khedairi, 2001, 40).

Differences in cultures and traditions between East and West widened the gap between the couple. Those differences usually reflect the different roles that men and women occupy in the family in different cultures. Even a minor detail is considered an issue for debate between the father and mother which always irritates the daughter. The narrator mentions a series of differences of how her father looks at a matter and how her mother sees it. For example, when the narrator was young, she had a long braid swinging between her shoulder blades. The father liked it very much, while the mother preferred the practical short hair. The daughter recalls the image of the dead father to tell him: "You warned her so many times not to cut it, not to restyle my hair the way she wanted it. She likes it short and practical, but you want to watch it grow" (Khedairi, 2001, 3). After some years, the mother convinces her daughter to get rid of the whole braid by saying "It's too hot to be walking around with all that hair" (ibid, 28).

Cleanliness is upheld by both cultures, but its nature differs to the point of making one perspective opposed to the other. The mother keeps complaining continuously about the handkerchiefs, which her husband insists on using when he has a cold. The child narrator addresses her father in her reminiscences:

How many times she's [the mother] begged you to use the paper tissues that she calls 'Kleenex', enunciating each syllable when she pronounces the word. But you insist on spitting into your hankies. You then stuff them down the side of whichever seat you are using at the time. It was her misfortune that you always forgot them there. Getting them out was one of her chores. She allocated a big red pot for them... She used it for the disgusting weekly task of boiling your hankies. (Khedairi, 2001, 15)

On the other hand, the Iraqi father fights with his wife over the way she washes her hair. The mother feels completely uncomfortable with their way of washing and she considers it funny! The parents' disputes go on:

- Stop it! ... It's not a question of cleaning the sink! You rinsed it with boiling water to get rid of the grease from the dishes so that it wouldn't cling to your hair. But did it ever occur to you that the hairs you shed might block the drains? What is this infuriating way of washing your hair? It's not hygienic and it's discourteous.
- I'm sorry, but I've never managed to get used to your way of bathing. Using a small bowl that floats in a huge cooking pot full of hot water! You sit on that ridiculously low wooden stool, and the water goes cold before you've finished! I'll bath the way I want to and I'll join you later. (Khedairi, 2001, 13)

The way of greetings in Iraq is completely different to the one in foreign countries. The narrator explains that her "mother's friends exchange kisses between men and women" (Khedairi, 2001, 27), while among Arabs, "it's only the men who kiss each other on the cheek when they meet. The foreign women tend to avoid exchanging kisses, restricting themselves to a cold distant embrace, whereas Arab women exchange numerous warm kisses, cheek to cheek" (ibid 27).

The narrator notices that her mother's friend David usually greets her with kisses, which makes her father furrow his brow. In spite of the oriental customs and traditions of the father, he sometimes tries to ignore his wife's attitudes with her foreign friends. He even tries to overlook her drinking and dancing with them, which is unacceptable in the oriental society. Their dialogue unfolds deep cultural gap:

- Woman, try to understand my situation. Yesterday I allowed you to drink openly, and I pretended not to notice the soft way you danced with Dawood in front of my friends and their wives. I make no objections when you want to mix with your friends... But I will not allow you to work outside the house. You don't need to do that, and certainly not while the girl is still in primary school.
- You comment about my drinking and my dancing as though you were doing me a favour. What about your friends, who have a wife for parties and another one for the home?
- We disagree for the millionth time. Let's stop criticising our traditions and comparing them to what you consider civilized. I'm asking you to forget everything else and concentrate on this: contradictions don't matter; all I want for my daughter is that you persevere with us until she has grown up. Is that understood? (Khedairi, 2001, 48)

Homi Bhabha's concept of the ambivalence of colonial discourses that "explores the relationship between a colonizing subject and a colonized subject" is evident in this novel and it is more intensified by gender (McLeod, 2010, 108). The narrator's mother occupies this ambivalent position in a significant way. It is ironic that she acts as a Western colonizer and laments herself as being a colonized woman. The British mother acts as superior to other people in the Eastern community, but now she feels her husband treats her as an inferior subject. She considers herself victimized by the oriental patriarchal oppression when, for example, her husband does not allow her to work outside the house in order to take care of their little child, whereas he spends most of his time working outside the house. The heroin's mother insistence on the work shows her two different Western perspectives of women's work. She finds in her work killing to her leisure time, and proving to herself especially that she is an English citizen, whereas the case of women's work in her country is acceptable. But her husband, as an eastern man, believes in the traditional roles set by society for couples in the wedlock: husband is the supporter; wife is the incubator, so to speak as it that must fulfil her duties as a mother and take care of the house. He prioritizes his house and daughter's service over his wife's desires. The association of home with women and femininity is a commonplace that is often considered natural. Women's identity seems to be derived from their domestic life (Domosh, 2001, 1). Moreover; he intends intentionally to keep his wife in the rural area in order to make her accustomed to the local lifestyle, which she failed to. So, she lives a life different from the one she grew up in. From the life in the city (London) to a village in (Baghdad):

> I don't have a choice, you know the story. I thought the farms here as he described to me as an eastern magic limited between a dreamy sunrise and sunset. From a charming smoke that can't stand its glamour. It is stuffy heat. In the morning flies climb the palm and mosquitoes of evening. And the whistling of cockroaches leaping in my room in the dawn. (Khedairi, 2001, 29)

On the other hand, the wife sees that staying at home worth nothing and the husband believes that their girl should not be left alone for any reason "until [she] grows up to take care of herself. Bringing girls up is harder than boys in this part of the world. We do not neglect them in childhood, you should know this truth during the last period. I strongly refuse your work outside the house; you do not need that especially that the girl is in the primary stage" (Khedairi, 2001, 151).

In addition to her husband's treatment, she describes her loneliness clearly:

> I know we don't have enough money to buy a house in the city now and I will be forced to wait until you finish your works and its appointments in this area. And also, I will neglect my loneliness which seems that you forget because of your many correlations (Khedairi, 2001, 13).

The heroine's mother finds her new life with David who shares with her in many things: her home, her language, and her behaviors, "how similar they are in their hand's movements and their heads' turning and the way they pronounce: oh, aha. Really? Between a sentence and another one" (Khedairi, 2001, 27). The husband's ignorance of her behavior remains the most important motive her relation with Daivd. He tells her, "Madam, try to understand my attitude. Yesterday I let you drink as you like. And I ignored your forbidden dance with that foreigner Dawod in front of my friends and their wives, and I don't object for your contact with your friends whenever you wish" (Khedairi, 2001, 43). The father is aware of the radical difference between them, but he tries to neglect his wife and reject everything related to her culture, language, habits, and behaviors. Accordingly, the emotional decline between the couple becomes bigger and bigger. Besides the emotional decline between the couple, the mother begins to quarrel over finding a job. One day, the narrator hears one of the dry English conversations between her parents over finding a job:

- I've already told you, no means no!
- It's an opportunity I can't afford to miss, especially now that the company has opened an office in Baghdad!
- You don't need to work! I'm working very hard on this project and will provide all you need in the house...
- Yes, dear...
- ... How long am I going to remain in this primitive, isolated place, doing nothing and not speaking your language?
- Until the girl is old enough to look after herself. Raising a daughter is more difficult in this part of the world than raising a son. We don't neglect them when they are little. I'm sure you must have learned that in the time that you've been here!
- The girl, the girl! How long are you going to keep using her as an excuse? I need to change... why are you stopping me?
- Woman, try to understand my situation... I will not allow you to work outside the house. You don't need that, and certainly not while the girl is still in primary school. (Khedairi, 2001, 46-47)

The father scolds his wife for being indifferent and careless about her daughter; "Don't you ask yourself who spends afternoon time with the girl who is studying all day long, while you are looking for crèmes that give tan for skin in half an hour, powder to cover wrinkles, minimizing freckles. Facial fit cosmetics, cream for hand smoothing, damaged hair oils" (Khedairi, 2001, 67-68). Desperately, the father is now convinced that everyone in the house will keep his/her role and nothing will be changed no matter what happens. One day, his daughter tells him that her mother might leave the house, nevertheless the father replies coldly with a promise that everything will be the same, a statement which reflects the patriarchal oriental attitude:

> Nobody is leaving here. I want you to understand that. It's true that we don't agree about everything in the house – she has her way and I have mine, but that doesn't change things. She'll still be here waiting for you

when you come home from school, you'll keep passing your exams every year, and I'll be at my job every day. Everybody is staying where they are!...That's a promise! (Khedairi, 2001, 52)

As the story unfolds, the mother's awareness of the truth about her life grows bigger. Years of continuous disagreements increased the mother's feeling of being a 'colonized' subject. The two parents finally agree that it is better to put an end to their relationship. Nevertheless, the father repeatedly reminds his wife that he has the upper hand. He admits that the law is on his side and he will win his daughter's custody. The mother seems ready to abandon her daughter in order to free herself from his chains. She wishes to be relieved of her familial obligations in order to pursue her own ambitions, freedom, and identity. One day, the narrator listens to another early morning dispute between the two:

- ... I have told you, my mind is made up, we have to start legal proceedings.
- We will not be starting anything until I've decided.
- What? Am I to remain at the mercy of your laws? Do you really believe that my life is merely an ice cube floating in your drink?
- Listen, let me, let us defer this for a while. Let us at least wait until she finishes her baccalaureate exams. Let her at least reach adulthood.
- I no longer care. Let her stay with you if that's what she wants...
- Calm down and control yourself... Does the poor girl not have enough problems in this house as it is?
- ...
- Don't be a bastard with me! You're the one who's refusing to give me my freedom. Do you think I'm just a football waiting for you to kick me?
- ... I'm the only one who can decide about our divorce. You can do nothing without me, remember that well.
- Ha! The eastern sacrifice for your children! You're talking rubbish. (Khedairi, 2001, 102-103)

The father has become looking at the mother's slips and faults, which made the heroine predict what incident and verbal clashes would happen between her parents. The continual conflict between the parents caused the isolation of the heroine who described it as follow; "I found myself behind the coach, was tickling my chin with my braid, just as you do with a shaving brush. After a while, the dialogue rises between the seats. This time I cram the braid in my ear. I wished I could say to you: enough" (Khedairi, 2001, 16). Problems between the parents made the heroine alone and isolated, and she found nothing to condole her except her braid, and her friend Khadouja.

The mother describes their bizarre marriage life accurately, she tells her husband, "do not you understand that my life has separated from your life? We do not live or even coexist together, only we live together in one house" (Khedairi, 2001, 77). The consequences of psychological divorce and family deprivation in A Sky So Close are summarized as follows: The parents are in constant conflict and are not comfortable at home. The mother leaves the house for hours and she tells her husband, "your presence at home forces me to leave it as long as possible" and the father replies with the same tone as well, "you spend all days in the work" (Khedairi, 2001, 68). The father also indulges heavily in his work; he is no longer care about his daughter. His daughter criticizes his absence from home and his obvious indifference toward her and her mother as well:

> Dad… you said that your absence will not be long, and I do not see you until the weekend, you are immersed in your works, and my mother immersed in the moisturizers that take care of her skin .... she no longer braid my plait in the morning, or whispers words that discomfort me, and you take me to school. (Khedairi, 2001, 30)

The heroine's family disintegration affects her negatively and increased her loneliness, depression and boredom. "Those hours, which began with a boredom, is an experience in itself, saying that this boredom is generated every Friday by the Egyptian film at four o'clock, and Umm Kolthoum's song "Shams Al-Aseel," after which the religious program that oppresses your chest then you ask. How can this device program human's anguish to this extent?" (Khedairi, 2001, 64). The father puts a responsibility of his depression on the television programs. The mother has suffered from loneliness and alienation in her country England, and when she lives with her husband whom she loved and got married after she was shocked with reality. Her love to him was flying to the old East, and the nights of Sinbad and the Arabian nights, but she found only insects and mosquitoes in her dwelling where she lived. The mother is shocked by the magic of the East, which she complains that she is trapped in a primitive place and she could never adapt to the new-old style of living:

> I thought…I thought that the countryside out here was the way he described it to me. The magical East, with a glorious sunrise and a romantic sunset, days flitting by in an indescribable purple haze of charm and fantasy. The reality turned out to be a stifling heat that climbs up the palm trees. Flies in the morning, mosquitoes in the evening, and the screeching of winged cockroaches that jumps around in my bedroom at dawn! And now I've got this terrible allergy every spring from the damned apricots. If I wanted to swim, the mud from the river would be toxic to my skin, and I'd probably get raped anyway. As for sunbathing –that is out of the question in an area like this. (Khedairi, 2001, 30-31)
>
> The mother feels disappointed and regretful for her marriage to an oriental man. She is always criticizing his environment, his family habits, and his traditions. She describes Iraqis as "Gypsies" and because of that she does not let her daughter "mix with that Gypsy girl and those illiterate fools who spend the whole day running around in that disgusting farm" (Khedairi, 2001, 10). The mother's shock from reality made her angry and enrages on it, and deride from it, which enlarges the gap between them, so she lives alone. She states that clearly when she addresses her husband, "I know that we do not have enough money to buy a house in the city right now, and I have to wait until you finish your works and your appointments in this region, and I will neglect loneliness that you seem to have forgotten because of your frequent correlations" (Khedairi, 2001, 13).

This feminist vein in the novel can be examined from Judith Butler's paper "Precarious Life" illustrated this feminist discourse of dehumanizing the other. This kind of discourse did not even acknowledge the other as human anymore, and their lives were not considered lives at all. Butler argued that "this derealization of the other stripped a people from the right to be mourned and grieved because the other is neither conceived to be dead or alive", hence removing them from the human framework (Butler, 2006, 157). This kind of dehumanization lead the mother to establish an illegal relationship with her English boyfriend David, "as long as you are in this house, you have to respect some of his traditions ... I do not think I am neglected towards you in something, do not increase our life confusion" (Khedairi, 2001, 52). The wife decided to put an end to the confusion which this family is experiencing, by asking for separation. "So we came back to the sin, is my sin, man. I want the final separation; I do not want your favors, reminding me that you are the master of the house. I will be satisfied by my work, friends, and my daughter" (ibid, 77).

Finally, the girl grows up frustrated in a house with harsh conditions in the shadow of war, siege and the loss of her future after graduation from the school of music and ballet. "I am from a group chasing my ghost under the training of Madame, the problem is that I began late to approach to chasm; I neither practice anything in art nor learned my father's job before it is too late. I find myself as a model for cross of phantoms only" (Khedairi, 2001, 125). The heroine begins to get out of her imaginary world, which her mother draws to her, to see the physical reality, which she has no living components to live in, as the Ballet School does not guarantee a future for her, and she doesn't have a job, because she does not master her father's craft, which he wishes that she masters to be his successor.

There is no doubt that the heroine of the novel commits a moral deviation, since the environment of the family has a big impact on the personality of the individual, his values, ideas and behavior. If the family environment is disintegrated, then it is natural that social relations break down between individuals in the absence of the controlling authority that directs and controls the individual's behavior in various phases of his life, especially the childhood and adolescence, as the basis for constituting the character of the child in the future (Ghasoul, 2003).

The author indicates that the novel gives "a glimpse of how the Western eye looks at an issue and how the Eastern eye looks at the same issue" (Bhabha, 1994, 211). The first three chapters of the novel are dominated by conflicting values and different ideas of the narrator's parents who are unable to agree on anything including how to raise their daughter. The continual arguments between the parents push the heroine to escape to play with her friend Khaddouja in the farm and to spend happy days with her away from the battles of her parents, each one of them tries to impose his/her way of living and own beliefs. The narrator's mother forbids her from playing with the shoeless neighbor children fearing diseases and lice. She is horrified whenever she knows that her daughter goes to the farm and meets her friend Khaddouja. The narrator insists that "the more she refused Khaddouja, the more I longed for the second half of the day, when I encounter her brown face on the dusty track" (Khedairi, 2001, 24). The mother calls Khaddouja "the filthy lice-bearer" (Ibid 24). On one occasion, the narrator, by mistake, tells her mother that Bibi Hijjia had combed her hair with her wooden comb; the narrator complains: "It was as if I had announced the end of the world" (Khedairi, 2001, 26).

The house represents a microcosm of the east-meets-west battle, a tiny and personal war that, in this story, has all the roots of social and psychological violence. Bhabha states that "the problem of the cultural emerges only at the significant boundaries of culture, where meanings and values are misread or signs misappropriated" (Bhabga, 1994). The narrator does not know how to stop her parents' never-ending arguments and realizes, as she matures, that she is somehow a pawn in their east-meets-west conflict. Yet she sometimes feels that this hovering between the two poles may have a positive effect on her personality when it allows her to be part of the two worlds; "instead of fighting the differences," Khedairi says, "I tried to mesh and to benefit from both cultures" (Khedairi, 2001, 47).

In the end, it is about bridging between cultures rather than denying them. It is this advantage that the narrator joyfully nourishes:

> In spite of your conflicting plans, you were unable to stop my mother from sending me to that school. And she in turn was unable to convince you to forbid me from going to the farm. Your disagreement allowed me to mingle with both worlds. Just like our house, which was in itself two worlds. (Khedairi, 2001, 11)

Amin Maalouf defines the role of such special cases or what he calls people who are arenas for allegiances in violent conflict with one another:

> They live in a sort of frontier zone criss-crossed by ethnic, religious and other fault lines. But by virtue of this situation- peculiar rather than privileged- they have a special role to play in forging links, eliminating misunderstandings, making some parties more reasonable and others less belligerent, smoothing out difficulties, seeking compromise. Their role is to act as bridges, go-betweens, mediators between the various communities and cultures. And that is precisely why their dilemma is so significant: if they themselves cannot sustain their multiple allegiances, if they are continually being pressed to take sides or ordered to stay within their own tribe, then all of us have reason to be uneasy about the way the world is going (Maalouf, 2014, 4-5).

As a result of living in an atmosphere full of family tensions, the daughter becomes an epitome of a 'hybrid identity'. She is a child who does not know which culture she belongs to or whom to please. She is the result of her parents' emotional divorce. She once addresses her father saying: "I have no say in these arguments. I don't even know which language I should use" (Khedairi, 2001, 3). It is this hybridity manifested in the blurring of two different languages that force the protagonist to choose 'in-between' zone. Ashcroft states that "perhaps the most common method of inscribing alterity by the process of appropriation is the technique of switching between two or more codes, particularly in literature" (Ashcroft, 2007, 71). It is one way of "installing cultural distinctiveness in the writing" (ibid, 71). She uses bilingual ways or sentences in expressing her bicultural identity. The language she speaks mirrors her identity as shown by Maalouf:

> Language has the marvellous characteristic of being both a component of identity and a means of communication... I regard any attempt to separate language from identity as neither possible nor desirable. Language is bound to remain the mainspring of cultural identity, and linguistic diversity the mainspring of all other diversities. (Maalouf, 2014, 132)

The narrator feels upset for being the main cause of her parents' continuous dispute. She tries to avoid mixing-up "the two languages" when speaking to each one of her parents. Sometimes, she deliberately blends English with Arabic in speaking to her father (Khedairi, 2001, 20-21).

A Sky So Close is divided into ten chapters. Each group of chapters deals with a different stage of the psychological development of the protagonist. The first stage of her life occurs during the years in the countryside where she spends happy moments in the lap of nature with her bosom friend Khaddouja. Then the shock of Khaddouja's death shakes her strongly and leaves her desperately as well. At this point, she shifts from a little child into a young girl who tries to think and understand life and grasp a new sense of the world around her. Death of her friend Khaddouja and the deterioration of her father's health at the same time change her completely. The family's doctor advises them to change the scenery. To reduce the burden of depression, thus, they decide to move to the town as the best solution for the whole family.

During this stage, the young girl starts “to get used to [her parents’] problems;” she learns to listen without interfering, while in the past, she tried to avoid hearing them, either by “stick[ing] her braid in her ears” (Khedairi, 2001, 90) or running away to her room. But such new kind of adaptation causes her to suffer from insomnia, especially after hearing that her parents may get divorced:

> I learned to drop problems that weighed me down. It was a situation that my mother hated. I felt that she wanted me on her side at the time of her greatest distress, but I couldn't decide who the victim was. (Khedairi, 2001, 91)

Through the course of the first half of the story, the writer intends to build a parallelism between two contrasting environments, each reflecting a sharp different image. The first image reflects the genuine Iraqi environment with its simplicity, purity, sincerity, and tenderness represented by Khaddouja and her family who support each other strongly. On the other side lies the image of the narrator’s house where the atmosphere is full of family tension, dissatisfaction, misunderstanding, continuous dispute, violence, and unstable relationship. The mother spends time with her English friend David that has developed gradually into an affair. She drifts further from her family until finally her husband cannot handle her western indiscretions and begins to impose more restrictions on her. Through this comparison the writer intends to present a critique of the bourgeois way of life. Although the Western world is sustained by education, money, modern equipment and high cultivation, it does not represent the best world even in comparison to the poor uneducated intimate world of Za’farania in which the daughter “never felt like a stranger” (Khedairi, 2001, 36). She confesses that though they call her “the foreign woman’s daughter” (ibid, 37), they still welcome her “in any hut [she] chose to enter.” She even prefers their scary stories over her mother’s fine stories: “The magic of the river beckons to us. But [Khaddouja’s family] had frightened us with the story of the Siluwa monster, who rises from the water to swallow little children… In spite of that, I still preferred her to Snow White” (ibid, 36).

Examining the identity of the narrator, the novel can be read as the problem of hybridity and hyphenated existence that many people experience in an increasingly globalized and transnational world. Sherry Simon, the well-known translator and cultural writer, speculates that “the existence of large diasporic and migrant communities in movement across the globe makes any fixed definition of hybrid identities difficult” (Simon, 2000, 21). The protagonist occupies a special situation as member of minority, which is a situation not easy to accept. When she thinks of East-West binaries of her identity separately, she feels confused between them. But when she takes the same two elements together, she finds herself face to face with her own specificity. For example, when someone asks her where she is from, she replies, “I am not from here, nor am I from there. That is the problem... I am the product of a contrasting mixture” (Khedairi, 2001, 43). This statement shows clearly her blurred vision of identity. She can never have the feeling of being entirely belonging to one place. ‘The ambivalent space of cultural identity’ as Bhabha called it will create a cultural difference or a “third space” which is a space between two poles. It is a space of cultural creation where two cultures are mixed. The narrator occupies a special place where cultures overlap and produce a more complex figure and identity. It is a “feeling neither here nor there, unable to indulge in sentiments of belonging to either place” (McLeod, 2010, 217).

Even the father and the mother who fell in love and got married, can never perceive their identity in the same way as does a couple of the same nationalities. As stated by Maalouf “both partners will always carry within them the ties their parents handed down at birth, but these ties will henceforth be perceived differently and accorded a different importance" (Maalouf, 2014, 11). Even after her return to England, she no longer feels as a British woman. She has lost the sense of belonging to her original homeland too. In the following dialogue, she confesses to her daughter that when she looks back at her life, she finds only loss and failure:

- I can no longer remember what I fought against in the past.
- Have you forgotten your loneliness, the strange culture and language, and the unbearable heat?
- I've never in my life felt that I am such a failure as I do now.
- I failed in so many different ways. I became pregnant with you by mistake, and I failed to correct that mistake ... please don't misunderstand me.
- Then I got married ... and I failed to make my husband happy ...
- Then I emigrated, and failed to understand my husband's culture ...
- Then I loved a man from my own background behind my husband's back, and even there I failed, and could not keep my lover.
- Her summing up of her life resembles a telegram, its segments separated by sighs composed of the word "Then."...
- I stopped belonging here when I left England and decided to try and belong to the East. In spite of all my efforts, I could not belong there either, and now that I'm back here again, I find that I no longer belong to my original homeland. Everything is so different.
- Why are you talking like this, as if tomorrow will not come? We have so much time to correct the past, and to talk about these things. She smiles helplessly.
- It is a foolish notion, this question of belonging. We only belong to the shadows of our bodies which follow us around as long as we're alive. (Khedairi, 2001, 200-201)

In the novel, it is noticeable that the narrator's mind is loaded with childhood memories that are aroused now and then throughout the work. Some of them are conscious and others are presented through dreams. It is nostalgia for the past and for her homeland. In England, she speculates: "I wish that row of palm trees would disappear from my dreams" (Khedairi, 2001, 197). She transcribes her thoughts and emotions interiorly within her mind: "I close my eyes, inhaling the fragrances, wishing it was the Shorja market in Baghdad" (ibid, 198).

With the death of the protagonist's mother, the sense of being a stranger is been aggravated more inside her psyche. She has been left alone in a country she half belongs to, with her eyes contemplating on her homeland, which is suffering hard conditions. War, with its grim effects, has intensified her sense of fragmented identity that she tries to form but in vain. In the words of Ghazoul, "this subtle and moving novel is first and foremost a plea for life and harmony in a world full of strife" (Ghasoul, 2003). It is meant to draw attention to the chasm between cultures.

Additionally, as mentioned in prior examples, the situation exhibits complexities not only through politics and war but also through identity, culture, and how one reads the subaltern or the "Third World" person as the "Other". A major problem with this is that when this "Other" is nameless and faceless and perceived as inferior, it is easier for the consciousness to accept the atrocities and injustices implemented onto to the "Other", an issue Judith Butler is concerned with. The text of Khedairi helps dispel the concerns Butler raises by presenting an image of a humanized illustration of Iraqis. These Iraqi characters are real people with real problems with real sufferings, and only when one reads their stories and understands their suffering will one feel the empathy needed to break the dehumanized perceptions Butler discusses.

Conclusion

Betool Khedairi's A Sky so Close construes the representation of "Third Space" and Multiculturalism as a relevant category of literary and cultural analysis; often in conjunction with a focus on gender, class and issues. The mother may appear to embody a simplistic Western-defined feminist standpoint she is in fact a deeply layered character with a complex relationship to her unstable home environment. The novel contrasts two antithetical cultural ways of perception triggered by different social traditions and norms, which the young female protagonist painstakingly tries to assimilate. The daughter's mixing with the children of the rural area always elicits a conflict between the father and the mother. The mother who comes from a Western country never accepts her daughter's mingling with the 'other'. The essence of this remark comes from a place of white colonialism; the view that is rooted in a dominant, white oriented place defines the other culture as uncivilized, strange, and different from the mainstream. This relativity of values, of ways of seeing and living informs the reader about cultural differences which the novel record through the narrator's reaction towards her parents' conflicting understanding of traditions and freedoms, their definitions of civilization, their notions of filth and disease, and their particularities with regard to eating habits and sleeping preferences.

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'FACEBOOK ON THE NET – TEACHER'S FACE IN THE CLASS': Can Teacher's Non-verbal Communication in Class Oral Discourse Make a Difference in Iraqi University Students' Scores?

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University of Mosul, Iraq

Abstract

Wordless messages play a powerful daily role as we think of the thousands of non-verbal messages in our personal and professional lives. Terms like "body language", "gestures", "proximix", "eye-contact", "paralinguistics", "haptics", and "silence" are important in the study of communication. The present study suggests that teacher's nonverbal behaviours have effects on students' test performance in some Iraqi university classes. Eight teachers of 4th–year college students, including males and females, at the Dept. of English, Faculty of Arts, University of Mosul, Iraq were chosen in the 2017-2018 academic year and observed in eight hour-long classes (both Linguistics and Literature Classes). In order to test the teachers' productive use of non-verbal communication, an observation checklist was developed and used to capture the movements and signs used by the teachers and their effective roles in the class, achieving a variety of pedagogical scenarios.

Key words: teacher's non-verbal communication, teacher's oral discourse, teaching/learning English as a foreign language, student's scores, Iraqi university class

Electric communication will never be a substitute for the face of someone who with their soul encourages another person to be brave and true. - Charles Dickens (Psychology Today, n.d)

Introduction

It mattered in the past and matters again today if we have the verbal ability and voice - as means of communication - of sharing ideas, feelings, and attitudes. It is quite fascinating to bear in mind that verbal communication does not only fulfill the modern man of today. Here comes the role of non–verbal communication. The process of receiving and sending wordless messages is tremendous and powerful in our daily lives. Part of the literature also supports the existence of non-verbal communication within man himself, in fiction and in art as an up-to-date attempt shows (Al-Halawachy, 2008).

According to research, our communication consists of 35% verbal communication and 65% non-verbal communication. This indicates that our body language helps our interlocutors identify us, our emotions, status, and even our lifestyle. Although non-verbal communication can be understood by all people, not only by a certain group of people, as verbal communication can be understood, yet it is culturally specific. What is accepted in one culture may be a big 'NO' in other cultures. Building on this, some people consider non-verbal communication or body language ambiguous and not universal. Even the proportion of our emotional communication that is expressed apart from words surely exceeds 99% which is a ratio to be highly considered (Givens, 2006).

For sure, our communication is composed of verbal and non-verbal communication which have some kind of similarities and/or differences. People might prefer some types of non-verbal acts to others reflecting their personal ideologies as far as their AGE, GENDER, OCCUPATION and CULTURAL NORMS are concerned. Thus, those non-verbal clues which are less preferred are minor for the participants (Al-Halawachy, 2008).

In the current study, the goal is to highlight the role of body language communication in the university class atmosphere raising one basic question which is: How does teacher's body language function to achieve a variety of pedagogical scenarios in the class? Teacher's non- verbal communication could help them solve the problems that they often complain about such as discipline, lack of attention, and motivation on the part of the students.

For some of us, the first day in school is unforgettable! Remembering the building, teachers, and peers is a sort of imaginary world which regains joy. Unfortunately, for some others, it was a burden on their parents' shoulders to get them into the class. Tears and cries might change the class into a mess! Within that mess, the teacher's role sounds as first aid for both parties. A smile on the face, a touch, handclaps, a close posture and some other non-verbal means would build that necessary rapport between the teacher and the young learner in her/his new environment - the class. Psychologically, that rapport between teacher and student is, in turn, the core stone in education. The teacher's movements between the ails in the class while explaining material, smiling while asking a question, clapping hands while assessing young learner's activities are but means to have a warm classroom environment. Literature shows that non-verbal communication is but a tool used by teachers to achieve better pedagogical goals, if not the best ones, due to its significant positive effects on children's performance.

Problem of the study

Though there is a bulky literature on teacher's non-verbal communication globally, it is still an unresearched area in Iraq, to the best of our knowledge. Apart from some teachers who hold active classes, more often Iraqi teachers perform a solo on the podium. Two questions summarize the problem on the part of the teacher - It is not what to say it? But how to say it?

Purpose of the study

Observing teachers presenting the lectures in different classes with and/or without non-verbal techniques for years and relaying on observation checklist one of the 4th-year students was suggested to work on her undergraduate project tackling part of the issues in the present work. The aim was:

1. shedding light on non-verbal teacher's role in Iraqi education;

2. investigating how Iraqi teacher's body language or non-verbal techniques could support their verbal language in achieving good academic goals in Iraqi university class; 4th-year students as a case;

3. showing differences and/or similarities among Iraqi teacher's body language techniques in general,

4. finding out Iraqi teachers' body language techniques' effect on the students' performance in the first semester exam at the Dept. of English College of Arts, University of Mosul;

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5. Iraqi teachers should pay attention to their non-verbal communication as most of the interpersonal communication is non-verbal, as many communication experts believe (Zekia, 2009).

6. attracting the attention of educators, teachers, and experts in Iraq to the significance role of non-verbal communication skills at university level.

Motivation and hypotheses

Based on my experience as a staff member at the Dept. of English, College of Arts, University of Mosul, I decided to investigate to what extent teacher's non-verbal communication supports the verbal communication in Iraqi higher education class, and the way(s) it affects the teaching process and the teacher's pedagogical goals using a variety of techniques. I am accustomed to use non-verbal communication in the class, and students feel that it is interesting to attend my class.

The present work hypothesizes the following:

1. Iraqi EFL teacher's body language such as gestures, hand movements, eye contact, facial expressions and others could help her/him convey the information in the pertinent class they teach.

2. It is also hypothesized that certain types of body language are said to be more frequent in certain classes than others at Iraqi University.

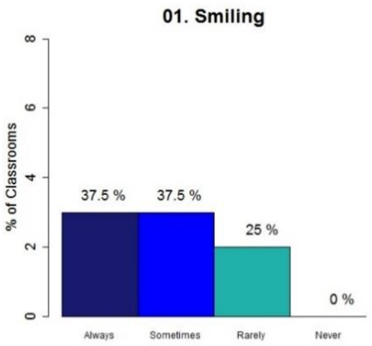
3. Some types of non-verbal communication are presupposed to function positively to achieve a variety of pedagogical goals in Iraqi university class.

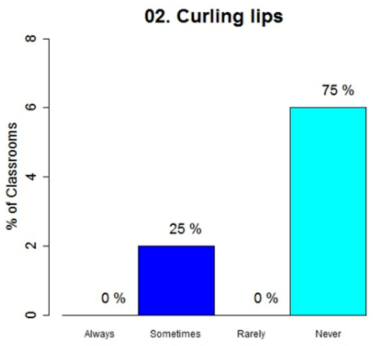
Methodology and participants

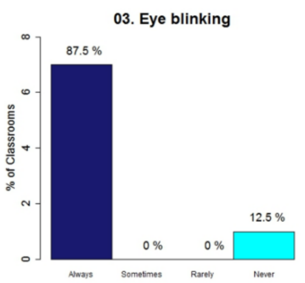
Eight teachers of 4th-year college students, including males and females, at the Dept. of English, College of Arts, University of Mosul, Iraq were chosen in the 2017-2018 academic year and observed in eight hour-long classes (both Linguistics Classes and Literature classes). In order to test the teachers' productive use of non-verbal communication, I used the observation checklist to capture the movements and signs of the teachers and their effective roles in the class achieving a variety of pedagogical scenarios.

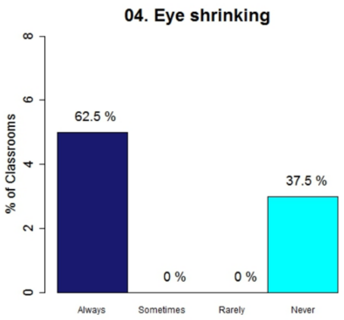
Results

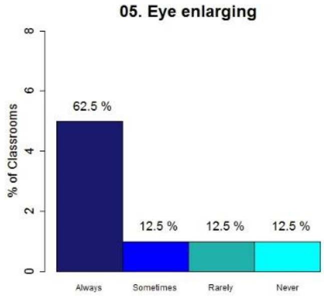
A. Frequency of Iraqi EFL Teacher's Body Language in the University Class

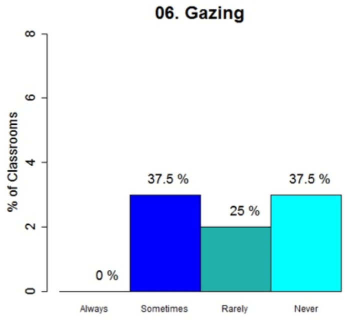


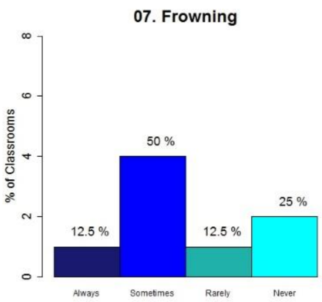


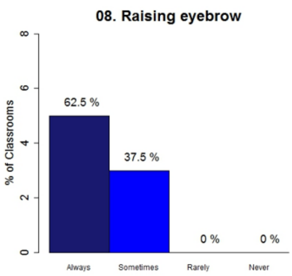


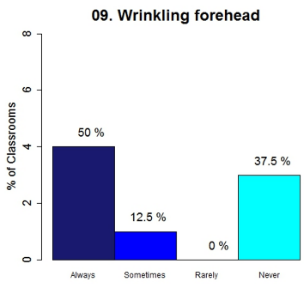

04. Eye shrinking
% of Classrooms
62.5 %
0 %
0 %
37.5 %
Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never

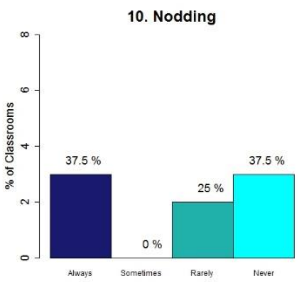

05. Eye enlarging
% of Classrooms
62.5 %
12.5 %
12.5 %
12.5 %
Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never

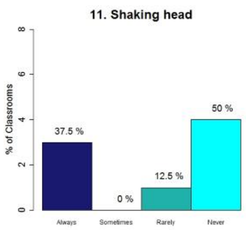

06. Gazing
% of Classrooms
0 %
37.5 %
25 %
37.5 %
Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never

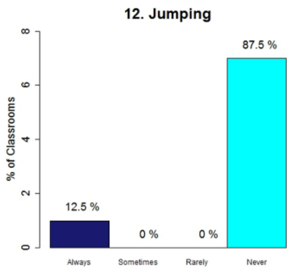

07. Frowning
% of Classrooms
12.5 %
50 %
12.5 %
25 %
Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never

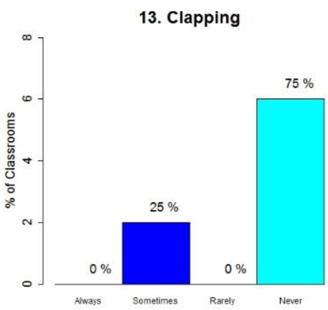

08. Raising eyebrow
% of Classrooms
62.5 %
37.5 %
0 %
0 %
Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never

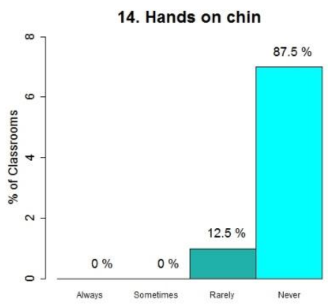

09. Wrinkling forehead
% of Classrooms
50 %
12.5 %
0 %
37.5 %
Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never

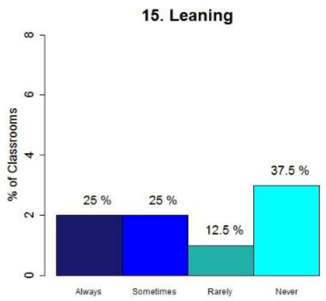

10. Nodding
% of Classrooms
37.5 %
0 %
25 %
37.5 %
Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never

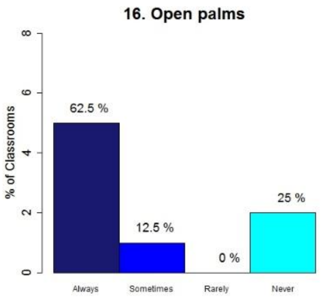

11. Shaking head
% of Classrooms
37.5 %
0 %
12.5 %
50 %
Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never

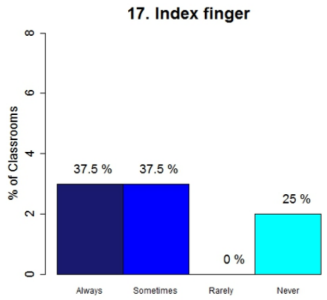

12. Jumping
% of Classrooms
12.5 %
0 %
0 %
87.5 %
Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never

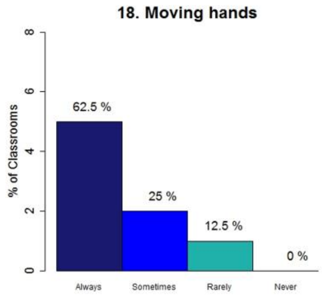

13. Clapping
% of Classrooms
0 %
25 %
0 %
75 %
Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never

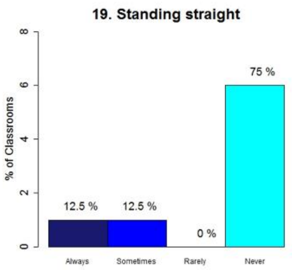

14. Hands on chin
% of Classrooms
0 %
0 %
12.5 %
87.5 %
Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never

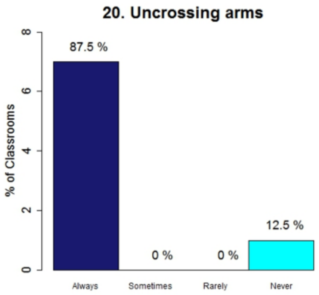

15. Leaning
% of Classrooms
25 %
25 %
12.5 %
37.5 %
Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never

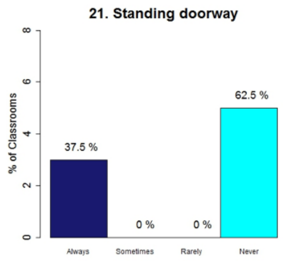

16. Open palms
% of Classrooms
62.5 %
12.5 %
0 %
25 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never

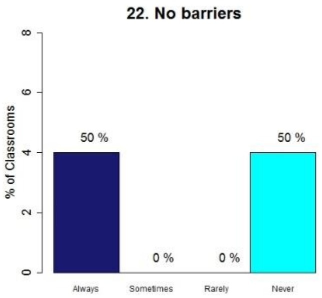

17. Index finger
% of Classrooms
37.5 %
37.5 %
0 %
25 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never

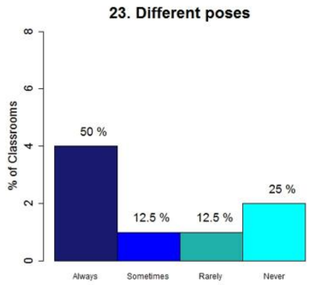

18. Moving hands
% of Classrooms
62.5 %
25 %
12.5 %
0 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never

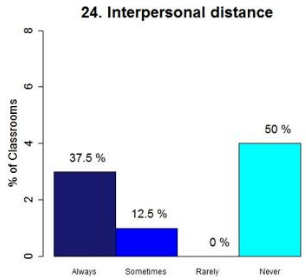

19. Standing straight
% of Classrooms
12.5 %
12.5 %
0 %
75 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never

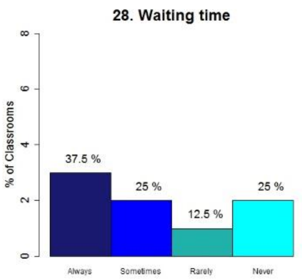

20. Uncrossing arms
% of Classrooms
87.5 %
0 %
0 %
12.5 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never

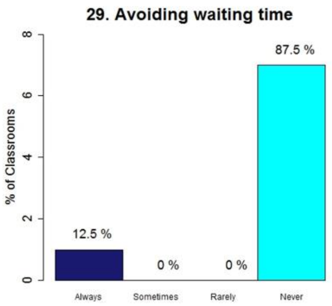

21. Standing doorway
% of Classrooms
37.5 %
0 %
0 %
62.5 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never

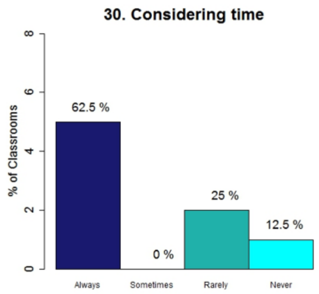

22. No barriers
% of Classrooms
50 %
0 %
0 %
50 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never

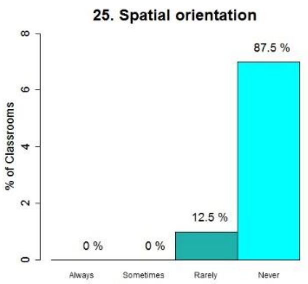

23. Different poses
% of Classrooms
50 %
12.5 %
12.5 %
25 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never

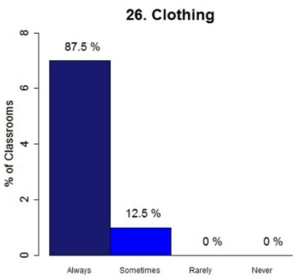

24. Interpersonal distance
% of Classrooms
37.5 %
12.5 %
0 %
50 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never

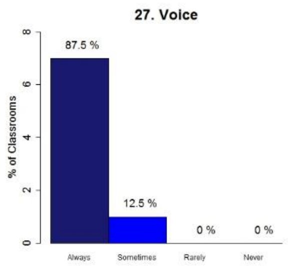

28. Waiting time
% of Classrooms
37.5 %
25 %
12.5 %
25 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never

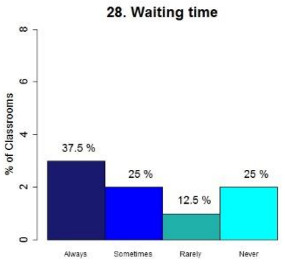

29. Avoiding waiting time
% of Classrooms
12.5 %
0 %
0 %
87.5 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never

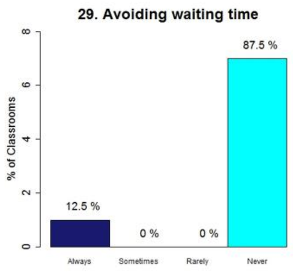

30. Considering time
% of Classrooms
62.5 %
0 %
25 %
12.5 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never

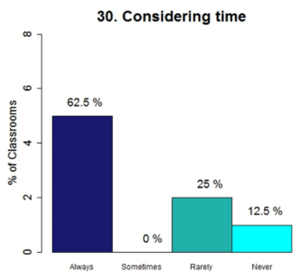

25. Spatial orientation
% of Classrooms
0 %
0 %
12.5 %
87.5 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never


26. Clothing
% of Classrooms
87.5 %
12.5 %
0 %
0 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never


27. Voice
% of Classrooms
87.5 %
12.5 %
0 %
0 %
Always Sometimes Rarely Never







B. Counts of the Pedagogical Scenario achieved by Different Teacher's Behaviours

GOAL 01_Maintaining_order WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

27_Voice (6 classrooms)

07_Frowning (5 classrooms)

20_Uncrossing_arms (5 classrooms)

22_No_barriers (4 classrooms)

23_Different_poses (4 classrooms)

06_Gazing (3 classrooms)

24_Interpersonal_distance (2 classrooms)

26_Clothing (2 classrooms)

01_Smiling (1 classrooms)

09_Wrinkling_forehead (1 classrooms)

12_Jumping (1 classrooms)

13_Clapping (1 classrooms)

19_Standing_straight (1 classrooms)

25_Spatial_orientation (1 classrooms)

30_Considering_time (1 classrooms)

GOAL 02_Authority WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

20_Uncrossing_arms (7 classrooms)

22_No_barriers (4 classrooms)

23_Different_poses (4 classrooms)

26_Clothing (4 classrooms)

27_Voice (4 classrooms)

07_Frowning (3 classrooms)

01_Smiling (2 classrooms)

06_Gazing (2 classrooms)

19_Standing_straight (2 classrooms)

28_Waiting_time (2 classrooms)

02_Curling_lips (1 classrooms)

05_Eye_enlarging (1 classrooms)

09_Wrinkling_forehead (1 classrooms)

13_Clapping (1 classrooms)

14_Hands_on_chin (1 classrooms)

15_Leaning (1 classrooms)

18_Moving_hands (1 classrooms)

21_Standing_doorway (1 classrooms)

24_Interpersonal_distance (1 classrooms)

25_Spatial_orientation (1 classrooms)

30_Considering_time (1 classrooms)

GOAL 03_Joy WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

01_Smiling (4 classrooms)

10_Nodding (2 classrooms)

22_No_barriers (2 classrooms)

02_Curling_lips (1 classrooms)

03_Eye_blinking (1 classrooms)

17_Index_finger (1 classrooms)

19_Standing_straight (1 classrooms)

23_Different_poses (1 classrooms)

24_Interpersonal_distance (1 classrooms)

30_Considering_time (1 classrooms)

GOAL 04_Reward_positive WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

10_Nodding (5 classrooms)

01_Smiling (4 classrooms)

04_Eye_shrinking (1 classrooms)

11_Shaking_head (1 classrooms)

GOAL 05_Reward_negative WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

05_Eye_enlarging (4 classrooms)

06_Gazing (2 classrooms)

08_Raising_eyebrow (2 classrooms)

11_Shaking_head (2 classrooms)

17_Index_finger (2 classrooms)

07_Frowning (1 classrooms)

GOAL 06_Arousing_interest WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

01_Smiling (4 classrooms)

06_Gazing (1 classrooms)

15_Leaning (1 classrooms)

23_Different_poses (1 classrooms)

24_Interpersonal_distance (1 classrooms)

GOAL 07_Helping_speak WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

24_Interpersonal_distance (4 classrooms)

01_Smiling (3 classrooms)

16_Open_palms (3 classrooms)

28_Waiting_time (3 classrooms)

17_Index_finger (2 classrooms)

18_Moving_hands (2 classrooms)

07_Frowning (1 classrooms)

10_Nodding (1 classrooms)

GOAL 08_Explaining WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

08_Raising_eyebrow (6 classrooms)

18_Moving_hands (6 classrooms)

03_Eye_blinking (5 classrooms)

27_Voice (5 classrooms)

05_Eye_enlarging (4 classrooms)

16_Open_palms (4 classrooms)

28_Waiting_time (4 classrooms)

09_Wrinkling_forehead (3 classrooms)

04_Eye_shrinking (2 classrooms)

17_Index_finger (2 classrooms)

23_Different_poses (2 classrooms)

01_Smiling (1 classrooms)

06_Gazing (1 classrooms)

13_Clapping (1 classrooms)

15_Leaning (1 classrooms)

19_Standing_straight (1 classrooms)

22_No_barriers (1 classrooms)

24_Interpersonal_distance (1 classrooms)

GOAL 09_Encouraging_participation WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

24_Interpersonal_distance (4 classrooms)

01_Smiling (3 classrooms)

09_Wrinkling_forehead (2 classrooms)

16_Open_palms (2 classrooms)

28_Waiting_time (2 classrooms)

17_Index_finger (1 classrooms)

23_Different_poses (1 classrooms)

GOAL 10_Embarrassing WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

01_Smiling (2 classrooms)

10_Nodding (2 classrooms)

GOAL 11_Active WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

01_Smiling (3 classrooms)

22_No_barriers (3 classrooms)

23_Different_poses (3 classrooms)

24_Interpersonal_distance (3 classrooms)

27_Voice (3 classrooms)

28_Waiting_time (3 classrooms)

16_Open_palms (2 classrooms)

18_Moving_hands (2 classrooms)

11_Shaking_head (1 classrooms)

13_Clapping (1 classrooms)

15_Leaning (1 classrooms)

19_Standing_straight (1 classrooms)

GOAL 12_Inspiring WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

26_Clothing (5 classrooms)

30_Considering_time (5 classrooms)

21_Standing_doorway (3 classrooms)

20_Uncrossing_arms (2 classrooms)

23_Different_poses (2 classrooms)

06_Gazing (1 classrooms)

07_Frowning (1 classrooms)

09_Wrinkling_forehead (1 classrooms)

12_Jumping (1 classrooms)

19_Standing_straight (1 classrooms)

27_Voice (1 classrooms)

GOAL 13_Enjoyment WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

01_Smiling (3 classrooms)

03_Eye_blinking (3 classrooms)

04_Eye_shrinking (3 classrooms)

13_Clapping (3 classrooms)

15_Leaning (3 classrooms)

18_Moving_hands (3 classrooms)

23_Different_poses (3 classrooms)

05_Eye_enlarging (2 classrooms)

08_Raising_eyebrow (2 classrooms)

11_Shaking_head (2 classrooms)

19_Standing_straight (2 classrooms)

22_No_barriers (2 classrooms)

02_Curling_lips (1 classrooms)

09_Wrinkling_forehead (1 classrooms)

12_Jumping (1 classrooms)

14_Hands_on_chin (1 classrooms)

16_Open_palms (1 classrooms)

24_Interpersonal_distance (1 classrooms)

26_Clothing (1 classrooms)

GOAL 14_Cutting_bored WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

01_Smiling (5 classrooms)

23_Different_poses (5 classrooms)

22_No_barriers (4 classrooms)

27_Voice (3 classrooms)

12_Jumping (1 classrooms)

13_Clapping (1 classrooms)

14_Hands_on_chin (1 classrooms)

15_Leaning (1 classrooms)

16_Open_palms (1 classrooms)

21_Standing_doorway (1 classrooms)

24_Interpersonal_distance (1 classrooms)

GOAL 15_Away_from_podium WAS MENTIONED WITH BEHAVIORS:

19_Standing_straight (4 classrooms)

24_Interpersonal_distance (4 classrooms)

22_No_barriers (3 classrooms)

15_Leaning (2 classrooms)

23_Different_poses (2 classrooms)

Conclusion

According to the statistical package of the study, some Iraqi teachers' behaviours sound to be pivotal in eight 4th – year university classes as observed in the observation checklist. The ratios for *smiling* is (37.5%) and for *eye blinking* is (87.5%). The ratio for *eye shrinking*, *eye enlarging*, *raising eyebrows* is (62.5%). *Wrinkling forehead* is always used by Iraqi teachers in the university class and its ratio is (50%).For *nodding*, and *shaking head*, (37.5%) represents the ratio of the teachers which accompany their oral discourse with these two behaviours while explaining a variety of classes. *Opening Palms* scores the highest ratio which is (62.5%) that is 'always' used by Iraqi teachers in the university class. *Index finger* is 'always' used by teachers and its ratio is (37.5%).*Moving hands* is a behaviour which is always there to score (62.5%). For *uncrossing arms* (87%) of the Iraqi teachers accompanies their discourse with this behaviour. It sounds that for (50%) of the Iraqi teachers, there are *no barriers* between them and their students in the university class. It is also significant that (50%) of the teachers takes *different poses* while presenting the lectures. Teacher's appearance also supports her/his oral presentation ; Iraqi teachers ' always' prove to care about *clothing* as the statistical package shows which is (87.5%).*Voice* is undoubtedly a very basic non-verbal tool in teaching at university ; (87.5%) is the highest ratio which represents 'always' frequency. It is embarrassing for many students not to be given some time to answer teacher's questions in the class, yet Iraqi teachers find it a good behaviour to foster teaching /learning process as the ratio shows which is (37.5%) for *waiting time* behaviour. *Considering time* in the class is essential for Iraqi teachers; (62.5%) is the highest ratio which represents the frequency of this type of non-verbal – communication in the class.

As to the pedagogical goals achieved via teacher's non-verbal communication in the Iraqi university class, results could be given below for the highest counts.

- GOAL 01_Maintaining_order... achieved via 27_Voice (6 classrooms)
- GOAL 02_Authority ... 20_Uncrossing_arms (classrooms)
- GOAL 03_Joy ... 01_Smiling (4 classrooms)
- GOAL 04_Reward_positive ... 10_Nodding (5 classrooms)
- GOAL 05_Reward_negative ... 05_Eye_enlarging (4 classrooms)
- GOAL 06_Arousing_interest ... 01_Smiling (4 classrooms)
- GOAL 07_Helping_speak ... 01_Smiling (3 classrooms) , 16_Open_palms (3 classrooms), 28_Waiting_time (3 classrooms)

- GOAL 08_Explaining... 08_Raising_eyebrow (6 classrooms), 18_Moving_hands (6 classrooms)
- GOAL 09_Encouraging_participation... 24_Interpersonal_distance (4 classrooms)
- GOAL 10_Embarrassing... 01_Smiling (2 classrooms) , 10_Nodding (2 classrooms)
- GOAL 11_Active... 01_Smiling (3 classrooms), 22_No_barriers (3 classrooms), 23_Different_poses (3 classrooms), 24_Interpersonal_distance (3 classrooms), 27_Voice (3 classrooms), 28_Waiting_time (3 classrooms)
- GOAL 12_Inspiring...26_Clothing (5 classrooms), 30_Considering_time (5 classrooms)
- GOAL 13_Enjoyment ... 01_Smiling (3 classrooms),03_Eye_blinking (3 classrooms) 04_Eye_shrinking, (3 classrooms), 13_Clapping (3 classrooms,)15_Leaning (3 classrooms),18_Moving_hands (3 classrooms), 23_Different_poses (3 classrooms)
- GOAL 14_Cutting_bored ...01_Smiling (5 classrooms) 23_Different_poses (5 classrooms)
- GOAL 15_Away_from_podium...19_Standing_straight (4 classrooms) 24_Interpersonal_distance (4 classrooms)

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APPENDIX -1-

Observation Checklist of Iraqi EFL Teacher's Body Language in University Class

Teacher's Body Language Techniques
in Iraqi EFL University
Class Observation Checklist

Teacher: ________________ **College:** **Faculty of Arts** **Dept.:** **Dept. of English**

Class observed: ________________ **No. of Students:** _______ **Start:** _______ **Finish:** _______ **Date:** ______

No.	**Items of EFL Teacher's Body Language Techniques**	**Scale of Frequency**	**Pedagogical Scenarios of EFL Teacher's Body Language Techniques**
1	**Smiling**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	Maintaining order and excellent classroom management when students in the back held private conversation 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
2	**Curling the lips**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	Keeping teacher's legitimate higher authority or responsibility to the class 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30

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3	**Eye blinking**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	Filling the depressing atmosphere in Iraqi EFL university class with joy and delight 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
4	**Eye shrinking**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	Giving immediate and /or deferred reward to student's positive performance and/or behavior 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
5	**Eye enlarging**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	Giving immediate and /or deferred reward to student's negative performance and/or behavior 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30

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6	**Gazing**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	Arousing student's interest in the subject area being taught since some areas sound boring and not easy for EFL learners 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
7	**Frowning**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	Helping the student to speak in front of the teacher and her/his peers in the class 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
8	**Raising eyebrow**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	Giving the student a chance to pay more attention to the teacher while explaining the class 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30

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9	**Wrinkling forehead**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	Encouraging students both talented and non-talented to participate in the activities assigned by the teacher 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
10	**Nodding**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	Being like way-out to the teacher when an embarrassing topic is being discussed 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
11	**Shaking the head**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	Keeping students active rather than bored and sleepy 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30

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12	**Jumping**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	Inspiring the students to take classes seriously and regularly whose teachers are regular and punctual 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
13	**Clapping**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	Uplifting student's enjoyment and attention in learning due to the teacher’s physical appearance 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
14	**Putting hands on chin**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	Cutting student's feeling of being bored listening to a teacher in a monotonous tone 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30

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15	**Leaning**	**Always** **Sometimes** **Rarely** **Never**	Being away from her/his podium, the teacher helps the student's understanding the lecture more 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
16	**Employing open palms**	**Always** **Sometimes** **Rarely** **Never**	
17	**Using index finger**	**Always** **Sometimes** **Rarely** **Never**	

18	Moving the hand(s)	☐ Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Rarely ☐ Never	
19	Standing up straight	☐ Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Rarely ☐ Never	
20	Uncrossing arms and relaxing the body	☐ Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Rarely ☐ Never	

21	**Standing in the doorway of the room when students enter the class**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	
22	**Moving in the whole class and avoiding sitting behind desk or barriers**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	
23	**Adopting different poses**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	

24	**Interpersonal distance**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	
25	**Spatial orientation(i.e., the seating arrangement of the classroom and the way students distributed in the class)**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	
26	**Clothing and physical appearance**	☐ **Always** ☐ **Sometimes** ☐ **Rarely** ☐ **Never**	

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27	Voice modulation	☐ Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Rarely ☐ Never	
28	Observing wait-time given to the students to answer a question	☐ Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Rarely ☐ Never	
29	Avoiding observing wait-time given to the students to answer a question	☐ Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Rarely ☐ Never	

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30	**Considering the concept of time when attending and leaving the class**	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 2 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30	

Observer

Signature _________________ **Date** ____________

BASIC STANDPOINTS FOR ESTABLISHING SUCCESS

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Abstract

Learning English as a foreign language is difficult, because it cannot be learned naturally like learners' mother tongue. Although learning a foreign language means developing all language skills in the target language, usually nowadays developing the ability of authentic communication in English is the main goal of English language courses. Teachers need to be able to solve a variety of problems, often under a tight deadline. They need to answer difficult questions from students on the spot, solve conflicts among students, revise lesson plans, and deal with issues among colleagues. Creating an effective classroom environment is one of the main aspects for the atmosphere of teaching languages. This place is where they will learn the various skills deemed necessary and proper for them to achieve success in the global society. Besides classroom environment an effective warm up serves as a spring-board into the topic or target language of the lesson. Those first few struggling minutes are often the result of class material being inappropriate for warming-up. Motivated learners are every teacher's dream - they are willing to work hard, add their own goals to those of the classroom, focus their attention on the task at hand, preserve thought challenges, continue encouragement, and many even stimulate others in the classroom, promoting collaboration learning.

Keywords: Motivation, collaboration, learning system, success

"The purpose of art is washing the dust of daily life off our souls". Pablo Picasso

Teaching and learning this is the long lasting process in our life. Everyone wants to obtain education. Through its mobility of people and capital, its technologies, and its global information networks, globalization has changed the conditions under which foreign languages (FLs) are taught, learned and used. It has destabilized codes, norms, and conventions that FL educators relied upon to help learners be successful users of the language once they had left their classrooms. These changes call for a more reflective, interpretive, historically grounded, and politically engaged pedagogy than is called for by the communicative language teaching till today.

The process of teaching languages – the teacher, the student, the classroom management , the methodology, the environment, the technology, the materials for teaching, goals that the students gain, skills they reach and at the end the results we see. The course is long, tiring but remarkable. Success with English starts inside us. Without strong emotion and motivation, you will not study powerfully. You will not concentrate powerfully.

My teaching philosophy is based on three pillars, namely, the ideal classroom environment, warm up and motivation. The teacher is among these pillars, who fulfills his/her role as a facilitator in language instruction by providing students with the tools necessary to communicate. Meanwhile, the students fulfill their role by using input they are given as they interact with others in the target language. Foreign language teachers who stay with a class over the years know what the students have learned in terms of vocabulary, grammar and what they can build on. If one takes foreign language teaching seriously one must make sure, as far as possible, that the classes keep the same teacher in each foreign language for many years. Like the juggler who keeps the juggling balls in the air, the foreign language teacher keeps the student's knowledge alive; but the ball must rise higher and higher and they don't only consist of the concrete materials.

Classroom environment

Creating an effective classroom environment is one of the main aspect for the atmosphere of teaching languages. Simply put students learn better when they view the learning environment as positive and supportive (Dorman, Aldrige & Fraser, 2006). A positive environment is one in which students feel a sense of belonging, trust others, and feel encouraged to tackle challenges, take risks, and ask questions (Bucholz & Sheffler, 2009). Such an environment provides relevant content, clear learning goals and feedback, opportunities to build social skills, and strategies to help students succeed (Weimer, 2009).

We all know the factors that can threaten a positive classroom environment: problems that students bring from home, lack of motivation among students whose love of learning has been drilled right out of them, pressures for testing and more. We can't control all these factors, but what if we could implement some simple strategies to buffer against their negative effects? Classroom environment must be conductive to learning so the teacher has to welcome to everyone's opinion' and encourage and respect student differences. Feeling valued, intelligent, safe and comfortable, respect teachers, and each other and show the respect by treating everyone with kindness and caring completely establishing harmonious environment in the classroom.

In conducting this classroom "autopsy", you should be able to pinpoint the moments when teaching and learning process is the most effective, you analyze what leads to these moments, and find the ways to create more of these experiences. As for the less productive moments you identify, the following strategies will help you create an environment that is more conductive to engagement and learning.

Warm up

You have heard" first impressions are lasting; you never get a second chance to create a good first impression". Teachers must be flexible and can deal very effectively with people and students from all background and socio-economic groups. Taking into account teachers aware to know that students have different learning rates and style. The preparation for types of lectures can be quiet different. It can be helpful to look carefully at the subject outline and then put yourselves in their student's shoes. Warm ups and ice-breakings are essential for those classes where everybody is new, including the teachers. They will allow everyone to relax and get to know each other. It is also important for a number of reasons. The students need a chance to settle down into the class and get their minds focused on the lesson ahead. Delving straight into difficult subject matter isn't going to help them in the least bit. We need to slow ease people into learning, starting them off with something easy and slowly becoming more and more complex. This is generally how a course runs, and in a good way the class is much like a miniature course within course. The students need something easy to get them started, so the wheels in their head can start turning, so to speak. There are also numerous warm-up techniques which teachers use. Testing vocabulary is usually one of the most obvious ones that teachers will use. Well planned, effective warm up offers more towards the lesson than just a bit of fun.

Because it's the first activity of the lesson, the warm up sets the tone for the next hour. An activity that students find too difficult, or ever confusing, results in a class of disinterested zombies. Similarity, a writing-based activity won't get the students communicating. This then translate into a quiet class session in which you have to prod and push the students to volunteer examples or simple answers. A fun warm up, on the other hand, raises energy levels. Fun activities also produce relaxed, less inhibited students .With right warm up, you'll have created a positive atmosphere to practice and experiment with the language. This activity is advised to have a warm up session the first five minutes of the class. Students need to get from speaking their own language to speaking English. It is important to give them some time to get used to speaking English. This way they will also increase in their confidence and relate back to the last topic, helping them to lose their inhibitions.

Last but not least, the warm up opens the class session, it sets the atmosphere and expectations of the lesson. It also allows teachers important assessment opportunities, which will later determine the type of activities, who will partner with whom, and the scope of the lesson. Always give equal consideration to the warm up as to other steps of the lesson. The result will be a more focused and positive group of students performing to your expectation.

Motivation

The word" motivation" is typically defined as the forces that account for the arousal, selection, and continuation of behavior. Actually, it is often used to describe certain sorts of behavior. A student who studies hard and tries for top grades may be described as being "highly motivated", while his/ her friend may say that he "finds it hard to get motivated". It has been called the "neglected heart" of language teaching. As teachers, we often forget that all of our learning activities are filtered through our students' motivation. In this sense, students control the flow of the classroom. Without good students' motivation, there is no pulse, there is no life in the class.

Motivated learners are every teacher's dream- they are willing to work hard, add their own goals to those of the classroom, focus their attention on the task at hand, preserve through challenges, do not need continuous encouragement, and may even stimulate others in the classroom, promoting collaborative learning. However, we all know that the motivation behind our learners' learning varies widely, ebbs and flows over the course of the year (or even during a single classroom activity), and stems from various sources, internal to the learner, external, or both. As teachers we can generally see who is motivated and who is not, and often we may wonder how or even if we can harness the motivation of some and spread it out to others. Tapping into motivation is crucial for language teachers because we know that motivation is one of the key factors driving language learning success.

There are three levels of motivation in language learning that are "operational", or accessible to direct influence by the teacher. The First level of Motivation: Finding Learner's Passion.

Passion means a person's central goal in life, the things the learner cares about most, the things that move him or her emotionally. It doesn't mean that a learner needs to become passionate about learning English in order to succeed. Another way of helping learners find their passion is by organizing class activities around the theme of self-expression.

The Second level of Motivation: Changing Learner's Reality. A typical learning needs a minimum of four hours a week of quality contact with language in order to make progress. Even if this estimate is not true for all learners, it is clear to most EFL teachers that learners need more language instruction that teachers can provide in their classrooms. Learners need more quality instruction- input, interaction and opportunities for meaningful output- not only to make progress, but in order to maintain a sufficiently strong connection to the good language and to build their own motivation for learning.

The Third level of Motivation: Connecting to Learning Activities. Connective refers to the engagement of intention, attention, and memory in the activities itself. All teachers want their students to connect with the learning activities they prepare, yet they often fail to take concrete steps that will lead to better connection: aiming all learners involving in the warm up; using provocative topics; and including visual aids (pictures, charts) and tangible references(games, boards, index cards) to engage students' attention. One of the successful ways, if the teacher is resourceful and skilful enough, to motivate his/her students to participate in the lesson is to use " pair work" or "Group work" appropriately. Language is best learned through the close collaboration and communicating among students. And the last step is providing feedback on all levels of language progress. Progress in language involves more than just gradual mastery of grammar and vocabulary. Give feedback on elements of performance that affect learners' motivation: their success in an activity and their level of engagement.

Conclusion

Teaching is art. The arts play an important role in everyday life of people. We do not have to be talented artists or study art at university to be able to appreciate art in any of its manifold forms. The arts enrich our lives, expand our sense of aesthetics, and in the context of the foreign language learning, they can serve as an invaluable tool for language teachers to give instructions, demonstrate and explain; and for language learners to learn vocabulary and practice language in various context.

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CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT CHARACTERISTICS AND PLANNING STEPS FOR AVIATION ENGLISH

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Abstract

English Language gained its strength all around the world as a main tool of communication. To meet the needs of learners, to construct and achieve goals requires a streamlined curriculum. Curriculum development represents a dynamic process, especially with regard to English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Designing ESP curriculum across its branches became an issue amongst educators that requires an individual approach. Some of these fields, involving Business English, English for Legal Professionals, etc., are well enough studied, however, some still are under flourishing needs analysis in depth in order to increase awareness and appropriate application. Aviation English is a very specific field amongst specifics, and on day after day basis the international specialist interests is growing within its different context. Though aviation English is integrated with general English, the ways of designing an aviation English curriculum and applying it in practice has not been explored that much. The aim of this paper is to investigate and juxtapose characteristic features and planning steps needed for developing the aviation English curriculum.

Key words: Curriculum, aviation English, needs analysis, characteristic features, ESP

Introduction

Successful communication plays a vital role in multicultural environment provoked by skyrocketed development of science, business relations and available education in English language speaking countries (Lewis, 2008). Historically English for specific purposes gained its strength after the following events Second World War, Oil crisis, applied linguistics new application of problem solving approach and considering psychology as a tool used for language acquisition. However, key factor was to avoid misunderstanding while using language since "language varies as its function varies, it differs in different situations" (Bhatia & Bhatia, 2011, p. 25). Educators deem that the revealed main difference between General English (GE) and ESP is learners need which itself represents cornerstone of ESP.

Aviation English within ESP context represents a field that requires worldwide concentration for safety purposes, since the number of incidents and accidents took lots of life all around the world (Alderson, 2011). Those events contributed setting of language proficiency requirements for aviation staff namely pilots, controllers, engineers, and flight attendants. Though, the sphere is very important, especially nowadays when the aviation is blooming in teaching, assessing and course development aviation English is not that much explored as other branches of ESP. From that perspective, curriculum development draws particular attention for achieving teaching and assessing goals.

General characteristic features of ESP curriculum

As it was already mentioned ESP focus is made on learners' need that enable them to communicate in a specific content domain. This issue and syllabus together represent key factors of ESP course development. Thus, ESP curriculum development reveals that this field is still experiences evolution and ESP specialists have to design their own goals, objectives and learning materials as well as.

Dudley-Evans and St.John (1998) underlined absolute and variable characteristics of ESP Courses. They made differentiation in order to point out similarities and differences between GE and ESP. According to them absolute characteristics of ESP courses reflects the following: firstly it is oriented to meet the specific needs of learners, secondly ESP enables users application of methodology and activities for particular fields it serves and finally it is centered on an appropriate language skills and discourse usable for that activities.

As for the variable characteristics they covers ESP as a field that is designed for particular disciplines, ESP may use different teaching methods application rather than used in general English, it is developed for adult learners at intermediate or advanced level and ESP course assumes that students already are familiar with the basics of the language (Dudley-Evans & St.John, 1998).

Apart from absolute and variable characteristics, ESP reflects features of broad and narrow approaches. Language use in different context alongside the language skills and competences are inseparable part of students' specific needs that is deemed as broad approach while using ESP. According to the narrow notion of ESP its focus is made on restricted language comprising particular teaching terms and discourse as well. However, it worth mentioning that, even if the curriculum developers consider all features sometimes the specific course is shifted from specific to general course. This event is contributed by three main factors. The first factor concludes the fact that students are not always at intermediate level of the language and ESP course is difficult to be acquired. The second one reflects the following: the course is much more expensive rather than the general since it requires research before implementation. Thirdly, the specialist who are trained in the specific field in order to meet the need of the learners should deliver these courses.

To sum up the characteristic features of ESP curriculum, notable part is to underline its main types. The classification from that perspective points out the place of aviation English in these schemata as well. As Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) advocate ESP comprises two main parts: EAP- English for Academic Purposes and EOP- English for Occupational Purposes. Aviation English for aviation personal is separated according to EAP and EOP:

EOP includes English for: air traffic controllers, pilots, cabin attendants, ground staffs, security personnel, maintenance staffs, and service men in terminal building; and EST comprises English for: air navigation, airport design and construction, aircraft manufacture and operation, aviation rules and regulations, meteorology, avionics energy saving and emission mitigation. Thus, if the aim of the specialists is to develop a curriculum for aviation engineers, pilots, controllers etc. they have to consider necessary steps for planning. These planning steps are presented within ESP context (Lin, Wang, & Zhang, 2014).

Planning steps for developing aviation English curriculum within ESP context

While speaking about ESP course design no matter whether it is for pilots, engineers or others, the curriculum development goes through design, implementation and evaluation stages (Diamond, 2008).

Designing the course of ESP is deemed to be the first stage involving "analyzing students need, designing the course syllabus, selecting methodology and materials" (Belyaeva, 2015, p. 77). It worth to note here that alongside the learners need target situation should be discussed as well. With this respect educators underline 1. Target-situation needs analysis; 2. Present-situation; 3. Strategy analysis; 4. Means analysis and 5. Language audit.

The first two types of needs analysis generally are discussed together in ESP and refers to point out a situation where learners would be able to use the language, what is more "focuses on the students' language common prior to ESP instruction" (Belyaeva, 2015, p. 77).

Strategy analysis underlines students' learning style for identifying appropriate application of teaching methods.

Means analysis deems instruments for teaching and as well as trained personal. As for the language audit, this particular needs analysis is applied when the issue is whether employees need to be taught ESP courses or not (Gatehouse, 2001).

Learners' needs analysis is not enough for curriculum development. The next step in this term is to design syllabus that can be content based, skill based or method based. However, it is common to meet either combination of content and method based syllabus or content and skill based syllabi rather than the individual application of mentioned syllabi types.

The second stage so called implementation covers teaching issues. The method of delivering the ESP course should be studied in depth since the method and selection of the materials overlaps each other. Researchers take into consideration the fact that for ESP courses working on authentic materials is crucial through which learners are more motivated as they can produce the language in various life resemble situations. Thus, ESP course should prevent from using only specialized discourse that may lead to limited use of the language. With this respect if specialists keep abilities like usage of special phrases, plain language and specific language skills and communication in different social settings later enable them to achieve course aims (Dudley-Evans, 1998; Lin, Wang & Zhang, 2014).

The third phase with regard curriculum development is obtaining feedback from instructors, coordinators, and as well as from students. This approach enables specialists to explore advantages and disadvantages of the curriculum and make amendments accordingly (Diamond, 2008).

Conclusion

In conclusion, to design curriculum for aviation English as a part of ESP educators have to take into consideration number of factors that will contribute adequacy of the course, namely general features of ESP courses and planning steps and they are on the one hand the needs analysis, syllabus design, material preparation, the ability to provide and obtain appropriate feedback and, on the other hand balancing content of the course with plain and specific language to communicate in various occupational segments, learners expectations and limitations of the course as well. However, the role of financial aids and trained specialists should be deemed, explored in details and applied in practice for better understanding of the topic.

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ENGLISH AND FRENCH PROVERVIAL LANGUAGE AS A REFLECTION OF CULTURAL ASPECTS

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Abstract

Proverbs have many linguistic peculiarities. They also express social and cultural aspects of our life and represent a reflection of cultural aspects; thus, language and culture are closely related to each other. One of the difficulties that a learner may face when studying proverbs is the fact that some words, phenomena and even content of proverbs are deeply rooted in their original culture; they are very specific and unique and do not have equivalents in the target language. Even though English and French are related languages, cultural differences exist between the two languages and, therefore, sometimes it is very difficult to achieve a successful transfer. Native speakers use proverbs to share certain subtleties of expression, e.g. humor, irony, erudition and others. Thus, while not completely understanding the underlying figurative meaning and cultural connotations of these expressive components of speech, learners may experience certain linguistic and cultural misunderstandings that would hinder their interaction with the English and French languages. The article deals with the problems of translating proverbial language with reference to cultural aspects, gives examples of proverbs showing a lack of equivalence between these two languages and cultures. The study identifies the similarities and differences between the above-mentioned target languages.

Key words: nature of proverbs, proverbial language, target languages, cultural aspects, linguistic peculiarities

Introduction

As far as it's known, there are the various verbal folklore genres like fairy tales, legends, tall tales, proverbs, jokes and others. However, it should be noted from this variety, proverbs are the shorter but not inevitably the simplest form. In general, the proverb is a particular case of a fixed sentence characterized by rhythmic, metaphorical and semantic-pragmatic features, part of the treasure of empirical advice accumulated over the time by the popular wisdom (Ascombre, 2000: 7).

Proverbs offer us the opportunity to make our ready-made comments on personal relationships and on social affairs as well. Of course, when the proper proverb is well chosen for a particular situation, it will become an effective strategy of our communication. Accordingly, due the reason, proverbs have not lost their usefulness and their "charm" even in our modern society.

"Proverbs can be used in everyday conversation, journalistic writing, advertising, speeches of all types, in sermons, literature, debates, slogans, songs, legal argumentation, humorous quips, and other forms of human communications" (Mieder, W., 1986:3). We have a chance to use them in formal as well as informal situations to illustrate our specific point or our idea more effectively. And we can use them for the different purposes: to say something more gently, to give more weight to our speech or writing, or make our conversation or discussion more humorous, effective or more interesting.

There are literally thousands of proverbs in the multitude of cultures and languages of the world. They have been collected and studied for centuries as informative and useful linguistic signs of cultural values and thoughts. The earliest proverb collections stem from the third millennium B.C. and were inscribed on Sumerian cuneiform tablets as commonsensical codes of conduct and everyday observations of human nature. (Mieder, W., 2004:13)

Language is the carrier and container of culture, for all human knowledge and experience are described and stored in language; whereas it is in turn influenced and shaped by culture. They are inextricably intertwined (Xiangyang, Zh. 2016: 277). Thus language and culture are closely related to each other. "Language has a setting…Language does not exist apart from culture, that is, from the socially inherited assemblage of practices and beliefs that determines the texture of our lives" (Sapir, E. 1921:221).

It should be especially point out the fact that, in our open world, barriers have fallen one after the other, and only cultural barriers survive. There is constantly confrontation, miscegenation of cultures. Certainly, the differences are decreasing, but history shows us that all culture remains underpinned, even when it seems to be fading away from an apparently dominant cultural model.

Even though, English and French are related languages, cultural differences exist between the two languages and therefore, sometimes it is very difficult to achieve a successful transfer. Native speakers use proverbs to share certain subtleties of expression. E.g. humor, irony, erudition and others. Thus, while not completely understand the underlying figurative meaning and cultural connotations of these expressive components of speech, learners may experience certain linguistic and cultural misunderstandings that would hinder their interaction with the English and French languages.

One of the difficulties that a learner may face when studying proverbs is the fact that some words, phenomena and even content of proverbs themselves are deeply rooted in their original culture; they are very specific and unique and don't have equivalents in the target language.

The article deals with the problems of translating proverbial language with reference to cultural aspects, gives examples of proverbs the showing a lack of equivalence between these two languages and cultures. The study identifies the similarities and differences between the above-mentioned target languages.

English and French proverbial language

Paremiologists generally determine that the same proverbs occur in many languages. Proverbs, as they come into being through historical development of a nation and are handed down through the years, are closely linked to the living environments, customs and conventions, national psyche, values and beliefs, and religious and literary traditions of a nation (Xiangyang, 1996:275).

According to proverbs origin, English proverbs (as in any other European language) are traditionally divided into native and borrowed (mainly from Latin and French) ones. Origin and sources of English proverbs are very multifarious and are determined by the historical dynamics of the English language, national specificity of British culture and the results of its contacts with other cultures in the world. Folklore, the Holy Scripture, literature (especially the works by William Shakespeare) are the main sources of origin of English proverbs (Ivanov & Petrushevskaia, 2015:864).

It should be noted that in medieval times, many typical British proverbs were handed over from French - more or less as equivalents, and often as direct translations. Just as many French proverbs derive from Latin, and very many British proverbs derive from French ones.

For many French proverbs there is a word-for-word equivalent in English. It's due to much contact in the centuries after the Norman Conquest of England in AD 1066. Normandy and England was a Norman twin realm for a hundred years after that, till the time of King Richard the Lionhearted. The contact went on for centuries after that, affecting the language, manners and rituals of the British.

Cultural Sources Revealed in English and French Proverbs

The characters of nations and their temperaments vary in every climate; they have, however, their endemic generalities, the lightness and cheerfulness of French, British melancholy, Spanish pride, Italian finesse, Swiss sincerity, German phlegm and others. In fact, the peculiar genius of each nation has impressed upon its proverbs a character derived from its temperament and habits. (Mery, 1828: 32-33),

English and French folk proverbs can artistically represent various aspects of our life, social experience, outlook, the originality of artistic attitudes and tastes, mental and ethical and aesthetic values as well.

Proverbs may provide interesting little glimpses or clues to a people's geography, history, social organizations, social views, attitudes. People who live along sea coasts and whose livelihood is dependent on the sea will have proverbs about sailing, about braving the weather, about fish and fishing...In cultures where old age is revered, there will be proverbs about the wisdom of the elders. And in societies where women's status is low, there will be a number of sayings demeaning them. (Deng & Liu, 1989:47-48).

As far as Britain is geographically an island country, with no place more than 110 miles away from the coast English people are bond with sea. That's why one can easily find numerous English proverbs concerning navigation and life on the sea.

E.g. 1) The sea refuses no river.

2) A smooth sea never makes a skilful mariner.

3) He who would catch fish must not mind getting wet.

4) The sea has fish for every man.

5) Living without an aim is like sailing without a compass.

6) Hoist sail when the wind is fair.

It is worth mentioning that English people love talking about the weather. It is the way of "breaking the ice" and starting the conversation. An Englishman talks about the weather not only with his close people but one can easily start the conversation about the same topic with a stranger. And it is quite natural in England. Consequently we find lots of proverbs dedicated to the English weather. Perhaps weather topic predominates other topics in English paremiology which can be characterized as initial cultural aspects of English proverbs.

April showers bring forth May flowers.

There is no such thing as bad weather, only the wrong clothes.

As the day lengthens, so the cold strengthens.

If in February there be no rain, it's neither good for hay nor grain.

Long foretold, long last; short notice, soon past.

So many mists in March, so many frosts in May.

When the oak is before the ash, then you will only get a splash; when the ash is before the oak, then you may expect a soak.

A peck of March dust is worth a king's ransom.

Rain before seven, fine before eleven.

Red sky at night, shepherd's delight; red sky in the morning, shepherd's warning.

Robin Hood could brave all weathers but a thaw wind.

If Saint Paul's day, if thou be fair, for forty days it will remain; Saint Swithun's day, if thou bring rain, for forty days it will remain.

September blow soft till the fruit's in the loft.

The sharper the storm, the sooner it's over.

When the wing is in the east, it's neither good for man nor beast.

Home is an important phenomenon for an Englishman. When people say an Englishman's home is his castle, they mean that British people have all the rights to do what they want in their own home, and that other people or the state should not interfere in their private lives. The phenomenon of "Home" is depicted in various English proverbs:

There is no place like home

East or West, Home is best

An Englishman's home is his castle

Fools build houses and wise men live n them.

The concept of home is closely related with marriage and family in English culture. English people have created numerous proverbs connected with these aspects:

Better one house spoiled than two (said of two foolish or wicked people joined in marriage and troubling only themselves);

Better wed over the mixen than over the moon (It's better to marry a neighbor than a stranger)

Blood is thicker than water (predominantly used to mean that a family connection will outweigh other relations)

Blood will tell (Family characteristics or heredity cannot be concealed).

Why buy a cow when milk is so cheap? (An argument for choosing the least troublesome alternative; frequently used as an argument against marriage).

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

The family that prays together stays together.

It takes three generations to make a gentleman.

Hanging and wiving go by destiny.

Keep your own fish-guts for your own sea-maws.

Marriage is a lottery.

There goes more to Marriage than four bare kegs in a bed.

Marriages are made in heaven.

Never marry for money but marry where money is.

Marry on haste and repent at leisure.

Marry in May, rue for aye.

From shirtsleeves to shirtsleeves in three generation.

The shoemaker's son always goes barefoot.

Wedlock is a padlock.

Happy is the wooling that is not long a-doing.

In the well-known English proverb "An Englishman's house is his castle" is identified by its strong sense of "National characteristics". Thought there are some other proverbs depicting the strong identity of English nation.

Every land has its own loan.

Scratch a Russian and you find a tartar.

In English-speaking countries, however, Christianity is the dominant religion, and one naturally expects to find a number of references to characters or events in Christianity's sacred book the Bible, which is a rich source of English proverbs (Xiangyang, 1996:. 281):

All are not saints that go to church.

Every man must bear his own cross.

Every man has his cross to bear.

The leopard can't change its spots.

Forbidden fruit is sweetest.

All things are possible with God.

Barnaby bright, Barnaby bright, the longest day and the shortest night.

The better the day, the better the deed.

The blood of the martyrs is the seed of the church.

The church is the anvil which has worn out many hammers.

The nearer the church, the farther from God.

Indubitable, proverbs illustrate the common heritage of the human beings and at the same time the variety of the culture of each nation. The French language, which is accused of being so verbose, has nothing to envy to other languages for the precision of its proverbs. “Peu et bon” [Little but good], “Paix et peu don de Dieu” [Peace or lack a gift from God], “Patience passe science” [Patience surpasses science], “À bon chat bon rat” [Two knaves well met]- and many other proverbs are gathered in three or four words.

From etymological point of view, in French, mythology has provided some proverbs; for example: “C'est le tonneau des Dandïdes” [This is the barrel of the Dandies], “C'est la toile de Pénélope” [Weaving Penelope's shroud] ; Many proverbs refer to features of history such as: “Coup de Jarnac” [a violent, clever and unexpected betrayal], “Partage de Montgomety” [Montgomery Sharing]; Some proverbs were borrowed from the arts, especially from navigation; flora et fauna names have also enriched the proverbial language and others.

In the process of observing the French proverbs we found out that in this language there are a lot of proverbs related to money and wealth which is probably linked to the splendour and prosperity of the royal household of ancient times, e.g.:

1) L'argent sert l'homme sage et gouverne le sot.

   [Money serves the wise man and governs the fool]

2) L'argent est un bon serviteur et un mauvais maître.

   [Money is a good servant and a bad master]

3) L'argent ne fait pas le bonheur. [Money does not make happiness]
4) L'argent n'a point d'odeur. [Money has no smell]
5) Amour vainc tout et argent fait tout.

   [Love defeats everything and money does everything]

6) Plaie d'argent n'est pas mortelle. [Silver wound is not fatal]
7) Homme sans argent est un loup sans dent.

   [Man without money is a wolf without a tooth]

8) Abondance de biens ne nuit pas. [Abundance of goods does not harm]
9) Bonheur passe richesse. [Happiness is more important than wealth]
10) Les petits ruisseaux font les grandes rivières. [Small streams make big rivers]

11) Les branches des arbres trop chargés se rompent.

[The branches of trees overloaded break]

12) Il n'est fortune qui ne faille. [There is no fortune that does not fail]

If we look at the vast world of French proverbs a lot of French cultural wisdom is tied to the topic of cooking and cuisine means, probably, due to the reason the French love their food and they take special pride in it.

E.g.

Il faut casser le noyau pour avoir l'amande.

[One must break the shell in order to have the almond]

Il ne faut jamais dire Fontaine, je ne boirai pas de ton eau !

[Never say, Fountain, I won't ever drink your water]

On ne fait pas d'omelette sans casser des œufs.

[You can't make an omelette without breaking a few eggs]

On ne peut pas avoir le beurre et l'argent du beurre.

[You can't have butter as well as the money from the butter]

Quand le vin est tiré, il faut le boire.

[When the wine is drawn, you must drink it]

Tous les goûts sont dans la nature.

[There are all tastes in nature]

Dis-moi ce que tu manges, je te dirai qui tu es.

[Tell me what you eat, and I will tell you who you are]

La vie est trop courte pour boire du mauvais vin.

[Life is too short to drink bad wine]

Un bon repas doit commencer par la faim.

[A good meal must begin with hunger]

À bon appétit n'est point besoin de moutarde.

[With a good appetite there is no need of mustard]

Mieux vaut appétit que sauce.

[It is better appetite than sauce]

L'appétit vient en mangeant, la soif s'en va en buvant.

[Appetite comes with eating, thirst goes away with drinking]

In France there is la Chandeleur (Crêpe/Pancake Day), a French holiday during which people traditionally eat crêpes and drink cidre and it should be noted there is a big amount of proverbs related to this holiday, E.g.

À la Chandeleur, l'hiver cesse ou reprend vigueur.

[On Candlemas, winter ends or strengthens]

À la Chandeleur, le jour croît de deux heures.

[On Candlemas, the day grows by two hours]

À la Chandeleur, grande neige et froideur.

[At Candlemas, great snow and cold]

À la Chandeleur, le froid fait douleur.

[At Candlemas, the cold is pain]

À la Chandeleur, au grand jour, les grandes douleurs.

[Candlemas, everyone knows, brings great sorrows]

Chandeleur sans chaleur, crêpe sans odeur.

[Candle without heat, crepe without smell]

Chandeleur à ta porte, c'est la fin des feuilles mortes.

[When Candlemas comes your door, it's the end of dead leaves.]

Chandeleur couverte, quarante jours de perte.

[Candlemas covered (in snow), forty days lost].

Rosée à la Chandeleur, hiver à sa dernière heure.

[If there's dew at Candlemas, winter is almost over]

Si la chandelle est belle et claire, nous avons l'hiver derrière.

[If the "candle" is beautiful and clear, we have left winter behind].

It is well known traditionally, there are from 350 to 450 distinct types of French cheese and French wine is produced all throughout France, in quantities between 50 and 60 million hectolitres per year, or 7–8 billion bottles and of course the French are big lovers of cheese and wine and perhaps due to the reason there are many proverbs related to these words in this language, e.g.

Fromage et pain est médecine au sain. [Cheese and bread is medicine to healthy]

Jamais homme sage ne mangera de fromage. [No wise man will eat cheese]

Laisser aller le chat au fromage. [To let the cat get at the cheese]

Mieux vaut fromage maintenant, que rôti dans une heure.

[Better cheese now, than roast in an hour]

Ni fromage sans croûte ni femme sans pudeur.

[Neither cheese without rind nor shameless woman]

Entre la poire et le fromage. [Between pear and cheese]

Un dessert sans fromage est une belle à qui il manque un œil.

[A dessert without cheese like a beautiful lady missing an eye]

Ne dis pas au paysan à quel point le fromage est bon avec les poires.

[Do not tell the farmer how good cheese is with pears]

Pain et beurre et bon fromage contre la mort est la vraie targe.

[Bread, butter and good cheese are the right target against death]

Au fromage et jambon cognoit-on voisin et compagnon.

[Cheese and ham make an opinion on neighbour and companion]

E.g. Wine

À bon vin bon cheval. [To good wine good horse]

Aimer les filles et le vin presque toujours entraîne triste fin.

[Loving girls and wine almost always brings sad end]

Année de bon vin, année de beaucoup d'enfants.

[Year of good wine, year of many children]

Beauté sans bonté, est comme vin éventé. [Beauty without kindness is like stale wine]

Bon vin fait bon sang. [Good wine good blood]

Bon vin réchauffe le pèlerin. [Good wine warms the pilgrim]

Si l'alphabet était du vin, chacun saurait lire à la fin.

[If the alphabet was wine, everyone could read at the end]

Bon vin, bonne chère chassent la médecine en l'air.

[Good wine, good honey hunt medicine away]

Bon vin, paroles longues. [Good wine, long words]

Le bon vin fait parler latin. [Good wine makes speak Latin]

Le vin donne l'esprit, mais il l'enlève aussi. [Wine gives the spirit, but it also removes it]

Après le bon pain, le bon vin. [After the good bread, the good wine]

It's important as well to underline:

Our observation has revealed the fact that in the English and French languages metaphoric proverbs like animal-related ones represent interesting cultural instances of conventional metaphors. This feature makes them play an important role in acquiring cultural knowledge, metaphorical understanding and communicative ability in the process of language teaching/learning. However, their interpretation is often difficult to non-native learners/speakers of language. (Garibashvili & Tkemaladze, 2016: 264).

After our observation we can conclude that English and French proverbs may have some topics in common like animals, people, dining and eating, jobs and occupations, or activities and events with a reflection of culture in both languages. In English proverbs the weather and the concept of home dominates while French proverbs are famous for its culinary proverbs. It should be also noticed that even the metaphors changes in English and French proverbs, often the meaning is the same, for example:

Chacun voit midi à sa porte. The English literally translation: "Everyone sees noon at his own door;" the English equivalent: "To each his own."

Il n'y a pas de fumée sans feu. The English literal translation: "There isn't smoke without fire"; the English equivalent: "Where there's smoke there's fire."

Il faut réfléchir avant d'agir. The English literal translation: "One must reflect before acting," the English equivalent: "Look before you leap."

Il n'y a pas de fumée sans feu. The English literal translation: "There isn't smoke without fire"; the English equivalent: "Where there's smoke there's fire."

Rien ne sert de courir, il faut partir à point. The English literally translation: "There's no sense in running; you just have to leave on time," the English equivalent: "Slow and steady wins the race."

Si jeunesse savait, si vieillesse pouvait. The English translation: "If youth only knew; if old age only could," the English equivalent: "Youth is wasted on the young."

On n'apprend pas aux vieux singes à faire des grimaces: The English literally translation: "You cannot teach old monkeys to make faces," the English equivalent: "You cannot teach old dogs new tricks".

Un malheur ne vient jamais seul. The English translation: "Misfortune never arrives alone," the English equivalent more idiomatically: "When it rains, it pours."

Vaut mieux prévenir que guérir. The English translation: "It is better to prevent than to heal," the English equivalent: "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure."

Vouloir, c'est pouvoir. The English translation: "To want is to be able," the English equivalent: "Where there's a will, there's a way and others.

Conclusion

In view of the fact that there have been increasingly more contacts between people from diverse cultures in the globalizing age, more research is necessary in terms of cultural comparison. Accordingly, this paper attempts to explore the rich amount of cultural information proverbs by comparing and contrasting the English and French proverbs.

The analysis of proverbial language of two related languages has proved the following: the allomorphic features of the proverbs in the English and French languages are numerous rather than the isomorphic features.

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THE COINCIDENCE OF ABSURDITY AND PROBLEM OF ALIENATION IN ABSURD DRAMA AND EXISTENTIALIST PHILOSOPHY

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Abstract

As formation of absurd drama and its problems echo the issues and conceptual focuses of existentialist philosophy, the following article accentuates the interaction of concept of alienation in existentialism and absurd drama. Basic absurdist drama highlights that issues such as boredom, alienation, feeling of nothingness and guilt are depicted in existentialist philosophical perceptions. Alienation in existentialism is defined as a kind of consequence / conditioner of the above-mentioned problems. Absurd drama in different forms and from various angles displays alienated nature of a man left alone, facing the cruelty of the world. This implies feelings connected with the loss of life's essence. The article states that in existentialist philosophical reasoning the absurdity of life in many cases is conditioned by unavoidability of human alienation since birth. This interconnection is discussed on the example of the concepts of Jan Paul Sartre, Soren Kierkegaard, Hegel, Albert Camus and absurd drama.

Key Words: existentialism, alienation, nothingness, absurdity.

Introduction

The objective reality forming the subtext of absurdist philosophy and problems highlighted in absurd theatre such as alienation, spiritual and moral failure, despair, nihilistic thoughts, death, darkness, etc. are linked to the World War II, therefore, formation of ideology of traumatized and desperate mankind in absurdism as philosophy is associated with the tragic facts of this war: murder of millions of Jews (i.e. Holocaust), resettlement and destruction of millions of people, systematic attacks on intellectual and creative society by totalitarian regimes of German Nazi and Italian Fascist parties. In terms of conceptual backgrounds absurd drama highlights echo issues and problems accentuated in existentialist philosophy. Alienation both in existentialism and absurd drama is a kind of consequence of depiction of the dilemma of the above-mentioned problems. Its understanding is related to the realization of the fact that the loss of life's essence (absurdity) results in alienation to what man is ultimately doomed since birth.

Accentuation of alienation and absurdity in absurd drama and existentialism

The theatre of the absurd is ideologically based on irrational tendencies of its contemporary mainstreams (psychoanalysis, existentialism) and other directions of art formed by their influence (abstractionism, Dadaism, expressionism, surrealism, Antony Artaud's "Theatre of Cruelty"). Both in existentialism and absurd drama alienation and absurdity are intrinsic characteristics of existence conditioned by each other. So, we can say that these two concepts and problems are interdependent and interconnected. The coincidence of reasons for absurdity and alienation becomes obvious through looking at their explanations and conceptual reasoning in existentialism as well as in absurd drama.

In absurd drama the deep cause and consequence linkage between absurdity and alienation is shaped in the way the playwright uses the language to shape the characters' behavior. As English director Peter Brook states, "the playwright of absurd drama creates an absolutely new dictionary through illogicality of language and strange behavior of characters" (Brook 1998: 115). This kind of speech format used in absurd drama serves absurdisation of life's essence and at the same time is the contextual framework of alienation. So, the deep cause and result connection between absurdity and alienation in absurd drama is undoubted: absurd lies in meaninglessness, nonsense, nothingness and emptiness of human existence. Realization of this leads a human to the condition of alienation ultimately meaning being devoid of belief, despair, nihilism, inadequacy, hopelessness, motionlessness and lack of realty perception.

The term absurd unites the absurd playrights Eugene Ionesco, Samuel Beckett, Jan Janette, Artur Adamov, Harold Pinter. Later on they were joined by Tom Stoppard, Aduard Albee and others. The contents and contexts of alienation in absurd drama are connected with the formation of absurdist philosophy. Therefore, understanding absurd and alienation as terms and their contextual backgrounds are essentially important. Alienation in absurd drama should be addressed as reflection of absurdist philosophy in existentialism. It is essential to mention that the term absurd was first used in the 40s of XX by French existentialist thinkers Jan Paul Sartre and Albert Camus as they admitted the impossibility of rational explanation of the world and essence of being. The term absurd considers human existence as illogical and meaningless in this cruel and unfair world. As for the term Theatre of the Absurd, in literature it was established by Hungarian critic Martin Esslin (1912-2002). He took the term from Camus' philosophical work "Myth of Sisyphus". The story of Sisyphus symbolically represents the absurdity of the world. Camus states that there is big disruption"between man and his life, the actor and the setting" (Esslin 1961:23), which produces feeling of absurdity. Camus' apprioach reveals links between the feelings of alienation and absurdity.This disonance makes gap amidst human and real life is the prerequisite of alienation and at the same time the absurdity of life.

Esslin defines absurd as "the invertible devaluation of ideals, purity and purpose" (Esslin 1961: 24) and states that "the absurd drama asks its audience to draw his own conclusions, make his own errors" (Esslin 1961: 20); He as well mentions that "though Theatre of the Absurd may be seen as nonsense, they have something to say and can be understood." (Esslin: 1961: 21). AAs for the absurd drama protagonist, according to Esslin, a human in absurd drama is "an absurd creature loose in a universe empty of real meaning"(Esslin 1961: 21).

Besides, Esllin underlines the difference between the dictionary definition of the term "absurd" and its meaning in drama. For absurd the dictionary provides the following definition - "out of harmony, completely ridiculous; not logical and sensible" (Oxford Learners' Dictionary, n.d.). Regarding the understanding of absurd as notion and condition in absurd drama in his book "The Theatre of Absurd" Esslin also quotes Ionesco's definition: "absurd is that which is devoid of purpose … Cut off from his religious, metaphysical and transcendental roots, man is lost; all his actions become senseless, absurd, useless" (Esslin 1961: 23).

According to the above-stated explanations of the absurd, I reckon that absurd conveys alienation in itself, i.e. alienation from life is conditioned by absurdity of existence.

The theatre of absurd is associated with existentialism. This is partly conditioned that existentialism had significant influence during the peak of absurd drama. The terms "absurd" and "absurd drama" as mentioned before were adopted from Albert Camus by Martin Esslin.

According to one of the critics, absurd for Camus is not only a symbol of nonsense, but it is also a real/genuine condition of being (Tan 2007:17). In Camus' and Sartre's ideology illogicality and cruelty of life is as well underlined. This is precondition of alienation and depression being as well depicted in absurd drama highlights.

Although existentialism and absurd drama share and depict similar problems of absurd and alienation, they differ in their accentuation of these problems. Sartre himself envisaged absurd theatre as representation of human failure without any let-out whilst fundament of existentialist philosophy is human freedom not excluding but meaning the possibility to change fate. In absurdist drama man has no alternative and his final decision is passivity and adaptation of the existing reality whilst in existentialist concept a chance of action is left. This difference between existentialism and absurd drama is also obvious in James Knowlson's assessment of Samuel Beckett's dramatic pieces: "Becket's work focuses on poverty, failure, exile and loss as he put it on man as "non-knowner" and as a "non-can-er" (Knowlson 1997: 352-353). Through this difference it is noteworthy to mention that alienation is much more acute and pessimistic in absurd drama.

As existentialist philosophy has direct influence on the problems depicted in absurdist drama (devastating results of the world wars, feelings of ilogicality and emptiness of existence, feelings of despair and hoplessness, loss of beilief, losing the sense of understanding the „self"), it can be stated directly that the problem of alienation is the result of depicting the dilemma of the existentialist philosophy.

Existentialism is considered as a kind of reaction against ratioanlism- e.g. Kierkegard raised tone against Hegel's idealism, Marcel protested against idealistict approaches of Bradley and Brunsvieg. The cornerstone of existentialism is the hypothesis focusing on the connection betwen existence and essence formulated by Sartre: ''existence proceeds essence" being accompanied by the definition as follows: "we mean that man first of all exists, encounters himself, surges up in the world- and defines himself afterwords" (Sartre 1946: 290). Through this perception it can be concluded that alieanation is unavoidable part of human existence being ultimately followed by realisation of life's troubles and difficulties.

Existentialist philosophical thoughts as well consider that man's birth is accidental. For instance, Kierkegard's (mostly considered as pre-existentialist) young protagonist in the book "Repetition" complains to God about not having being informed of the sufferings of life thus considering birth as limtation of choice and free will. This existential approach as well highlights that being is the prerequisite and the beginning of every problem related to existence. Considering this postulate of existentialism and that absurd and alienation are characteristics of life, we can say that man is to be alienated since birth. This is echoed in Samuel Beckett's drama as birth there is named "awful occasion" ("Krapp's Last Tape"). This accentuates that birth- the beginning of existence is associated with the beginning of problems related to existence.

Actuality of alienation in existentialism is stated in Walter Kaufman's book "Existentialism from Dostoevsky to Sartre". The author defines existentialism as denial of belief or any other philosophical reasoning: "The refusal to belong to any school of thought, the repudiation of the adequacy of any body of beliefs whatever, and especially of systems and marked dissatisfaction with traditional philosophy of superficial, academic, and remote from life lies at the very heart of existentialism"(Kaufmann, 2003). The remoteness from life mentioned here is the same as alienation.

The reason for absurd drama to be based on existentialism philosophy postulates is conditioned by the coincidence of the periods they developed. Consequently, similar problematic focuses are unavoidable. Therefore, we can state that existentialist problems such as emptiness, meaninglessness of existence, chaotic world were recalled in absurd drama through demonstration of absurdity of life. So, it is doubtless that absurdity and alienation are closely linked with one another in absurd drama. Alienation itself means acquiescence to absurdity/nonsense and refusal to action. Each detail in absurd drama serves to recognition of absurdity of human existence and thus demonstrating that the only one thing a man can achieve in this world is admission of this. Depiction of alienation in absurdist drama was itself a kind of further stage of actualization of problems emphasized in existentialism. The basic highlights of existentialism philosophy such as perceiving life as circulation of absurd and vain (Albert Camus's "Myth of Sisyphus" through which Camus developed absurd existentialism), recognizing birth as illogical and accidental (Kierkegaard's pessimist protagonist complaining to God about his birth; German Carl Jaspers and French Gabriel Marcel as well followed Kierkegaard's philosophical line), depicting deep spiritual and cultural crises and failure of beliefs and principles (Nietzsche's nihilistic concept; German Martin Heidegger and French philosopher Jan Paul Sartre set their thoughts on Nietzsche's ideas of "Death of God") paved the way for intensifying alienation and problems related to it (hopelessness, loneliness, diminishing importance of human relationship and feelings). I consider the following ideological and philosophical postulates to be the basis for formation of contextual and formal aspects of alienation.

Through realizing actuality of absurdity and alienation in absurd drama and existentialism, coincidence of these problems and their backgrounds is obvious. At the same time, if we look at alienation as a lexical and literary item, it is definitely related to absurdity/derives from it. In terms of lexical and literary sense, alienation means estrangement, separation. In these definitions and explanations it is clear that alienation is linked to absurd and vice versa- realization of life's absurdity makes man alienated (i.e. human is in conflict with the world).

According to Sidney Finkelstein, alienation is a psychological phenomenon which is a kind of inner conflict, adverse attitude towards the "outer" world, a barrier which is not protective but makes us poor. (Finkelstein 1965: 36). It is the conflict which makes absurd. Karen Horney in his book "Our Inner Conflicts" notes that alienated man is unable to realize his thoughts, likes, refusals/rejections; does not recognize his real self. Somehow, he forms imaginary "Ideal Image" of himself which is dramatically different from "Real self" (Horney, 1946). Paul Tillich uses the word "Estrangement" instead of "Alienation". "Estrangement" for him is the difference between the genuine condition of essence and archetypal nature of man. He states that "existence is estranged from essence ...... Man's estrangement from his essential being is the universal character of existence") (Tillich 1952, p. 127).

Sartre suggests own concept of understanding alienation in the book "Being and Nothingness". He considers alienation as existentialist phenomenon and uses term "existential alienation." This definitely highlights the inseparability of alienation and existence proving that in Sartre's concept alienation and being are inseparable. Likely, in absurd drama, alienation is unavoidable phenomenon in existence due to absurdity of life. As for Albert Camus, he reckons that man is constantly "irremediable exile" who has lost the hope of finding the "promised land". (Camus 1991). This assessment as well highlights the interconnectedness of absurdity and alienation.

Absurd nature of being and alienation is as well linked together by Absurd drama representative Eugene Ionesco. In his essay about Kafka he notes that absurd is something devoid of purpose, separated from religious, metaphysical and transcendental roots and such a man is lost and distracted (Ionesco 1957). This definition as well states that the reason for life's absurdity lies in alienation and vice versa.

Conclusions

Existentialism considers absurd and absurdity as natural consistent of human existence. This preconditions feeling of alienation. This absurd concept of existence drives man to total alienation in absurd drama. Therefore, we can say that in existentialist philosophy and absurd drama existence is associated with absurdity and alienation and, at the same time, alienation and absurdity are interconnected. Birth, the first encounter with existence, is considered "awful occasion" both in existentialism (Kierkegaard) and absurd drama (Beckett) and all the idea of life lies in this absurdity itself: "You're on earth and there is no cure for that" (Beckett 2006: 118).Consequently, we can say that man is doomed to alienation and absurd since birth. Through analyzing alienation as lexical term together with its philosophical and literary interpretations (existentialism, absurdism and absurd drama, concretely Samuel Beckett's drama), I would declare that as a lexical term alienation means separation/ estrangement. Regarding philosophical and literary analysis of alienation, it is incidental aspect of life. Finally, it is to be concluded that absurdity of existence leads to human alienation from metaphysical, religious, transcendental roots- thus alienation as well conveys absurdity in itself.

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IMPORTANCE OF VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES IN STUDENT ENROLLMENT MANAGEMENT

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Abstract

In higher education student enrollment management is described as a process which increases institution's overall performance. Enrollment management concept is a trend that many institutions (must) take into the consideration. Demographics of the student population is changing, which has become a base for many institutions that are now working on creating strong and connected enrollment management teams. The purpose of this study is to identify relationships between higher education institutions, such as community colleges, private or public universities, and its stakeholders, such as high school students and their parents, high school teachers, coaches and administration, government, etc. The study underlines the connection between these major respects of enrollment and its effect on student enrollment strategies. It is very important for the institutions to have straight communication components that help institutions work as a whole system. Institutions need to act as one entity and communicate one message. It builds the value and market share. The results of this study will guide universities to manage financial aid policies, student life, retention policies, etc. In total it will give institutions an edge to develop strong student enrollment strategies.

Key words: verbal communication, non-verbal communication, student enrollment management

Introduction

According to Hundrieser (2015, p. 1), "contemporary strategic enrollment management entails planning, implementing, and developing administrative structures to develop and support strategies and tactics to regulate patterns of students entering the institution and through to graduation. It must do so in a way that is both predictable and consistent with the institution's mission and objectives and that maximizes revenue from tuition and fees".

The enrollment management team must connect all departments and create a centralized system. Institutions need to be a whole entity and give the same message. Wholeness is delivering the same message, using the same university colors, sharing the same information within, etc. Every institution must have an administrative office, financial aid department, communications department, athletic and visual performance department, student life department, etc. All those departments must be dependent on each other for successful overall performance. Enrollment management manages application pool, must create increased retention rates, increased net revenue, develop stakeholder's satisfaction strategies, connect with development office, etc.

On the other hand, stakeholders like students, parents, high school staff, government, etc., play a significant role. Those are variables that institutions must study, understand and analyze. Institutions need to do homework, meaning to study student and their family, learn what they want and need, what are their expectations, etc. Every little detail makes difference in enrollment management.

Now, how can we create connected enrollment management team? How can institutions deliver the same message to its departments and to stakeholders? At the end, how institutions can work as one entity? At the heart of everything is the communication. How message, sent by the encoder, is seen by a message receiver, decoder? Or how do we see gap analysis in enrollment management, meaning the gap between what is occurring now and what needs to occur to achieve the desired goal?

Student enrollment management

In recent years' university enrollment management has been affected changes in demographics, technology, financial aid distribution, retention rates, etc. (Educate Iowa, 2014). This is a huge challenge. A lot of institutions must adjust and play around those challenges. Traditional, on-campus education is affected by long distance, satellite campuses. Based on this, enrollment management must plan and strategize according to this development. Institutions need to be aware of the business perspective of education. Many will agree and disagree; however, the reality is that institutions sell education. Education is the product that people use.

Enrollment management success depends on:

- Planning – institutions need to have a strong enrollment management leader, who understands what it takes to be successful. Needs to understand ins and outs of enrollment. If institutions need a change, does not need to be afraid to make those changes. Idea is to create a strong institution with vision, where every employee is committed to being successful.
- Organizing – institution needs to develop structure within where every department is part of centralized system management. An institution does not need to have several departments that make decisions on their own. There must be one message, which is centralized. Enrollment management must have a weekly meeting with heads of departments to discuss strategies for short -and long-term performances.
- Leading and controlling – institutions need to be able to lead and control international and external performances. Peer and 360 employee evaluations are musts. Institutions need to set an example that every member of the university is important and plays a huge role in recruiting. Employees do not only represent institution on campus but overall, outside the campus too.

Enrollment management is enforced by external factors such as students and their families, high school teachers, counselors, coaches, etc., the board of trustees, government, etc. All of them have an influence on overall institutions enrollment management strategies. They all want the best for their children. They all search for better perspectives. It is the same when you buy a car. You want the safest, cheapest, valuable vehicle. It is the same with education. Families looking for the best education, that will cost cheap but will have the best value. Before the internet, families only had one or two options for schools. Now, they can search bunch schools, around the world and make their choices. It makes the job harder for enrollment management. Governments have their share of influence on enrollment management, especially when it comes comparing private and public institutions. Some governments develop programs to provide scholarships for their students to go outside the country, but with the purpose to come back and invest education in the development of the country. It shakes up the demographics, as students and families look for such type programs, but resources are limited.

Institutions must have a centralized system, which makes communication between internal and external variables simple. It means that they need to have a strong verbal and non-verbal communication strategies. Communication is the key.

Importance of verbal and non-verbal communication

To look closer at the importance of verbal and non-verbal communication, the best way is to see the gap analysis. The gap analysis presents a space between what is occurring now, and what needs to occur to get where institutions need to be. That space in between is an area where we need connect all parts of enrollment management. It will be within an organization or in relations with stakeholders. Below we analyze some of the important cues of verbal and non-verbal communication; analyzing its importance in enrollment management.

- Listening – taking in with what people are saying – within the institution, listening to your employees without distracting them is vital. This is one of the ways to learn, what is happening. A leader must be willing to listen and take notes. Ideally, both sides need to listen and analyze details. When it comes delivering a message to students, families, coaches, teachers, etc, it is hugely important to know the market. To know what students and families want, the institution needs to listen. High school students are the firsts to see news and changes. To catch up to the 21st-century trend, institutions need to adapt and listen. Speaking on the phone, face-to-face, on social media, etc., institutions need to carefully listen to the messages.
- Eye contact – people see you are engaged in- it is another detail that delivers a signal how much as a representative of institution you are engaged, believe in vision and missions, etc. For that purpose, enrollment management representatives must have a confidence in what they are saying.
- Positive facial expressions – many people pay attention to facial expressions. It dictates how much comfortable you feel interacting with students and their representatives. In student recruiting, no matter on how the day is going representative needs to be at 100%. If not, needs to avoid contact at all. It is an unwritten rule of recruiting.
- Clear speaking language – speaking right, does not always mean that your client is persuaded. Pitch, tone & speed of words produce different vibes. Enrollment management team needs to have a trained people who are delivering message correctly to the right people. Encoder needs to send a clear and sound message to the decoder. In the conversation, using swearing words does not do good, either.
- Suitable body language – open, non-threatening approach is a huge sign of successful presentation. Touch, gestures, posture, etc., need to create a positive environment for the potential students and families. They need to feel comfortable to be in your company. They need to feel loved and wanted by the institution.
- Personal presentation – adequate appearance is a must. Institutions must have a policy how enrollment management team needs to represent themselves. If there are special visit days, scholarships days, or anything, there should be different dress attire. It needs to show that institution cares about the whole presentation. The institution must have a dress code, what are acceptable attire at work. If individual representatives visit schools, they need to analyze environment they have to operate and dress accordingly.

After we will put those verbal and non-verbal communication cues in the gap analysis, it will show institutions a reality. A reality check is important because it shows the whole picture of institutional performance. A strong enrollment management team sees positive and negative and builds a strategy on that.

Verbal and non-verbal communication is a very complicated field of study, however, when institutions have a strong understanding of it, as well as know how to manage, it will deliver effectiveness and efficiency to the enrollment management. A little mistake in this field can have a huge impact on the success of the institution. To create and deliver a message is a whole different science.

Student enrollment matters

University enrollment management teams need to look on so many details to be efficient and successful. Every institution has an operating budget. Institutions need to meet that budget for overall institutional performance. Enrollment management members need to understand how important their performance and how many lives is they affect.

There is a simple formula that describes importance of student enrollment strategies.

Number of students +the amount students pay per year = operating budget

What does make a great enrollment management team? The answer is simple. It is a combination of departments at the institution and employees who work in those institutions. It is not easy to manage; however, when institutions have right people at the job positions, they are trained correctly and know how to respond to constantly changing environment, it is manageable.

- Knowledge of subject matter and standards – student enrollment management requires knowing a little bit of everything, especially how chain moves. It is not only generating an operational budget but more than that. It is a world of education, where higher education professional has to be committed to guiding students and families.
- A caring attitude – one of the important aspects of student enrollment is for professionals to have a caring attitude. Students and parents need to feel the love from institutions. To think, they are buying the product and the way we deliver it to the potential customer's matters. Institutions need to believe what they provide.
- Knowledge of discipline – to be able to work at the institutions is not enough to be called the university representative in student enrollment. Knowing one part of the business will not take employees anywhere. The admissions representative will not be able to recruit students. It is bigger than that. It includes knowing how financial aid and scholarships work, what are the faculties and majors, how retention policies work, what are residence life policies, etc. Student enrollment management needs professionals who know the subject matter.
- Management technique – it does not only apply to leadership of institutions, but to the employees of institutions. Employees need to understand the value they have for the institution. Students and families communicate with university representatives. Communications matters because what they will tell families will have an impact on recruiting and also an image of the institution. It makes to think about the centralized message that institutions send out, and not what every department wants.

- The desire to make a difference in the lives of young people – the most important part of student enrollment management. It portrays how much institutions care about young people, and how successful they want them to be. When every institution's goal should be to provide the best education possible, yet many do not follow it. For many institutions, it has become more about making the money and not caring what is in there. Recruiting and counseling are making difference in young people lives. We do not know their story. Institutions have to listen to stories and build strategies based on it.

In brief, verbal and non-verbal communication is the medium that connects institutions enrollment departments, assists to communicate with its external enforcers. It creates a medium to deliver a right message, at the right time, to the right people. It influences total enrollment management. Without communication, the institution will not as one entity.

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APPROACHES TO ACTIVE LISTENING FOR EFL LEARNERS

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Abstract

Listening is one of the most important skills a person can have. How well a learner listens has a major impact on him/her and on the quality of his/her relationships with others. The most difficult skills to acquire is listening. Learners should be taught how to listen and how to become active listeners. We listen to obtain information and to understand, to learn or just for enjoyment. While listening, a learner should be sure that s/he is good at it, but in fact, most of them are not. Foreign language listening skills are not automatically acquired. The way to improve foreign language listening skills is to practice 'active listening'. Active listening is a way of responding to spoken English in an interactive dialogue situation. It is a skill that can be developed with practice. It means a learner should be fully concentrated on what is being said and, most importantly, a learner should try to understand the complete message being sent. In order to do this a learner must pay attention to the other person very carefully. Active listening involves listening with all senses involved. By becoming an active listener a learner will improve not only his/her productivity, but also his/her ability to communicate. Teachers should do their best to teach learners how to listen efficiently and help them become active listeners. There are some key active listening techniques that help learners hear the other person and to show to the interlocutor that a listener is hearing what s/he says. They are the following: to pay attention, to show that you are listening, to provide feedback, to defer judgment, and to respond appropriately.

Key words: active listening, communication skills, listening styles, effective listener, listening techniques

Introduction

Having the ability to listen is one of the most important skills of language learning. Why is it so important? Listening is the most fundamental component of communication skills. Listening is not something that just happens, it is an active process in which a right decision is made to listen to and understand the messages of the speaker, because when a person speaks and the other person can not understand it may cause misunderstanding. The other person may ask 'What? Could you please repeat again?' and so on. So the conversation stops. When something blocks the flow of ideas, the conversation comes to an end. We should spend a lot of time listening. Various studies stress the importance of listening as a communication skill. We can say that we spend our waking hours mostly on listening than on any other skills, such as: writing, reading or speaking.

Studies also show that we are not good at listening and most people are not good listeners. It is confirmed that a person remembers less than 50% of what s/he hears in a conversation. Having listening skills is especially important for second language learners. It is very difficult to listen and understand the second language perfectly, but if a learner is very good at listening it is much easier for him/her to learn the language. In order to learn and understand the language it is very important to have active listening skills and to be an active listener.

What is active listening?

Active listening is a communication technique that is used in psychological counseling, conflict resolution and education, in particular, language teaching. It requires that the listener fully concentrate, understand, respond and then remember what is being said (Colman, 2006). It is the act of mindfully hearing and attempting to comprehend the meaning of words spoken by another in a conversation or speech. Activity listening is also an important business communication skill, which can involve making sounds that indicate attentiveness, as well as the listener giving feedback in the form of a paraphrased rendition of what has been said by the other party for their confirmation (Business Dictionary, n.d.).

It is one of the most difficult skills to acquire. It is a way of responding to spoken English in an interactive dialogue situation. While talking the roles of the participants are very clearly defined. The speaker talks and extends, while the active listener focuses on what is being said and tries to respond through echoing or reformulating. By active listening as a response strategy, the listener not only encourages confidence and self-assurance in the speaker, but also helps to improve his/her flow of language. Active listening is a skill that can be developed with practice. It means to listen actively. A learner should be fully concentrated on what is being said and most importantly, a learner should try to understand the complete message being sent. In order to do this a learner must pay attention to the other person very carefully. Active Listening involves listening with all senses. Learners should try not to get bored or lose focus on what the other person is saying. All of these prove a lack of listening and understanding. So, it is very important to listen attentively.

How to become an active listener?

It takes a lot of concentration and determination to be an active listener. Learners should know some active listening techniques that help them ensure that they hear the other person, and that the other person knows learners can hear what they say.

There are the following active listening techniques:

1. Paying attention

Learner should give the speaker his/her whole attention and acknowledge the message.

Look at the speaker directly.

Put aside distracting thoughts.

Avoid being distracted by environmental factors. For example, side conversations.

"Listen" to the speaker's body language.

2. Showing that the learner is listening

Learner should use his/her own body language and gestures to convey his/her attention.

Nod occasionally.

Smile and use other facial expressions.

Note the posture and make sure it is open and inviting.

Encourage the speaker to continue with small verbal comments like yes, mm...mm, I see or how strange.

3. Providing feedback

As a listener, the role is to understand what is being said. This may require the learner to reflect what is being said and ask questions.

Reflect what has been said by paraphrasing. For example: "What I can hear is," or "Sounds like you are saying," Such kind of phrases are great to reflect back.

Ask questions to clarify certain points. "What do you mean?" "Is this what you mean?" 'Are you saying that?'

Summarize the speaker's comments periodically.

4. Deferring judgment

Listener should not interrupt the speaker. It makes him/her feel frustrated and it limits full understanding of the message.

Allow the speaker to finish each point before asking questions.

Don't interrupt with counter arguments.

5. Responding appropriately

Active listening is a model for respect and understanding. While listening learners obtain information, learn or just enjoy. Listeners add nothing.

Be open and honest in your response.

Express your opinions respectfully.

Treat the other person in a respectful way.

Active listeners should be deliberate with their listening and remind themselves all the time that their main purpose is to truly hear what the other person is saying. Active listeners should set aside all other thoughts and actions and concentrate on the message. They should ask questions, reflect and paraphrase the message to make sure that they understand the message. Active listening involves not only the effort to decode verbal messages, but also to interpret non-verbal cues such as facial expressions and physical postures. Active listeners should know verbal and non-verbal signs of active listening skills. It is truly annoying that while talking to someone the speaker realizes that s/he is not really listening. The signs, according to Halliday (1978), are as follows:

- Verbal signs of active listening

- Positive Reinforcement - this can be a strong signal of attentiveness, however too much use can be annoying for the speaker. If listener uses words and phrases, such as: 'very good', 'yes' or 'indeed' it indicates that s/he is paying attention.
- Remembering - active listeners should try to remember a few key points, such as: the name of the speaker. It can prove that what is being said has been understood. The details, ideas and concepts from previous conversations encourage the speaker to continue.
- Questioning - the listener can demonstrate that they have been paying attention by asking relevant questions.
- Clarification – It usually involves the use of open questions which enables the speaker to expand on certain points as necessary.
- Non-verbal signs of active listening
- Smile - small smiles combined with nods of head can be used to show that the listener is paying attention to what is being said or as a way of agreeing or feeling happy about the messages being received.
- Eye Contact - it is normal and usually encouraging for the listener to look at the speaker. Eye contact can however be intimidating, especially for more shy speakers
- Posture - can tell a lot about the sender and receiver in interpersonal interactions. The attentive listener tends to lean slightly forward or sideways while sitting.
- Distraction - the active listener will not be distracted; active listeners should not look at a clock or watch all the time or play with their hair.

By using all these simple steps, listeners let the speakers know that they are active. Teachers should encourage and remind their learners to use verbal and non-verbal signs while listening. For example: give the leaners a dialogue and ask them to interpret it by using all effective signs of active listening skills.

Sample

A. Every now and then I get hungry for French food.

B. There's a good French restaurant near here. Let's go sometime.

A. Why not tonight?

B. No, not tonight. You have to make reservations in advance. It's a very popular place. Besides, it's expensive. And I don't have any money.

A. I'm broke too. Let's save our money and go next week.

B. Okay, but how?

A. We could do without lunch this week

B. Do you mean every day? I don't feel up to that.

A. Well, then every other day.

Here are some statements and questions learners should use with active listening:

Paraphrasing - "So, you want us to go to a French restaurant?"

Brief verbal affirmation - "I appreciate the time you've taken to speak to me"

Asking open-ended questions - "I understand you aren't happy with your food. What changes can we make?"

Asking specific questions - "How often can we go there?"

Mentioning similar situations - "I was in a similar situation when I first came here."

It is really difficult to stay completely focused during a lengthy presentation or conversation, or even relatively brief messages. Some of the factors that interfere with good listening might exist beyond our control, but others are manageable. It would be very helpful for learners to be aware of these factors so that they interfere as little as possible with understanding the message. Key barriers that block facts or ideas while listening are as follows; noise, attention span, receiver biases, listening apprehension. Teachers should try to help their learners overcome these barriers and become active listeners.

Conclusion

Thus, active listening is purposeful, it requires motivation and effort. Listening is active, focused, concentrated attention for the purpose of understanding the meanings expressed by a speaker.

Active listening means paying attention not only to the story, but how it is told, the use of language and voice, and how the other person uses his or her body. It means being aware of both verbal and non-verbal messages. Learner's ability to listen effectively depends on the degree to which s/he perceives and understands these messages. The paper tends to prove an important role of active listening and encourages learners to practice listening as much as possible.

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DEVELOPMENT OF COLLABORATIVE SKILLS WITH INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

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Abstract

Collaboration is a necessary skill that can be used to promote efficiency and productivity, as well as develop the understanding of alternate perspectives, which is vital for the progression of society. Successful collaboration is most productive when paired with information technology, especially when it is used to achieve an educational goal. This article examines the merits of using information technology in the development of collaborative skills in foreign language education. More specifically, this research aims to demonstrate how information technology-based activities can be structured in a way that makes students work collaboratively when given the assignment of teaching a topic on "cross-cultural education." The research methods include literature reviews, surveys, and a model of a set of exercises. Students in the department of foreign languages at Baranovichi State University were asked to work in groups and use a variety of web applications, including Google Docs, Meeting Words, and Onenote, along with the PPP approach (Presentation, Practice, Production), in order to teach certain aspects of a target culture in English. Information technology activities were designed to make students work collaboratively when choosing specific aspects of the target culture to teach, understanding possible ways to structure the activities that are aimed to teach culture, and creating a set of their own exercises. After the groups completed their work, students were asked to give peer reviews, report the benefits of the web applications that they used, and give feedback on the overall assignment. The findings suggest that the use of information technology in the development of collaborative skills is a powerful tool. Students can gain vital cognitive and social skills that allow them to produce meaningful work, such as cross-cultural education, which is necessary for improving mutual understanding between nations and cultures in the 21st century.

Keywords: collaborative skills; educational goal; Google Docs; meeting Words; PPP approach; presentation stage; production stage; stage of practice; role; task; web application.

Introduction

Nowadays, collaboration is seen as a key 21st century skill, along with communication, creativity, problem solving, digital literacy, and critical thinking. The benefits of collaboration in foreign language education include peer support and feedback on the students' practices. Collaborative skills are necessary to solve complex, interdisciplinary problems. Besides, they promote the understanding of alternative perspectives, which is vital for the progression of society and useful for achieving educational goals. Moreover, learning how to collaborate allows students to have a broader set of skills that will help industries and economies progress as society's standards continue to shift. The increasing demand in citizens with collaborative skills is reflected in the educational standards for Belarusian higher educational institutions, which emphasize the need for specialists to obtain certain social and personal competences (SPC): (SPC-2) to be socially interactive and (SPC-6) to be able to work in team (Ministerstvo obrazovaniya respubliki Belarus, 2013).

Conducting research on collaboration within the classroom is relevant and topical, especially for Belarus. On the one side, on the national level, Belarus formally joined the Bologna Process and the European Higher Education Area in 2015. This means that in order to provide Belarusian students opportunities for social mobility, they must possess the skills that are required at other universities, members of the Bologna process, in particular collaborative skills. On the other hand, on the individual level, Belarusian students do not have much experience with collaboration in an educational environment, especially with information technology: it is terra incognita for them.

And what does it really mean to collaborate? There are a number of definitions of collaboration. Let's take a look at two that are often used in online dictionaries: (1) The action of working with someone to produce something (English Oxford Living Dictionaries, n.d.); (2) The activity of working together to create or achieve the same thing, or a product of this (Cambridge Online Dictionary, n.d.). The essential problem with these definitions is that they seem to focus on the words like "working", "with / together", "produce" and "thing / something." The ideas of co-making a new idea (novelty) and mutual information processing in a debate are not included. These definitions cause participants of the educational process to fixate on cooperation or group work, rather than ingenious collaboration. Cooperation is achieved if all participants do their assigned parts separately and bring their results to the table. In contrast, collaboration implies interaction among individuals to produce a product and involves negotiations, discussions and accommodating others' perspectives (Kozar, 2010). Emphasis is given both on process and product. Underestimating these differences may complicate both teaching and learning.

In recent years the characteristics of collaborative learning have been carefully investigated. Numerous studies show that collaborating in group assignments and projects, compared to working independently, results in deeper information processing and more meaningful psychological connections among the participants (Smith & MacGregor, 1992). The goal of collaboration is to create new insights during discussions (Henri, 1992). While working together, students build new understanding by challenging others' ideas and defending their own. As a result, this creates a product that is different from what any individual could produce alone. The most important criteria for collaboration is the synthesis of information — that is, creating a new product through the combination of different perspectives and ideas, as well as a more or less equal contribution from each participant (Ingram & Hathorn, 2004).

Collaborative skills are considered as both cognitive and social skills. Cognitive skills include task regulation and knowledge building, whereas social skills include participation, perspective taking and social regulation (Plucker, Kennedy, & Dilley, n.d.). Their development presupposes the use of McGrath's Input-Processes-Outcomes mode (Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, & Jundt, D., 2005). Input generally includes students' prior knowledge, the need to do a group task and interpersonal personal relationships. The collaboration process then leads to output, which includes learners' new constructed knowledge, membership in the collaborating group, and the satisfaction of the learning process (Jahng, Chan, & Nielsen, 2010, 41). Thus, students' communication is analyzed in terms of: (a) equality: to what extent contributions are equal; (b) participation: how much interaction occurs; and (c) shareness: what portion of ideas are shared with the whole group.

The diverse theoretical approaches to studying collaboration may be classified into two strategies that are aimed at: (1) achieving cognitive outcomes and (2) developing collaboration as an educational outcome. The goal of this research is to examine the merits of using information technology in the development of collaborative skills in foreign language education. This study aims to demonstrate how information technology based activities can help students — future foreign language teachers — gain collaborative skills when given an assignment regarding "cross-cultural education." The assignment will involve creating activities to teach the rules of giving compliments in English to prospective schoolchildren. Knowing how people from other cultures give compliments gives insight on their values and behaviour, which ultimately prevents potential misunderstandings in cross-cultural communication. We chose the topic of "cross-cultural education" for this project, because we believe it is essential for future foreign language teachers to learn how to teach aspects of other cultures, as well as cross-cultural communication, to the next generation. In today's society, the knowledge of other cultures' behaviors and values can promote mutual understanding between different people and nations.

Stages to develop collaborative skills

We suggest the PPP (Presentation – Practice – Production) approach to develop collaborative skills. This approach allows us to implement the taxonomy of educational objectives that was suggested by L. W. Anderson and D. R. Krathwohl (2001): remembering → understanding → applying → analyzing → evaluating → creating.

In the stage of presentation, the acquisition and internalization of factual and procedural knowledge take place: remembering and understanding the basic information on the topic and the rules of its processing in collaborative work are under consideration. In the stage of practice, by means of collective draft writing, its critique and re-writing, the high order thinking processes of applying, analyzing and evaluating occur. In the stage of production, by means of creative skills, a cooperative novel product is completed and presented by the team.

The implementation of the PPP approach makes it easier to structure the set of tasks that we assign to the students. We suggest that pairing this approach with information technology will make an ideal combination for the development of collaborative skills.

Information technology to develop collaborative skills

The secret to successful collaboration in the classroom lies in how it is taught and what technology is used to make the learning experience positive and productive. Technology contributes to handling emotional reactions by means of chat option and saves time. All the above is a good reason to use information technology in foreign language teaching.

With our society rapidly and constantly changing, it is important for educational institutions to keep up with the times and implement the use of information technology within the classroom, especially for collaborative learning. Pairing technological and collaborative skills makes individuals accountable for achieving the group's goals and allows for constant group evaluation of the process, which improves group effectiveness. The use of technology for communication should not be debated, as this is simply our reality. The development of industries, for example, require people who have a broader set of skills that can allow them to solve complex problems. Therefore, it is the teacher's duty to teach their students how to use technology for collaboration in order for them to become citizens that contribute to society. Moreover, the students that we are working with for this study are future foreign language educators. It is important for them to understand the broader implications of using technology in the classroom, so that they can be mentors for their own future pupils.

In March 2018, we interviewed Keith Onstot, the Technology Integration Curriculum Developer for the Bellevue School District in Washington, USA, to gain professional insight on using technology to develop collaborative skills in the classroom. When we asked him if it was necessary for students to develop collaborative skills, he answered that the state of Washington needs to strongly commit to this, because "when we look at how the economy in the Pacific Northwest is shifting, we see that industries require teams of people to complete complex tasks." This statement can be applied to Belarus and the rest of the world, as all industries in today's society need people who have a broader set of skills in order to innovate and progress. We also asked him if the use of technology for the development of collaborative skills is necessary. He argued that when industries collaborate, they use shared documents or Skype to get teams of people who are in different locations to work together. Therefore, we must think about which students will be in the best position for digital collaboration, because "we can't pretend that's not the reality our world is going toward." Therefore, we have a moral compulsion to teach students how to use digital tools in a collaborative manner.

To better understand the possible benefits of using information technology in the classroom, we asked Keith Onstot to explain how the Bellevue School District has integrated technology into its curricula. Keith Onstot noted that schools in Bellevue have implemented the use of OneNote, a digital tool, in its classrooms. Mr. Onstot explained that teachers can create a 'class notebook' on OneNote, which contains a content library that has all necessary documents, assignments, and master copies. Additionally, there is a space where students have the option to chat with the teacher privately, as well as a collaboration space for group projects. According to the data that the Bellevue School District has gathered, "research has been one of the strongest skills of students." This is probably due to their access to the aforementioned technological tools that help develop certain skills. The data doesn't exactly measure collaborative skills; however, anecdotal evidence from teachers and students suggests that using OneNote is extremely valuable if people use it well and intentionally. Mr. Onstot mentioned that "its effectiveness depends on its implementation." If teachers feel comfortable using OneNote, they are more likely to foster technological skills and use it to get feedback. Additionally, "if students are collaborating on a digital base, this allows teachers to mentor and coach the collaborative process, rather than to simply wait until the final product to see the result of it." The Bellevue School District's implementation of technology in the classroom is just one of many case studies that prove the advantages of digital tools. The use of such tools, or web applications like Google Docs and Meeting Words, can help develop collaborative skills, which are necessary for industries and economies.

Choice of technology

In practice, we need to take into account that some students have never even been introduced to the idea of collaboration. Thus, we find it best to discuss with the students the importance of collaborative skills for a foreign language teacher in the 21st century and the whole procedure of collaboration at the beginning of the semester. Moreover, students appreciate knowing what is expected of them.

For our study, we examine the main features of successful collaboration: (1) creation of new insights of the case during discussions; (2) students' negotiation and accommodation to one another's perspectives; (3) inclusion of everybody's perspectives in the final product; (4) equal contribution of all students.

In the first stage of research, the aim was to choose the appropriate technology for the pilot study. We asked students of the department of foreign languages at Baranovichi State University (n=15) about the web applications Google Docs and Meeting Words (both of them were familiar to them) in relation to the development of collaborative skills. The survey included a written statement from the students, detailing their perceived benefits of each web application. The interviewees were told to be honest and open. Tables 1 and 2 outline the students' responses.

Table 1: Student reported benefits of the Google Docs application

Reported benefits	Number of students (n=15)
1. Numerous functions and opportunities: add and load video, audio, pictures and documents.	6
2. Edit and change the text.	4
3. Work of a number of students.	3
4. Commentary is available.	3
5. Modern, simple interface.	2
6. Publication in PDF may be done.	2
7. Checking the changes.	1

Table 2: Student reported benefits of the Meeting Words application

Reported benefits	Number of students (n=15)
1. Everyone can continue, edit, correct one's' own or other's ideas.	8
2. There is a chat to discuss the challenging areas.	7

3. The teacher can follow the process and check everyone's impact to the final product.	3
4. Everybody can produce a text on a number of problems.	3
5. Group / team work is done.	3
6. Interaction of the participants.	2
7. Every participant is easily identified by the personal color.	2
8. Everyone is allowed to suggest an idea.	1

Having correlated the students' responses next to the criteria of collaboration, we see that the students find it possible and beneficial to use both tools in order to develop collaborative skills and effectively complete a group project: Google Docs (points 2, 3, 4, 7) and Meeting Words (all the points). The evident benefit of the latter web application includes the option that the teacher can follow the collaborative process from the very beginning, because it is easy to track exactly how much each student contributes to the group work. Each participant can be identified on the document by a specific color. For this study, we gave our students the option of using either Meeting Words or Google Docs for their project.

Information-technology-based activities

In the second stage of research, the aim was to create a method to develop the collaborative skills of students who were taking the course "Intercultural communication." We designed and structured information technology based activities in a way that made them work collaboratively. For this study, we chose the topic "Cross-cultural education." The students were to work in teams of 4 or 5. Their goal was to design a set of their own exercises that teach schoolchildren the rules of giving compliments and responding to them in the target culture. The process includes three stages; presentation, practice and production. Steps A — G correlate with the educational objectives: remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating.

1. Presentation stage

Suggested tools to present cultural information: Google Docs, Meeting Words, Word Cloud, PowerPoint Presentation, smartphone, Microsoft Publisher, YouTube.

Educational goal (remembering): Learn and remember facts about aspects of the target culture to teach in a future English class (e. g., giving compliments in the target culture).

Task: Scan the text, choose the rules of complimenting behavior that are worth teaching in the classroom. Discuss them with your groups according to your roles. Roles: (1) moderator, (2) data digger, (3) questioner, (4) reflector, (5 - optional) illustrator.

Moderator — Your task is to read the text and keep the conversation flowing in your group, encourage others to comment and ask questions, and remind group members to stay on task. Finally, present in front of the others the aspects of the target culture chosen by the group. You might wish to use the PowerPoint Presentation.

Data digger — You are trying to uncover information to help your group find the specific aspect of culture to teach English learners in Belarusian schools. Prepare a word cloud (http://www.wordle.net), review your data and select the most relevant information to share in your discussion circle.

Questioner — You have the opportunity to probe the information you read with a critical eye and record questions regarding the text. For example: Is … different in the target and native cultures? Vary your questions, using -who, what, when, where, why and how.

Reflector — Your task is to make personal connections to the information you are reading and to consider: is this important in terms of cross-cultural communication? Why? Do you have personal stories to teach this aspect of culture? What's your opinion? Write your thoughts in a newsletter (you might wish to use Microsoft Publisher) and share them with your discussion circle.

Illustrator — Your task is to read the text carefully and prepare 1–2 slides for the PowerPoint Presentation. Think of a way to record the key ideas you discovered in a visual format (chart, graph, sketch, web, cartoon, diagram or a combination of visual formats). With the moderator, present your visual information to the group.

B. Educational goal (remembering): Learn and remember the procedure of teaching aspects of the target culture in a foreign language class.

Task: Watch the YouTube video about the phases to teach culture (information, behavior, values, self [12]), and in small groups, decide if the statements are true or false. At your discussion circle, recall the data from the video to persuade group members about the objectives and activities in each phase, when necessary.

C. Educational goal (understanding): Understand the ways to structure classroom activities that are aimed to teach culture.

Task: In groups, suggest an activity that matches each phase to teach culture (information, behavior, values, self). Roles: (1) moderator: task reminder, time keeper, presenter; (2) generator of ideas: suggests activities from his / her learning experience; (3) critical viewer: expresses doubt about the appropriateness of an activity or provides a good argument for it; (4) questioner: asks problem questions about the effectiveness of the suggested activity; (5) style and language expert: corrects errors, if necessary, and presents the best activities in a visual format (PowerPoint Presentation, or Microsoft Publisher).

2. Stage of practice

Suggested tools to practice collaborative skills when designing a set of exercises for teaching culture: Google Docs, Meeting Words. Role: student-teacher.

D. Educational goal (applying): Apply the phases of teaching culture in a set of exercises.

Task: In teams, prepare a set of exercises that highlight the phases of information, behavior, value, and self on the topic "Giving compliments in the target culture" (intermediate level of English). Use Google Docs or Meeting Words application to suggest, correct, improve, change activities, ask each other questions, and comment on one's own and each other's posts.

E. Educational goal (analyzing): Analyze the collaborative skills and the designed set of exercises.

Task: Analyze your team work and the set of exercises. The criteria for self and peer-assessment include: (1) participation: number of words used by each team-member; (2) productivity: number of suggested exercises by each team member; (3) methodological usefulness: sequence and quantity of exercises; (4) linguistic appropriateness: use of lexis and grammar structures.

F. Educational goal (evaluating): Evaluate the set of exercises.

Task: Improve the set of exercises in terms of participation, productivity, methodological usefulness, and linguistic appropriateness. Peer review the modified set of exercises. Write feedback to another group via Google Docs or Meeting Words.

3. Production stage

Suggested tools: Google Docs, Meeting Words application.

G. Educational goal (creating): Teach schoolchildren how to give compliments and respond to them in the target culture.

Task: In the role of teacher, present a set of exercises aimed at teaching compliments to learners of English. Role: foreign language teacher.

The goal of the third stage of research is to check the effectiveness of the set of information technology based activities that we created in order to make the students work collaboratively and to assess whether technology can truly help develop collaborative skills. We chose four indices — (1) equality (everyone contribution) (2) participation in discussions, (3) shareness (communicating ideas) and (4) role of information technology — as criteria for evaluating students' collaboration in designing sets of exercises. The first, preliminary, evaluation was done after students completed the first draft of activities in the phase of applying (D). The students were asked to give peer reviews and comment on possible improvements that each group could make. For this, we conducted a quantitative analysis to code and categorize how many words and exercises each student worked on in order to uncover students' collaboration behaviour. When the students completed all the tasks in the stages of presentation, practice and production, the second evaluation took place: the students reported their opinions regarding the use of web applications and gave feedback on the overall assignment on a survey that was created with Google Forms.

Results

The elaborated methodology was approbated in February — March 2018, at Baranovichi State University in the course "Intercultural Communication". There were fifteen 3rd year students (three males and twelve females) enrolled in the 3-week module on the topic "Giving compliments and responding to them".

Three teams of students with 5 members in each did the above activities. The themes of their projects included: (1) "Language structures that are used in compliments", (2) "Why a compliment can become a source of cross-cultural misunderstanding?" and (3) "Ways to respond to a compliment in the target culture." Two teams chose Google Docs and one — Meeting Words. In the phase of application, each student from each group assessed how many words they wrote and how many exercises they worked on (see Table 3).

Table 3: First Draft Collaboration

Group	Group Member	Number of Words (%)	Number of Exercises
A	Altogether (5)	143 (100%)	3
A	1	27 (18.88%)	2
A	2	31 (21,67%)	1
A	3	55 (38.46%)	3
A	4	0 (0%)	0
A	5	30 (20,97%)	2
B	Altogether (5)	871 (100%)	10
B	1	355 (40.76%)	4
B	2	146 (16.76%)	3
B	3	115 (13.2%)	2
B	4	183 (21.01%)	2
B	5	72 (8.27%)	2

C	Altogether (5)	593 (100%)	8
C	1	58 (9.78%)	3
C	2	140 (23.61%)	2
C	3	145 (24.45%)	2
C	4	66 (11.13%)	1
C	5	184 (31.02%)	5

In this stage of research, the obtained data demonstrates to what extent contributions were equal within each team. We found out that 14 students (93.33%) collaborated when doing the project (one student did not participate for technical reasons). Altogether, 21 exercises were analyzed (3; 10; 8 accordingly in each group) with a total of 1,607 words (143; 871; 593 words in each set). The average number of exercises constituted 2.27 per person: group A — 1.6 per person (53%); group B — 2.6 (26%); group C — 2.6 (32.5%). The preliminary results showed that, according to the criteria of equality, the majority of students collaborated doing information technology based activities. Sixty percent of trainees contributed with more than 20% of words, that constitute the sets of exercises. Also, 80 percent of students participated in the design of more than one activity. In the lesson, these results were discussed with the students, so they could better understand their goals in the phases of evaluation (F) and creation (G). After completing the exercises the students were asked to complete a survey on Google Forms to reflect on their work. The obtained results are presented below in Charts 1—5 and Tables 4—9.

Chart 1: Results for Question 1

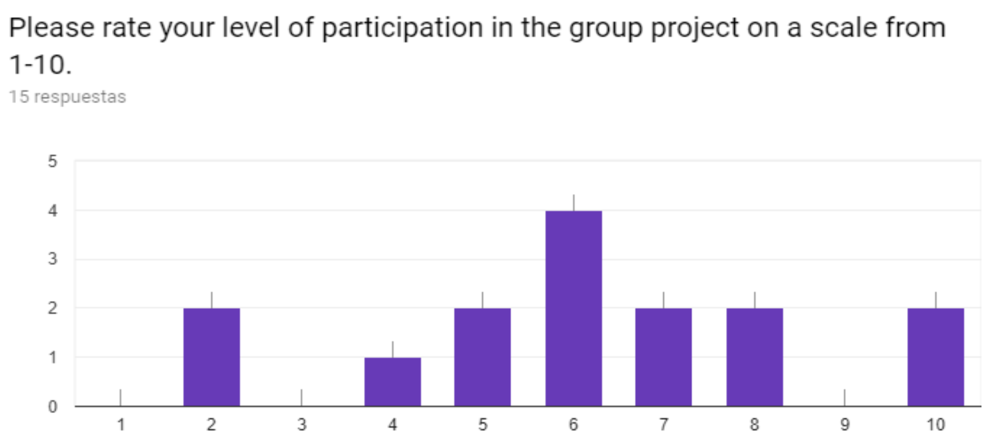

Chart 2: Results for Question 2

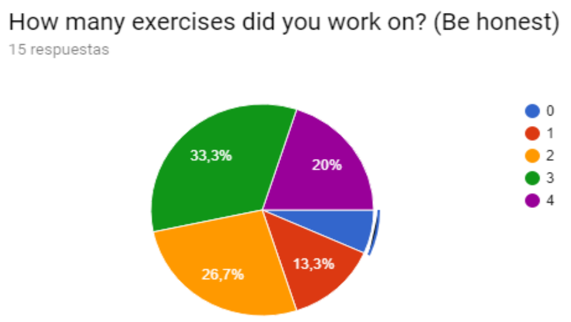

Table 4: Results for Question 3 (I liked, or didn't like, collaborating with my group members because...)

Student	Liked collaborating	Didn't like collaborating	Reason
1		✓	"Not all people wanted to participate."
2	✓		"It was useful and interesting."
3	✓		"Working together, I could understand what to do and how to do it."
4	✓		"It was a good experience."
5		✓	"Not all of my group members participated."
6	✓		"I liked it."
7	✓		"It was interesting."
8	✓		"I could see other group members' ideas and compare them with my own. We could also correct each other's work."
9	✓		"I liked it."
10	✓		"We were able to teach each other."

11	✓		"I liked it."
12	✓		"It was very interesting. It helped me to learn some new facts."
13	✓		"It made it possible to work in a group and share opinions."
14	✓		"I liked it."
15	✓		"I liked the idea of it, but I could not participate, due to technical problems."

Chart 3: Results for Question 4

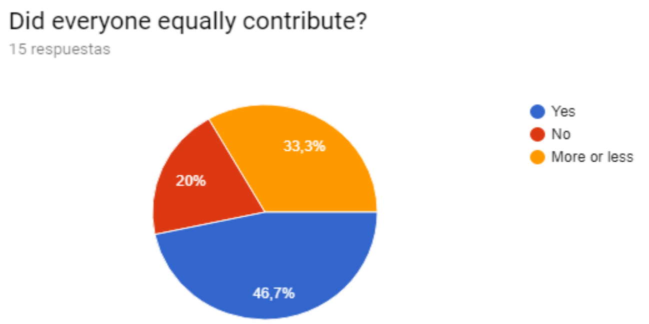

Table 5: Results for Question 5 (Was it easy to negotiate and accommodate to one other's perspectives?)

Student	Yes	No	More or Less	Comment
1	✓			"Yes!"
2			✓	"It was difficult, but not very."
3		✓		"Not really."

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4			✓	"At the beginning, it was difficult. After discussing the issues, it went better."
5			✓	"It was not always easy."
6		✓		"Not really."
7			✓	"It was difficult, but not so difficult."
8			✓	"So so."
9		✓		"It was not easy, but interesting."
10	✓			"It was easy."
11		✓		"It was not easy, but important."
12	✓			"Yes."
13	✓			"Yes."
14	✓			"Yes, we listened to each other's opinions."
15		✓		"No."

Chart 4: Results for Question 6

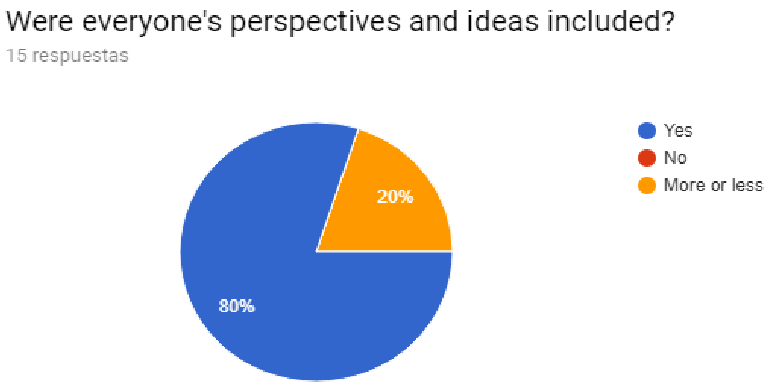

Chart 5: Results for Question 7

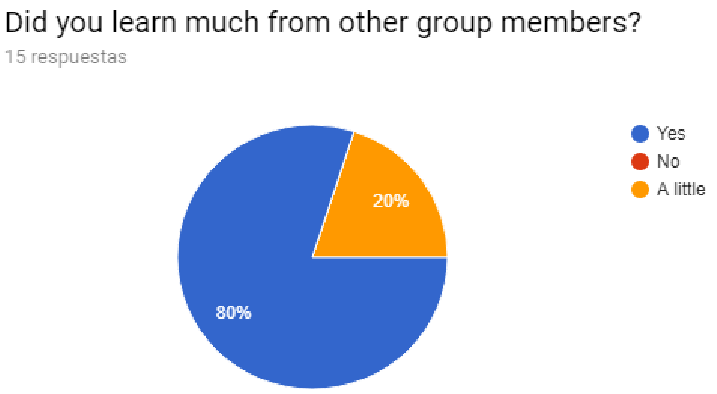

Table 6: Results for Question 8 (If you learned something new from other group members, what new insights (ideas) did you gain about teaching culture?)

Student	What you learned
1	"Some exercises."
2	"Huge role of playing."
3	"I learned about exercises and how to analyze them."
4	"I did not learn anything in particular."

5	"I learned about techniques and exercises that will be useful in teaching culture."
6	"To know about persons."
7	"To know each other very well."
8	"I learned how to build a set of exercises."
9	"I learned how to create a survey."
10	"I learned about different ways to create exercises."
11	"A lot."
12	"Nothing."
13	"I learned more information about the correctness of the exercises that we need to use."
14	"Every culture is important."
15	"It's very important to teach culture because it's part of my future profession."

Table 7: Results for Question 9 (Did using information technology help your group collaborate? If yes, in what way?)

Student	Yes	No	Comment
1	✓		"We were working from different locations."
2	✓		"We could collaborate from home."
3	✓		"Everyone could write their thoughts and opinions of each other's work."

4	✓		"If we had problems, we could consult each other, or correct each other if there were any inaccuracies."
5	✓		"We found a video for teaching compliments."
6	✓		"We got to know each other more."
7		✓	"No."
8	✓		"We could make different visual graphics, put images, and make creative exercises."
9		✓	"I don't know."
10		✓	"No."
11	✓		"Yes."
12		✓	"I don't know."
13	✓		"It's a way to learn how to work in a group, listen, and take into account each other's opinions."
14	✓		"We used a video."
15	✓		"It helped us with conversation."

Table 8: Results for Question 10 (What would you improve or change about this project?)

Student	What would you change or improve about this project?

1	"Nothing."
2	"Nothing."
3	"To see the names of the participants...who did what."
4	"Nothing special. Some details."
5	"It would be better if everyone was identified by a different color on Google Docs."
6	"Generally, everything suited me. Maybe I would make a small change in the structure of the exercise."
7	"In our project, none of the phases or exercises were fully worked out."
8	"I improve."
9	"Maybe to make a set of rules for participants. For example, to set an exact time for participants to be online for the discussion."
10	"I would improve my project."
11	"Nothing."
12	"Improve."
13	"Our project has achieved improvement with the help of the teacher's opinion, there is nothing more to change in it."
14	"All is good."
15	"I know how I get information."

Table 9: Results for Question 11 (Would you use this form of group work in other courses? Would you recommend it to other professors and students?)

Student	Yes?	No?	Recommend?

1	✓		"Yes."
2	✓		"Yes."
3	✓		"Yes."
4	✓		"Yes."
5	✓		"Yes."
6	✓		"Yes I will use, but I do not know about recommending."
7	✓		"Yes, of course."
8	✓		"I definitely would have worked more, it's interesting and exciting."
9	✓		"I think we can use this form of group work for other courses."
10	✓		"Yes."
11	✓		"Yes, collaborate more."
12	✓		
13	✓		"Yes, I believe this form of work is useful not only among students, but also for teachers."
14		✓	"I prefer to work alone, so I gain more experiences in completing assignments."
15	✓		"It would be nice to make such a collaboration in other courses. It helps to unite."

Discussion

The obtained results were examined according to the criteria of: (1) equality, (2) participation in discussions, (3) shareness, or communicating ideas and (4) use of information technology.

The analysis of the students' answers helped us to understand whether they contributed equally to the final outcome. According to Chart 1, nobody rated their participation as "1." This means that all of the students put some amount of effort into the group project. While five students rated their level of participation as "5" or less, nine students rated their level of participation as "6" or more. These numbers show that the majority of the students put at least an average amount of effort into the group project. One of the ideal goals of this project was to have each student contribute to every exercise that the group had to create. Fortunately, the majority of the students worked on at least 2 exercises. The biggest portion of students (33.3%) worked on 3 exercises (see Chart 2). These results show that students did not just pick one exercise to work on and leave other group members to finish the rest. Instead, most of them worked on several exercises, signifying that they read each other's work, ideas, and opinions. Although most students seem to have enjoyed collaboration, only 46.6% of them said everyone contributed equally to the group project (see Chart 3). This is understandable, however, considering the fact that it is probably not easy for everyone to contribute the exact same amount of work. Twenty percent of the students indicated that everyone did not contribute equally, and 33.3% indicated that everyone 'more or less' contributed equally. These numbers indicated that it was not very easy for all students to contribute an equal amount of work to their group projects.

The level of participation of the students in discussion was revealed by means of two questions. According to Table 4, the 13 out of 15 students enjoyed collaborating on their group project. The two students who stated that they did not like collaborating indicated that it was because not all of the group members wanted to participate. Unfortunately, with any group project, there are always cases where some students let their group members do all of the work for them. Perhaps it would have been better to set up a system or guidelines to prevent this from happening. Those who stated that they liked collaborating mentioned that it was useful, easy to share ideas and compare them, correct each other's work, and learn from each other. These statements show that collaboration was generally successful. When asked if it was easy to negotiate and accommodate to one other's perspectives, 5 students indicated "yes," 5 students indicated "no," and 5 students indicated "more or less" (33% in each sample). Those who put "no" or "more or less" explained that it was not always easy to negotiate. One student said it was easier after consulting more with each other. Two others said that, while it was not easy, it was interesting or important to accommodate to one other's perspectives. Overall, the students did not provide very complete explanations for their answers. Later, we asked them in class to elaborate on their answer to this question on the survey in order to gain a better understanding of why it was not easy for everyone. The common answer was that negotiating and accommodating to one other's perspectives required skills that they had not fully developed yet, and that they needed more practice with it Although only five students claimed that it was easy to negotiate and accommodate to one other's perspectives, 80% of them indicated that everyone's perspectives and ideas were included in the group project (see Chart 4). None of the students indicated that nobody's ideas were included, and 20% of them said that all of their perspectives were included "more or less." These results show that, although it was difficult to accommodate to one other's perspectives, the ending results show that everyone's ideas were still included in the final product of the group projects.

To measure shareness in collaboration, we also looked at how much students learned from their group members. Almost all of the students (80%) indicated that they had learned something new from working with other group members and none of the students indicated that they didn't learn anything (see Chart 5). Learning from other group members is a key aspect of collaboration. These numbers demonstrate that students listened to each other, worked together, and most importantly, gained new insights from doing so. Naturally, we also asked the students to explain what they actually learned from each other. Five students indicated that they learned from each other how to create useful exercises that are geared toward teaching culture (see Table 6). Four of the students indicated that they learned how important it is to teach culture and to know about other people in the world. What is interesting is that two students indicated that they learned nothing, even though the results shown in Chart 5 indicate that everyone learned at least something. Additionally, most of the students seemed to have claimed what they learned from doing the project in general, and not what they learned specifically from other group members.

One of the objectives of this study was to find out whether or not technology contributes to the development of collaborative skills. The majority of the students indicated that technology helped them collaborate with their group members (see Table 7). Out of the 11 students that indicated "yes," four of them said that technology helped them collaborate from home and aided their ability to discuss the project with each other. Three of the students who indicated "yes" mentioned that technology helped them see each other's work and comment on it, and two of them said that technology helped them include visual graphics in their projects. Only 4 of the students said that technology didn't help them collaborate; however, these students did not give an explanation for their answer. Overall, we can observe that the use of Google Docs and Meeting Words helped students collaborate with group members. Most importantly, it gave students a chance to read each other's work and give feedback to one other's ideas.

Lastly, when students were asked if there is something that should be changed or improved about the project, five of the them said nothing, and 6 of the students did not say anything specific (see Table 8). Perhaps, some of the trainees did not fully understand the question, or maybe it needed more clarification. Two of the students suggested a change of the web applications that they used. More specifically, they said that they would prefer a web application that would allow them to see exactly what each participant wrote. For example, Meeting Words has a feature that allows participants to be identified by a certain color, making it easier to see who did what. Two of the students mentioned establishing some kind of system of accountability. For example, one of them mentioned that it would be helpful to set a time for every group member to be online at the same time, and the other simply stated that none of the exercises were fully worked out. With any group project, it is sometimes difficult to prevent some students from slacking off and others from taking over. It might also be hard to coordinate schedules. Additionally, all but one student indicated that they would use this form of collaboration for group projects in other courses (see Chart 6). Only one of these students said that they weren't sure if they would recommend it to other students and teachers. Those who said that they would recommend it mentioned that collaboration was interesting, exciting, and useful. Only one student from the whole class said they would not use this form of collaboration in other courses, or even recommend it, because they prefer to work alone. This is understandable, considering that every student has their own learning style.

To sum up, the obtained results demonstrate that the set of information technology based activities in combination with the PPP approach provides positive dynamics in collaborative skills development according to the criteria of equality, participation, shareness, and the role of information technology. As far as this study is based only on the pilot study data, the use of technology in the development of collaborative skills requires further research.

Conclusion

In this research we studied the process of collaborative skills development by means of information technology based activities. A range of important conclusions can be made.

The development of collaborative skills can be done using the PPP approach in the stages of presentation, practice and production.

The PPP approach allows to structure information technology based activities in the way to match the educational objectives (remembering → understanding → applying → analyzing → evaluating → creating), that are necessary in teaching collaboration.

Google Docs and Meeting Words applications are powerful tools that enable developing collaborative skills.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IRANIAN MALE DENTISTRY STUDENTS' METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS AND LISTENING PERFORMANCE IN ENGLISH FOR GENERAL PURPOSES (EGP)

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Abstract

Metacognition is considered as the knowledge and ability to monitor and control of cognitive conditions in the learning process. Listening is the most important skill of the four language skills in both learning and teaching. It plays an important role in learners' daily life. Although there is a deeper perception of listening, it needs more attention and research. The present study investigates the relationship between the metacognitive awareness and listening performance of dentistry students as English language learners. The participants were 50 Iranian male Dentistry students of Urmia University of Medical Sciences. They completed metacognitive awareness listing questionnaire and listening section of the final exam. First the listening section were of the final exam was applied to the participants at classrooms by the teacher. Immediately after the administration of the examination, the MALQ (metacognitive awareness listening questionnaires) were conducted. The analysis exposed a weak positive relationship between learners' metacognitive awareness scores and listening performance. Although correlation was not high, still there is more correlation in problem solving, directed attention, and planning evaluation than others.

Key words: Metacognitive, Awareness, Listening, Males, EFL learners, EGP

Introduction

Learning languages is the process of dealing with 4 skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing and in order learns to all skills perfectly we should use proper learning/teaching strategies. Among these four skills, listening is the skill of understanding spoken language and it is an important skill; perform as a reflection of other life activities (Lindsay and Knight, 2006). In another view according to Bueno et al. (2006), listening is a psychological phenomenon, happens in people minds. It acts as a social phenomenon in order to scaffolding the elements. Listening is an essential skill which develops faster than speaking and often affects the development of reading and writing abilities in learning a new language (TafarojiYeganeh, 2013). Listening is an important factor in bonding our ideas to one another and it is the recognition (being listen to) in the response from another person that makes our experience Meaningful (Nichols, 2009).

Learning the second language is a complex process (Harputlu & Ceylan, 2014). Some learners fulfill this task properly and some fail even they follow the same rules because learners have different ways of learning or individual differences affect the process of learning (Harputlu & Ceylan, 2014). Learning strategies of the L2 learning spotlighted since the mid-1970s and defined as techniques for understanding, remembering, and using information that is intentionally used and consciously controlled by the learner (Rahimi & Katal, 2012). This consciousness or awareness in the process of listening is related to the way listeners think about the listening process; plan, monitor, and evaluate the listening task; and how do listen (Rahimi & Abedi 2014). As listening presses mostly related to our mind and other similar factors, we should talk about the term Metacognitive knowledge. According to Flavell (1979), it refers to the knowledge of persons` related to personal characteristics, task characteristics, and available strategies in a learning situation which could act as a positive component and facilitated the learning or as a negative point and make inhibition and also this knowledge include learners ability to connect the learning task required strategies (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). It is a bridge between areas, e.g., between decision making and memory, between learning and motivation, and between learning and cognitive development (Hoare, 2011).

The present study intends to explore the relationship between the Metacognitive awareness and EFL learner's listening performance. Although there are some studies on Metacognition and listening, it seems that there is not enough attention to the self-regulation learning and listening. Most of the learners facing with problems feel demotivated in listening related to a wrong idea about listening.

Research question and hypothesis

The main purpose of the study is to investigate the relationships between the Metacognitive awareness, and the listening proficiency of EFL students.

Is there any relationship between Metacognitive awareness and Iranian male EFL learners listening performance?

H0: there is no relationship between Metacognitive awareness and Iranian male EFL learners listening performance.

Methodology

Participants

The target population of the study was 50 male Dentistry students at upper intermediate and advanced proficiency language level at UMSU that participated in this study in the spring and summer term of 2017. All of the participants had received English in school as a compulsory course in primary and secondary school before starting their voluntary attending in English language centers, and had upper intermediate and advanced language certificates with more than 3 years language experience from different languages institutes confirmed by Iranian Ministry of Education. Their age ranged from 18 to 22, selected randomly and voluntarily to complete the questionnaire. The participants were self-selected and research was focused only on male gender.

Research design

This study is based on Correlation coefficient which measures the extent to which two variables tend to change together. The coefficient describes both the strength and the direction of the relationship and Pearson product moment correlation intended to evaluate the linear relationship between two continuous variables. A relationship is linear when a change in one variable is associated with a proportional change in the other variable. The data were collected using two separate instruments. The research was designed primarily to collect quantitative data to be analyzed. In order to collect the required data, two scales a listening proficiency test were administered in this study: Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) as one variable, and the listening section of the final exam as the other variable. In addition, the scales included a demographic information section which contained questions concerning students' personal information such as age.

The Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ)

The Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire developed by Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, Tafaghodtari (2006) consists of 21 items. The items are rated on a six-point Likert scale rating from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). It evaluates L2 learners' "Metacognitive awareness concerning their perceived use of strategies while listening to oral texts" (Goh & Hu, 2014, p. 260). It further assesses their perceptions with regard to the difficulty of listening skill and their self-efficacy in it. Five subscales are included in the questionnaire, namely problem-solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, directed attention, and person knowledge. The first subscale is planning and evaluation that contains items about how learners plan ahead for listening and evaluate the outcome of their listening efforts (items 1, 10, 14, 20 & 21). The second subscale is problem-solving which consists of items on how learners monitor comprehension and solve difficulties as they arise (items 5, 7, 9, 13, 17 & 19). The third subscale of the questionnaire directed attention includes items on how learners maintain their attention and stay on task during listening (items 2, 6, 12 & 16). The fourth subscale, mental translation, comprises items indicating whether listeners use mental translation strategies as they listen (items 4, 11 & 18). Finally, person knowledge, the fifth subscale, contains items representing listeners' perceptions about the difficulty presented by L2 listening and their self-efficacy in L2 listening (items 3, 8 & 15).Items 3, 8 and 16 were stated negatively so that the participants would not indicate a favorable attitude towards marking only one side of the scale. Items 4, 11 and 18 represent the mental translation strategies, which the learners should avoid to become efficient listeners. Thus, these six items were reverse coded for overall interpretation of scores. The questionnaire was conducted in its original form. The reliability coefficient of MALQ calculated in this study was .879. The coefficients for each subscale were appeared to be .756 for problem-solving, .559 for planning and evaluation, .767 for mental translation, .536 for directed attention, and .809 for person knowledge.

MALQ-items are randomly interwoven with others; some are negatively worded to avoid learners to mark only one side of the rating scale (mental translation); the internal reliability of the MALQ (Cronbach alphas) for the items was respectable, ranging from .68 to .78 (Vandergrift, 2006, as cited in Fernandez 2013). MALQ was useful to assess the extent to which language learners are aware of and can regulate the process of L2 listening comprehension; it is also intended to serve as a self-assessment instrument. Learners themselves can use it to appraise the awareness of the listening process as well as to reflect on their use of strategy when listening to texts in the L2. Taking the reverse coding into consideration, the maximum score of the Metacognitive awareness listening questionnaire is 126 points when every item is answered with 'strongly agree'; in turn, the minimum score is 21 points when the respondents answer with 'strongly disagree.

Listening section of the final exam

The second instrument used in this study was the learners' English listening section of the final exam. These students' classroom experiences and knowledge was based on Top Notch and Summit course Level by Pearson Longman press. It was used to determine the participants' listening ability according to the own levels in English classes. It consisted of 10 multiple-choice (3 options) questions. Students had listened to a scientist who was talking about whales and supposed to choose the correct answer. At first, they had 90 seconds to study the sentences. Then they listened to the podcast for about 7 minutes. They listened to the program for the second time to correct or finish their work. Finally, they had 90 seconds to finalize their answers.

Listening was about scientist who is talking about whales. There was a research team collecting information about the whale's tune and sounds and songs for long period of time and compared it with new data and considered the difference between male and female voices and the way they changed it during the time and the voices conceived as a harmonic, like a piece of music. The test included general listening and multiple choice questions. Total of raw points was (min=0, max=20) and each question had 2 points which converted into a scaled score of 0 to 20.The total number of the final examination was 100 and it contained 5 parts: Reading, writing, speaking (as an interview), and listening and students class activities during the term. Each part assigned score was 20.

Data collection procedures

The teacher explicitly explains the Metacognitive listening methodology to the students in class instruction. Metacognitive processes are typically predicting, planning, monitoring, evaluating and problem-solving (Goh, 2008). The investigation was conducted five intact classes at the same level. At first, the teacher informed the students about the purpose and procedure of the study. It was also emphasized that their participation would be anonymous and confidential. Then, the listening section of the exam was played to the participants. It took about 15 minutes to finish answering the questions. Immediately after the exam, the MALQ were administered. It took almost 10 minutes to complete them.

Data analysis

Quantitative data obtained from the instruments were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Microsoft excel. The questionnaire was analyzed by grouping items to the 5 categories (predicting, planning, monitoring, evaluating and problem-solving). The subjects' responses to each item were counted. Then each item was considered within the group of items that address a specific category. Finally, the means of all the subjects' responses to each group of items were calculated. The mean supplies information on the average performance of all the subjects' Metacognitive strategies and informs the researcher about how subjects as a whole performed. For the research question, in order to find whether there is any significant correlation between listeners' Metacognitive awareness and their performance on EFL listening comprehension test, Pearson correlation coefficient was performed. All of the assumption of Pearson correlation including continuous variables, related pairs (pair of values include listening and Metacognition), absence of outliers and linearity and homoscedasticity were met.

Results

The research question in the study try to explain whether there is a relationship between L2 listening proficiency and total score of MALQ. It further explores the association between L2 listening proficiency and the subscales of MALQ, namely mental translation, person knowledge, problem-solving, planning and evaluation, and directed attention. The minimum and maximum and means and standard deviations for the listening scores, the five MALQ subscales, and the overall MALQ score are presented in the Table1.

Table1. Descriptive Statistics for Listening Scores, Overall MALQ Scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Problem-solving	50	13	26	19.49	2.887
Directed attention	50	11	20	15.63	2.262
Person knowledge	50	4	14	9.29	2.369
Mental translation	50	3	13	8.00	2.638
Problem-solving	50	18	32	25.73	2.919
L2 Listening proficiency	50	12	20	18.10	1.723
Metacognitive	50	65	89	78.10	5.658

On average, the participants scored 18.10 out of a maximum 20 in the final exam listening test, indicative of their approximately high listening proficiency. The standard deviation of 1.723 indicated that there was not a considerable variability in listening proficiency among the participants. The mean MALQ score was 78.10 on a six-point scale. This showed that the participants reported a high level of strategy use and confidence regarding listening. Of the five MALQ subscales, the participants scored considerably higher for problem solving (M=25.73, SD=2.919), planning and evaluation (M=19.49, SD=2.887), directed attention (M=15.63, SD=2.262), than for person knowledge (M=9.29, SD=2.369) and mental translation (M=8.00, SD=2.638). In order to examine the relationships between the listening scores, the five MALQ subscales, and the overall MALQ score, the Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficient was calculated. The results are illustrated in the Table 2.

Table2. Inter-correlations among Listening Scores, MALQ Subscales Scores

	Correlation(r) with L2 listening proficiency
Mental translation	0.106
Person knowledge	0.154
Problem-solving	0.97
Planning and evaluation	0.22
Directed attention	0.112
MALQ	** 0.2390

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Quantitative data results

Table 2 shows that the participants' overall MALQ scores (M=78.10, SD=5.658) were related to their scores in the final exam listening test (M =18.10, SD =1.723). The relationship between L2 listening proficiency and Metacognitive awareness was statistically positive ($r = 0.239$, $p < 0.01$). The higher the participants scored on the MALQ scale, the higher they scored on the listening test. The results further indicated that there was a higher correlation between L2 listening proficiency in the three subscales of MALQ, person knowledge ($r = 0.154$, $p < 0.01$), Direct attention ($r = 0.112$, $p < 0.01$) and mental translation ($r = 0.106$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, there was a small positive correlation between L2 listening proficiency and two of the MALQ subscales, namely planning and evaluation ($r = 0.022$, $p < 0.01$), and problem- solving ($r =0.097$, $p < 0.01$).

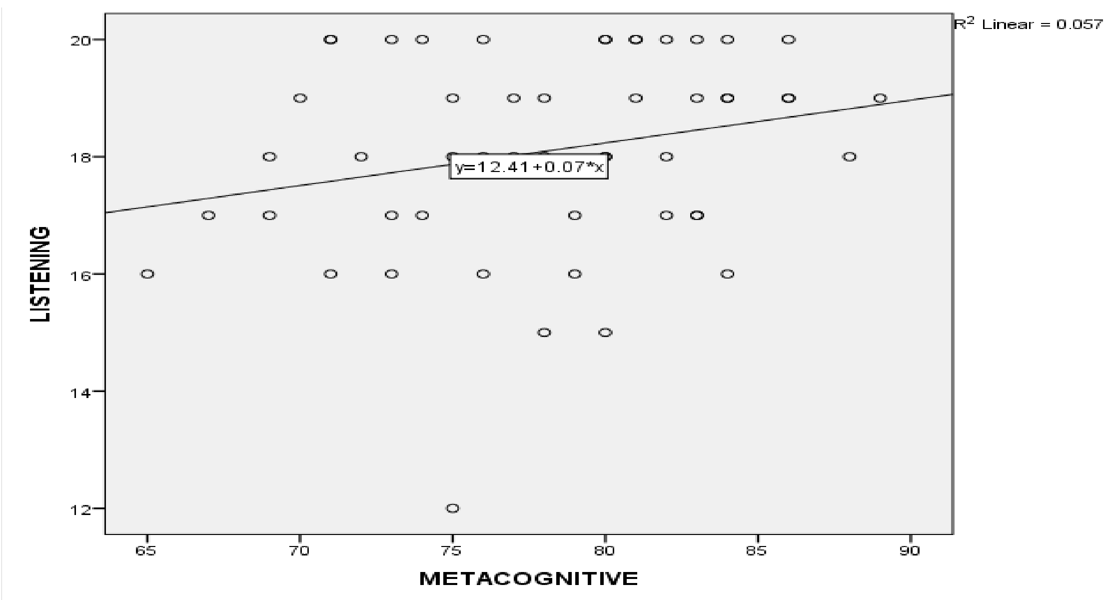

Figure 1: Scatter diagram for the correlation between MALQ and Listening

Using the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation to measure the strength of the relationship between the two variables of strategy and style, shows values of Pearson correlation coefficients (r) between -1 and +1. The correlational matrix showed a positive association between the variables Regression analysis model indicated that for each one-unit increase in Metacognition, listening will increase an estimated 7.3 units.

Discussion

The relationship between Metacognitive awareness listening and listening performance among male Dentistry students at UMSU has been investigated in this study. In this section, the findings of the present study are discussed and interpreted in light of the previous studies in past.

The results revealed a small positive relationship between Metacognitive awareness and listening proficiency. Moreover, L2 listening proficiency correlated with three types of Metacognitive strategies person knowledge, directed attention, mental translation strategies had more related than the others. Problem-solving strategies are the strategies used to infer the meaning of unknown words or phrases in listening passages through known words, prior knowledge, and contexts (Goh and Hu, 2014). Planning and evaluation strategies enable students to prepare themselves for listening activities and analyze if their approach to the listening text is correct or not. Directed attention strategies can enable learners to ignore distracters and maintain attention during the listening performance (Vandergrift, 1997). Person knowledge is the knowledge a person has about himself or herself and others as cognitive processors to undertake a task (Flavell, 1979). Mental translations are those strategies that listeners must learn to avoid if they are to become skilled listeners (Vandergrift, 2003). Hence, the students who deploy these strategies are more likely to have a higher listening proficiency. Lower proficiency listeners are not likely to utilize those strategies due to the constraints they experience during listening such as the lack of vocabulary knowledge and the state of being unable to recognize the sounds of words known in print (Goh, 2000).

These results of the study appear to be consistent with previous studies which have pointed out a relationship between Metacognitive strategy use and L2 listening proficiency (Baleghizadeh and Rahimi, 2011; Goh and Hu, 2014; Rahimi & Katal, 2012; Shirani Bidabadi & Yamat, 2011; TafarojiYeganeh, 2013; Vandergrift et al., 2006). Since mental translation strategies are those which are used mainly by low proficiency listeners (Goh & Hu, 2014; Vandergrift et al., 2006) .These strategies prevent L2 listeners from keeping up with the incoming input; hence they cannot comprehend listening texts but in this research, participants used this strategy even more than problem solving and Planning evaluation.

Finally, the results revealed a correlation between L2 listening proficiency and person knowledge. Person knowledge factor assesses how difficult learners perceive L2 listening, and what degree they have self-efficacy in it (Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). High anxiety and also low confidence affect the listening performance of L2 students. This result is consistent with the previous studies (Elkhafaifi, 2005; Goh & Hu, 2014; Mills, Pajares &Herron, 2006; Ratebi & Amirian, 2013).This study investigated the relationship between Metacognitive strategies and listening performance. The result of the study showed that students' level of Metacognitive listening strategy awareness is positive (small). This study is in line with findings of following studies like (Akbari, 2003; Ratebi & Amirian, 2013; Lachini, 1997; Pishgaman, 2009; Tajedin, 2001)

Among the five main categories of Metacognitive strategies in MALQ, the directed attention and person knowledge was the most frequently use strategies and planning and evaluation was least. According to Vandergrift (2003), all EFL learners use strategies which help them to understand the listening part. The difference is that proficient listeners are more aware of how to use it properly.

The result of study based on Goh's ideas is beneficial in three ways:

1. It has effect in both process and product of the learning.

2. Metacognitive strategies make learners keep information easily.

3. They help learners to deal with challenging tasks better (Fahim & Fakhri, 2014).

The Metacognitive instruction was beneficial in terms of improving listening proficiency and raising students' awareness of their L2 learning the listening strategy use. The current study addressed the relationship between Meta cognitive awareness strategy and EFL learners' listening comprehension performance. The p value was less than 0.01 and consequently, the null hypotheses which proposed are rejected. The results of present study confirmed that Metacognitive listening strategy awareness and listening comprehension of EFL learners are correlated (weak).The result of the study revealed that in general students' level of Metacognitive listening strategy awareness is satisfactory. This finding is in line with the findings of other studies that showed that Iranian students have (high) Metacognitive awareness in general (Akbari, 2003; Lachini, 1997; Pishghadam, 2009; Tajedin, 2001) and in listening strategies (Rahimi and Katal, 2012; Shirani, Bidabadi &Yamat, 2010, 2011).

However, it was also found that Iranian students' are not aware of their person knowledge strategies. Person knowledge refers to students' self-efficacy and ability to assess the perceived difficulty of the learning tasks. This study was in line with Hsueh-Jui Luii's (2008) results that listening strategies had relationship with students' proficiency levels and Baleghizadeh and Rahimi's (2011) findings that there is a significant relationship between EFL learners' listening ability and their Metacognitive strategic knowledge since Metacognitive listening strategies enhance the EFL learners' listening performance.

This finding of the study can be explained by considering the fact that it rarely happens that Iranian students have a chance to evaluate their own strengths with the given task in the language classes because most of the time language courses in Iran focus on traditional techniques and teacher-centered methods (Rahimi & Nabilou, 2009). Therefore, the concepts of self-assessment, self-awareness, and peer-assessment have not been truly developed among Iranian students, while the essence of most practices to improve Metacognitive skills is to engage students in collaborative activities such as peer assessments, collective reflection, and modeling Metacognitive processes (Choi, Land, & Turgeon, 2005). As having students to plan, monitor and reflect on their work could be applied to improve Metacognitive thinking and development, the need for reform in EFL curriculum in Iran is highlighted by this finding. (Rahimi & Katal, 2012). Based on Goh (2008), it was proven that Metacognitive instruction can improve learner's awareness of their listening ability to use proper strategies. This study obviously emphasized that using Metacognitive instructions in teaching listening increased language learners' Meta cognitive knowledge which itself enhanced their comprehension and understanding of the purposes of the listening (Rahimi & Katal, 2013).

According to the findings of the study, guidelines regarding the cultivation of Metacognitive awareness are made to the listeners and instructors. First, teachers ought to educate what Metacognition is and what is the function Metacognition performs in learning. This enables listeners to have a complete understanding of listening tasks and listening strategies and consider personal factors that can facilitate or hinder listening. Second, instructors should perform activities where listeners have opportunities to practice Metacognitive strategies, like discussing strategy use in the listening classroom, how to improve listening, Listeners got the opportunity to have each other's thoughts and beliefs with each other and apply new strategies in their own learning or the pre-listening and post-listening activities. Listeners are motivated to think about the process of listening by dealing with this process. In fact, they are learning to learn to listen and consequently, their Metacognitive awareness about how to learn listening will be enhanced.

The third activity is using the checklist of listening strategies when they have to listen and should use a checklist before and after listening and put tick according to the type strategies and listeners are encouraged to assess the appropriateness of their strategy use, listeners are obliged to make plans to improve their performance for the next time. This method is also good for introverted listeners who are unwilling to speak out in discussions (Yang, 2009).

Conclusion

To conclude, it should be noted that the traditional idea of only exposing EFL students to listening texts in listening classes should be challenged by an approach in which strategies can effectively and successfully be embedded to the listening course by means of strategy training program. Listening is an important and implicit process which most of the life activities depends on it. It is hoped that this study will cause more research exploring the effect of different strategy training models on students' performance in different basic skills. Studies proving the effectiveness of strategy training are likely to convince English teachers, teacher trainers, course book writers and curriculum and syllabus designers to be more aware of the benefits of strategy training and include these strategies in their lessons, course books, and curricula. Due to the results of this study, the concluding remarked that Metacognitive awareness has a positive relationship with L2 listening proficiency. Although correlations do not show causation, the association regression analysis model indicated that for each one-unit increase in Metacognition, listening will increase an estimated 7.3 units i.e. higher Metacognitive awareness is linked with higher L2 listening proficiency. Metacognitive awareness helps students to finds opportunities in order to increase their listening performance.

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INFERRING A MESSAGE THROUGH CAPITALIZATION

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Abstract

The English language is unique in the sense that the writing rules are stringent and unbending. The rules generally and the rules of capitalization particularly have practically been set in stone for centuries. Capital letters help us understand what we read and others understand what we have written. It is also about giving elegance to a text. To clarify meaning in your writing you have to consider the capitalization rules. However, in the world of imagery the accepted rules are not always taken into account. Capital letters become graphic stylistic devices containing a diverse semantic meaning when the rules are disregarded. This case may make a big difference in the interpretation of a sentence since capitalization helps to convey information. What happens when complete words are capitalized? Completely capitalized words become great tools for transmitting the right message to a reader. Particularly only modern writes have taken advantage of manipulating and exploiting capital letters as graphic devices and by doing that helping readers to infer the author's message.

Key Words: Capitalization; Inferring; Author's message; Fiction; Disregarded; Conventions.

Existing form of fiction differs significantly from other forms of art by their attitude to material. Marble or wood, which a sculpture is made of, is an inseparable part of the latter and an essential component while evaluating it as a work of art. A paper, on which a book is printed, can't tell much about its literature value. A broken sculpture ceases to exist while destruction of one or two books can't bring an end to its existence. The verse stays the verse notwithstanding it is printed or read in the magazine; heard on the radio or said on the stage. To read the work of literature in order to perceive it deeply is much more essential than to listen to it. For this reason graphic design of a text has really attained great importance recently. The latter doesn't mean a view of a book or a size of font, although they are quite important in order to read comfortably and get esthetic impression. When we are talking about graphic design we mean the visual means that are used to convey and transmit the definite meaning to readers.

Capitals being graphic means that highlight text and its units have been used since ancient times. The general function of capitals is to give elegance to a text and distinguish concrete words from others (here we mean some grammatical conventions of languages). Capitals, being a graphic device able to distinguish words and some textual parts, have been widely used later, particularly in the modern epoch. The rules of capitalization have practically been set in stone for centuries. However, we pay attention to their use in fiction. Capitals become graphic devices containing esthetic information by disregarding generally accepted rules. Moreover, their overuse serves to distinguish some textual parts and transmit the right author's intention to a reader.

Stylistic use of language means is mostly connected to the selection of those forms and units that are the most effective for readers to decode an author's intention adequately. Therefore, the pragmatic aspect of language appears initially in stylistic organization of a text. Finally, any stylistic device that works within the frames of a text with certain form and concrete volume is nothing but the way to organize oral action. Properly organized oral action in itself is the only guarantee of the perfect “exchange” of transmitted information and partly it can forecast the forthcoming effect. Likewise in order to transmit an author’s intention accurately to an addressee the visual side becomes quite important. In the following example the words are completely capitalized. The way how words are isolated from the rest of the text marks their tone, as if they are written loudly and therefore we have to read them out in the same way.

SOMEONE MUST TELL HER HUSBAND!! (Aidoo, 1986, p. 44)

This example seems very loud and categorical. If we compare it with the same sentence written in low case letters we can clearly comprehend the difference.

Someone must tell her husband!!

Despite the fact that we on purpose left both exclamation marks at the end of the sentences, which in itself adds emotional colouring and suggests definite intonation, the difference between the first and the second sentences is obvious. The completely capitalized words dictate the way how the sentence must be said and in addition they suggest the definite tone. It is fairly obvious that the second sentence does not disclose the author’s intention and can’t be perceived adequately.

“You confounded old rascal,” I said, reaching down to my pocket, “you ought to be turned over to the police.”

For the first time I saw him smile. He knew; he knew: HE KNEW (O.Henry).

This example also demonstrates how capitalization changes the significance of the complete passage. The meaning is reinforced by repetition and italics first but the great emotional tension is reached only by capitalization.

Capitalization enables readers to guess not only an author’s general mood, his peculiar tone or style, his personal attitude to described events, what is given between the lines but also the definite pragmatic orientation which he/she has toward the readers since an author makes an emotional impact on readers and causes desired esthetic reaction only through graphic means.

The following example is a lot more interesting because the completely capitalized word is placed vertically and not horizontally as it usually happens.

Marija was crying silently. There was a tear streaming out of one of her eyes. The tear was coming out of the left eye only. The right eye was completely dry. Sissie felt pain at the sight of flat one tear. That forever tear out of one eye. Suddenly Sissie knew. She saw it once and was never to forget it. She saw against the background of the thick smoke that was like a rain cloud over the chimneys of Europe.

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Forever falling like a tear out of a woman's eye. (Aidoo, 1986, p. 65)

From the speaker's point of view the completely capitalized and vertically placed word "LONELINESS" stands for the tear coming down from Marija's left eye. The author places the word vertically in order to give the word an ordinary direction of a tear. The tone dictated by capital letters and their unusual location turn out to be very effective. On the whole, the emotional colouring caused by visual effects and the problem coming out from the word itself coincide with each other amazingly and completely affect readers.

In all these examples the accepted rules are deliberately ignored in order to transmit esthetic information of an utterance or an author's intention. We believe that visual side of a text is stylistically essential in order to transmit to a reader something that is passed in oral speech by stress, tone, voice, pauses, and so on. A verbal text has aimed at totally new objectives and therefore has not followed those standards accepted up to now. Taking into account above said the present work aims at revealing stylistic effect of completely capitalized words; their importance in a verbal text, as readers get authentic author's information through this particular stylistic graphic device.

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DEVELOPMENT OF COLABORATIVE SKILLS WITH INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

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Abstract

There are three areas addressed to direct the plan and implementation of this survey as main objectives: the faculty members' feelings and impressions on applying the Skype site as a medium for teaching and learning academic writing, its weak and strong points. The study was a descriptive quantitative-qualitative research in which a general survey model was used. The survey questionnaires consist of 30 statements, devised in five categories based on Premise Base and Conducive Assumptions to clarify the Skype-based educational utilities and application. An interview was also applied to explore if the participants confirmed that the media-based approach augments their learning of academic English writing process. The results revealed the faculty members' perceptions toward using the Skype site as a supporting tool for course delivery based on selected variables: their specialization, experience of teaching, and past experiences with Skype. There were no statistically significant differences at (α = 0.05) in the use of Skype units due to faculty members' majors. There are statistically significant differences at (α = 0.05) in the use of Skype units due to the number of years of teaching experience variable, in favors of the third and fourth year faculty members. The result also revealed that there are statistically significant differences at (α = 0.05) in the use of Skype units due to the past experiences with Skype, in favors of faculty members with no Skype use experience. Also, the calculated mean and standard deviations in six areas each having five statements arranged from the highest to the lowest ranking indicated the participants' impressions of Skype-based blended model in teaching academic writing. Skype as an educational medium is beneficial for delivering academic writing materials and supporting learning. Faculty members not having enough time to participate in classes feel comfortable with the use of the Skype-based methodology in academic writing. They expressed their acceptance of this medium in teaching academic writing. Skype-based teaching can become a very effective educational medium for learning academic English writing.

Keywords: blended learning; Skype media; academic writing; mobile learning; faculty members

Introduction

Web media like Skype, Twitter, WhatsApp, and SMS not only make it viable to effortlessly deliver, receive and share information, but to simplify communication, and collaboration interaction with other people utilizing various skills such as writing, link sharing, and voice or video files. Many universities and colleges have devised various platforms applying these media in mobiles to draw faculty members' interactive needs, interests and feelings. Thus, investigators have inspected the capacity of these facilities in different teaching and learning areas (Ajjan & Hartshorne, 2008; Armstrong & Franklin, 2008; Kee-Kuok Wong, 2004; Smith & Baber, 2007). Lots of Android applications are currently being evolved such as WhatsApp, Skype and GO SMS Pro, the most prominent messenger applications among the university faculty members (Huang & Hsiao, 2012; Rao, 2007).

The requirement to different media in teaching and learning confirms the planners to reinforce the ability of faculty members in academic writing (Darus, 2009). This is prominently since from the didactic view point, faculty members are used to the traditional indulging, old, and adjunct approaches of teaching and learning (Blyth, 2008; Holton & Clarke, 2006) usually are of little time for continuing education. The problem continues, as Murphy and Rodriguez-Manzanares (2012) comment, that communication hour for faculty members and lecture is another barrier to be encountered. Therefore, few hours of teaching and learning English per week is not enough to empower the faculty members to exercise and develop English and acquire academic writing. Thus, there is a necessity to find the solutions to these problems particularly in creating environment to meet the faculty members need in their lack of enough time to participate in English writing face to face classes and teach them how to achieve a good outcome even outside the classroom.

Conducive assumptions to language education and educational media

It is essential for teachers interested in assimilating facets of educational media with their learners to bear in mind the propositions and current didactic attitudes regulating language learning with media. There can be three specific classes to language learning inquiries (Beltrán, 2009).

a. Technological propositions are the ones (Beltrán, 2009) explains as advancement stage, comprising of explorative and descriptive surveys. They aim at evaluating the potential benefits of the special media, addressing the ways they may modify the concept of traditional learning in the face to face classes. In accordance with Blyth's ideas (Blyth, 2008), pursuing to apply a particular social networking media and making ready the path for further research in the area of social networking in this area are appropriate for teachers.
b. Psycholinguistic attitudes to language learning or teaching target the significance of social communication and apprehending. Long (1996; 1985) in Interaction Hypothesis believes that language progress is accomplished by person-to-person interaction and the linguistic cooperation that happen. Influential survey in CALL has long advocated the inspection of acquisition matter within a communicative, psycholinguistic schedule (Chapelle, 1997; Celce-Murcia, 2001; Ciekanski & Chanier, 2008; Darus, 2009; .Jadhav, Bhutkar, & Mehta, 2013; Rao, 2007).
c. Language and social communication function a role in Sociocultural human development, and act as cultural affairs leading to the expression of knowledge contributed by people in the society. Considering the manner this might come up with social networking (Strang, 2012), online connections with other learners and professionals can conceivably present a prosperous setting for socio-cultural language transaction (Elia, 2006; Gabriel, 2012; Harrison & Thomas, 2009). These assumptions to language learning are verified to appraise the manner the media conforms to the various models.

Premise base

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) can be claimed as the major rationale behind this study [21]. As some researchers hold , it is a general assumption of human stimulation and personality concentrating on the dialectical relationships between growth-oriented human beings and social contexts also promoting or delaying people's incitation to realize their capacities (Cohen & Burkhardt, 2010; Davis, 2006; Deci & Ryan, 1994; 2002) also delineate three element enhancing self-determination in the classroom. Liberty, in analyzing what to do and how to do it, refers to the degree of prime that faculty members have when they exercise academic duties, and the degree of choice they have on the time and the manner to perform them (Palloff & Prat, (1999). This also occurs through the decisions they can make during the learning process (Boyer, 1987; Dunaway, 2011); these primes aid them become more autonomous and self-directed in making choices for their learning.

The Skype setting, being free from time and area constrains and makes access possible to various people, assists faculty members analyze their obstacles in their own time, to learn via an option providing modality (Smethurst, 2009) and to learn autonomously. It can be supposed that faculty members learning a foreign language skill through educational Apps feel more independent than others in a face-to-face class.

Integrity refers to establishing and actualizing skills for the manipulation and control of the situations. SDT explains integrity as the need to be impressive in communication with the social setting while experiencing every moment to assert and implement ones potentials and capabilities (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Faculty members' feelings of integrity amplify when they are confident that their learning activities and tasks adapt their knowledge and skills. In addition, the activities faculty members are expected to do should be both appealing and provoking to raise participants' inspiration. Assignments should also offer participants a chance to react keenly and to accept immediate comment (Boyer, 1987).

Finally, dependence refers to a need for pertaining to or relying upon a class (Nowlan, (2008). Classrooms meet this criterion through supplying different opportunities of association and communication for faculty members. Association is, really, one reaction to the demand of dependence in participants and makes it possible for them to talk about a subject and to assist and constructively appraise each other, thereby developing their self-esteem (Jadhav, Bhutkar, & Mehta, 2013). It is clear that one of the most functional roles of media is organizing interactions and social communication (Harrison, 2013). Communication through these media, other than being free from time and space constraints, is possible with different kinds of easy to use files like audio, visual, written, and short messages. Thus, one could hope that the applying these networks will raise affections of dependence in the project participants. Considering the time limitations, faculty members learning a foreign language skill through educational media feel more depended on other faculty members than do faculty members in a face-to-face class.

Modern educational opportunities of Skype

Communication and correlation primarily achieved in the media settings can be brought into the class. English language learners can adopt the original educational materials located in the social networking sites (SNS) to acquire the English language skills. There are learners devoted to learning English languages in EFL and ESL situations on social and educational networking sites. These sites supply their clients with regular revisions of skills and sub skills like grammar, vocabulary, and much new information. English language learners can have access links delivered on the group page by other participants. Skype provides a variety of educational chances for classes. Faculty members can connect with other faculty members, increase their knowledge, do their exercises, and collaborate with others. They can utilize Skype to contribute in others' projects, refine their language skills, and communicate in written form about particular books and research papers with other faculty members having worked the same books and papers or presented their own proposals to their departments.

Skype, a software application for online communication, has been applied in classes at various levels, providing many possibilities for teaching and learning (Brophy, 2004; Foote, 2008; Harrison & Thomas, 2009; Murphy & Rodriguez-Manzanares, 2012; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996) Skype is a communication media allowing users to make written, audio and video materials over the Internet applying power point, word, mp4, and so on.

Although Skype is a technical tool, its free version is being used progressively among teachers and schools interested in world education propositions (Brophy, 2004). Skype is being used to promote academic research ideas exchange. Faculty members in different parts of the world are paired off, each is a native speaker of the language with unique research concepts that the other wishes to be informed. According to Yates (1996) in consultation and interaction over educational media they take turn between the two academic societies languages.

Teachers also apply Skype in unique manners to satisfy educational goals. The videoconferencing section of the software is valuable in that it offers a method to connect faculty members speaking different languages, hold virtual field trips, and reach out to professionals in different fields of study. These experiences may allow faculty members a chance to apply what they learn in the classroom to real-life experiences and achieve further learning objectives.

Skype in the classroom is a free tool having set up its website. It presents teachers with a way to make their classrooms more communicative and attractive. Skype in the classroom is a service teachers can sign up for that will allow learners to meet others, receive and post home works, and share ideas. Teachers can collaborate with other teachers around the world and plan different new learning and teaching practices for their class courses. Graddol (2015) believes that there are various courses in Skype, which L2 learners can participate in and teachers can use Skype's search tool to arrive at experts in their educational field of their profession.

SKYPE in English writing

Yah Awang Nik et al. (2010) proclaimed writing has been disclosed to be one of the most difficult and critical language skills learners are supposed to acquire. Despite spending many years improving their writing skills, most English language learners are encountered with barriers in their efforts. These impediments among others are because of the complexities of the writing skill (Branzburg, 2007. White and Arndt (1991) held writing, which is a complex and prolonged operation is more made difficult for the L2 learner because of sociological, sociocultural, linguistic and cognitive factors.

To alleviate writing problems confronted by English learners, some current studies follow Holton and Clarke's (2006) strategies called scaffolding in a blended learning approach employing Skype to scrutinize if learners' writing accomplishment could be reinforced. Scaffolding refers to the process of aiding a student to do an assignment obscure or beyond his/her competence. Using this strategy, teaches help learners to conduct parts of exercise within their ability, and scaffold the rest.

Macharaschwili and Coggin (2013) examined the adoption of Skype in a blended classroom setting. They found that the face-to-face communications supplied through Skype yielded immediate outcome that would not be possible in an online session. They declared that face-to-face education utilizing Skype for distance learners conduce to student achievement and fulfillment.

Elia (2006) directed a study to discover the impact of Skyle for language learning in tandem. She claimed that Skype language learning over "mixxer" (a free language exchange site using Skype could be a persuasive application to be widely assissted and experimented. According to her study, Skype might be an effective media and a reliable aid for EFL learners always facing the complexity of written communication with native speakers.

Beltrán (2009) in a study tested the application of Skype chat for developing writing skills and asserted that it raised learners' motivation using technology and was a chance to augment the teacher's accomplishment.

Another research done by Romaña Correa (2015) was a proposal on the teaching and learning of English using Skype conference calls. The study results propose that Skype might be assumed as an impressive computer-applied communication medium to improve English as foreign language learners' writing skill.

Literature review

As Gabriel et al. (2012) conveyed, education alone is not efficient, if it is not extended by the capacity to receive knowledge and to communicate with a wider range of print and electronic media. The aim of his research was to inspect the attitude of instructors about the effectiveness of Skype as a media in scaffolding strategy to develop academic accomplishment of participants in online restorative English composition terms through communication with their instructor.

Therefore, the specific objective was to find out if Skype could be an efficient media for instructors to provide scaffolding to learners for the acquisition of English composition skills. Few studies have contemplated the impressions of teachers and participants about the effect of Skype and similar cooperative Web 2.0 technologies on student accomplishment in online asynchronous learning colleges. Strang (2012) assessed Skype in an online business mathematics course and explored that students taking part in Skype-led sessions get a statistically higher final grade than those in the control group. This study aimed at the advancement of learners, due to their level and advanced course having already demonstrated academic accomplishment. Strang's (2012) survey did not demonstrate whether Skype could be applied to support and develop the learning and capacity of every student.

In a pilot study Chou (2012) in a college tried to determine whether Skype, combined with other Web 2.0 technologies, could be applied to assist online cooperative learning. Chou ascertained that Skype, Podcasting, Skype, Blogging, and Wikis developed student learning in online sessions. He recommended further inquiry was needed to apply the educational strategies into different learning settings.

In another survey Parker, Boase-Jelinek, and Herrington (2011) scrutinized the manner synchronous team chat through Skype was utilized in a graduate level on training teachers, the way they reacted to it, and how much it resulted in improvement of community learning. This study did not target designing instructor-student connections, nor does it append to the knowledge of whether or not Skype is satisfactory by simple learners to assist develop their knowledge.

Skype was utilized in a group of doctoral students who took part in face-to-face classroom Macharaschwili and Coggin (2013). The media was interblended to adjunct students not present at the classroom sessions. They concluded that Skype could be efficiently adopted to link remote learners to face-to-face sessions.

Planning and assigning a synchronous librarian reference service using Skype to teach relevant education to college group, Cohen and Burkhardt (2010) hold group classes and a one one-on-one class with a student demanding extra instruction. They discovered Skype to be appropriate for delivering educational materials to inaccessible learners. However, they did not inspect whether participants apprehended any achievement as an outcome of Skype-lead sessions.

Just as Ab Manan et al. (2010) detected, teenagers consumed a lot of time outside of class using social media such as Skype. Given that English is the language commonly used in these Media, researchers observed that there are potential profits when applying Skype in teaching ESL programs. According to them, the notion that rationalizes this matter is that "analysts suppose that the hallmarks presented by Skype, with careful administration, can be used as a powerful educational media". The authors deduce that "blending current face-to-face classes with online learning activities does not only expand insufficient class time but will make learning more appealing to the younger generation learners".

Further, in a survey Chenzi et al. (2012) incorporated Skype and other educational media into English as second language writing course. Their study yielded different advantages when Skype and other media were applied in the ESL courses.

The Australian educator Smethurst (2010) pointed out the positive results of Skype applied for inter-school discussion with the absence of the face-to-face communication. Skype system provided many free utilities like voice and video calls among persons from different geographical locations.

As Davis (2006) designed, lecturers have been applying Skype in their classroom for several years with a high level of achievement and comfort.

More and more English language instructors have decided to blend such developing technologies into their teaching process as such technologies can capacitate them as teachers and augment their educating as well (Darus, 2009; Smith & Baber, 2007).

Skype was adopted for a study since as Mongillo and Wilder (2012) stated writing is a social activity that demands applying social modes. The assumptions for this study are that online lecturers may assist to improve the online writing to underprepared learners with poor writing skill by scaffolding learning applying Skype to organize meaningful learning networks that will qualify learners to become independent and hopeful.

In another survey, Macharaschwili and Coggin (2013) applied Skype in a group of doctoral students meeting face-to-face in a class. Skype was joint to system to connect theses who were absent to the class instruction. Their investigation demonstrated that Skype could be effectively used to attach isolated learners to face-to-face classrooms.

An analysis of instructor and student feeling of the efficacy of Skype to scaffold writing development resulted to two studies (Herring, 1996; Kennedy, (2007), devising that synchronous tools enhance skill levels and that educators and learners experienced worth and prominence in applying the media.

In a study, Wang and Chenl (2007) scrutinized the writing needs of face-to-face language learners and the value of online contemporary communication in remote-posted language materials. They recommend that synchronous-blended teaching administration systems were undoubtedly accepted by distance language learners, apprehending it as presenting interrelation and communication they would otherwise not have. The results demonstrated that learners seemed to be more confident, related and their loneliness was minimized.

Ciekanski and Chanier's research (2008) principally aimed on teaching the writing process in an online concurrent-blended setting, indirectly characterizing three other aspects of the acknowledged survey: Skype, scaffolding, and alternative undergraduate writing. Teachers and learners held sessions in ten weeks that lasted about an hour and a half each. The objective of the program was improving professional English and proficiencies in a group of students who were less competent in writing and speaking English. The Participants were typical of the futuristic learners registering in virtual universities. The platform applied in this survey was Lyceum, which empowered learners to have real time oral "link and interaction, take part in text/chat, and read/revise synchronously textual or illustrative made impression".

The researchers (Celce-Murcia, 2001) deduce that even when engaged in the writing process, learners complete most of the phases through Skype, explaining what and how to learn, rather than utilizing the other procedures for interacting. They also concluded that students depended on the devices of Microsoft Word processing software along with other software applications, which implied they made changes to their writing while using other tools. Students determined to engage in multimodal discussion adopting synchronous media. Learners accepted verbal and nonverbal approaches over other strategies. A multimodal learning mechanism supported learners focused on the writing procedure rather than the outcome due to its process-related identity. The investigators indicated that the application of video would have been turbulence in this particular research since speech is associated with different modes of writing. This study on Skype strives to remove the space due to its multimode including video, audio, text/chat, and screen sharing.

Employing online technologies raised the necessity to apprehend and address explanatory and denotative writing, recognized as required skills (Macharaschwili, & Coggin, 2013).

While Dunaway's survey (2011) was aimed at librarians to assist writing learners acquire information proficiency skills, it was beneficial to the existing study since the current study applied Skype as a medium, combined with other facilities to aid participants improve writing skill.

Because American colleges and universities include students from different countries, curriculum planners identify and accost writing defects of nonnative-English-speaker learners (Chapelle, 1998). Cheng (2010) specifically described scaffolding for his survey to achieve the "support for learning and problem solving in academic writing. According to Cheng (2010), online instruction seminars in Skype supported students' perception since they offer chances for them to follow and present resolutions. He proposed that an asynchronous setting is more efficient to assisting non-native speakers enhance academic writing skills as it has suspended result, giving students time to internalize and process information.

Mongillo and Wilder (2012) hypothesized that the online technological interaction media (Skype, WhatsApp,…) offer ineffectual and separated learners with the incentive communication and stimulant they need specifically since these learners are already competent users of multiple technologies.

Furthermore, Murphy and Rodriguez-Manzanares (2012) support the need for technological media in distance education programs. In their survey, the medium was indicated as online instructor prepared immediate, productive comment to students, displayed worry of students' evolution, individualized learning, and was accessible for real-time responsiveness to learners' demands.

Rationale of the study

The traditional face-to-face method of academic writing instruction is not sufficient and responsive in developing the faculty members' academic writing proficiency in Kashan University of Medical Sciences. Thus, this study is conducted to investigate the faculty members' perception, and whether educating the faculty members in blended-learning approach using Skype has any effects on the academic writing achievement.

The idea of introducing Skype-based blended learning to the English writing program was initiated when the faculty members faced the problem of not having enough free time to participate at physical classroom. Therefore, the following motives had encouraged the investigator to undertake this study:

1. To propose the idea of using the educational network site, Skype, for faculty members as a supplement of instruction
2. To illustrates the different levels of course integration at an academic writing program
3. To offer an alternative to the traditional lecture format, creating a blended approach
4. To expand pedagogical platform and promote active learning through a Skype-blended system
5. To test the effectiveness of Skype-based writing program and its utilities
6. To determine this teaching media, Skype, utilities as complement of the traditional classroom experience
7. To find how faculty members consider Skype in a new blended-learning system and perceive its efficacy.

Research inquiries

Study inquiries and objectives

There are three areas addressed to direct the plan and implementation of this study:

A. The faculty members' feelings and impression on applying Skype site as a media to teaching and learning academic writing process,

B. The weak and strong points of the Skype site application during the teaching and learning academic writing, and

C. The faculty members' perceptions toward using Skype site as a supporting tool for course delivery based on selected variables: year of teaching, past experience with Skype, and their specialization.

This study strives to develop the body of knowledge about blended learning and offers educational planners' better perspective about what is effective and what is not while designing and implementing a blended English course using Skype.

Participants and Sample

The sample consisted of 70 faculty members of Kashan University of Medical sciences, all having problems writing English well by using selective sampling. This has to do with the fact that they are supposed to publish several research papers annually in ISI or other reliable indexed journals. Their papers often require grammar, punctuation, and sentence patterns correction in writing, so that it takes a long time to publish them; sometimes they are rejected for having problems in these fields. The faculty members are full time educational or research members of departments or research centers of the university. In fact, the lack of enough time to attend academic English classes causes the main problem for them.

Methodology

Research model

The study was a descriptive quantitative-qualitative research which a general survey model was used in, as one of the objectives of the study was to demonstrate the feeling levels of the faculty members involved in the study group towards Skype application, a Web 2.0 tool, according to various sub-dimensions in teaching academic English writing. An experimental design was also organized to observe and measure the faculty members' attitudes towards the use of Skype in academic English writing.

Collecting data

The data for this survey were accumulated via a questionnaire designated to extract faculty members' impressions toward the use of Skype site, as an educational media, to augment conventional teaching approach. The survey questionnaires consist of 30 statements, which were devised in five categories based on Premise Base and Conducive Assumptions to clarify the Skype-based educational utilities and application. The faculty members' feedbacks were addressed directly on the survey. The questionnaire details were forwarded in statements to which the learners should reply in five-point scale. This scale distributed between "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". They indicated satisfaction of faculty members on the use of Skype as a course educational media.

To confirm the validity of the study method, it was sent to five education experts in educational media for assessment to be reviewed. These members were requested to appraise the questionnaire content and plan and propose any modifications that could improve the survey. All faculty members' ideas on the approach were also aggregated through interviews. Given their limited time opportunity and applying the modern educational media, the participants were asked to express the feeling and concept they have at their minds.

Procedure

In this survey the investigator:

- Designed a Skype-based program expressing the necessities in academic writing course educational materials,

- Initiated communications with faculty members through it,

- Notified the participants not to see their profile page, and design their page to control their page,

- Delivered the course Skype site the contents through Power Point, Microsoft Word, and messages that are related to the academic writing course(including sentence patterns, punctuation, sentence structure, and paragraph organization) work in a weekly basis (20 weeks, 80 weeks),

- Set up a "Skype Office Times," to declare faculty members to interact with him using Skype chat (Parker, Boase-Jelinek, & Herrington, 2011) to ask writing questions or obtain additional opinion, and

- Declared anything about exams, quizzes, assignments, or questions that the participants are supposed to know or ask.

Results and discussion

Based on the interview item, "the faculty members' feelings and impression on applying Skype site as a media to teaching and learning academic writing process" the participants affirmed that the media-based approach augments their learning of academic English writing process. The participants are responsive to applying Skype in academic writing subject, and are of the opinion that such use will improve their experiences in learning writing, academically and psychologically. The faculty members recognize that Skype-based method use was explicitly positive and notably promising. Therefore, they ask the university authorities to plan extensive Skype-based English programs for continuing education.

The outcomes related to the "arranged expressed statements from the highest to the lowest" were demonstrated in the following tables. The survey questionnaires consisted of 30 statements, devised in five classes based on "Premise Base" and "Conducive Assumptions" to analyze the Skype-based educational utilities and application. The faculty members' observations were addressed directly on the study. The questionnaire details were forwarded in statements to which the learners replied in five-point scale. This scale distributed between "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". They indicated satisfaction of faculty members on the use of Skype as a course educational media.

The tables demonstrate the participants' impressions on the Skype-based academic writing program in seven domains. They are ordered from the strongest to the weakest according to their mean scores and standard deviations. It was perceived that the program was considered technically good in teaching and learning academic writing. The value of the system in communication perception, and development of language and social communication exchange has been significant. Also, providing chances for communication, supporting any integrity, and enabling reliance upon colleagues are noteworthy in the Skype-based blended learning English writing.

Table1. Modifying the concept of traditional learning

Questionnaire Rank	Statement	Mean	Std. Dev.
3	The Skype is a good technical media for delivering and getting activities and tasks in academic writing.	4.3	1
1	Skype assisted to include program bulletin and prompts on academic writing.	4.	1.026
5	Skype was engaged to mention webs addresses supplying the academic writing affairs.	3.91	1,189
4	The site offered us some techniques in the self-directed assessment and decision making for homework.	3.31	0.843
2	The system can be adopted to comprehend educational materials and discourses.	3.21	0.946

Table2. Targeting the significance of social communication and apprehending

Questionnaire Rank	STATEMENT	MEAN	Std. Dev.
5	It helped us in observing others reactions and response to instruction.	4.3	1
2	The program educated writing using social themes and patterns.	4.2	1.019
1	Skype aided the members to receive revisions about the personal page and note.	3.93	1,143
4	Skype was engaged to mention webs addresses supplying the academic writing affairs.	3.80	0.965
3	The site was applied to study the writing assignments details.	3.60	0.959

Table3. Contributing to the development of language and social communication exchange

Questionnaire Rank	STATEMENT	MEAN	Std. Dev.
2	Skype approach assisted us through connecting with our colleagues to have good impressions and feeling in learning writing.	4.2	1
3	Skype provided us the opportunity to adopt the academic writing socio-cultural parts	4	1.029
1	The site can be used to get information about writing practices.	3.92	1,187
5	We followed Skype to obtain instructor advices by evaluation and comments.	3.86	0.865
4	The system assisted us to receive messages about quizzes, midterms, and final exam.	2.89	0.946

Table 4. Motivating participants to be more independent than in a face-to-face class

Questionnaire Rank	STATEMENT	MEAN	Std. Dev.
1	It offered us more autonomous opportunities to interact with our colleagues than traditional classes.	4.1	1
5	The system assisted for assessing interaction and fast conversation with each other after and before class hour.	4	1.032
2	Using Skype site motivates us and is a good media for learning academic writing.	3.90	1,189
4	We could make decision whenever trying to have a rest.	2.79	0.798
3	The site was beneficial in describing difficult academic terms in writing.	2.20	0.866

Table 5. Amplifying feelings of integrity while doing learning activities

Questionnaire Rank	STATEMENT	MEAN	Std. Dev.
3	The site supported us in appending, excluding, and restoring materials in an appealing way.	4.1	1
1	The Skype media helped the university project improve our integral academic writing.	4	1.026
4	It was used by lecturer to conduct our interaction and participations in integrity.	3.96	1,179
2	The Skype–based approach made us depended on our doing homework.	3.88	0.565
5	Skype was employed to find comprehension and knowledge about academic terms and allusions.	2.1	0.906

Table 6. Empowering collaboration with or reliance upon class members

Questionnaire Rank	STATEMENT	MEAN	Std. Dev.
1	The system can be applied to access others writing files and materials as reliable as possible.	4.3	1
3	The plan allowed us to find our colleagues and communicate easily.	4.1	1.036
5	Skype was followed to include or delete academic classmates.	3.94	1,289
4	The system helped everybody react to other faculty members introduced depictions and materials.	3.82	0.465
2	Skype was adopted to receive commands about group exercises and development.	3.56	0.736

The participants are responsive to applying Skype in academic writing subject, and are of the opinion that this blended Skype-based will improve their conditions in learning writing, academically. The faculty members appreciate that the Skype-based method use was explicitly positive and notably promising. They affirmed that the media-based approach augments their learning of academic English writing.

Results related faculty members' perceptions toward using Skype site as a supporting tool for course delivery based on selected variables: their specialization, year of teaching, and past experience with Skype explored that there were no statistically significant differences at (α = 0.05) in the use of Skype units due to faculty members majors. There are statistically significant differences at (α = 0.05) in the use of Skype units due to the year of teaching variable, in favors of, the third and fourth year faculty members. The result also, revealed that there are statistically significant differences at (α = 0.05) in the use of Skype units due to the past experience with Skype variable, in favors of faculty members with no Skype use experience.

According to the results, application of Skype system for academic writing purposes is likely to be an impressive factor for teaching and learning process. The Skype-based approach for this study has developed an active learning setting being able to offer unique opportunities to practice writing skill and have feedback from the faculty members. The investigator, as a faculty member in higher education level, was very excited to use educational media, such as Skype, Twitter and WhatsApp groups, as a teaching delivery approach. As the researcher experiences, higher education teaching is going toward utilizing the educational media as part of e-learning process between the instructor and faculty members, and between faculty members themselves as an formal learning setting. However, this assumption and educational manner need specific examined approaches at universities.

Conclusion

Skype is a powerful resource for second language teaching if used as support for well-defined learning objectives (Quollen, 2011). It seems that Skype media as an educational media is a beneficial medium to be applied to deliver writing materials and support learning. Faculty members not having enough time to participate in classes feel comfortable with the use of the Skype-based methodology in academic writing. Faculty members participating in the course expressed their acceptance of this media in learning academic writing. The results of current study conducted to find the effect and attitude of the use of social media in higher education are close to the results of other study (Williams, Birch, & Hancock, 2012).

Overall, the results of the study indicate that participants are interested in the use of Skype site, as social media, to motivate them and give them the opportunity to use technology in a useful way. Majority of faculty members adjusted their skills to use the Skype site efficiently and claim that they are encouraged to use this media in future.

It has been asserted that technologies should be used as educational facilitator for learning and teaching writing skill. It has also been argued that this type of learning is beneficial for foreign language learners, as it considerably builds confidence and increases learners' interest in the topic. The reasons could be the frequency of exposure as a result to an expanded language input. The survey affirmed that faculty members developed their writing skill and confidence (even if slightly) after being exposed its techniques via Skype.

University language department as the programmer may deduce that Skype-based teaching and learning offers simply the right kind of student-teacher interaction that will motivate the class learning and persuade the participants improve in writing. Therefore, language instructors are not supposed to ignore the conclusive appraisal of conventional classroom adjusting, however, the genuine capability of learning with multifaceted modifications ought to be generally gratified.

Skype-based teaching could become a very effective educational medium for learning academic English writing. Blended learning systems in language skills certainly need specific inquiries in applying special media, programming peculiar sections, designing explicit utilities, and appraising users demand.

The system is supposed to offer its members some techniques in the self-directed assessment and decision making for homework. E-Learners like to make decision whenever trying to have a rest in their programs. The Skype–based approach is believed to make participants depended on their doing homework; it should not make the learners think they are so independent. In addition to learn writing skill, participants usually desire to be taught some language sub skills and terminologies in writing. The members in the Skype-based academic writing systems must presume assisting learners through quizzes, midterms, and final exam. The media is applied to study the writing assignments details, so that the system can be adopted to comprehend educational materials and discourses.

Pedagogical implications

Given the importance of writing for academic purposes in university, there should be some inquiries to discover some new manners or approaches applying new media like Skype at universities. It is advised that more research have to design blended programs with improvised media to address and develop language skills like writing. There should be some more investigations on the application of these media, so that language learners can improve and measure their English knowledge through online media, as Prensky (1998) asserted, instructor in some cases may stop lecturing, and start allowing faculty members to learn.

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CONTEXT AND DEICTIC AMBIGUITY

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Abstract

The article deals with the problem of deixis and discusses the usage of deictic verbs. Deictic words 'point' to entities, places or moments in time, but, notably, in doing so signal the subjective position of the speaker in the instance of pointing. The purpose of the paper is to show the means of the deictic centre, to identify the ways indicating proximity and distance that depend on the context of the utterance. The importance of locational specifications in general can be shown from the fact that there seem to be two basic ways to refer to objects – by describing or naming them, on the one hand, and by locating them, on the other. Another problem that is worth mentioning is the lack of deixis, which makes it difficult to set the concrete time and space links, makes the arrative ambiguous, and creates the sense of disorientation. The paper will discuss how the recognition of one group of related linguistic features can provide the "point of entry" for literary interpretation. The main focus is on deixis: formal devices in language for indicating how the speaker is related to what s/he refers to, how seemingly insignificant details of language can, when analysed systematically, be shown to be organized in such a way that whole patterns of meaning depend on them.

Key words: deixis, deictic verbs, pointing, deictic centre, proximity, distance, context, ambiguity, disorientation.

The term 'deixis' refers to a class of linguistic expressions that are used to indicate elements of the situational and/or discourse context, including the speech participants and the time and location of the current speech event (Bühler 1934/1993; Frei, 1944; Lyons, 1977, Fillmore, 1981; 1998; Levinson, 1996). Deictic words 'point' to entities, places or moments in time, but, notably, in doing so signal the subjective position of the speaker in that instance of pointing. Words like 'I', 'here' and 'now' are deictic. The special characteristic of deictic words is that in order to understand which person, thing, place or time the words are referring to, you need to know the context in which the words were used – who by, where, when, etc. For example, if you opened a charity fundraising letter which began with "As I stand here looking at this family now", the words 'here', 'now' and 'I' are only meaningful and interpretable if you know who the speaker is, where their 'here' is, and the date/time at which they spoke. 'This' suggests a referent near (or 'proximal') to their 'here' (as opposed to 'that', which suggests distance). This contextual information – the spatio-temporal coordinates of the subjective position of the speaker – is known as the deictic centre. Deictic words communicate the person, thing, place or time they are referring to in relation to that subjective deictic centre, and so signal that subjective centre as much as they signal the person or thing etc. that they are referring to.

In fiction, deictic language helps to build the spaces and temporal settings of fictional worlds, and helps to determine the positioning and orientation of narrators and characters within worlds. A major issue in studying text comprehension is the nature of coherence in the text. What differences are there between a string of sentences that form a connected discourse and a string of unrelated sentences? One difference is that in the text there is a continuity of topic and meaning, a continuity fostered by cohesive relations between successive parts of the text. One important task is to specify these cohesive relations in discourse.

In linguistics, point of view is related to deixis. The term deixis (which is Greek for "pointing") refers to the orientational features of language which are relative to the time and place of utterance. The linguistic study of deixis covers verb tense, place adverbs such as here and there, demonstrative adverbs such as this and that, verbs of motion such as come and go, etc. Harris and Brewer (1973) and Brewer and Harris (1974) have shown effects of deixis in psychological processing in that people remembered deictic distinctions better when they occurred in sentences with an appropriate spatio-temporal context than with a neutral context. These spatial and temporal deictic terms are precisely the language forms that are sensitive to the aspect of point of view of interest to us: the relation of the narrator to the action. These deictic terms can be used to establish a point of view, and once a point of view is established it will determine later deictic terms used. Thus, as Fillmore points out, when we read - the door to Henry's lunchroom opened and two men came in, we know that the narrator is located inside the lunchroom, but when we read - the door to Henry's lunchroom opened and two men went in, we know that the narrator is located outside the lunchroom. Come and go provide us with this point of view information. Come essentially means "move towards the narrator" and go "move away from the narrator." Clark noted that the motion need not be physical, but could be transitions to (come) or from (go) a "normal" or "approved" state of being. Thus, one can "go out of his mind," but one must "come back to his senses."

Deixis is a linguistic notion within the domain of pragmatics. Pragmatics studies the way individuals produce and comprehend a communicative act of speech in a concrete speech situation. The ability to produce and comprehend these acts requires a special knowledge of context. That's why deixis is a crucial element of pragmatics. It is closely related to the context of an utterance and the structure of language. Deictic elements can be present not only in literary texts but in other pragmatic texts such as newspaper articles or even everyday speech. According to traditional linguists there are three main types of deixis: person deixis, temporal deixis and spatial deixis:

Person deixis, e.g. personal pronouns 'I', 'you', and 'we', etc.; demonstrative pronouns 'it', 'this', 'that', etc.

Spatial deixis, e.g. locative expressions 'here', 'there', 'nearby', etc. and verbs suggesting direction towards or away from the speaker ('come' and 'go').

Temporal deixis, e.g. temporal adverbs 'now', 'then', etc., and other temporal expressions such as 'tomorrow', 'next year', 'a while ago', etc.

Modern linguists recognize two extra divisions: social and discourse deixis. Deictic expressions raise important issues for semantic theory (cf. "reference" by Abbott, 2010). In semantics, deictic expressions (also called indexicals; cf. Buhler, 1955) are defined as linguistic signs with "direct reference" (Kaplan 1989: 483). In contrast to content words, deictic expressions do not evoke a concept of some entity (Frege's sense – Frege, 1892)) but establish a direct referential link between world and language (cf. Schlenker's [2-11] "Indexicality" and "de se"). Since the interpretation of deixis is immediately determined by aspects of the speech situation, deictic expressions require a particular treatment in semantic theory (cf. Kaplan 1989). In the literature, deictic expressions are commonly distinguished from deictic uses (cf. Levinson 1994). Other linguistic elements can be used deictically if they are combined with a genuine deictic or some other referential means.

For example, a noun such as tree may refer to a concrete entity in the situational context if it is accompanied by a demonstrative that relates the concept of tree to a concrete entity in the surrounding situation (cf. that tree). Alternatively, content words can be grounded in the speech situation by nonlinguistic means such as gesture, eye-gaze, or the presentation of an object. In general, as Levinson (1996) has pointed out, just about any nominal expression can be used deictically if it is accompanied by a communicative device that indicates a direct referential link between language and context.

We will discuss how the recognition of one group of related linguistic features can provide the "point of entry" for literary interpretation. The main focus is on deixis: formal devices in language for indicating how the speaker is related to what he refers to. The example from "Little Dorrit" by Charles Dickens, contributes to a feeling of disorientation. It is a good example of how seemingly insignificant details of language can, when analysed systematically, be shown to be organized in such a way that whole patterns of meaning depend on them.

"Thirty years ago, Marseilles lay burning in the sun, one day.

A blazing sun upon a fierce August day was no greater rarity in southern France then, than at any other time, before or since. Everything in Marseilles, and about Marseilles, had stared at the fervid sky, and been stared at in return, until a staring habit had become universal there. "

"The universal stare made the eyes ache. Towards the distant line of Italian coast, indeed, it was a little relieved by light clouds of mist, slowly rising from the evaporation of the sea; but it softened nowhere else. Far away the staring roads, deep in dust, stared from the hill-side, stared from the hollow, stared from the interminable plain. Far away the dusty wines overhanging wayside cottages, and the monotonous wayside avenues of parched trees without shade, drooped beneath the stare of earth and sky. "

At one level the paragraphs pose no problem. It is clearly a very hot day in Marseilles. But the problem that we face is connected with the extraordinary lack of deixis that we will discuss further. John Lyons describes deixis as "the orientational features of language relative to the time and place of the utterance." Such features include person, demonstrative and locative expressions, and tense. A novel would normally begin: "One day thirty years ago...," "one day" indicating the beginning of the story at a point in time chosen by the writer, and "thirty years ago" relating that point to the time of writing. By separating and reversing these phrases, Dickens takes from us the anticipated focus. Thirty years ago from when? When was the one day? In the second sentence "then" seems to pinpoint time, but the hope of further definition is dissipated in "than at any other time, before or since." Since the "then" can only pick up the temporal uncertainty of the first sentence, we are left asking: before or since what? And "any other time" is accorded the same status as "then".

If time is uncertain in the first two paragraphs, so is place, in that the focus on Marseilles is not made clear. Marseilles, after all, can be a point on a map, a city seen from above, or a city experienced by a person walking through its streets. As soon as we think we have a clear angle – "everything in Marseilles..." – it is confused by a different perspective: "and about Marseilles." Then the limits are set: "towards the Italian coast." This is vague enough, but it suggests a horizon for the first time. The spatial uncertainty continues with the repeated "far away" - the question is from where?

Confusion about time and place is compounded by lack of people. There is no person on whom we can focus.

It should be noted that the place is not an object and the difference between them is considerable.

‘Here’ describes the closeness to the speaker/writer. It might include the location of the hearer/reader (‘inclusive’) or it might also exclude, because of the spatial and temporal distance between writing and reading (‘exclusive’). The ‘exclusive here’ only expresses the proximity of the writer, when he was actually writing.

Here is an example to illustrate the 'inclusive here':

“It is a bit stuffy; in here.”

The speaker and the hearer are obviously inside the same room, which the speaker refers to.

Here is an example to demonstrate the ‘exclusive here’:

”When I was little, I used to play here in that side of the town.”

The person reading the letter is excluded from the circumference the speaker/ writer is talking about.

How do we explain to someone where the object is? And how do we describe the spatial characteristics of particular objects – their extension in space and their shape? If we want to tell someone where something is, we need some means of identifying direction from any one point in space to any other.

Places are not entities and the distinction between entities and places is, of considerable importance. As places are not entities, so entities are not places; but, in so far as they occupy space, entities may serve to identify the spaces that they occupy, as in

I’ll meet you at the car

”The car” is used indirectly to identify a place, i.e. the space that is occupied by the car. We will assume, that what it means is “I will meet you at the place where the car is”, and we will also assume that what – John is with Peter, means is “John is where Peter is” (Levinson 1996).

Generally, the object that is physically far from the speaker can seem distant from the psychological point of view. For example: that man over there. But sometimes the speaker considers the object psychologically distant in spite of the case that the object is actually near. For example: I don’t like that.

The importance of deictic information for the interpretation of utterances is perhaps best illustrated by what happens when such information is lacking (Fillmore, 1981). Consider, for example, finding the following notice on someone’s office door:

I’ll be back in an hour.

Because we do not know when it was written, we cannot know when the writer will return.

Let us discuss the following example and define what the reason of ambiguity is. The adverbs here and there are often thought as simple contrasts on a proximal/distal dimension, stretching away from the speaker’s location, as in:

Bring that here and take this there.

Though, “there” mainly defines something that is distal from the speaker’s location at CT, it can also mean something that is near the addressee at RT. For example: How are things there?

Of course, the aim of the question is not to be informed of what happens far from the speaker, but it aims to get information about the place where the addressee is located.

“There” can be used anaphorically that is shown in the following sentence:

We’re there.

Where “there” denotes the place we mentioned before as our destination.

As we have already mentioned, context plays great role in the interpretation of the utterance. The importance of the deictic centre should be noted, as it helps to identify the ways indicating time, proximity and distance that depend on the context of the utterance.

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BLENDED LEARNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION - CHALLENGE OR DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

Blended learning as a term comes from the business and corporate world and it then got extended to higher education, language teaching and learning. Blended learning gives educators a great variety of methods and forms of teaching. By understanding blended learning as the model of delivering instruction educators will give students the opportunity to control their learning with the view of becoming better specialists and address the challenges and opportunities.

Key words: blended learning, higher education, language learning

The use of technology can be seen as an innovative challenge to restructure the teaching-learning process and integrate ICT in independent, collaborative and interactive work. Respectively, new forms of learning came in and blended learning is among them.

Blended learning has been gradually becoming popular since it incorporates the usual face-to-face learning environment with that of the online one. Choosing the appropriate approach is significant so that to get the desired outcomes.

Professional literature and references indicate that many different methods are used for blended learning, ranging from online activities to face-to-face instruction. As Huang & Zhou (2005) state, with a large number of blended learning designs, selecting the most appropriate design approach is becoming a major challenge, especially for teachers who lack the necessary theoretical preparation and experimental experience with blended learning, which is the case of the majority of teachers in higher education (Huang & Zhou, 2005).

According to Clark (2003), it is dangerous to look at blended learning as a simple method of combining classroom teaching and online learning. He also adds that it is to simply add extra online activities to an existing traditional course. The result is a combination of traditional learning and online approaches, which is considered blended learning according to the third definition.

As Sharpe, Benfield, Roberts and Francis (2006) state, the lack of clarity around blended learning makes it possible for teachers and course designers to develop their own meaning of the term within the context of their courses or institutions. The following main design approaches suggested by Alammary, Sheard and Karbone (2014) are used: low-impact, medium-impact and high-impact blends. In the low-impact blend, traditional face-to-face course gets enhanced by extra on-line activities so that the existing ones are not eliminated. This approach is mainly used by not very experienced teachers who simply add on to their courses and do not invest the effort in reconsidering the course aims within the context of a blended learning model. Besides, such an approach, used as a pedagogical tool, is considered as the addition to a traditional course. For example, in order to build better relations between the students, the online activity can be added which will encourage students to exchange information and thus become more interactive.

According to Silverwood (2006), sometimes when teachers benefiting from blended learning may not be willing to try, it because, in their opinion, blended learning is difficult and complex. It is obvious that in order to successfully utilize this approach, teachers need to have some technological knowledge which will enable them to decide which technological tool they need to meet a specific goal, how this tool enables the students to achieve the goal and enable them to use a respective tool at different stages of learning: exploration, analysis and production.

It is recommended that instructors should start adding a simple online activity which can be easily managed. It should have a specific pedagogical aim, be based on the need of the student and lead to a beneficial outcome. Besides, it should be well integrated into the course, supplement it and give teachers confidence in running blended learning courses. Kaleta, Garnham, and Aycock (2005) noted that teachers normally prefer to teach in the same traditional way that they are familiar and comfortable with and find it hard and challenging to commit a significant amount of time and effort to develop a new course. It is obvious that teachers need to have good technological knowledge and confidence to use this approach and facilitate students' learning. Besides, enough amount of time is required be dedicated to produce such a course. To successfully implement such a course, intensive planning, observation and evaluation of is required. To be more specific, teachers should start moving small parts of their course syllabi online and ensure harmonious balance. This is where a number of factors come in. These are: student qualities, experience of the teacher, teaching style, course goals and objectives, sufficient online resources. In order to reach a harmonious balance, courses need to be reviewed constantly and evaluated by participants. According to Ocak (2011), striking a good balance between face-to-face and online components is complicated and requires expertise.

Undoubtedly, such courses offer more benefits as they provide a fresh perspective to address learning goals, allow useful integration of online and face-to-face components and gain maximum benefits. However, teachers who are not equipped with essential theoretical knowledge and experience fill face certain challenges to take full advantage of blended learning. Also, two or three times more effort and time is required to develop blended learning courses. Teachers need to invest their considerable time in designing such courses. According to Carman (2002), e-learning is most efficient when it uses a blend of various options.

Thus, to be able to deliver blended instruction, teachers should go through respective professional development to update their knowledge and skills of applying new educational technologies. Experience in designing for blended learning may result in the development of confidence of teachers to use technology to be able to meet their students' needs better and develop good plans. Educational institutions should provide support in the form of professional development and technical assistance to ensure success of such an approach. Helping teachers to learn new teaching and technology skills will lead to extreme benefits and they will be able to better meet their course objectives. Also, student learning experience will be improved through choice of activities which are more suitable to their needs and circumstances.

Harriman (2004) and Hofmann (2006) quite properly note that teachers would need to look at each single learning outcome of the course with blended learning and learners' needs in mind. For each outcome, they would need to develop a full understanding that can help them to determine the best delivery option for that outcome. They would also need to consider and fully understand a large number of possible blended learning components that can be used to deliver that outcome. In some cases they would find it better to deliver that outcome face-to-face; in other cases online delivery can be better. In most other cases, combinations of face-to-face and online deliveries are more appropriate. To successfully utilize this method, it is essential to have several years of teaching experience and possess the ability to use this approach wisely. Only then the benefits can be maximized.

In conclusion, blended learning is extremely beneficial, useful and challenging leading to desirable outcomes and it is the responsibility of the educational institution and agency to properly utilize it.

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INTERPRETATION OF "GOOD" AND "EVIL" IN ENGLISH AND GEORGIAN PROVERBS

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Abstract

Mutual confrontation of "good" and "evil" is one of the most important issues in English and Georgian proverbs. Particularly, the two categories are evaluated in the following way: the proverbs of both people characterize "good" as something positive (action, behavior, etc.), morally acceptable to society. Linguoculturology of both ethnic groups considers "evil" as something bad, harmful, sinful, unpleasant, unhappy. The general content of the above categories in English and Georgian proverbs is similar, but the methods of reflection are different, as the structure of the English and Georgian languages differs. Consequently, the phenomena in them are reflected in different ways as well.

Key words: proverbs, linguoculturology

"Good" and "evil" are normative-assessment categories of moral cognition in philosophy, in particular, the categories of ethics, which generally separate moral and immoral, necessary and unnecessary, human moral qualities and attitudes, action motivation and behavior (Il'ychov, L.F., et al., 1989: 178). Every author speaks of "good" as a positive act, a good deed, a property, wealth. As for "evil", all the researchers consider it as something bad, harmful, evil deed, failure, etc.

According to English dictionaries, the "good" is a positive moral quality that is permissible and justified morally; it is always subject to moral rules that lead to improvements, profits, benefits; it has positive features. The "evil" is a bad deed, a tragedy, something harmful, bad, etc. for the English people. The "good" has the following categories in English:

Positive moral features;

Positive action, behavior;

The "evil" in English is defined as follows:

1. Something bad, harmful, sinful;
2. Bad action;

Misfortune, something unpleasant.

We can say that the English categories of "good" and "evil" can be applied to the Georgian ones...

In English proverbs the concept of "good" is a positive moral quality, a positive action, behavior. For example: Virtue and happiness are mother and daughter; Virtue is the beauty of the mind; Virtue and a trade are the best portion for children; virtue has all things in itself; Virtue is its own reward; virtue is the only true nobility; A good heart conquers ill fortune; A good life makes a good death...

In the above English proverbs, a concept "good" ranks first as a positive moral quality.

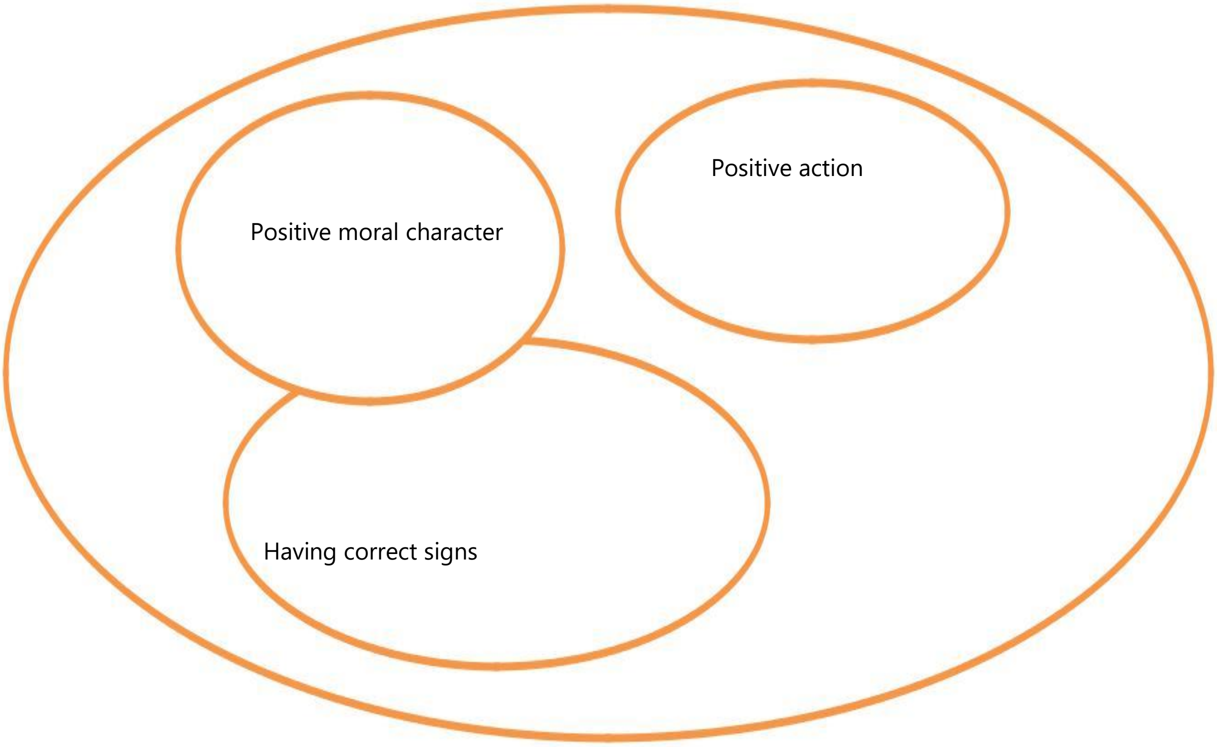
Ill weeds grow space; He who sups with the devil should have a long spoon; Covetousness is the root of all evil; One hates not the person, but the vice; He that has done ill once, will do it again; Vice is its own punishment, and sometimes its own cure; Mischief comes without calling for; Weeds want no sowing; Sin is the root of sorrow; Every sin brings its punishment with it; A wicked man is his own hell; A wicked man's gift has a touch of his master...

In the above proverbs the "evil" prevails; it is understood as something bad, harmful, sinful.

As we can see, the core of the English concept "good" is built around the inner form that conveys something "adequate and has positive properties" (www.etymoline.com).

A positive moral quality represents the core of the concept "good" in the English language, while a positive action, behavior is the peripheral token of the "good". It can be illustrated in the following way:

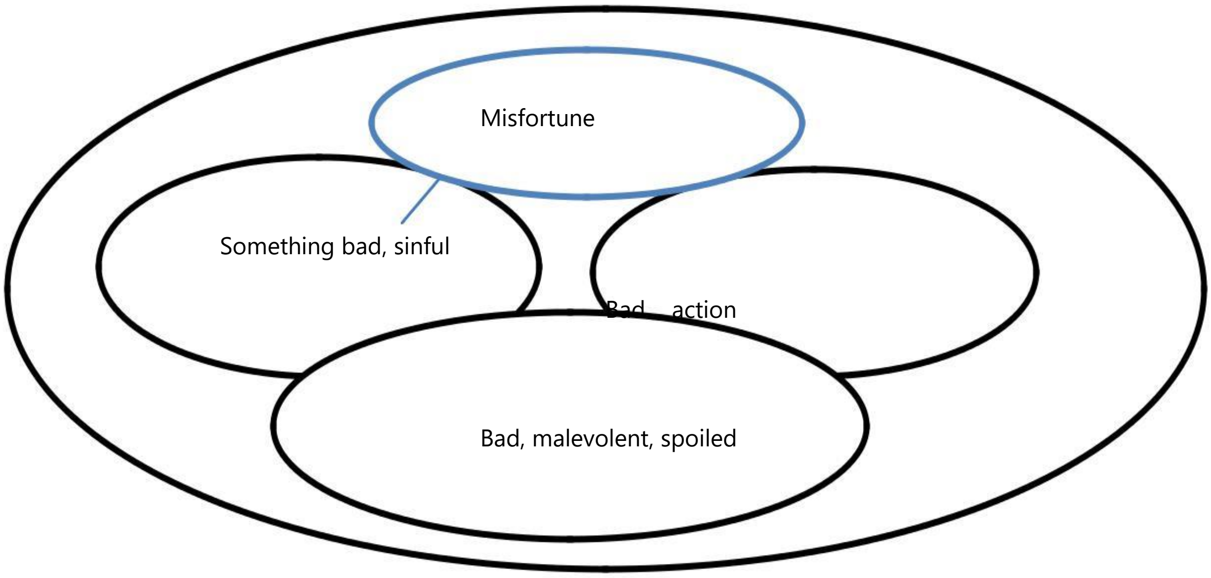
Diagram1



Quality of adequate, correct signs

The core of the concept "evil" is built around the following inner form: "bad, evil, spoiled" (www.etymoline.com). The core of the concept "evil" represents something sinful and evil, a wrong behavior or deed. The peripheral token of the concept "evil" in the English language is a misfortune, a disaster (Vetryuk 2010: 215-220). Schematically this can be expressed as follows:

Diagram 2



The presented diagrams are suitable for the Georgian proverbs as well.

Generally, "good" is positively valued in the ethnoculture of all people, because it is the basis for the mankind progress. The "evil" is condemned by all people, because it is an enemy of the mankind progress. As the Georgian proverbs preach, "the love (/ good) builds what the enmity (/ evil) destroys; "The sweetness builds and the bitterness ruins".

Similarly to all other people, the Georgian ethnical culture also positively evaluates the "good" and negatively assesses the "evil". "The confrontation of the evil and the good, the condemnation of the evil and the preaching of the good have always been and still are one of the most important and favorite topics of folk proverbs" (Shioshvili 1998: 20). The preaching and service to good deeds are given in the following Georgian proverbs:

Skikete qvaze dadev, tsin dagikxvdebao (put the good under the stone and it will come back to you lately); *siketes mietsie, siaves gaaqveo* (follow the good, flee from the evil); *sikeTis nergi ixarebs, darge tundac siahsa qvazedo* (grains of good will sprout even on a bare stone); *rasac dastes, imas moimkio* (reap as one has sown); *avis mqmneli tavis mteriao* (he who does evil, is his own enemy); *nu utxri skhvas ormos, torem tviton chavardebio* (do not dig a hole to another, you'll get yourself); *rasac ifiqreb skhvazeda, agickhaddeba tavzeda* (what you wish to another, will happen to you); *tviton sifrtxile stchirdeba, sxvas vinc daugebs maxeso* (the one, who conceived evil, will fall into his own trap).

These proverbs clearly show that a person should only do good deeds, the "good" always benefits; if you sow good and you will reap good; good always comes back.

The "good" should be gratuitous. „*tu marto shentvis khar ketili, isic borotebaao*" (A man should be kind not only for himself, but for others as well); „*adamianma tskkena unda daivitskxos, sikete arao*" (a man should forget his offense, but not good); „*sulgrdzeloba is aris, avs siketit vdzliot*" (patience is when people respond to evil with good); „*sikete dzaghlsac ar daavitskdebao*" (even a dog won't forget the good), etc. However, one proverb warns: "No one has done good for good". Of course, in Georgian proverbs the "good" is a positive moral category, a moral standard traditionally established in society. A person should not forget the "good". *"სიკეთე ძაღლსაც არ დაავიწყდებაო"* (even a dog won't forget the good), *"siketis nergi ikharebs, darge tund sipsa qvazeda"* (grains of good will sprout even on a bare stone); *„kargi hqeni, qvaze gaiare, tsin dagkhvdebao"*(do the good, put it under the stone and it will come back to you)... teaches Georgian proverbs. There are similar proverbs in English as well. For instance, "A good deed is never lost".

The Georgian proverbs condemn the "evil". The "good" confronts the "evil" - something envy, bad. The advantage is always on the side of the "good". *„ghvardzlis mtesvelo khorbals ver moimkiso"* (if you sow evil, you reap it). *„boroti shvilis dedasa ra gamoulevs kvnesasa"*. *„avi shvil ded-mamis maginebeliao"„avisa shvilis dedasa ra gamoulevs kvnesasao"*, *„kai shvilis deda mtsinaria, tsudisa - mtiraliao"* (An evil son is a misfortune for his mother). The Georgian proverbs warn us not to trust the words of an evil man, because "evil tongue hides evil intentions".

The Georgian proverbs condemn envy and greed, as these qualities are a manifestation of the "evil". For example: *„shurma dalia qvekhana, badzilma aashenao"*; *„shuriani katsis ghona tsilistsamebaao"*; "*shurma umdjobesis pativi ar itsiso*"; "*kharbis gulis mitsis meti ra gaadzghebso*"; "*mokharbebuli katsi brma ariso*"... "

The Georgian people have denied the barbaric tradition of blood vengeance in the distant past, what is proved by the following proverb:

„siskhli siskhlit ar daibanebao//gaibanebao" (Blood will have blood). In other words, you should not respond by evil to evil, since this gives rise to an even greater misfortune. *„sulgrdzeloba is aris, avs siketit vdzliot",* „siketes mietsie, siaves gaeqeo", „adamianma tskhena unda daivitskhos, sikete arao" - warn the Georgian proverbs.

The above discussed wise sayings, created in the past, have been passed down from generations to generations as a will of our ancestors, the formulas of views that we should guide in life.

In the English and Georgian proverbial fund, we can find many more examples of proverbs that preach the "good" and condemn the "evil". But the analyzed proverbs also show that the "good" in both ethno cultures is a positive moral category, and the "evil" is a bad, uncomfortable, morally unacceptable one. In this sense, the general content of both people's proverbs is similar. The difference is represented by the form of reflection. The methods of reflection of the evil and the good are different in English and Georgian proverbs, as they are the languages of different structure and reflect the events in different ways.

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APPLYING SPEECH ACT AND POLITENESS THEORIES IN DRAMA ANALYSIS FOR ELICITING PATTERNS OF HUMAN COMMUNICATION

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Abstract

Speech act and politeness theories have been extensively used for discerning pragmatic specificities of interaction between individuals, for uncovering meaning explicit or implicit in any medium of human expression. Since literary texts, except for some genres, reflect reality, they represent a vast source of analysis for better understanding nuances and subtleties of human communication and have the potential to serve the above purpose more efficiently than non-literary texts. The conference paper presents an attempt to prove the above proposition.

Key words: Speech act theory, Politeness theory, Drama analysis, Stylistics, Pragmatics

Human communication - both verbally and non-verbally conducted is an extremely complicated system of interwoven nuances, logical and rational, however chaotic and unreasonable it may seem on the surface. Like human behavior mostly governed by the sub-conscious or even the sub-sub conscious, human communication as well flows on without participants' full awareness that discernable rules and patterns of interaction stand behind it.

Speech act and politeness theories represent sound and profound attempts to uncover unfathomable on the surface models of mostly verbal communication. Speech act theory by J. R. Searle (1969) and J. L. Austin (1962) and Pragmatics as a whole field of research (the study of what words mean in particular situations) claim that words can be just more than words, they may act and equal any action, that what is said and what is meant by what is said may have or may not have the effect uttered words intend to create, i.e., illocutionary act and its perlocutionary effect may differ and in order not to differ felicity conditions must be satisfied, that communication, in general, and its particular speech acts may be direct or indirect, that predominantly in indirectly said words, but not only, we have to figure out implicature, i.e., meaning implicitly hinted at interlocutor or in general to reader or audience, that any instance of human communication, be it the smallest-speech act, or of a medium size- speech event, or the largest –speech situation is structured, sequenced and built according to some acceptable patterns, etc.

Politeness theory by P. Brown and S.Levinson (1987) and subsequent extensions of it shed new light on understanding rules of etiquette and aspects inherent in and governing interaction. Although the theory is often criticized (Al-Hindawi & Alkhazaali, 2016) for mostly relying on British and Tamil cultures and thus on their modes of communication, the main postulates of the theory are commensurate with common and average European culture and perception of politeness. The theory states that there is no faceless communication, that when communicating we present to the public our image, our face, i.e., our personality and are constantly involved in facework, either in enhancing or damaging our faces or faces of others, that the main principle of communication is accepting and thus respecting image/face projected by others (within the boundaries of sanity), that face is a fragile phenomenon- easily shattered and broken, but hardly restorable. One of the greatest discoveries of the theory is classifying people into two categories- those with positive faces and those with negative ones. The former being sociable, outgoing, communicative, giving and accepting compliments, conducting communication with ease, using informal forms of address, etc., the latter cherishing their autonomy in interaction, coveting to stay aloof, reserved, being autonomous, fearing pressure from people, using formalities in interaction, etc. Hence, the theory states in details what sort of speech act represents violation of which rules of politeness and why, e.g., giving compliments to a person with a negative face equals threatening his/her face (FTA), whereas requesting money from a person with a positive face may threaten his/her positive face again by committing FTA, etc. According to the theory, satisfaction of positive face needs leads to positive politeness and satisfaction of negative face needs to negative politeness.

Literature, however invented, fictitious and fictional it is, reflects reality of human communication, in this way it is truthful and feasible. The fact that in literary texts there are many instances of deviation does not diminish its value as of a truth reflector. Deviations concern technical aspects of verbal expression, not meaning-related ones. If in literary texts meaning deviates from the expectations of a sane mind, we deal with non-realistic literary works, e.g., fantasy, science fiction, utopia or dystopia, etc. Thus, plays which are totally based on dialogues, monologues truthfully convey many subtle nuances, intricacies and specificities characteristic for human communication. Furthermore, patterns of interaction presented in dramas may be more exemplary and representative than just ordinary real-life communication. Rationale of the above suggestion is that writers in their literary works present most salient, distinctive, and archetypal instances of human communication noteworthy of delving into it for its better comprehension. The two quotes from The Routledge Handbook of Stylistics (Burke, 2014) confirm the above suggestions: "This is as true in fictional dialogue as it is in real-world interaction. Indeed, language is clearly not only a tool of communication, but a technique for forging and protecting or threatening and damaging interpersonal relationships, for establishing or challenging power relations, and for constructing notions of belief, self, and identity. Nowhere is this more readily apparent and visible than in literature in all its forms and all its glory, for, as mentioned above, literature comments on what it means to be human. As such, literature must reflect, even if metaphorically, how we do being human – including how we use and misuse language"(p.119). "The dialogue of drama and novels draws on the rules of conversation analysis to produce realistic scenarios for characters as well as highlight the interpersonal relationships between them"(p. 144).

Below is presented an excerpt from Tennessee Williams' play The Glass Menagerie (1999) and its analysis according to Speech act and Politeness theories as a model how the theories can be applied for understanding many explicit or implicit aspects of human communication.

Scene - ambitious and successful single young man – Jim, and single young lady –Laura unsuccessful, from a poor family and with some physical disability - are talking to each other at Laura's place.

LAURA: Mondays, Wednesday, and Fridays.

JIM: Now I remember - you always came in late.

LAURA: Yes, it was so hard for me, getting upstairs. I had that brace on my leg - it clumped so loud.

JIM: I never heard any clumping.

LAURA [wincing at the recollection]: To me it sounded like thunder!

JIM: Well, well, well, I never even noticed.

LAURA: And everybody was seated before I came in. I had to walk in front of all those people. My seat was in the back row. I had to go clumping all the way up the aisle with everyone watching.

JIM: You shouldn't have been self-conscious.

LAURA: I know, but I was. It was always such a relief when the singing started.

JIM: Aw, yes, I've placed you now. I used to call you Blue Rom. How was it that I got started calling you that?

LAURA: I was out of school a little while with pleurosis. When I came back you asked me what was the matter. I said I had pleurosis - you thought I said Blue Roses That's what you always called me after that.

JIM: I hope you didn't mind...........

JIM: Well, well, well! - Give me that programme, Laura. [She hands it to him. He signs it with a flourish.] There you are - better late than never!

LAURA: Oh, I - what a - surprise!

JIM: My signature isn't worth very much tight now. But some day - maybe - it will increase in value ! Being disappointed is one thing and being discouraged is something else. I am disappointed but I am not discouraged. I'm twenty-three years old. How old are you?

LAURA: I'll be twenty-four in June.

JIM: That's not old age!

LAURA: No, but.

JIM: You finished high school?

LAURA [with difficulty]: I didn't go back.

JIM: You mean you dropped out?

LAURA: I made bad grades in my final examinations. [She rises and replaces the book and the programme. Her voice strained.] How is - Emily Meisenbach getting along?

JIM: Oh, that kraut-head!

LAURA: Why do you call her that?

J I M: That's what she was.

LAURA: You're not still - going with her?

J I M: I never see her.

LAURA: It said in the Personal Section that you were engaged!

J I M: I know, but I wasn't impressed by that –propaganda.

LAURA: It wasn't - the truth?

J I M: Only in Emily's optimistic opinion!

LAURA: Oh.

JIM: [after several reflective puffs on a cigarette] : What have you done since high school? [She seems not to hear him.] Huh? [LAURA looks up.] I said what have you done since high school, Laura?

LAURA: Nothing much.

JIM: You must have been doing something these six long years.

LAURA: Yes.

JIM: Well, then, such as what?

LAURA: I took a business course at business college.

JIM: How did that work out?

LAURA: Well, not very - well - I had to drop out, it gave me – indigestion.

J I M [laughs gently.]: What are you doing now?

LAURA: I don't do anything - much. Oh, please don't think I sit around doing nothing! My glass collection takes up a good deal of time. Glass is something you have to take good care of.

The speech event as mentioned above takes place between two young people - Jim and Laura. Both are single, thus have high consciousness and willingness to presents themselves to each other in most positive way. However, Laura unwittingly commits FTAs against her face in lines 2, 5, 7 introducing herself as a lady with evident physical disability. At this stage Jim sensing how much she damages her image in lines 3, 5, 8, tries to reassure her he had not even noticed incidents connected with her ill health in this way mitigating the effect of the FTAs. But later Jim reveals quite a different face- signs some program and hands it to Laura with the promises of its future great value. Such a dramatic change in Jim’s behavior toward Laura is caused by the feeling of his superiority and powerfulness compared with Laura after realizing her powerless condition. With the above action Jim violates one of the maxims of politeness -“Minimize the expression of praise of self” (Leech, 1983) and presents himself as an arrogant young man. From this moment on Jim virtually starts questioning Laura- lines 15, 19, 21, 33, 37, 39, 41. According to Short (1996), it is a prerogative of powerful people to ask questions in conversation. The questions asked are intended to damage Laura’s face further since in case answers are negative to most of them, FTAs are unavoidable. This is what actually happens - in lines 20, 22, 34, 40 Laura’s answers characterize her as a complete failure which causes great strain in her as at this stage she fully realizes awkwardness of her situation. In line 22 she changes the topic and starts asking questions in order to lessen the damage inflicted by her guest and herself and to seem more confident. Answers to Laura's questions about a certain girl in lines 23, 25, 29, 31 demonstrate Jim's utmost impoliteness and complete disregard for other people's faces. Jim's questions implicitly and indirectly signal to Laura that she is not an eligible young lady for him and that the conversation will end with the void. He as if involuntarily makes the girl destroy her own image herself. One of the salient indirect speech acts, i.e., which communicate intentional meaning in a hidden way is the following: Jim tells Laura: "You must have been doing something these six long years." The statement indirectly implies that the girl has done nothing for years, not for only six, but "long six years", meaning that doing nothing for such a long period of time makes one an utmost loser and non-achiever which is one more FTA committed by Jim.

Again with implicature it can be worked out that Laura resorts to desperate attempt to restore and maintain her face, in line 34 to the question: "What have you done since high school?" She answers: "Nothing much." In her answer the negative impact of "nothing" is balanced by "much"- the pronoun with positive connotation; moreover, the meaning intended by her may be- "Although I have done nothing much, I still did some little things." In line 38 she mentions starting a business course as a face savior. In line 40- the same as in 34- using positive "very well" with negative "not". In line 42- she directly states that she has some occupation- looking after a glass collection and in this way indirectly asks Jim not to regard her as a failure and idle.

In the conversation Laura does not violate Grice's conversational maxims; however, maxim observation is fulfilled by her at the detriment of her face, i.e., quite clearly, laconically, truthfully and relevantly for the topic she reveals to the interlocutor the information about herself no matter how much harmful it is for her image.

Jim's powerfulness in the conversation is further proved by one more factor- if words uttered by him are counted, they exceed those of Laura; in five turns of the dialogue (not presented in the above extract) his words amount 885 in total. Laura's turns are mostly short, in many cases she just responds with interjections and short affirmative or negative forms, which proves her feeling of inferiority and powerlessness in front of Jim and, in general, in her life.

It is noteworthy to mention that "In drama, politeness strategies can work as elements of characterization" (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010, p.111). It is only logical that understanding person's character gives clue for understanding communication models as well. The extract above with its analysis in terms of Speech act and Politeness theories exemplifies just some types of relationship and does not reflect myriads typical and possible human communication patterns; the intention of the research is not to achieve all-embracing sample elicitation from dramas, but to demonstrate how much feasible it is to use analysis of plays with Speech act and Politeness theories for understanding human communication. In this respect, the aim is achieved as keys for deciphering such literary works are elicited; basic postulates of the theories which are applicable for such analysis are highlighted. Tracking specificities of speech acts, speech events or speech situations with the above theories at hand as tools discloses such nuances of human communication, their impacts and consequences which are not discernable on the surface and do not overtly announce themselves; many aspects in them have to be understood through implicature. Furthermore, such analysis reveals peculiarities whether national, cultural, or of the epoch concerned and can be highly informative in this respect.

Speech acts, events and situations taking place in real life can be easily tracked in literature and v.v. and the priority which Speech act and Politeness theories offer is that their usage teaches and enables discerning rationale behind most instances of human interaction, e.g., in "Pygmalion" by G.B. Shaw (2013) infuriated by the flower-girl's insistent requests and baldness, Professor Higgins: (thunders) - "Sit Down!" Such brazen behavior and bald-on impoliteness on part of a supposedly polite man can be explained by his powerful status as of a wealthy, influential and respectable person and by absolute powerlessness of a flower-girl. Compared to this can be a situation when during the election campaign US presidential candidate Donald Trump at a news conference angrily shouted at an inquisitive and troublesome journalist: "Sit down!" and in the end ordered his bodyguard to kick him out. Again the powerful status of a billionaire urges the candidate to act in most unexpected and domineering fashion.

Pragmatic theories of speech act and politeness greatly assist in understanding nuances and peculiarities of human communication; they are relevant for analyzing literary works, especially dramas as they are mostly dependent on verbal communication and the above theories as well focus on spoken word as a means of interaction. Using basic postulates and the most approved aspects of the theories is sufficient for disclosing the main layers of verbal exchange and perfectly teach and exemplify for readers possible scenarios of human communication.

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THE FEATURES OF ENGLISH AND GEORGIAN POLITICAL EUPHEMISMS

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Abstract

This article is an attempt to find out how euphemisms are employed in speeches of politicians. The language for politicians is the tool that helps them to smother up a scandal, to hide the truth, to make a positive impression on a society. Politics is one of the most fruitful areas from the view of the euphemism usage. To find the right choice of words, politicians often refer to euphemisms, as they have a great pragmatic potential that allows politicians to criticize their opponents, manipulate and disguise the aspects that are unpleasant, as well as to control information transfer without giving a negative impression to their audiences. The main goal of the article represents the identification of features of English and Georgian political euphemisms in political discourse.

Key words: euphemisms, political discourse, politeness, politically correct euphemisms.

Introduction

The usage of euphemisms is a general linguistic phenomena in all languages. Both Georgian and English languages are abundant with the euphemisms, they have similarities and differences of expression that is determined by a cultural context. The Analysis of the Georgian and English euphemisms would help to understand the meaning of a word correctly in both English and Georgian languages and overcome intercultural communication obstacles.

In conditions of modern increasing communicative relations the peculiar attention is paid to a political discourse and its comprehensive analysis, providing a successful implementation of communication. Accordingly, the most important task for a politician is to make an impression on his/her reader. Our article is aimed to analyze and identify the peculiarities of the Euphemistic expressions in political discourse.

English and Georgian political euphemisms compared

Some researchers point at the linguistic aspect of the phenomenon, defining political correctness as "a concept-slogan firmly established in the USA, which deals with symbolic images and correction of a language code rather than with content meaning" (Komlev, 1999). Other researchers combine linguistic aspect with the social and associate political correctness with the wide use of euphemisms that allow not to hurt the feelings of representatives of different social groups (Halmari, 2010). Thus, there are different approaches to the definition of the concept "political correctness". Though ignoring or underestimating at least one of the aspects of the phenomenon (social or linguistic), almost all researchers agree on sensitivity of the phenomenon of political correctness. According to most researchers, the aim of political correctness is the fight against societal discriminations. We can say that the concept "political correctness" is versatile and multisided. Nevertheless, the researchers consider political correctness not only as a cultural and behavioural phenomenon aimed at resolving discrimination but also pay our attention to the linguistic aspect of political correctness which involves the search of new means of expression, new "language forms which have a softened or neutral character deprived of discrimination or offensive connotations" (Vildanova, 2008). Due to the ability to mitigate, euphemisms appear to be the most effective tool of neutralising negative associations (Shemshurenko & Shafigullina, 2015: 129). Mostly politicians refer to euphemisms for this purpose.

According to a function the euphemisms can be divided into several groups:

1) Euphemisms, which emphasize the softness of the form, i.e. it serves to directly replace the nasty words with less offensive words, for example: msukani – charbtsoniani; Fat – overweight, stout, full-figured; mtvrali –shezarkhoshebuli, nasvami; Drunk - tired and over emotional, intoxicated, tipsy.

Restoranshi kalbatoni Tako dzalian aktiurobda, shezarkhoshebuli stsenazets ki avida da imghera („kviris palitra" №44, 2013:10)/ Mrs Tako was very active in a restaurant, being tipsy she even got on the stage and sang).

2) Euphemisms, which emphasize the moral and ethical aspects, as well as the social conditions, for example, in the Georgian language the word "*tualeti*" (toilet) - lavatory is sometimes changed by the euphemistic words, "*sapirparesho*" "*sadats mepeni tavisi phekhit midian"* (a place where the kings go on foot), "qalbatonebis otakhi" (the ladies' room).

In English instead of lavatory, the following euphemisms are used: bathroom, restroom, public conveniences, water closet (WC), comfort station; the gentlemen's (or ladies') room; the example of the euphemism expressing social condition is: Beggar – panhandler or homeless person.

My response to the police who told the panhandler, "You can't be here. This is Fifth Avenue," and to all others who look down at the homeless, is taken from words that I heard many years ago as an intern at Bellevue Hospital, when homeless people often lived on the streets of the Bowery (http://www.nytimes.com/2011/09/01/opinion/not-born-a-panha-ndler.html).

3) Disguised euphemisms, which are used to hide the shortcomings of the phenomenon because of different reasons, the examples of such euphemisms are: "*mkhedveloba dabinduli*" (dull-sighted), "*usinatlo*" (sightless) – "*brma*" - blind); "*smena dakveitebuli*" (with hearing impairment) – "*khru*" (deaf); "*shezghuduli shesadzleblobebis mkone*" - people with limited abilities) – "i*nvalidi*" - disabled);

In these programs, he met other people with similar handicaps, and learned confidence and new sports. (His favorite is bowling.) He began mentoring younger children with special needs, which he still does

(http://www.nytimes.com/2007/12/20/nyregion/20neediest.html?_r=0).

Another function, which is peculiar to both the Georgian and English euphemisms, is a concealment of facts in order to achieve certain goals. This type of euphemisms is widely used in political and economic spheres. For instance, during the war the words „invasion" and „raid" were replaced by the euphemisms „incursion," „involvement" or „military action"; an expression „failure in a war" was changed into „break off contact with enemy". Thousands of homeless people were referred during the war as „transfer of population", „attack"-„active defense". These euphemisms were used to soften the harsh nature of the war.

The English language has a euphemism “friendly fire”, which is difficult to understand for a representative of another culture. Such types of euphemisms are used to cover the fraud, to avoid a humiliating, to disguise the truth. “Friendly fire” – is a euphemism used by a military when a soldier accidentally kills the other one, which is from his side as well.

„Simpson was wounded by US troops during the conflict in a horrific "friendly fire" incident that killed his translator Kamaran Abdurazaq Muhamed“ (https://www.globalpolicy.org/component/content/article/167/ 35334.html).

The euphemisms of an economic field are the following: “economic crisis” for „depression” or “recession”, “poor nation” for “underdeveloped nations”, or “emerging nations”, “unemployed” – “between jobs”. The political leaders used such euphemisms in order to hide the reality, existing in the country and the society. The Georgian language has a lot of euphemisms related to political and economic areas. They have the same function: "*ekonomikuri krizisi*" – "*ekonomikuri aktivobis sheneleba*", "*tavdaskhma" – "samkhedro mokmedeba*", "*gharibi*" – "*sigharibis zghvars mighma mkhophi*", "*sigharibe*" – "*khelmokleoba*", "*tavze cheri ar akvs*" – "*usakhlkarod darchenili*".

A euphemism: "*akhali ckhovreba mistvis mdzime gansactsdelit daitskho: khelmokleobis gamo dgheshi ertkhel ikvebeboda khakhviani buterbrodit, ris gamots shemdeg mteli tskhovreba khakhvi sdzulda*" („kviris palitra" №10, 2014:27). / A new life for her began with ordea: because of poverty she ate an onion sandwich once every day, because of that she hated onion whole-life).

Politics is one of the most fruitful areas from the view of the euphemism usage. The euphemisms help politicians to justify their actions and embellish the actual reality, while people believe that a society and life have become better under their politics. Economic changes, wars and confrontation lead not only to death and destruction, but promote the creation of new euphemisms and dysphemisms. The listed below euphemisms are often used in political discourse.

Bombing - air support, protective action, the killing of innocents - collateral damage, war - police action/conflict, “Counsel” instead of a word “lawyer”, Chief executive officer – president, Relocation center - prison camp, Collateral damage - accidental deaths, Enhanced interrogation –a relatively new Euphemism which is used instead of a word “Torture” (*tsameba*). In Georgian: "*masobrivi gamosvla*" – აქცია ("*aktsia*"), "*tavisuphlebis aghkveta*" – "*dapatimreba*", "*msjavrdadebuli*" –"*patimari*", "*tsikheshi gantseseba*" – "*dapatimreba*", etc.

„1997 წლის 25 ივნისის №387 ბრძანებულებით, საქართველოს პრეზიდენტმა 54 სიკვდილმისჯილი მსჯავრდადებული შეიწყალა, მათ შორის – 13 მამაჩემის გასამართლებული" („კვირის პალიტრა" №3, 2013:5). (1997 tslis 25 ivnisis №387 brdzanebulebit sikvdilmisjili msjavrdadebuli sheitskala, mat shoris – 13 mamachemis gasamartlebuli („Kviris Palitra" №3, 2013:5). / According to the Decree №387 on June 25, 1997, president of Georgia has pardoned 54 convicted prisoners sentenced to death, including – 13, convicted by my father).

“But the weapon has increasingly come under fire because of the collateral damage (accidental deaths) in the spillover killings of innocent civilians, including women and children” (https://www.globalpolicy.org/ the-dark-side-of-natural-resources-st/water-in-conflict/52084-rights-group-call-for-ban-on-futuristic-killer-robots.html).

In a radio interview, Mr. Santorum, the former senator from Pennsylvania and a Republican presidential candidate, disputed Mr. McCain’s contention that “enhanced interrogation” techniques like waterboarding did not lead to the killing of Osama bin Laden (http://thecaucus.blogs.nytimes.com/2011/05/17/santorum-challenges-mccain-on-enhanced-interrogation/).

In the newspaper article a political influence function is performed in accordance with the tactics and strategy of used words. A political sphere is often full of such moments when politicians use Euphemisms to disguise the reality. At the same time dysphemisms help them to express their negative attitude, disclose the actions of a person, criticize the authorities and the actions of politicians.

As the bloodshed has continued and peace has not been achieved the UN has taken the decision to deploy troops followed by surveillance drones to the Congo (https://www.globalpolicy.org/component/ content/article/181-congo/52554-un-uses-drones-for-surveillance-in-eastern-congo-.html).

The example shows, that the author's aim is to expose the actions of a government and show a reader the real results of these actions, particularly, that it causes bloodshed. If in the past times the society tried to use the Euphemisms related to a war and military actions, today no attempts have been observed in this connection and such words do not belong to the media active vocabulary; however, the worst thing is that our media have been using the expressions with negative assessment, i.e. dysphemisms (as in the example with "bloodshed") have become the most frequent kind, used in above-mentioned areas.

If dysphemisms are used to expose different people's behavior or reproach the authorities and politicians in their unfair actions, Euphemisms' function is opposite – to soften the reality which exists around us. Some of the most frequent Euphemisms related to the war are given in the following examples:

Chinese and North Korean Communists threw a heavy counter-attack yesterday against United Nations lines in the central mountains of Korea, holding a French-United States task force encircled in daylong combat--some of it hand-to-hand--until the arrival of reinforcements and savage air strikes compelled the enemy to break contact at dusk (https://www.globalpolicy.org/component/content/article/152/25798.html.

Of course, the US may decide to strike first, but China and Russia now have the means of striking back with submarine-launched ballistic missiles with the same or even more devastating results. But knowing China's strategy of "active defense", when war with the US becomes imminent, China will surely not allow itself to be targeted first. It will seize the initiative as mandated by its doctrine by striking first (https://www.globalpolicy.org/component/content/article/152/25798.html).

Just as U.S. air operations over Iraq have reached their highest level since the destruction of Fallujah in November 2004, with as many as 70 close air support missions flown on many days since October 1, a new Human Rights Report published by the United Nations Assistance Mission in Iraq has challenged the United States to stop killing civilians in illegal air strikes (https://www.globalpolicy.org/component/ content/article/ 168/36362.html).

The analysis of the newspaper texts shows that Government officials often use Euphemisms to soften the facts, while the opposition party gives preference to dysphemisms to aggravate the facts and highlight the inability of the current government. For example, in relation to the same event the Minister of Economy uses a euphemism, while his opponent uses a dysphemism.

Ekonomikuri aktivobis sheneleba kvekhnis shignit („Asaval-Dasavali" №16, 2015:22) / The slowdown in economic activity within the country).

"*Samtsukharod, rogorts mosalodneli gakhldat politikuri krizisi ivanishvilis rezhimisa gadaizarda phinansur-ekonomikur katastrophashi*" („Asaval-Dasavali" №16, 2015:19). / Unfortunately, as it was expected, a political crisis of Ivanishvili's regimen was turned into a financial and economic catastrophe).

A politician uses the Euphemism to make a positive impression on a society, as well as to control information transfer and hide the truth, while the dysphemism aggravates the fact.

The political Euphemisms serve political purposes. The language for politicians is the tool that helps them to smother up a scandal, to disguise the truth, the influence on the society. The political Euphemisms are characterized by the following three peculiarities:

1. The Euphemisms that disguise aggressive militarism and are used to shift the focus from the negative aspects of reality.

But like so many Afghan dreams dashed in 23 years of war, the $1.9-billion natural gas pipeline project never got past the talking and enticing. When rivalries were fully inflamed, the vision quickly vanished. Unocal pulled the plug on its involvement in 1998, after the Clinton administration ordered airstrikes on suspected terrorist camps in the country. Now the leaders of Afghanistan and neighboring Turkmenistan and Pakistan hope to revive the venture at a summit today, and as the intrigue starts to swirl again, this shattered country desperate for foreign investment risks getting sucked into another bitter round of pipeline politics (https://www.globalpolicy.org /component/content/article/198 /40163.html).

2. The euphemisms that are associated with negative sides of social and economic spheres.

It turns out that by one important measure — changes in real G.D.P. since the recession began — Britain is doing worse this time than it did dAuring the Great Depression. Four years into the Depression, British G.D.P. had regained its previous peak; four years after the Great Recession began, Britain is nowhere close to regaining its lost ground (https://www.globalpolicy.org/social-and-economic-policy/the-world-economic-crisis/general-analysis-2/51256-the-austerity-debacle-.html?itemid=id).

3. Crime-related euphemisms.

Three guards accused of beating an inmate at the Attica Correctional Facility so severely that doctors had to insert a plate and six pins into his leg each pleaded guilty on Monday to a single misdemeanor charge of misconduct. The last-minute plea deal spared them any jail time in exchange for quitting their jobs (http://www.nytimes.com/2015/03/03/ nyregion/attica-prison-guards-plead-guilty-in-2011-inmate-beating-case.html).

General Conclusions

The process of euphemization is a general phenomenon almost for all languages. All cultures have the concepts, which are avoided to be directly mentioned, or, on the contrary, are directly used in the speech to make an impression. Thus, universality, which is well known and accepted by the society, is one of the peculiar features of the euphemism, on the basis of which we have divided them into several groups.

The process of the euphemization includes different feelings and emotions. The euphemisms are used in all spheres of our life. Their purpose is to mitigate the impact of a speaker on the audience. The most important functions of the political euphemisms are to disguise the shortcomings, the reality and decrease the listener's negative emotions.

Based on the comparative analysis of euphemisms we conclude that the two analyzed languages have the similarities from the viewpoint of euphemism usage. As the research has shown, the most fruitful area for euphemism usage is a political and economic one, as well as the words related to military activities.

As the analysis shows, the euphemisms are often met in a political sphere. Some politicians try to soften reality and to give an information to a society in this way, while the rest, on the contrary, "add fuel to the fire" in their speech.

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GENDER AND IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY WOMEN POLITICIANS IN GEORGIAN POLITICAL DISCOURSE

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Abstract

'I don't participate in debates with weak women' -

As is known, people frequently maintain their face while attacking others' image, depending on their specific intentions and the context of the situation. Brown and Levinson (1978) call this phenomenon "a face-threatening act". Tracy (2008) prefers the term "face-attack" to describe serious face-threats whereas Blitvich (2009) claims that linguistic impoliteness may be one of the linguistic indexes of constructing identities. Specifically, Blitvich argues that impoliteness may ensue when the identities and positioning that speakers are trying to construct are not verified by their interlocutors. From this point of view, it can be claimed that politicians may use impoliteness as a strategy to damage their opponents' faces/identities while presenting their own ideas as well as a way to construe one's identities of powerful and strong leaders. By doing so, they make their advantages and strengths visible to the potential voters. The Georgian political platform, in this sense, is no exception. Rusieshvili-Cartledge (2017) describes the linguistic and extra-linguistic strategies applied by female politicians while defending their political stance during the pre-parliamentary election period. This paper continues the same line of thought and aims to discuss (1) whether Georgian female politicians are also consistent in using masculine speech strategies more than feminine in their day-to-day activities and (2) possible reasons behind the acts of face-attack and their connection with gender and identity construction. This study is based on the analysis of empirical data made up from transcripts of extracts from pre-election period and parliamentary debates broadcast on Georgian TV channels in 2012 - 2017.

Key words: gender, political discourse, feminine and masculine politeness strategies, identity construction

Introduction: Issue of gender equality in Georgian society

The world still finds gender equality a challenge and even such democratic countries as the USA and the UK struggle with the controversial views regarding women's roles and functions in society. Georgian society is also making steps towards gender equality. However, research projects about this issue in Georgia still claim that the lack of general education or gender oriented awareness as well as a strict traditional religious upbringing prevail in the process of becoming more gender neutral. Moreover, in spite of the social or economic changes in the country, "traditional views and stereotypes regarding gender preferences and roles are still prevalent in today's youth" (Japardize, et al., 2013, p.10). Despite the fact that Georgian society officially considers women equal to men, the reality is far from ideal. In one of the reports a Georgian sociologist, Naskidashvili (2011) states that the social roles for women remain considerably different from those of men. By people living in the regions of the country and, especially by less educated groups of the society, women are still seen as only child minders and housewives. Unfortunately, the majority of the participants of the survey do not think it is compulsory for women to get an education and believe that women should not burden themselves by looking for jobs (Naskidashvili, 2011).

Therefore, it can be argued that women in Georgia are still socially challenged due to their prejudiced roles in society. Because of this, when occupying "unfeminine" positions, women make an effort to adjust their speeches and styles according to what they think the community expects from them as people occupying "manly" positions.

Theorising the interrelationship between impoliteness, gender and power; feminine and masculine speech strategies

The post-Brown and Levinson approach to (im)politeness, classed as "contestable" (Harris, 2007), or "post-modern" (Tekourafi, 2005) departs from the original theory (Brown & Levinson, 1987) in several aspects. Firstly, it rightly looks at (im)politeness as a form of social practice which is deemed to be contested, with participants of the discourse making assessments as to what is polite or impolite (Harris, 2007; Mills, 2003, amongst others). Secondly, (im)politeness is looked upon as not contextually situated, that is enacted, within discourse (Culpeper, 2005; Culpeper, 2008). In addition to this, post-modern (im) politeness research argues that impoliteness is not inherent in language and needs to be judged against the norms of a community of practice/activity type in a particular context (Culpeper, 2008).

Another concept (im)politeness is frequently associated with is that of intentionality/un –intentionality. According to Culpeper (2005), "impoliteness comes about when (1) the speaker communicates face-attack intentionally and (2) the hearer perceives and/or constructs behaviour as intentionally face-attacking, or a combination of (1) and (2) (p. 38).

In the context of confrontational discourse such as broadcast/political interviews or TV shows it is claimed that "sanctioned aggressive face work" (Watts, 2003: 260), or" sanctioned impoliteness (Harris, 2007) are used to neutralize face-threatening acts. Moreover, while discussing the reasons for instrumental rudeness employed in interaction, Beebe argues that it may be a desire to get power into the conversation (i.e. to do conversational management) to make the interlocutor talk, stop talking, shape what they tell you or to get the floor (Culpeper, 2008).

On the other hand, Blitvich claims that although "adversarialness" may be sanctioned in these genres, it still has to be balanced with objectivity. If the balance is not upheld, the interaction can be deemed impolite, both by the interviewees and the overhearing audience (Blitvich, 2009). Locher and Watt's (2005) claim that face is discursively constructed and socially attributed and the presentation of self occurs here. Thus, it is through assuming positions, i.e., participant roles and orientations, that identity/face are enacted. From this point of view, it may be considered that that impoliteness may ensue when the identities and positioning that speakers are trying to construct are not verified by their interlocutors (Blitvich, 2009). Moreover, identity construction should always be interpreted within discourse systems realized by genres (Fairclough, 2003) or specific forms of discourse (Scollon & Scollon 2001).

It is also argued that gender plays an immense role in the linguistic performance of a person. For instance, Holmes suggests that men and women perceive the purpose and function of a language differently (Holmes, 1995). The researchers interested in gender studies claim that female and male speaking styles also vary because of the social attitudes towards the masculine and feminine roles in the society (Crespi, 2003; Merchant, 2012). For instance, in a public space like politics, men are more dominant, therefore, the masculine way of speaking (being assertive, competitive, aggressive, interruptive, confrontational, direct, autonomous, dominating, task-oriented (Holmes, 2006) is largely considered as an appropriate style. As is known, Margaret Thatcher had to undergo a "linguistic makeover" which included lowering the pitch of her voice, flattening her accent and delivering the speeches more slowly than in her usual way (Jones, 2016). This transformation seemed to be a must as it was (and still is) believed that nobody could "get far with a feminine style" in politics (Karkowitz & Mendelberg, 2014). In addition, linguistic evaluation of political speeches delivered by Hillary Clinton (who can be considered to be the latest important female figure of recent American politics) reveals that her way of talking, as well that of delivering political speeches, has changed from that of a caring and affectionate First Lady's into a woman's talking like a man in order to present herself to her possible followers as a more convincing and a worthy leader (Jones, 2016). Against this background, it is not surprising that women seem to be negatively assessed and are considered to sound unconvincing whilst using feminine speech strategies in a male dominant sphere (Rusieshvili-Cartledge, 2017).

Although Tannen associated stereotypically feminine styles of talk, such as supportive, collaborative and indirect with women whereas stereotypically masculine styles were classed as competitive, aggressive and direct (Tannen, 1998), more recent studies of the issue (Stubbe et al., 2000) reveal that along with gender, interactional styles may be influenced by "an intricate web of factors such as national culture, ethnicity, social class and age as well as contextual norms and power differences between the participants" (Ladegaard, 2012). The issue of how female and male leaders challenge gender stereotypes while negotiating at the workplace both in Western and Asian cultures has attracted considerable attention (Holmes, 2006; Mullany, 2007; Okamoto, 2010). Berryman-Fink (1997) claims that a female leader's management style in Western workplaces is transformational and interpersonal whereas a male's style relies heavily on command and control. However, having studied the speech of Hong Kong female leaders, Ladegaard (2012) concludes that they are also keen to use normatively masculine speech style. Rusieshvili-Cartledge (2017) explores linguistic and extra-linguistic strategies of face-attack employed in the Georgian political CofP by Georgian female leaders while defending their political stance in the pre-election period. She also contemplates the reasons behind the face-attack and their connection with gender and power as well as consistency in using "feminine" or "masculine" styles in pre-election debates. This paper also follows this line of thought and explores (1) whether Georgian female politicians are consistent in using masculine speech strategies more than feminine while constructing their identities as leaders and successful politicians in their day-to-day activities and (2) possible reasons behind the acts of face-attack and their connection with gender, power and identity construction.

This study is based on the analysis of empirical data made up from transcriptions of extracts from pre-election as well as parliamentary debates broadcast on Georgian TV channels in 2012 - 2017.

Data and methodology of the research

The data of this study are based on ten video recordings of live parliamentary sessions and political talk shows in Georgia. The live parliamentary discussions were moderated by the chairperson of the parliamentary session, while talk shows were conducted by the hostess of the programmes selected for the analysis. In most cases, the interviewees were in the same room together with the moderator of the show. However, in two video recordings, the opponents of the main guests were live in a different studio. Female politicians in the extracts chosen for analysis were from the governmental party as well as from their opposing parties. In addition, all moderators were also females. In extracts discussed in this article, the female political figures are debating against their female opponents and a moderator.

The data are analysed based on the assumption that employing masculine strategies by the Georgian female politicians is linked with impoliteness which is used both as a means of constructing one's identity whilst damaging that of the opponent's and a strong rapport establishing device with the target audience: in this case, with voters and followers. Three extracts are used as examples: extract N1 is a record of a dialogue between a female politician and a moderator of a talk – show at one of the opposition TV channels; extract N2 was recorded/transmitted from the parliamentary committee session whereas the third, brief extract was recorded during the parliamentary pre-election campaign.

Extract N1

This extract is taken from the talk show, where the journalist (A) from an opposition channel, brings up a hotly debatable topic of qualification of a female Minister from the governmental party (B). Naturally, B's tasks are to defend her position and maintain her identity of a strong leader. To do so, B chooses an aggressive path which includes interruptions (lines 3, 4, 8, 11, 13) ironic remarks (line 15,); direct attacks on the identity of the hostess of the show. Specifically, B attacks the hostess' identity of a knowledgeable and objective journalist (lines 15, 24). As well as this, B is constantly trying to dominate the interview and direct it into a channel that would avoid damaging her image , and at the same time would place her in a position to counter- attack and destroy the face/identity of the journalist, and that of the whole channel (lines 11, 28) In other words, in this extract the identity of a strong and brave politician is based on strategically employed masculine strategies, as well as impoliteness against the interviewee that represents an opposition. On the other hand, the hostess also performs her part of attack on the identity of the guest. First of all, she refers to the education of B as 'amazing' which is tinted with an ironic colouring against the background of prior discussions in the media of that period regarding this issue (line 2). After being attacked, she makes an attempt to defuse the situation by explaining the difference between qualification and education (lines7- 8). However, the hostess is put in a defensive mode again when her integrity and the identity of an objective journalist is put under question (lines 19 - 28).

1. A: I want to emphasise from the very beginning that nobody doubts your qualifications
2. and [your amazing education] =
3. B: [Thank you very much] [ironic]
4. A: = Therefore, in order not to make this the topic of discussion =
5. B: = No, this is the topic of discussion. Yes, it was put under the question mark.
6. Continue and I will answer you later.
7. A: Qualifications and a degree are two different things. One might have a degree, but
8. their qualifications can easily be low. [In this case I am talking about your degree and not about your =
9. B: [No, what I am going to talk about is up to me, you just give me a question]
10. A: My question is regarding your [diploma and not your qualification].
11. B: [You give me a question, what I will say is my business.]
12. A: = Okay, then. [I will ask you=

13. B: [Ask me]
14. A: = and I want to get an answer... we know that you were a very good student of that institution, we found it out and =
15. B: = It must have taken you a whole five days to find this information.
16. A: [Of course] =
17. B: [Very good]
18. A: = I do a lot when I work on my show.
19. B: [Yes]… you do not have a clue about the legal system, Georgian of course, and it's
20. already obvious that you don't know the French one either.
21. A: = speak more precisely about what I do not know, please.
22. B: Let me finish. You are not letting me answer you =
23. A: = Okay, I am listening.
24. B: I don't know what they have told you to ask me.
25. A: No one has asked me anything, Kalbatono B.
26. B: Then can you let me finish the sentence?
27. A: Okay, I am listening.

1. 28 . B: Unlike you, I know how I am going to answer you.

Extract N2

The participants of this extract are three female politicians (A, B, C): A is a member of the main opposition party, while B is the member of the ruling party, which makes her position more powerful in the debates. C is a female moderator of the parliamentary session, also a member of the major party. Thus, on the one hand, it is not surprising that both B and C simultaneously attack A, making an attempt to damage the latter's public face and at the same time, her self-asserted identity of a strong and fair leader. While A is also assertive and after formulating her question, makes demands for an answer, B tries to avoid answering the question by attacking her opponents' face by indicating that A behaved like a tomboy in her childhood (implying that A played football, behaved like a macho, acted as a hooligan), therefore, her behavior was not in compliance with an image of a "respectable and feminine lady" that the Georgian traditional community would respect. On the other hand, A, feeling threatened by the attack, interrupts B and asks her not to deviate from the topic by doing so, trying to make B answer the delicate and hotly debated question of the period. What is interesting here, is that although B has been trying to construct her identity of a strong leader by implying masculine strategies (irony, verbal attack, aggressiveness) , she still draws a line between a female, strong politician and a "macho" female as she is trying to present the opponent's identity. Moreover, B chastises A for interrupting her and making a comparison between herself and A, B constructs identity of herself as a diligent and feminine little girl versus portraying her opponent as an unfeminine tomboy, playing football outside with boys and, presumably, behaving like a back-street boy and a hooligan. This contrast, opposition of images /identities is well-thought, loaded with implications and fits in well with the anti-LGBT feelings quite strong in the country. One more interesting detail that should be added of her is that the same politician is the author of the extract given below during pre-parliamentary elections debates (see extract 3).

A: In one of the most shameful episodes you assessed X's decision as 'passing the test successfully' [Judge] X did pass the test, however, you must have made a mistake there. Do the judges pass the tests? They do pass tests of responsibility in front of people and the law and not in front of Y and you. …

B: Kalbatono A, don't interrupt me. I did not compete with you even when I was a kid. You should remember this. I read books then.

A: I certainly don't remember you.

B: I do. I remember you. I did not compete with you in football either.

C: Please, listen, Kalbatono A.

B: While I was reading a book, you behaved like a macho in the streets. This is not my style. … I don't care about Rustavi Two, I don't even care about the fate of its opponents. What hurts your feelings is that you cannot control the unitary system of the court, this is a huge headache for you.

A: The discussion is about you, Kalbatono B.

C: Kalbatono A, I am giving you a notice and if you once again interrupt B, you will have to leave the session. You don't leave me any other choice.

B: Get used to it, Kalbatono C, this is just the beginning of the hooliganism.

Extract 3

The main participant of this extract is the member of the then governmental party invited to a talk show. She has to defend herself against the accusations from the speaker of the opposition party tuned in from somewhere else. She utters the phrase that directly answers one of the research statements, namely N2 statement (what are the reasons for women to employ masculine strategies in politics?) and states she is not willing to participate in the debates with a weak woman. By employing this attitude she tries to prove that she is as equally worthy of her high position as any of her male counterparts would be. She also recalls an incident from A's past political life and ridicules her by referring to it. Women complain (and moan) about bleeding noses, cry, ask for help and are generally weak. This directly opposes the portrait of a feminine little girl drawn above. So there is a clear demarcation line between, on the one hand, a strong politician, basing her discourse on masculine strategies and building an identity of a strong, perseverant leader and a feminine lady on the one hand and a tomboy, incompetent woman, on the other.

B: I don't want to say things that will upset Kalbatoni A, she then will say that her nose is bleeding, she is crying, etc. that she needs help. I just want to make a statement - I have decided not to debate with that kind of people, they are weak opponents and they are weak women. I don't participate in debates with weak women.

Discussion and Conclusions

As stated by Naskidashvili (Naskidashvili, 2011) the social roles for women in Georgia remain considerably different from those of men and women are frequently seen as only child minders and housewives. In this situation, it's not surprising that Georgian women in politics constantly face obstacles, fear of not seriously taken by both their male colleagues and society. As members of a "weaker sex", women need more verbal and non-verbal efforts to persuade their voters that they are capable of being good leaders. The collected data reveal that female Georgian politicians indeed have the urge to employ masculine strategies and actually do so on a day-to-day basis. More precisely, they often directly attack and damage their opponents' identities, even when there is no particular need for this and construct their own identities as assertive, interruptive and less empathetic to their 'adversaries'. While realising that they might be considered as inferior to their male counterparts, women do not hesitate to directly initiate arguments and prove their point by employing irony, accusations, criticism and even aggression. All this can be considered to be the way of constructing the image of a daring, aggressive female politician, who, although being a woman, is able to assert her position like a man would do. Damaging the faces of their opponents means destroying a social image which, from the Georgian perspective, is a great threat to any public figure based on the in-group character of the country (Rusieshvili, 2010). On the other hand, an identity of a strong, assertive/aggressive leader is adorned and perfected revealing her diligent and feminine side. As well as this, linguistic choices of female Georgian political figures are highly conditioned by the social attitudes towards the gender and women's roles in society and may be considered as one of the means of constructing positive identity of themselves and negative identity of their opponents.

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Appendix: Transcription Conventions

[Conventions are based on Gumperz and Berenz (1993), Atkinson and Heritage (1986) and Langford (1994)

Overlapping [ ]

Latching =

Interrupting A: I used to smoke [a lot more than this=

B: [you used to smoke

A: = but, I never inhaled the smoke

Unclear Word ( )

Guess at unclear word (did)

Non-lexical phenomenon [irony]

Emphasis

Omitted sentences …

SOME PROBLEMS OF MODALITY IN LEGAL ENGLISH AND GEORGIAN TEXTS

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Abstract

The article deals with the issue of modal verbs in Legal English. Legal English is a type of English used mainly in legal writing (contracts, licenses, judgments, parliamentary acts, legal correspondence, etc.). In general, legal language is a formalized language based on logic rules which differs from the ordinary natural language in vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and semantics, as well as other linguistic features, aimed to achieve consistency, validity, and completeness. However, due to the spread of Legal English as the predominant language of international business, as well as its role as a legal language within the European Union, Legal English is now a global phenomenon. A specialized use of certain terms and linguistic patterns governs the teaching of legal language. Language for Specific Purposes is a widely applied approach to second or foreign language teaching and training that addresses immediate and very specific needs of learners who need that language as a tool in their education, training or job. Teachers' aim is to interpret the functions of modal verbs in Legal English in comparison to Georgian. The authors have conducted the research applying legal English documents and analyzed the use of modal verbs in context, the frequency of their use, finding equivalents of English modal verbs in Georgian language, revealing similarities and differences of modal verb functions and discuss their semantics. Their knowledge and skill of using them correctly in the legislative field are vital. The results of analysis of individual modal verb and their role in Legal English will be presented in tables and charts.

Key words: modality; legal English

We think that modal verbs are an inseparable and play an essential part in legal language. Their knowledge and the skill of using them correctly in legal drafting are basic for the final outcome of the entire document. We have conducted research into legal English documents and try to analyze the use of modal verbs in context and look at the frequency with which they occur. Furthermore, we will deal with their Georgian equivalents and discuss their semantics.

We aim to establish and interpret the functions of modal verbs in legal English in comparison to Georgian. We assume that modal verbs are more common in legal language in English than in Georgian, particularly the modal verb shall which is the most frequent modal in legal documents and at the same time the one causing most problems both for drafters of legal documents and translators.

Scholars hold different ideas about modality and its types. For example, Von Wright (1951), in what was a pioneering work on modal logic, distinguishes among four modes of modality. These are:

1. The alethic modes or modes of truth.

2. The epistemic modes or modes of knowing.

3. The deontic modes or modes of obligation.

4. The existential modes or modes of existence.

The author admits that the fourth type, which belongs to qualification theory, is often not regarded as a branch of modal logic, though there are essential similarities between it and the other modes. Lyons notes three "scales" of modality, those of 1)"wish" and "intention", 2) "necessity" and "obligation", and 3) "certainty" and "possibility" (Lyons, 1968).

A rather different approach is taken by Leech, who offers what he calls a "structural and componential description of the phenomenon". This, according to Leech (1969), involves seven systems of modality:

Causation _ "causes"; "is caused by"

Actuality _ "actual, real"; "non-actual, unreal, hypothetical"

Constraint _ "weak" (eg. permission); "strong' (e.g., obligation)

Authority _ "has permission/is obliged to"; converse

Volition _ "wishes"; "is wished by"

Ability _ "is able to"; converse

Probability _ "probable", "improbable"

It's worth noting that Palmer had earlier made the threefold distinction between epistemic, subject oriented and discourse oriented modals. He used the distinction between subject oriented and discourse oriented modals to classify them. Later he rejected his classification and suggested three basic kinds of modality which for convenience were labeled by him as "epistemic", "deontic" and "dynamic" (Palmer, 1979). While discussing modality, we assume that it is essential to consider three modality types.

In both syntax and semantics, epistemic modality is the type of modality that is most clearly distinct from the others and has the greatest degree of internal regularity and completeness. The function of epistemic modals is to make judgments about the possibility that something may or may not be the case. Epistemic modality is the modality of proposition rather than of actions, states, events, etc. Epistemic modals are normally subjective, i.e. the epistemic judgment rests with the speaker. The clearest evidence of the subjective (performative) nature of the epistemic modality is that the relevant modals occur only in the present tense, for the judgment and the act of speaking are simultaneous and can only be present this way.

The dividing line between deontic modality and the other types is not as clear as between the epistemic modality and the other types. Nevertheless, both syntax and semantics can be used to establish modal uses that have much in common and, therefore, justify the decision to recognize deontic modality as a specific kind.

We may take the criterion of being performative as a starting point for defining the deontic modals. In the assertive forms and in the negative forms, where it is an event that is negated (not the modality), a deontic modal will be performative; it will give permission, lay an obligation, or make a promise. Moreover, there will normally be no past tense forms, for by their nature performatives cannot be in the past; the act takes place at the moment of speaking.

Third, we have dynamic modality. Dynamic modality suggests that there are circumstances in the real world which make possible or necessary the coming into reality of this conceptual state of affairs. With neutral dynamic modality these are circumstances in general, while with subject oriented modality they are the characteristics of the subject. There are also different areas of indeterminacy _ between neutral and subject oriented dynamic possibility (can), but between deontic and neutral dynamic necessity (must). All of this makes it difficult to draw any clear line, but that does not invalidate the distinction.

Different languages have different ways of expressing modality. In the Georgian language there is no complete classification of modality. Based on the research on modality and the examples provided, we try to build the structure of modality in the Georgian language. In the English language lexical-grammatical means (modal verbs, modal words and mood) make the field of modality. The field of modality in Georgian language is nearly the same, but they have different rate of use and the distribution of the components.

In Georgian the category of modality has not yet been studied comprehensively though Georgian scholars have made several attempts towards this goal. In Georgian the category of mood creates a syntactic grammatical field. (Kvachadze, 1988) Mood is a grammatical term, while modality is a semantic one related to the meanings that are usually associated with mood. Thus, the relation between mood and modality is like the one between tense and time.

As we have already mentioned, modal verbs are an inseparable and play an essential part in legal language. Law is one of the most important social institutions. It sets out clear guidelines of social behaviour in a given community. As its functioning heavily depends on language, many scholars have taken interest in legal language and have undertaken to study it from different perspectives such as psychology, sociology, anthropology and linguistics. The main concern of our work, however, stays with linguistics. One of the most challenging issues for linguistics is the everlasting conflict between the functions of law and language. The fundamental use of legal language is to impose rights and confer obligations upon individuals or groups of people. Thus, it is possible to say that legal language is directive – it expresses notions such as permission, order and prohibition. Unlike directives in general English, the directives in legal language are rarely expressed by imperative. The main problems that linguists studying legal language face are how to achieve specificity, exactness and clarity. Unlike other languages, the language of law is conservative and tends to resist any changes. Consequently, an ongoing discussion between traditionalists and advocates of Plain English style prevails within the legal community.

As the aim of our research is analysing the use of modal verbs in legal English documents, we are to review legal language in general and then establish and interpret the functions of modal verbs in the source languages.

Different grammatical and lexical means of expressing modality – modal verbs, modal words, modal willing particles and modal particles prove that it is widely used in many language activities with its various functions. Among different fields of science . . . Law studies is rather important in this respect. Treaties, international agreements, legislation in force, legislation in preparation, case-law, parliamentary issues are rich in various kinds of modality.

Law sets out clear guidelines of social behavior in a given community. One of the most challenging issues for linguistics is the everlasting conflict between the functions of law and language. The fundamental use of legal language is to impose rights and confer obligations upon individuals or groups of people. Legal language is very formal. The markers of high level of formality include frequent use of special words and foreign words, abstract nouns and passives, scarcity of personal pronouns, long sentences, etc.

Legal texts are based on sender-receiver relationship written by experts for other experts (lawyers or judges) but they are also addressed to non-experts from general public. So legal language is conservative and tends to resist any changes. The English source texts tend to be composed of very long, sometimes even unintelligible complex sentences.

In the history of legal language there was some effort to change it into Plain one to enable the readers to understand a document at first reading. Moreover the document should be understood in the same sense that the writer meant it to be understood.

> Some of the golden rules of good legal writing are consistence, coherence and clarity. Whenever it is possible short words/sentences should be used instead of long words/sentences. …For writing in Plain English among 39 rules, the fundamental ones are – knowing the audience, logical sequence of information usage of short sentences and active voice, good punctuation, etc. (Peliskova, 2006, 29)

Shall is the most important modal verb in legal English. You can hardly find a sentence without this modal verb in translation of the Constitution of Georgian Republic. Still we often find that many drafters of legal documents are incapable of using shall correctly. The only possible use of shall is present-day legal English is to confine it the meaning 'has a duty to' and impose obligation on a capable object. It has been suggested that shall should be replaced by will to express the future and by must to express the imperative since must and will are less corrupted and less legalistic' (Kimble, 2003, 6). According to Bryan Carner (1995), 'shall' has as many as eight senses in legal documents. Using shall by other modal verbs is open to discussion and its use in legal documents is probably a matter of taste. Generally speaking it seems that the majority of English speaking clients prefer to use shall to simplified language. Comparing the English translation of Constitution of Georgia to its origin we found out some examples:

Konstitutsiuri shetankhmeba srulad undasheesabamebodes saertashoriso samartlis sakhoveltaod aghiarebul prinstipebs da normebs…

Constitutional agreement shall be in full compliance with the universally recognized principles and norms… (Georgian "unda" must corresponds to 'shall be' in English).

Saqartvelos skhelmtsipo simboloebi dadgenilia organuli kanonit.

The state of Georgia shall be defined by an organic law.

dadgenilia, akrdzalulia, datsulia – these compound predicates are translated into English by verbs in passive constructions with shall:

Shall be defined

Shall be forbidden

Shall be determined

Shall be protected

Some instances are very interesting; Georgian compound predicates '*daushvebelia, dasashvebia'* or Passive construction '*daishveba*' are rendered in this way:

Shall be inadmissible – *daushvebelia*

May be restricted – *dashveba shezghudulia*

May be deprived – დასაშვებია საკუთრების ჩამორთმევა

Compound predicates are always found at the end of English sentences while they at the beginning in Georgian.

Sometimes in Georgian no modal verb is necessary to express some regulations.

Saqartvelos saxelmtsifo ena aris qartuli – the official language of Georgia shall be Georgian.

Instead of Present Simple in Georgian modal verb shall appears.

sakhelmtsifo itsavs saqartvelos moqalaqeta shromit uflebebs sazghvargareT.

The state shall protect the labour rights of the citizens of Georgians abroad.

In article 18. – we have same subjects with difficult voice construction

An arrestee or detainee shall be made aware – *unda ganimartos*

An arrestee or a detainee may request – *sheudzlia moitkhovos*

The difference between shall and will in legal language is that will is used to create a promise or contractual obligation. "Will" may express one's own clients' obligations and shall could be used for the other party's obligations although the effect remains the same.

Should rarely used in legal drafting because it is not a legal term of art. It is most often associated with moral rather than legal obligation. Its meaning it is similar to another modal verb 'ought to'. However, 'ought to' should be reserved for expressions of necessity, duty or obligations, should on the other hand expresses more appropriateness, suitability or fittingness. It is more often used in the Passive constructions.

In the secondary level Student Text book 'We the people' John Lock says: 'the state of nature has a law of nature to govern it which obliges every one ... no one ought to harm another in his life'- *bunebit saxelmtsifos gaachnia tavis samartavad bunebiti kanoni, rats avaldebulebs yvelachvengans ... arkhelvkhofdet skxvis sisotskhles*.

To that end greater competition amongst importers should be encouraged. - *unda davainteresot*

May is translated by a non-modal and non-verbal expressions and it expresses the notion of uncertainty and possibility.

Requiring a majority vote means Congress may make laws that will favor the merchants of the northern and eastern states.

khmata umravlesobis morkhovna nishnavs, rom kongresssheudzlia ...sasargeblo kanonis mgheba.

Every member of the convention who may still have objections to it would with me on this occasion doubt a little… (Franklin's speech made on the last days of the convention).

...konventsiis khvela tsevri, vins djer tsinaaghmdegia konstitutsiisa...

Must bears two meanings. The first one is logical necessity and the second one obligation/compulsion. However must/shall substitution we have already pointed out. But sometimes may not correspond to Georgian '*ar sheidzleba'*.

A citizen of Georgia who is at the same time a citizen of any foreign country may not hold the office of President…

saqartvelos prezidentis ... tanamdeboba ar sheidzleba ekavos saqartvelos im moqalaqes, romelic amavdroulad utskho qvekhnis moqalaqea.

We have full coincidence must- უნდა in the following example:

The citizen must possess civic virtue.

Moqalaqes samoqalaqo ghirseba unda hqondes.

"Can" is frequently seen in Passive Constructions in the same meaning in Georgian '*sheidzleba*'.

It can only be changed with the widespread consent of the citizens.

Konstitutsia sheidzleba sheitsvalos mkholod moqalaqeta fartotsarmomadgenlobiti tankhmobit ...

Some transformation rules work here in some examples where no modality is rendered.

There is no one to make laws that you can understand and follow.

Ar arsebobs khelisufleba, verts veravin sheqmnis tqventvis gasageb da misagheb kanons.

In negative form it carries the same meaning as it has in general language.

… government can't exist until it has been created.

Sheidzlebelia arsebobdes khelisufleba, vidre igi sheiqmnebodes...

Modal verbs could and might are both translated by either Present Simple or past Simple in Georgian as usual.

How might your ideas … influence your ideas…

Rogorc sheudzlia (Present Simple) *tqvens tsarmodgenebs ... realuri zegavlenamoakhdinos tqvens shekhedulebebze.*

How could you organize a government so it wouldn't be fairly easy to remove?

Rogor moatskhob khelisuflebas, shesadzlebeli rom khofilikho misi mokheleebis advilad gadakhenebaan setsvla.
(Conditional sentence)

Modal verbs need/need not amount an insignificant number within the whole text. Also the translation of would does not pose any problem. In Georgian it appears in conditional sentences. It is translated in either Present simple, Past or Future one.

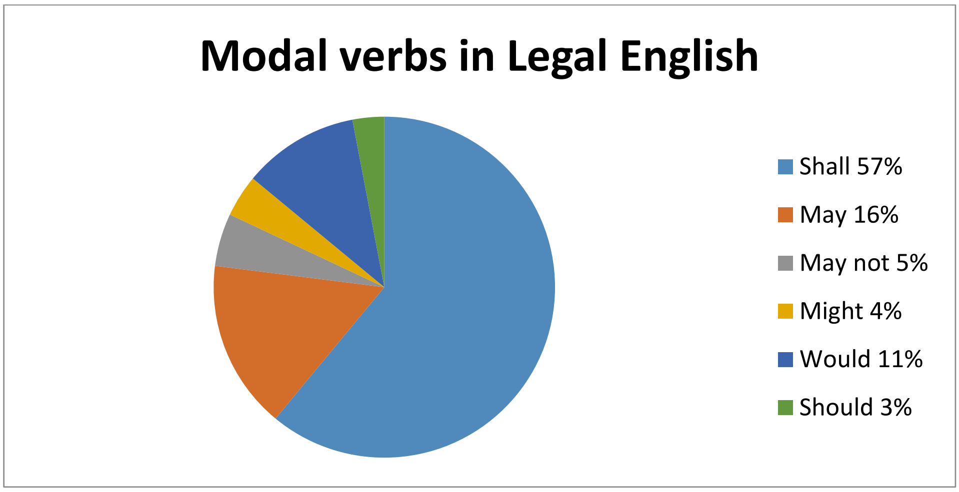
It would be very difficult for the people to agree about what was best for their common welfare.

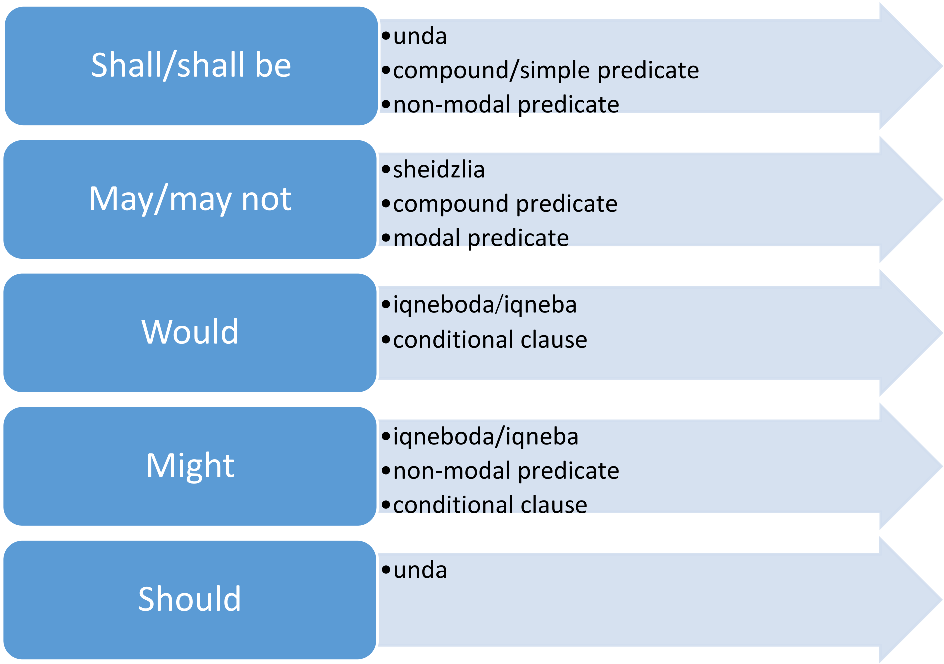
Khalkhs metismetad gautchirdeba shetankhmebismightseva imis taobaze,tu ra iqneboda mattvis saerto ketildgheoba (Conditional meaning).

To sum up, legal translation should be done only by skilled professionals trained in the field of legal translation.

The observation results are quite clear. We have done research in two ways: Modal verbs in English and their equivalents in Georgian language. The examples from a student textbook about USA Constitution show much more modal verbs with different translation cases and Georgian Constitution in English reveals the domination of modal verb 'shall' that corresponds to almost all cases of modality but expressing future tense.

Shall is the most frequent modal in legal documents and at the same time the one causing most problems both for drafters of legal documents and translators.





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SYLLABUS AS A VIABLE COMMUNICATION TOOL

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Abstract

In the modern, learner-centered teaching environment, establishing viable communication with the students is crucial from the very beginning of the educational process. Ensuring students' comprehension of the study process, enabling them see the coherence between the course components, applied teaching methods, assessment, teaching and learning outcomes, etc. are vital for ensuring students' academic performance throughout the course. Educators increasingly agree that a learner-centered syllabus is associated with better rapport between students and teachers and increased student motivation, achievement, and empowerment. The present article explores the communicative strategies teachers need to employ when constructing and presenting course syllabi to overcome various challenges of the study process. This craze becomes even more desired if we consider the multiple purposes the syllabus must fulfill in the education process, content, format, and function wise. The article will assist lecturer to establish rapport with the students from the beginning of the study process and support them in their academic performance.

Keywords: Syllabus; learner-centered teaching, communication strategies, academic achievement, study process.

Let's just imagine the first day of any course that students take at the university. They have practically no idea about the content of the course, they don't know anything about the professor who will be standing in front of them, at least for a semester, and are ignorant about the requirements to make it through the presumably scary several months. During the first day in any university classroom, students expect to receive a syllabus detailing assignments, procedures, and requirements of the course. The several page long paper is actually a key instrument for their introduction into the essence of the course. The syllabus opens the door for the students and transforms the learning process into a motivating journey throughout the semester, full of challenges, expectation, and achievements.

As a written text, the syllabus communicates a great deal (Matejka & Kurke, 1994; Raymark & Conner-Greene, 2002). It provides information about the content of the course, literature to be used for acquiring the study material, learning outcomes, learning/teaching methods, information about the professor, etc. Historically, the purpose of the syllabus has been evolving and changing according to the priorities set forth in the field of education. Some scholars believe that syllabus serves to evaluate the teaching competency and accuracy (Parkes & Harris, 2002), others assert that it is kind of a legal contract between a professor and a student (Matejka & Kurke, 1994), while Ludy et al. (2016) suggest that the document is much more than a simple compilation of the information and it is a pathway for a student to understanding the rationale behind the syllabus. Considering the above-said, educators distinguish three types of syllabi. The first one, the traditional syllabus is a short document focusing on a limited range of the most important course information from the instructors' perspective. It typically includes the instructor's name and contact information and a schedule of when different topics, events, and deadlines will occur throughout the term. On the other hand, the contractual syllabus is more comprehensive and detailed than the traditional syllabus. It contains not only extensive information about the course content and procedures, but it emphasizes the contractual relationship between the instructor and the students, stressing course requirements and policies. Finally, the learner-centered, also referred to as promising, syllabus concentrates on being a tool to influence students' attitudes, perspectives, and motivation for learning (Richmond, Boysen, & Gurung, 2014).

Now, the crucial question is about why it is so important to properly communicate syllabus to students. Notwithstanding the purpose of the syllabus, the first day the professor meets the class and starts to present the document, then and there, students form their impressions about the professor's competence and personality. Moreover, they draw conclusions about the tone of the course that unequivocally determines their attitude towards the subject. Therefore, before talking about the communication strategies, it is of utmost importance to discuss the Biggs and Tang (2007) Constructive Alignment theory that describes how the content of the course should be motivating, but also challenging for the students. It sets out the curriculum design that optimizes the conditions for quality learning. Constructive Alignment involves clearly linking goals with working practices and examinations in the course plans and with clear progression within and between programs within cycles.

The essential ideas underlying Constructive Alignment were proposed over sixty years ago by Ralf Tyler (1949), who believed that while developing the curricula it is pivotal to identify the kind of behavior to be developed and the context or areas of life in which this behavior is to operate. Ralf Tyler strongly believed that learning occurs through practice, and the engagement of the students is the key factor of acquiring information, rather than a teacher's talk, notwithstanding his/her competence. Inspired by Tyler's works, Biggs' theory of a Constructive Alignment suggests two aspects, the "constructive" aspect means that students are supposed to construct the meaning through relevant activities, thus, it is not simply transmitted from a teacher to a learner, but represents a construed outcome of the study process created by the students themselves. On the other hand, the "alignment" aspect is attributed to the teachers' efforts and how they manage to set the learning environment to achieve the desired learning outcomes. Therefore, methods or assessments employed by a teacher during the learning process needs to be aligned with class construing elements, activities, etc. Consequently, Biggs offers the four level conceptual framework for applying the Constructive Alignment that actually becomes the basis of the syllabus design. The first step in this process is defining the intended learning outcomes (ILOs), when a teacher has to reflect on how each topic proposed in the content build the knowledge students need to acquire. In this process, it is an absolute must to distinguish between a declarative knowledge and a functional knowledge. Declarative knowledge refers to a conceptual, propositional or descriptive knowledge that describes things, events, or processes, their attributes and their relations to each other. This type of knowledge is frequently considered as a secondary one and could be considered as a foundation of the learning process only. Contrary to that, functional knowledge is actually the ability to rationalize over the conceptual knowledge and apply it to solve different challenges or strategize for having the alternatives (Bialystok, 1981). The verbs used in the ILO formulation becomes the common link that establishes alignment between the ILO, the teaching/learning activities, and the assessment tasks. Considering the level of education, verbs, such as, "describe", "enumerate", "analyze", "strategize", etc. will be applied. This is of utmost importance as all the next stages of the conceptual framework actually depend on this.

Based on the ILOs, the second stage of the Constructive Alignment is selecting the activities that will lead to the desired ILOs and will set the learning environment. At this stage, it is essential for a teacher to come up with engaging variety of activities carefully to boost students' motivation and increase their engagement in the process. Yet, again, the verbs used in the ILOs will strongly determine the type and essence of the activities introduced by the teacher in the classroom. Finally, on the third stage of the theory's conceptual framework stands assessing students' learning outcome, which is also linked to the ILOs, and represents the reflection of the second stage. Curiously enough, teachers and students look at assessment differently, for the former it is the end of the process, whereas for the latter it is the beginning. However, it is crucial that assessment is aligned with the ILOs and activities and is construed around the same goal. Since assessment plays important part in students' lives, in preparing for the assessments students will need to understand the syllabus thoroughly.

Considering the modern approach to the learner-centered learning, and bearing in mind that communicating the content of the course to the students right at the beginning of the study process in an essential precondition of their success in the study process, learner-centered syllabus is the primary choice of the majority of the educators. They agree that a learner-centered syllabus is directly associated with better rapport between students and teachers and increased students' motivation, achievement, and empowerment (Richmond, A. 2016). Many argue that learner-centered syllabus actually increases students' trust towards teachers, heightens his/her credibility in the eyes of the learners, facilitates students' better acquisition of the study material, enables them to understand the characteristics of the study course (Richmond et al., 2014; Saville et al., 2010). In order to check the learner-centeredness of the syllabus, Cullen and Harris (2009) suggest a specific rubric to ensure that the document actually considers the students' interests. They argue that such a syllabus includes the key factors that establish community, such as accessibility of the teacher, to role of collaboration, a learning rationale. Moreover, the syllabus defines the balance of power and control between students and teaches, therefore, it is important for the document to determine the teacher's and the student's role, outside resources, and the syllabus focus. Finally, the document covers evaluation and assessment component that envisages grades, feedback mechanisms, evaluation, learning outcomes, and necessarily, revision. Cullen and Harris's rubric covers 15 of these elements and each is rated on the scale of 1 (more teacher-centered) to 4 (more learner-centered).

Now, the crucial question is about the proper communication of the syllabus, the process which determines the course of the whole learning process. Beyond the content of the document itself, how the syllabus is presented is critical. Though much has been written about the content and the design of the syllabus, the research is limited in terms of its communication. Obviously, it is worth mentioning that professors' actually face certain challenges when communicating the syllabus to the students. The first difficulty is maintaining the balance between showing the friendly intentions of the professors towards the students and simultaneously demonstrating their seriousness and task-orientation. Moreover, alongside setting the friendly atmosphere, professors have to establish the environment that illustrates their authority portrayed through various rules and procedures (Singham, 2005). On the other hand, when talking about the challenges, it is absolutely necessary to consider the multifaceted nature of the syllabus and diverse functions, which makes its communication even more complicated. The professor has to allocate the sufficient time to all its components to ensure the student-centeredness of the process. Last, but not the least, educators point out one more challenge in the communication process, the students' attitude towards the syllabus. No matter, how hard the professor might try, frequently, students are inattentive towards the presentation process, they skip the major parts of the document, and mistakenly ignore the syllabus content. That's why the communication strategies employed by the professor in this process is of utmost importance in order to encourage students' attention, comprehension, and retention (Blair, 2007).

Considering the above-said, educators single out several communication strategies to be applied by the professors in order to make the syllabus a viable communication tool, a bridge between the students and the knowledge to be acquired as a result of the course. The first strategy to be presented is the welcoming strategies. This is the first step that creates a favorable first impression of the teacher, as well as overcomes some of the more serious information included in the syllabus by making students feel more comfortable. In this process, the manner professor gets acquainted with the students is imperative, however, the manner how the teacher approaches to this task varies and depends on the creativity of the individual. Besides, it is absolutely essential to be positive and encouraging in this process and to reinforce student's confidence for the successful outcome. In some instances, teachers may offer students specific advice about how to succeed in the course via the syllabus document. Besides, at this point, educators suggest that professors should be able to clearly demonstrate the benefits of the course and explain to the students how they will personally benefit from taking it. By "selling" the course, teachers demonstrate their care about students' futures and what they would get out of the course in order to make the content of the course seem more relevant and the procedural elements less intimidating. Finally, under the first strategy, it is essential to point out the necessity of the inclusive language, which means employing specific words in order to sound engaging, at minimum, "we" instead of "I".

The second strategy that educators point out is the tension balancing strategy, which seems to be quite challenging as they have to maintain balance between welcoming manner and the seriousness of the course purpose. Some teachers suggest that it is important to soften the blow, which means fully unfolding the rules, but demonstrating the ways of overcoming the difficulties. At the same time, it is imperative that the teacher keeps the rules' part short, but precise. Moreover, non-verbal communication plays important role in this regards, as the professors' manner of the presentation actually sets the tone in the classroom.

Finally, the third emergent pattern revolves around presentational techniques developed to focus students' attention on important aspects of the syllabus. This strategy is aligned with the multifaceted nature of the syllabus. Since, the document covers many equally important components, professors' need to prioritize. Rather than reading out the details of the document, it is important to highlight the key aspects. In this process, using classroom technology is extremely beneficial in order to maintain students' attention. Teachers may use variety of technological tools including document cameras (Elmo), the school computer system (Blackboard, whiteboard), PowerPoint, Microsoft Word documents, etc. during the presentation (Habanec, 2005; Singham, 2005; Blair, 2007).

In conclusion, it is evident that syllabus is indeed a viable communication tool that ensures the students' achievement throughout the course. Though proper presentation and introduction of the syllabus is of utmost importance during the first day of the class, frequently the process gets ignored or restricted either by the students, or the professors. Educators need to acknowledge that the content, design, and the communication strategies of the syllabi should be considered in totality in order to ensure the coherence of the educational process and achieve the student-centeredness of the teaching/learning environment.

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USING L1 IN EFL CLASSES (THE GEORGIAN EXPERIENCE)

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Abstract

The study deals with one of the most interesting aspect in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) – using native language (L1) in EFL class and its Georgian experience. The study investigates Georgian EFL students' attitude towards using L1 in EFL classes. The study was carried out at European University, Georgia and English Language centre – Seven Steps to Success with the participation of 20 elementary, 30 intermediate and 25 upper intermediate students. However, the fact of using L1 in EFL classes was not fully supported by the students it is also worth mentioning that it is accaptable and sometimes even obligatory to use in special situations, depending on special aspects or occasions.

Keywords: L1 application in EFL classes, L2 application in EFL classes, code switching

Introduction

Using L 1 in EFL classes has been one of the debatable problem among the researchers. The opponents of using L1 have various arguments as they consider it being an obstacle in the process of aquaring target language - L2. However, the other part of the researchers try to prove the opposite.

According to some authors, L 2 should be aquired as the learners' native language, in the same manner as L1. As the baby learns how to speak in his/her native language without translating, the students also can learn target language without interferrance of L 1 while learning process (Gouin 1892, Turnbull & Arnel 2002, Ellis 2013). Using only L2 in classes is widely supported by the authors who consider L1 as an obstacle in teaching process. They support only- English policy in EFL classes (Bouangeune 2009; Skela 1998).

In contrast, some authors support using L1 in language teaching process with the argumets:

L1 provides scaffolding for the students to help each other;

Denying a learner's L1 is denying a part of the learner's consciousness that cannot simply be ignored (Cook 2008);

L1 remains a natural resource in L2 learning (Mart 2009:13);

Using L1 in an L2 context plays a crucial role for learners to organize,

It enhances and enriches their speech (Jamshidi and Navehebrahim, 2013:190);

Don't ban mother tangue use but encourage attempts to use the target language (Willis 1996: 27).

Besides the contrastive arguments some authors are not so sharp in their expressions and admit using L1 in EFL classes with the terms of judicious, occasional or limited use of L1 (Kafes 2011; McMillan and Rivers 2001).

General discussion

Language aquisition is closely connected to teaching methods and approaches. Nowadays the process of English language teaching is highly dinamic and progressive in the world. The English language is known as a lingua franca and its popularity grows increasingly fast.

English is the most widely tought and learned language in the world. In spite of the fact that the process is not new throughout the ELT history, all the teaching methods have been still improving, developing and being adjusted.

English Language Teaching or ELT has an interesting variation of abbreviations depended on the reasons of teaching learners – ELT, TEFL, ELE, TESOL etc…

Besides the variations of teaching English abbreviations there is also a great deal of methodologies. Each method contributes its own part in teaching process of the second or foreigh language. Previousely, the most popular method in ELT process used to be the Grammar-Translation Method in which the student's native language was the medium of instruction (Richards 2014:6). The method itself means the dominance of using L1 in teaching process. However by the time this method was replaced with direct method, which directly aims at using L 2 only.

The process of teaching English has not long but very interesting history in Georgia. Nowadays English is one of the most popular foreign language in the country. Today English learning and teaching intensive process is the result of close political and cultural relationship between the USA and Georgia. The history of teaching English in Georgia contains very interesting aspects of development. In the past it was very popular to use already mentioned grammar- translation method, which proved the necessity of learning already translated grammar rules or new vocabulary by heart. In this case, using L 1 in class was quiet normal, while today it is popular to use direct method in EFL classes - using only L2 in classes.

Using L1 in EFL classes is considered to be one of the most unsolved problem in teaching process. According to David Crystal, using L1 in EFL classes sometimes demand code switching in comunicative process. As Crystal defines - code switching is the process when a person uses one language (e.g L1) to express the beginning of the sentence then the other (e.g. L2) to continue it (Crystal 2003). Code switching can often occure in bilingual or multilingual classes and also in students' or teachers' speech. The phenomenon of code switching is tightly connected to the term - L 1.

It is core aspect to define some issues which are crusial when we speak about using L1 in EFL classes. Talking about the process of switchig codes or using L1 we should define: 1. Class level; 2. Language variety in class; 3. Who uses L1 when and why?

Class level – when the class level is A1 or A2 there is a high chance of using L1 in class. These are elementary levels and it is obviuos that the students do not know English even to communicate with each other or with their teacher.

From four skills (speaking, listening, writing, reading) L1 is commonly used in speaking activities. Speaking itself as one of the productive skills means using verbal resourses to communicate with the class meanwhile other three skills do not require it. Teachers use L1 in verbal communication to explaine new material, define new vocabulary, to give orders, directions, to ask questions or answer, or simply to communicate with the students. Students also use L1 in speaking skill to communicate with their groupmates, to have private talk, to put questions, to answer etc.

A1, A2 level classes are the very ones in which a student can not use the target language to communicate with others. This is the main problem in teaching or learning process in EFL classes. In such situations teachers use L 2 combined with L1 to explain: new material, vocabulary, especially some abstract nouns (abstract nouns e.g. flight, understand, meaning, feeling... appear to be very hard to explane in L2 because while explaning them the teacher can not use additinal explanatory words in A1 or A2 classes to make the meaning clear. In this case body language plays a major role. But contrarry to this, it is very easy to explaine concrete nouns e.g. table, chair, plane... by pointing to the subjects, showing the pictures, or flashcards, in order to indicate what is what etc.).

Teachers commonly use L1 in EFL classes to translate the new word, or to give an extra infrmation about the new material. As a rule the average use of translating method is rarer in higher level. In B1 and B2 classes it is not neccessary to use L1. Students can understand the explanation of new material by using the target language. In C1 level classes the communication is exclusively in target language - L2.

In order to be clearer there is represented the chart of above mentioned issue.

Level	Teacher	Student
A1, A2	1.To explane new material; 2. Give instructions; 3. Give an additional information; 4. To explane abstract nouns, verbs...	1. To ask a question or answer the questions; 2. To require an additional information from the teacher; 3. To have a private talk with the groupmate.
B1, B2	1. Give instructions if it is necessary. 2. Give an additional information; 3. To explane verbs, notions, special vocabulary;	1. To ask a question; 2. To require an additional, more specific information; 3. To have a private talk with the groupmate.
C 1	1. To explane specific terms if it is necessary.	1. To have private talk with the groupmate.

According to the chart given above, it is clear that L 1 is used more frequently in elementary level classes than in higher level classes by the both sides.

Language variety in class1 – The frequency of using L1 in EFL classes is commonly depended on language variety in class. A) When the class is monolingual (M) and the teacher is also a speaker of the same (S) language (L) or shortly it is MSL class, there is a high chance of using L1 by both sides (a teacher and a student). B) When the calss is monolingual but the

1 In this part of the study I use abbreviations which have been created for this study and are quite new in this field.

teacher is not the speaker of the same language (MnSL) communication is established only in English. C) When the class is multilingual and the teacher is an English (E) or user of another language - (ME) the communication between students and the teacher will be only in target language – English (L2).

As we see, it is possible to use L 1 only in MSL classes.

Who uses L1; when and why? – A good relationship between students and teachers depends on a good communication. They can talk to each other in L 1 (in MSL classes) or in L2 (in MnSL or ME classes), in class or outside of it. It is very interesting to define in wich situation do they feel themselves more comfortable: when they use L1 or L2 .

A) using L1 in class – as we have already mentioned above, L 1 is used in class by the teacher to make the material clearer and by the student to have a private talk to his/her fellow student.

B) using L 1 outside the class – the topic of the conversation between the teacher and the student can be about some private or even about the class issues but this is not the teaching process. In such kind of situations the student is more confident and more comfortable to talk to the teacher and express his/her attitudes towards the issues he/she is interested in. The teacher realises the situation and talks to the student in L 1 to make the student more comfortable. The teacher uses L 1 freely as well as this is not the teaching process.

Using L 1 helps comunicators feel free and comfortable.

Research Questions

The aims of the study are to find answers on these questions:

RQ.1. Do Georgian teachers use L 1 in EFL classes;

RQ.2. Do Georgian learners use L1 in EFL classes;

RQ.3. Do Georgian students prefer their teacher to use L 1 during the lesson when? and why?

Georgian experience

10 Georgian teachers from different Universities or institutions were given a questionnaire with the following questions:

1. Do you use L 1 in EFL classes? – Yes, No.

2. Why, if Yes - When?

10 Teachers	Do you use L 1 in EFL classes?	Why?	When?
		It depends on the level;	When my student does not understand the vocabulary or grammar rules. At elementary,

7	Yes	It helps me to explain material to make it clearer.	pre-intermediate or sometimes at intermediate and rarely at Upper-intermediate levels.
3	No	It is not necessary to use L1. Using only L2 helps the students to be more analytic, cognitive and investigative.	

7 out of 10 teachers answered 1. Yes. The answers on the second and the third questions are general as well as the teachers expressed the similar attitude towards the topic; 3 teachers out of 10 answered 1. No. 2. The reason was common – To help students to get used to understanding and learning new material using only target language.

RQ.1. Do Georgian teachers use L 1 in EFL classes? –Yes, but it depends on class level and the material.

The second questionnaire was designed for the students at the European University and the Language centre - Seven Steps to Success. The students had to answer the topic related close and open questions:

1. Do you use L 1 in EFL classes? – Yes (When and why?) or No (why?);

2. Do you prefer your theacher to use L 1 in teaching process? – Yes or No ; Why?;

75 Students	Do you use L 1 in EFL class? – Yes (When and why?) or No (why?)	Do you prefer your theacher to use L1 in teaching process?– Yes or No	Why?
20 Elementary	19 – Yes. When the material is hard to understand. To put questions.	19 – Yes.	It helps the students to understand the new material better.
	1 – No. Tries to use L 2 all the time.	1 – No.	L2 is better in any case.
30 Intermediate	26 – Yes. When the material is hard to understand. To put questions.	23 – Yes.	It helps the students to understand the new material better.
	4 - No. Tries to use L 2 all the time.	7 – No.	L2 is better in any case.

25 Upper-intermediate	2 – Yes. When the material is hard to understand. To put questions.	2- Yes.	Sometimes it is easy way to remember the meaning of new vocabulary.
	23 – No. It is better (mostly necessary) to use only L2.	23 – No.	Upper-intermediate level students are already ready to understand everything in target language.

The topic of using L1 or L2 appeared to be very interesting for the students. After filling the questionnaire the results showed the next: most of the students from elementary and intermediate levels answered "yes" which means that they are supporters of using L 1 in EFL classes. However upper intermediate students showed quite different result - almost everyone, except 2 students, was against of using L 1.

RQ.2. Do Georgian learners use L1 in EFL classes? – Yes, depended on class level and the specific moments in learning process.

RQ.3. Do Georgian students prefer their teacher to use L 1 during the lesson when? and why? – Yes, but at lower level.

Conclusion

Based on the study, it could be concluded that using L 1 in EFL classes can be freely supported. The advantages of using L 1 is widely recognised by many authors and it is not the very issue to be avoided. However it should be underlined that using L1 can not be ignored or overused during the teaching process. According to the study it becomes clear that the frequency of using mother tangue strongly depends on 1. Class level; 2. Language variety in class; 3. The fact of who uses L1 when and why?

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PEER FEEDBACK OR PEER GRADING? REEXAMINING THE HIGHER EDUCATION EFL LEARNERS' PREFERENCE FOR ASSESSMENT IN AN EFL WRITING CLASSES (CASE OF THE UNIVERSITIES IN GEORGIA)

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Abstract

In rapidly developing communicative era the primary objective of Higher Education is to create the sociocultural context for students, within which the latter will construct the knowledge through cooperation with each other. Ability to write well and effectively communicate ideas to the reader in foreign language is of vital importance for being competitive on the job market and in academic setting. Therefore, there has been growing interest to develop writing skills among EFL learners. Peer assessment is echoed to be one of the most innovative and productive assessment practices in the recent years. It is believed to be able to increase the learners' autonomy and develop their metacognitive abilities through involving them in the assessment process. Both peer feedback and peer grading are reported to be effective peer assessment practices for developing EFL learners' writing abilities, though there is the lack of the literature on EFL learners' attitudes towards peer feedback without grading or peer grading of writing in Higher Education in Georgia. The primary objective of the present paper is to shed the light on the learners' preference for peer feedback without grading or peer grading. The present paper will analyze the literature in the field and will contribute to raising the educators' and writing tutors' awareness of the students' perceptions about peer feedback without grading and peer grading. Therefore, the current paper will contribute to effective incorporation of peer assessment practices at EFL writing classes.

Keywords: writing, peer assessment, peer feedback without grading, peer grading, Higher Education

Introduction

Writing is not only the way of communicating ideas effectively and expressing the individuals' inner world, but it is also one of the strongest ways to enhance learning and language acquisition developing the learners' critical thinking. The ability to write and communicate ideas effectively is echoed to be one of the most demanding skills on the job market as well. As indicated in the National Commission on Writing (2004) writing is posited to be a threshold skill for employment as well as for promotion. Therefore, it can be assumed that writing is critical to the students' academic as well as the professional success. Despite the importance of writing and its central role in society, it is echoed to be one of the most complex cognitive abilities to acquire. Owing to that, the educational experts, teachers and writing tutors have been in search for the effective ways of teaching and learning as well as for assessing writing.

Peer assessment

It has been suggested that the learners' involvement in assessment process has been increasing most recently and it has become a world-wide phenomenon (Falchikkov & Goldfinch, 2000, p.287). It is suggested that peer assessment is grounded on the philosophy of active learning. The concept of peer assessment dates back to Vygotsky and to the concept of scaffolding and constructivism based on the works of Vygotsky and Dewey, since it implies creating sociocultural context for learning within which the students communicate the ideas, make judgments and construct the knowledge through cooperation with each other. (Vygotsky & Cole, 1978; Weisberg, 2006; Piaget, 1971; Vygotsky, 1986; Shabani, 2016; Sardureh & Saad, 2012; Dewey, 1997). Peer assessment is echoed to promote lifelong and autonomous learning. It is also suggested that it initiates the skills of self-evaluation and reflection and at the same time leads to understanding the tutor's requirements (Wheater & Langan, 2005). EFL writing classes, where peer assessment is promoted are more interactive, reflective and leading to improvement of composition skills since it gives learners opportunity to see the standard set, mistakes made by their peers and raise awareness about their own writing as well as generally about composition. Furthermore, integration of peer assessment in EFL writing classes gives tutors opportunity to rapidly assess large body of the students' compositions and provide more detailed feedback or grading. Due to the fact that the primary objective of Higher Education is to promote the students' autonomy and equip them with all the necessary skills to become lifelong learners, it is also stated that peer assessment has been often utilized as an alternative assessment method in Higher Education (Wen & Tsai, 2006). The current study discusses peer feedback and peer grading as two forms of peer assessment.

Peer grading

It is suggested that the learners perform better on exams and in the writing activities when they have a chance to practice not only writing itself, but also assessing it (Freeman & Parks, 2010, p. 482). Peer grading is suggested to be one of the most valuable and time-saving practices for EFL writing classes. The term itself refers to the judgements of ratings that are made by peers about each other's achievement in relation to teacher-designed categories, criteria and rubrics (Sadler & Good, 2006). Various studies support integrating peer grading in EFL writing classes considering it to be valid and reliable due to the fact that within peer-grading teachers provide the students with clearly designed assessment rubrics (Falchikov & Goldfinch, 2000; Jonsson & Svingby, 2007). The descriptive scales of assessment rubrics contribute to raising the learners' awareness and understanding of what is required from them, what are the criteria and how can they meet the latter effectively. It also enhances learning and helps students become more reflective not only about their peers' but also on their writing as well.

Benefits of peer grading

There are various benefits that peer grading brings to EFL writing classes. Firstly, it is echoed to be very time-saving, since the students can grade each other simultaneously. Besides, it gives students opportunity to understand their own writing deeply. It brings metacognitive pros, since the learners go beyond their own work as well (Darking-Hammond, Jacquetine,

& Falk, 1995). It is also believed that by the application of peer grading activities in EFL writing classes teachers can make the whole class more productive and engaged in the writing activities promoting cooperative learning.

Limitations of peer grading

Despite the advantages of peer grading, the oppoents claim that evaluative peer feedback is more effective rather than grading (Liu & Carless, 2006; Tsai, 2017; Gurbanov, 2016). Regardless the positive aspects of peer grading, there are some pitfalls the educators and writig tutors can face. It is stated that if the students' grades given to each other are not comparable to the teacher's grades, it is the teacher's obligation to correct the students' writings that is even more time-consuming. To discuss the reliability and validity of the students' grades, the latter should be indistinguishable from the grades assigned by the teacher (Sadler & Good, 2006). It is also suggested that peer grading has positive impact on developing EFL learners' writing skills when the learners have incentives to grade truthfully. Otherwise, if the learners assign the maximum grades to all writings of their peers, the grading process is not truthful and the students do not produce reasonably accurate evaluation and consequently peer grading process will lose the value (Alfaro, Shavlovsky, & Polychronopoulos, 2015). Based on the aforementioned challenges, the teachers as well as peers need careful preparation and training to ensure the effective peer grading process that will be free from bias. When discussing peer grading and its utilization in EFL writing classes, the learners' attitudes should also be taken into account. One of the researches investigating the negative perceptions about peer assessment was conducted in 2010. The study was also concerned with the factors that influence the resistance to participate in peer grading activities. The participants of the study were 250 students from writing classes from ten courses across six universities. The study revealed that students had more positive attitude towards teacher grading than towards only peer grading. According to the data, some students regarded it as an unfair experience, often believing that peers were not qualified enough to assess their compositions. The research also revealed that the most influential factor in the learners' negative attitude was inexperience in participating in peer grading and generally, in peer assessment activities (Kaufman & Schunn, 2008). As all the teaching approaches or assessment strategies and methods have advantages as well as challenges, both should be deeply analyzed to prevent possible bias. Based on the advantages and limitations of peer grading it can be concluded that the learners' experience and pre-training is of vital importance to ensure the quality and validity and reliability of their grades. Teachers' monitoring in this process would be effective way to prevent possible bias.

Peer feedback

Since the present study treats peer grading and peer feedback as two different forms of peer assessment, another alternative for engaging learners in writing activities if promoting the utilization of peer feedback. The latter can be referred as the process of giving comments on the work or performance of peers, which involves being engaged in writing activities reflectively (Falchikov & Blythman, 2001). Same as peer grading and generally peer assessment, it is also based on the constructivist and social constructivist theory of education and is referred to as a key component in language acquisition, and especially in attempts of enhancing writing skills (Hounsell, 2007). Peer feedback involves giving qualitative comments to peers about how they are succeeding in achieving the educational goals that encourages reflexive approach to learning. Through peer feedback the learners are involved in judging their peers' performance (Ion, Barrera, & Folch, 2016, p.2). Peer feedback is also considered to help learners overcome challenges they may encounter by acquiring foreign language writing, as they receive feedback and assistance from their peers (Hanjan & Li, 2014). Peer feedback is believed to have the pivotal role in enhancing EFL learners' writing and facilitating them in their learning process contributing to creating the environment within which students become active, autonomous and lifelong learners (Nguyen, 2016). Ion, Barrera-Corominas, & Tomàs-Folch (2016) conducted the exploratory research between September 2014 and June 2015 among 160 students from the Autonomous University of Barcelona (AUB). The primary objective of the study was to investigate EFL learners' perceptions about peer assessment and peer feedback in particular and its effect on developing students' writing. The participants were giving written feedback on the compositions withing the study period. The data was obtained from the compositions and the questionnaires. The study revealed that the research participants had very positive perception about peer feedback and reported that itmotivated them to write better. The utilization of peer feedback was a very positive experience for the participants of the study. Another study aimed to better understand the learners' perceptions regarding peer feedback and idenfity the concerns raised by students involved in peer feedback activities. The participants of the research were the final year students from English language learning module at Taylot's University, Malaysia. The primary source of obtaining data was pre- and post-experimental questionnaires administered to all participants of the study. The study revealed that the participants had positive perception of peer feedback in general and they viewed it as an enhancing strategy for their writing skills. They also posited that they would participate in peer feedback activities in future as well (Sukumaran & Dass, 2014).

Limitations of peer feedback

Various studies have been carried out aiming at investigating the learners' attitudes towards peer feedback and the findings have often been controversial. Though, there are some limitations while integrating peer feedback in EFL composition classes. If the feedback is provided by the peer with limited proficiency in foreign language, his/her feedback may be considered as unreliable and it may lead the students to lose belies and trust in their peers' feedback (Rollinson, 2005; Saito & Fujita, 2004; Ruecker, 2010). Besides, the aforementioned study conducted by Ion, Barrera-Corominas, & Tomàs-Folch (2016) revealed that sometimes the delivery of feedback may be slow due to the amount of work. Teachers have responsibility and duties to monitor the changes in the reviewed writings. Another study revealed that the learners prefered to receive teacher feedback since they were more sure their mistakes would be corrected properly and fully (Srichanyachon, 2012). According to the aforementioned information provided in the current study it can be assumed that the learners' attitudes and perceptions about peer feedback plays the pivotal role in their engagement in peer assessment activities. Although, it should also be noted that the teachers' role and clear instructions together with the carefully designed and created rubrics are of vital importance.

The challenges of reliability and validity in peer assessment

In 2013 Azarnoosh (2013) conducted the study concerning teacher and peer assessment and the possible bias encountered while utilization of peer assessment in EFL writing classes. The participants were 38 Iranian University students from the faculty of English literature. The study was conducted in fall semester 2013. The study did not reveal the significant difference between ratings from friend and non-friend in peer assessment. Althogh, some studies carried out earlier identified friendhsip bias and echoed that the latter can be the concern for teachers and educators while conducting peer assessment activities (Falchikov, 1995; Morahan-Martin, 1996).

Method

The primary objective of the current study is to shed the light on the university EFL students' preference for peer feedback without grading and peer grading. It also aimed at obtaining information about their attitudes towards peer assessment and writing in general in order to raise the educators' and writing tutors' awareness of the learners' perceptions and contribute to promoting the utilization of peer assessment in EFL writing classes.

In order to pursue the aforementioned objectives and obtain the valuable data the present research paper employed the quantitative research method that was executed in questionnaires administered for the university EFL learners. The questionnaire was multi-designed and contained Likert-scale and multiple-choice questions that were distributed to the research participants.

Participants of the study

The participants of the current study were 55 EFL learners from Ilia State University, Tbilisi, Georgia. Most of them were 19-20-year-old Bachelors from the faculty of English Philology, Law and Business Administration, Sociology and Psychology.

Results and discussion

Table 1 below illustrates the learners' attitudes towards writing and their experience of practicing composition. As seen from Table 1, the majority of students (69%) enjoy English writing activities, while only 1.8% disagree and 2.4% strongly disagree with this statement. The vast majority of learners (63.6%) strongly agree that writing is very important skill. 30.9% of participants agree and only 3.6% neither agree nor disagree with the statement. According to Table 1, 36.3% of students practice writing at the university, while 25.4% agree and the same percentage of learners neither agree nor disagree with the given statement. 9.3% of participants strongly disagree that they practice writing at the university. It can be seen that 18.1% strongly agree and 20% agree that they write outside the university to communicate. 15% of participants disagree and 17.9% strongly disagree that they use writing as the means of communication outside the university context. As seen from Table 1, 36% of students state they are allowed to choose the topics for writing in their EFL class, while 27% of participants disagree with this statement. For majority of students (40%) assessment of their writing is important for them. 31% agree with it, while 20% of learners neither agree nor disagree. Only 3.6% disagree and 5.4% strongly disagree with the given statement.

Table 1: Writing

Questions	1 Strongly agree	2 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Disagree	5 Strongly disagree
I enjoy English writing tasks	69%	25%	1.8%	1.8%	2.4%
I think writing is very important skill	63.6%	30.9%	3.6%	1.6%	0
I often practice writing at the university.	36.3%	25.4%	25.4%	3.6%	9.3%
I write outside the university to communicate with partners, friends, etc.	18.1%	20%	29%	15%	17.9%
I am allowed to choose the topics for writing at my EFL class	22%	36%	9%	27%	6%
Assessment of my writing is important for me	40%	31%	20%	3.6%	5.4%

Table 2 depicts the research participants' attitudes towards peer assessment in general. According to Table 2, 54.5% state that their writing is assessed by the teacher. 14.5% state that they get oral feedback on their writing, while 14.8% receive grading without feedback and 16.2% of them state their writing is graded with feedback. Their majority (41.8%) state their writing is assessed by the teacher, while 18.1% posit that the peers correct their writing. 40.1% state that both (teachers and peers) assess their writing. On the question regarding grading the learners' majority (63.7%) state that they prefer combination of both – teacher and peer grading, while 21.8% prefers only teacher grading and 14.5% opts for peer grading. As for the peer feedback, Table 2 illustrates that 20% of research participants prefer teacher feedback, 12.7% opt for peer feedback and their vast majority (67.3%) prefers the combination of both. Table 2 shows the learners' attitudes regarding both forms of peer assessment, namely peer feedback without grading and peer grading, showing that 29% of research participants prefer peer feedback without grading over peer grading. As seen from Table 2, only 12.7% of participants opt for peer grading. Though, more than the half of research participants (58.3%) prefers participating in both.

Table 2: Peer assessment in general and students' attitudes

Question:	A written feedback	B oral feedback	C grading without feedback	D grading with feedback
Teacher assesses my writing via	54.5%	14.5%	14.8%	16.2%

Question:	A teacher	B my peer	C both	X
My writing is assessed by:	41.8%	18.1%	40.1%	
Question:	A teacher grading	B peer grading	C combination of both	X
I prefer	21.8%	14.5%	63.7%	
Question:				
I prefer	A teacher feedback	B peer feedback	C combination of both	X
	20%	12.7%	67.3%	
Question:				
I prefer	A peer feedback without grading	B peer grading	C combination of both	X
	29%	12.7%	58.3%	

Table 3 below illustrates the research participants' attitudes towards peer grading. As shown in Table 3, 9% of students strongly agree and 12.7% agree that they feel uncomfortable when they are graded by their peers, while 36.3% disagree and 27.5% of participants strongly disagree with the given statement. It can be seen that 34.5% of the research participants disagree that they feel uncomfortable when they have to grade their peers. 27.4% strongly disagree with this statement, while only 5.5% strongly agree and 12.7% agree that they feel uncomfortable when they have to grade their peers. The majority of participants (38.1%) agree and 20% strongly agree that the grades from their peers should not be included in their final marks. Only 18.1% disagree and 11.1% strongly disagree with the given statement, while 12.7% of participants neither agree nor disagree with it. Table 3 shows that 43.6% disagree that their peers are not qualified to grade their writing. 16.3% agree with this statement stating that their peers are not qualified to grade their writing. Though, 25.4% of the research participants neither agree nor disagree with it. According to Table 3, 14.5% of students strongly agree and 18.1% agree that they grade their peers according to the marks they receive from them. 14.5% neither agree nor disagree with the given statement. 34.8% disagree and 18.1% strongly disagree with it. The majority (42%) strongly disagree that they grade their peers according to the relationship they have developed with them. 14.5% of students strongly agree and 16.3% of research participants agree that they grade their peers according their relationship with them. 10.9% neither agree nor disagree with the given statement.

Table 3: Peer grading

Questions	1 Strongly agree	2 Agree	3	4 Disagree	5 Strongly disagree

			Neither agree nor disagree		
I feel uncomfortable when I am graded by my peer	9%	12.7%	14.5%	36.3%	27.5%
I feel uncomfortable when I have to grade my peers	5.5%	14.5%	18.1%	34.5	27.4%
I think grades from my peers should not be included in my final marks	20%	38.1%	12.7%	18.1%	11.1%
My peers are not qualified to grade my writing	7.2%	16.3%	25.4%	43.6%	7.5%
I grade my peers according to the marks they give me	14.5%	18.1%	14.5%	34.8%	18.1%
I grade my peers according to the relationship I have developed with them	14.5%	16.3%	10.9%	16.3%	42%

Table 4 sheds the light on the research participants' attitudes towards peer feedback. As seen from Table 4, the learners' majority (41.8%) agree that they feel comfortable when they receive feedback from their peers. 36.3% strongly agree with this statement. Only 4.6% disagree and the same percentage of learners strongly disagree with the given statement. The vast majority of learners (70.7%) strongly disagree that they feel uncomfortable when they receive negative feedback from their peers. 12.7% strongly agree and 23.6% agree that they give feedback on their peers' writing according to the feedback they receive from the latter. 21.8% neither agree nor disagree with the statement, while 14.5% of the research participants disagree and 27.4% of participants strongly disagree with the given statement.

Table 4: Peer feedback

Questions	1 Strongly agree	2 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Disagree	5 Strongly disagree
I feel comfortable when I receive feedback from my peers	36.3%	41.8%	12.7%	4.6%	4.6%
I feel uncomfortable when I receive negative feedback from my peers	9%	20%	16.3%	25.4%	70.7%

I think my peers are not qualified enough to give me feedback	10.9%	16.3%	30.9%	25.4%	16.5%
I give feedback on my peers' writing according to the relationship I have developed with them	12.7%	23.6%	21.8%	14.5%	27.4%

Table 5 depicts the research participants' preference for peer assessment forms, namely peer feedback without grading or peer grading. The table presents different statements regarding peer assessment. The latter illustrates the learners' preference for peer feedback without grading over peer grading. In all the presented statements in Table 5 the research participants opt for peer feedback. 54.6% of the research participants think it gives them opportunity to compare their work to others. 58.5% of students think it motivates them to learn to write better. 60% of students choose peer feedback and state it develops their self-confidence. 51% think that peer feedback develops their self-reviewing skills, while 49% of the research participants think it is peer grading that develops their self-reviewing skills. 60% of students believe that peer feedback develops their critical evaluation skills and 40% think it is peer grading that does so. 56% of the research participants think peer feedback develops their autonomy, while 44% think peer grading develops it among them. 56% of students state that peer feedback develops their sense of participation. 61.9% think it motivates them to write better. 38.1% of students think peer grading is the form of peer assessment that develops their motivation. More than half of the research participants (56.3%) state that peer feedback helps them develop their writing skills, while 43.7% think the same about peer grading.

Table 5: Students' preference regarding peer feedback and peer grading

Questions	Peer feedback	Peer grading
gives me an opportunity to compare my work to others	54.6%	45.4%
motivates me to learn to write better	58.5%	41.5%
develops my self-confidence	60%	40%
develops self-reviewing skills	51%	49%
develops critical evaluation skills	60%	40%
develops my autonomy	56%	44%
develops sense of participation	54.6%	45.4%
motivates to write better	61.9%	38.1%
helps me develop my writing skills	56.3%	43.7%

Summary and concluding remarks

The data obtained from the questionnaire reveals that the research participants enjoy EFL writing activities. They believe writing is important for them. Though, not many of them use it as the mean of communication outside the university. Assessment of their writing is important for the learners. The questionnaire results depicted that the learning environment is rather teacher-driven, since only teacher assesses the learners' composition. Only few research participants have the experience of participating in peer assessment activities. The results also show that the research participants prefer the combination of peer feedback without grading and teacher feedback or the combination of peer grading and teacher grading. Though, it also showed that the learners prefer engagement in peer feedback without grading more that taking part in peer grading activities. According to the data, it can also be assumed that the learners have readiness for participating in peer grading activities, since they do not feel uncomfortable receiving or giving grades to their peers, tough their strongly believes that the marks given by their peers should not be included in their final marks.

The questionnaire was designed to obtain the information about the possible friendship bias as well, while the learners' majority stated that they do not grade their peers according to the relationship they have developed with the latter or according to what grades do they receive from their peers. Though, still significant number of learners gave the middle-response ("neither agree, nor disagree") for different reasons. It can be assumed that the middle response is interpreted in various ways and it needs deeper investigation to state the specific reasons for choosing middle response. Though, according to some literature, it is interpreted as mean for covering the lack of actual opinion. It can also be interpreted as the way of hiding the ignorance or the lack of knowledge in the given field (Baka & Figgou, 2012; Blasius & Thiessen, 2001). The data obtained from the questionnaire revealed that the research participants had very positive attitude towards peer feedback as well. They stated that they did not feel uncomfortable while receiving or giving feedbck and they did not give feedback on their peers' writing according to the relationship they had dveloped with them.

As seen from the tables above and the discussions of the results, it can be echoed that both peer feedback without grading and peer grading seem to be quite positive experience for the learners, but the current research revealed which form of peer assessment was more appealing for the research participants. According to the data, it can be posited that the learners believe in engaging in peer feedback activities will raise their awareness towards writing. The questionnaire results showed that the majority of learners chose peer feedback without grading and stated that the latter helps them develop self-reviewing, critical reviewing skills and boosts their motivation as well as their self-confidence. They also believe that peer feedback without grading develops their writing skills more that peer grading. The data of the current study shed the light on the research participants' attitudes towards writing, peer assessment in general and showed that the learners have generally positive attitudes towards peer assessment, though the most preferable form of it is peer feedback without grading.

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MULTICULTURAL AWARENESS OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

The current paper deals with pronominal aspects of culturally responsive teaching and educators' awareness of multiculturalism and multicultural curriculum development. The purpose of this paper is to discuss topical and pedagogical perspectives on ethnic diversity, cultural sustainability, national unity education and multicultural education respectively in an EFL classroom. The various ways of dealing with the issue and further recommendations of the question in point are discussed and analyzed in the article. Based on the scholarly literature multicultural education is the purposeful development process of citizens for a more democratic society through provision of more accurate and comprehensive disciplinary knowledge and through enhancement of learners' academic achievement. The discussion of the literature provides with the information concerning cultural identities in educational settings, necessity of multicultural awareness, its role and its approaches in teaching, as well as parental and educators' attitudes and involvement in educational environment. Concretization of the paper is to highlight the importance of multicultural curriculum, which leads to prepare individuals and groups to live peacefully in a multicultural society. Further recommendations for multicultural curriculum development are summarized in the article.

Key words: multiculturalism, multicultural curriculum, cultural sustainability, culturally responsive teaching

Introduction

Every nation in the world seeks to minimize ethnic rivalry, antagonism and conflict between various groups within its borders. Each country tries to maintain an adherence to the notion that all citizens share common humanity needs, hopes and fears irrespective to ethnicity, race, language or religious beliefs. Culture is behavior and belief system of a long-standing social group. There are many definitions of culture. Most of them include the knowledge, rules, traditions, beliefs, and values that guide behavior of a particular group of people. The group creates culture and communicates it to group members. These groups can be based on ethnicity, region, race, gender, social class, age or other factors. One of the important theories in the context of education is theory of cultural pluralism. Multicultural education deals with content of teaching, equity pedagogy (equal treatment of all students), an empowering university culture, prejudice reduction and knowledge construction processes.

A brief overview of cultural identities in education

Culture is what makes the success of the human species. People create culture and culture in its turn develops people. Culture demonstrates behavior that is common among people from generation to generation and country to country which is also exchangeable. In educational settings, culture is believed to have a powerful influence on learners' studying process. One might claim that culture comprises of the values, symbols, interpretations and perspectives that distinguish one person from another in rationalized communities (Hinton, 2011). Moreover, it is not related to material objects and other tangible aspects of human societies. In a multicultural society, cultural pluralism recognizes the right of minorities to maintain their own language in the context of family and community groups, the right to practice religion, the right to organize relations within the family and community and the right to retain their local, collective and social practices without threatening national and political unity. There is a six-stage cultural competence continuum in which clinicians and organizations can determine their place within the cultural competence developmental process identified by multicultural training experts. Here are the followings: cultural destructiveness, which accepts that one culture is dominant making an effort in destruction of other cultures; cultural incapacity implies that there is some unfair bias, e.g. lower expectations of some racial/ethnic/cultural groups, ignorance and unrealistic fears of/paternal attitude in respect to minority groups; cultural blindness, which views traditional treatment tactics as universally valid and appropriate; cultural pre-competence aims to recognize weak points and challenges to advance service delivery; cultural competence has commitment to policy change, continuous self-assessment, and provision of a variety of service model adaptation; cultural proficiency assumes to promote continuously for cultural competence throughout systems or agencies (Doby-Copeland, 2006).

Cultural sustainability in this context is defined as the process by which different cultural, social, ethnic and other groups attempt to transmit, maintain and protect their cultures from others that they perceive as implicitly or explicitly hostile or distrustful.

Multiculturalism and multicultural education

What is multiculturalism? The definition of multicultural education is very broad and diverse that had different meanings at different times. Its definition has changed over time and varies from field to field and from country to country, and can depend on one's political leaning. Multiculturalism is a potentially effective process that would contribute to one country's development and globalization. It could also provide a framework for addressing social, economic, political and educational inequalities. Multiculturalism is a concept that needs the attention of all groups in a multiracial and multiethnic society in any country. Multiculturalism is about challenging everyone academically, ending segregated programs, valuing differences and recognizing all cultures as significant in the mainstream curriculum. Therefore, multiculturalism has its own distinct characteristics, tolerance of minority cultures and languages on the condition that they do not damage national stability and national unity. A multicultural person is one whose identity is psychologically and socially inclusive of many different life patterns and can deal with multiple realities. Essentially, multiculturalism aims to change the behavior. Additionally, it ties multiculturalism to pluralism as a positive attribute wherein people appreciate the differences of others (Schultz, 2011).

Multicultural education is about processes used to make students from all groups of the population feel that they are welcome in the educational environment. Multicultural education is a potentially effective process that could provide a framework for addressing social, economic, political and educational inequalities within the country. Multicultural education is the purposeful development process of citizens for a more democratic society through provision of more accurate and comprehensive disciplinary knowledge and through enhancement of learners' academic achievement. It can be stated that multicultural education is about social change through education. It is another aspect of the continuous human journey toward justice and pushes us toward the fulfillment of the promises of democracy. A main principle of these emerging ideas about multicultural education is that educational impartiality and success for all students can only be flourished by the combination of cultural pluralism in education. However, this will require more examination of the relationship between curricular innovations and components of multicultural education. All of these definitions provide just a hint of the rich framework that underpins multicultural education. Indeed, the definitions of multicultural education often vary according to the time and context. Banks (2014) describes it as the incorporation of the notion that all students despite the diversity of genders, ethnicities, cultural characteristics, or other life patterns they may possess—have an equal opportunity to learn at school, college, or university (Celincka & Swazo, 2015).

Multicultural curriculum

Despite various definitions, multicultural education is nearly always implemented by incorporating it into the traditional curriculum of the educational settings. Multicultural education is an approach that is adopted in response to cultural diversity in a society and its educational system. The concept of multicultural education also showed that, attention to multicultural education curriculum, at global and national situation is an inevitable necessity. First, multicultural education embraces the idea that all students, regardless of gender, social class and ethnic characteristics, ethnic, cultural, education system should have an equal opportunity to learn. Second, a multicultural education reform movement that is trying to change the educational institutions in a way that all learners of all ages, social class, gender, race, language and culture will have an equal opportunity to learn. Multicultural education is not limited to changes in the curriculum, but also involves changes in the school and educational environment. Finally, multicultural education is a process that never ends as it will not be fully realized (James & Pillay, 2015).

Nowadays educational institutions are obliged to include teaching about national unity in the curriculum which presents challenges related to curriculum reform, including pedagogical content, teacher education and teacher professional development. From an educational perspective, it could help teachers to positively nurture the learning experiences of minority students and facilitate the provision of minority higher education institutions to use a framework that will develop their global cultural interaction. Curriculum and teaching are indivisible aspects of learning. Teachers must know what they intend to teach and how to implement their lesson plans. P. L. Tiedt and I. M. Tiedt (2005) indicated that multicultural education is more than data, add-ons to the regular content areas or set of skills. The definition of multicultural curriculum could range from linking content to state standards and high stakes testing to more basic approaches including commercial programs, teaching units and classroom materials. In addition, the multicultural curriculum should include developing changes in attitudes, reworking lessons to allow for diverse points of view and balancing large differences among students in background and interests. Tiedt and Tiedt (2005) presented the model EEE (esteem/empathy/equity) ass as the foundation for multicultural education since they believed that the three elements are crucial for achieving multicultural goals. They advised that each of these objectives should be considered while dealing with each instructional area (Booker & Campbell-Whatley, 2009).

As higher education institutions seek to prepare students to live and work in a global society, many realize that faculty must be equipped to address this challenge. Culturally responsive teaching and learning with its emphasis on greater teacher awareness of the cultural dynamics in the content, interactions, and pedagogy enhances teachers' ability to design culturally enriched and sensitive teaching/learning experiences. It provides faculty with resources and information that encourage the infusion of an interdisciplinary curriculum addressing such issues as race, class, gender, and ethnicity, and it plays a key role in the implementation of any university's diversity plan to achieve multicultural curriculum transformation. Having a multicultural curriculum transformation institute can assist all stakeholders, faculty, students and the university as a whole with preparing a workforce for living and working in a global society. No longer can institutions use rhetoric in their mission regarding diversity; they must begin to strategically address the issues to enhance the ability of faculty to utilize multicultural course transformation to prepare multiculturally eligible students who will more than any other generation live and work in the global society.

Parent involvement and educator's attitude in multicultural education

Students will be motivated better when their parents become involved in their education. Minority parents are more likely to be intimidated by a teacher or other school officials than those from dominant societal groups. This situation could be worse when these parents are from low socio-economic status of migrant groups. It is very important to involve parents in the education of their children regardless of their racial, ethnic, or socio-economic status. It is important to make parents feel welcome and valued. Moreover, it is necessary to educate parents about their children's progress (conferencing) and involve parents in their children's education (communicate homework assignments, expectations, opportunities for volunteering, etc). Research shows that there are strongly positive relationships among parental involvement, school achievement, attendance rates, parent-child communication, improved student attitudes and behavior and parent-community support for schools. It may develop more democratic attitudes and values. An education has to view events and situations from diversely ethnic perspectives and points of view and work on understanding the complex and multidimensional nature of ethnicity in any society. It may lead to studying the stages of ethnicity and their curricula implications and increase the awareness of how to function at increasingly higher stages of ethnicity. Educators must be ready to change their attitudes to life, teaching and their students and student's parents in order to be able to teach in a multicultural way. Learners are sometimes affected by discrimination when teachers ignore the nuances of the hidden curriculum. This involves paying attention to issues, such as body-language, tone of voice, facial expressions and unconscious actions that contradict positive conversations (Alismail, 2016).

Many teachers have uncritically internalized the dominant prejudices of their society or culture. Sociologists and anthropologists refer to this as a state of being "culture bound." Culture boundless includes a tendency to consider ones' culture, ethnicity, or religion as superior to all others, failing to study and internalizing the insights of other cultures (improving, thereby, the breadth and depth of one's thinking and failing to see socio-centric thinking as a significant impediment to intellectual development.

The culturally assaultive and compatible alassroom

Teachers are able to develop a multicultural teaching approach by knowingly deciding not to run a culturally assaultive classroom in which minority or culturally different learners may feel second-rate. A culturally assaultive classroom inspires majority learners to feel ethnocentrically superior. The mentioned approaches result in fear and discomfort when dealing with people from different cultural backgrounds.

The goal of creating culturally compatible classrooms is to eliminate racism, sexism, and ethnic prejudice while providing equal educational opportunities for all learners (Sidman-Taveau & Karathanos-Aguilar, 2015). There are three dimensions of classrooms that can be tailored to fit the needs of students: social organization, learning style, and sociolinguistics. In order to make social organization in the classroom effective there should be culturally appropriate methods of teaching for all students. As a teacher it is necessary to be sensitive to individual differences of all students and to make available paths to multicultural learning process.

Recommendations for multicultural curriculum development

Specific cultural differences should be taught about as a rich universal cultural tapes try that pertains to all, and not as a proof of difference and rejection. Teaching about various cultures at an early age helps students amend the misconceptions that they may have already formed about other cultures. This can also be broadened to include different aspects of culture and subculture such as race, ethnicity, gender, social economic status, and physical and mental disability, including obesity and other physical characteristics that distinguish students. Students will become more accepting of these differences and develop greater understanding of the elements of self-awareness. Third, students should learn about bullying behaviors in the educational institutions. With this in mind, educators should provide anti-bullying workshops in which students learn the effect of bullying as well as the role of bystanders. Students should be aware of how they may contribute to building a bullying-free environment at school where all students will feel safe. It is important to focus upon providing social and emotional teaching for all students in school. Social and emotional education is likely to reduce the possibility of bullying and focus upon changing the relevant desires of those who have been identified as displaying bullying behaviors (Hains, Tubbs, & Vincent, 2013). Quality social education seeks to create and sustain a social environment in which students desire the good of their peers and enjoy positive relationships with them. Emotional teaching entails intervention in the events of real bullying to bring about better relations between antagonistic students. To increase student multicultural learning outcomes, faculty should hold pre-trip and post-trip sessions that include guest lectures, group activities, and/or service learning activities. As a precursor to the international experience, it is also necessary that students understand that the purpose of traveling is to increase awareness of own assumptions, values, and biases, and understating of the worldview of the culturally different which ultimately lead to developing culturally appropriate interventions (Choudhary, 2016).

Conclusion

Becoming culturally competent is a continuous process that cannot be achieved by completing one course or seminar. "One cannot memorize cultural competence, but must learn and demonstrate it through a variety of active self-involving strategies and procedures" (Tiedt & Tiendt, 2005, p. 31). Pedersen (1999) characterized multiculturalism as a "fourth force" in explaining human behavior, joining the ranks alongside the three major "forces" of psychoanalytic, behavior modification, and humanistic counseling. Multicultural education as a field of study is considered a major goal of equal educational opportunities for all races, nations and groups of different cultures. One of its main goals is to help all students' knowledge and skills in the use of just having effective performance and a pluralistic society has a field of interaction and communication with other ethnic groups of population. This approach allows for the broad and global understanding of a race as it relates to oppression, imperialism and colonialism throughout the world and demonstrates how groups are connected by color and common experience.

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THE TRIUMPH OF METAPHOR IN SYLVIA PLATH'S POEM "METAPHORS"

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Abstract

The paper deals with the concept of metaphor and its triumph in Sylvia Plath's poem "Metaphors". The word metaphor comes from the Greek word μεταφορά (metaphorá) which means "transfer". Metaphor is defined as the practice of talking about one thing as if it were another, on the grounds that there are some notional similarities between the two entities. metaphor is not merely a property of language (i.e., a linguistic phenomenon), but rather a property of thought (i.e., a cognitive phenomenon). Metaphor is a powerful manifestation of creative thinking that offers new ways of perceiving and understanding the old and the new. The American poet Sylvia Plath is well-known for her abundant use of metaphors in her autobiographical poetry. By employing this stylistic device, she tries to arouse thoughts and feelings in a reader's mind to allow him/her to understand the depth of the image she is trying to convey. The object of particular interest, from the view point of metaphoric use, is Plath's eponymous poem "Metaphors". It is created in the poetic form of blank verse without any regular rhyming pattern. Here Plath, being the narrator herself, explains the mixed feelings of a pregnant woman, describing her pregnancy in metaphorical language and focusing mostly on how large she has become while being pregnant. The poem represents a single stanza structure consisting of nine lines, each containing nine syllables. The overall tone of "Metaphors" is pessimistic. It highlights the extent of the poet's self-hatred and depression. The author's distorted self-image combined with the love she feels for her unborn child and uncertainty about the future, all these together create a beautiful and highly emotional poem. Plath successfully employs striking yet shocking imagery which produces an emotional response in readers and makes them sympathise with her situation.

Key words: Metaphor, stylistic device, linguistic phenomenon, cognitive phenomenon, creative thinking, blank verse

Metaphors play a great role in our lives. Most people use metaphors unthinkingly in everyday life and sometimes we don't even notice it because these figurative expressions have become an indispensible part of our vocabulary. The word metaphor comes from the Greek word μεταφορά (metaphorá) which means "transfer". The essence of metaphor is defined as "understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980/2003: 5) on the grounds that there are some notional similarities between these two entities.

Classical theories of language considered metaphor a matter of language and not of thought. They regarded metaphor as primarily an artistic device or a kind of linguistic embellishment that imparts vividness and distinction to an author's style. Lakoff and Johnson (1980/2003) claim that metaphor is a productive phenomenon that operates at the level of mental processes. It is one of the primary ways in which we conceptualise our experience of the world around us. Metaphors are "pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action" (p. 3). Metaphors "are among our principal vehicles for understanding. And they play a central role in the construction of social and political reality" (ibid.: p. 159).

Thus, metaphor is not merely a property of language (i.e., a linguistic phenomenon), but rather a property of thought (i.e., a cognitive phenomenon) Lakoff and Johnson (1980/2003). This idea was afterwards adopted and extended by a number of cognitive linguists (Grady, 1997; Fauconnier and Turner, 2002; Feldman, 2006; Pinker, 2007) and the term "conceptual metaphor" was coined to describe it.

Metaphor is a powerful manifestation of creative thinking that offers new ways of perceiving and understanding the old and the new (McAlister & McLaughlin, 1996: 75-87). By creative thinking is meant "imaginative thinking directed toward innovation" (DiYanni, 2016: 37). People often use metaphors to describe abstract concepts through reference to more concrete experiences.

The function of metaphor in literature is twofold. Firstly, it is more practical and allows the reader to get better understanding of the concept, object, or character being described. This is done by comparing it to an item that is more familiar to the reader. Secondly, it is purely artistic: the writer creates an image that is beautiful or profound in order to make an impact on the reader.

Metaphors enhance writing and make it more creative, and that is exactly the reason why writers often use them in their works. Metaphors allow authors to express the different shades of emotions, experiences, images. At the same time the use of the metaphor requires some care on the part of the author. On the one hand, a poorly chosen metaphor can hinder the understanding of the work of art. On the other hand, an expert writer can use metaphors in surprising and creative ways.

The American poet Sylvia Plath is well-known for her abundant use of metaphors in her autobiographical poetry. Her style of writing is confessional and full of dramatism and pessimism. Plath is not afraid to express her inner feelings within her poetical works. By employing the kind of stylistic device as metaphor, she tries to arouse thoughts and feelings in a reader's mind to allow him/her to understand the depth of the image she is trying to convey. The object of particular interest, from the view point of metaphoric use, is Plath's eponymous poem "Metaphors" (2008: 116). Emphasizing the importance of metaphors in literature, the author dedicated this poem to them.

Plath wrote "Metaphors" in 1959. It is a very short poem created in the poetic form of blank verse without any regular rhyming pattern. Here Plath, being the narrator herself, explains the mixed feelings of a pregnant woman, describing her pregnancy in metaphorical language and focusing mostly on how large she has become while being pregnant. The poem represents a single stanza structure consisting of nine lines, each containing nine syllables:

METAPHORS (ibid.)

I'm a riddle in nine syllables, 1

An elephant, a ponderous house, 2

A melon strolling on two tendrils. 3

O red fruit, ivory, fine timbers! 4

This loaf's big with its yeasty rising. 5

Money's new-minted in this fat purse. 6

I'm a means, a stage, a cow in calf. 7

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I've eaten a bag of green apples,

Boarded the train there's no getting off.

The poem begins by stating to the reader that it is a riddle to be solved. This is clearly demonstrated in the first line – "I'm a riddle in nine syllables," (ibid.). The riddle is not easily figured out and it needs careful consideration on the part of the reader, because its meaning does not lie on the surface. The nine lines and nine syllables here represent the nine months of pregnancy.

Plath uses the pronoun "I" to make her writing deeply personal and show her pessimistic attitude towards her body image during pregnancy. Nine is a repeated and significant number in the poem since metaphor and pregnancy both have nine letters and "I" is the ninth letter of the alphabet.

In the second line, the narrator states that she is "An elephant, a ponderous house," (ibid.). This line expresses how she feels about her pregnant body. She sees herself as being heavy, slow moving, clumsy as an elephant and large and unmovable as a bulky house.

The third line produces a comical effect: "A melon strolling on two tendrils." (ibid.). A melon walking around on its skinny tendrils conjures up a humorous image in one's mind. When looking at a pregnant woman, it is easy to notice the resemblance with melon (most likely with watermelon) in both size and shape. It seems that Plath is making fun of the way she looks. Although the elephant, house, and melon seem to signify only the largeness, heaviness and clumsiness of a pregnant woman, they definitely have a much deeper meaning. As Axelrod (1990: 145) asserts: "Beneath the humor of Plath's imagery, we discover very little real pleasure; […] Indeed, in the last two lines even the humor vanishes, displaced by anxious awareness of remorseless fate".

In the fourth line "O red fruit, ivory, fine timbers!" (ibid.) Plath uses comparison between the beautiful baby contained within her and her own self-image. She addresses to the unborn child and praises it using several metaphors describing its importance. The first metaphor, "red fruit" is a Biblical allusion to "fruit of thy womb" (Large Print Thinline Reference Bible-KJV, 2012: 901).This is a kind of hint to the mysterious ability of female body to give birth to a baby. A fruit is the result of reproduction and the desired part of a plant, and the worth of the plant is in its fruit. Moreover, the red colour of fruit in this line returns us to the idea of a melon, since the internal part of melon (watermelon) is also red and looks like blood during childbirth or the color of the new-born baby. The other two metaphors "ivory" and "fine timbers" also underline the importance of a baby. "Ivory" is related to an elephant. It is a very valuable thing and a part of elephant's body. Elephant is praised for its beautiful ivory tusks. As the narrator compares herself to the elephant - the carrier of the precious ivory, for her this ivory is her unborn child. The "fine timbers" refer to the house mentioned in the second line. The house is built of timber and good timber is necessary to hold up the roof of well built houses. The purpose of a house is to protect and shelter people living there, just like a pregnant woman does it for her unborn child.

The metaphor which the author utilizes in the fifth line "This loaf's big with its yeasty rising." (ibid.) can be easily interpreted. It can be compared to an idiom "a bun in the oven", which means "to be pregnant". A rising "loaf" implies here the child growing larger inside mother's womb. A loaf forms and develops under the influence of the yeast inside it.

In the sixth line - "Money's new-minted in this fat purse." (ibid.) the author demonstrates the relationship between mother and child via the metaphor. Plath continues making fun of her own appearance and refers to herself as a "fat purse." The purse itself has not great worth except to hold the newly minted coins. According to Dictionary.com (n.d.), "mint" is "to make (coins, money, etc.) by stamping metal". The child represents in this metaphor the new-minted money and hence it is of great value. Having a "fat purse" means that the person holds sufficient wealth. But a purse is only a container holding the valuable things inside. This metaphor reveals the idea that Plath (the purse) is just nothing, but an ordinary person, without such a valuable thing as a child (new-minted money).

In the seventh line – "I'm a means, a stage, a cow in calf", Plath uses a number of metaphors describing herself. She compares herself to "a means", "a stage", "a cow in calf". Plath is anxious about the size of her growing body. She understands that she has lost control over it. She lacks individuality and begins to see herself as merely a device for bearing a baby, a kind of incubator, "a means", and not a full-fledged human being. By calling herself "a stage", Plath implies that she is just a place where a play is performed and child is in the center of this stage, she is only the platform for the child's performance. She feels herself like a breeding cow who is getting ready to have her calf and which is valued for the calves she can produce. It is necessary to mention that this line is characterized by Plath's depressed feelings. Instead of enjoying the pregnancy, she sees herself as nothing more than a carrier of the baby.

The eighth line – "I've eaten a bag of green apples" can be interpreted as the Biblical allusion. It is known that Eve was strictly punished for eating just one apple (fruit) from the tree of the knowledge of good and evil, while Plath states that she has eaten the whole bag of green apples. The sour green apples can cause a pain in the stomach, so she suffers a painful feeling. The most important thing is that the apple reminds the reader of the Biblical consequence of Eve's original sin: God punished Eve and as the result of this punishment a woman's pain during childbirth is part of the suffering brought into the world through her sin. "Unto the woman he said, I will greatly multiply thy sorrow and thy conception; in sorrow thou shalt bring forth children." (Browne, 1873: 46).

The last line of the poem is very dramatic and it basically sums up what it is like being pregnant. As the poem progresses and the last weeks of pregnancy approach the end, the author begins to feel helpless, facing an uncertain future. She has no control over it. The ninth line of poem says "Boarded the train there's no getting off". This is one of the mappings of conceptual metaphor "Life is a Journey". The train is the journey that the woman begins and then ends with the birth of the baby. The train that the woman cannot get off is the process of the birth. Nothing can stop the train until it arrives at the destination. It is just like the process of the childbirth is inevitable for the pregnant woman and nothing can stop it. Motherhood is the destination of this train.

The overall tone of poem "Metaphors" is pessimistic. It highlights the extent of the poet's self-hatred and depression. The author's distorted self-image combined with the love she feels for her unborn child and uncertainty about the future, all these together create a beautiful and highly emotional poem. Plath successfully employs striking yet shocking imagery which produces an emotional response in readers and makes them sympathise with her situation.

To sum up, it is necessary to mention that metaphor is a literary device with an active aesthetic function. Writers use metaphors to make their writing more creative and interesting, to produce an emotional impact on the reader and to evoke vivid images in the reader's mind.

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"GRACE UNDER PRESSURE" AS THE MORAL CODE OF HEMINGWAY'S CODE HERO

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Abstract

Ernest Hemingway is one of the well known and most influential American writers of the 20th century. He is the representatives of "the Lost Generation". Hemingway is famous and recognized for his "distinctively crisp, unadorned style". The most significant place in Hemingway's novels and short stories occupies the concept of the "code hero". The "code hero" was perceived by readers in the 1920s as a kind of literary antidote to the increasingly sensitive, emasculated American male. Young was one of the first scholars who put forward the theory of two heroes "the Hemingway's hero", and "the code hero". The Hemingway's hero is a stereotypical fictional character created by Hemingway. He possesses a static set of characteristics that remains essentially the same throughout all of Hemingway's works, being always courageous, confident, and introspective. He struggles to follow his code in order to be able to maintain his sense of moral integrity. "Code" means a set of rules or guidelines for conduct which the hero has to follow. The code hero is masculine, brave, honest, and never shows his emotions. He demonstrates stoicism in his acceptance of the hardships of life. He permanently faces the disadvantages that complicate his duty, but these difficulties only enhance his determination. The code hero presents Hemingway's image of an ideal man, his concept of honor and courage. Hemingway characterizes the conduct of his 'code hero' as "grace under pressure". "Grace under pressure" is the moral code according to which the "code hero" must always act in case he faces the fact of death. "Grace under pressure" "is made of the controls of honour and courage which in a life of tension and pain make a man a man and distinguish him from the people who follow random impulses. (Young: 1966: 63)

Key words: The code hero, Hemingway hero, the Lost Generation, grace under pressure, hard-boiled style

Ernest Hemingway (1899-1961) is one of the well known and most influential American writers of the 20th century. He occupies an important place among the representatives of the "Lost Generation", along with Scott Fitzgerald, William Faulkner, John Steinbeck, Dos Passos, Edward Cummings, Ezra Pound, Sherwood Anderson, etc.

Hemingway is famous and recognized for his "distinctively crisp, unadorned style" (Kennedy & Gioia, 2012: 167), which has a great impact on the twentieth century fiction and can be considered as one of the most significant innovations of that time. Hemingway's literary style is economical, simple, direct and unembellished. It owes much to his career as a journalist and it is different to that of most writers of his epoch. Instead of using more drawn out, overly descriptive writing, Hemingway's fiction is more of a "get to the point" style.

Hemingway's writing style is also characterized as "hard-boiled". The slang word "hard-boiled", used to describe characters and works of art, is a product of twentieth-century warfare. According to Hallengren (2004) "To be 'hard-boiled' meant to be unfeeling, callous, coldhearted, cynical, rough, obdurate, unemotional, without sentiment" (p. 118)

The most significant place in Hemingway's novels and short stories occupies the concept of the "code hero". The “code hero” was perceived by readers in the 1920s as a kind of literary antipode to the sensitive, emasculated American male. Young (1966) was one of the first scholars who put forward the theory of two heroes “the Hemingway hero”, and “the code hero”. He published the study on Hemingway’s fiction where he developed the concept that the most of Hemingway’s writings featured a “code hero” and a “Hemingway hero”.

The Hemingway hero is a stereotypical fictional character created by Hemingway. He possesses a static set of characteristics that remains essentially the same throughout all of Hemingway's works, being always courageous, confident, and introspective. The Hemingway hero is easily identified by his strong masculinity, enthusiasm for life and often excessive indulgence in its pleasures. He does not let his fears get to him.

According to Hovey (1968), “Hemingway heroes stand for courage in midst of danger, grace under pressure, competence in and dedication to one’s job, integrity, self reliance, and stoicism of the sort that is embarrassed by emotional sloppiness” (p. 4). As Tyler (2001) claims, “the Hemingway hero, which is often the protagonist of the novel or story, has much to learn about how to live in the world, while the code hero, who has the wisdom to know how to live properly, is – because of his adherence to an unspoken code of behavior – a mentor and example to usually younger Hemingway hero”(p. 29) Hence, Hemingway’s hero is a young man who is confused, bewildered and does not know how to act, whereas the code hero is usually an elder person who being wise and experienced, knows life well and has realized his potentialities. He behaves properly and can find the way out of any situation.

Hemingway’s fictional heroes appear to be tough and even callous on the surface, experiencing fear and uncertainty inside. They struggle to follow their code in order to be able to maintain their sense of moral integrity. "Code" means a set of rules or guidelines for conduct which the hero has to follow. The code hero is masculine, brave, honest and never shows his emotions. He demonstrates stoicism in his acceptance of the hardships of life. He permanently faces the disadvantages that complicate his duty, but these difficulties only enhance his determination. Coming from the above said, it can be concluded that the code hero presents Hemingway's image of an ideal man, his concept of honour and courage.

In Hemingway’s words, the code hero is “a man who lives correctly, following the ideals of honor, courage and endurance in a world that is sometimes chaotic, often stressful, and always painful." (Boon, 2008: 143) The code hero “offers up and exemplifies certain principles of honor, courage, and endurance which in a life of tension and pain make a man a man.”(Young, 1963: 8)The “code hero” is an embodiment of Hemingway’s ideals of manhood and courage, fearlessness, honour and stoicism. He is constantly put to endurance and survival test in the situation of tension and pressure. Although the "code hero" believes in the ideals of courage and honor, he has his own set of morals (moral code) and he preaches the principles based on his beliefs in honor, courage and endurance.

Hemingway characterizes the conduct of his ‘code hero’ as “grace under pressure”. The famous phrase “grace under pressure” was coined by Hemingway in 1926 in his letter to Fitzgerald about bullfighting, where he calls ‘guts’ (courage) “grace under pressure” (Wyatt, 2015: 111). The “code-hero”, alludes to the Hemingway’s hero who lives by the code of manhood, courage, fearlessness, stoicism and “grace under pressure” (Young, 1966).

As Young (1966) states, "grace under pressure" "is made of the controls of honour and courage which in a life of tension and pain make a man a man and distinguish him from the people who follow random impulses, let down their hair, and are generally messy, perhaps cowardly, and without inviolable rules for how to live holding tight" (p.: 63)

"Grace under pressure", being a hyper-masculine "moral code" of Hemingway's hero, represents an ideal set of beliefs and attitudes, a mode of self-regard, which allows the heroes to function in a hostile, disruptive atmosphere. In accordance with this code, a man is measured by his will, pride, and endurance: the ability to accept pain and even loss, when there is not any possibility to avoid it. The code hero feels pride realizing the fact that one has done one's best. He possesses courage to act truly to one's nature and the strong will to face defeat or victory without any complaint on one hand or boasting on the other.

The basis of Hemingway's system of ethics and morals is well expressed in his "Death in the Afternoon" (Hemingway, 2002), non-fiction book about the ceremony and traditions of Spanish bullfighting. The author asserts here: "So far, about morals, I know only that what is moral is what you feel good after and what is immoral is what you feel bad after and judged by these moral standards, which I do not defend, the bullfight is very moral to me because I feel very fine while it is going on and have a feeling of life and death and mortality and immortality, and after it is over I feel very sad but very fine" (p. 13) This phrase shows the essence of Hemingway's pragmatic morality. It is the system contradictory to the Puritan code, inclined to emphasize the unpleasantness.

Every person must follow his own conscience (which is focused on the emotions rather than the intellect or soul) and if one has an unpleasant feeling after committing some unworthy action then he knows that he has behaved in a wrong way and must desist from doing so in the future. As in the case with the moral code of 'grace under pressure', the system of ethics has no real base in traditional moral systems. Every person builds it up for himself from his own experience until he creates a sufficiently broad system to embrace all the situations of possible moral conflict. As Beach claims, Hemingway's characters manage to "recover so much of what is traditional in the civilized code." (1960: 84).

Hemingway's "code hero" is a person of great physical potential and courage. Never mind what his occupation is, whether he is a fisherman, a soldier, a bullfighter, or a hunter, his physical power is always activated in critical situations. Though, the physical power can be harmed by the greater forces, the real significance of the code hero in Hemingway's opinion is in the fact that the hero is always able to rise from destruction. Hemingway's heroes are all hurt in some way, but never defeated. The "code hero" estimates himself by the fact how well he can overcome the difficulties that he encounters on his way. As a result, the "code hero" will lose because we are all mortal, but the true measure of his value is how a person faces death.

"Grace under pressure" is the moral code according to which the "code hero" must always act when he faces the fact of death. He may have fear of death, but he is never afraid to die. By fear is meant the hero's intellectual realization that death is the end of life, hence the end of everything, and therefore it should constantly be avoided in all cases. Death is nothing - "nada" ("nada" is Spanish word for "nothing"), while Life is everything. The code hero's love for life is based on a rejection of the existence of an afterlife - "when you are dead, you are dead" (Carey, 2007: 32) and there is nothing more, so he fights passionately to remain alive. Hemingway code hero shows his coolness, grace, courage and the discipline while encountering death, i.e. all those properties that are intrinsic to the idea of 'grace under pressure'.

Hemingway sets his code hero in different environment and conditions putting him on trials, exposing to all kinds of difficulties and risk of danger, but in these grave and critical situations his hero behaves equally noble and with dignity, demonstrating his best qualities and always following moral code of "grace under pressure".

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LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS IN INAUGURAL SPEECH OF THE PRESIDENT OF GEORGIA

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Abstract

The paper aims to provide an overview of the use of personal pronouns in political discourse. The study focuses on the President of Georgia Giorgi Margvelashvili and his usage of the personal pronouns "I" and "we". The study will provide the analyses of inaugural address speech by G. Margvelashvili which will show examples that suggest how he prefers the personal pronoun we in situations where he wants to decrease his personal involvement and responsibility and instead act as a spokesman for Georgian people. The study will also provide suggestions of intentions and strategies behind his use of these particular pronouns, for example, how, at big events, watched by a global audience as in his inaugural address speech, he chose to be more formal and to decrease the use of the pronoun I, and instead put the focus on what the Georgian citizens have to do, by using we.

Keywords: Personal pronouns, political discourse, Giorgi Margvelashvili, inaugural speech.

Introduction

Problems of political discourse are focused in some ways in modern social life, as it is frequently used phenomenon in society. A number of scientists are interested in making research works of theoretical and practical issues of political communications (Sheigal, 2004; Demyankov, 2002, etc.).

Very often, political actuality determines the interest in political discourse; politics became the field, that is involved in our lives for the recent years. Not only politicians, but also ordinary people discuss political issues every day, it became the part of our everyday lives. Some people regarded politics as an interesting and effective way of having influence on people.

As a rule, political force and influence is achieved by using army or economical pressure, and it is reinforced by linguistic ways. Verbal communication has great importance. As P. Chilton (2004) mentions, politics means to organize differences by using discourse and persuasion. Accordingly, communication has its important place in politics. Although, politicians often neglect the important and vital role of language in politics, the tendency of having speech writers is rising, who have to monitor the information and each word or phrase in order to correspond with political challenges.

Making researches of political texts are becoming more and more actual in modern world. Analysis of different ranges of politicians is being studied. Linguists work on presidential inauguration speeches, political debates, pre-electoral propagation and other types of analysis of political speeches. As a rule, the main purpose of such kinds of texts is to manipulate by public opinion, which itself, can be regarded as abusing political force and influence.

As Van Dijk (2006: 360) mentions, “manipulation” is a typical category of having political strength. Very few speaker calls his/her own discourse “manipulating”.

As E. Sheigal (2004) says, one of the distinct factor of political force is monopoly and the right to speak. The characteristic feature of language to dictate the society its viewpoints, plays an important role in given case. According to this, research of political communication field and its characteristic is to perceive the language as a way of achieving pragmatic aim: make manipulation of addressee’s cognition. Politicians effectively use the image of the world existed in elector’s cognition. Speech influence in political communication is planned (it means that the speaker perceives it as an illocution way). So, we can talk about the strategy of manipulation. According to Akopova (2013), manipulation is the linguistic term dealing with the negative intention of the speaker and the covert character of the influence, which is not obvious to the listeners. It is dictating your viewpoints and attitudes to the audience, which can be regarded as wrong by the addressee, but useful and profitable for him (addressee).

Discussion

One of the basic characteristics of the process of persuasion is effective use of language, which is the instrument of political power. Language helps politicians enter the personal zone of the recipient, they often use the pronoun we instead of I and uses more difficult ways to manipulate.

As Charaudeau (2005) says, any politician should construct his/her discourse on the basis of dual identity and mutual directions. One of it is political ideology and the other is the reflection of one’s position in communicational situation. Political ideology means thinking about social life of a person. In this condition, discourse identity is expressed by singular or collective identity ___ I – We (p. 61).

Personal pronouns play an important role in negotiating social status in interaction. In other words, personal pronouns may perform not only a person deictic function, but also a social deictic function in discourse.

According to Karapetjana (2011:43), the way politicians speak and present themselves is a part of their personality and a way to show themselves as individuals, and so are pronominal choices. The use of personal pronouns can create an image of the politician in question, both negative and positive. Karapetjana’s study suggested that the pronoun I implies a personal level, and makes it possible for the speaker to show authority and personal responsibility as well as commitment and involvement. She continues by claiming that I is mostly used to make general statements, and that politicians sometimes avoid using I, because of its distancing effect (Karapetjana 2011:43).

In political speeches, I can be used by the speaker to convey his opinion, it makes the speech more subjective, it shows the authority of the speaker and it can be a way to show compassion with the audience and to narrate a story (Bramley 2001:27).

Politicians use the pronoun I to present themselves as individuals and speak from their own perspective, preferably highlighting one’s good qualities and accomplishments (Bramley 2001).

The following examples show how I is used in Margvelashvili speech, and the effect it has:

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(1)As President, I will guarantee protection of the Constitutional Agreement with the Autocephalous Apostolic Orthodox Church of Georgia. At the same time, I will be a steadfast defender of the constitutional rights of representatives of all religions in Georgia.

(2)This is the Georgia about which I have dreamed all my life. This is the Georgia its children have been nourishing.

(3)I am convinced that the worst years are gone now; that the golden age of our country does not apply in the case of the past only but the future as well. This vision cannot be implemented overnight.

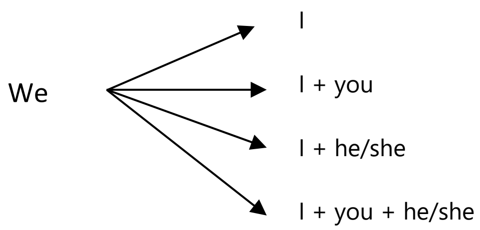
(4) "Being President of Georgia is a great honor. And today I ask God to grant me strength worthily to carry this responsibility I assume as part of my service to our great country and its people." (G. Margvelashvil's inaugural Address 17th November 2013)

Example (1) shows how Margvelashvili uses I to show his passion as president, in a way suggesting that he is the one who guarantees to protect religions in Georgia. Obviously, he expresses that he will personally defend the constitutional rights of representatives of all religions in Georgia. This is a way for him to convey the message of being a strong and powerful.

Example (2) shows more of a personal feeling and a personal wish, making the speech more intimate, by sharing his personal opinions.

Example (3) and (4) states his beliefs. Using the pronoun I gives him individual voice and an opportunity to share his personal opinion.

The pronoun we is very interesting for political discourse, as it gives the argument maker the opportunity to change the word referent in an implicit way, which makes great influence on the audience.



Thus, in one case, the referent of we might be only the speaker, in another case it can be the speaker and the listener, in the third case __ speaker and the person outside of communicational situation and in the last case - the speaker, the listener and the person who is outside the communicational situation.

Identifying formulas are important elements of any political discourse and politicians regularly use these modules to have influence on people.

The pronoun we is basic characteristic of Margvelashvili speech by which he expresses his political views and opinion in different fields of the country, such as: healthcare, the course of foreign affairs of the country towards Europe and America, determining strategies in the field of employment or education:

"We are not alone in the process aimed at building our country and strengthening the sovereignty thereof."

"Throughout the years of independence, we always felt support from other countries, our friends. The policies of non-recognition of the occupied territories and de-occupation, international guarantees of Georgia's security, and participation in regional economic development projects are built upon these very relations."

"We have given priority to the full and comprehensive development of bilateral relations with the United States within the framework of the Charter on Strategic Partnership and cooperation in various formats."

"We are making an all-out effort to initiate negotiations on free trade between the United States of America and Georgia, which will strengthen our strategic ties even further." (G.Margvelashvil's inaugural Address 17th November 2013)

Using "we" in these examples is in my opinion his way of introducing his new way of thinking and also a way to invite everyone to be participants on the road to accomplishment.

Political discourse is directed to assure the audience. Because of it, politicians use strategies of linguistic influence. This strategy is called identifying formulas and they are expressed in speech with the pronoun we and possessive pronoun our.

When a politician (and not only politicians) say: we will do this, we will achieve this, and etc. he/she means not only his/her team, but also the listeners. It is regarded as unconscious way of attracting electors. Something very important and great must be done together with you… this is always pleasant.

One of the reasons for the use of the pronoun we is that politicians may not be certain that the decisions they make will necessarily be viewed in a positive way. Therefore, the use of we spreads the responsibility. We can be manipulated for political effect and is used in this speech to establish a sense of group unity:

"Let us build a successful democratic country together, a country that will guarantee the welfare of all citizens, preservation of their ethnic and cultural identity, and respect for their political rights."(G.Margvelashvil's inaugural Address 17th November 2013)

Results

In this section I will present my analyses of inaugural speech. This table shows how many times G. Margvelashvili used the pronouns I and we in his inaugural address speech.

Category	Pronoun	No.	
Out-group	I	30	37
	My	6	
	Me	1	
	We	18	

In-group	Our	31	54
	Us	5	
Total			91

The table shows that the first person singular is used thirty-seven times; as subjective, thirty times, as objective - one and six as possessive. As for in-group pronouns, such as we, our, us he used eighteen times, thirty-one times, five times respectively in his speech.

Conclusion

The aim of this study was to analyze the use of personal pronouns in the Inaugural speech held by Georgias's recent president. Beside the fact that there already is quite a lot of research about personal pronouns in politician's speech, it might be interesting to analyze pronouns in G. Margvelashvili's inaugural speech.

Thus, on the basis of our research results, we conclude that in Georgian discourse and in Margvelashvili's speech, the pronoun "we" has great importance and is intensively used. One of the basic characteristic features of ethnic culture of Georgia is the sense of individual pride; it is also interesting, that Georgian politicians regard their political team as a referent of "we". Georgian people have no sufficient reliance to political parties and do not think that politicians will support their (people's) welfare after they come in politics. So, politicians prefer to speak to the audience on their team's name in order to promote their political team.

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APPROPRIATENESS OF ABILITY GROUPING IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN GEORGIA

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Abstract

The article deals with analyzing whether ability grouping in EFL is an efficient way to improve students' knowledge or is it the way of labelling students. The paper presents findings and conclusions based on literature review concerning the issue. The aim of the study is to inquire about existing problems concerning ability grouping in EFL classroom and find out how it can help learners become proficient in English language. Based on the research done, recommendations and conclusions will be drawn which can be helpful for teachers and students as well as school administration in order to make language learning process more productive.

Key words: Ability grouping, EFL, tracking, mixed ability class,

Introduction

The issue concerning ability grouping is quite controversial. Questions asked quite frequently are: Is ability grouping an effective means of dealing with differences in students'abilities? Does it boost students' learning? These kinds of questions have been the subject of debate in education for many decades. According to Kulik (1991), ability grouping has been in practice in schools for many years. The earliest reviews of research on this topic were found in the 1920s and early 1930s when there was a mental testing movement in American education (Kulik, 1991). The topic of ability grouping has produced a great deal of research concerning its effects on student learning. Some researchers recommend individualized teaching whereas others suggest ability grouping as successful methods within the classroom (Brewer, Rees, & Argy, 1996). There is a lack of agreement among researchers and educators on the effects of homogenous grouping (Loveless, 1998; Tieso, 2003). Loveless (1998) found that during the 1980s, many schools and school districts across the United States began to "detrack," which involved placing students into mixed-ability classes instead of like-ability classes. There was even an anti-ability-grouping movement in the 1990s (Fiedler-Brand, Lange &Winebrenner, 1992). For the last few decades, there has been a trend of reforming the ability grouping practice.

Many researches were conducted in the field of ability grouping but as it was stated above the question of whether homogeneous grouping is a better arrangement than mixed-ability grouping is still under heated debate (Loveless, 1998). Because of the small overall effect size from meta-analyses of extensive research studies, many researchers focus on the positive effects but some others focus on the negative effects (Jaeger & Hattie, 1995). Researchers such as Fiedler-Brand, Lange, & Winebrenner (1992), Kulik (1992), and Rogers (2002) support the practice of ability grouping, while many others object to the practice (Braddock & Slavin, 1992). No consensus on this issue has been reached over the last century. Slavinproposed that schools should begin abolishing ability grouping, while Kulik argued that it would be a mistake to quit tracking. Rogers (2002) reasoned that there is nothing in the research at present to suggest that not grouping by ability is more effective or appropriate for any level of ability. She suggested that ability grouping benefits the gifted and talented students and does no harm to any students placed in other levels

Literature review on advantages and disadvantages of ability grouping in EFL

Before discussing advantages and disadvantages of level grouping it should be emphasized according to which criteria the students are grouped in various ability categories. Firstly, and most wide spread means of understanding student's English language level is a placement test. However, the question of test being relevant is always a matter of discussion. Some very bright students may not be able to show their abilities at the test due to different external or internal factors. Also, there is achance for not very bright students to guess meaning without realizing and solving the task. Another criterion for ability grouping can be academic achievement at the end of the academic year. The students with high points may move to higher level group and vice versa. However, even this method can be doubtful. Sometimes smart students are quite lazy or may miss lessons for some reasons and fall behind which will led them to lower grades and consequently to lower achievers' group.

The pros and cons of ability grouping have been listed in countless research studies (Hopkins, 2003; Kulik, 1992; Slavin, 1993; Tieso, 2003). Supporters' and critics' views are far from united on this issue. Braddock and Slavin (1992)12 noticed that proponents are more concerned about the "effectiveness" of instruction, while opponents are more concerned with "equity".

To understand the advantages of ability grouping, first of all, the reason for ability grouping should be discussed. The differences in the level of academic achievement and abilities among students pose many challenges to teachers as they are expected to cater for these differences within the short class time. Students with average knowledge of English language may find the lesson of the right level of difficulty whereas the slow learners tend to require more time. At the same time, fast learners may be bored by the lengthy and simple explanations appropriate to average learners. When the needs of the weak and advanced learners are not met, problems will occur. In given case Ability grouping can be a solution to problems (Ireson, Hallam, Hack, Clark, & Plewis, 2002)

Supporters of ability grouping claim that the practice benefits both teachers and students. Teachers can more easily adapt the pace and content of their instruction to students' needs. They can provide more reinforcement and support to low-achievers and provide a more challenging curriculum to high achievers. (Hopkins, 2003; Tieso, 2003) Low achievers feel more confident and participate more in class when they are grouped with other low-achieving students. High achievers are challenged and stimulated when grouped with intellectual peers. They are more capable to maintain learning motivation in homogeneous groups, but languish when grouped with lower achievers.

In contrast to the movement against ability grouping in American education, this practice has gained more popularity in Taiwanese higher education in the past few decades. Placement of students into groups according to ability is practiced in schools in Taiwan to enhance learning of English as a foreign language. It was first implemented in the late 1970s and did not become a more common practice until a decade later. (Chang, 1987; 1992) Some schoolsstarted the homogeneous placement programs in the late 1980s and 1990s (Yu, 1994). More schools began to change their English programs to group students of similar ability levels for instruction.

Some researchers oppose ability grouping for the reason that it destroys equity. They advocate not only abolishing ability grouping, but maximizing heterogeneity in the class. According to Hastings (1992), "the ability grouping of students for educational opportunities in a democratic society is ethically unacceptable" (p. 14).

Opponents of ability grouping claim that grouping students by ability hurts students, particularly those in average and below-average level classes. These low-performing students can suffer from decreases in self-esteem and academic motivation. Critics propose that students in low-achieving groups need the challenge and competition from other brighter students to stimulate them, and to provide positive role models for them.They contend that grouping by ability is not beneficial for any student. Further, it might widen the achievement gap between the lower and higher groups. (Braddock & Slavin, 1992).

Slavin (1990) conducted a set of meta-analyses on findings of grouping and concluded that the effects of ability grouping are nearly zero for students of all levels in elementary and secondary schools. He considered this practice ineffective and damaging to many students (Braddock &Slavin, 1992). Also, Slavin expressed concerns over the self-concept of those placed in the groups of low performance (Slavin, 1990). Kulik and Kulik (1982) also applied meta-analytic methods to findings of 52 studies on ability grouping. They reported that the effects are "positive, however slight" on lower and middle level students' achievement, attitudes toward subjects being taught, and self-concept. The grouping effects on student attitudes toward the subject being taught and toward the school were "clearer" than on student achievement. The only type of grouping that has stronger positive effect is the placement of high ability students in classes for special enriched instruction. They concluded that the effects of homogeneous grouping are negligible; however, there is no evidence that homogeneous grouping is harmful.

A major criticism of achievement grouping is that it lowers the self-esteem of students in low-achievement groups. However, Kulik's (1985) research findings contradict the prevailing expectation. Achievement grouping into high, average, and low groups had a small overall effect on self-esteem, but effects tended to be slightly positive for low-achievement groups and slightly negative for high and average ones.Limited studies of remedial programs indicate that achievement grouping has positive effects on the self-esteem of slow learners. According to Allan (1991) low-ability students may experience feelings of success and competency when in a classroom with others of like ability.

Hoffer & Gamoran (1993) argued that achievement level is higher in high achievement group beacause of the differences in classroom instruction. They examined three factors that may lead to ability-grouping differences in achievement: instructional objectives, quantity of instruction, and quality of instruction. They noticed that teachers in high ability classes are more likely to emphasize conceptualization, problem solving, and creative thinking, while teachers in lower ability classes emphasize more on the learning of basic skills. Also, not students at all levels receive the same quantity and quality of instruction. The same conclusion was made by Oakes (1985) who analyzed descriptive data collected on 25 secondary schools. She judged the instruction in the low groups inferior because the quality of instruction was different. Low groups did lots of worksheets, worked alone more, and spent more time reading out of textbooks. The high groups received more experience-based learning and challenging problems that are likely to have more than one right answer. Oakes argues that with mixed-ability grouping, all students will have equal access to the higher quality instruction. Her argument assumes that what she has identified as "quality" instruction will have the same beneficial results for both high and low-achievers. She claims that general ability level is less important, if considerate instruction is used.

Conclusion

The issue of appropriateness of ability grouping is still under discussion. Main disadvantage stated by researchers is that in many instances, the students in low achievement groups are given labels that stay with them as they move from grade to grade. Teachers' lower expectations lead to a low level of motivation toward school. Consequently, forming mixed ability groups seem the best solution to the problem. Low achievers learn from higher achievers and at the same time feel equal. They have role models who encourage them to work harder and achieve success.

A key recommendation of many organizations is to form mixed ability classes where bright and not very knowledgeable student can study together and help each other. However, the exact conclusions and recommendations about Georgian schools will be provided after the research is conducted and qualitative and quantitative information is analyzed.

Recommendations may consider school administration and teachers who have to be supportive, try to raise motivation of lowachievers without labelling them, show equal sympathy to every learner and maybe involve in extra activities those who need it.

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A NEW CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT OF BACHELOR DEGREE OF MALAY LANGUAGE FOR FOREIGN SPEAKER

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Abstract

This study is purposedly to develop a new program of curriculum which is Bachelor Degree of Malay Language for Foreign Speaker. This study had been carried out for 9 months in Beijing Foreign Studies University. The objectives are to develop a relevant curriculum for this new program and perform a study of this new program of marketibility that fit with the current needs and interests toward foreign speaker especially in BFSU, China. The methodology involves literature method and survey method (questionnaire and interview). The respondents are BFSU lecturers and students that follow the Malay Language program. The findings shows that the new curriculum for foreign speaker need to fit according to student's interest and meet the current needs of foreign student's origin of the nation toward Malay Language through multi purpose approaches. This is meant to help the foreign student to identify the similar and non similar elements in the comparison of language and culture. The marketibility of the study proved that 85.5 percent of respondents agree and interested to learn Malay language based on the factors of knowledge, profesion, economy and social. In summary, this study is significant to develop the language and Malay culture globally as well as establish a two-way relationship in the meantime between Malaysia and China.

Key words: Curriculum, new program, marketability, language, foreign speaker

The background of research and problem statement

This study purpose is to create and develop a new program of curriculum which is Bachelor Degree of Malay Language for Foreign Speaker. Prior to this problem, the course of Malay language for foreign speaker is only ranked at course point and no offer of this program for four years of period to acquire a Bachelor Degree. The curriculum amendment is sensibly meet the philosophy of education that combine two elements which are language philosophy and national education of philosophy in order to produce a balance human being in terms of intelectual and spiritual. The multi purpose approach of Malay language learning is seemed the most suitable for this program.

Objectives

This study was conducted to meet the following objectives:

Design a fit curriculum for a new program of Bachelor Degree of Malay Language for Foreign Speaker.

Conduct a marketability study of this new course that fits foreign speaker's interest and needs in teaching and learning of Malay language especially in Beijing, China.

Implement a philosophy of education in the new program of curriculum that will be encated.

Importance of the study

The study importance is to offer this new program in the future ahead. This study can also develop a two-way smart collaboration of UPSI-BFSU in sharing information and related curriculum materials that will be enacted. The outcome of the study such as indexed journal of writing and books will be shared together between both parties.

Methodology

This study uses text content of analysis method or document based on the curriculum materials, interview and questionnaire form to retrieve related information of research title. The text context of analysis method or document can help the researcher to revise the available curriculum documents that related to teaching and learning of Malay language for existing foreign speakersuch as the policy in International Islamic University Malaysia, National Malaysia of University and BFSU.

An interview method will be conducted on Malay language lecturers that teach in BFSU. Based on the record here, there are 4 Malay language lecturers. The data collection method is conducted by using sturctured questionnaire. The questionnaire form is used to get the random information from the Malay language students in BFSU.

The questionnaire is divided into three parts. Part I includes the background of student among BFSU students, part II includes student's interests and needs that follows Malay language program for foreign speaker. While part III includes student's response towards philosophy of language education.

In summary, this study was carried out in Beijing Foreign Studies University (BFSU). The respondents involved are lecturers and BFSU students that enroll in Malay language of course point or Indonesia language. The total of respondents or chosen sample in conducting this research is 44 people (4 lecturers and 40 students). The multi purpose of teaching approach of Malay language is an option for this program.

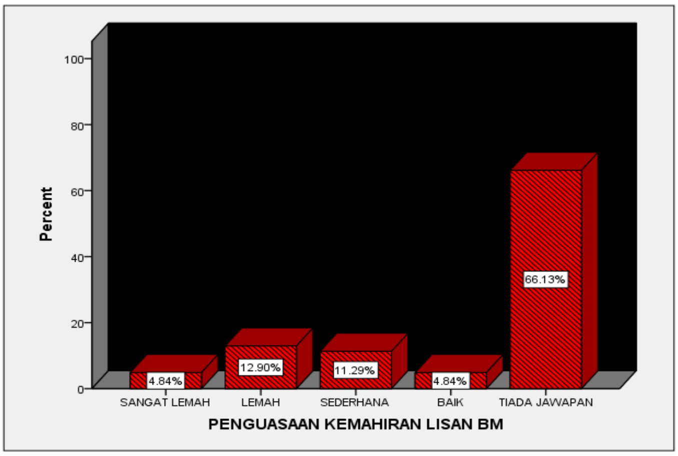
Findings

A. Questionnaire form analysis

The respondents involve students from China, Japan and Korea.

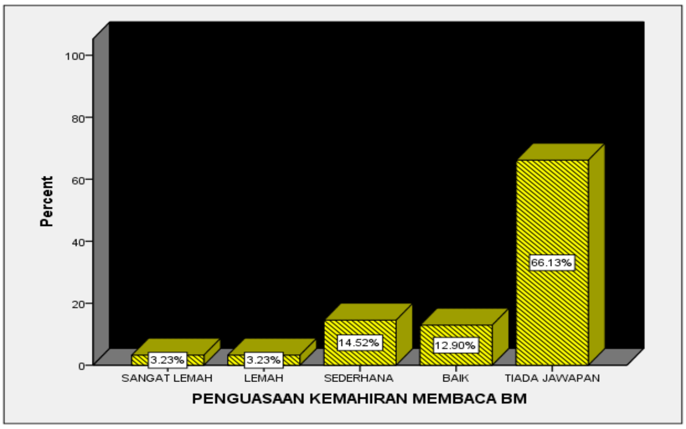
The total of China respondents is 43 people, 10 people from Japan and 9 people from South Korea. The total of whole respondents is 63 people.

Graph 1. The Oral Proficiency Mastery of Malay language



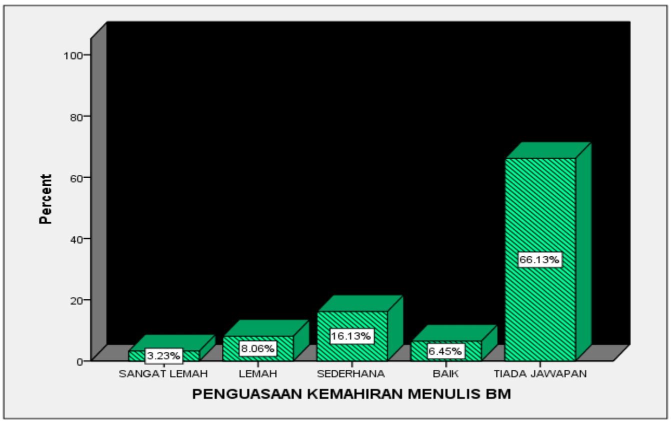
The result shows that the student's mastery of oral proficiency is still at the poor level which is dominated by 12.9% of students while 11.29% of students are at the average level. Besides, the good level of student is only represented by 4.54%.

Graph 2. The Reading Skill Mastery of Malay Language



Based on the overall collected data above, it shows an apparent level of student's reading skill of Malay language is still at the average level. This can be seen as 14.52% of students are at the average level while there some students that mastered in Malay language reading skill which are 12.9% at the level of good.

Graph 3. Writing Skill Mastery of Malay Language



Based on the overall collected data above, it is obviously shows that the student's writing skill mastery of Malay language is at the level of average. This can be seen as much as 16.13% of students are at the average level while there are some students that possess a good level of Malay language writing skill which is 6.4% of percentage. Furthermore, there are some poor students 8.06% and very poor 3.23% in mastering writing skill of Malay language.

Students' interest and needs which follow Malay language program for foreign speaker. Based on the first statement, it shows that 29.03% of students are agree on this statement which is they learn Malay language based on the parent's encouragement. For the second statement, it shows that 43.55% are not sure whether they learn Malay language based on friend's encouragement in the university. For the third statement, there are many student agree that they choose to learn foreign language in order to mastering several languages.

Question 4(a) shows 48.39% of percentage of students which they agree on the statement of interested in learning Malay language due to the lots of its speakers in ASEAN countries. Question 5(a) shows 3.27% of respondents' opinions are not agree that they learn Malay language because of its simple language that easy to learn. Question 6(a) shows that 43.55% of respondents are agree in which they are interested to speak in Malay language with their university colleagues.

Question 7(a) shows 46.77% are agree that they are interested to write Malay language with their friends in internet, wechat and whatsapp. Question 8(b) shows that 46.77% are agree to learn Malay language because of wanting to increase their knowledge. Question 9(b) shows a percentage of 43.55% that agrees on learning Malay language due to their fond in travel includes ASEAN countries.

For the question 10(b), there are 41.94% agree that they like to have many friend from ASEAN countries no matter whether in the university or internet. Question 11(b) shows 43.55% of students agree that they learn Malay language in order to reach a diploma and degree in the university. Question 12(b) shows 43.55% gives an agree respond on the statement of learning Malay language for the sake business or international commerce.

For the question 13(b) shows that 45.16% of respondents are not sure with the statement of learning Malay language for work purpose in international tourism agency. Question 14(b) shows 40.32% agrees that learning Malay language for work purpose in international banking institution. Question 15(b) shows 35.48% totally agree that learning Malay language for the government sector of work, international and diplomatic relations. For question 16(b) shows nearly 91.94% of students neglect or not answer this question.

Respondents' feedback on the aspect of philosophy of language education

In the first question, there are 54.84% of respondents agree that student need to learn the language holistically in the aspect of phonology, morphology, syntactic and semantic. While the second question, there are 51.61% of respondents agree with the statement of the students use the language learned in order to speak and write in the right grammar.

The statement on the third question shows 45.16% of respondents agree and 30.65% are extremely agree that the students will speak in delivering the right and authentic information. The fourth question describes that the student shall appreciates the speech tools in themselves because these articulation are such a gift since birth and shall be utilized beneficially. It can be seen that 46.77% of respondents are agree with this statement while 33.87% of them are extremely agree with it.

The fifth statement describes the student should speak in a manner in order to keep own self dignity. This can be seen that 40.32% are agrees with this statement while 35.48% are very agree with it. For the sixth statement, it shows that 43.55% are extremely agree with the statement of which they are confident with their own idea and appreciate other's opinion.

B. Interview session of foreign expert with BFSU students

The foreign students' interest to learn the Malay language

Awang Sariyan (Professor Datuk Dr.), a chairman Professor of Malay Studies in China gives an opinion that we shall look at two situation or two contexts. First, the foreign student in our country, and second is an international foreign student. In our country, partly of the interest's emergence is due to the education system that prioritize the Malay language as National Language and as a main medium in the education system. Based on that principal, the tendency of some non Malay students arise to lead in the field of Language and Malay Literature as well as in the Degree level and will be up to PhD level.

Roziah Adama, an international lecturer gives a thought of there are several factors that influence student's interest to learn Malay language. The dominant factor that support this matter is the job opportunity. The main factor of foreign speakers' interests to learn Malay language is due to the job. As an example, in China, the students hope that if they were successfully completed the study, then they will be offered some job opportunity in Malaysia.

Adibah (Dr.), a Malay language lecturer China citizen said the factor that influence the student's interest to learn Malay language are such as Malay culture, tourism in Malaysia as well as the needs of residents in China to be able to use Malay language.

Sofia (Madam), a lecturer of Malay language China citizen also thought that the factor of the student to learn Malay language are due to their interests and love toward Malaysia. Some of them is because of when they are entered into the university, they have to answer and pass the examination. When it passed, there are some other examination that need to be sits and they are given two choices, the first choice is language such as Spanish language or other languages. If their examination is not too good or the department has adequately taken the students, they will have to take a second choice. The second choice is the Malay language.

The need of foreign students to learn the Malay language

The aspect of philosophy of language education

Awang Sariyan opinionated that the dominant needs of foreign student to learn Malay language is to fulfill the interest and knowledge. As foreign scholar said before in the China context, it has been written in the book and works as early as the 7th century of Tang Dynasty in China and Srivijaya era, ancient Malay and old Malay. At that time, a lot of interest has already arise such as Ichin which is the famous Buddha priest at long time ago, has been stayed for 6 months in Palembang, Sumatera to learn the Malay language and Malay customs ceremonial to be reported to the Emperor of Tang Dynasty. That matter has been contained in the biggest Buddha museum in Xian city until now.

Roziah Adama gives a thought that the main purpose of foreign student to learn Malay language is to grab a job and hope to get a job opportunity in Malaysia.

Adibah opinions on this aspect is to increase knowledge and work because in China, the community has many job options for the graduates that already master in Malay language. They may choose to work at the ministry as such, custom, international company and many more. Besides, through language, they can get to know the society culture, Malay civilization which is very interesting as well as the current situation in Malaysia.

Sofia also gives an opinion that the group of student which is really interested in Malay language, they will learn Malay language in order to increase their knowledge. An excuse of deep interest, after completed the university study, they will go for the job hunting that relate with Malaysia or related to Malay language such as the foreign ministry (CRI) or touristic company or maybe in the massive banks such as Bank of China.

The aspect of curriculum and the Malay language education for foreign speakers

Awang Sariyan sees the language teaching is more to four basic skills which are listening, speaking, reading and writing. He had introduced sevaral of new courses such as sociolinguistic course. Sociolinguistic is a field that study the language relation with the culture and community. Throughout the course, he said it is sufficient to implements the value of language philosophy. An an example, the use of proper greeting, by age, by social status, teacher and parents relationship and friends. In the sociolinguistic course, the language manner is something that he has offers in the teaching.

Roziah Adama said the education curriculum that has been implemented in BFSU is very prioritizing a student’s proficiency in Malay language. An early focus on Malay language learning is focused for the first year of student but when it comes to the second, third and fourth year the student will learn about Malay literature, Malaysia's history, foreign relation China and Malaysia, malay culture, general studies and a few more of subjects.

Adidah said that the students are divided ito two level which are basic level and higher level. First year and second year will be teached by started from zero with the alphabet reading and so on. For the higher level, which is third year and fourth year, they will be exposed more about Malaysia.

Sofia said that the last few years ago, the intake of student was made once every 4 years but now had changed due to the wide market expansion. Therefore, BFSU takes once every 2 years of intake for 1 batch for the next years ahead.

Conclusion

Based on the overall study, the findings show that a fit or suitable curriculum of the Malay language program for the foreign student needs to be designed. This is to help the foreign student to identify the similar non similar of elements in Malay language and their mother tongue language. The developed curriculum shall be appropriate accordingly with nation's origin so that the comparison language aspect with contrastive analysis contained can be seen based on the multipurpose of teaching approach of the Malay language.

The main factor that influences the foreign student's interest to learn the Malay language is due to the job opportunity as well as their own interest by parents' encouragement, friends and also because of they love to speak in Malay language. Their needs to learn the Malay language is also due to the factor of seeking any job opportunities in Malaysia and they take that by learning the Malay language is because to increase their knowledge in language. Apparently, this course marketability towards foreign student is compatible because in terms of interest and needs, the language teaching and learning will be more widened.

The implementation of philosophy of language education in the new curriculum program which will be enacted is also encouraged to do so. The steps of philosophy implementation is by going through the course that enrolled by the student and not by didactic or formal affirmation. The more universal of the good values of aspect implementation and the attributes values contained in the language philosophy can be implemented in the curriculum planning so that the student will be more motivated and encourage them to master the aspect of language skill.

STUDENT-CENTERED TEACHER AS A FFACILITATOR TO ENHANCE THE LEARNERS' SELF-ACTUALIZATION

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Abstract

Contemporary challenges of the world drive educational institutions to shift their concentration more on learning and the learning process than the mere teacher-centered teaching. Educators face any challenges to be learner-oriented. One of those challenges is making students to be convinced to learn more and better. The paradox of the contemporary education is that despite of the high-ordered desire to be learner-centered, they face difficulties when the matter is about the students' involvement in the process. Learner-centered approach is oriented to the learners and to their cognitive learning abilities. Creating the learner-centered environment is one of the most important means to optimize students learning. The learner-oriented approach and environment requires full and active participation of all the classroom members, including teachers, students for creating effective learner-centered climate. The whole process of learner-centered teaching is considered to be the automatic and immutable outcome of relevant and good teaching, where the main focus goes on the developing the pedagogical skills. It is the teaches who motivates, empowers, drives and encourages the learners, guides them to the learner centered direction, to become active participants in the ongoing processes in the classroom life, to think logically and be problem solvers, be real and life-long learners. The effectiveness of the learner-centered approaches is largely depended on the teacher's choice and paradigms on the learning and learners, on the methods he/she chooses, on the shifting style from the teacher centered approach to the learner-centered one.

Key words: students-centered teaching, self-actualization, facilitative teacher

Introduction

Education has a major role of a person's formation, for effective learning it is desirable to move toward a model in which students are actively engaged in the learning process. No longer is the student expected to be a passive absorber of information; but they are active, through the process of actualization where the teacher acts as a facilitator, equips the learners with all the capacities and skills to be self actualized. These steps will lead to the following desired outcomes:

- student stimulation
- student actualization
- self realization
- development of students' human potential

The effectiveness of the learner-centered approaches largely depends on the teacher's choice and paradigms on the learning and learners, on the methods he/she chooses, on the shifting style from the teacher centered approach to the learner-centered one. It is the teacher whose adopted methods should make the learners able to step aside and take the lead forward. It is the teacher, who is really working and should work the hardest most days in the classroom within the class, who should win, make synergy and go ahead. There is serious interest in the contemporary world on obtaining the skills of not only good teaching but also in good learning, the pedagogical activities, the educational practices that promote the learning. Teachers for maximizing and promoting the learning outcomes of the learners need to practice all the examples, ideas, researches and knowledge for promotion the learner-centered environment.

Hypothesis

A typical school classroom is often pictured with the teacher talking for several hours while learners frantically try to write down everything that is said. This type of classroom has traditionally produced surface learning and has done little to promote meaningful learning.

Research objectives

Weimer (2002) makes the point that in the student-centered classroom the roles of teacher and student bear a great necessity to change, so that the teacher changes from the "sage on the stage" to the "guide on the side" who views the students not as empty vessels to be filled with knowledge but as seekers to be guided along their intellectual developmental journey (Wright 2011) cited by Weimer (2002).

The subjective function of person- centric education is the following:

- to provide opportunities for personal and professional growth, self-determination and creative self-expression in the profession
- to create conditions for self-development and development of the full potential of the student along with the student mastery of competencies as needed
- to allow the student to have a choice in the selection of tasks and activities whenever possible.
- to have students participate in group work, especially cooperative learning, in order to develop social and affective skills.
- to be a role model for the attitudes, beliefs and habits you wish to foster. Constantly work on becoming a better person and then share yourself with your students

The theoretical bases of the research

Education leading to the main goal; to get that feature of Self Actualized people what we may call eager to learn every time, getting well aware of how little one knows in comparison with what could be known and what is known by others (Maslow 1970).

To develop the features of freedom of choice, creativity, reliability and constructiveness to become the "Fully functioning person" (Rogers, 1969)

Teachers facilitating students to be motivated and engaged in the material they are learning choosing and presenting the topic that students need and want to know (Rogers, 1969)

Practical value of the research

The research findings will have huge practical value for teachers. It will raise Georgian teachers' awareness in the importance of student-centered classroom management and the developed classroom management model will be of help for acting teachers in making their classrooms student-centered and will develop more motivated, more conscious of their abilities, confident and more active students.

Facilitative teaching

Humanistic education, known also as person-centric/student-centered education, is an approach to education based on the work of humanistic psychologist most notably Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. The basic concern of the theory is the human potential oriented for growth. Personal freedom, choice, motivations and feelings had to have their place. The humanistic approach places a great deal of emphasis on students' choice and control over the course of their education. Humanistic teachers believe it is important for students to be motivated and engaged in the material they are learning, and this happens when the topic is something the students need and wants to know.

Learner-centered teaching is oriented to the learners and learning, to reach the ultimate purpose of the approach, that is to empower students to become the well equipped and developed life-long self actualize learners, getting positive an defective learning outcomes and to prepare learners be realized and fully functioning humans. Satisfying the basic needs does not require much effort from the learners, as they are provided by the food and shelter; they are safe with the help of families, school and parents. Learners have recourse to be more thoughtful and oriented to satisfy the next levels of needs gaining love and friendly relationship , be more communicative, free from stress and anxiety, be oriented and encouraged to get more and better knowledge, reach to the stage of self growth and self esteem, become more autonomous learners, responsible for their role in the process of classroom activities and be inspired to reach the personal fulfillment to be self actualized for their future realization becoming fully functioning human. The only means to help students reach this goal is to adopt thy learner-centered teaching as a most effective and productive approach in education. Teachers should provide students with delivering the meaningful, conscious learning, enable students to aspire and to be ready to live meaningful life. According to Maslow (1970), self actualized people have the ability to live meaningful life and even though they have not fulfilled their basic needs, they still think life to be more meaningful which enables them to aspire towards the gratification of the basic and highest needs. Teachers while creating the learner entered environment should appreciate that lot of inexperienced learners are keen to choose worse rater that better without having steady ground for their choice, not being personally grown and aware of their own abilities and knowledge. Taking the student-centered approach in education is considered the way for meeting the productive and positive outcomes of the learners learning and teachers teaching. Teachers in this sense are considered to effective managers of the classroom, who generally engage in the process of implicit theorizing and deciding how to create and formulate effective learner-centered classroom policy to respond to the learners needs and the major aspects of their learning , personal abilities and potential development.

Teaching according to C. Rogers (1969, p. 103) means to instruct and teachers are instructors, to make it possible to make steady connection between knowledge and skills, to make students know but set them free to learn under the instructed guidance of the teacher within the balanced power classroom conditions. The whole process of learner-centered teaching is considered to be the automatic and immutable outcome of relevant and good teaching, where the main focus goes on the developing the pedagogical skills. Teachers and people in the field of education know more about teaching but less about learning (Weimer, 2002). This fact requires the need of many resources that direct attention from teaching to learning. There should be paid much attention in the instructional changes and the management practices concerning the effective educational changes.

Adopting the learner-centered approach in teaching requires very significant changes in education:

- Redistributing the balance of power within the classroom
- Taking long-standing assumptions about the teaching and learning goals
- Making steady and effective link between material delivery and real learning
- Making the role of the teacher even more important and indispensible in the process

Facilitative teacher motivates, empowers, drives and encourages the learners, guides them to the learner centered direction, to become active participants in the ongoing processes in the classroom life, to think logically and be problem solvers, be real and life-long learners. In the student centered classroom teacher holds many and diverse activities for actualizing the learners inner potential, seeking their talents, provoking their interests and discovering and rediscovering their real needs and abilities for the future usage and realization

Shifting from teacher-centeredness to student centered approach

Traditional education, also dubbed "teacher-centered learning", situates the teacher as the primarily "active" role while students take a more "passive", receptive role. In a teacher-centered classroom, teachers choose what the students will learn, how the students will learn, and how the students will be assessed on their learning. Teacher-centered typically refers to learning situations in which the teacher asserts control over the material that students, the teacher tends to be the most active person who does most of the talking while students spend most of their time sitting in desks, listening, taking notes, giving brief answers to questions that the teacher asks, or completing assignments and tests. In teacher-centered classrooms, teachers may also decide to teach students in ways that are easy, familiar, or personally preferred, but that might not work well for some students or use instructional techniques shown to be most effective for improving learning.

Teaching in the old and traditional teacher-entered conditions meant quite different, centralized and fully controlled actions committed on the learners, but world has gone much further from that point of the history. Now it needs update and the education should face all the challenges of the technologically developed, person- centric world. Teachers should ask themselves several questions while setting their learner-centered teaching goals:

- How can students be set free in the courses they did not choose?
- How can the instructor let their students to meet their needs, follow and fulfill their learning and personal goals?
- How can teaching and the course curriculum help them to achieve their goals and facilitate their learning?
- Where is the border line between teachers' and students' learning and teaching responsibilities?

Learner-centered approach pointed the new role of the teacher in education, very unlike and different form the traditional one, this role is new and challenging, the role in this approach of the teacher is not optional, it is alternative and motivational, comprises different and divers activities, constant updating and motion ahead often and regularly. Realizing the importance of active engagement in the process and encouraging the students to be innovative on the basis of the teacher guided innovative instructions and activities. Learning itself indispensably requires constant discovering and novelty, active connection between subject and object matters.

Good, learner centered teacher always know when to stop, hesitate, be pushed back and when to lit a fire, give drive and lead. Teachers should take brain-based (Doyle, 2008, p. x.) approaches not only themselves, but also for their learners, showing and explaining through various methods and activities how their brain works and how their abilities should be applied, how they can learn more effectively and get positive and productive learning outcomes. Teachers while shaping the learning environment, making contours and designing the whole process, should increase the active participation of their learners in the process. All those metaphors comprise the role of the teacher in the learner-centered environment, and the portrait of the student-centered instructor, as the guide, facilitator, keeping their attention and focus on the learners and the real learning process, making it authentic and meaningful.

There are several principles describing the teachers' role in the learner-centered perspective:

Principle1: Teachers should quit doing most of the learning task, organizing material and its content, inventing examples, generating the questions, answering the questions, summarizing the content and discussions, solving and tackling the problems , offer many and interesting approaches, getting their learners involved, participating, motivating and actualizing them.

Principle 2: Teachers Do less Telling; Students Do More Discovering. Learner-centered approach requires less talk from the teacher and most discovering form the learners

Principle 3: Teachers Do More Design Work. In the learner-centered environment, teachers role in the instructional design aspect are even more important. Those activities, methods and assignment teachers make and prepare for the learners are the major tools through which the learning occurs as the real and authentic process. There are several stages comprising the teachers' major role in design work:

Well organized and designed activities lead learners from the present already obtained knowledge and skill to the new and more interesting and productive competence. The sequences of the learning experiences the learners obtain are regulated to be not too easy and too difficult, related to each other and built on each other.

The assignment teachers invent should focus on learners' productivity, motivation, interest and active involvement in the process

The assignment should serve the principle of learning for the purpose of usage, nor for the purpose for grades, should they not be fake, artificial, but authentic and real.

All the set activities and methods should serve one and the most important goal to increase students' self-actualization, self awareness and sense of responsibility for their learning.

Principle 4: Class Does More Modeling, The best way to do define the role of the master in the classroom as the role of the teacher, and to get to know how the work of the instructor is productive and goal oriented, is to look trough the learners' learning skills and their skillful approaches in the learning tasks. Doing more modeling in class by the students favors experiencing the learning process regularly. The process of modeling can be held in several ways:

By doing simple but important thing oriented to the learners' interest, on the basis f their age and current learning and individual abilities

Inventing the cases for making the learners more engaged and participated in the problem-solving process.

Promoting the learners minds work creatively and asking questions to get to know what goes on in their minds.

Sharing ideas with students, teacher to students and student with one another is an active and well organized well regulated debate format.

These ways, according to M. Weimer (2002, p.87-88), motivate the learners to be self reflected learners, to get more experience, to be ready as lifelong learners and productive and well prepared for their future career, being more realized and risk takers.

Principle 5: Teachers should do more to get students to learn from the teachers and from each other. This principle is focused on the significance of the group working and team building leadership environment within the learner-centered classroom management. This principle makes it important to promote the students' working together, to promote their collaborative, communicative and cooperative skills.

Principle 6: Creating climate for Working and Giving More Feedback. Learner centered approach ensures the affective educational climate for learners, getting positive learning outcomes. The role of the teachers instead of only creating and designing the whole process of teaching and activities should be oriented on creating and maintaining relevant, desirable and motivational conditions to learning. Those well, organized activities are which focuses not only inner classroom life but out of the school life within the whole class and learners, creating the comfortable learning environment and desirable climate for learners to learn.

Teachers can use different ways of optimizing their students learning. Doyle (2008) figures out the four possible ways of it:

1. Involving students in first-hand learning that means first step of the process is to change the attitude of the learners towards their work and role. Students still want their teachers to be more active and dictate their every action. By engaging students in the first hand learning, will make them feel their learning experience, figure out and discover the learning points themselves, make connection between their learning and life, the real world around them

2. Freedom of choice motivates and drives students to be more active participant and taking their learning responsibilities. Students though the guidance of their teachers can easily acquire their nee role, improve their learning, change their behavior for better.
3. Teaching students life-long learning skills comprises usage of every methods and techniques to optimize the learners learning and skills of being independent learners. Those skills comprise being autonomous, independent and self-regulated ones. Managing to solve challenges the real and future world will present to them.
4. Promoting the relevance of learner-centered teaching, this aspect means to use teachers recourses for explaining students why is the learner-centered teaching must for their future success and convincing them to adapt to the approach.

Rogers (1969, p. 32) suggest concrete methods of being facilitative learner-oriented teacher. Teachers always should be oriented on the following basic elements: 1) Persons-teachers should make their students feel free in planning their learning goals. 2) Freedom can be academic freedom and inner (ibid, p.32). 3) Facilitative teaching and facilitative method in education is concentrated to be oriented on giving this kind of freedom to students and to the learners. 4) Teachers are free to set the teaching strategies fully oriented on the student centered educational features and learners are free to learn under the guidance of the learner centered teachers.

Interactions - this element determines the process of academic and inner freedom focuses on the relationship aspects. There are aspects determining the conditions of interaction (ibid, p.32):

- Confronting a real problem
- Having trust in the human organism
- Perception of the realness in the teacher and in the students
- Acceptance
- Empathy
- Recourse providing

The stages of creating the relevant conditions for learner-centered classroom interactions should be well organized and precisely followed, without understanding the real problem and challenges the goals will not be defined in a right way, without having trust in her/himself and with others the actions could not be performed within a team.

Procedures- procedure is the process if planning and maintaining the actions focusing on the only goal to give freedom to learn and to facilitate students learning for getting the positive and productive learning outcomes. The procedural element of facilitative teaching requires maintenance of the process of setting goals, reviewing them and discussing their anticipated and forthcoming challenges and outcomes, the methods of pursuing the goals and fulfilling the planned actions.

Responses available to students. According to B.F. Skinner (1948) cited in Rogers (1969, p. 34) the responses can be: "emitted" and "elicited". There are certain operators in learning requiring doing some effort to solve some problems, if the motivators up to the learner to choose and they are free in choosing and in acting, they are called "emitted" one.

The elicited response gives the motivation to perform the concrete action by stimulating the subject and, making hi/her focus on the concrete operant as a priority in that kind of situations.

Research

The research is qualitative and based on the questionnaire. The researcher conducted the research in 3 Georgian schools, two public and one private. The research was focused to the 16-18 year-old teens, secondary and high school pupils. The questions were based on M. Weimer's (2002) five key points of student-centered teaching. The research participants were 10-th, 11-th and 12-th graders and teachers.

The questionnaire measured the teacher's role in the learning and teaching process within 4 factors Weimer (1988):

- Classroom environment
- Course material review
- Self evaluation
- Need improvement

The answers of the questions were measured according the below mentioned rubrics:

Active (more teachers centered)

Passive (no balance)

Balanced (student-centered)

The table #1 and table #2 show the results of the research:

10th graders: twenty-two pupils and 3 teachers

Table #1: For pupils from 3 schools:

Options	Active	Passive	Balanced
Classroom environment	50% 11 pupils	9.1% 2 pupils	40.9% 9 pupils
Course material review	50% 11pupils	0%	50% 11 pupils
Self evaluation	45.4% 10 pupils	13.6% 3 pupils	%41 9 pupils
Need improvement	41% 9 pupils	0%	59% 13 pupils

Total %	46.6%	5.7%	47.7%

According to the tab/#1 we that conclude that there is slight difference between the teacher- centeredness and student-centeredness, still the balance is not kept.

For teachers:

Table #2

Options	Active	Passive	Balanced
Classroom environment	33.% 1 teacher		66.7% 2 teachers
Course material review	33.3% 1 teacher	0%	66.7% 2 teachers
Self evaluation	33.3% 1 teachers	0%	66.7% 2 teachers
Need improvement	66.7% 2 teachers	0%	33.3% 1 teacher
Total %	41.7%	0%	58.3%

Table #2 shows that teachers consider themselves to be more student-centered than their pupils consider them they are, according to the results teachers of 10 graders are more student centered but the percentage of their being teacher centered is till high 41.7 %.

Table #3 and table #4 show the results of 11-th graders' as for pupils (30 pupils total) and as well as for teachers(2 teachers) out of above mentioned schools.

Table #3 for pupils

Options	Active	Passive	Balanced
Classroom environment	43.3% 13 pupils	16.7% 5 pupils	40% 12 pupils
Course material review	46.7%	3.3%	50%

	14 pupils	1 pupil	15 pupils
Self evaluation	46.7% 14 pupils	6.6% 2 pupils	46.7% 14 pupils
Need improvement	50% 15 pupils	13.3% 4 pupils	36.7% 11 pupils
Total %	46.6%	10%	43.4%

11-th graders, according to the table # 3 consider their teachers more teacher centered compared to the answers of the 10 graders. Based on their answers there seems to be some steps to make the classroom student centered but still is more teacher-centered. 46.6% teacher centered. Some of them 10% consider there is no balance and teachers are not active at all, neither teacher centered nor student centered; only 43.4% consider their teacher to be student-centered. The results of the 11-graders are more diverse and reflects the students' clear attitude towards the classroom process than it was in 10 graders, as none of the 10 graders considered that there was no balance 0%.

Table #4 for teachers

Options	Active	Passive	Balanced
Classroom environment	50% 1 teacher	0%	50% 1 teacher
Course material review	50% 1 teacher	0%	50% 1 teacher
Self evaluation	0%	0%	100% 2 teacher
Need improvement	50% 1 teacher	0%	50% 1 teacher
Total %	37.5%	0%	62.5%

Teachers of the 11-th graders according to the table, consider themselves to be more student –centered, in spite of the fact, that their students do not think so, and consider them to be more teacher-centered.

Table #5 and table #6 show the results of 12-th graders' as for pupils (25 pupils total) and as well as for teachers(3 teachers) out of above mentioned schools.

Table #5 for 25 pupils

options	Active	Passive	Balanced
Classroom environment	56% 14 pupils	0%	44% 11pupils
Course material review	48% 12 pupils	0%	52% 13 pupils
Self evaluation	80% 20 pupils	12% 3 pupils	8% 2 pupils
Need improvement	52% 13 pupils	20% 5 pupils	28% 7 pupils
Total %	59%	8%	33%

12-th graders according to the results consider their teachers to be more teacher-centered like 11-th grades, but they also consider that their teachers are sometimes or seldom student centered too.

Table #6 for teachers

options	Active	Passive	Balanced
Classroom environment	0%	0%	100% 3 teachers
Course material review	100% 3 teachers	0%	0%
Self evaluation	66.7% 2 teachers	0%	33.3% 1 teacher
Need improvement	66.7% 2 teachers	0%	33.3% 1 teacher
Total %	58.3%	0%	41.7%

Teachers of 12-th graders occur to be more teacher, as they indicated it in their answers according to the table #6.

Table 7 show the overall results of the teachers role in the aspect of Classroom environment

Classroom environment	students	teachers

Active(teacher centered)	49.4 %	25 %
Passive(no balance)	9 .1%	0%
Balanced (students entered)	41.5 %	75 %

Table #8 shows the overall results of the role of the teacher in the aspect of course material review

Course material review	students	teachers
Active(teacher centered)	47.0 %	62.5 %
Passive(no balance)	1.3 %	0%
Balanced (students entered)	51.0 %	37.5%

Table #9 shows the overall results of the role of the teacher in the aspect of Self evaluation

Self evaluation	students	teachers
Active(teacher centered)	57.2 %	37.5 %
Passive(no balance)	10.3%	0 %
Balanced (students entered)	32.4 %	62.5 %

Table #10 shows the overall results of the role of the teacher in the aspect of Needs Improvement

Needs Improvement	students	teachers
Active(teacher centered)	48 %	62.5 %
Passive(no balance)	11.7 %	0 %
Balanced (students entered)	40.3 %	37.5 %

Table #11 shows the overall results for total 77 pupils' and 8 teachers' actualization

Active(teacher centered)	Students 50.6%	Teachers 46.8 %
Passive(no balance)	Students 8.2%	Teachers 0 %
Balanced(students-centered)	Students 41.3 %	Teachers 53. 1 %

According to the tables # 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 we may conclude that teachers are still more teacher-centered than student-centered, but there are some steps made by the teachers to make themselves more student-centered. The results show that students are active, as they participated and expressed their attitude, they can evaluate themselves and their teacher, the whole process of the classroom management. Based on the research we may conclude that the situation is not too critical. We have very little percentage of No Balance or Passiveness of the students and teachers, but some concrete steps should be made.

Recommendations

Rogers considers Facilitation as the only and effective means to form the productive student-centered classroom management and learner-oriented teaching.

Gaining Learners' trust-Making the classroom learn-centered teachers never do without gaining the trust from their students, according Rogers (1969. P. 75). Teaching should develop the trust in students; trust in the goals and to foster feeling trust in them, having the inner freedom as individuals.

Make learners be responsible and active-Facilitative learn-centered teachers can maintain such king of learners' community, where they are motivated to take charge in their roles and responsibilities as learners in the educational process, be active participants having their voice and saying in creating the students-centered classroom management and environment. Creating the learning climate oriented to foster learners learning abilities to become real learner, creative scientists and scholars, practitioners and kind of self-actualized and self grown individuals (Rogers, 1969, p. 105).

Being Real-Teacher should always be real, Rogers (1969, p.106) considers that when a facilitator teacher is a real person, being what he/she is without pretending, is much more like to gain trust from the learners and effective outcomes.

Care-Teachers should express an active caring to their students that means to maintain the prizing and making the learners feel worth in the process. Accept students' fear and resistance, stress and negative attitudes as fact and problems to be improved, making students feel as individuals and an inevitably important member of the whole team of classroom learners'.

Bear responsibility-Instructor, and facilitative teacher in order to be successful in maintaining student-centered classroom climate, According to Rogers(1969,p.39) should bear the responsibility for maintaining his/her own interests, providing facilitative methods to the learners on the basis of educational and psychological aspect. Getting students first feel comfort and freedom in the process, tale responsibility and charge of their role in the learning, equip them with needed skills , empowering them concentrate on their potentials, learning and personal abilities , setting their learning and professional goals through making them self-reliant and self actualized lifelong learners.

Effective learner centered teachers should know what is necessary for the learners to know. Construction of knowledge is always generated from that one already perceived or believed before, ere the stake is on those beliefs which may either be or turn to be false and which determines our perception of reality.

Developing learners skills and awareness in learning, is one of the indispensable issue in the learner centered approach in the sense of function of content, this aspect itself implies some sub aspects:

Think developmentally, this means to equip learners with those skills to think holistically, developmentally and intellectually.

Taking advantage of the Need-to Know and Ready-to-Learn Moments, to get the meaning of the real concept of the content. Teachers should focus on the age and intellectual level of the students to use the material so that students catch the meaning, discover the sense in the content are ready to learn and need more or further activities for development.

Partner positively with Learning Center Professional, means when the mutual understanding and communication skills are well adjusted and applied by the learners. Teachers should beyond the learning skills teach and motivate learners to develop social and communication skills, so called help-seeking behaviors, to benefit their lifelong learning and their actualization as future professionals, mates and for the development their personal growth.

Use Supplementary material, means that those supplementary materials are mostly very productive and fruitful for the development of the learner's critical thinking, holistically thinking, problem solving and mutual understanding. The material should be chosen mutually on the agreement of the teacher and the learners and linked to the main content of the material. Teachers are obliged to think very attentively about choosing the material, as it should give something new but not should be deviated from the main concept of the material. It should develop learners' creativity, innovatively thinking skills and sharing the ideas. Learning Skills Development comprises all the above mentioned skills and even more, there is some more concrete technical aspect of learning skills in the sense of the function of content, which are (Weimer p. 60)

Discussion

Looking to the learners' behavior, one will discover that, what we see, greatly reflects the instructor dominated actions, as they are too weak in having responsibility in their own decisions in the learning process and lack motivation to be independent learners guided by the teacher, they rely on someone, on the teacher to dictate, prompt or even order what to do, they require to be pushed to make some actions. Getting students being active, decision makers, having freedom of choice and active participants in the class in the learning is not an easy work, as if the teacher hesitates to give answer what to do , they miss the point and are at a complete loss. Teachers often blame students in being lazy, reluctant, wanting teachers being used and making most of the talk in most of the time. But we may put the question: Do they really and honestly believe their being at school is for being passive and dependent, as they appear? This is the fundamental question in this sense making it clearer what is the role of the learners and what is the role of the teacher in education.

Conclusion

Creating the learner centered environment is one of the most important means optimizing the students learning, educators need to apply new and existed methods , practices and principles which develop knowledge , skills and attitudes that will increase the learners' learning achievements and teachers productivity. On the bases of human nature of the learners, they are confident only the when they know why do the teachers want them to be active, collaborative and responsible and what are those benefits for learners those skills can give. By creating meaningful learning , sharing control, keeping balance of power, realizing their roles, taking their personal and learning responsibility, being collaborative and cooperative, teachers will manage to optimize the students learning and lead them to reach the state of being lifelong learners. The first needed step to make for teachers is to equip students to the adaptation skills to be well adjusted to the changes. Learning is not only receiving or absorbing information passively, but it is process of active and effective application of the knowledge. For promoting the learner-centered approach there should be connection between the practice and the reality already discovered and experienced. The bridge between the reality, research based data, practice and theory is hardly needed to be built. The question is who should do and match this connection. This is the responsibility for everyone and for no one definitely, as all those persona lies being in the educational process are equally responsible to do the task.

Educators who adopt the learner centered approach in teaching make significant focus on development of the learners' collaborative and cooperative skills which contribute to students' critical thinking abilities, participation in the classroom activities and ability to take ownership over their learning. By taking the students-centered approach teachers make it possible to create an environment where students are free to learn, free to make choices and are inspired to develop skills of creativity, generate new ideas about their learning and be confidents , have the inner freedom of being real and themselves. Student-centered teaching enables learners to acquire the needed skills to use them in their future practice and be lifelong self directed, self regulated and self reliant actualized learners (Moate, 2015).

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TEACHING DISCOURSE MARKERS WITH TED TALKS: A CORPUS-BASED APPROACH

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Abstract

The author discusses the category of coherence and the variety of linguistic resources available for its manifestation and presents a research that aimed at analyzing the expression of coherence through the use of connectives in TED talks. Connectives like ‘so’, ‘also’, and some other performing the function of structuring texts are a common type of discourse markers in the English language. While DM in general have been widely explored in earlier studies, few have dealt with connectives particularly in a specific genre on the basis of corpus data. The use of corpus linguistics for language description comprises the majority of its use for language learning (McEnery & Xiao, 2011). A number of smaller and often genre-specific corpora has emerged but, these smaller 'in-house' corpora do not usually spread beyond the institution where they have been created (Aston & 1995). In this work the author describes an in-house corpus of TED talks designed specifically for biological students’ needs and investigates how the application of corpus linguistics to pedagogy, ESP and AEP in particular, enhances undergraduate science students’ ability to discuss their theses. The three aspects in which corpus linguistics is applied to teaching are syllabus design, materials development, and classroom activities (Barlow 2002). Concordancing tasks were integrated into classroom teaching and made use of in-house corpus of TED talks. Concordancing tasks were designed to focus on DM usage identified in students' ability to discuss their own and related research.

Key Words: DM, TED talks, ESP, in-house corpus, data-driven learning.

Goals and motivation

Corpora have been used by linguists for different purposes for over forty years, howerver language instructors in Russia are just beginning to have greater interest in exploiting corpora for teaching of foreign languages. Our major research focuses here is on discourse markers teaching. We assume that they are useful indicators of overall strategy adopted by users of language. But to understand why they take the linguistic decisions that they do - we need to understand whether there are cross-linguistic differences between varieties in the two languages (English and Russian) in any given situation.

The second main goal of the current study was to determine how corpus and DDL can be used to complement traditional vocabulary learning methods (i.e., with dictionaries and by guessing the meaning of a word from its context). In other words, what can DDL teach students about a word that traditional methods either cannot or fail to? And we also investigated how to design DDL activities best in order to teach discuorse markers and to support students’ intersest in learning.

In this research we are exploring the impact of language mode on students’ behavior. The major question we want to adress is whether in different modes - in written and spoken popular science - whether students behave differently or the same handling discourse markers in these settings. To describe the types of decisions that are taken we try to explore and reveal tendencies that might be prevalent in this or that mode of text.

Literature review

Leech wrote in 1997, corpora can have a direct or indirect effect on the language classroom. Indirectly, corpora are impacting the language classroom because they are being used by materials developers to create improved reference materials, and textbooks. Furthermore, corpora are being exploiting by language instructors to inform syllabus and course design, and to create tests, corpora have been used to create both general academic, and discipline specific wordlists (Flowerdew, 1993; Bernardini, 2004; Boulton, 2008; Coxhead, 2000; 2002; Wang, Liang, & Guang-chun, 2008).

For the purposes of this research we define the discourse markers as a class of elements that have a common function to help interprete discourse rather than add to its logical propositional content. Discourse markers in general are widely used in language variation of different types: cross-linguistic (Frankenberg-Garcia, 2012); generic, stylistic (Biber et al., 1998); cross-disciplinary (Gavioli, 1997).

Discourse markers are classified into connectives, which are responsible for organising the discourse content, pragmatic markers which mostly convey the speaker's attitude and emotions, and elements which code speaker-hearer interaction. These include pause markers, attention getting signals, hedges, and markers of speech acts, turns in a conversation. The connectives - which we are mostly intersted in - structure conceptual content of text, and they signal logical cognitive relations between parts of text. Some examples that we find most interesting and helpful to our students are:

•in other words, which is to say, furthermore;

•it follows that, hence, therefore;

•instead, by way of contrast/comparison, despite this;

•lastly, briefly, meanwhile, on the whole.

And it is reasonable given their properties –they usually have higher frequency than other lexemes, they are syntactical paranthetical, they are structurally independent, and in each language they form a more or less defined cluster of words so it makes it possible to create limited lists. All these properties - low information salience included – make them in effect worht spacial attention.

Experment and data

In this part of the paper we would share our experience of teaching a module on corpora use within teaching English for specific purposes and English for academic perposes for undergraduate students majoring in Biology. It has 18 hours of contact time and aims at introducing junior students to basic corpus skills, ready-made online corpora and enhance the acquisition of vocabulary, DM in particular.

In order to prepare students for DDL work, they participated in training sessions. In session one, the students were given a brief introduction to corpus linguistics. Only those items that would help the students understand and appreciate the DDL materials were discussed since these were English language learners, not students of linguistics. Specifically, the students were told what a corpus was, what concordance lines were, and they were shown how activities were created by performing an in- class search of the word using COCA. This brief introduction was given so that the students would understand and not be distracted by the concordance lines in the DDL activity, and so they would better appreciate the information (e.g., grammatical features, collocates, discourse functions, etc.) about a vocabulary item that is revealed by performing computerized searches of a keyword, and that was represented in printed form when it is given to them as a DDL activity. In session two, the students were given a short lecture accompanied by a hand-out on collocations so they would understand how to approach the section of the DDL activity that asked them to identify these language chunks in the data.

In order to create the materials for the training sessions and the experiment, we compiled a corpus composed of texts taken from TED Talks. Our in-house (small-scale) corpus includes 90 TED talks in defferent areas of Life Science including but not limited by- oceanography, entomology, ornithology, developmental biology, bioengineering, molecular biology. There are 98 551 tokens in it and the timeframe is from 2003 to 2015.

The corpus was created by text files provided in TED website which were saved, then manually checked for errors as the scripts are automatically generated. So we thought, it is necessary to read the full texts before they are used for creating DDL activities. After the text files were cleaned up and saved, they were searched using Laurence Anthony's AntConc concordancing software (Anthony, 2008). Though there are many concordancers available on the market, Laurence Anthony's software was chosen because it is a free download, available on his webpage and contained all the search capabilities needed to create DDL activities for this study. We are fully aware that because the corpus was unbalanced (i.e., contained texts from the biology field only), search results could not be considered representative of academic language in general.

Essentially, there are two ways to directly engage students in corpus work in the classroom: 1) they can be given direct access to a corpus and concordancing program on a computer; or 2) they can be given print-outs containing the raw data, or concordance output, from a corpus (Hadley, 2002; Johns, 2000a, 2000b). The current study focused on teaching Discourse students to learners who had never engaged in corpus-based work prior to this, and therefore needed to be exposed to this "first stage" of corpus consultation in order to become familiar with how to use and analyze concordance results (Leech, 1997; Chambers, 2005); though, students should ultimately be given access and taught how to use online corpora to encourage and support autonomous language learning beyond the classroom.

We start the course from the simpliest– something like 'repeat after me' kind of tasks. They demonstrate interface functions and ask to evaluate or edit somebody else's variant. Further on students are expected to generate their own variants in this particular exercise. Our major teaching objective at this stage is to lure students into corpora, to develop a habit to check their choices with appropriate corpora, to make them feel more confident with their variants.

Many researchers have outlined the uses and benefits of using DDL or concordance output to teach vocabulary (Cobb, 1997; Conrad, 2005; Horst, Cobb, & Nicolae, 2005; Reppen & Simpson, 2002; Stevens, 1991; Thurstun & Candlin, 1998). These studies as well as our own experience have demonstrated how traditional vocabulary activities (e.g., fill-in-the-blank or matching exercises) benefit from being based on authentic texts and also exposing students to multiple, novel contexts at one time.

In his book (Sinclair, 2003) which we mainly used to construct our tasks and exercices Sinclair supplied language instructors with ideas for creating corpus-based vocabulary activities, such as

Categorize or separate the word according to its part of speech

Categorize or separate each part of speech according to its meaning. How many meanings for the word did you find?

Give a definition for each meaning you found in the data.

Look at the language data again according to its part of speech. This time locate any recurring patterns in the data that you think are idiomatic phrases or collocations.

Create one original sentence for each meaning of the word.

This kind of exercises based on the corpus material can be used to introducing vocabulary with high expectancy rate of mistakes, DM included.

Results and discussion

Corpus-based activities are viewed as being consistent with a variety of principles and learning goals within the paradigm, which currently dominates the English language teaching (ELT) profession. First, concordance output exposes learners to linguistic phenomena in authentic contexts, which learners have to analyze and categorize inductively (i.e., they must categorize the data and are thus lead to discover the rules of the language on their own). Furthermore, the redefined role of the learner as researcher shifts control of learning from teacher to student, causing the classroom to become more student-centered during these activities. Finally, corpus- based activities are thought to increase learner autonomy as students are taught how to observe language and make generalizations rather than depending on a teacher for that.

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WHAT CAN BE DONE TO MAKE OUR SCHOOLS SAFER PLACES?

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Abstract

Children are our (individuals' and country's) future, the most precious thing that we have. Lack of safety in schools entails school drop-outs, parents' lack of desire to send the child to school, children's depressions, lack of academic achievement, and unhealthy atmosphere in the community where the cases of violence occur. So safety in school, where children spend a considerable part of their time, should be an issue of state policy and not just the challenge of particular schools, parents or city governance. The situation in the USA, where things are not too good, but where, at the same time, significant measures are taken to improve the situation, and in Georgia, where no such systemic approach exists, will be compared. A questionnaire was applied to find out the public opinion in Georgia on the issue, and some recommendations to parents, school administrations and educational governmental bodies were developed.

Key words: school safety, violence, sexism, genderism, discrimination, bullying, cyber-bullying, educational projects against violence, moral education, safety education, dignity safety

Introduction

Children are our (individuals' and country's) future, the most precious thing that we have. Children's safety at school begins with measures on health protection (sanitary conditions, ergonomic architecture and furniture, warning signs, etc.), not viewed in detail in this paper, however, also tremendously important, and ends in sexism/genderism, discrimination according to culture, ethnicity, and race, bullying and violence (including the sexual one). "Any instance of crime or violence at school not only affects the individuals involved, but also may disrupt the educational process and affect bystanders, the school itself, and the surrounding community" (Brookmeyer, Fanti, & Henrich, 2006; Goldstein, Young, & Boyd, 2008 cited in Indicators of School Crime and Safety: 2016, 2017). So their safety in school, where they spend a considerable part of time, should be an issue of state policy.

Literature review

Unfortunately, the situation in many schools is far from safe. In the USA, for example, 48 school-associated deaths were registered between July 2013 and June 2014 (during one academic year). "A school-associated violent death is defined as a homicide, suicide, or legal intervention death (involving a law enforcement officer), in which the fatal injury occurred on the campus of a functioning elementary or secondary school in the United States, while the victim was on the way to or from regular sessions at school, or while the victim was attending or traveling to or from an official school-sponsored event. Victims include students, staff members, and others who are not students or staff members" (Musu-Jilette et al., 2017, p. III). Besides, during one academic year in 2015 among middle and high-schoolers there were more than eight hundred thousand cases of non-fatal victimization (from theft to physical assault) and about 21% of teenagers were reported bullied.

Due to measures taken, the rate of crime at schools in the USA from 1992 to 2013 was decreasing, including cases with shooting, however, violent crime increased from 2010 to 2013 from 17 to 37 per thousand students (Carlton, 2017). Take, for example the recent February 14, 2018 case in a Florida high school where a former student expelled from the school for fighting his former girlfriend's new boyfriend came armed to school and killed 17 people, mostly schoolchildren (Spenser & Kennedy, 2018). Besides the general problem of easy availability of guns in the USA (which is not the case in Georgia), there is an obvious and typical for many countries problem with this case, when, instead of following the fight case (probably, with the help of psychologists and police), the school chose to get rid of the undesirable student, thus only heating the conflict.

In Georgia there is no all-country statistics like in the USA. The statistical organization – Geostat or National Statistics Office of Georgia - provides only the information on crime victim children under the age of 17. Their number has been growing fast from 191 in 2011 to 657 in 2016 (Geostat 2017). It is not mentioned, however, how much of this deals with victimization at home, in the street and at school. In 2016 146 teenagers ages 14-17 were sentenced for criminal action, which reveals that children safety is not on a high level. If we take into consideration that in 2016 564,700 children attended school, the number of those who suffered from crime or committed it is quite high. Again, there is no info on whether the crime was school-associated or not. Having no adequate statistics, on the one hand, lets it look as if the problem is not so acute, and, on the other hand, does not permit to investigate the causes.

We all remember well the December 1, 2017 case in Tbilisi, when two teenagers were killed by their peers. I more than 100% agree with Sophio Gorgodze (interview by Mikhail Gvadzabia, 2017) who says there should exist a state system of measures to prevent /deal with such cases. The Minister of Education and Science of Georgia mentioned that some educational projects against violence in schools should be introduced, the mandates' work should be improved, and the police should be more involved in conflicts that occur near the schools. But this is far from enough. One-time measures when tragic incidents occur are a wrong approach. A preventive system should be constantly existent to reduce this threat. Educative (upbringing) work is practically no longer carried out in our schools, which should be regularly done in the frames of all courses, especially the humanities ones, as well as through extracurricular work. Teachers and administration are all the time stressed by the constant changes going on and make in fact no effort to upbring the children. Ministry of Education and Science and schools should be working with society through mass media to help parents upbring their children. Not separate anti-bullying events after certain tragic cases, but a system of administration, teacher, parent and schoolchildren upbringing education / training should be running. They need to learn to recognize and deal with bullying, need to realize this is not just a boy fighting another boy once in a while, but it is a dangerous social phenomenon, spreading worldwide more and more, especially with the technical possibilities of cyber-bullying. Generally, parent-school association should become stronger and deal not only with schoolchildren's academic success, but also with their moral education. Parents should care more about their children's inner lives, not only about their health, clothes, lessons and entertainment. And, last but not least, children should be more open with parents and school and address them for help in problem situations.

Concerning sexism/genderism, sexual harassment and violence, as well as discrimination, the threat may come not only from students, but also from teachers and administration. Only internal control, correspondingly, is insufficient. Governmental bodies and non-governmental organizations dealing with education, security, health and youth should have programs for prevention and protection. Lack of tolerance and understanding, deficit of equality in relationships between various social groups in society and at school are a grave problem. It is especially dangerous, if it comes from school administration, which implies an unsafe climate at school. These issues are so delicate that, for instance, according to Wagner (2017), 80% of victims of sexual violence do not report it. When enrolling your children to high schools / colleges, one of the essential questions asked, according to Wagner, should be "How safe is the school?" Parents also cannot totally rely on what administration says, but should check with mass media and acquaintances whose children attend the school.

Bullying itself as purposeful aggressive behavior repeated over time, which aims to harm physically or morally, may be less dramatic than murder, however, all three types of bullying: physical, verbal and social (Varjas et al., 2009) - unless stopped, may eventually lead to both murder and suicide, this is why, to undertake anti-bullying measures school should not wait for dramatic events, but do its best to prevent them. The fact that bullying is usually committed by the elder and stronger towards the younger and weaker makes it difficult to discover (as the victims are afraid to report), unless there are very observant and based on trust relationships between students and teachers, administration and the support personnel (school psychologist, mandatories). Smith and Smith (2014) mention that bullying is a reflection of the microcosm of the society, so, unfortunately, no school nowadays is totally devoid of its threats.

To have an efficient system of measures for children's safety, besides practical steps, wide-scale research of the issue is necessary, involving specialists from education, psychology, sociology, law, and internal affairs. Organization for such research exists, for example, exists in the USA – Comprehensive School Safety Initiative (Carlton, 2017).

Hall (2016) views parents' involvement in their children's school life as one of the essential factors of children's safety (and perceived feeling of safety). By parents' involvement not only direct participation in certain school events, but also communication between teacher, administration and parents is meant.

According to Callan (2016), a component of safety in an educational institution is absence of discrimination dealing with race/ethnicity, gender, social class/SES, etc. Appearance (stout, short) may also be the pretext of mistreatment. Callan calls non-discriminating treatment 'dignity safety'. "To be dignity safe in a given social environment is to be free of any reasonable anxiety that others will treat one as having an inferior social rank to theirs" (p. 65). Thus, the issue is related to punishment and assessment, which have to be (and be perceived as) fair and non-humiliating. Administrators' and teachers' respect towards the student should not be merit-based. All students, and not only the academically successful and disciplined ones, have the right to be respected and treated correspondingly. A student who (fairly) was assessed lower than another one should have the right not to make his/her assessment public in order not to feel humiliated. With written work this can be easily observed, but with oral activities this is not always so, thus, it is better to avoid publicly announcing grades, whether orally or by hanging them on the wall / internet, especially taking into consideration the fact that nowadays with the help of electronic data and passwords it can be easily done. On the other hand, we do need to correct some mistakes immediately (in order to avoid fossilized errors), so this has to be done in as tactful form as possible.

Besides, all students need to win in competition (possibly, as team member) from time to time, to support their feeling of dignity. That is why participation (vs. winning) in competition should be anyway supported (for instance, by awarding certificate and prizes to all participants). Continuous mentorship is needed for students who are somehow mistreated by their peers.

Teacher-centered education may be efficient sometimes, but we need to keep in mind that only student-centered education treats students with respect: it takes into consideration students' needs, gives students enough floor to practice and express their views, permits them to participate in choosing topics, materials, activities, and assessment. No student questions should be left without attention, if not immediately, then, at least, in a delayed / electronic regime.

The Office of Shared Accountability Montgomery County Public Schools (2014, p. 9) views reports of all schools in the county, which involve the following systems of activities applied there, which would be very useful for Georgia, too:

- Character Education Programs
- Collaborative Problem Solving (CPS)
- Counseling Programs / Groups
- Conflict Resolution
- Red Ribbon Anti-Substance Abuse Program
- Peer mediation
- Mentoring Programs
- Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS)
- Safety Patrol Program
- Visitor Management System

According to Wespieser (2015), one third of young people who use social network sites made acquaintance with people through them and half of those people then met them in real life (the ratio of those young people is growing). One out of five young people have been bullied through social networks. Some young people have come across sites the contents of which made them worried. According to her, what school can / has to do to protect children against inappropriate network behavior and to stop youngsters behaving inappropriately, is:

- Teach children to be empathizing
- Help children report bullying
- Explain children how to identify "trusted adults" and "trusted friends"
- Teach children to be careful while sharing personal information and images
- Teach children to choose appropriate contents, games and sites
- Definitely, not only school, but also parents should be involved in the process.

Smith and Smith (2014) mention that schools, often aware of cases of bullying, avoid including the fact in statistics or actions against bullying - in the list of priorities of school policies. The researchers say that this hypocritical approach may impress those who commit bullying that they may stay unpunished. If a school does not mention students' safety as one of its priorities, it may not mean that the situation is safe, but, instead, that negligence towards the problem flourishes there, which may have dramatic consequences.

Research

A questionnaire done via Google Forms (link uploaded on social media) was applied. For a month the questionnaire was there, then the obtained results were analyzed. 219 people answered the questionnaire (see their profile in table 1). The respondents are rather representative of Georgian population (all ages are represented, especially the typical schoolchildren's parents' ones; both urban and rural respondents took part in the study, however, rural population is insufficiently represented due to the method of research - application of social media, which is less available there). The majority of the participants (91%) come from well-off families, due to the same reason. It also is necessary to comment that female respondents were much more active, as it usually is when the matter deals with children, which is another big problem not dealt with in this article.

Table 1. Participants' demographic data

Participants' age group	16-18	19-25	26-40		above 40
%	7.3%	30.6%	51.6%		10.5%
Participants' gender	m		f		
%	10.5		89.5%		
Residence	Tbilisi (the capital)	cities	small towns		villages
%	80.4%	5.5%	11%		3.2%
Family socio-economic status	well-off, with higher education	well-off, but with secondary or lower level of education	average, with higher education	average, with secondary or lower level of education	poor, with secondary or lower level of education
%	11.4%	0%	80.8%	6.4%	1.4%

Items had to be assessed from 1 to 4 (1 completely disagree, 2 rather disagree, 3 rather agree, 4 completely agree). In table 2 find the obtained results.

Table 2. Questionnaire results

Item	1	2	3	4	mean	SD
1. During my life at school I / my child or close relative was at least once humiliated, bullied, or treated with violence.	22.8%	21.5%	27.9%	27.9%	2.60009	1.12015
2. If item 1 is answered positively (176 participants): I / s/he could never share this problem with family.	39.2%	22.7%	19.9%	18.2%	2.4545	3.36846
3. If item 1 is answered positively (162 participants): I / s/he could never share this problem at school (with teachers, psychologist or administration).	32.7%	21.0%	20.4%	25.9%	2.3952	1.191189
4. I/ my child / somebody I know well was at least once cyber-bullied.	35.6%	25.6%	17.8%	21.0%	2.2615	1.7598
5. I believe that the situation in public schools in Georgia is not sufficiently safe.	3.7%	9.1%	24.2%	63.0%	3.4633	0.80952
6. I believe that the situation in private	11.9%	23.3%	33.8%	31.1%	2.8349	0.9972

schools in Georgia is safer than in public schools.						
7. I am aware of certain research on school safety in Georgia.	44.3%	27.9%	13.7%	14.2%	1.9679	1.06640
8. I am aware of some educational measures for schoolchildren to protect their safety at school	34.2%	37.0%	18.3%	10.5%	2.0413	0.96632
9. I am aware of some educational measures for parents to protect their children's safety.	60.3%	24.7%	6.8%	8.2%	1.6239	0.92869
10. I am aware of some educational measures for teachers / administration to protect safety at school.	38.4%	31.1%	18.7%	11.9%	2.0367	1.02437
11. I believe that a system of measures in Georgia to provide children's safety, involving legislation, education, and security governmental and non-governmental	5.0%	4.6%	10.5%	79.9%	3.6514	0.79022

bodies as well as wider society (via mass-media) is needed.						
12. I believe there exists an efficient system of measures in Georgia to provide children's safety, involving legislation, education, and security governmental and non-governmental bodies as well as wider society (via mass-media).	24.2%	32.9%	22.4%	20.5%	2.5688	3.01109
13. There are / were tight links between parents and school to which I / my children / my close relatives' children go / went.	20.1%	35.6%	25.1%	19.2%	2.4266	1.0147

More than half of the respondents answered positively (M=2.6, SD=1.1) – that at least once they/their children were bullied or treated with violence at school, however, the answers' scope differs a lot. The mean (average result), which equals 2.6 shows that the opinion is rather supported (M> 2.1), the standard deviation (SD=1.1) is rather high (SD>1.0), which means that opinions are rather various. In the majority of items the standard deviation is above 1, which means that the opinions of individual respondents vary a lot, so for these items this comment will not be done for each case. The standard deviation is lower than 1 in a few items (although a homogeneous response needs a SD<0.5), so only on these items the respondents have similar enough views (the comment will be made).

122 respondents had to assess the next two items, however, more respondents assessed them. There was a little misunderstanding, it looks like it were those who chose answers 2→ 4. Anyway, the trend is visible: almost half of the respondents are unable to discuss the cases of bullying and violence in the family (38.1%, M=2.5, SD=3.4) and even less

at school (46.3%, M=2.4, SD=1.2). This implies parents and school have to deserve children's trust, so that they are ready to share their problems.

Cyberbullying is quickly spreading in our society (38.8% of the respondents confirm at least one case of cyberbullying; M=2.3, SD=1.8).

Only 12.8% of the respondents disagree that public schools in Georgia are not sufficiently safe (M=3.4, SD=0.8), the majority are quite unanimous in low assessment of our schools' safety. Although there is a widely spread belief that private schools are safer than state ones, just 64.9% of the respondents think so, others have certain – reasonable - doubts.

Now let us see how the respondents view the measures taken to improve the situation. 72.2% of the respondents (M=2.0, SD=1.0) are unaware of any research taken on the issue. They are quite unanimous in their opinion. I would be very grateful if somebody informs me on such a research, as I could find no info on it on the internet. A bit fewer respondents (71.2%) are unaware of educational measures for schoolchildren taken in order to protect them (M=1.6; SD=0.9). It does not imply that no measures are taken, but it does imply that the measures are unsystematic, insufficient and ineffective. 30.6% of the respondents are aware of the measure taken to educate teachers and administration in this direction (M=2.0, SD=1.0). Again the respondents are rather unanimous in their views on the issue. As the situation is relatively good in this respect, the respondents are more aware about the measures.

Almost all respondents (94.4%; M=3.7, SD=0.8) believe that a systematic approach to solving the problem is needed. At the same time less than a half of the respondents (42.9%; M=2.6, SD=3.1) believe such a system exists in Georgia. Among the rings of the chain of measures that have to be taken parents-school connection is one of the central ones. However, many respondents don't believe it is strong enough (44.3%, M=2.4; SD=1.0)

Conclusions

As expected, bullying and violence is a real problem in our schools, both public and private, but especially the former ones. Insufficient in number and unsystematic measures are being taken to provide out children's safety at school. Although this research is limited in participants' numbers, it is more or less representative and it demonstrates that urgent systematic measures have to be taken. These measures should be coordinated and involve, in fact, the whole society – legislators, government, educationalists, parents, mass-media and public-in-large.

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INTEGRATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL SPACE IN EUROPE ON THE EXAMPLE OF THE BOLOGNA PROCESS

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Abstract

In contemporary Europe, the processes, which are connected with the unification, concern the different problems, which are going beyond of the European Union. Even more, the new spheres, which start to be developed by the unified rule are appeared. To such new fields are belonged the high education. At the same time, if today Europe includes 28-member states (including UK) and 60-years history, the integration processes in the field of high education, which gained the name of Bologna process and which started at the end of 90-th, in the current period covers 40 European states. By the other words, the integration in the field of high education has become this sphere, which is developing extremely intensively, despite the language barrier, existence the national characters in the field of education, which were formulating by centuries etc.

Keywords: Education, Bologna Process, quality, students

Introduction

Contemporary education - fundamental basis of the human vital activity, which is appeared as an integral, generalizing value of spiritual culture. Together with the political and legal culture, education forms the aesthetic and moral features of personality in the indissoluble connection with the life of society. The purpose of the functioning of the social institute of education in the society is shaping the intellectual-oral potential of nation. The effectiveness of the social institute of education must be studied from the positions of the complex approach, which assumes taking into consideration of the variety of the qualitatively varying subjects of education and system of the interrelationships and management.

Personality, with respect to the state institutes - is always the object of action. Within the long time, the state practiced resource approach to its own population, control of the education system was subordinated to the idea of the training of worker, professional with the minimal consideration of individuality. While in the present stage, the education acquires the nature of the goal-directed continuous (within the whole life) activity of personality, which is oriented to the use of educational system, educational environment for the self-perfection purposes, satisfaction of the individual educational needs. As a result, the close ties among the subjects of the educational activities are formed.

The development of the system of high professional education of Georgia is determined by the universal tendencies of globalization. The socio-economic changes in the country, which have especially been held within the first decade of the restoration of national independence, have brought to the internal crisis of the educational system. Georgia is actively participating in the formation of the unified international education space. Since the beginning of the XXI Century, in

Georgia, the wide modernization of the Georgian system of education, which is directed on its democratization and development of the "open state and public system" has been introduced.

In 2005, Georgia officially joined to Bologna process, in the framework of which, country took the responsibility to implement the reformation of Georgian education with the purpose of its promotion to its transparency to European Society and integration to the common European system of Education (Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, 2018).

Social problem of the modernization of National Institute of Education in connected with the harmonization of purposes, content and methods of the educational activity toward the changed public needs and conditions.

The economic problem of modernization consists the providing of the effective functioning of the institute of education in the social and economic space of Georgia and creation the conditions for the formation the competitive market of the educational export services of the Georgian high educational institutions in the world and, particularly, in the European political and territorial space, for which it is necessary to determine the structure of high education in the framework of European Standards (level of education, credits, competence etc.). The coincidence of the internal and external interests is directed on the reorganization the system of the professional high education in Georgia with the talking into account the requirements of the Bologna Declaration.

During the last several years, the University society of Georgia is interested to the problems, which are interrelated with the possible role of the common European movement (which is known under the name of "Bologna Process") for the modernization of the High Educational Institutions of Georgia.

Main characters of the Bologna Process

At the second half of the XX Century, Europe was involved at least in two periods, during of which it has been faced with the delay from the other regions of the developed world. In 1960-1970th there were noticed some technological delay of the European countries from USA and Japan. It had its impact in the consequent years. As a result, in Europe later than in USA the plastic bank cards and connected with them services have been introduced. Furthermore, it also concerned the development of the cell phone system, internet and other technologies in Europe.

It is necessary to notice, that in the beginning of 90-th of last century, by the mass consumption of the leading technological innovations, the developed European countries were interior not only to USA and Japan, but also to South African Republic, where within the above-mentioned period, the system of automatic teller machines, payment of the communal services through the computer`s national network system, also development of the cell phone communication have been widely developed.

Some "the second wave" of the problems for the Europeans served the fact, that USA, and also Australia started intensive offering of the educational services. This issue becomes important part for the discussion about the export in the field of education. For example, since the beginning of 90-th, the number of European students, who studied in USA, prevailed the number of American students, who studied in Europe (Lebedeva, 2007).

The fact of the delay of the European education had not only economic significance. Europe, with its cultural and historic traditions, undivided part of which was university education, become concretely in this field to be inferior the place for the nouveau riche.

All above-mentioned factors forced the Europeans, since the end of the 1990s, to be seriously involved in the field of higher education. The main initiators were the Great Britain, Germany, Italy and France. In 1998, during the meeting in Sorbonne, France, the Ministers f Education of these countries signed the Sorbonne Declaration, which became the foundation document for the integration of the higher educational space in Europe. The basic legal agreement represented the Magna Carta Universitatum, which was adopted in Bologna in 1988, during the celebration of the 900th anniversary of the foundation of the oldest European university. The University Charter was underlining the autonomy of the university, its independence from the political and ideological dogmas, link between research and education, refusal from intolerance and orientation to the dialogue (Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, 2018).

The unique formulation of the process of the creation the unified educational space become the signing of the Bologna declaration in 1999, which gave the name to the process itself. The summary of this declaration is assumed as following:

Two level of high education, when first level is oriented on the gaining the bachelor degree and second- master degree;

The credit system, which is represented itself the unified observation of the study process in all states (which courses and how long time are taught for the student);

Independent control of the quality of education, to the base of which is put not the number of hours, which are spent during the study process, but the level of knowledge and skills;

Mobility of the students and teachers, which is suggesting, that for the gaining the experience, the teachers can work within the determined period of time and students – to study at the Universities of the various countries of Europe;

Using the knowledge of the graduates from the European Universities, which means, that disciplines, by which the staff is prepared, will have the demand and prepared specialists will be provided by jobs;

Attractiveness of the European higher education (it is planned, that innovations will promote increasing the interests by the Europeans and also citizens of other regions for getting European education.

Qualifications framework within the Bologn Process

The basic framework includes the three cycles of higher-education qualifications. The framework was discussed and finally adopted by the Ministers of Education and Science at their meeting in Bergen in 2005 (Norway), considers the qualifications under conditions of learning outcomes: statements of what type of qualification was gained by the students and what can they do during completing their degrees. In describing the cycles, the framework uses the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS):

First cycle: typically 180–240 ECTS credits (a minimum of 60 credits per academic year), usually awarding a bachelor's degree. The European Higher Education Area did not introduce the bachelor-with-honours programme, which gives an opportunity to graduates to receive a "BA diploma with honours." Degree (for example, in the UK, Australia and Canada) which (in the UK and Australia) may enable graduates to begin doctoral studies without first obtaining a master's degree.

Second cycle: typically 90–120 ECTS credits (a minimum of 60 ECTS per academic year), usually awarding a master's degree.

Third cycle (doctoral degree): There is no concrete ECTS range, since the disciplines vary in length and comprehensiveness.

In most of the cases, for the gaining bachelor's degree, it is necessary three to four years or one or two years for a master's degree. For the obtaining Doctoral degrees, it is usually requested another three to four years of specialization, primarily individual research under a mentor`s supervision. Degree names may be different in the various countries of Europe, one academic year corresponds to 60 ECTS credits, equivalent to 1,500–1,800 hours of study.

Problems of transition to the Bologna System

Due to the many reasons, the transferring process of the high education in many countries, which are involved in the Bologna process, is not developing by easy way, first of all because of necessity of the changing the existed traditions, structures, methods of teaching etc. In all countries, which are involved in the Bologna process, there are conducting the discussions on the issues of integration to the common European space. In this regard, there are active supporters and opponents of such type of integration. Main aspect, which is the main reason of those disputes, are the socio-political consequences, which will be caused as a result of the creation the common European educational space.

Thus, Together with the positive moments, Bologna process can emerge the list of problems too.

One of the group of problems is connected with the dividing of the European society, which is characterized for the other regions too. However, in the framework of the intensively conducted educational reform, this type of division can be appeared in the special form.

The increasing of the level of high education can cause the strengthening of the difference between the educated elite and other part of population, which, from its turn, will motivate the less qualified and more conservative part of the population to refuse from the further development of the European integration and growth of nationalism.

Taking into account, that this division has been clearly appeared in the contemporary period, the strengthening of those processes can turn out to be a very critical. At the same time, very much is depended from the Universities. If some concrete programs will be worked out, in accordance of which, the Universities will become not only the important units of the high education integration, but also the parts of the civil society, which means enlightenment, expert and consultative activity, i.e. “transparency” of the universities before the society, in this case the socio-economic difference can be significantly decreased. The increasing the number of Europeans with the diplomas of high education will cause the new wave of immigrants - the cheap labor force from the Arabic, Asian and African countries. The changing of the ethnical composition of Europe, which will be followed by the distribution of the other cultural norms and values represent the problem (for example in 2005 Europe was faced with the reflection of violence) and requires the working out an appropriate social-economic program.

Perspectives of the promotion the Bologna Process

The Bologna process, no dough, will deepen and widen the common European integration. Appropriate basic parameters of technology of high education (level of education, dates etc.) will give the opportunity, from one side, that the level of the qualification of graduates will become more understandable, and from the other side - in the framework of Europe, by the each specialty the common requirements for the determination the knowledge and skills of the graduates will be formulated, thus, by this way will provide the high mobility of the qualified labor force. Even more, Bologna process, by the offering the establishment of the partnership relations among the European Universities, will permit to prepare the common European political, economic, technological, scientific etc. elite. The same process will promote the mobility of the students and teachers, which is also taken into consideration by the Bologna process. As a result, the graduates of the European Universities will enter to the professional sphere with many interpersonal contacts, which have been established during the period of study with their course mates from the different states.

Involvement to the unified common educational space will permit to resolve, or, at least, simplify the list of the problems, which exist among the states. Furthermore, the Development of integration in the field of education promotes the development of democratization process. During the previous periods, Universities played an important role for the establishment of democracy in Europe. Today, the University, being in accordance to the Sorbonne Declaration, the basic structural unit of the Bologna process, is potentially able to play again this role in this field. University Community, by its nature represents the network, and democracy means mostly the networking of the social ties and relationships. The increasing of the role of education (accordingly Universities) in the social-economic and political life of Europe will cause the further development of the networking ties in the different fields.

The development of the Bologna process will be followed by the transformation of the University society, in which there are presented, at least, three components: First – the most successful and prestigious Universities (by the separate divisions or as whole), which are fully included to the Bologna process, which, taking into account, that educational services are becoming more and more significant factors of income, will formulate some "consortiums", by trying to monopolize the sphere of education. The second component – Universities, which partly will be belonged to the "first circle", but which intend to enter to this circle entirely. Finally, the third component – Universities - "outsiders", which work on the boundary of existence and survival. The boundaries among the components will be flexible, and except of cooperative links and relations, there will be competitions among of them. Indeed, the competition among the Universities exists in the current period, but under the conditions of the corporate relations, this competition will have more strict character.

The social-economic consequences of the integration of the educational space of Europe can become the reason for the changing the role of the regions and cities. From one side, it can be expected the intensive development of the cities, where the biggest University centers of the country are located, from the other – the specialization of those Universities in dependence from their profile of the city or region, because it give the several advantages (invitation of the high qualified and high professional specialists to the University, gaining by the students the practice in an appropriate organizations etc.). So, if we take the sphere of International political and economic relations, in this case the problems of multilateral diplomacy, international organizations and multilateral negotiations will be profiled for the Universities in

Geneva; the topics on European Integration – Universities in Brussels and International Finances – for London. As a result, it can be expected the strengthening the regionalization and transferring some regions to "megalopolises" in the different part of Europe, which means the significant changing of the socio-economic and political face of this part of the world.

Development of the Bologna process in Europe has stimulated the discussions about unification of the educational spaces in other regions too. It causes from itself the problem of "crossing" of the educational systems of Europe with the educational systems of other countries and regions of the world; systems of the secondary and high education, and also requirements and norms of one or another agreements and treaties (within WTO for example, education is considered as a service).

Conclusion

In general, education is gradually becoming such field, where the most important socio-economic and political problems of the modern society are concentrated, which presents the task for the conducting the international negotiations on the multilateral level by the whole complexes of the problems of education.

Among the high education problems, the main issue is its accordance with quality of education and its accordance with practical requirements. For example, after the collapse of the socialist system, it has been turned out, that the high education, very often (but not always), does not satisfy the western standards, for example, with regard to the Soviet diploma, it was not recognized in the European states. Today, in the framework of Bologna Process, the cardinal reform of the high education system is going on, which means, that within the whole Europe, the common high education system should be established. The purpose of the reform, that the student of any countries, including Georgia, can continue the study process at the University of other states, and diploma should be valuable in the any country of Europe. Shortly speaking, Bologna Process takes into consideration the providing of the high level of education for the citizens of the most of the states of Europe.

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THE CHALLENGE OF LANGUAGE TEACHING WITHIN THE DIFFERENT CONTEXTS IN THE COMPETITIVE EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

The ability to think critically is an important feature of modern society. Thinking critically must be a focus of higher education in order to provide the intellectual training for our students to succeed in the competitive environment. Nowadays Educators admit that sometimes it is quite frustrating to develop and integrate with planning, experimenting and reflecting critical thinking in lesson plans within different contexts. The challenge which language teachers should experience is not to find pedagogical models that embrace critical thinking, but the formation of specific educational structures that not only replace existing, but ensure they will grow deeper and wider, in order to provide students with a relevant learning environment. Thus, let’s admit that critical thinking cannot be developed overnight, but the use of reflective assignments facilitates student engagement in learning. The aim of the article is to share theoretical and practical ideas about critical reflection on the process of English language teaching/learning and accouters some aspects of its development.

Key words: Critical reflection, critical thinking, pedagogical models of teaching, feedback.

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. 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. The education process is a daily challenge for many students and teachers, they are participants of a “game” where they assume different roles; teachers must be facilitators who help students to go through different stages during the learning of a foreign Language 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, teacher must organize all the technological resources in a methodological way to make them work for students in their learning process.

English educators and teachers of English need to conceive in the future and foresee the subject of English within the contexts of global mass mediation, multimodal communications (i.e., communication which employs multiple modes of expression), migratory populations, and transnational economies. Issues that are provoked with multinational and multicultural characteristics students must be able to analyze large amounts of various data to make reasonable decisions. Thinking critically must be a focus of higher education in order to provide the cogitative training for our students to succeed in the competitive environment.

Scientific and technological modernization advances has affected the understanding of learning itself. Learning can no longer be divided into a place and time to acquire knowledge and a place and time to apply the knowledge acquired (Fischer, 2000). 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 create and shape shift into the form of formal learning or informal learning, or self-directed learning.

Furthermore, it is well known that the world’s smartest and busiest people find one hour a day for learning, when others make excuses about how busy they are? Because learning is the single best investment of our time that we can make.

The concept of lifelong learning has become a global trend (Head, Van Hoeck, & Garson, 2015). It is recognized by traditional colleges and universities as necessary extension to degree. There are several established contexts for lifelong learning:

1. Home schooling - the development of informal learning patterns;
2. Adult education -- the acquisition of formal qualifications or work and leisure skills later in life;
3. Continuing education which often describes extension or not-for-credit courses offered by higher education institutions;
4. 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.

Hereby we come to the term Autodidacticism (also autodidactism) or self-education. Self-learning and self-teaching is education without the guidance of masters (such as teachers and professors) or institutions (such as schools). Generally, an autodidact is an individual who chooses the subject he or she will study, his or her studying material, and the studying rhythm and time. An autodidact may or may not have formal education, and his or her study may be either a complement or an alternative to it. Many notable contributions have been made by autodidacts.

The term is widely discussed, for instance, Geoffrey Cooper (2003, p. 6) pointed that "University lecturers do not guide their students' learning to the same extent; they do not organize their students' private study (no more set homework!); nor do they filter knowledge for you in the same way. There are reasons for this. Firstly, you are expected to be independent, capable of organizing your life, your time, your studies and your learning, so that when you graduate you are able to function successfully in your chosen profession".

One of the most recent trends in education is that the classroom environment should be organized according to the students' individual needs, goals, and interests. This model adopts the idea of inquiry-based learning active learning, where the process is often assisted by a facilitator and students are presented with scenarios to identify their own research, questions and knowledge regarding the area, an educational facilitator has the same level of knowledge about both, education and the subject matter as a teacher, but works with the goal of having students take as much responsibility for their own learning as possible (Underhill, 1999). Learning often takes place best when students have opportunities to express ideas and get feedback from their peers. But for the feedback as most helpful tool for learners, it must consist of more than the provision of correct answers. Feedback ought to be analytical, suggestive, and come at a time when students are interested in it. And then there must be time for students to reflect on the feedback they receive, to make adjustments and to try again - a requirement that is neglected, it is worth noting, by most examinations - especially finals.

As educators we need to facilitate critical reflection to enable students to move beyond a superficial understanding of their world. By creating a reflective environment for and with students, the educational experience will lay the foundations of a critically reflective member of the world community.

If teachers wish to promote the growth or development of active, meaning-directed, application-directed, self-regulated, and cooperative student learning, their roles become ever more demanding and complex (Vermunt, 2014). It is no longer enough to be able to explain the subject-matter well, to regulate students' learning, and motivate them to learn; teachers must take on the new roles of diagnostician, challenger, model, activator, monitor, evaluator, and reflector of students' learning processes (Vermunt, 2014). Based on her literature overview, all these demanding and complex roles faced by the teacher require the ability to reflect critically. It is, however, questionable whether teachers are adequately trained to follow up on this during their process of education and are supported when reflecting on their teaching practice. Expecting that teachers will take time at their own initiative to integrate the process of reflection in their work is considered doubtable. Moreover, when thinking about the factors of effectively introducing reflection to the professional learning of teachers, we should encounter how teachers and teacher educators understand the process of reflection.

Reflective teaching is a 'tool' that teachers can use to observe and evaluate the way they behave in their classroom. It can be a private process as well as the one can be discussed with colleagues. When you collect information about what went wrong in your classroom and analyze it, you will be able to change the way of teaching and make it much more productive for your students. The main principle and advantage of reflection is not just outlining of lesson stages but also analyzing why something went wrong.

According to Jack Richards, reflection or "critical reflection, refers to an activity or process in which an experience is recalled, considered, and evaluated, usually in relation to a wider purpose. It is a response to past experience and involves conscious recall and examination of the experience as a basis for evaluation and decision-making and as a source for planning and action (Richards, 1990).

Approaches to Critical reflection are as follows:

- Peer observation can provide opportunities for teachers to view each other's teaching method by reflecting not just on your peer but yourself as well, it provides you with the opportunity to see yourself as others students see you.
- The use of self-reporting and its potential is increasingly being recognized in teacher education. Self-reporting involves completing an a detailed list of steps or check list in which the teacher indicates which teaching practices were used within a lesson or within a specified time period and how often they were employed .

- Student feedback: ask your students what they think about what goes on in the classroom. Their opinions and perceptions can add a different and valuable perspective. This can be done with simple questionnaires or learning diaries for example.
- Talk, read, ask; be aware of innovations and share your experiences.
- Keep journal or diary and record your lesson.

Video or audio recordings of lessons can provide very useful information for reflection. You may do things in class you are not aware of or there may be things happening in the class that as the teacher you do not normally see. Audio recordings can be useful for considering aspects of teacher talk. Are instructions and explanations clear? How much time do you allocate to student talk? How do you respond to student talk? Video recordings can be useful in showing you aspects of your own behavior. Where do you stand? Who do you speak to? How do you come across to the students? (Richards, 1990).

By collecting information about what goes on in our classroom, and by analyzing and evaluating this information, we identify and explore our own practices and underlying beliefs. This may then lead to changes and improvements in our teaching.

Like other forms of self-inquiry, reflective teaching has some drawbacks as it is quite time-consuming. But as for self-evaluation and professional growth its quite essential tool. The process requires mutual support and a degree of confidence where individuals are willing to doubt and broaden the limits of their comfort zones. The main purpose and advantage of critical reflection is in new solutions and ways, to introduce the changes which contribute to the transformation of the community for the better learning, work and life of all its individuals (Saric & Steh, 2017).

As the world economy shifts away from manufacturing jobs and towards service industry and creative jobs, there's a "consensus or agreement" between parents, educators, politicians and business leaders that it is crucially essential for students to graduate university with the ability to identify and solve complex problems, think critically about information, work effectively in teams and communicate clearly about their thinking. While many teachers agree with this statement, they don't often know exactly how to teach these skills extensively and clearly, because many of the curriculums seem to push in the opposite direction. Process-oriented skills are hard to cover; teachers can see them in certain students, but developing these competencies in students who aren't already demonstrating them can be tangled (Schwarts, 2016).

If the teacher is irritated by the student's special curiosity or with the attempt to obstruct for example readings of the textbook, he / she should seriously reconsider all aspects of teaching process and definitely should change the attitudes. Without critical thinking, it will be difficult for the student to focus on changing values and demands of our global world. Student teaching methods with generally accepted opinions tend to become outdated. Scientists agree that the solution is in perspective education, which should carry on two principles:

1. The ability to find the necessary materials in the growing flow of information;
2. The ability to understand correctly and use obtained information.

First of all, it is necessary to ignore the information and bring it into order: Identify significant information from secondary one and conduct corresponding analysis, interpretation and understanding. The development of critical thinking is a continuous process and teacher should try to enrich the pedagogic technologies with new strategies. In this regard, universities can provide schools with serious assistance (preparation of joint seminars, conducting practical studies, trainings, and etc.). In order to overcome the problem first of all, education specialists should agree on several key issues: What skills and characteristics do critical thinking have? What effective methods are there for teaching critical thinking? What kind of people can be considered to be critical thinker?

Reflective teaching is a cyclical process, because once you start to implement changes, then the reflective and evaluative cycle begins again. What are you doing? Why are you doing it? How effective is it? How are the students responding? How can you do it better? As a result of your reflection you may decide to do something in a different way, or you may just decide that what you are doing is the best way. And that is what professional development is all about (Tice, 2004).

A reflective approach to teaching involves changes in the way we usually perceive teaching and our role in the process of teaching and give feedback to ourselves. Teachers who explore their own teaching through critical reflection develop changes in their teaching approaches that will foster their professional growth as teacher. Reflection is the most important tool for transferring our way of teaching. Monitoring and assessment gives us general information about teaching process. Reflections mean that you have understood the meaning of monitoring and evaluation. Reflections allow the generalization of conclusions within the monitoring and evaluation reports. That is why Minister of Education and Science of Georgia with the Order №102 / N. June 13, 2017, approved the rules of external observation and input the demand for the reflection that would foster teacher development. The challenge for countries in the developing world is not to find pedagogical models that embrace critical thinking, but the formation of specific educational structures that not only replace existing, but ensure they will grow deeper and wider. This can only be accomplished by a coordinated and integrated approach to the development of curricula, assessments, instructional materials, and rich programs of pre - service and in - service teacher education.

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BOLOGNA PROCESS AND ITS IMPACT ON STUDENT-CENTERED APPROACH

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Abstract

The last few decades have shown that the strengthening and expansion of the European Union countries for the deepening and development of the cross-country relations there was a necessity for the implementation of the reform, which would bring about the intellectual, cultural, social and scientific and technological aspects in a common space being able to create the countries' sustainable socio-economic environment. Given the fact that education is a critical factor for forming democratic values in the society, the need for the decisive changes became extremely significant, which would greatly change higher education in the common European space. Consequently, these changes would guarantee the cross-country mobility and employability, and, in general, the versatile development of the continent. In May 2005 Georgia joined the Bologna Summit, where the main priorities were: social dimension; lifelong learning; student-oriented teaching; education, research and innovation; mobility; data collection; multilateral transparent mechanisms; and financing. After signing the Bologna Treaty, the fundamental and significant changes were made in the higher education system of Georgia and particularly in teaching approaches. The teacher-oriented instruction has been replaced by a student-oriented format, where the teacher is mostly perceived as a facilitator, tutor, or a prompter rather than a dominant link in the learning and teaching circle. Subsequently, in the existing curricula and syllabi methods and competencies are adapted to the course aim and content the way that a student gets those learning outcomes that are crucial for the relevant qualification acquisition.

Key words: Bologna process, student-centered approach, democratic values

Introduction

The future of our society depends on participation and the continuous development of the global knowledge base. Quality, accessible higher education makes the new generation's active, responsible citizens, ready to take on tomorrow's challenges, and student-centred learning is essential in ensuring this. Student-centred learning has a long and inspirational history, starting with the massive student protests against the elitism of universities in 1968 striving for the equality amongst the other members of the society despite their origins, religious or political beliefs, social background, sex, age, etc.

It was followed by the critical pedagogy, which aimed at empowering students, especially from disadvantaged backgrounds, to build upon their experiences and perspectives and provide them with knowledge to challenge the common preconceptions, perceptions and stigmas in society. This also based itself on the idea that "students are not empty vessels waiting to be filled with knowledge". On the contrary, they are main participants of the study processes.

The ineffectiveness of teaching through the transmission of knowledge has also been confirmed through years of pedagogical research. The massive protests, the rise of critical pedagogy and the research done on the teaching and learning process rose the actuality of the concept of student-centred learning; The main target of the approach is to put students in the so called driver's seat of their learning experience and facilitate the process of learning. The increasing student population and its growing diversity presents challenges to the traditional methods of teaching and learning, making it necessary to adapt the classroom and teaching methods so as to focus on the diversity of students' experiences, engage with many different types of learners and inspire students through a mutual learning experience.

Since students are considered to be co-producers of knowledge and a part of the academic community, it also means challenging the growing perception of students as customers to be provided 'customer service' that again causes the shift towards student-centred learning.

Taking students seriously also means giving them a choice, autonomy and responsibility in their learning process and ensuring their voices are heard in the decision-making and feedback mechanisms. All of this serves to be empowering and will ensure that when students leave the university, they are ready to find their niche in a society.

With its long history and having made it onto the agenda of the Bologna Process and the European Union, knowing where we are and where to go next is an important step in ensuring a full paradigm shift towards student-centred learning.

Bologna process

European higher education faced the major challenge in the name of globalisation and accelerated technological developments with new providers. Consequently new type of learners and learning shifted to the front row. There was a necessity to change teacher led/oriented teaching approach with something very effective and actual. Student-centred learning and mobility could equip students with the transferring skills to help them develop those competences that they need in a changing labour market empowering them to become active and responsible citizens who are much more adaptable and flexible to the new opportunities.

The Bologna Process is leading to greater compatibility and comparability of the systems of higher education and is making it easier for learners to be mobile and for institutions to attract students and scholars from other continents. Higher education is being modernized with the adoption of a three-cycle structure including, within national contexts, the possibility of intermediate qualifications linked to the first cycle and with the adoption of the European Standards and Guidelines for quality assurance. We have witnessed the creation of a European register for quality assurance agencies and the establishment of national qualifications frameworks linked to the overarching European Higher Education Area framework, based on learning outcomes, aims, methods and workload. Moreover, the Bologna Process has promoted the Diploma Supplement and the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System to further increase transparency and recognition that results in the promotion of student-centered apptoach.

The aim of the higher education has to be a provision of equal opportunities to quality education. Access into higher education should be widened by fostering the potential of students from underrepresented groups and by providing adequate conditions for the completion of their studies. This involves improving the learning environment, removing all barriers to study, offer borderless world where all member countries ensure the flexibility and unity of the assessment systems, curricula and course contents, mobility between different European universities, culture sharing and a student-friendly learning environment. In addition to all above mentioned criteria, creating the appropriate economic conditions for students is beneficial from the study opportunities at all levels. Each participating country will set measurable targets for widening overall participation and increasing involvement of underrepresented groups in higher education, to be reached by the end of the next decade. Efforts to achieve equity in higher education should be complemented by actions in other parts of the educational system.

Widening participation shall also be achieved through lifelong learning as an integral part of our education systems. Lifelong learning is subject to the principle of public responsibility. The accessibility, quality of provision and transparency of information shall be assured. Lifelong learning involves obtaining qualifications, extending knowledge and understanding, gaining new skills and competences or enriching personal growth. Lifelong learning implies that qualifications may be obtained through flexible learning paths, including part-time studies, sufficient practice, internship, etc.

With labour markets increasingly relying on higher skill levels and transversal competences, higher education should equip students with the advanced knowledge, skills and competences they need throughout their professional lives. Employability empowers the individual to fully seize the opportunities in changing labour markets.

The general aim of the new approach is to raise initial qualifications in favour of enhancement of a skilled workforce through close cooperation between governments, higher education institutions, social partners and students since it is a complex structural chain consisting of the following links and it is crucial to maintain the sustainability of every single part of it. This will allow institutions to be aware of the demands of the labour market, therefore, to be more responsive to employers' needs and employers to better understand the educational perspective. Higher education institutions, together with governments, government agencies and employers, shall improve the provision, accessibility and quality of their careers and employment related guidance services to students and alumni.

We could reassert the importance of the teaching mission of higher education institutions and the necessity for ongoing curricular reform geared toward the development of learning outcomes. Student-centred learning requires empowering individual learners, new approaches to teaching and learning, effective support and guidance structures and a curriculum focused more clearly on the learner in all three cycles. Curricular reform will thus be an ongoing process leading to high quality, flexible and more individually tailored education paths. Academics, in close (Leuven /Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué, April 2009 4) cooperation with student and employer representatives, will continue to develop learning outcomes and international reference points for a growing number of subject areas. We ask the higher education institutions to pay particular attention to improving the teaching quality of their study programmes at all levels. This should be a priority in the further implementation of the European Standards and Guidelines for quality assurance.

Student-centered learning approach in European policy

The Bologna process and the EHEA, The European University Association (EUA) The European Association of Institutions in Higher Education (EURASHE) Student-centred learning, diversified student populations and new modes of delivery have in recent years set in motion profound changes in higher education. This paradigm shift towards SCL, as opposed to traditional teacher-centred teaching and learning methods, has been the most talked about trend in higher education in

Europe in the past years. After first committing to the full implementation of SCL at the Ministerial Conference in Leuven in 2009, EHEA ministers reiterated their commitment to SCL in the Bucharest Communiqué (2012).

Ministers agreed to "Establish conditions that foster student-centred learning, innovative teaching methods and a supportive and inspiring working and learning environment, while continuing to involve students and staff in governance structures at all levels". Bologna tools also support the implementation of SCL through providing more choices for students, mobility opportunities and extracurricular activities.

Students are increasingly expected to be autonomous learners, and teachers to use innovative teaching methodologies and develop assessment methods that reflect this change. Especially important is to focus on formative assessment more which is not concentrated on marks but gives teachers opportunity to raise motivation in students. As a consequence, teacher-student interaction is changing that means that teachers are mostly observers and facilitators, even prompters, but they have to surrender the main role giving the students an opportunity to establish student to student interaction and generate collaborative study.

Since the beginning of the Bologna process the role of students, teachers and their learning environment has already undergone significant change in accordance with the relatively new concept of student-centred learning that has to coincide with the Common European Framework of higher educational institutions. The learning society in a globalised world requires a number of competencies that are universally accepted, such as interpersonal and intercultural competencies, multilingualism, international awareness, ICT-skills, and – perhaps most important – the ability to learn how to learn in different formal and informal settings, including autonomous learning processes with adequate support and guidance structures. The approach is mainly focused on the learner and their needs, rather than being centred around the teacher's input.

The vision for 2020 is an EHEA where the transition to student-centred learning has been completed in all Bologna countries and where HEIs have redefined and implemented curricula in line with their mission and profile, but entirely based on students' learning outcomes. This requires not only the dedication of all institutional staff and management, but also the full involvement of students in program design, institutional governance and quality assurance.

Subsequently it is necessary for governments to establish the legal frameworks for this purpose. EURASHE commits itself to encouraging and assisting all its members to develop an overall approach to teaching, learning and assessment, where the student-centred approach is the rule, rather than the exception, and where the will to seek feedback from students and to learn from it, is a prevailing force. ENQA states that QA agencies cannot ignore student-centered learning and learning outcomes, which are part of the Bologna reform agenda (Overview…, 2015).

Learning outcomes make qualifications more transparent for students. The range of graduates is becoming wider and thanks to learning outcomes, employers may have a better understanding of the acquired knowledge, skills and competences in order to recruit the most suitable candidate for the position. Learning outcomes benefit quality assurance as they increase transparency and comparability between qualifications standards. Learning outcomes are also valuable in terms of course design. Naturally, objections have also been expressed with regard to SCL and learning outcomes. They mainly focus on the individual learner.

The concept and principles of SCL

Student-centred learning roots from the reforms made in educational process. This included flexibility tools such as ECTS, mobility, improved recognition, qualification frameworks, mobility, flexible university schedule, etc. Also, parts of the ministerial conference communiques reaffirmed the importance of the educational mission of universities.

Here are some principles that need to be followed in case the teacher, institution, or a programme takes the direction to the SCL:

1) SCL requires an on-going Reflexive Process

The philosophy of SCL is such that teachers, students and institutions need to continuously reflect on their teaching, learning and infrastructural systems in such a way that would continuously improve the learning experience of students and ensure that the intended learning outcomes of a given course or programme component are achieved in a way that stimulates learners' critical thinking and transferable skills.

2) SCL does not have a "One-Size-Fits-All" Solution

All higher education institutions are different, all teachers differ with their methodology and approaches, and all students are individuals with unique study abilities. These all operate in very diverse contexts and deal with various subject-disciplines. Therefore, SCL is a learning approach that requires learning support structures, which are appropriate to each given context, and teaching and learning styles appropriate to those undertaking them.

3) Students have Different Learning Styles

SCL recognises that students are different learners auditory, visual, kinaesthetic, etc. Some learn better through trial and error, others learn through practical experience. Due to different learners in the classroom, teacher has to be flexible in selecting the proper material for each of them to merge it with their possibilities.

4) Students have Different Needs and Interests

All students have needs that extend beyond the classroom. Some are interested in cultural activities, others in sports or in representative organisations. Students can have children or can be faced with psychological conditions, illness or disability. Therefore the curricula have to cover inclusion and integration of any type of a student with the rest of the learners considering their physical, or mental state.

5) Choice is Central to Effective Learning in SCL

Students like other members of the society have a right to have a reasonable amount of choice. There are mandatory and elective subjects in the curricula, which are granted with credits and distributed in the course sillabi the way that students have a flexibility to choose and cover as much as they want

6) Students have Different Experiences and Background Knowledge

If students already have considerable experience in using information and communications technology, there is no point in trying to teach them the same thing again; if they already have considerable research skills, perhaps it would be better to help them in theory. Personal experience can also be used to motivate students, for instance, by allowing students to share a personal story to illustrate a point.

7) Student's involvement

Students should be given the opportunity to be involved in the design of courses, curricula and their evaluation. Students should be seen as active partners who have a stake in the way that higher education functions. The best way to ensure that learning focuses more on students is by engaging students themselves in how their learning should be shaped.

8) SCL is about Enabling and not Telling

The SCL approach aims to give the student greater responsibility enabling the student to think, process, analyse, synthesise, criticise, apply, solve problems, etc. Teacher may give students a food for thought, but the rest of it how they analyze and give it a use is absolutely the student's concern.

9) Learning needs Cooperation between Students and Staff

It is important that students and staff co-operate to develop a shared understanding both of the problems experienced in learning, as well as their problems as stakeholders within their given institution, jointly proposing solutions that might work for both groups. In the classroom, such cooperation will have a positive effect as the two groups increasingly come to consider each other as partners. Such a partnership is central to the philosophy of SCL, which sees learning as taking place in a constructive interaction between the two groups.

Useful methods for efficient SCL

Regarding the leading methods that are widely used for student-centred learning could be mentioned Problem-Based Learning, Project-Based learning, Case studies, Brain storming and of course diverse class organization types like pair, group and team work activities that could also serve to generation independent, critical thinking in students. Such kind of approach also works practices collaborative skills in students enabling them to consider and respect other's opinion regardless their personal attitude, or beliefs. Via case studies and role-playing students get skillful of dealing with authentic situations and searching for solutions to them. Place based learning is another significant method that could be well used while involving students in social services where they acquire practical skills how to support and benefit others and simultaneously get some life experience from it.

Teacher's professional development and students' assessment

SCL focuses on empowering students' capabilities, but does not by any means neglect the importance and need for constant professional development of teachers. Teacher support and training programmes must be an integral part of SCL-implementation in all higher education institutions. They are obliged to respond to the challenges of the modern teacher and meet the demands concerning updated methodology and teaching techniques. Teacher has to be flexible to generate students' motivation, interest and full involvement in the study process. In order to achieve those goals, evaluations need to be designed to allow students to express themselves in the best possible way, giving them the freedom to comment on and shape their learning paths. Results should be transparent, having direct and clear influence, empowering students to engage by seeing how their input can contribute to change.

Peer-assessment is one of the best assessment techniques so far, since students have a possibility to acquire the role of a teacher and make efforts to be as objective as possible. They also learn from the peer-assessment, because it makes the errors more obvious and noticeable. Self-reflection is another essential tool to make a critical analysis of their strengths and weaknesses.

If our target is a SCL then elaboration of the assessment criteria could also be a conscious way to get the students involved in the processes to make it as transparent and objective as possible.

Student's role in decision-making process

Students have to be involved in decision- making structures regardless the institutional, faculty, or programme levels). Students are guaranteed representation in decision-making structures either by law or internal policies of the institution. They are involved through student organisations, student parliaments, student boards, academic senates, quality assessment and other decision-making bodies within universities. This helps student representatives feel more comfortable and open while sharing their concerns and suggestions.

Flexible curricula and individual learning path

Flexible curricula and individual learning paths are some of the main components of SCL implementation. At the same time, their implementation varies greatly from institution to institution and programme to programme. It is impossible to take a good practice and implement into the curriculum without looking into the local context and individuality just because it used to have a successful appeal from certain country, or university group. The same principle works with the proper approach towards every student since individual factors and characteristics should be considered both of the students and the whole programme itself.

Learning outcomes

The concept of learning outcomes (LO) forms the core conceptual basis for a student-centred higher education system. A description in terms of expected or desired learning outcomes should be a statement of what a learner is expected to know, understand, and be able to do at the end of a learning process. It should not refer to input criteria, such as what exactly is taught or the mode of teaching. Learning outcomes should accommodate the multiple purposes of higher education including: preparing students for active citizenship, creating a broad, advanced knowledge base and stimulating research and innovation. The preconditions for all study programmes have to be an intention to achieve certain learning outcomes.

Expected learning outcomes should be customly written for every course and programme and written before the learning activity begins and evolve through dialogue between teacher and student throughout the learning activity. They are a shifting category, depending on the expectations and satisfaction of both students and teachers involved in the learning activity. Describing minimum requirements ensures a common experience for all students and focuses on the concrete goals of the learning activity. At the same time, there is room for additional knowledge, skills, competences and attitudes to be acquired during the learning activity, dependent upon the individual students' experiences. Since these are individual and not mandatory for passing, such learning outcomes should be listed in the Diploma Supplement to be given to the student upon completion of the programme.

During the learning activity, the student acquires those learning outcomes with the teacher acting as a facilitator of the learning process, “enabling” not “telling”. Assessment at the end of the learning activity should be bidirectional. Through transparent feedback, students assess whether intended learning outcomes were achieved and actively participate in defining and re-defining them for the same learning activity in the future.

Teachers assess if the student has acquired those minimum requirements, but also any additional learning outcomes to be presented in the Diploma Supplement. Students should be involved in the process of designing the study programmes and defining its learning outcomes. Where relevant, other educational stakeholders should be consulted in the process of designing learning outcomes. The learning outcomes should be formulated in clear and understandable way, transparent and accessible for students and other interested parties.

Conclusion

Consequently, relevant aspects that should be considered in order to understand how quality of Student Centred Learning is perceived, are the following:

- an adequate curricula (organised in learning outcomes);
- the learning and teaching process (SCL);
- the learning environments (responding to students' needs); and
- the resources and facilities (including student support services).

From the whole this there has been some policy recommendations regarding QA and SCL. Quality assurance activities should not be limited to the teaching and learning process, as quality is also influenced by surrounded factors. A student-centred learning approach should be adequately implemented by higher education institutions. Public authorities should support and promote the implementation of the student-centred learning approach. Student participation at all levels of quality assurance and decision-making in higher education is needed in order to pursue quality in higher education.

Students need to be consulted, to have real choices in their study paths and curricula – giving them more responsibility for their learning processes. Learning process should be described in terms of learning outcomes, which should be developed and monitored with constant evaluation and consultancy of students.

Even though the SCL concept involves putting students in the focus, that does not by any means diminish the role and importance of teachers. There is great need for further development of teaching methods, teacher support and professional training, as quality teaching is essential for a quality learning experience for all students. The enhancement of teaching should find its base in the needs of students, which are best assessed through teacher and course evaluation. Student feedback must be used actively in the development of curricula, learning outcomes and assessment procedures, closing the feedback cycle and taking action as a result.

In order to ensure mutual understanding and devotion, SCL should be embedded in institutional strategies, procedures and frameworks, however, involvement and representation of students in governance, viewing students as equal partners, as a part of the academic community and co-producers of knowledge, is essential for giving students ownership and responsibility for their learning.

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SCHOOLCHILDREN AND STRATEGIES: CAREER CHOICE

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Abstract

Scholars believe that several factors, such as skills, interest, motivation, values and family affect a person's profession–related decision, which to a large extent determines one's career and life as such. The objective of the study is to describe the decision-making in Georgia, define its characteristics and indicators.

Key words: strategies, career choice

Significance of the problem

First of all, let us explain the issue in some detail. Profession is the unity of certain theoretical or practical specialized activities. People have been deciding about their professions for centuries. In this connection, scientists point out at various criteria or factors relevant to the decision-making.

In general terms, a formally or informally shared culture defines the environment or reality of a country. The same is true for Georgia. We may presume that the standards of the national mentality influence the young people's career-related decisions.

What is possibly more characteristic to the Georgians is division of professions into prestigious, less prestigious and not prestigious ones, with the profession ratings varying at various times. Not infrequently, it is the parents who decide what path their children should take in the future: which profession is more respectable, useful etc. However, the question arises: will the trade chosen by another person be acceptable? On the other hand, due to immaturity or uncertainty about one's likes and dislikes, an individual's profession-related decision may prove to be wrong.

Sometimes, profession is selected not according to one's aspirations but the criteria below:

- popularity within the society;
- fear of a social stigma because of failure to get the higher education, which of course leaves no room for a reasonable decision.

Here we should mention the key elements of the school education. Among the numerous factors or processes taking place at secondary schools, the part teacher plays is undoubtedly the most significant. Teacher's motivation, the most frequently used term in the contemporary educational psychology is very important to both instruction and learning. However, what exactly makes the teacher truly efficient? It is a hard question, a kind of dilemma, which prompted us to study in broad terms the reasons behind the schoolchildren's profession-related decisions and whether they are pleased with their choice as the university students.

The objective of the study:

- the criteria and factors influencing the career decisions of the pupils in their final years at school;
- level of satisfaction of the university students.

Methodology

In this study, we employed a quantitative method, namely a semi-structured interview. A structured interview consists of precisely worded questions and predetermined options of answers, with the respondents asked identical questions, whereas, in the semi-structured interview, there is a set of questions but no optional answers. (Liberty Institute, 2007) Given its scope, which does not allow generalization of the results, the study is purely exploratory. During the field works, we also employed questionnaires to interview 15-15 school children and students of various educational institutions in Tbilisi. Thinking that the attitude and motivation of the "teacher", the key component of the secondary education would be of interest, we interviewed 8 teachers from various schools in Tbilisi. As to the secondary sources, those are several text-books and Internet publications. The key words: profession choice, profession management, prestigious professions etc.

Literature review

The decision on a profession is generally made before one starts working. In this regard, it is an educational institution's (to a certain extent the State's) obligation to provide professional guidance. Profession is essential for self-fulfillment and social self-assertion. Only if a person is interested in his/her profession, up to it and satisfied with it, does he/she feel fulfilled. Unfortunately, not many people pursuing the most popular careers can say it. Therefore, one should think twice before making up one's mind about the desirable profession.

Below, there are several typical profession-related mistakes:

- The so-called "romantic" or "highbrow" professions
- "Quite often choosing a "romantic" or a "highbrow" profession one does not think that success may call for doing some routine work" (Gabisiani, 2012).
- The so-called "popular" professions
- When prestigiousness and popularity are the key motives in the profession selection, there is a risk that with time, the vogue may be different (Gabisiani, 2012).
- "Expectations"

Not infrequently, by and by one realizes that a welfare promising job is quite demanding, be it a hard work, a risk, neglect of personal requirements, etc. A labor market survey taken by the Ministry of Healthcare showed that several industries are severely undermanned. There is a shortage of barmen, sales assistants, guides, metalworkers, bricklayers. Therefore, the people who master those trades have the biggest chance of employment (Shergilashvili, 2016). The same is true for efficient teachers, doctors, journalists, etc.

In 2016, Edu.aris.ge surveyed schoolchildren and students. In one of the respondent's words: "while making the profession-related decision, schoolchildren rarely think of their interests. Most of them decide to do what they and the people around them think is the most promising: accountants, auditors, lawyers, economists and doctors are believed to have the brightest prospects" (Doluashvili, 2016). A student of the University of Gori said that some applicants do not get sufficient scores to be admitted by the faculty of their choice. In many cases, it is the parents who make their children study what they dislike. The financial situation of a family is an issue, too.

As the 2014 Aris.ge survey showed, there are several most expensive university faculties in Georgia. In the private universities those are: business administration, international business management, the US MD, Law, Public Administration, Media and healthcare schools, etc. (Tsivtsivadze, 2014). The question arises: what criteria make a school expensive? Are they the demand, quality education or the resources?

Some scholars say that contingency also plays a part in choosing a profession. Obviously, such kind of a decision is rarely reasonable. However, in most cases choice of a career is the result of both the rational planning and external factors. Studies make it evident that it is hardly possible to determine the age limit for professional decision-making. Some youngsters know what jobs they'd like to do while still at school, others though are unable to decide before 30 and still others change jobs all the time. Therefore, some scientists say that selection of a trade is a continuous process of sequential decisions.

There are some deeply-rooted stereotypes concerning the so-called male and female professions: science and technology is mostly for men while arts and services for women.

The intellectual and cognitive potential is a factor, too. Some young people overestimate their capabilities and choose a prestigious profession they are unfit for. Studies show that the higher the motivation, the better the result. That is what the professional interest test is based on. Interest is an important factor in terms of satisfaction and choice of profession.

Since 2013, Schoolchildren's Professional Choice Support Program within the frameworks of the Youth Policy has been implemented. By employing a certain methodology and supply of professional guides, books and an interactive website, the project aims at facilitating the young people's professional decision-making.

Research results and data analysis

Before surveying the results, it would be reasonable to touch upon topical units. The questionnaire involved the key issues, such as: factors influencing choice of profession, the situation in place, the desired and undesired professions, the part of an educational institution, employment and advancement prospects etc. As schoolchildren and students formed the target group of our study, interpretation of the research issues varied in the field works and development of the discussion plan. Among the interviewees were the 15-18 year old schoolchildren. 41.67% of them said they had had made up their minds about the future profession, 50% partly agreed to the statement and 8.33% disagreed. 83.33% of the respondents believe that a profession-related decision is strictly personal to be made in accordance to one's interests. As against this, 16.67% say that a person should make a professional choice based on one's potential. 50% of the surveyed schoolchildren state that school does not support them in choosing their professions, while 33.33% say the opposite, and would like the school to be more involved. Unfortunately, none of the surveyed schoolchildren say that school plays a crucial part in their professional choice. "All in all, we get no professional guidance at school", - one of the respondents says. 25% of the schoolchildren suppose that only after graduation, does a person realize whether his choice of profession was right. It is noteworthy that 25% of the schoolchildren say that the family and circumstances play a crucial part in terms of professional choice. "Not infrequently, regardless of professional guidance at school, own interests or potential, one has to choose a a career under the influence of parents, relatives, social factors and do what one dislikes or is not up to", - another respondent says. 66.67% of the surveyed schoolchildren admit unawareness of the available professions. We believe that in this regard, the school should keep a higher profile. 91.67% of the surveyed schoolchildren assert that a person who does not like his job cannot be a success.

If we try to analyze the obtained data and draw some conclusions, we may end up in a deadlock. If it is the family, teachers etc. who make the decision about the teenager's profession even if he/she does not like it or feel up to it, how can he/she be a successful, satisfied person?!

Let's look at the professional decision-making from the standpoint of a university student. The surveyed students were 22-30 years old. 58.33% of the respondents were female and 41.637% - male. 33.33% of the surveyed students partly agreed with the statement: "I feel comfortable about my professional choice and I know how to advance my skills", while 16.67% disagreed. 8.33% of the students pointed out at the employment prospects as definitive in terms of the professional choice; 58.33% believes that one should choose one's profession according to the interests and potential. Although none of the surveyed said that the criterion: "prestigious", "not prestigious" is crucial in terms of choosing profession, 58% still think that this kind of categorizing makes sense. Half of the surveyed students had had jobs in their respective industries, while the others had had no employment record. 9% of the students did not want jobs in their respective fields. Moreover, 13% said they would be happy to study something else. 16.67% of the students agreed with the statement: "I was not sure what I'd like to study, so it was all the same". A more thorough consideration of the answer raises the issue of a qualified labor force, preconditions of an efficient and fruitful work etc. All the talk about personal success or labor market seems irrelevant if, not infrequently, individuals are not sure whether they are doing the right job.

Results of the interviews with the teachers proved to be highly interesting. We asked them whether they were glad about their professional choice, what part they played in the formation of their pupils' personalities and how much they could help them in choosing their trades.

One of the respondents said he/she enjoyed the job but could not give a clear-cut reason as to why. Another respondent of 15 years' work experience pointed out at the social status as the main reason behind his/her satisfaction. Another respondent pointed out at the flexible working time as the main reason behind the professional choice.

This holds true for especially the female teachers, who can combine teaching with the family etc. activities. When Asked the question: "what is a good teacher", 75% of the surveyed said that only if you are fond of children, can you be one. The majority of them mentioned flexible working time etc. factors as making teaching attractive.

Pupil's academic progress is one of the key factors in the assessment of a teacher's efficiency. One of the surveyed teachers stated that informing the school children about innovations in various industries should make them more motivated and confident about their future professions. Still another highlighted teacher-pupil relations as important in terms of motivation, setting priorities and, eventually, professional decision-making.

Conclusions

According to the study, the general education system is inadequate in terms of the pupils' professional guidance.

The results make it evident that frequently enough the pupils choose the wrong trade. Quite often, a profession is not the person's choice. Parents play a major part in their children's choice of a career.

Today, in the decision-making about their professions, the pupils consider the criteria, such as employment rates, prestigiousness and own potential. Some of the surveyed respondents have thought of changing one's profession and would be happy to do so.

Regardless of the inadequate professional orientation, most of the respondents said they felt satisfied with their choice. Moreover, quite a few of the surveyed students had had work experience in their respective fields. As against this, most of the interviewed teachers had not chosen teaching relying on their interests or vocation.

Quite a large number of teachers are not duly qualified or able to guide the pupils in choosing the profession by showing its advantages and disadvantages. We may presume that a wrong professional choice leads to the problems like the unqualified labor force, high unemployment rate etc.

The general education institutions should provide more professional guidance, which as the research showed some schools do not.To a large extent, the Georgians' mentality plays an important part in the professional choice.

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MENTAL IMAGERY – AN EFFECTIVE INCENTIVE IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

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Abstract

The importance of mental imagery for education is incontestable. According to many researchers, imagery work contributes to the development of various skills in the learner. Mental imagery is the basis of learning in the EFL classroom since it can be a useful tool for increasing learners' cognitive skills, creativity, motivation, attention span. As well as this, mental images are a solid means to enrich the EFL classroom with efficient activities enabling learners to process the language being acquired. The present article deals with specific activities English teachers can use when teaching vocabulary, grammar, speaking, writing from elementary to advanced levels. In particular, we offer some practical, hands-on activities exploring the ways of incorporating mental imagery when planning vocabulary and grammar production stages with an eye to evoking response from students and encouraging them to use target language units in their own contexts both orally and in writing.

Key words: mental imagery, vocabulary, grammar, production, creativity.

The concept of mental imagery

According to Thomas (2008), a cognitive scientist, 'Mental imagery (varieties of which are sometimes colloquially referred to as "visualizing," "seeing in the mind's eye," "hearing in the head," "imagining the feel of," etc.) is quasi-perceptual experience; it resembles perceptual experience, but occurs in the absence of the appropriate external stimuli. It is also generally understood to bear intentionality (i.e., mental images are always images of something or other), and thereby to function as a form of mental representation'. Thus, mental imagery is the capacity of our brain to evoke sensory experiences resembling the ones we experience while actually perceiving something. As is clear, experience implies perception as well as consciousness. Thomas (2008) claims that our brain is designed in the way that it encodes and interprets complex stimuli such as images, colors, structures, sounds, smells, tastes, touch, positions, emotions and language. We use these stimuli to make sophisticated models of the world in which we live in'. This way imagery is necessarily of conscious character since in order to be perceived as mental imagery, things have to be consciously experienced. In simpler terms, mental images are pictures in our minds which are associated with our experiences. A cognitive scientist, Pinker (1999), holds the view that 'our experiences of the world are represented in our minds as mental images. These mental images can then be associated and compared with others, and can be used to synthesize completely new images. In this view, mental images allow us to form useful theories of how the world works by formulating likely sequences of mental images in our heads without having to directly experience that outcome'.

Sadoski and Paivio (2001) claim that imagery pervades all aspects of our mental lives. Mental imagery is considered to include memories of sights, sounds, tastes, touch, smells, feelings, events, and stories that may be replayed in the mind (Long, Winograd, & Bridge, 1989). Due to its omnipresent character and because of it being 'a basic form of cognition' (Kosslyn, 1980), a huge potential of mental imagery in many fields of human activity is indisputable. Imagery has been playing a significant role in the field of memory (Yates, 1966), motivation (McMahon, 1973), cognitive science (Neisser, 1967), medical research (Pearson et al., 2015), etc. It is also believed to play an active role in creative thought. According to a dominant philosophical school of thought, imagery involves in all thought process, and provides the semantic foundation for language (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy).

The concept of Dual Code Theory

Since mental imagery is closely linked to cognition, a Dual Code Theory is worth the mention. It accounts for both verbal and nonverbal cognition (Paivio, 1986), and has recently been advanced as a general theory of literacy (Sadoski, 2005). This theory distinguishes between the verbal code and the nonverbal code. The verbal code deals with the representation and processing language in all its forms, whereas the nonverbal code deals with the representation and processing of nonverbal objects, events, and situations (Sadoski, 2005). Mental imagery is thus seen as the primary cognitive form of nonverbal representation. All knowledge, meaning, and memories explained by representation and processing within and between the two codes in this theory. This includes knowledge of words and their meanings (Sadoski, 2005). According to dual coding theory, information stored in two codes is better understood and remembered in contrast to the cases when information is stored in one code.

Mental Imagery in language teaching

ELT is one domain where the importance of mental imagery cannot be overestimated since language and mental images are closely connected to each other. According to educational theorists, teaching with the help of multiple sensory media contributes to increased results since learners go through visual, auditory and kinesthetic systems of experience. Thus, teachers are encouraged to use multiple media embracing visual, auditory and kinesthetic systems. In the context of foreign language teaching learners use visualization or mental images to apply new vocabulary items to their personal experiences. This is due to the fact that we tend to associate words with something we are familiar with rather than remember the meanings of new words through words. Arnold, Puchta and Rinvolucri (2007) consider imagery as the factor contributing to students' language learning in direct and indirect ways, since among other things, imagery:

- increases learners' cognitive skills and creativity
- improves their reading and listening comprehension
- enables students to remember better what they have learnt
- enhances their motivation
- strengthens their self-concept
- helps to focus their attention.

Practical uses of Mental Imagery in the EFL classroom

The given paper revolves around the concept of mental images in connection to teaching vocabulary and grammar points. We explore some practical activities for vocabulary and grammar production suitable for students from elementary to advanced levels.

A vocabulary production activity

The main objective and subsidiary aims

This is a vocabulary production activity on completing of which students will have used the target vocabulary in their own context in response to the visual stimuli and written a short summarizing paragraph of up to 5 sentences. This very activity was piloted in the group of B2 students. Throughout the activity the teacher accomplishes the following subsidiary aims:

- pushes students to take on the role of a different, fictional personality;
- encourages students to become more 'image-aware' (Keddie, 2009);
- motivates students to see through the 'affective and contextual perspectives' (Keddie, 2009) of the work of art.

Procedure:

- The teacher elicits the target words on the board (sprawling, legacy, extravagant, to spur, a notable feat)
- The class is divided into groups of 4-5
- The teacher shows the picture on the screen: https://i.pinimg.com/originals/16/01/81/160181eb16645448e8d0d2e1aead9d4c.jpg
- Groups are asked to prepare questions using the target vocabulary they'd ask a person in the picture
- The teacher provides the model
- Would you rather live in a sprawling mansion or a cozy cabin?
- What's the most important legacy you've inherited from your ancestors?
- What kind of things can spur your imagination?
- After providing the model, the teacher suggests the students forget the questions used in the model. Instead, they think of the questions of their own.
- Students from one of the groups come out and sit near the picture – they imagine to be the person in the picture and have to provide the person portrayed with a 'voice'.
- Students from another group ask questions with the target vocabulary to the 'character' of the picture and the 'voice' answers building up a sense of the person
- Groups swap the roles
- Feedback follows
- Students write a short summarizing paragraph of 4-5 sentences about the person in the picture using the target vocabulary and ideas produced during the activity.
- Grammar Production
- The main objective and subsidiary aims

This is a grammar production activity enabling students to present short accounts of taglines using Conditional 3 and write 4 sentences. The given activity was piloted with B2 level students. The following subsidiary aims will contribute to achieving the main aim:

- Raising awareness of 'taglines'
- Scaffolding the task

Procedure:

- Elicit the meaning of 'a tagline'
- Write the following tagline on the board: He was their inspiration. He changed their lives.
- Inform students that the given tagline is taken from one of the best films of all times
- Ask students to work in groups, think of the tagline from the film based on the cues, prepare their response: Who the character who inspired people is, who he/she inspired, how the lives of others' changed.
- Give students an example if needed: I think the character from the movie who inspired others is an athlete with disabilities. Due to his strong will he managed to win Paralympic games and set an example to thousands like him.
- Group 1 presents. Group 2 listens and afterwards transforms the account into Conditional 3 sentences. E.g. If he hadn't been strong-willed, he wouldn't have managed to inspire others. If he hadn't won the games, he wouldn't have set an example to others etc.
- Groups swap roles
- Students watch the film trailer to compare their accounts with the original story of the film https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4lj185DaZ_o
- Students feedback using Conditional 3 structures
- Individually students write a short summarizing paragraph of 4 sentences

Conclusion

Mental imagery proves to be an efficient tool in the EFL classroom to boost students' cognitive skills, their creativity and the retention of the new material. If used duly visual stimuli encourage students to become more image aware, to see through affective and contextual perspectives of the visual images and above all, to use target language units meaningfully.

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USING DISCOURSE ANALYSIS FOR P4C-STIMULATED TEACHER REFLECTION

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Abstract

The paper describes an exploratory study that aimed to use discourse analysis as a tool for identifying trainee teachers' beliefs, attitudes and priorities. The participants of the study were enrolled in the 60-credit teacher training program and had varying degrees of prior experience in ELT in very different contexts. The research used Philosophy for Communities (P4C) approach and recordings of teachers' discussion as a data collection instrument, which provided rich linguistic data for analysis. Applying discourse analysis method has allowed us to identify common themes and individual voices of teachers. Looking at the language used in teacher discourse leads to several interesting findings connected with how teachers conceptualize their role in relation to other key participants in the educational process and how their beliefs about teaching are affected by the teacher education course, if at all. Although limited in scope, the study allows us to suggest that combining P4C approach with discourse analysis may prove invaluable in accessing the aspects of teacher cognition that often remain hidden from teacher educators and educational authorities.

Key Words: P4C, discourse analysis, teacher reflection, teacher beliefs.

Discourse analysis and teaching

Discourse analysis has been linked with teaching for many years and in many ways. Its influence on language teaching is probably the most obvious one. Discourse has become a major reference point since it was recognized that the aim of language teaching is not knowledge of the language system, not simply linguistic competence, but rather communicative competence. The shift of the focus towa rds social dimensions of language use led to discourse analysis being viewed from a different perspective - as a source of information on what needs to be taught. Previously, in traditional methodology, language teaching curriculum focused on grammar and vocabulary of the target language. As a result of this concentration on language structure learners were often "taught to produce answers which are grammatically correct but unusual or even deviant in terms of discourse rules" (Coulthard 1985). However, with the change of the paradigm, linguistics became more concerned with the pragmatic level of analysis and discourse, defined as "language in use" (Brown and Yule, 1983), emerged as the object of analysis for linguistics and as subject matter of language teaching.

Classroom discourse and in particular, teacher talk has been a major area of interest for language teaching research. Stanley and Stevenson (2017) group this research into three main perspectives: the input perspective, the intelligibility perspective, and the interaction perspective. However, only the first two are primarily applicable to language teaching, while the interaction-focused research is applicable to education research in general. After S. Krashen introduced the input hypothesis and emphasized the importance of comprehensible input for language acquisition, it became evident that teacher talk is an effective source of comprehensible input. Therefore, analysis of teacher talk and research of the effect of modifications to the input garnered a lot of attention.The intelligibility perspective has resulted in studies that research teacher talk with the purpose of identifying how phonologically intelligible it is, but also if its propositional content and communicative intention are understandable for students (Stanley and Stevenson 2017). The assumption is that teacher talk, especially native-speaker teachers' talk needs to be graded to be more beneficial for students, especially with the concept of 'native speaker' being redefined with emergence of studies in 'World Englishes'.

Quite apart from its value for language teaching, discourse analysis is widely used in the context of education in general. Analysis of classroom discourse has been used to identify dominant interaction patterns. This allows to draw conclusions about the teaching methods used in the classroom by identifying features that may not be explicit: teacher vs. learner roles, the role of gender-related factors in teaching, reasons for students' low involvement, better understanding of students' identity etc. In fact, discourse analysis has been found to be such an efficient tool that it is now included as a component of a lot of teacher education programmes in order to ensure that teachers can improve their practice by becoming more reflective and informed about their own teaching (e.g. Rumenapp 2016). One of the productive directions for applying discourse analysis tools is the research into trainee teachers' reflections, for example, teacher journals and narratives.The aim is to gain better understanding of how teachers conceptualize themselves, their students, teaching and learning processes. Teacher reflection has mainly been viewed as a tool for teacher education or/and instrument for introducing innovations into the practice of teaching. There has also been substantial criticism of its effectiveness (see Fendler 2003 for an interesting review). Below we will try to suggest a possible approach to studying the question from the standpoints that can be mutually beneficial both for discourse analysis and for inferring teacher beliefs and attitudes.

P4C-stimulated teacher reflection

According to Farrell (1999: 23), "reflection in teaching refers generally to teachers' learning to subject their own beliefs of teaching and learning to a critical analysis and taking more responsibility for their actions". This clearly encompasses more than what are considered as typical tools of teacher reflection i.e. teacher journals/diaries and life stories or autobiographical narratives. Thus, we suggest it is possible to view P4C-stimulated teacher discussion as a form of group reflection. In fact, this approach solves some of the drawbacks of reflective practice. For instance, Zeichner's (as cited by Fendler 2003) claims that one explanation why reflection fails to bring about desired outcomes is that teachers use individual reflections instead of collaborative sharing. This is clearly not an issue with P4C approach. Even more importantly, according to Fendler (2003) "some reflective practices may simply be exercises in reconfirming, justifying, or rationalizing preconceived ideas" (p. 16). Researchers agree that there is a danger that reflection may simply reinforce teachers' existing beliefs which defeats its primary purpose of serving as a tool for development. This is exactly where P4C can play an important positive role.

P4C, which stands for Philosophy for Communities (alternatively Philosophy for Children), is an approach and curriculum developed by Matthew Lipman and his colleagues in the 1960s. It has a complex theoretical background and far-reaching aims that we will not discuss in any detail here. However, several of its aims are directly relevant to the issue under discussion. These are:

- encouraging the search for different viewpoints and ways of thinking to avoid reliance on a fixed mindset;
- expanding thinking not only by thinking for oneself but also thinking with and through others (see Fisher 2003).

We argued for the value of this approach for teacher education in our previous article (Nijaradze, Zviadadze, 2016). However, the focus there was on the benefits of P4C for activating the trainees' background knowledge to help make new information more relevant and allowing them to verbalize their beliefs. It was felt that discussion sessions in P4C produced data that could be valuable for trainers in discovering more about the trainees' attitudes and belief systems and allowing them to observe changes throughout the teacher training course.

The study

The present study was conducted at the English Philology Department of Akaki Tsereteli State University. The participants of the study were 22 trainee teachers with varied language and teaching experience and educational background doing a newly introduced 60-credit teacher training post-graduate course. The requirements to register for the course were BA degree in English Language and passing the centralized exam for teachers' of English Language conducted by National Assessment and Examination Centre. It is important to consider that having any teaching qualification was not a part of admission requirements apart from the above mentioned exam which mainly focused on testing examinees' language skills. The only academic experience of dealing with ELT methodology that some of the trainee teachers had was a 5-credit optional course in Methodology of English Language Teaching as a part of the BA programme of English Language and Literature. As well as that, participants had varying degrees of prior experience in ELT in very different contexts. Their majority had the experience of only private tutoring, two of them - of working in small private language schools and six - in village schools, which also usually have smaller number of pupils per class. At the time when the study was conducted the trainees had had only 5 weeks of instruction in the theory of pedagogy and ELT methodology.

Trainees were divided into two groups. As a stimulus for their discussion, following the stages of P4C method, 2.30-minute YouTube video "Why You Should Thank a Teacher Today" was selected. After watching the video trainees were asked to think about the questions provoked by the video and discuss them following the P4C procedure that was explained to them in detail (for detailed information on the procedure see Chachanidze [2013]). Trainees were asked to speak English unless they felt need to express something in their L1. After voting the following top questions were selected:

- Why is the teacher's job hardest?
- What are the main skills of a good teacher?
- What makes a teacher successful at her job?
- What role does the teacher have in students' lives?

Discussions of both of the groups were recorded and the data transcribed, coded and analyzed. Discourse analysis proved to be really valuable in analyzing the data. Studying the recorded discourse linguistically and focusing on the frequency of certain vocabulary items as well as considering some non-verbal clues accompanying the trainees' talk led to identifying certain interesting tendencies. The research material was rich and offered the data for different levels of analysis. However, at this stage we concentrated on the most significant ones.

Findings of the study

The first interesting finding relates to the use of the words 'teacher' and 'student'. These are two most frequent nouns in the transcript (this includes all forms of the two words, plurals, possessives, etc.) However, a 'teacher' is referred to twice as many times as a 'student', which is not surprising considering that the stimulus was focused on the teacher as were all the questions. What is more interesting is that in all references to students, this word functions as an object in the sentence. Only in three cases does it appear in the function of the topic of a sentence:

- Students' success makes the teacher successful.
- A teacher plays a very important role because students spend half of their daily lives at school.
- All students should ... must somehow listen to teachers2.

At least two of these examples (2 and 3) only confirm the overall impression that students are presented in this discourse as passive recipients of teachers' help, in the roles of patient or beneficiary but never an agent. They are conceptualized as needing constant support, help and guidance, even to the degree of having teachers solve their problems for them:

"I mmm think that teacher's job is the hardest because the teacher is a person who solves her own students' problems"

In contrast, a teacher's role is portrayed as that of a 'friend'/'parent'/'advisor' giving advice, helping solve problems:

"... you are also a friend. You help students not only doing some homework and not only in the classroom; you help them to solve some kind of problems in their daily life, you give them some instructions, some advices and ... through their life and ...You are the best friend for them".

Interestingly, although a teacher is compared with a parent only three times throughout the transcript, while 'friend' appears in this context regularly, the functions described are more similar to those of a mother or father figure and include giving advice, instructions, guiding them through life's challenges.

It has to be mentioned that throughout the transcripts there is evidence of some awareness of student differences. Although this diversity is presented as a challenge for teachers several times, it is not specified what it implies. The teachers mention having to "deal with all kinds of students", however the only detail given concerns their behaviour:

"...some of them are clever, some of them are rude, some of them are ... erh well-behaved and some of them are bad-behaved; so you have to deal with all kinds of students".

Thus, it could be claimed that the image of a student is very vague, there is little awareness of learning styles, motivational factors, diverse learner personalities and what kind of challenges they might present to the teacher apart from their behaviour.

One of the most characteristic tendencies identified in both recordings is the trainees' overall inclination to emphasize emotional aspects of teaching and additional roles of the teacher at the expense of actual teaching responsibilities. In fact, two questions: 'What role does a teacher have in students' life?' and 'What is the main role of the teacher besides

2 All the examples replicate the trainee teachers' speech as closely as possible without any corrections or alterations.

teaching?' were perceived as synonymous by them. In answer to the first they spoke so broadly about a teacher as a parent and advisor that when the second one was asked they felt no need to discuss it at any length. Overall, teaching activities are mentioned only five times and always in contrast with a "more important role" of teachers' other duties e.g.

"A teacher must not be associated only just only with some lesson ... and ... some subject, you know; when you remember your teacher you have to remember her as some kind of professional, kind generous and someone who is always with you and helps with problems."

Example 5 also speaks of teachers' responsibilities "not only in the classroom". However, what actual teaching responsibilities are is not explained at all. This is closely linked to the interpretation of the word 'professional' implied in teachers' reflections. As we see in example 7, 'professional' is immediately followed by adjectives that describe a teacher as emotionally supportive of students. This is typical of all the references to the term – it is either not elaborated on or given an affective evaluation. e.g.:

"I think the teacher should be, as the girls said above, very fair and honest and first of all professional; if you don't like what you're doing, you can't be professional."

Another important observation has to do with the trainees' response to the question about the main skills of a good teacher. The answers include: loving her children, honesty and fairness, empathy, loving your job, tolerance. In fact there is no mention of anything that can be described as 'teaching skill'. Interestingly, one of the teachers summarizes her response to the question with a sentence that can be said to identify the problem quite clearly:

"Teachers have to have different kinds of skills but I think these are the main qualities ... what makes a perfect teacher".

Equating skills with qualities is indicative of the trainees' general focus on affective factors involved in teaching and relationship with pupils.

One final topic that deserves attention is that difficult working conditions for teachers are mentioned only three times. There are two reference to low salaries and one to the need for teaching assistance due to heavy workload, e.g.

"I think especially in Georgia ... you ... the teacher's job is the lowest paid job ... No one appreciates what you are doing, especially in Georgia."

There seems to be some significance in the fact that on all three occasions the topic is followed by awkward laughter, some Georgian comments by other participants and is soon abandoned. It appears that teachers feel uncomfortable demanding rewards for the job they perform. However, it is not clear whether that is a cultural phenomenon or lack of familiarity with the process of group reflection and recording.

Conclusion

The scope of this study prevents us from making any generalizable or far-reaching conclusions, but certain topics and attitudes are obvious:

The findings confirm that trainee teachers' perception of a teacher's role lacks specificity and is shaped by emotional response rather than professional awareness. There is practically no discussion of what teaching a particular subject (in our case English) involves or what particular skills are needed to teach it successfully.

Their perceptions and opinions are centered on the teacher, her role, functions and characteristics. The image of a learner that emerges from the analysed discourse is rather vague and is defined in terms of their dependence on the teacher.

Pauses, hesitations and laughter in the discourse suggest that even if aware of practical challenges facing teachers, they are reluctant to voice these considerations (e.g. salary, workload, need for teaching assistants.

Possible areas for future research include following the development of the trainees' discourse as they progress through the course to identify any changes and developments as well as comparing these results with the findings of a similar session with a more experienced group of teachers. More can be done on the analysis of the trainees' questions in relation to the stimulus and comparing the questions that receive majority vote with the less interesting ones. It would also be interesting to study how pervasive the conceptualisation of a teacher as a mother figure is for the Georgian educational context and how far if at all it can be considered culture-specific.

Overall, we can conclude that combining P4C approach with discourse analysis may prove invaluable in accessing certain aspects of teacher cognition and tracing its evolution throughout the teacher education course.

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THE ROLE OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN EMPOWERING LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS IN INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

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Abstract

Inclusive education nowadays occupies an inconspicuous niche in the educational world and as a result, there often is a lack of teachers and administrators who are well-prepared to lead, monitor and supervise the classrooms with students who require a bigger portion of attention and observation. One of the foundations of inclusion for schools suggests provision of the conditions that will support the education of children with SEN. Therefore, it will also demand school leadership that assists teachers to construct inclusive classrooms. This study accentuates the importance of creation of special curriculums for the SEN classrooms and the implementation of teacher leadership practices of special education teachers in creating energy in the classroom; building capacity; securing environment; extending the vision; meeting and minimizing crisis; and seeking and charting improvement dimensions. Flexible curriculum contributes to the prosperity of teacher leadership and helps to determine the most suitable approaches that could be applied to particular situations. The research also emphasizes the inalienable role of the parental support that triggers motivation and stabilizes the relationship between the students and teacher leaders. The findings confirm that school leaders influence inclusive school change when they provide teachers with appropriate support for staff development and this paper analyzes how teacher leadership should be presented in order to create healthy atmosphere in the classroom that maintains and stresses individuality of every single student and empowers them.

Keywords: Leadership, education, special educational needs.

Introduction

The roles of education and teachers who interact daily with the students at schools are gradually growing and changing, requiring new models of observation, school-teaching, engaging students in the educational process, and grabbing their attention. The world has faced a great progress in terms of granting every child with an opportunity to be educated starting with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights signed in 1948 by the United Nations General Assembly in Paris. Alongside with the protection of one's property and safety the world could not ignore the purpose of education and signed the treaty of CRC, known as 'Convention on the Rights of Children' (United Nations Human Rights Office of the Commissioner, 1989) reiterating the right to education for children with disabilities, girls, racial minorities, and migrant workers. Inclusive education has gained lots of attention recently as long as its theory suggests engaging every single individual in the classroom and never leaving behind those who are slightly different from the majority of the classroom due to physical or mental peculiarities. 'Inclusive education is one dimension of a rights-based quality education which emphasizes equity in access and participation, and responds positively to the individual learning needs and competencies of all children. Inclusive education is child-centered and places the responsibility of adaptation on the education system rather than the individual child' (Save the Children, 2014).

Interpretation of the inclusive education sounds idealistic though. This educational model claims to have some utopian grounds as it addresses and responds to the diversity of needs of all children, youth and adults through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities, and reducing and eliminating exclusion (UNESCO, 2009). However, the road towards inclusion is not as smooth as it may sound. The concept of 'inclusive education' is relatively young and there is more theory rather than practice where all thee notions and plans are brought to life (Savolainen, 2009, p. 46).

Inclusive education

Definitely a lot of effort comes from the side of the teacher-leader who empowers the students in their beginnings and innovations. Both lack of knowledge and professionalism on the part of classroom teachers interfere with the idea of inclusive education. 'Inclusion involves the use of support, the ways in which teachers respond to individual differences during whole class teaching, the choices they make about group work and they utilize specialist knowledge' (Tyagi, 2016: 115).

Inclusive education views all children to be capable of being part of the school curriculum and participating in various events. The difficulties occur just because the teachers are not competent enough and create rigid curriculums suitable for students who do not have any physical or mental disabilities.

Teachers are educational change agents and actors on the stage who inspire and even raise protest in children in order to have some argumentative debates. "A good teacher not only has strong beliefs but is also well disciplined in their art of professional practice. A good teacher has to have a holistic grasp of their responsibilities. The teacher of the twenty first century is not just a person who teaches students in the classroom" (Humphreys, 2009, p. 47). A twenty first century teacher is an educator, a person who is an expert in curriculum management, a master of classroom management, a skilled practitioner in assessment and evaluation (Browder, 2001) and above all someone who understands the educational implications of the abilities and disabilities of their students (Kenway & Bullen, 2003) and encourages student-centered learning. The teacher matters because their ability to operate within this complex educational context requires the highest level of professionalism. Without the teacher's highest standard of professionalism there can be no quality of education development.

Teacher leadership styles

Professional teacher leadership is of prior importance in the educational world and occupies its special niche in the inclusive education classrooms. Living in the world of endless and chaotic streams of information the academic world of educational institutions has been brought to the point where a person called 'leader' has to keep the track of the archives and piles of documents that contain plans, summaries, paradigms, examples, curricula, programs and others of how schools or any other EI should be operated and supervised in order to make significant changes and inspire people of various positions and status (Peleg, 2012, p. 2). There are numerous types of leadership that can be applied to the inclusive classroom scenario and some prove to be especially effective.

In order to realize which leadership style bring into practice one should identify the goals to be achieved by the end of the term. When talking about transformational leadership the teacher-leaders are expected to engage students in the activities and motivate students with a large portion of enthusiasm, dedication to the thought that whatever is done in the classroom will be extremely important for their future (Treslan, 2010, p. 58).

Lots of studies show that transformational leadership is associated with different outcomes when compared to non-transformational leadership. For example, subordinates of transformational leaders have less role conflict, higher task performance, and higher satisfaction with a task than subordinates with non-transformational leaders (Howell & Frost, 1989, p. 243).

'Furthermore, transformational leaders are perceived as being more effective than non-transformational leaders, transformational leaders have been rated as better performing than non-transformational leaders, and subordinates have more reverence for transformational leaders, a stronger sense of collective identity, and higher perceptions of task performance compared to non-transformational leaders' (Conger, Kanugo, & Menon, 2000). In inclusive education transformational leadership proves to be successful as long as every single student is involved in the educational process. They feel that their participation throughout the lessons is important and feel motivated to speak up.

Another leadership style which is called 'democratic' has not been used at schools in past as there was a belief it was indulging rather than helping to educate the students (Wraga, 1998). Putting students into the conditions where their decision-making is not very much influenced by the teacher-leader prepares students for future challenges in life. In the democratic classrooms the teacher-leader has to make sure that all the students are equal and nobody is appreciated more than anyone else. In the democratic classroom there should be a positive environment for observation and learning individually, sometimes without the help of the teacher-leader (Simó, Parareda, & Domingo, 2016).

Equality is cherished in the inclusive education and democratic leadership is also a nice idea to be implemented in the inclusive education classroom. In most cases, becoming a democratic leader and making a classroom democratic will not happen overnight. Instead, the gradual implementation of democratic practices through a process of planned experimentation is a productive path to follow.

Situational leadership created by Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard (1972) addressed the ambiguous situations where leader had to behave differently depending on the situation, not always sticking to one and the same set of rules. When using this theory, leaders should realize where to stress the significance of the task, and put emphasis on the relationships with the people they're leading, depending on what's needed to get the job done successfully (London Imperial College, 2014).

Teachers have to adjust to different situations and convince their followers, in this case, students, commit certain actions. However, students may fall into different categories that depend on the level of readiness of the student. The followers (students) can fall in to one of four different development levels: two that are follower directed and two that are leader directed and are organized along a continuum of developmental opportunity of the follower ranging from high to low.

The current leader effectiveness instrument identifies specific populations (students, teachers, leaders) whose behavior can be observed and commented on- so as to derive a composite index of leader effectiveness. This measure of effectiveness, when utilized with the leadership style and maturity level variables of Situational Leadership Theory, provides a powerful strategy to improve, through state mandated supervision, the learning environment for students and the teaching environment for educators (Clark, 1981, p. 63).

One of the less effective leadership styles in terms of inclusive education is authoritarian leadership style. Creativity and willful decision-making are not welcomed by the authoritarian leader from his/her followers. It is also acknowledged that it is harder to move from an authoritarian style to a democratic style than vice versa. Abuse of this method is usually viewed as controlling, bossy, and dictatorial. It may seem that teacher-leader sticking to authoritarian leadership style is not interested in the student affairs but it is not true at all. These leaders are seen as bossy and controlling individuals, holding resentment and dislike. On the other hand, authoritarian leaders are good at quick decision-making and react instantly, if needed (Taiwo, 2013, p. 25).

Process of adaptation to the inclusive education classroom is important not only for students but for the teacher as well. A central principle for giving students with special educational needs full access to the curriculum is that delivery needs to be flexible and tailored to the needs of the individual student.

A number of studies (Douglas et al., 2009) were conducted in the schools with inclusive educational methods. A number of studies identified strategies and tools to help students access the curriculum. International literature was reviewed on best practice models and outcomes in the education of blind and visually impaired children. They concluded that blind and visually-impaired young people needed access to additional curriculum that could promote mobility and independence, social and emotional inclusion, and low-vision training. Particular problems faced by post-primary pupils with visual impairment include social isolation if they are limited in the activities they can engage in with friends who are becoming more independent (O'Mara, Akre, Munton, Gibson, & Martin, 2012).

Inclusive education in Georgia

In terms of Georgian reality inclusive education has a long way to go until reaching its pinnacle. Inclusive education is not that widely-spread and even if it is requires lots of corrections. 'The ministry of Education and Science aim to ensure step-by step accessibility of inclusive education in all schools throughout Georgia. One of the main topics here is encouragement of schools to become more active in creation of positive background for inclusive education development at schools' (Ministry of Education and Science in Georgia , 2015).

Being influenced by the Soviet Union educational system Georgia's inclusive education where students were operating in the separate world and did not have any opportunity to merge with the whole society. Inclusive education itself had a different meaning in those times but did not include good treatment of students with disabilities. However, the lack of encouragement to become a full-fledged part of the society and knowledge that you are different could not give any opportunities to the students who needed special, inclusive education, the way it is presented today (The World Bank, 2012).

In 1991 Soviet Union was dismantled and not only children but all people with disabilities lost their patronage and did not have any place where to go and work. In spite of living in difficult conditions throughout the 90s, Georgia established good relationship with the western world and tried to copy the pro-western model of education altogether with the inclusive one (Kavelashvili, 2017, p. 93). US Government assistance to inclusive education reforms is provided by means of the USAID project Supporting Equal Opportunities for People with Disabilities, implemented by the Save the Children and its associates' Collation for Independent Living and World Vision Georgia (Ministry of Education an Science, 2009).

Implementation of inclusive education is still not very successful and depends on the administrative staff's preferences and ideas (Chanturia, Gorgodze, & Chkhaidze, 2016). The administration often ignores the fact that teachers in Georgia lack training and experience in the sphere of inclusive education. The administration in its place has not tried solving this problem yet. 'Hence, inclusive education in Georgia deprives of many things to get closer to European level, for that level there are a lot of steps to pass. Great attention needs to be paid to society's unpreparedness to accept the people who are different from them' (Kavelashvili, 2017, p. 96). The European model has positively influenced the Georgian model of education altogether with inclusive model. As a result, Georgia has joined the UNICEF Convention on the Rights of a Child Georgia where education can become flexible to all people in order to "achieve the fullest possible social integration and individual development" (UNICEF, 2011).

Conclusion

Creation of adequate curriculum that takes into consideration the uniqueness and challenges faced by the SEN students helps to empower them and feel safer in the society. The role of teacher is impartial in implementation of the curriculum and that is why teacher-leaders have to be well-trained professionals who can easily solve the problems and stick to the composed curriculum.

However, research shows that no matter how up-to-date methods are used at school, one of the main energy sources still comes from the family. Parents are more apt to feel that their input in decision making and planning for their child is valued when there is an atmosphere of collaboration and mutual respect. The school system believes and demonstrates that the outcomes for all students are enhanced when parents and school staff collaboratively build and reinforce individual student goals and specific strategies (Council of Ontario Directors of Education, 2012).

Creating positive environment for students with special educational needs is not the easiest task to fulfill but at the same time hard work and persistence pay off. Engaging children – the agents of our future societies is more important and that is why teacher-leaders emerge with their help and understanding in order to help those students express themselves and become who they deserve to be.

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ELFIES AT LARGE – BEWARE!

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Abstract

It is common knowledge that English has become the lingua franca (ELF) the world over. Today the overwhelming majority of communication takes placebetween nonnative users of English, often in the absence of native speakers. Given this, proponents of the ELF movement (elfies) claim that native English standards need not be followed any longer. The assumption will be critically analyzed and the conclusion made is: teachers had better follow their own agenda and satisfy their learners' genuine needs, instead of listening to elfies.

Introduction

To begin with, what is ELF? Most directly, ELF is precisely what the acronym suggests, namely that English is the one and only global language spoken in all corners of the world. Recent estimates put the number of English speakers between one and two billion. This is due to what Carol Myers-Scotton calls the 'snowball effect': 'The more people learn a language, the more useful it becomes, and the more useful it is, the more people want to learn it' (2002: 80).

Today, natives are heavily outnumbered by nonnatives: three out of four English speakers are nonnatives, and our numerical superiority is increasing fast. In fact, the majority of interaction in English takes place between nonnatives, more often than not in the absence of natives.

Recently, however, ELF has taken on another meaning, too. Namely, it's a label used by a group of researchers, whom I shall call 'elfies'. The activities undertaken by elfies may be divided into two consecutive periods.

In the first period, they focussed on pursuing empirical research. They asked: 'Are there any linguistic features nonnative speakers have in common?' Yes, there are, said Jennifer Jenkins, the flagbearer of elfies. In evidence, she collected the 'Lingua Franca Core' for pronunciation (2000). This was supplemented, as it were, by Barbara Seidlhofer's 'VOICE' (2013), a record of salient lexico-grammatical characteristics. Both Jennifer and Barbara deserve credit for their pioneering work to produce linguistic descriptions of English as used by large groups of nonnative speakers.

Elfieology

With empirical research done and dusted, elfies moved into the second phase of their endeavour and created their own ideology, which, for want of a better word, I shall call 'elfieology'. They asked: 'Now that nonnatives are in vast majority, can natives still arbitrate what's right and what's wrong in English usage?' Seidlhofer's reply is unequivocal: In international contexts we 'communicate very effectively without conforming to native speaker rules' (2012: 78). But do we really? Well, it depends.

Not long ago, I overheard the following dialogue over the breakfast table at a science conference. The two characters were nonnative male scientists in their fifties:

A Have you childs? [tʃaildz]

B Oh yes. Two daughters.

A Hmm. Boy or girl?

B Girls…

The conversation rolled on smoothly. Although scientist A broke native speaker rules, his questions were easily decoded by Scientist B, and the two guys seemed to be enjoying each other's company too. Seidlhofer seems to be right then.

But what if I turned this real dialogue into an imaginary one? Like this:

A Have you childs? [tʃiltz]

B I'm sorry?

A Childs. Boy, girl.

B You mean children? Oh yes, two daughters.

A Two boy, super!

B Girls, not boys. Two girls…

In the second dialogue Scientist A's errors were so grave as to seriously hamper intelligibility. I doubt that Scientist B would have enjoyed socialising with his colleague. He probably would have gobbled up the food and left the table as fast as he could.

What I'm getting at is that there's a limit to the degree native speaker rules may be violated without communication breakdowns. Sometimes even a slight pronunciation error can lead to disaster. You may have seen the YouTube sketch, in which the German coast guard trainee is on duty. All of a sudden, he hears the desperate signal: 'Mayday, Mayday. Can you hear us? Can you hear us? We are sinking. We are sinking!' Fidgeting in his seat, the trainee asks, 'And what are you *sinking* about?'

Therefore, until elfies have created a comprehensive ELF grammar book (which is not on their agenda, as far as I know), nonnatives are well advised to abide by native speaker rules. Any native speaker variety will do, be it Liverpudlian, Texan or Australian, but preferably a standard variety, because it's generally perceived as more credible and held in higher esteem than nonstandard ones. Like it or not, the 'proper' use of English affords privileges and enhances learners' social and spatial mobility.

Unfortunately, elfieology is rife with unsubstantiated claims. For example, Jenkins contends that today 'the phrase *linguistic imperialism* is almost a household word among teachers and applied linguists, regardless of their orientation to it' (2006: 168). Among applied linguists, perhaps, but I'm yet to meet a practising teacher who would engage in heated debate about linguistic imperialism. Let alone having sleepless nights over its adverse effects on their classroom work.

In a more recent work, Jenkins argues that 'ELF […] needs to be acquired by L1 English speakers too' (2012: 487). In fact, she's trying to open a door that's wide open. In my experience, natives have always been prepared to make language adjustments to facilitate interaction with nonnatives. Accommodation for natives was a matter of course well before elfieology had been conceived.

Then there's the issue of identity. Suzuki and Jenkins (2006) stress that learners who wish to sound like natives are sacrificing their identity on the altar of a sham native speaker identity. I couldn't agree less! I've always tried to follow native speaker norms and yet managed to preserve my identity as a nonnative Hungarian speaker of English. How about you?

Seidlhofer maintains that, within the framework of a complete overhaul of language education, English as a school subject should be replaced by a subject called 'language awareness', where 'the focus would be on teaching *language* rather than *languages*' (2001: 227). I shudder at the thought of students sitting in classes, studying language as such, instead of the English language.

Elfies leave no stone unturned to capture the essence of ELF. They seem to agree that ELF is not a clearly identifiable variety of English. In fact, it's not a variety at all. But what is it then? Well, here's a random list of adjectives they use to define the unique qualities of ELF. Thus ELF is:

> *adaptable, changeable, contextual, contingent, cooperative, creative, diverse, dynamic, egalitarian, emergent, flexible, fluid, hybrid, inclusive, intellectual, intercultural, negotiable, non-idealised, polymorphous, powerful, real-life, relative, situated, transient, unpredictable, variable, versatile* and *vibrant.*

A very impressive list indeed! But do you know of any language which isn't adaptable, changeable, contextual, and so on? Because *I* don't.

Having read loads of recent papers written by elfies, my impression is that they've metamorphosed into group activists. They're determined to rally teachers to their cause, which is to defend the 'poor benighted nonnatives' against the hegemonic forces of natives (Maley, personal communication). Jenkins goes as far as to suggest that 'the majority of teachers remain unconvinced of the wisdom of an ELF approach to teaching and unable to make the necessary conceptual shift' (2007: 16). So elfies are wise – teachers are incapable…

However, regardless of this patronising attitude, I wonder what makes elfies so confident that they have anything worthwhile to tell the teaching profession.

Do teachers need Elfies?

At this point the question of relevance inevitably arises: Who needs whom? Firstly, do teachers need the helping hand offered by elfies? I don't think they do.

What elfies fail to realise is that there's a hell of a difference between teachers and researchers in the way they think and work. Teachers are people of action. They don't need high-fallutin theories and elaborate words to do a decent job. (Which is not to suggest, of course, that they lack the capability of reflective thinking.) Researchers, on the other hand, collect, analyse and then evaluate a set of data, which may take years of relentless effort. The two groups live in separate galaxies – and never the twain shall meet. Okay, they do – once in a blue moon. What is judged as *relevant* by the researcher is considered *irrelevant* by the teacher, as a rule. Needless to say, representatives from either group may be outstanding professionals, but their relationship is much less direct than elfies would have us believe.

It's no wonder, then, that teachers haven't a clue who elfies are and what elfieology is all about. To quote Alan Maley, 'Most teachers are sublimely unaware of the ELF debate, which for the most part takes place among a very small group of researchers' (2009: 196). This is my experience, too.

Do Elfies need teachers?

But what about the other way round? Do elfies need teachers? They certainly do!

Why? Well, apart from the noble urge to do good, elfies are driven by more down-to-earth motives as well. Namely, they're obliged to prove their worth for survival. For promotion. For tenure. Come to think of it, they're applied linguists of sorts, and as such they're expected to produce something that somebody, somewhere can *apply*. If their goods are sitting on the top shelf gathering dust, the word 'applied' doesn't make sense. It's a misnomer. Elfies would lose their job if they didn't have customers to buy their products. And who are the most readily available customers? Teachers, of course.

Therefore, elfies go to great lengths to foist their knowledge on teachers through compulsory pre- and in-service training courses, workshops, seminars, conferences. They're more than happy to involve teachers in their research projects and even hire them as co-authors. And yet the impact of elfiology on classroom practice remains skin-deep.

Conclusion

In conclusion, I agree with Michael Swan's judgment that the acronym ELF 'is both redundant and confusing, and we would do better to avoid it' (2009: 81). In my view, the ideas promoted by elfies are elusive, their claims are spurious and repetitive, worded in turgid academic discourse. Teachers have far more pressing concerns than listening to elfies.

Regarding us, nonnative teachers in particular, our job of paramount importance is to increase our English language competence, because this is a make-or-break requirement for us to become good teachers. Although speaking English as well as native speakers is but wishful thinking, making steady progress is possible – and this is quite a tall order too.

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INTERACTIVE MULTIMEDIA AS A SUPPORT FOR METACOGNITIVE LEARNING

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Abstract

The main goals of modernization are being improved by the implementation of multimedia technologies that are improving the quality, increasing the availability for education, and developing a personality who will be able to act in the informational environment, have informational culture and be aware of the informational and communicative capabilities of the modern technologies. The newly emerged paradigm "computer-student" in the multimedia reality is a good tool for meta-cognition and for Dieu's principle "learning by doing and getting experience" when learners are able to conceive and determine their own ways of problem solving and requirements for learning. It will also help them to stay independent from teachers and become independent observers. Meta-cognition as a leading phenomenon of academic and personal development assesses not only the thinking skills of a learner, but the use of those skills in practice as well.

Keywords: multimedia technologies, informational environment, multimedia reality, cognitive processes, meta-cognitive learning

In the process of global informatization the innovative meaning of the language acquisition infers demand for electronic instruments that give the process of learning new didactic and methodic features such as interactivity, multimedia and hypermedia traits, mobility, ability for adjustment, multi-functionality and distance launch.

The influence of multimedia tools changes the ways and the capacities of modern linguistic education. The main goals of modernization are being improved by the implementation of multimedia technologies that are improving the quality, increasing the availability for education, and developing a personality who will be able to act in the informational environment, have informational culture and be aware of the informational and communicative capabilities of the modern technologies.

The newly emerged paradigm "computer-student" in the multimedia reality is a good tool for meta-cognition and for Dieu's principle "learning by doing and getting experience" when learners are able to conceive and determine their own ways of problem solving and requirements for learning. It will also help them to stay independent from teachers and become independent observers.

All the above-mentioned develop personal reflection – a mechanism of self-perception and the components of meta-capacities. The cognitive component of self-reflection helps a person to expose his/her inner nature, individual abilities, and enables learners to plan the future goals adequate to their competence. The affective and evaluative component produces personal feelings about the acquired knowledge and adequate assessment of personal abilities. The behavioral component of self-reflection defines the awareness of the personal behavior, control and self-regulation.

To learn thinking means developing such fundamental skills that will enable the learners to solve entirely new problems by using the specific knowledge and practicing it.

Since learning is a behavior like the other behaviors it may be learned. Given chance, every student is able to show his/her maximum potential or define and choose the directions. It is clear that the thinking processes play an important role as they are necessarily followed by the desire for a successful problem solution; that is a skill to adapt the problem accompanied by the strong motivation for fulfillment. Therefore, the research of meta-cognition reveals two components - cognitive and affective (emotional). Consequently, meta-cognition as a leading phenomenon of academic and personal development assesses not only the thinking skills of the learner, but the use of those skills in practice as well.

Meta-cognition has been defined as an "awareness of one's own cognitive processes rather than the content of those processes together with the use of that self awareness in controlling and improving cognitive processes" (Biggs & Moore, p 527, 1993). Other researchers have referred to meta-cognition as cognitive strategies, "knowledge about executive control systems" (Brown, Harper and Hedberg, 1994), "monitoring of cognitive processes" (Flavell, 1976) and evaluating cognitive states such as self appraisal and self management.

John Flavell originally coined the term meta-cognition in the late 1970s to mean “cognition about cognitive phenomena,” or more simply “thinking about thinking” (Flavell, 1979, p. 906). Subsequent development and use of the term have remained relatively faithful to this original meaning. For example, researchers working in the field of cognitive psychology have offered the following definitions:

- “The knowledge and control children have over their own thinking and learning activities” (Cross & Paris, 1988, p. 131)
- “Awareness of one’s own thinking, awareness of the content of one’s conceptions, an active monitoring of one’s cognitive processes, an attempt to regulate one’s cognitive processes in relationship to further learning, and an application of a set of heuristics as an effective device for helping people organize their methods of attack on problems in general” (Hennessey, 1999, p. 3)
- “Awareness and management of one’s own thought” (Kuhn & Dean, 2004, p. 270)
- “The monitoring and control of thought” (Martinez, 2006, p. 696)

Meta-cognition is what enables a student who has been taught a particular strategy in a particular problem context to retrieve and deploy that strategy in a similar but new context. In cognitive psychology, meta-cognition is often defined as a form of executive control involving monitoring and self-regulation, a point echoed by other researchers (Schneider & Lockl, 2002). Further, Schraw (1998) describes meta-cognition as a multidimensional set of general, rather than domain-specific, skills. These skills are empirically distinct from general intelligence, and may even help to compensate for deficits in general intelligence and/or prior knowledge on a subject during problem solving.

If we look at learners who are aware of their meta-cognitive processes they will more than likely be people who possess self determination or autonomy in learning and problem solving. They will be able to refer to the what, how, when, where and why of learning when carrying out complex cognitive activities. These will be the learners who do this by:

- planning, deciding what their goals are and what strategies to use;

- deciding what further knowledge or resources they need;
- monitoring progress along the way;
- evaluating their achievements and terminating when the goals have been met (Biggs and Moore, p307, 1993).

If students know how to monitor their cognitive processes and regulate their learning to solve problems they will then be better able to select appropriate meta-cognitive strategies to facilitate their own problem solving skills. Problem based learning and interactive multimedia can support students by encouraging meta-cognitive learning and problem solving skills.

Instructional technology provides us with both meta-cognitive support tools and cognitive tools that are based upon a constructivist epistemology. Constructivism is concerned with the process of how we construct meaning and knowledge in the world as well as with the results of the constructive process. How we construct knowledge depends upon what we already know, our previous experiences, how we have organized those experiences into knowledge structures such as schema, mental models, and the beliefs that we as individuals use to interpret our own realities of the objects and events we encounter within the world.

Norman (1983) argues that computers support reflective thinking when they enable users to compose new knowledge by adding new representations, modifying old ones and comparing the two. Cognitive tools should be readily accessible to learners to support reflective thinking on what they have learnt and how they came to know it,

“Cognitive tools provide an environment and vehicle that often requires learners to think harder about the subject matter domain being studied while generating thoughts that would be difficult without the tool" (Jonassen, 1992, p. 5). Jonassen views technology as a tool for accessing information, representing ideas, communicating with others and generating products.

In the traditional foreign language teaching model based on network and multimedia technologies, most students mainly depend on the teachers’ guidance and supervision to learn foreign languages. Therefore, in the face of numerous network and multimedia resources, they will feel at a loss without the teachers’ help. But if they have got meta-cognitive knowledge and mastered the meta-cognitive theory, they will get out of this mess, make the learning objectives clear and set up new learning beliefs. The reasons are as follows: First of all, through the study of meta-cognitive knowledge, most students can form a correct judgment of themselves and have a profound understanding of their own interests, hobbies, study habits and learning ability, therefore, they can make a further consideration about the necessary measures which should be taken to overcome their own shortcomings and insufficiency, and adapt to the new environment of learning foreign languages. All in all, the conversion from unconscious behavior to conscious habit will not only make students gradually form a good habit of self-observation and self-judgment, but also make their learning objectives of a foreign language clear and form some brand-new learning beliefs (Cong, 2015).

In the teaching mode based on multimedia and network technologies, the mastering of meta-cognitive knowledge and ability will not only make the learners recognize their own cognitive style, but also prompt them to take actions to make their own cognitive activities more adapt to their cognitive style. This is actually a process of reflection. Reflection is not only a process in which the students consciously recollect, rethink, summarize, evaluate and regulate their own cognitive activities, but also the main form in which the students may strengthen their self-consciousness, self-monitoring and self-regulation (Bake & Brown, 1984).

A good habit of reflection is an important factor for foreign language teaching based on network and multimedia technologies to achieve the ideal teaching effect, because reflection is an important process in which the learners can self-evaluate their own learning ability and effectively regulate themselves.

It can't be denied that whether the students can effectively learn a foreign language depends more on the accumulation of their meta-cognitive knowledge and the cultivation of their meta-cognitive ability, as well as their timely self-monitoring and self-regulation in the learning process.

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THE IMPACT OF USING A MULTIMEDIA APPLICATION TO ENHANCE LISTENING PROFICIENCY AMONG ESL LEARNERS

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Abstract

Listening is often perceived as a skill which can be developed instantaneously. In reality, listening is the most critical receptive skill particularly in language learning. This is the phase where learners get to receive and digest comprehensible input in order for learning and language acquisition to take place. Realizing the importance of listening, the research intends to provide a practical learning tool for listening among ESL learners, investigate the impact of using the tool on their listening competence and contribute an alternative, effective method of teaching and learning listening for them. The study incorporates paired t-tests analysis whereby the subjects (Part 1, Interim semester, Universiti Teknologi MARA Kelantan Branch) are divided into control and experimental groups. A multimedia application known as LAfELLA (Listening Application for English Language Learners) innovated by the learners' instructors is provided for the experimental group as an intervention meant to enhance their listening skills. The study lasts for about four months, starting from November 2017 to January 2018. Both groups' listening assessment scores are then compared to see the impact the application has on the subjects' listening competence. It is hypothesized that LAfELLA contributes to significant, positive development of listening proficiency among the students. Upon proving its effectiveness, the application is targeted to be upgraded into a mobile application for easier use and broader coverage.

Keywords: LAfELLA, Listening Proficiency, Descriptive Analysis, Inferential Analysis, Paired t-test

Introduction

Among the four skills of language acquisition, listening is a primary, critical ability necessitated for language learning. For the normal majority, listening is built since birth and it is dominant in one's ability to gather input and produce the output later. Yet, of all the four modes of language process – listening, speaking, reading and writing – listening is often regarded as a second fiddle. There is still much about listening which fails to be understood by many. The skill involves an internal, invisible process which is 'diagnostically messy' (Farall, 2016) as it requires other complex subskills like hearing, paying attention, interpreting words and syntax, understanding intonation and pitch, figuring out pragmatics, etc., to ensure meanings are understood accurately. Realizing the utmost importance of the skill, it is worthwhile to look closely into the root of listening, methods of teaching and learning listening, use of multimedia application to help enhance learners' listening skill and its impacts on their listening proficiency in general.

Research background

There are a number of studies which prove the significant influence of listening skill on other macro language skills – speaking, reading and writing. Well-developed listening competence leads to better phonological awareness, enhanced reading comprehension and improved narrative and expository composition (Morris & Leavey, 2006; Badian, 1999; Bergman, 1999; Berninger, 2000; as cited in Bozorgian, 2016). The positive effects that listening has on other skills signify how important it is for learners to really focus on their listening skill in the process of acquiring first, second, or third language.

This study was conducted based on the awareness of the prominence of listening proficiency in language learning. At present, the skill is focused on part 1 diploma students of UiTM Kelantan Branch before they proceed with reading skill in part 2 and writing skill in part 3 upon getting a 'pass' for their part 1 English. Though listening takes the biggest portion of assessment weightage for English in part 1, the skill is much tested rather than taught. There is no specific, prescribed teaching and learning method for listening. Most instructors of English make full use of the compact disc (CD) attached in the textbook or past semester listening tests on CDs for listening practices in their classrooms.

The study is also done as a platform to experiment LAfELLA (Listening Application for English Language Learners), a multimedia application for listening and its impact on learners' listening proficiency. LAfELLA is innovated based on the feedback from a previous study where respondents stated their preference to have technology assisted language learning (TALL) element in their lessons. Thus, LAfELLA is an alternative, technology learning tool for listening, innovated by the instructors to help enhance learners' listening comprehension in general.

Problem statement

The current method of teaching and learning listening

To date, the method of teaching and learning listening can be simplified as teacher-centered and old-school. Sources of listening materials, frequency of listening practices and listening equipment are all within the sole control of teaching instructors. Teachers choose the audio and questions to be used for listening drills and they are normally from a collection of past year listening assessments. Since the English course for part 1 also covers other skills apart from listening, time allocated for listening drills is also limited, making it a constraint to allow an adequate number of listening practices among the students. The use of a CD player and speakers in a building where classrooms are closely adjacent to one another, combined with some background noise and other distraction, naturally affect learners' concentration and lead to poor listening comprehension.

Inadequate teaching and learning listening materials

At present, the only helping tool for listening practices readily accessible for students is the CD which comes together with a recommended textbook. The features, however, may or may not suit the students' needs. Some of the textbooks are international-based and thus, culturally-biased. The native speakers' socio-cultural background included in most imported textbooks is foreign to students with no or lack of schematic knowledge. This is in line with Gilakjani and Sabouri

(2016) who asserted that "learners should be familiar with the cultural knowledge of language that has a significant effect on the learners' understanding. If the listening task involves completely different cultural materials, then, the learners may have critical problems in their comprehension." Besides, the audio is also recorded using native speakers' accents which are hard for the learners to grasp. Therefore, the existing CD does not really help the students to improve their listening proficiency.

Another alternative listening source is the internet. Again, relevant materials which totally match the students' needs in terms of contents, accents, question format, etc. are limited. Most materials and audio clips uploaded utilize native speakers' accents and foreign socio-cultural subjects. Difficulties in dealing with the materials may eventually lead to boredom and demotivation in pursuing appropriate listening activities.

The actual listening assessment procedure

The conventional method is also a bit different from the actual listening assessment procedure. In listening drills, the instructors may play, pause, rewind and stop the audio several times so that students may get the exact messages. Yet, in the actual test, the assessment is done online. Computer-based listening test (CBLT) has some online features like a timer, speaker icon, volume on or off button, question box, answer box, list of questions box, done and exit button, etc. which are quite foreign to some students. Test duration is limited to 30 minutes and test takers can only stop and play the audio while, at the same time, check on the questions and answers. Since teachers have no access to any comprehensive sample of CBLT, the students do not have the opportunity to undergo listening drills based on the exact listening test procedures. This may eventually affect their assessment scores.

Research objectives

The study aims to achieve the following objectives:

- to identify the level of listening proficiency among part 1 diploma, interim semester students of UiTM Kelantan Branch.
- to provide a practical tool of teaching and learning listening for ESL learners.
- to investigate the impact a multimedia application has on ESL learners in teaching and learning listening.

Research questions

The study seeks to answer the following questions:

- What is the average level of listening proficiency among part 1 diploma, interim semester students of UiTM Kelantan Branch?
- What is the practical tool of teaching and learning listening for ESL learners?
- What are the impacts of using a multimedia application for teaching and learning listening on ESL learners' listening competence?

Research limitations

Lack of mechanism to check for other factors contributing to listening competence

As mentioned in the previous section, listening is a complex process which involves various subskills simultaneously. It is the only skill which learners have little or no control at all. As a matter of fact, listening comprehension is subjected to various factors other than the listener or speaker himself or herself. There are other subjective factors which influence listening proficiency such as listeners' second language (L2) knowledge and proficiency, their listening experiences or the training they have received, their psychological features of educational background, general knowledge, life experiences and information about the world (Wang & Liu, 2013). The study, however, focuses only on the use of LAfELLA and its impact on L2 learners' listening competence. The tool can either be effective or ineffective in assisting the students to be proficient listeners depending on the other factors mentioned earlier. In other words, the study lacks mechanisms to check for other factors contributing to the level of listening competence the subjects may achieve once exposed to and experimented on with LAfELLA.

Lack of control on the use of LAfELLA

LAfELLA is customized to suit the L2 learners' need for technological learning tool to enhance their listening skills. As a multimedia application, one of its special features is convenience. This means, the application is user-interactive, user-friendly, accessible and economical. In short, it promotes autonomous learning. Yet, these special features of LAfELLA will be useless if the users are not as autonomous as expected. Improved listening ability will only be possible if the learners really make full use of the listening tool provided for them. The study, however, lacks control on the matter. The researchers can neither force the subjects to use the application nor monitor their frequency of using LAfELLA, thus, making it rather challenging to relate effectiveness of the application towards the learners' listening performance and competence.

Lliterature review

Difficulties and challenges in listening comprehension

The importance of listening skill in language learning is unquestionable since the purpose of acquiring a language is to gain language input. According to Nowrouzi, Tam, Zareian and Nimehchisalem (2015), listening is a challenging language skill and even students who are adequate in speaking and reading faced problems with listening skill. In the study conducted by Al-Thiyabi (2014), he has identified some severe problems of listening comprehension such as hasty speaking, unknown words, and odd pronunciation. Bingol, Celik, Yidliz and Mart (2014) identify five common problems that learners may encounter in their listening comprehension which are accent, speed of listening, quality of recorded material, unfamiliar vocabulary and cultural differences.

According to the findings of a questionnaire at three higher secondary schools in Pakistan, Muhammad Naeem (2010) identified speakers' accent as one of the major problems perceived by learners in the process of listening comprehension. This finding shares similar result with the research conducted by Goh (1999), who found that 66% of learners claimed a speaker's accent as one of the most significant factors that affect listener comprehension. Unfamiliar accents both native and non-native can cause serious problems in listening comprehension and familiarity with an accent contributes to learners' listening comprehension. In this case, the learners will encounter difficulties when they hear unfamiliar accents such as American English accent for the first time after studying and listening regularly to their lecturers' British accent.

Underwood (1989) stated that the speed of listening is one of the negative factors that can affect listening process and can make listening difficult to understand. He pointed out that the main issue with listening comprehension is that listeners do not have the authority to control the speed of speech and this problem can lead to inadequacy in listening. Speedy rates of speech hinder the students from performing well in listening comprehensions as the students are incompetent to grasp English words or sentences uttered by the speakers. In other words, if the speakers speak too fast, the students may have difficulties to understand the audio as English is not their first language. Bingol, Celik, Yidliz and Mart (2014) highlighted that besides the speed of listening as mentioned by Underwood (1989), length of listening also plays a major role in listening comprehension. Students might face difficulties when they listen to long parts of the text and need to keep all information in their mind as they could not stop or pause the audio.

The result of a study conducted by Hamouda (2012), showed that bad recording quality was one of the major listening comprehension problems encountered by first year English major students of Qassim University. Nowrouzi (2015) also found that distraction and missing sounds because of the low quality of audio are linked to perception, complication and sentences being dismissed from learners' minds in the process of listening comprehension. Learners might view listening as the most difficult skill to master compared to other skills such as reading. Bingol, Celik, Yidliz and Mart (2014) pointed out that this problem is common in some classes when the teachers face constraints to find a high quality audio for listening comprehension. The quality of sound system can influence the learners in understanding the audio better.

A study conducted by Butt et al. (2010) reported that the main problem obstructing listening comprehension was that the students' vocabulary was too limited to understand the message or text. The data also prove the theory realized by Underwood (1989) that lack of vocabulary is a big obstacle to most students in listening comprehension. Another study conducted by Khamprated (2012) in The Problems with the English Listening and Speaking of Students Studying at a Private Vocational School, showed that limited vocabulary skills of the learners made it difficult for them to understand listening comprehension. When learners listen to the recording, sometimes, they encounter unknown and difficult words. This becomes a reason for the learners to stop listening and start thinking about the meaning of those words. This eventually causes them to miss the next part of the speech.

Another challenge faced by the learners in listening skill is cultural differences. The topic discussed in listening comprehension may contain completely different cultural matter than what the students have and are familiar with. In this situation, the students might have problems in understanding what has been told because they do not have the knowledge registered in their mind before. Bingol, Celik, Yidliz and Mart (2014) claimed that the learners may have serious problems in listening comprehension if the context of the audio does not share similar cultural background with the learners.

The significance of listening skills in ESL classrooms

People need to communicate and interact with others of different backgrounds (demographic, education, culture, etc.) and in various situations in their lives. Therefore, when learning a new language, comprehending and understanding the language is necessary. ESL learners need to understand the language system to develop their ability of applying the language to communicate successfully inside and outside the classroom.

Listening is an essential skill in order to understand a spoken language. The proficiency in listening is widely applied in most of the activities we carry out throughout our lives (Alonso, 2013). Alonso (2013), when citing a research done by Lindsay and Knight in 2006, stated that people have four processes when they listen, depending on the situation: listening for specific details, listening for general meaning, and listening for the general idea or gist. People also listen for different purposes: for information; for enjoyment or social reasons; and to learn a new language. Hence, a good teaching method would try to combine the processes and purposes which are mentioned above to enhance students' understandings and performance in an ESL classroom.

Asemoto (2015) stated that listening is a process, involving more than just hearing sounds and noises. Effective listening involves identifying, understanding and interpreting spoken languages. By applying appropriate skills in the process of listening, ESL students are not merely able to become aware of the meaning of the language, they will also become aware of how language is used as well as giving them opportunity to use grammar creatively in a correct manner. Besides, listening helps ESL students to acquire detailed comprehension which assists them to have greater confidence and expectation of success in the classroom (Asemoto, 2015).

Asemoto (2015) suggested that teachers of ESL classrooms should encourage small-group activities in listening. These activities stimulate students to use their imagination, and challenge them to think and ginger them to speak. The proficiency of listening will be enhanced when students care about understanding what others have said. Small-group activities are also effective in promoting language skill acquisition and autonomous interactions (Rivers, 1983 as cited in Asemoto, 2015).

If students know the meaning of the words used by a speaker, they are likely to have better understanding of a lesson. Therefore, listening and vocabulary knowledge are interrelated. Proficiency in listening skills is the key factor in shaping an active listener. An active listener learns better and faster as he/she is able to make judgment about what is heard. An active listener needs extra time to analyse and consider what he/she has heard by repeating key ideas, asking questions and testing the accuracy of the speaker's assertion (Baker, 1971 as cited in Asemoto, 2015).

Mastering the skills of listening is one of the ways to improve ESL students' logical and critical thinking skills. Good listeners always make notes on what they have listened to. They write down words of phrases denoting key ideas. Note-taking while listening encourages ESL students to achieve maximum effectiveness in listening as they do not merely gather the information, but they need to pay attention to both the verbal and non-verbal elements of the messages in order to acquire full meaning of the speakers by paying attention to the tone of voice, facial expression, bodily action, as well as the words used (Asemoto, 2015).

Listening plays a vital role in helping ESL learners to acquire pronunciation, word stress, vocabulary, syntax and the comprehension of the messages conveyed. These can only be achieved when we listen appropriately. Learning cannot be improved and communication cannot be achieved without appropriate and effective listening skills because previous studies have shown that when we communicate, we gain 45% of the language competence from listening. In this case, listening is seen to be the forerunner of language acquisition (Renukadevi, 2014).

Without listening skills, language learning is impossible (Renukadevi, 2014). Students should be given opportunities to use their listening skills in real life situations (Alonso, 2013). They should be encouraged to do more activities outside of the classrooms, participating in events or inviting people from an English speaking country as a way of comprehending its practical use. Furthermore, teachers of ESL classrooms should apply various techniques to help students to learn good listening skills by acquiring grammar and vocabulary skills needed at their respective level (Asemoto, 2015). Developing adequate listening skills is an important and challenging task for both ESL teachers and students. One of the tools to guide the students in attaining language proficiency would be using new technologies, which are very useful and can motivate the students because they consider the technologies something different and fun.

Tools to assist listening comprehension

Listening comprehension has concentrated exclusively on testing students' ability to listen to and comprehend audio tracks. According to Vandergrift (as cited in Caruso et al., 2017), every so often, educators use only listening activities to test their students' listening abilities which can lead to anxiety and distress. Obviously, this is not conducive for the acquisition of valuable listening strategies.

Teaching resources such as textbooks have failed to adapt to the needs and interests of the students. Thus, from the circumstance, it is likely that the approach and the materials being used in teaching listening skills have not been progressing at the same pace as the students (González Otero, 2016).

In helping students acquire effective listening skills, the methods used and the type of materials introduced to the students become imperative. It is necessary to implement methods that are modern and student oriented. González Otero (2016) asserts that in order to meet this challenge, a number of researchers have studied authentic materials that have the potential to develop more effective and motivating activities.

Currently, the rise of computer technology and the Internet has prompted a reassessment on the practices of language teaching. Thus, efforts in improving the effectiveness of language teaching have often focused on changes in teaching methods. The advantages of using technology include making this task more appealing to students today.

Research findings have proven that students are more motivated to learn when they are in control of their learning, the learning is about something that is relevant to their lives and the learning activities are interesting and fun. A study on students' motivation and perceptions of the learning environment reveals that "the most important factors of the learning environment that are connected with the formation of intrinsic goal-orientation and the enjoyment of education are the perception of the usefulness of the studied topics, a feeling of autonomy, and teacher support" (Radovan & Makovec, 2015).

Blended learning

According to Friesen (as cited in Banditvilai, 2016), the term blended learning combines the use of Internet and digital media with established classroom structures that require the physical presence of teacher and students. The blended learning concept can comprise instructor-delivered content, e-learning, webinars, conference calls, live or online sessions with instructors, and other media and events, for example, Facebook, e-mail, chat rooms, blogs, podcasting, Twitter, YouTube, Skype and web boards (Banditvilai, 2016).

Blended learning is a valuable concept that allows teachers to successfully achieve their teaching goals because it allows students to develop and practice English language skills outside the classroom at anytime and anyplace they choose as long as there is an Internet connection. Best of all, it enables the students to repeat their lessons over and over again without any judgment or pressure.

In a study by Caruso et al. (2017) reveals that the blended learning experience offered to students was successful due to a combination of factors. These include the delivery mode of the materials which means that students had access to the listening tasks in a flexible way, where they can listen as often as they liked, maximising their opportunity for learning. This leads to effective listening which requires much listening practice. In addition, the online tasks have proven to be enjoyable to the students, which motivate them to continue learning even when the tasks become more challenging.

Therefore, when it is properly implemented, blended learning can improve students' success rate, satisfaction and retention (University of Central Florida, 2015).

Language labs

Nowadays, there are a variety of contents that can be used in language labs. These include audio, video, flash-based materials, and internet. The advantage that they have over traditional language classrooms is that they are much more engaging for both the teachers and the students.

Moreover, language labs are now more developed as it can be accessed from both fixed network and related Microsoft operating systems to online and browsers. Students are able to get into these labs and do their work from their own devices anytime and anywhere. Thus, students can listen to, attempt listening exercises, and be assessed by their teachers remotely. A study by Mohammed (2017) found that using effective language laboratories in teaching English is essential in teaching listening and highly recommends the use of language labs in the teaching of English in colleges.

A study by Sulaiman et al. (2017), which aims to investigate students' performance when using traditional (audio-only) method and video media method, found that the majority of the students obtained higher marks when using video method compared to audio only method. Therefore, it is proven that by utilising videos as one of the assessment tools students will perform better because of the authentic, meaningful and real-life situation contexts and language used (Sulaiman et al., 2017).

Interactive multimedia

"Listening skills" has been taught using a learning media that consists of audio and text and followed by exercises (Ampa, 2015). Apparently, this type of learning media makes the students bored, due to the lack of variation. Interactive multimedia learning materials make the students be motivated to learn, because they can listen to audio, watch the video or view the text, animation and graphics simultaneously.

To overcome the problems faced by students, it is necessary to design teaching materials for the subject 'listening skills' which are equipped with interactive multimedia that can assist students to more easily understand the speech heard. Ampa (2015) conducted a research in Muhammadiyah University to get respondents' perspectives on an interactive multimedia learning materials developed using Wondershare Quizreator. The program allows the educators to construct exercises or quizzes with time limit and provide instant feedback. Therefore, the students can measure their performance using a self-grading system. The findings of this study reveal that teaching listening skills using interactive multimedia learning materials created with the Wondershare Quizcreator program are very effective (Ampa, 2015).

Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL)

The incorporation of mobile phones in language learning has been broadly adopted in numerous language teaching schools (Suwantarathip & Orawiwatnakul, 2015). The term "mobile learning" or m-learning is defined as the type of learning that could be done using mobile technologies. According to Kee and Samsudin (2014), because of this mobile technology era, students are able to practice learning anywhere, effortlessly. Thus, with mobile technologies, language teachers are presented with a teaching tool and learning resource that has the capability of motivating and engaging students in interactive learning out of traditional learning environments (Liu, Lu & Lai, 2016). As such, their application to language pedagogy may consequently become increasingly attractive to educational practitioners.

Mobile devices have become increasingly affordable compared to desktop computers and are a cheaper tool for accessing the Internet. More importantly, mobile Internet access offers the same functionality as in desktop computers. Thus, according to Tayan (2017), the application of technical tools in teaching and learning foreign languages offers: a natural verbal environment; an increased interest in students to learn the language; a different approach to learning; an expansion to the education process.

Impact of ICT

In a study on foreign language students' perceptions about their Information and Communication Technology (ICT)-based College English Course (CEC) in China, it was found that the ICT-based CEC gave them a good environment for independent learning and they were more motivated to learn English as they had more opportunities to communicate, interact and cooperate with other students in English using authentic language in a variety of contexts (Zinan & Teoh, 2017). They found that by using ICT, they are able to learn more effectively compared to using the traditional method.

According to a study by Zinan and Teoh (2017), learner-centeredness and learning autonomy are able to be fostered when students were provided with free learning environment, less restricted communication and more flexible learning time. Since the students are also exposed to the English language through the Internet and ICT resources, they can gain a plethora of information and resources making them more interested to learn English. Thru ICT, the students are able to meet their own learning needs since they can navigate and monitor their own learning process (Zinan & Teoh, 2017).

Therefore, technology use offers an intangible benefit of higher motivation to learn. This is supported by findings from a study by Tayan (2017) which found that mobile devices can create new positive learning experiences and offerings beyond the traditional classroom education which can increase learners' motivation to participate in learning activities and, subsequently, produce positive learning outcomes or goals.

Methodology

Research subjects

The subjects were 34 students of Universiti Teknologi Mara Kelantan Branch who were in their part 1, interim semester, doing diploma and were from various faculties, namely the Faculty of Accountancy, Faculty of Administrative Science and Policy Studies, Faculty of Art and Design, Faculty of Business Management, Faculty of Computer and Mathematical Sciences and Faculty of Information Management. For the selection process, all part 1 students' English grades in SPM (i.e. Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia – formerly known as Malaysian Certificate of Education which is equivalent to the British GCSE), were recorded. The grades varied between A+ (high grade) and D (low grade). Then, a listening pre-test was conducted in week 2 of the semester to assess the students' general listening skills. For research purposes, all semester 1 students were required to sit for the test which consisted of 3 sets of listening test. The pre-test listening scores were compared to their SPM English grade. It was expected that the scores in both SPM English and pre-test listening should be consistent and indicative. The performance in both should reflect the students' general listening proficiency. The 34 subjects selected were those whose scores for both SPM English and listening pre-test were inconsistently high and low, and consistently low. They either scored high grades in SPM English (A+ and A) but lower grades in listening pre-test or scored similarly low grades in SPM English and pre-test (e.g. grade C for SPM English and grade C for listening pre-test).

These 34 students were then divided into control and experimental groups. The control group underwent listening practices integrated in their English language course – Integrated Language Skills I (ELC121) – independently. The experimental group on the other hand, received a multimedia application known as "LAfELLA" (Listening Application for English Language Learners) as an intervention to improve their overall listening skills. The group was briefed on the procedures of using LAfELLA beforehand and the intervention started as early as week 3 of the semester. Close monitoring on the frequency of LAfELLA use among the subjects was done via WhatsApp communication. Apart from normal teaching and learning routines of the ELC121 syllabus, the application served as a complementary source of computer-based listening practices, thus, providing useful alternative listening drills for students to get prepared for their Computer-based Listening Test (CBLT) in the final week of the semester (i.e. week 7).

Descriptive analysis: a questionnaire

A questionnaire comprises 6 main questions was distributed to all 34 subjects. The students were given a simple briefing on the objectives of the questionnaire and administration and submission were done manually. The questions basically seek to identify the subjects' prior listening test experience, level of listening proficiency and common problems faced in mastering listening skills. It was meant to provide some insights on the background information of the subjects and complement the findings on the impact a multimedia application has on the subjects' overall, general listening proficiency.

Inferential analysis: Paired T-test

Paired t-test was used to analyse and interpret listening scores attained by the experimental group in the pre-test listening and Computer-Based Listening Test (CBLT). The listening pre-test consists of 3 sets of listening test and was administered in week 2 (i.e. beginning of interim semester). Students did the test depending on their background, innate listening ability. The marks were averaged, aligned and compared to the respondents' SPM English grades to gauge whether the performance in listening pre-test is consistent or inconsistent with that of SPM English. The marks were recorded and a multimedia application, called LAfELLA, was provided as an intervention. Towards the end of the semester, the students sat for CBLT and the scores of both listening pre and post-tests were analysed using paired t-test instrument.

Findings and discussion

This section discusses the descriptive and inferential analysis done on the samples to study their characteristics and make some generalizations of data population.

Descriptive analysis

The analysis is based on a questionnaire which seeks to identify some background information of the subjects' exposure to listening tests and level of listening proficiency, distributed to all 34 subjects.

Exposure to listening tests

Table 4.1 indicates a distribution of students who have had the experience of sitting for any listening test in their life. 28 out of 34 students have undergone a listening test in Pentaksiran Tingkatan 3 (PT3) or Form 3 Assessment which occurred when they were in secondary schools.

Table 4.1: Students with Listening Test Experience

Experiencing listening test	Frequency (%)

Yes	28 (82.4%)
No	6 (17.6%)

Listening proficiency level

Figure 4.1 shows how the subjects rated their listening proficiency level. 50% or 17 students evaluated their proficiency to be average, 47.06% to be good and the minority 2.94% to be excellent.

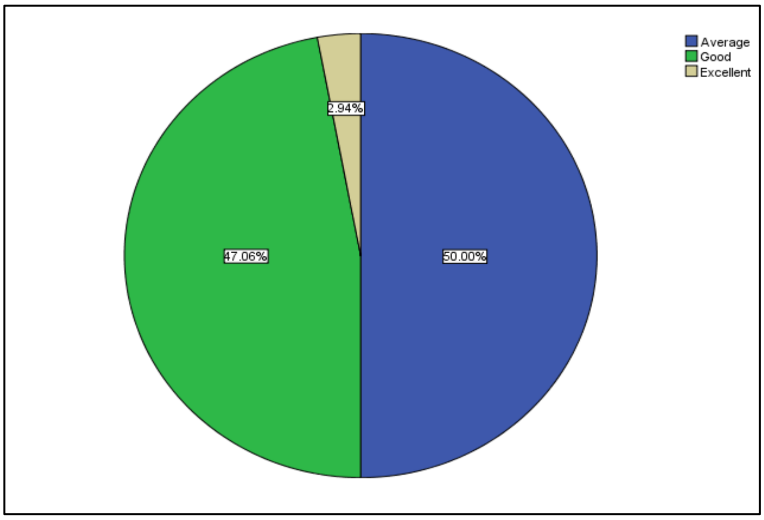

Figure 4.1 Listening Proficiency Level

c) Perceptions on the Difficulty of Mastering Listening Skills

Figure 4.2 displays the subjects' opinion on the difficulty of mastering listening skills. The majority thought that mastering listening is easy while the rests perceived mastering the skill as difficult.

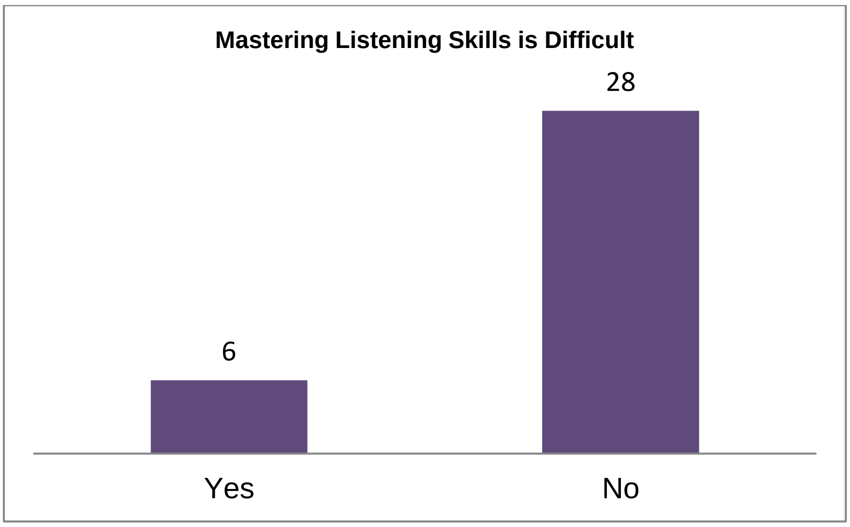

Figure 4.2: Perceptions on the Difficulty of Mastering Listening Skills

d) Problems Experienced in Mastering Listening Skills

Figure 4.3 indicates the subjects' perception on whether or not they have problems in mastering listening skills. The majority (67.65%) assumed they have no difficulties in mastering listening while the rests (32.35%), admitted to facing some problems in mastering the skill.

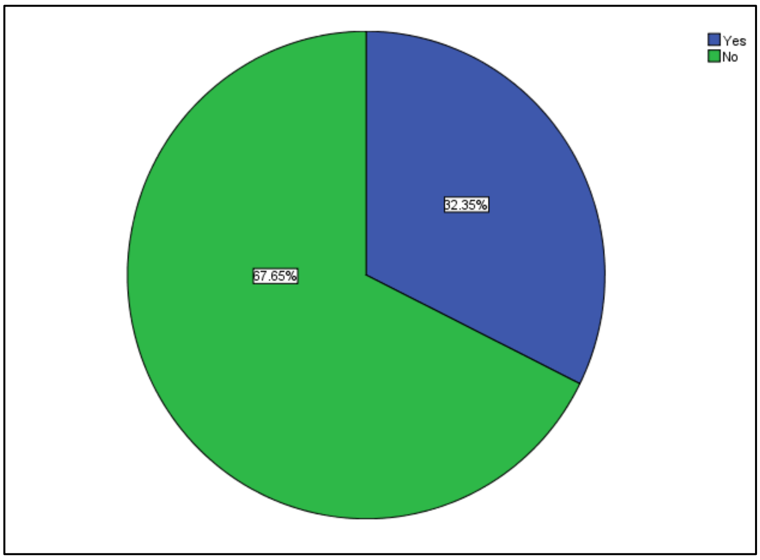

Figure 4.3: Problems Experienced in Mastering Listening Skills

e) Comparison between Perceived Difficulty and Problems Experienced in Mastering Listening Skills

Table 4.2 presents a cross-tabulation figure between the subjects' perception of difficulty in mastering listening skills and their experience in the actual process of mastering the skill. The majority (23 students) was consistent in their responses – they perceived mastering listening skills is easy hence; they did not experience any problem in mastering the skill. On the other hand, 11 students seemed to have contrasting answers with regard to this. They perceived mastering the skill as easy, yet they happened to experience difficulties in mastering listening skills in reality.

Table 4.2: Comparison between Perceived Difficulty and Problems Experienced in Mastering Listening Skills

		Having problems in mastering listening skills	
		Yes	No
Perceptions on whether mastering listening skills is difficult	Yes	3	3
	No	8	20

f) Common Listening Problems Faced by Students

Figure 4.4 reveals a list of regular listening problems faced by the subjects. The study listed 9 typical listening problems encountered by listeners and among all the problems, unfamiliar vocabulary was found to be the most common problem experienced by the subjects.

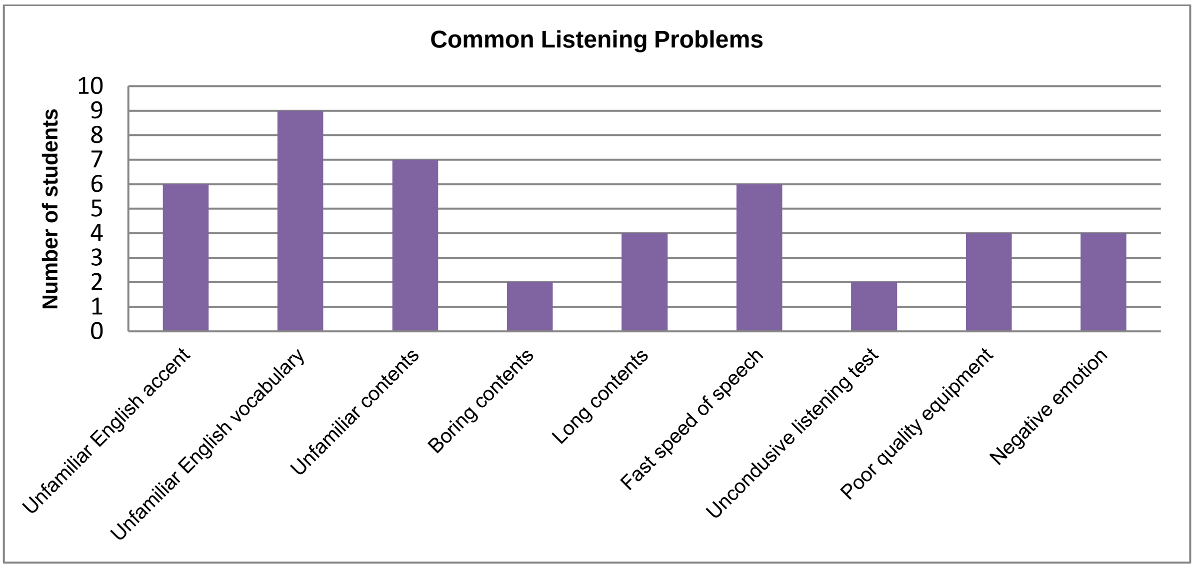

Figure 4.4: Common Listening Problems Experienced by Students

Inferential analysis

The analysis is based on the experimental group's performance in both listening pre-test and computer-based test. During the pre-test, the subjects sat for the test depending only on their own background listening skills, but for listening computer-based test (CBLT), the subjects were provided with a multimedia application called LAfELLA prior to the test, as an intervention to see whether it influences their CBLT scores. The scores were analyzed using a paired t-test method where data from only one group of samples (i.e. experimental group) were examined with two times measurement (pre and post-test).

a) Paired T-test

Table 4.3 conveys paired sample mean and standard deviation for listening pre-test and post-test scores. On the average, the pre-test score for 18 sample students is 10.41 which is equivalent to a B+ or super credit level. Interpretation of listening scores can be referred to Table 4.4. However, after the students were drilled with LAfELLA, the post-test score recorded an improvement of about 40.8% or 14.66 mean score which upgraded their level to an A+ or super distinction level.

Table 4.3: Listening Pre-test and Post-test Average Score

	Mean(Sd)
Pre Test Score	10.41 (2.36)

Post Test Score	14.66 (2.97)

Table 4.4: SPM Grade vs ELC121 Listening Score & Interpretation

SPM GRADE	MARKS	CGPA	INTERPRETATION	ELC121 LISTENING SCORE
A+	90 – 100	4.00	Super Distinction	13.50 – 15.00
A	80 – 89	3.75	High Distinction	12.00 – 13.40
A-	70 – 79	3.50	Distinction	10.50 – 11.90
B+	65 – 69	3.25	Super Credit	9.75 – 10.40
B	60 – 64	3.00	High Credit	9.00 – 9.74
C+	55 – 59	2.75	Upper Credit	8.25 – 8.99
C	50 - 54	2.50	Credit	7.50 - 8.24
D	45 – 49	2.25	Upper Pass	6.75 – 7.49
E	40 - 44	2.00	Pass	6.00 – 6.74

Table 4.5 presents the result of paired t-test and correlation value for pre and post listening test scores. The value of correlation is 0.704 (sig. value=0.001) which is a significant value. It proves that listening pre and post scores have a strong positive correlation with each other. This means that LAfELLA could have positive impacts on both listening pre and post-test or in other words, if a student was introduced to LAfELLA at both listening pre and post-test phases, he/she would be expected to benefit much from the intervention and score good marks in the tests. Meanwhile, the t-test value is -8.502 (sig. value <0.0001). Thus, at 5% significance level, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the mean scores attained in listening pre and post-test. The significant difference serves as strong evidence indicating that LAfELLA did have some positive influence on the subjects' performance in post-test listening. Since the post-test scores improved notably, it can also be concluded that the multimedia application, i.e. LAfELLA, has helped to enhance the student's proficiency in listening test.

Table 4.5: Paired Differences between Listening Pre-test and Post-test Scores

	Paired difference		
	Mean	t test (Sig. Value)	Correlation (Sig. Value)
Pre Test Score / Post Test Score	-4.24944	-8.502 (<0.0001)	0.704 (0.001)

Conclusion

Listening, of all the language skills, is a vital receptive skill for language learners to acquire language input and master the language. Despite its complex nature, listening is a skill which can be learnt and upgraded. This is evident in the findings of this study. The challenges lie in the matter of choosing the right materials, contents and procedures for listening to be active, engaging and thus, effective. What actually happens in the process to make it effective or vice versa is still fathomless. Limitations do occur as researchers cannot completely control situations in which effective or non-effective listening is multifactorial. Yet, various forms of technological advancement, such as those in multimedia applications and interactive animations, are proven to be helpful tools to ace active listening process. Not only technology provides new, creative source to help students develop their listening skill autonomously, it also aids the instructors to diversify their teaching and learning methods concurrently with the 21st century era.

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MOTIVATION AS A TOOL OF ENCOURAGING LANGUAGE LEARNING PROCESS

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Abstract

Motivation has long been the major problem in teaching-learning process. It has been broadly recognized by researchers and teachers as one of the main factors that determine the level and success of second language learning (SLA). Demotivation, in its turn, causes series of problems not only in learning, but also in our behavior. This paper deals with some strategies and steps how the problem of motivation can be tackled. The paper also discusses the role of the teacher, who helps strengthen the learner's study motivation and leads to more encouraging, interesting, and accommodating classroom environment, which seems to promote success in second language learning.

Key words: motivation, language learning

One of the most difficult aspects in teaching English language is how to motivate students. The posting below looks at ways how to increase student motivation in the classroom. Motivation is extremely important in the learning activity, which are ment to be it refers to "cognitive emotional and behavioral indicators involved in bearing and education" (Tucker, Zayco & Herman, 2002, p 477). But it is very difficult to discover what really motivates students to become performers.

Theoretically all students are motivated to learn and to obtain the best performances, but practically, this motivation differs from one learner to another. Motivation enhances performances – students who are motivated to succeed will learn and will excel in the educational activities (Gottfried, 1990) and students who are less motivated for academic success will give up quickly and will be likely to fail (Vallerand et al., 1997).

There are a lot of reasons why students are unmotivated. They might have no interest in the subject, find teacher's methods uninteresting or vague; most students learn English just for preparing for their exams and after passing the entrance Examination to Universities, they often feel satisfactory and don't want to get progress in Universities. Demotivation causes the certain consequences. Chambers (2000) defined them as the following points:

non-completion of assignment;

lack of persistence and expectation of failure when attempting new tasks;

non – attendance and poor attendance;

high level of dependency of sympathetic teachers;

frequent expression of view that is boring and irrelevant;

apathic non-participation in the classroom.

When the students demotivated" or "disaffected" it reflects on their behavior as well. Thus, unmotivated students are unruly, disrespectful, and underperforming academically and socially in the classroom. They do not appreciate the value of education. The teacher, despite good intentions and passion, is viewed as an adversarial or irrelevant authority figure. The students are unwilling to participate in learning process.

Classroom teaching can best be accomplished or only be accomplished and effective if a student is willing to be taught. A huge number of unmotivated, underperforming students have no desire to take any advantage in learning process and this leads to failing courses or skipping school, or school dropouts and as a result of it crimes commited by high school dropouts.

So what can be done?

From our long experience we strongly believe that an effective student motivation strategy must include – focus, commitment, reinforcement, effectiveness, fun, etc.

Here are some effective ways teachers should try to motivate students and encourage them to live up to their true potential:

Define the objectives

Students want and need to know what is expected of them in order to stay motivated to work, and have goals to work towards.

Make class communicative

Some students need English to communicate at work, others need it at University or college. Others are eager to travel and explore the world. The more the teachers encourage their students to communicate in class, the more motivated they will be.

Allow students to work together

The social interaction can get them excited about things in the classroom and students can motivate one another to reach a goal. Teachers need to be ensure that some students aren't doing more work than others, and groups are balanced and fair.

Be excited

One of the best ways to get your students motivated is too share your enthusiasm. When you are excited about teaching. They will be much more excited about learning.

Make things fun

Teachers have to find the best ways to help the students have fun while they learn. By including social media in class teachers can not only make language use practical, they make class fun. Try having them write short posts for Facebook, Twitter or Instagram, or start a class blog and have students write the posts and respond to comment's from their classmates. Adding fun activities into your school day can help students to stay engaged and make the classroom a much more friendly place for them.

Make English Practical

One way to keep language practical is to use realia whenever possible. Bringing realia in the classroom will make students more prepared for what they will find outside the classroom.

Role playing is also very important for making learning more practical. Giving students real-life situations may help them to deal with reality they may find in the outside world.

Give praise when earned

There is no other form of motivation that works quite as well as encouragement. Teachers can give students motivation by rewarding success publicly, giving praise for a job well done.

Give feedback and offer chances to improve.

Students who struggle with class can sometimes feel frustrated and get down to themselves, draning motivation. In these situations it's critical that teachers help students to learn exactly where they went wrong and how they can improve next time.

Thus keeping students motivated is a parts of every teachers job. Teachers are key actors who shape (Roeser, Eccles 2011) the learning environment and whose main tasks include motivating students to learn. Although it is a teacher's responsibility to enhance student's motivation, they cannot make everyone like English. Teachers can help them overcome certain anxieties or limiting beliefs. This doesn't mean that teachers have to give good marks to everyone, no. But they can give the students the impression that they did a good job, and their motivational strategies can vary from supportive to controlling. Therefore, it is very important for foreign language teacher to adopt appropriate teaching strategies in order to facilitate learning, provide and encourage motivation in their students.

Motivation is a complex human construct that has long posed difficulties for those who attempt to understand and explain it. A great deal of research has been done in the area of motivation (as all those psychology and theory needed to be implemented into practice in the classroom). A key feature of these models was the suggestion of strategies that teachers could use in the classroom to motivate students, and discussing the point why motivation is so fundamental to second language learning. We think that all those issues related to motivation are complex, but it is clear that every person's motivation to learn is flexible rather than fixed. In the paper we have tried to outline the effective ways of enhancing motivation implementing them in language learning process. As a teachers, we definitely can directly influence our students' motivation about learning English.

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THE PHENOMENON OF BULLYING AND ITS EFFECTS ON STUDENT'S ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE, IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS (Possible ways to prevent bullying)

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Abstract

Bullying is one of the most common forms of violence and nowadays is identified as one of the most prominent problems faced by children within their educational settings. Many students attending secondary schools exhibit discipline problems such as disruptive classroom behavior, vandalism, bullying, and violence. Establishing effective discipline practices is critical to ensure academic success and to provide a safe learning environment. The paper represents analyzed literature on the effects of bullying on an academic success. Aspects that will be discussed involve determining how academic success is hindered by bullying, ways in which students are affected by bullying, socially and academically, and what are possible ways of overcoming it. It will be stated in the article that peer victimization cannot and should not be ignored when trying to improve educational outcomes in schools. In extending our understanding of how the social climate of schools can affect academic outcomes. This paper will try to identify the forms of bullying, common characteristics of bullies and bullied children, the short term and long lasting effects of bullying behavior. The paper represents findings and conclusions based on literature review concerning the issue. In the paper is also provided some probable solutions and possible ways of bullying prevention.

Key words: bullying, victimization, academic performance, negative effects of bullying, teasing

Introduction

Bullying behavior has become so prevalent that many people believe that it is an almost inevitable part of growing up in today's society- part of the rough and tumble of daily life, however Bullying and harassment are not new issues that students and schools face. Bullying in schools is a worldwide problem that can have negative consequences for the general school climate and for the right of students to learn in a safe environment without fear (Banks, 1997). In fact, over the years, it has been viewed as being so commonplace in schools that it has been overlooked as a threat to students and reduced to a belief that bullying is a developmental stage that most youth will experience then get over (Ross, 2002). This definitely should not be so, because it can have serious and far reaching physical and psychological effects on the person who is bullied, both at the time of the bullying and in later life (Ma, 2001). People who feel a need to bully do so for a reason and they too do not escape the effects of their bullying behavior. People need years to get over the personal trauma that can come with bullying both for the victim and the bully. As Ross points out (2002, p. 106),"the problem with the repeated occurrence requirement is that the waiting period heightens the negative effects on the victim, allows the bully to feel rewarded, increases fear in onlookers, and makes intervention a more lengthy process".

Most of us will have encountered some form of unpleasantness as we have grown up but in most cases this does not amount to persistent bullying that seriously affect our health and wellbeing. In defining what bullying is, many researchers refer to Olweus's (1993) work, which defines bullying as occurring when a student is exposed to negative actions repeatedly and over time by one or more students (p.56). This definition of bullying is one of the most accepted around the world, however it leaves some researchers wanting more clarification. The department of education of Great Britain defines bullying as behavior that is repeated, intended to hurt someone either physically or emotionally, often aimed at certain groups because of race, religion, gender or sexual orientation. Bullying takes many forms and can include: physical assault, making threat, name calling and cyberbullying, each of these forms affect person's emotional and physical conditions (Bowman, 2001). Some people though mix bullying with teasing. Teasing is generally good natured and usually takes place between those who share a close relationship. It is often a way of communicating or "bantering" between friends. For the one doing teasing it is a playful way of provoking a reaction without an intention or desire to cause hurt, where a group of friends are concerned the teasing would not focus on one person all the time it would be shared equally among the group (Cohn & Canter,2003). However there are five key components to bullying which are: unequal power, intention to harm, harmful outcomes, persistent and repeating acts and direct or indirect acts of aggression. Bullying involves the abuse of power by one or several people who are more powerful or received as being more powerful, often due to their age, physical strength, or psychological resilience (Farrington, 1993). There is an intention to harm as bullying is deliberate behavior that sets out to upset and cause distress. Harmful outcome is evident as one or more people are hurt physically or emotionally. Bullying is persistent and repeated, it involves repeated acts of aggression and hostility, although an isolated aggressive attack, like a fight, is not bullying (Farrington, 1993). Bullying is direct or indirect, it can involve direct acts of aggression, such as hitting someone, as well as indirect act, such as spreading rumors.

Bullying is a widespread problem in our schools and communities and has a negative impact on students' academic performance. Once thought of as a rite of passage or harmless behavior that helps build character, bullying is now known to have long-term academic, physical, and emotional effects on both the victim and the bully. According to Harris & Hathorn, (2006, p. 50), "Because adolescence is a difficult time in a child's maturation, bullying exacerbates these difficult times by forming barriers to positive connections with other students and school faculty members. Consequently, the presence of bullying at school often creates a barrier for young people to develop into well-adjusted adults" (p.50).

Forms of bullying:

Although bullying behavior may focus on any point of difference or perceived weakness that allows an imbalance of power to be established, the typical motivation for bullying behavior are: race, sex, homophobia and vulnerability (Lumsden, 2002). Racist bullying can include any hostile or offensive action against people because of their skin color, cultural or religious background or ethnic origin can be classed as racist bullying it can include, physical verbal or emotional bullying, insulting or degrading comments, name calling, gestures, taunt, insults or jokes, offensive graffiti, humiliating, excluding, ridiculing or threatening, it also can include making fun of customs, music, accent or dress of anyone from a different culture. It also refer to refusal to work or co-operate with others because they are from a different culture (Bowman, 2001). Within a school setting that can be avoiding peer work or a group work with a certain learner. And excluding the classmate from classroom or other extracurricular fun activities.

Another form of bullying is sexual bullying. It may be easy to assume that sexual bullying only occurs once children have reached adolescence, however a small but significant amount also occurs within primary school. Sexual bullying includes: unwanted physical contact, abusive comments, sexual graffiti, "sexting" or sending sexually explicit messages and photographs, primarily, between mobile phones. Homophobic bullying includes any hostile or offensive action again people of different sexual orientation. However within the school settings this problem is not stated so severely. Another wide spread form of bullying among school children is cyberbullying. In the 21st century the online bullying can take many forms and it is especially upsetting to be on the receiving end of it because unlike ordinary bullying that stops when a child goes home, this can continue 24/7 without respite (Bowman, 2001).

There are many ways in which someone may be bullied online such as instant messaging, social network sites, trolling. Internet trolls are people who intentionally set out to start an argument or upset people, sending upsetting messages on social networks online games or chat rooms, one more possible ways is bullying by email, sending abusive emails to someone else and copying in other people who join in the abuse. The increasing use of smart phones, even for very young children, can leave them open to inappropriate photographs, videos or abusive texts. Sexting or encouraging someone to send intimate photographs of themselves and then sharing them with other people is also on the rise. Instant messaging can also be used as a means of bullying. In the age of technologies secondary school children have their twitter or Facebook accounts that make them vulnerable for cyberbullying- bullies can write hurtful offensive or intimidating comments on someone's profile or join in the commentary on a bullying episodes that is already taking place which still makes the perpetrator responsible of bullying. Face profiles can also be set up with the deliberate intention of bullying someone else. Bullying in all its forms, whether it is direct, indirect or virtual is not and never should be, an inevitable part of growing up.

Common characteristics of those who are bullied and those who bully

It is best to avoid the label "bully" but for the sake of brevity I use it in my article to mean someone who is exhibiting the bully behavior. Unfortunately the majority of bullying takes place within the schools environment. Bullying affects many school, children at some point either as a victim a bully or as a bystander. Evidence shows that bullying decrease substantially with age, except in the case of children with special educational needs. In fact young people with special academic needs (SEN) are up to twice as likely to be become victims of actual or threatened violence, continually bullied, made victims of social exclusion, have their possessions taken. Children who said they were sad most days had higher odds of being either bullies or victims. Lower achievement scores were associated with being a victim or bully-victim (Glew, et al 2005). Students who are involved in bullying have decreased motivation and their grades may thus deteriorate (Mishna, 2003). The victims of bullying in most cases experience bullying because of their ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, any aspect of their appearance, some aspect of their family life for domestic situation (Ma, 2001). Abuse of vulnerable is top problematic issue. Victims may also perform more poorly in school and avoid school in order to avoid victimization (Mishna, 2003). In this case most common action is stealing possessions, social exclusion, regular and persistent verbal abuse, intimidation and fear including behavior, physical attack is also very common especially is primary and secondary schools. Research does not support the assertion that certain children are bullied because of their physical appearance (for example, obesity or wearing glasses). The only physical characteristic that makes children more likely to be bullied is below average physical size and strength. Most victims are passive and tend to be more anxious, insecure, cautious, quiet, and sensitive. They often appear weak or easily dominated (Shellard, 2002). Victims signal to others that they are insecure, passive, and won't retaliate if attacked. Consequently, bullies target those who appear physically or emotionally weak. Studies show victims have a higher prevalence of overprotective parents or school personnel. As a result, they often fail to develop their own coping skills. They long for approval; even after bullying, some continue to make ineffective attempts to interact with their victimizer (Cohn and Canter, 2003). Victims have few or no close friends at school and are socially isolated. They may try to stay close to teachers or other adults during breaks, avoid restrooms and other isolated areas, or make excuses to stay home from school as much as possible (Olweus, 1993). Many people wonder why a child or young person does not stand up and confront their bully or bullies so that they can put a stop to the behavior that is causing them so much suffering, unfortunately there is typically a power imbalance between the bully and the bullied which causes the bullied child to feel frequently frightened and want to escape the source of their upset, rather than confront it. In addition, the bully may use threats of physical harm to stop them telling others who could otherwise help. This aggression knocks a child's confidence which makes them even more vulnerable to bullying and so a vicious cycle is formed. Researches shows that children who regularly suffer bullying tend to have common characteristics, and generally fall into two categories either passive submissive or provocative (McCartney, 2005). Passive/submissive are tendency of being anxious or insecure, they may suffer low self-esteem , with negative feelings about themselves, they may have few friends, they have an aversion to using violence and so are unlikely to retaliate. The common characteristics of second category –provocative are: a mix of anxious and aggressive behavior patterns, coupled with poor concentration, an ability to provoke groups of people rather than just individuals, they usually have poor social skills that could result in provocative victim behavior.

Bullies too share a number of common characteristics, they tend to: have little sympathy towards the person they are bullying or anyone who witnesses it, be more aggressive both to other children and adults, be popular, have relationship with parents that are characterized by poor communication and the threat of violence, are academic low achievers, have a strong need to dominate others, their behavior is conscious and deliberate. The witnesses and bystanders are also involved in the process of bullying still there are barriers that prevent these witnesses or bystanders from taking action are complex but may include, belief that someone else will step in ,fear of getting involved and of consequent blame and of course concern of their own safety.

The effects of bullying behavior on students' academic performance

Being bullied is very stressful ordeal that manifests itself in damage to a person's emotional, physical, social and academic wellbeing (McCartney, 2005). Its effects are severe both at the time of the bullying and right into adulthood. These may include: feeling of deep unhappiness and sadness, that may lead to depression, anxiety, self-harm, suicide or attempt suicide, feeling of shame and weakness, feeling of deep anger and bitterness, physical illness including stomach aches, stress insomnia and exhaustion, low self-esteem that can affect success in education, as well as the ability to make friends and form healthy social relationship (Olweus, 1993). Educators and parents may be able to tell by a child's behavior that he or she is being bullied. If a child shows some of the following signs, bullying may be the reason and you should ask if someone is bullying or threatening them. The signs may vary but some characteristics remain common for example: stopping eating or coming home starving, asking for money or starting to steal to pay the bully, clothes or possessions are missing or destroyed, unexplained bruises, cuts or scratches, starting getting lower scores and performing worse in their studies, wanting to be excluded from school, some other signs can be crying themselves to sleep, having nightmares, changing their usual routine, claiming to feel unwell before they are due to go to school, refusing to talk about what is happening (McCartney, 2005). Bullying has long term effects and it affects the academic performance of the students. It's plain and simple; if a child is being bullied, and they are not receiving the true help that they need, they will ultimately hate coming to school and therefore fall behind in their academics. The victims of bullying often appear to school without homework, they have hardship while concentrating on the lesson, and have the lack of enthusiasm and interest in different subjects. We as educators need to ensure that this does not happen, and if it does, we are combating it in the best way possible. Both boys and girls are involved in bullying. Although most research indicates that boys are more likely to be both bullies and victims (Cohn and Canter, 2003; Nansel et al., 2001). As mentioned above, the effect of bullying on education and academic success can be dramatic, it is worth identifying all possible connections between bullying and academic performance of the students. The point is whether under achiever students have experienced bullying more often than other students who have good or excellent academic performance. Juvonen, Wang and Espinoza (2010) conducted the research to scrutinize if bullying experiences were associated with academic performance across secondary school students. In different primary schools of America studies were conducted. Students were chosen randomly, although the balance between male and female participants were maintained. The participants were students of different age groups, representatives of secondary school level. Students were given anonymous questionnaires, administered at schools through group and individual sessions. Collecting the information was the first step towards involving children and young people in finding solutions to bullying. The answers were analyzed, the rate of achievements and underachievers were compared with the overall results. Teacher interviews were also beneficial to have general view of school settings. The study showed overall declines in academic performance over time among learners who suffered by peer victimization. According to these studies peer victimization must not be ignored when trying to improve educational outcomes in secondary schools.

Conclusion and Possible ways of preventing bullying behavior

I deeply believe that academic performance is strongly linked with peaceful and relaxed environment therefore bullying can serve as a negative factor and cause underachievement, stress and other disciplinary problems. There are some possible ways of preventing bullying. Such as increasing learners' awareness. The school administration should tell the children that any type of bullying will not be tolerate, and these words should be proved by policies. Raising everyone's awareness is a crucial issue. Children need to discuss bullying with teachers and administration, explore with them what bullying is, and what could be done against it. The children can do their own survey to find out what other children and adults think about bullying. And consider it as a serious problem. One very significant thing is that children can make up rules for behavior and ensure everyone signs that they agree with the rules, and agree possible solutions or punishment in response to bullying behavior. Disciplinary measures are supposed to be applied fairly consistently and reasonably taking account of any special educational needs or disabilities that the children or young people may have and taking into account the needs of those who may be vulnerable. Different educational programs are mounted about the problem. Educators are supposed to teach children to be assertive. Differences should be acceptable and never cause for bullying. Encouragement and rewarding children for individuality will decrease bullying behavior. Educational system should help bullies to understand that their behavior is completely unacceptable and that they must take responsibility for their actions, apologies and make amend. One of the key measures to prevent bullying behavior is anti-bullying policy that is understood and adhered to by staff, volunteers and children and young people. This types of policies rise awareness creates and supports a culture of care and consideration.

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TEXT AND PARATEXT: JONATHAN SWIFT'S *A MODEST PROPOSAL* AND MARGARET ATWOOD'S *THE HANDMAID'S TALE*

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Abstract

Margaret Atwood's The Handmaid's Tale has three epigraphs. The author starts her dystopian novel from the ideas offered by a passage from Genesis, a passage from Jonathan Swift's Modest Proposal and a Sufi proverb. Certainly author's intentional choice of these epigraphs makes the reader to question how they are connected with one another and what the paratexts have in common with the rest of the text. All three paratexts contain valuable information, which probably may help the reader understand the main idea of the book or, on the contrary, probably contribute to the postmodern idea of impossibility of narrative and interpretative closure. The opening paragraph of Swift's Modest Proposal seems the most controversial from the other paratexts. The great satirist criticizes the XVIII century English society that enables their poverty and suggests the strange idea of reducing a staving population, abortion and infanticide. He argues that children from poor families could be sold into a meat market as early as the age of one, in return their parents get needed income, which help them to raise the other ones. Atwood's dystopian novel is set in uncertain future when the world with highly developed technology is destroyed by pollution and infertility. Women with healthy reproductive system have to produce children for the ruling classes. The novel reflects 1980s fears about declining birthrates, the dangers of nuclear power, and environmental degradation. The analysis and comparison of the paratext (Modest Proposal) and the text (The Handmaid's Tale) open possibilities to find different layers of meaning of the text, extends our readings of the novel.

Key Words: Dystopia, paratext, women's rights

Introduction

Margaret Atwood is a well-known contemporary Canadian author who first gained her popularity in 1986 after publishing a dystopian novel "The Handmaid's Tale". Following the tradition of classics like Aldous Huxley's Brave New World and George Orwell's 1984 she presents a strongly feminist vision of futuristic 'perfect' society with advanced technologies, where people are under strict religious, bureaucratic and corporate control. In Ronald Reagan and Margaret Thatcher's era Atwood felt the growing power of conservative parties and well-organized religious groups and saw a real threat to the women's rights and gains they had made in 60-s and 70-s of XX century. Talking about women postmodern fiction Brain Nicol notes that they "draw freely and critically from the mass of literary and cultural myths which shape contemporary culture. But at the same time, their work directs its postmodern techniques towards uncompromisingly feminist ends, continually insisting on what is different about female experience of the contemporary world and why this needs to be taken into account" (Nicol 2009:141).

Discussion

The Handmaid's Tale has three epigraphs. Atwood starts her dystopian novel from the ideas offered by a passage from Genesis, a passage from Jonathan Swift's A Modest Proposal and a Sufi proverb. Certainly author's intentional choice of these epigraphs makes the reader to question how they are connected with one another and what the paratexts have in common with the rest of the text. "Paratext is the text that surrounds and supports the core text, like layers of packaging that initially protect and gradually reveal the essence of the packaged item" (Pellatt 2013:1). Paratext can include titles, subtitles, the footnote, preface, foreword, the epilogue or afterwor and has "spatial, temporal, substantial, pragmatic and functional characteristics" (Genette 1997: 4). Epigraphs are the finest instances of paratext. Due to the epigraphs the reader does not start the main text from nothing, but from some speculations offered by the paratexts. They make the reader think why the author needs them, how the given epigraphs comment on the main text or where are similarities between the text and the epigraph. The reader realizes that different discourses are deliberately juxtaposed and that they can lead to numerous interpretations of the text. All three paratexts of The Handmaid's Tale contain valuable information, they may help the reader understand the main idea of the book or, on the contrary, probably contribute to the postmodern idea of impossibility of narrative and interpretative closure.

Atwood's dystopian novel is set in uncertain future when the world with highly developed technology is destroyed by pollution and infertility. The novel reflects 1980s fears about environmental pollution, toxic waste, the dangers of the nuclear power, aids epidemic, use of certain birth-control pills and declining birthrates. The amazing fact is that the reader recognizes the negative aspects of the dystopian world through female perspective. The main story in the novel is told by Offred. The reader doesn't know her real name, which is an important part of person's identity; she is merely Offred - a possession of Fred, the Commander. As the other iconic protagonists of dystopian novels she feels that something is unfair and wrong with the society in which she lives. New patriarchal and theological society is based on a fundamentalist reading of the Bible and its main goal is to control of reproduction. Women with healthy reproductive system become a rarity and they are made to produce children for the ruling classes. In this term it's easy to explain the connections between the first paratext and the text itself. The first epigraph of the novel suggests the importance of children to women as Rachel says that if she didn't have children she would die (Genesis 30:1). Jacob loved Rachael more than his first wife Leah and God compensated Leah for the lack of love by enabling her to have children and closing Rachel's womb for a time (Genesis 29:31). Rachel offers her maidservant Bilha to her husband and then, as "she shall bear upon my knees", she became a surrogate mother to her husband and maidservant's two sons. The government of Gilead uses biblical passage about Rachel, Jacob and Bilha for establishing a new kind of domesticity based on the sexual triangle of a man and two women. They exploit the letter and not the spirit of the Bible to justify and legitimate the impregnation ceremony the handmaids must undergo each month. Only men can read and interpret Bibles and the founders of Gilead keep insisting that they act on the authority of the Bible itself. The discourse of Gilead is based on religious terminology and biblical references. Religious terminology is used to describe people, ranks, automobiles and even stores. The Handmaid's Tale has been often criticized for its anti-religious sentiments, but Atwood keeps repeating that her book is not against the religious and the Bible but against its misreading and misunderstanding.

The paragraph of Swift's A Modest Proposal seems the most controversial from the other paratexts. How Swift's text about English cruel colonial policy, Ireland poverty and famine agrees with the biblical context of Atwood's novel. The epigraph starts with the words: "but as to myself, having been wearied out for many years with offering vain, idle, visionary thoughts, and at length utterly despairing of success, I fortunately fell upon this proposal"(Swift 1993: 2186). What does Atwood imply by the epigraph? Does it mean that she has her own proposal?

The great satirist in his A Modest Proposal criticizes the XVIII century English society that enables the poverty in Ireland and suggests the strange idea of reducing a staving population, abortion and infanticide. He argues that children from poor families could be sold into a meat market as early as the age of one, in return their parents get needed income, which help them to raise the other ones. He considers his proposal "fair and cheap", which has only the "public good" and, first of all, it's for poor women as they are "forced" to wander all their time in the streets of Ireland begging for "sustenance for their helpless infant". Even worse they have to make abortions or even kill their children: "prevent those voluntary abortions, and that horrid practice of women murdering their bastard children, alas, too frequent among us, sacrificing the poor innocent babes…" (Swift 1993:2128). Indeed, the narrator is deeply angry about the way in which the English and Irish landlords treat the Irish peasants and tries to make others see that there is a great problem and it needs to be solved.

From the first glimpse Atwood's choice of an epigraph from A Modest Proposal seems strange. The reader may only find some stylistic parallels as both writer use irony and satire as their main weapons against their society. But there are also some other interesting coincidences that can help the reader to find some textual parallels between the iconic satire of XVIII century and postmodern dystopia.

Throughout A Modest Proposal the narrator keeps comparing the Irish peasants to animals. He discusses eating Irish infants, like a piece of animal flesh, pigs or beef. One-year-old child is "a most delicious, nourishing, and wholesome food; whether stewed, roasted, baked, or boiled; and I make no doubt that it will equally serve in a fricassee or a ragout" (Swift 1993:2182). Saying about women that "a child dropped from its dam" Swift again compares people to animals, to livestock. Moreover, he often uses the term "breeder" to show that women's only purpose in life is to produce children and sell them to the market as a "delicacy". The author assures the reader that in this way like pedigreed animals women will be treated well, their husbands won't violate and beat them, "Men would become as fond of their wives during the time of their pregnancy as their now of their mares in foal, their cows in calf, or sows when they are ready to farrow; nor offer to beat or kick them (as is too frequent a practice)" (Swift 1993:2185), moreover "one male will be sufficient to serve four females" (Swift 1993:2183).

Handmaid's Tale is also full of references to women as animals, especially breeding animals. Offred sees herself as "a prize pig" (Atwood 1987:90) or "an attentive pet, prick-eared and eager to perform"(Atwood 1987:238). She refers to the handmaids as "two-legged wombs", "caged rats", "trained pigs". Offred even has "a cattle brand", she is tattooed around her ankle as a marked or ear-tag animal, so she cannot journey too far because she is a "precious national resource" (Atwood 1987:107). Both proposals are definitely hostile to women. Both of them offer to control women, they become the property of the state as child-bearing machines and the state commodify their children. Swift who was considered a misogynist by some critics, is sure that his suggestion could bring only benefits for women: "We should see an honest emulation among the married women, which of them could bring the fattest child to the market"(Swift 1993:2185). Gileadean society in The Handmaid's Tale monitors complete control of women's bodies, only the woman who can bear a child have chance to survive and who fail to produce progeny are exiled to the toxic waste colonies. At the same time that child-bearing machines lose all rights to their infants after childbirth as the babies automatically become the property of the Commanders' wives. Offred's clothes, her makeup, her tattoo, circled around her ankle like a bracelet, tell her that in Gilead, she is nothing more than property. In a certain moment it seems Offred that she may have been important or invaluable to the Commander as the 'other woman' who understands his every need, but when the Commander takes her glaringly dressed to Jezebel's and parades her around like a prized animal, she gets absolutely aware of her role and how little she is valued. Offred understands that like other women who are sent to dangerous "Colonies", she too could be slaughtered at any time like a pig that is taken care and fattened while it serves its purpose. Women cannot vote, hold property or jobs, they even can't read. The oppressive regime denies their individuality, intelligence, creativity, feeling or desires. Women who cannot have children or have refused to do it for the state (former nuns or feminists) have been sentenced to hard work in life-threatening "Colonies". Commanders' wives are also as deprived of their rights as the other women in Gilead. They just look after their gardens and have to share their husbands with handmaids.

The end of the novel is vague and ambiguous, as Bran Nicol notes "the most debated section of The Handmaid's Tale by critics" (Nicol 2009:152). The last part of the book "Historical Notes on The Handmaid's Tale" tells the reader about an academic conference held two hundred years after the falling of patriarchal and theological society of Gilead. Competent professors agree that Offred must have had a chance to record her story before leaving for Canada. Her further fate is unknown. Finally, evaluating the history and past events professors conclude that "Gileadean society was under a good deal of pressure, demographic and otherwise, and was subject to factors from which we ourselves are happily more free. Our job is not to censure but to understand" (Atwood 1987:383). Actually, the final words don't give the reader a clear answer about what it all, since the professors try to justify Gilead's politics as two hundred years ago the humanity was in danger of becoming extinct. In this respect the analysis and comparison of the paratexts and the text open possibilities to find different layers of meaning of the text, extends our readings of the novel. Atwood's text possesses a genius of its own in its synthesis of literary tradition, historical fact, politics and thought provoking ideas about the present and the future. Some of these complex ideas can be played out through its paratexts. Undoubtedly the Bible as the major intertext structures the semantic space of Atwood's narrative, but it also very important how the paratext of Jonathan Swift's A Modest Proposal set up a frame through which the reader can read the novel. Just as Swift ironically demonstrated that his society was only steps away from enacting his ideas, Atwood keeps insisting in her numerous speeches and interviews that what she writes about isn't odd or incredible and her novel is "an allegory of what is already happening". Like two centuries ago Swift wrote his cruel proposal to capture the attention of an indifferent audience to think critically not only about politics but also about motivations and values, Atwood wrote her novel to make readers think about the inequality and oppression she noticed in her society.

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APPLICATION OF CORPUS LINGUISTICS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

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Abstract

Since the 1970s and more actively mid-1980s, corpus-based approach to language learning, teaching methodology and to almost all directions of linguistics has developed and become more and more influential. Corpora analysis has been widely used in lexicographic and grammatical studies, in translation studies, forensic linguistics, discourse analysis, stylistics, semantics, sociolinguistics, etc. The paper presents a short overview of corpus linguistics and its role in applied linguistics. More specifically, we will try to illustrate corpus application in the second language acquisition. Two main directions will be covered, i.e. the importance of analyzing the already existing corpora in the process of language acquisition and teaching and, on the other hand, the possibility of creating mini corpora of various genres. Providing examples based on corpus-based language analyzes, we will try to demonstrate numerous benefits of conducting corpus-based research in pedagogy and importance of developing this field in our country. It is also argued that the application of corpus in research makes our observations and conclusions far more objective than they used to be in the past when all the judgments were based purely on our intuition. Furthermore, encouraging students to get involved both in the process of corpus analyzes and creating learners' corpora will make second language acquisition process pleasant, challenging and, what is most important, more efficient. We will discuss the benefits of applying real-life language corpora and importance of access to very large language samples. Besides, some recommendations will be provided on how to search and analyze corpora, where to find them and how to create our own ones.

Keywords: Corpus Linguistics, soft and hard versions of corpus-based teaching, behind-the-scenes approach, on stage approach, inductive learning, web-based resources.

Introduction

Development of Natural Language Processing (NLP) systems evoked desire to use computers in all fields of the human activity. Since the second half of the 20th century, NLP is becoming more and more actual throughout the world. Natural Language Processing (NLP) is a field of computer science and artificial intelligence dealing with the interactions between computers and human languages, in particular how to program computers so that they process large amounts of natural language data.

Since the 1980s, machine learning algorithms for language processing were introduced that was followed by creation of new directions in linguistics. New possibilities were developed to analyze large compilation of textual materials. Numerous text corpora were constructed, followed by construction of the corpus linguistic analyzers. The most important benefit of this method is that it gives us opportunity to carry out research on the basis of a wide range of materials, which could have required much time or could not be manually processed at all a few years ago. And this contributes to more reliable and objective scientific conclusions.

What does corpus linguistics study?

According to T. McEnry and A. Hardie, corpus linguistics differs from other topics in linguistics due to the fact that is is not directly about study of any particular aspect of language. It 'focuses upon a set of procedures, methods, for studying language'. This relatively new field of linguistics has 'potential to reorient our entire approach to the study of language'. The authors define corpus linguistics as 'dealing with some set of machine-readable texts which is deemed an appropriate basis on which to study a specific set of research questions (McEnery & Hardie, 2012)'.

Nowadays, 'corpus' is a fashionable term and it often replaces 'data'. Corpus is 'any body of text' presenting collection of recorded spoken or written language (McEnery & Wilson, 2001:197). However, not any collection of texts should be regarded as a corpus. What distinguishes corpus from archive is that the latter is an 'opportunistic collection of texts', while in modern linguistics, corpus 'is used to refer to a collection of sampled texts, both written and spoken, in a machine-readable form' (Grigaliuniene , 2013).

Brief History of the Corpus Linguistics

It was only in the 1980s when the term 'corpus linguistics' was used. Corpus linguistics itself started to emerge in the 1960s, but nothing interesting and important happened in this direction until 1990, when people in computational fields expressed their interest and started to work in this direction. Very soon after this, Corpus linguistics started to become a mainstream. Since the 2000s, the techniques and applications of corpus linguistics have been spread to other disciplines outside linguistics and languages. For example, media research, history, geography, sociology, politics, international relations, education, etc.

Pioneering projects in the Corpus linguistics were the first computerized or electronic corpora created in the 1960s and the 1970s. Scientists in the USA at Brown University created something that they called "A Standard Sample of Edited American English For Use With Digital Computers". This was a breakthrough. The Lancaster University together with Oslo and Bergen Universities started creating another electronic corpus for British English in 1970s. This corpus was called the Lancaster-Oslo-Bergen Corpus begun at Lancaster and competed at Norway. The short term we use is LOB Corpus. These corpora were soon followed by London-Lund Corpus of about 500,000 words, Cobuild Corpus compiled at Birmingham University which was used for dictionary-making, British National Corpus (100 million); the Bank of English (1500 million); OUP corpus (1,000 million), and many others.

Types of corpora

Corpora are usually built for various purposes. Accordingly, they are of several types. Two philosophies behind their design distinguish reference and monitor corpora from each other. Reference corpora are not expandable (e. g. the British National Corpus), while texts are continuously being added to the monitor corpora (the Bank of English, for instance).

As far as content is concerned, corpora may reflect a specific language or a variety of a single language (e.g. British, Australian, Indian, Singaporean English), corpora can also be specialized, for instance, there can be a corpus of academic

English containing written or spoken language. Multilingual corpora may contain the same texts in different languages, or the same texts translated into other languages known as parallel corpora, that might be especially useful for translators. Native-speakers' and language learners' corpora can also be extremely beneficial for language learners.

Corpus linguistics in foreign language teaching and learning

It is no longer argued that nobody can have a command of the whole language, especially non-native teachers of foreign languages. That is where native-speaker corpora can contribute so much to more precise and accurate language description. Corpus-based approach leads to creation of learner dictionaries, grammar manuals, etc. On the other hand, learners' corpora enable us as teachers to better understand the process of language acquisition.

As language teachers we always try to implement as many authentic material in the language classroom as possible, we try to show some video clips, movies, etc. to our students, engourage them to read the news, books in original. This is due to the fact that we want to expose learners to natural language. However, all this does not always seem to be enough. And it has its reasons, like lack of time, inability to remember contexts even if you are a native speaker. That is were corpus helps a lot.

Nowadays, teachers and learners start to get increasingly interested in corpus-based learning methods as well as educational products, such as grammar textbooks, dictionaries, etc. However, many of them have very little or no information about it or have never made direct use of a corpus so far. The question is why are corpora relevant to language teaching and how can we use them. We will try to outline some of the many possibilities of the corpus application in teaching and illustrate them by examples from the corpora.

The first time corpus linguistics attracted the attention of language teachers was in 1980ies when Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary was published. This dictionary was based on corpus. Since then, more and more corpus-based pedagogical materials appeared and increasing number of linguists started getting interested in it. The Collins Cobuild project suggested better descriptions of authentic native English comparing materials based on authentic data with traditional materials which were based on intuition have found this to be true.

The most significant aspects of the language teaching where corpus linguistics can be helpful are material design for foreign language teaching, grammar, lexicography, ESP, register variation, etc.

It is noteworthy that nowadays corpus-based research and teaching have been carried out mainly at universities; therefore, many teachers think that their skills are not good enough for corpus application. However, the requirement of computer resources and skills are absolutely minimal and anybody in any educational environment may use in the foreign language teaching situation.

What is learners' corpus? How can it help teachers to improve their teaching?

Garside, Leech and McEnery (1997) bring one more very important argument in favor of using corpora in teaching noting that that 'corpus as an information source fits in very well with the dominant trend in university teaching philosophy over the past 20 years, which is the trend from teaching as imparting knowledge to teaching as mediated learning'. In this context, there is no longer a gulf between research and teaching, since the student is placed in a position similar to that of a researcher, investigating the data available through observation of the corpus is the most relevant approach in any field of science, especially in linguistics.

Students who are tired of having been taught languages for several years, might find it challenging to participate in the process of its investigation, and not just being instructed what and how to do. It is agreed by linguists that 'exposure to large amounts of language nurtures a "feel of language", develops an understanding of what is natural in a language. If you want to learn foreign words you will need to learn them in 'living' contexts: newspapers, magazines, books, the radio - the more contexts, the better. It is only by observing a word in many 'living' contexts that we can master its meaning. We learn our native language so thoroughly and accurately because during our lifetime we are exposed to many different linguistic contexts, different uses and meanings of words' (Garside, Leech, & McEnery, 1997).

According to McCarthy (1998), the traditional 3 P's approach methodology – Presentation – Practice – Production should be supplemented by the 3 I's method: Illustration – Interaction – Induction where Illustration means looking at real data where possible, Interaction means talking among learners and teachers about language, showing and forming views, hypotheses. Induction means drawing conclusions about certain linguistic phenomena and their use. In this way the students "discover" language themselves, and this "discovery" feeling has a huge motivating effect on the learner.

Garside, Leech, and McEnery (1997) distinguish two ways of using corpora in language teaching: the soft and hard versions. The soft version requires only teachers to have skills and access to corpus and the relevant software. Teachers find examples in the corpus and devises tasks for the students (examples). The hard version requires learners' active participation in the corpus investigation process, they are supposed to have relevant skills to use corpora analyzers.

G. Aston (1998) outlines two approaches of corpus application in teaching: the so-called 'behind-the-scenes approach' implies the use of very large corpora and of sophisticated software, whose development has required massive financial investment and considerable linguistic and computational expertise. And the second approach – 'on stage approach' attempts to bring corpora and corpus analysis directly into the teaching and learning environment.

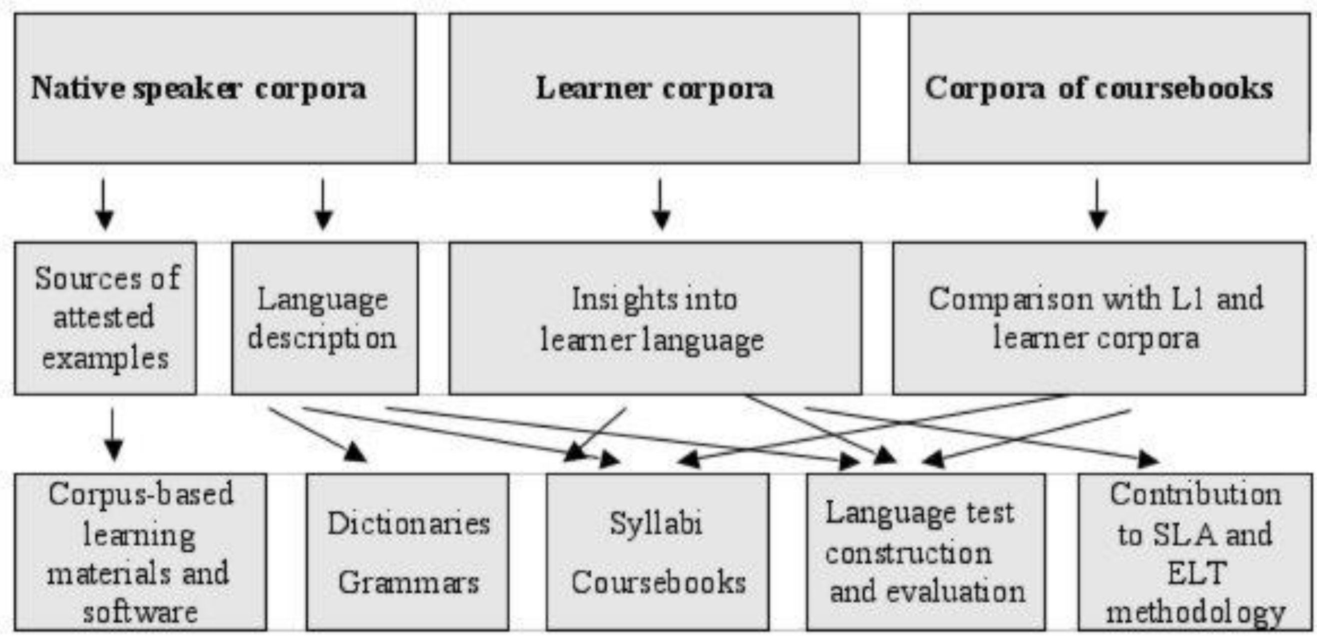
When using the soft version, teachers can manipulate the corpus examples in a number of ways. They can restrict the examples to a specific medium (writing/speech), and genre or text type (newspaper article, novel). They can also decide on the amount of text to give learners–only a few words on either side of the key word (as in Samples 2-3 above), an entire sentence (as in Samples 4-8 above), or a paragraph. Finally, they can edit the samples to remove sentences that they deem too difficult for the learners (Wible et al., 2002). This manipulation should be carried out with the understanding that the adapted samples are not good guides to the frequency of a language item.

The first computerized learner corpora were created in the 1990s: The Hong Kong University Learner Corpus and the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE), the Longman Learners' Corpus, the Cambridge Learner Corpus.

Despite the fact that we do not have learner corpora in our country, we can to work on our own and create corpora of our students. The easiest way to do this is when teachers give students assignments in the beginning of the course. The analysis of these texts will enable them to observe pattern of these written assignment and get a general impression of the strengths and needs of the new class (e.g. what grammatical mistakes are most common, what are the most frequently used words, locate some reoccurring patterns, find out if the learners need any specific recommendations, etc.) and plan the syllabus according to this observation. And later, preferably at the end of the course, teachers can create new corpus of their students and observe the progress.

Even if this types of analysis might be time consuming, it is still manageable if the learners submit the texts in electronic forms. Teachers may observe many patterns. This type of corpora may be useful for various research carried out later by the teacher. For instance, teachers may compare learners' corpora with native speakers' corpora observing the frequency of words, key words, collocations and compare and contrast.

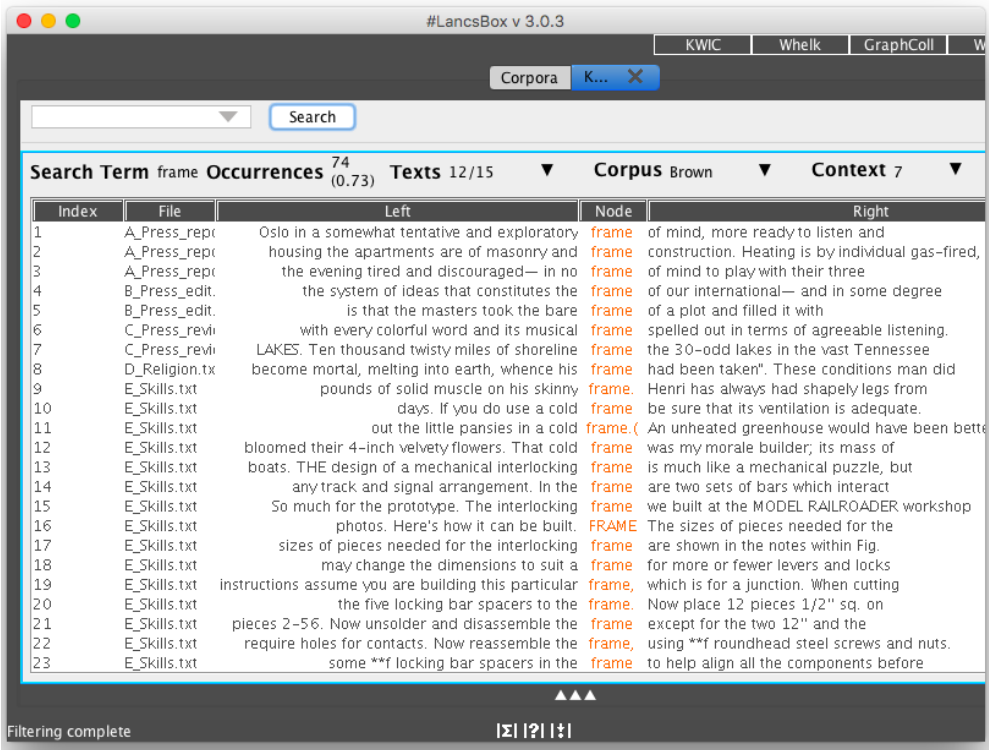
C. Gabrielatos (2005) presents a very interesting scheme illustrating potential usage of native speaker, learner and coursebook corpora:



It is evident how productive the linguistic research can be based on the abovementioned types of corpora.

Corpus-based foreign language lesson activities

Teachers can design numerous lexical tasks using soft version of corpus application for their language classes. For instance, in the soft version of the corpus application in teaching, teacher brings concordances of one word – 'frame' and asks students to work out the meaning of this word in every singe context.



LancsBox. Broun Corpus.

This task may be followed by asking students to find out which combinations are more frequent, they might also try to group the patterns in some way. Teachers can manipulate with corpus examples. They can delete the word 'frame' for instance and ask students to guess what word might be missing. They will have to work out the meaning of the missing word. This way corpora may help learners to discover new meanings of the words they already know, they will try to detect whether the word has exactly the same meaning in all the sentences or not. This type of exercise is useful mostly in case of polysemous words. Students compare contexts and never forget meanings detected by themselves. Everything this will help students to be able to use these vocabulary items and sound more natural in real life conversation.

One more corpus based task may also be comparing contexts of, for instance, the following words: 'economic' and 'economical'. Students will find out the difference between these words and write definitions according to the corpus tokens.

Word "Economic" in NOW Corpus (News on the Web)

ISSN: 2298-0180 / e-ISSN: 2587-472

CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT						[?] SHOW DUPLICATES
1	18-04-17 US	Marketwired (press release)	A	B	C	diverse supply chain and workforce, providing exceptional service to Vistra Energy and enhancing the **economic** development of their commur
2	18-04-17 US	Marketwired (press release)	A	B	C	factor fluctuations of power plant operations and power demands, a significant change in general **economic** conditions in any of the regions w
3	18-04-17 US	Science Business	A	B	C	health gets so little political attention. Investing in child health makes both moral and **economic** sense -- for every? 1 you put in, you get an ave
4	18-04-17 US	Phys.Org	A	B	C	internal nerves, muscles or organs in... # One of the eternal challenges of **economic** development is how to identify the economic activities tha
5	18-04-17 US	Phys.Org	A	B	C	... # One of the eternal challenges of economic development is how to identify the **economic** activities that a country, city, or region should targ
6	18-04-17 US	Minneapolis Star Tribune	A	B	C	quarrel over the timing of new Russia sanctions played out in public when the new **economic** adviser suggested U.N. Ambassador Nikki Haley v
7	18-04-17 US	Times of Malta	A	B	C	to spin information so that people only heard of the good news, pointing to **economic** success as an example. # " Is everything business as usu
8	18-04-17 US	CNBC	A	B	C	incoming data, " Evans said at a speech in Chicago. # On the **economic** data front, housing starts rebounded in March, totaling 1.319 million ve
9	18-04-17 US	Zacks.com	A	B	C	In addition, Viridity's VPower? software will provide the visualization, optimization, **economic** value stacking and automated control of the BESS
10	18-04-17 US	New York Times	A	B	C	reports that Mr. Lerner had made anti-Trump ads for the Club of Growth, an **economic** conservative advocacy group, during Republican prima
11	18-04-17 US	Auburn Citizen	A	B	C	funding. # The conservancy was awarded over $1.1 million by the state's Regional **Economic** Development Council program in December, one
12	18-04-17 US	Quartz	A	B	C	idea of " unfettered geniuses, " rather than the warring British state, sparking **economic** transformation seemed particularly misleading. # " Fo
13	18-04-17 US	Quartz	A	B	C	, even though it's wrong. # Recognising the connection between war manufacturing and **economic** development, the British sought to suppres
14	18-04-17 US	New York Times	A	B	C	he said he believed that the conservative movement's tenets need to evolve beyond sterile **economic** arguments of low taxes and high econon
15	18-04-17 US	New York Times	A	B	C	movement's tenets need to evolve beyond sterile economic arguments of low taxes and high **economic** growth. # " I think the challenge is how
16	18-04-17 US	MLive.com	A	B	C	it can not be trusted with the Great Lakes - our most precious natural and **economic** resource. " # The organization is asking for a temporary su
17	18-04-17 US	The Guardian	A	B	C	period of growth came to an end. # Maurice Obstfeld, the IMF's **economic** counsellor, said: " The first shots in a potential trade war have now
18	18-04-17 US	The Guardian	A	B	C	, to secure financial stability, facilitate international trade, promote high employment and sustainable **economic** growth, and reduce poverty. #
19	18-04-17 US	The Guardian	A	B	C	conference in Bretton Woods in the US in July 1944 to build a framework for **economic** cooperation to avoid the devaluations that contributed
20	18-04-17 US	The Guardian	A	B	C	# " That major economies are flirting with trade war at a time of widespread **economic** expansion may seem paradoxical -- especially when the

Word “Economical” in NOW Corpus (News on the Web)

CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT						[?] SHOW DUPLICATES
1	US G	codinghorror.com	A	B	C	a lot, but for people like me, where buying more RAM is makes **economical** sense in terms of being able to run VMs instead of buying machines which can
2	US G	amazon.com	A	B	C	manages to cover an impressive amount of ground with the benefit of smart organization, **economical** prose, and an insider's eye for what is interesting and in
3	US G	...ertoricodaytrips.com	A	B	C	light displays and even a petting zoo. Our Most Popular Articles # An **economical** way to get to the out-islands of Culebra and Vieques is by using the passenger
4	US G	indeed.com	A	B	C	service oriented then it also may work out for you. I know its tough **economical** times. However, if I were to do it over again I would not
6	US G	plosone.org (1)	A	B	C	in free-living bacteria. Microcystis forms dense blooms that may be toxic, causing **economical** and ecological problems worldwide 28. A better understanding o
7	US G	shellyrosenberg.com	A	B	C	fee. Fees for Editing, Proofreading and Resumes # My fees are considerably **economical** beginning at $.017 per word. (The industry average is between $.02 an
8	US G	safety.fhwa.dot.gov	A	B	C	for good health. Many commuters have also found cycling to be a permanent and **economical** option to avoid traffic congestion and parking difficulties. # Cycli
9	US G	...ehouse.blogs.cnn.com	A	B	C	. Therefore, higher gas prices is the one and only long-term solution to this **economical** and environmental crisis. All other solutions are short-term and will onl
10	US G	antipope.org	A	B	C	cost. And as a general rule, they are not going to be an **economical** choice for a print run of 3500 novellas... unless the author is going to
11	US G	zerohedge.com	A	B	C	and extracting " oil " then the process has not ever been shown to be **economical**. Folks been working on that forever. We will be driving mules to work
12	US G	zerohedge.com	A	B	C	that forever. We will be driving mules to work before it will ever be **economical**. # If your claim is true, then the USD won't need U.S.
13	US G	anthropology.net	A	B	C	sea food speeded up the homo brain / culture devolopment. Seafood is the most **economical** to get both DHA and EPA. # You are wrong with the fishing,
14	US G	...al.library.upenn.edu	A	B	C	. But then she is thoroughly competent, and this high recompense is found eventually **economical**. But just as at Oxford and Cambridge we may encounter tho
15	US G	...al.library.upenn.edu	A	B	C	Division, has applied this knowledge for the production of a still simpler and more **economical** " Disinfestor, " in which a brazier filled with live coke, sunk in
16	US G	forbes.com	A	B	C	renewable energy mandate, it's quite believable that a project in Hawaii would be **economical** without the PTC, despite the high cost of building anything in Hav
17	US G	wired.com	A	B	C	they not only decided what was worthy but also encouraged programmers to make the most **economical** use of their computer time. As a result, early develop
18	US G	science.slashdot.org	A	B	C	it's very hard for US to screw it up. # It's more **economical** to spend $500mil to start an ecosystem that will maintain and develop itself without further
19	US G	chowhound.chow.com	A	B	C	culture has an enormously precise component that feels elegant without being compulsive; movement is **economical**, precise and almost meditative. There is a
20	US G	ca7.uscourts.gov	A	B	C	such work in the area where the clerk's office is located and should encourage **economical** methods of copying. (d) Bill of Costs: Objections; Insertion in

Soft version of corpus application in teaching is especially beneficial for compiling written quizzes. We can create gap filling activities in which corpus analyzer tool – KWIC i.e. key word in context can be used. For instance, we can create gap filling exercise for definite and indefinite article practice.

As far as hard version of the corpus application in teaching is concerned, it makes language teaching and learning process extremely interesting. Teachers are able to show students that they can play with the language and corpus is an instrument to manage this.

Examples of hard version may be tasks, when, for example, teachers ask students to find a field specific corpus and with the help of language analyzer calculate most frequent words in the corpus. Or to compare most frequent words in foreign and in target language. To illustrate the later, we have researched the most frequent word list in Georgian and English language corpora:

https://the.sketchengine.co.uk

Corpus: **Georgian Web (georgianWaC)**

Word list

Corpus: **Georgian Web (georgianWaC)**
Total number of items: **422,387**
Total frequency: **47,202,292**

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word	frequency
და	2,045,774
არ	561,146
რომ	549,239
ამ	281,978
ეს	281,873
თუ	255,143
უნდა	223,931
კი	207,108
იყო	184,435
არის	177,282
მაგრამ	175,066
რა	172,744
ის	149,757
მე	148,277
ან	146,136
რომელიც	143,927
მისი	129,323
არა	128,087
როგორც	126,276
საქართველოს	116,762
რაც	111,040
შემდეგ	109,427
სხვა	105,836
წლის	105,305
ვერ	102,393
ერთი	99,975
იმ	92,268
უფრო	91,459
მხოლოდ	90,098
დიდი	87,124
ყველა	83,657
შეიძლება	83,577
დროს	82,751
ძალიან	81,227
მას	80,767
მათ	79,575
აქვს	78,372

Corpus: **ACL Anthology Reference Corpus (ARC)**

Word list

Corpus: **ACL Anthology Reference Corpus (ARC)**
Total number of items: **113,614**
Total frequency: **61,609,479**

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word	frequency
the	3,953,410
of	2,163,530
and	1,611,029
a	1,378,548
to	1,364,181
in	1,200,142
is	1,025,882
for	762,347
that	643,605
are	531,223
as	511,812
The	485,678
we	472,090
with	453,192
on	414,503
by	388,519
be	380,501
from	311,070
this	297,623
which	269,052
an	260,583
We	257,574
can	247,338
not	244,289
In	226,463
or	219,620
et	202,362
it	197,559
al.	194,653
our	194,098
word	188,270
model	184,678
each	176,559
data	175,446
words	174,023
have	170,288
used	169,971
set	166,617
system	153,707
using	148,839
all	148,485
two	147,905
This	145,714

Students can also work on their grammar and investigate the corpus to further build their skills. For instance, they can identify suffix ‘tion’ in the corpus and find out what it does to the words, how it changes words. This kind of tasks based on deduction may turn out to be both challenging and memorable for language learners at the same time.

Difficulties corpus-based language teaching may face

Despite all the abovementioned benefits of corpus data application, there are numerous potential risks embedded in it. Corpora is not an infallible source of linguistic information, we can encounter several unique instances which do not represent 'real' language. On the other hand, we should not think that if we can not find some word, phrase or any linguistic item, it does not exist at all. Thus, we should not completely depend on any corpus.

What is more, the introduction of corpora in the process of language teaching is regarded to be time-consuming and challenging job for teachers and and learners. As long as both teachers and students are used to traditional methods, they find it difficult to get used to new approaches. What is more, it is not usually included in the curricula and teachers have no motivation to get acquainted with this new methodology. Another problem is lack of information about this direction. Besides, not only teachers, but also students need to be trained how to use corpora, they should be familiarized with methods, otherwise they will not find corpora interesting. The first stage of introducing corpora to students should be preparation of exercises. This will help students to find out what they can get from corpora.

Once teachers and students overcome these 'obstacles', they will appreciate application of CL in their studies.

Review of a few corpus tools useful for corpus-based teaching

Sketch Engine - https://www.sketchengine.eu/

Sketch Engine is the ultimate tool to explore how language works. Its algorithms analyze authentic texts of billions of words (text corpora) to identify instantly what is typical in language and what is rare, unusual or emerging usage. It is also designed for text analysis or text mining applications.

Sketch Engine is used by linguists, lexicographers, translators, students and teachers. It is a first-choice solution for publishers, universities, translation agencies and national language institutes throughout the world. Sketch Engine contains 400 ready-to-use corpora in 90+ languages, each having a size of up to 20 billion words to provide a truly representative sample of language.

Corpus Query Processor, Lancaster University - https://cqpweb.lancs.ac.uk/

CQPweb is a web-based corpus analysis system which provides a user-friendly interface to the Corpus Workbench (CWB) system. This interface is compatible with any corpus, but is especially useful for large corpora, corpora with word-level annotation (such as part-of-speech tagging), and corpora with rich text-level metadata.

Corpus Byu.edu - https://corpus.byu.edu/

The most widely used online corpus - more than 130,000 distinct researchers, teachers, and students each month.

LancsBox: Lancaster University Corpus Toolbox - http://corpora.lancs.ac.uk/lancsbox/

LancsBox is a new-generation software package for the analysis of language data and corpora developed at Lancaster University

Main features of LancsBox:

Works with your own data or existing corpora

Can be used by linguists, language teachers, historians, sociologists, educators and anyone interested in language.

Visualizes language data.

Analyses data in any language

Automatically annotates data for part-of-speech

Works with any major operating system (Windows, Mac, Linux).

AntConc - http://www.laurenceanthony.net/software/antconc/

A freeware corpus analysis toolkit for concordancing and text analysis. AntConc is a freeware, multiplatform tool for carrying out corpus linguistics research and data-driven learning.

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THE PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING (PBL) AS A PARADIGM IN CONTEMPORARY TEACHING METHODOLOGY

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Abstract

PBL as an attitude appeared in the XX century. It is a teaching strategy to promote self-directed learning and critical thinking through problem solving. This educational approach has become a distinct methodology and has been widely adopted within higher education as the method of teaching. Problem-Based Learning focuses on systematic reviews. Key to success of PBL is the recognition that students are active participants in their own learning. In education, PBL activities would focus learning forward to the goal of becoming an effective teacher. We consider this to be a move closer to student-centered teaching. Accordingly, students expend their confidence so that effective outcome positively influences their professional practice. Problem serves as the stimulus, due to it, it encourages collaboration, communication and increases motivation. Motivated students assume increasing responsibility and obtain deeper knowledge. So the approach PBL has proven to be an effective way of contemporary teaching process.

Key words: Metacognition; critical thinking, inductive, deductive

Problem-based learning, is a pedagogical methodology requiring learners to take an active role in the construction of knowledge by developing metacognitive learning strategies, working in small groups, and solving realistic illustrated problems.

The technological revolution of the last decades has affected higher education in many, often contradictory, ways. It has expanded the volume of knowledge students are expected to learn during undergraduate years while speeding its obsolescence. This fact, aggravated by the increasing instability and competitiveness of the job market, requires that professional education in general go beyond the mere transmission/reception of technical-scientific information. This situation has been widely recognized by many scholars of higher education, who suggest that professional skills and attitudes be promoted in conjunction with a solid scientific knowledge base. Among the skills and attitudes are the capacity to solve problems and make informed decisions and the disposition for self-directed and life-long learning. That is to say that knowledge should be taught so as to enable students to deal with unforeseen and uncertain events and to adapt their professional development accordingly throughout their careers.

The Problem-Based Learning (PBL) method is of special interest to us as it seems to be a "popular" method for teaching. If PBL is "the best" method, and is applicable to second language acquisition (SLA), we are obliged to use it in our classrooms. PBL is defined by Howard Barrows (1985), American physician and educator, as a learning method which involves student centered learning in small groups lead by a tutor or "expert", rather than teaching using traditional lecture delivering. The role of the tutor is to guide the students toward discovering answers on their own rather than to simply provide the correct answer. Through the guiding process the tutor will stimulate the students' cognitive learning process and problem-solving skills with self directed learning (SDL), also known as auto didacticism. Auto didacticism, which is common place in higher learning, is the idea that the teacher does not need to schedule learners' private time. Students are expected to be able to organize their lives, studies and learning in a manner which prepares them for their chosen profession (Armstrong, 2012).The PBL method has adopted the very basis of the reflective practitioner where the students are faced with situations and problems that acquire to be solved, for the students, new and previously unknown knowledge. To help the students reach these premises the teachers will challenge the prevailing knowledge structure and "conflicts and dilemmas would surface and move to center stage. When using a teaching method as PBL one of the most crucial aspects to consider is the method's effectiveness and how suitable it is for all students, both weaker and stronger. Wong, Wong and Tang (2011) studied the effectiveness of adopting an inductive approach, such as PBL, in the classroom. The results of this study demonstrated that from the students' perspective an inductive approach was more interesting and allows them to think more freely and contributed to their problem solving skills. The students further cited peer interaction and independent thinking as positive aspects of the approach. Lastly, the students remarked that the inductive approach led to exploration and meaningful interaction with English which did not interfere or conflict with their L1 as compared to the grammar translation, or deductive, approach. PBL incorporates many forms of assessment, such as portfolios, self-reflection, and peer evaluation. These forms are all needed to reflect the various facets of self-assessment. For example, a portfolio allows the student to, not only see the learning outcome but the learning progress as well. The ultimate goal of PBL is for students to be self-motivated, independent learners. By using peer review and self assessment from group interaction students build independence and problem-solving skills on their own. Studies of the long-term benefits of PBL have shown that these skills follow students into their professional lives and give them the tools to be better prepared in terms of inter-personal skills, professional skills, and the ability to plan efficiently and independently (Hung, Jonassen, & Liu, Problem-Based Learning, 2008). These findings are supported by research showing that authentic self-assessment leads the students to be able to identify their own deficiencies and progress which further builds on the ideas of independent learning.

Finally, in traditional classroom settings, narrow assessment focuses on rote memory rather than true understanding. PBL assessment incorporates the larger concepts involved and concentrates on thinking and reasoning skills.

Today's students are exposed to an increasingly complex and demanding information landscape, making it very difficult for them to know where and when to turn to teachers (tutors) for help. Furthermore, a variety of large scale studies show more times than not, they rely on Google and their peers to make sense of this complexity, often leaving librarians and the library out of their information seeking behaviors. Problem-based learning (PBL), a conceptual model of facilitated learning, has been used with outstanding results in the education of various fields of education. The components of PBL, using real world situations (problems), group learning, student-directed solutions for problems, and a teacher serving as facilitators of learning has much promise for, and important applications in the information literacy pedagogy and curriculum. PBL is more than a teaching pedagogy, it encompasses a nurturing environment in which all curriculum elements are systematically aligned to help students achieve the learning outcomes set by the instructor. PBL has many advantages over traditional teaching methods including:

- it allows teachers to become learning facilitators rather than lecturers;

- it promotes critical thinking while conveying information literacy content/concepts;
- it is much more suited to teaching conceptually about digital information rather than just illustrating various online resources in a given subject area it promotes peer-to-peer learning, which is more closely aligned with how students learn PBL, encompasses active learning with particular relevance to the learning objectives (as opposed to the traditional passive spoon-feeding rote learning based on teacher-designed didactic lectures and instructions. PBL promotes critical thinking, in addition to the formal learning context, everyday challenges emerging from the additional new social contexts provided by problem-based curricula provide fertile environments for the development of meta cognition, in other words, when we are faced with finding solutions to a problem whether posed by the teacher as part of a problem-based curriculum or a new social environment, we are more likely to develop generic, as well as subject specific skills.PBL allows teachers to link their curricula not only with the specific class and assignment for which they are currently teaching, but also to help students understand the link between what they are learning that day with similar assignments for their entire post-secondary career and beyond, which hopefully, starts (or continues) them on the path to life-long learning.

This paper describes a spectrum of innovative PBL teaching and learning concepts university teachers have developed to help facilitate the learning of critical thinking and information literacy among students at all levels of the university.

- The tutor presents a problem.
- Students brainstorm possible ways of approaching the problem.
- Students produce a mind map of their approaches.
- Students adapt the mind map in consultation with the tutor.
- Students develop the solution.
- Students present the solution for scrutiny.

Future research on PBL small group learning could address student learning outcomes in a distributed versus onsite format, the efficacy of current communication and collaboration tools in supporting a communication-intensive PBL environment, the effect of a PBL environment on foreign language acquisition, and the use of synchronous and asynchronous communication tools to develop meta cognitive strategies in students.

Although problems very rarely have a single best solution on account of numerous solution paths that can be explored, Jonassen (1997) outlines seven steps that facilitate the development of metacognitive strategies. These steps include: (1)the articulation of the problem space, which will by nature be highly contextualized and emergent, and the identification of primary problem components; (2) the identification of alternate opinions, positions, and perspectives of ways out; (3) the generation of possible solutions, including their logical outcomes, and the construction of mental models of the problem that can undergo preliminary testing; (4) the assessment of alternative solutions and the construction of arguments for and against the proposed solution; (5) the continual monitoring of the problem space and the defined solution options in order to determine if the proposed solutions remain valid; (6) the implementation and monitoring of the solution and (7) obtaining feedback and adapting the solution.

Problem based learning is an active and engaging pedagogy to use for teaching information literacy concepts and skills at both the undergraduate and graduate level. It has been used successfully in the various sciences for many decades.

These outcomes include much better papers using a greater array of scholarly resources, students becoming part of the "scholarly conversation", and a stronger understanding of the difference between popular and scholarly resources. Problem based learning pedagogy is easily adaptable to any discipline, and it encourages active engagement among peers as well as with the facilitator. PBL process in social studies education appeared in three main categories: positive reflections/benefits, negative reflections/issues, and feelings.

The present studies indicate that many pre service teachers consider PBL useful. The findings of the studies show that PBL also influences learning, democracy education, and skills acquisition. The fact that the findings of the study are positive in general is also compatible with the results of other studies carried out.

Problem-based learning, of which an excellent overview is provided by Savery (2006), is a pedagogical methodology requiring learners to take an active role in the construction of knowledge by developing metacognitive learning strategies, working in small groups, and solving realistic illustrated problems. The final facet of PBL, self-directed student learning, can be considered the additive of the points outlined above. Because learning is student-centered and occurs in small groups, and because the role of a teacher is replaced by tutors who direct students in the development of their own meta cognitive strategies, this approach leads students to become independent thinkers, capable of assessing a problem and discovering on their own the resources that can be used in its solution. In this sense, PBL can be closely aligned with theoretical tenets of higher-order thinking, namely the capability of a subject-matter expert to recognize the fundamental characteristics of the problem at hand, reflect on solution options, implement the best option, evaluate the outcome of the implementation, and avoid reasoning biases. The self directed learning fostered by PBL also has been observed to continue beyond the classroom setting, and it has been noted that students who participate in PBL curricula frequently remain better lifelong learners than students who participate in a traditional curriculum.

The PBL approach, students eventually became highly motivated and, on another front, the teacher may look forward to new possibilities presented by the PBL approach every semester, and creating richer problems for the students to solve. And the last not least, that one of the more crucial problems with PBL is that there does not exist one single unanimous position about the theoretical basis for, or practice of, Problem-Based Learning, and that there is not even agreement about whether there is or should be one type of Problem Based Learning or many variants and it really enhances students' learning proficiency and it is teachers at the grass roots level are empowered to take ownership of creating a culture of thinking as well.

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INCREASING STUDENTS' MOTIVATION IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

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Abstract

The article deals with an effective teaching methods and ways that build motivation in students and help providing excellent management in the classroom. Many students meet their personal needs by successfully completing classroom activities and assignments, while others find classes to be frustrating. The article highlights that increasing motivation is vitally important for the teachers as well as for the students. Students will not be motivated unless three components are present _ the expectation of task accomplishment, finding value in the task and completing the task. That will definitely be supportive to the students' basic personal needs.

Key Words: Intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, task accomplishment, personal needs, task value

As one of the most often – researched topics in the field of psychology and education, motivation has been generally viewed as energy or drive that moves people to do something by nature. However, given the complexity of motivation, there seems to be no consensus in the understanding of motivation (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011). Therefore, researchers were rather selective in their study focus by applying a range of motivation theories.

Motivation is a key factor in the success of students at all stages of their education, and teachers can play a vital role in providing and encouraging motivation in their students. It can be quite difficult, as all students are motivated differently and it takes time and a lot of effort. Even the best intentioned and educated teachers sometimes lack the skills to keep students on track.

"Student motivation is influenced by both internal and external factors that can start, sustain, intensify, or discourage behaviour" (Reeve, 2004: 68) In second language learning as in every field of human learning, motivation is the critical force which determines whether a learner embarks on a task at all and how much energy he or she devotes to it. It is a complex phenomenon and includes many components: the individual's drive, need for achievement and success, curiosity, desire for stimulation and new experience, and so on. These factors play a role in every kind of learning situation.

We are aware of two types of motivation in psychology - intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation means that the individual had the desire to perform a specific task, because of the several factors, such as:

- Acceptance: We all need to feel that we are accepted by our co-workers.
- Curiosity: We all have the desire to be in the know.
- Independence: We all need to feel we are unique.
- Power: We all have the desire to be able to have influence.

- Social Status: We all have the desire to feel important.

Extrinsic motivation means that, our desires to perform a task are controlled by an outside source. This kind of motivation is external in nature. Extrinsic motivation includes several factors:

- Parental expectations.
- Expectations of other trusted models.
- Earning potential of a course of study.
- Grades.

In addition to that, the most well-known and the most debated motivation is money - desire of having highly-paid job in the future. No matter what kind of motivation the individual has, it is considered to be one of the most important factors while teaching. We offer some methods to motivate students and encourage them on the basis of analysis:

Give students a sense of control. For example, allow students to choose the type of assignment they do or which problems to work on. It can give them a sense of control that may just motivate them to do more.

Create a free environment. For example, when teachers create a safe, supportive environment for students, affirming their belief rather than laying out the consequences of not doing things, students are much more likely to get and stay motivated to do their work.

Use positive competition. Competition in the classroom isn`t always a bad thing, and in some cases can motivate students to try harder. A teacher can arrange a competition through group games related to the material.

Offer rewards. Everyone likes getting rewards and even simple things like a sticker or a souvenir can make students work harder.

Allow students to work together. Many students find fun to try to solve problems, do experiments and work on projects with other students. They can motivate one another to reach a goal.

Give praise when earned. Students at any age crave recognition and praise. Teacher can give students a great motivation by rewarding success publicly giving praise for a job well done.

Encourage self-reflection. One way to motivate students is to get them to take a hard look at themselves and determine their own strengths and weaknesses. It makes them feel in charge of creating their own objectives and goals.

Make goals high but attainable. If a teacher is not pushing students to do more, most won`t seek to push themselves on their own. Students like to be challenged and will work to achieve their goals.

Give feedback and offer chances to improve. Teachers should help students to learn exactly where they went wrong and how they can improve next time.

Make things fun ad track progress. Students who see school as a place where they can have fun will be more motivated to pay attention. Fun activities make the classroom a much more friendly place for all students At the same time tracking progress can come in handy in the classroom, not only for teachers but also for students.

There are some smart tactics to motivate students to learn English.

Create a friendly atmosphere in the classroom.

Make sure students are seated at a comfortable distance from each other. Develop a friendly climate. Each student should feel like a part of the whole as well as recognized and valued.

Make sure you don't have one student sitting alone or outside the group. You should control less active student participation in class.

Think in advance about how you will organize changing partners or changing groups. Sometimes students wander aimlessly not knowing where to go.

Make class communicative. Part of the joy of language is using it to communicate. Language learners get a rush when they can successfully translate their thoughts into words. The more we encourage our students to communicate in class, the more motivated they will be.

Group work here is a great way to make class communicative. Students' enthusiasm, involvement and willingness to participate affect the quality of class discussion as an opportunity for learning. Small-group activities and pair work boost students' self-confidence and are excellent source of motivation.

A flipped classroom is another great way to give communication center stage and put language to use through communication.

Keep your class communicative by minimizing teacher talk time (TTT). The less you talk, the more your students will be talking. Thus, they will be putting their language knowledge to work.

Make English practical

Project–based learning is a great way to keep things focused on reality. Generally people don`t like doing things that are pointless. In project-based learning, students work through a series of steps to come to a solution to the problem. The process is more important than the final product, since that is where students are really putting their language knowledge to use.

Role-playing is another way to stay focused on the practical use of the language. Giving students real-life situations will give them a chance to practice for the future in a safe environment. Encouraging them to relate their classroom experience to outside interests and activities makes developing language skills more relevant.

Listening to English language songs, watching English language films or videos, or reading English Web sited can lead students to broaden their perspectives on their language acquisition process.

Give Feedback. Always consider feedback carefully. If you spend too much time correcting every error they make, you will end up – students won`t feel connected to you personally.

Teachers should be aware of when to correct errors and how to do that without any hurt. It is important to give positive feedback, like compliments and encouragement, as well as criticism but with some positive feedback. In addition, you don`t have to be the only source of feedback for your students. Encourage peer feedback and self -evaluation.

Some researchers also identify that students will not be motivated unless three components are present - that is, they (1) expect they can accomplish the task, (2) find value in the task, and (3) complete the task in an environment supportive of their basic personal needs (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997: 188).

In conclusion, motivation plays a significant role in the process of learning a language. Language teachers can't effectively teach a language if they do not understand the relationship between motivation and its effect on language acquisition. The core of motivation is what might be called passion, which relates to a person's intrinsic goals and desires. Successful learners know their preferences, their strengths and weaknesses, and effectively utilize strengths and compensate for weaknesses. Successful language learning is linked to the learners' passion. And teachers should help them find ways to connect to this passion. Students, even the best ones, can become frustrated and demotivated when the feel like they are struggling or not getting the recognition that other students have. So, all teacher should be sure that all students get a chance to play to their strengths and feel included and valued. It can make a world of difference in their motivation.

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TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES IN THE CONTEXT OF TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

Foreign Language Teachers for Specific Purposes have a lot in common with teachers of general foreign language. For both it is necessary to consider linguistic development and teaching theories, to have insights in contemporary ideas regarding their own position and role as well as the position and role of foreign language learners in education and to face new technologies offered as an aid to improve their methodology. The needs to understand the requirements of other professions and willingness to adapt to these requirements differentiate the foreign language teachers for specific purposes and their colleagues teaching general foreign language. ESP teaching presumes teaching of English as a foreign language regarding specific profession, subject or purpose.

Key words: ESP, teacher, teacher development, methodology.

Introduction

The teaching of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has been seen as a separate activity within English language teaching (ELT). It is believed that for some of its teaching ESP has developed its own methodology and its research draws on research from various disciplines in addition to applied linguistics – this is the key distinguishing characteristic of ESP. ESP, if sometimes moved away from the established trends in general ELT, has always been with needs analysis and preparing learners to communicate effectively in the tasks prescribed by their field of study or work situation. The emphasis of ELT is always on practical outcomes. The theory of ESP could be outlined based on specific nature of the texts that learners need knowledge of or need-related nature of teaching.

What is ESP?

As with most disciplines in human activity, ESP was a phenomenon grown out of a number of converging trends of which we will mention three most important: 1) the expansion of demand for English to suit specific needs of a profession, 2) developments in the field of linguistics (attention shifted from defining formal language features to discovering the ways in which language is used in real communication, causing the need for the development of English courses for specific group of learners), and 3) educational psychology (learner's needs and interests have an influence on their motivation and effectiveness of their learning).

Definitions of ESP in the literature are relatively late in time, if we assume that ESP began in the 1960s. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define ESP as an approach rather than a product – meaning that ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology. The basic question of ESP is: Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language? The purpose of learning English became the core.

Strevens' (1988) definition of ESP makes a distinction between 1) absolute characteristics (language teaching is designed to meet specified needs of the learner; related in content to particular disciplines, occupation and activities; centred on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, text, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of the discourse; designed in contrast with General English) and 2) two variable characteristics (ESP may be restricted to the language skills to be learned, e.g. reading; and not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology).

Robinson's (1991: 3) definition of ESP is based on two criteria: 1) ESP is normally 'goal-directed', and 2) ESP courses develop from a needs analysis which aim to specify what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English, and a number of characteristics which explain that ESP courses are generally constrained by a limited time period in which their objectives have to be achieved and are taught to adults in homogenous classes in terms of the work or specialist studies that the students are involved in.

Each of these definitions have validity but also weaknesses. Considering Hutchinson and Water's definition, Anthony (1997) noted that it is not clear where ESP courses end and General English courses begin because numerous non-specialist ESP instructors use ESP approach in that their syllabi are based on analysis of learner needs and their own specialist personal knowledge of English for real communication. Strevens' definition, by referring to content in the second absolute characteristic, may confirm the impression held by many teachers that ESP is always and necessarily related to subject content. Robinson's mention of homogenous classes as a characteristic of ESP may lead to the same conclusion. However, much of ESP work is based on the idea of a common-core of language and skills belonging to all academic disciplines or cutting across the whole activity of business. ESP teaching should always reflect the underlying concepts and activities of the discipline. Having all these on mind, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) modified Strevens' definition of ESP

1. Absolute characteristics: a) ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner; b) ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves; and c) ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, and register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

2. Variable characteristics: a) ESP may be related or designed for specific disciplines; b) ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English; c) ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation; it could be used for learners at secondary school level; d) ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced learners; and e) Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

Types of ESP

ESP is traditionally been divided into two main areas according to when they take place: 1) English for Academic Purposes (EAP) involving pre-experience, simultaneous/inservice and post-experience courses, and 2) English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) for study in a specific discipline (pre-study, in-study, and post-study) or as a school subject (independent or integrated). Pre-experience or pre-study course will omit any specific work related to the actual discipline or work as students will not yet have the needed familiarity with the content; the opportunity for specific or integrated work will be provided during inservice or in-study courses.

Another division of ESP divides EAP and EOP according to discipline or professional area in the following way: 1) EAP involves English for (Academic) Science and Technology (EST), English for (Academic) Medical Purposes (EMP), English for (Academic) Legal Purposes (ELP), and English for Management, Finance and Economics; 2) EOP includes English for Professional Purposes (English for Medical Purposes, English for Business Purposes – EBP) and English for Vocational Purposes (Pre-vocational English and Vocational English); in EAP, EST has been the main area, but EMP and ELP have always had their place. Recently the academic study of business, finance, banking, economics has become increasingly important especially Masters in Business Administration (MBA) courses; and 2) EOP refers to English for professional purposes in administration, medicine, law and business, and vocational purposes for non-professionals in work (language of training for specific trades or occupations) or pre-work situations (concerned with finding a job and interview skills).

The classification of ESP courses creates numerous problems by failing to capture fluid nature of the various types of ESP teaching and the degree of overlap between "common-core" EAP and EBP and General English - e.g. Business English can be seen as mediating language between the technicalities of particular business and the language of the general public (Picket, 1989), which puts it in a position between English for General Purposes (EGP) and specialist English. Therefore, some authors suggest (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998) the presentation of the whole of ELT should be on a continuum that runs from General English courses to very specific ESP courses as illustrated in Table 1.

Regarding positions 2 and 3, it is only the overall context of the program that decides whether a particular course is classified as ESP or not. At position 4, the work is specified in terms of the skills (it is important to choose appropriate skills to focus on - e.g., some doctors will need to read some medical journal, others will need oral skills to talk with their patients) taught, but the groups are not homogenous from one discipline or profession (scientists, engineers, lawyers, doctors), so the individual members can need texts dealing with their specific profession. Teaching materials prepared need contexts acceptable and understandable to all branches. At position 5 the course becomes really specific – the key feature of such courses is that teaching is flexible and tailored to individual or group needs.

Tab.1 Continuum of ELT course types: General / Specific

Position 1	Position 2	Position 3	Position 4	Position 5
English for Beginners	Intermediate to advanced EGP courses with a focus on a particular skill	EGAP/EGBP courses based on common core language and skills not related to a specific discipline or profession	Courses for broad disciplinary or professional areas (e.g. Report writing for Scientists and Engineers, Medical English, Legal English, Negotiating	1) An academic support course related to a particular academic course. 2) One-to-one work with business people

			skills for Business English)	

Features of ESP courses

Considering the characteristics of ESP courses, Carver (1983) states that there are three characteristics common to ESP courses: 1) authentic materials – the use of authentic learning materials is possible if we accept the claim that ESP courses should be offered at an intermediate or advanced level. The use of such materials, modified by teachers or unmodified, is common in ESP, especially in self-directed studies or research tasks. The students are usually encouraged to conduct research using a variety of different resources including the Internet;

2) purpose-related orientation – refers to the simulation of communicative tasks required by the target situation. The teacher can give students different tasks - to simulate the conference preparation, involving the preparation of papers, reading, note-taking and writing. At Faculty of Agronomy in Cacak, English course for Agribusiness Management involves students in the tasks of presenting a particular agricultural product, logo creation, negotiating with the clients (suppliers and buyers), telephone conversation. They also practice listening skills, though the application is restricted because they employ newly acquired skills during their ESP classes with their colleagues and teacher. 3) self-direction – means that ESP is concerned with turning learners into users. For self –direction, it is necessary that teacher encourage students to have a certain degree of autonomy – freedom to decide when, what, and how they will study. For high-ability learners it is essential to learn how to access information in a new culture.

Since ESP courses are of various types, depending on specific scientific field or profession, and have specific features, teachers teaching such courses need to play different roles and acquire certain knowledge.

Roles of ESP teachers

As ESP teaching is extremely varied some authors (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998) use the term "practitioner" rather than "teacher" to emphasize that ESP work involves much more than teaching. ESP practitioner can have several roles.

1. The ESP practitioner as a teacher ESP is a practical discipline with the most important objective of helping students to learn. However, the teacher is not the primary knower of the carrier content of the material. The students, especially where the course is specifically oriented towards the subject content or work the students are engaged in, may know more about the content than the teacher. The teacher has the opportunity to draw on students' knowledge of the content in order to generate communication in the classroom. When the teaching is a specific course on, for example, how to write a business report, it is vital that the teacher adopts the position of the consultant who has the knowledge of communication practices but needs to "negotiate" with the students on how best to explore these practices to meet the objective they have. The relationship is much more of a partnership. In some situations the role of ESP teacher extends to giving one-to-one advice to students (e.g., in non-English speaking countries students will have to publish in international journals and need advice in both language and discourse issues). ESP teachers need to have considerable flexibility, be willing to listen to learners,

take interest in the disciplines or professional activities the students are involved in, and to take some risks in their teaching.

2. The ESP practitioner as course designer and material provider. Since it is rarely possible to use a particular textbook without the need for supplementary material – sometimes no really suitable published material exists for identified needs - ESP practitioners often have to provide the material for the course. This involves selection of published material, adapting material if it is not suitable, or writing it. ESP teachers also need to assess the effectiveness of the teaching material used whether it is published or self-produced. However, since the teachers are encouraged by their employees to write new material there is a danger of constant re-invention of the wheel; advantages of published materials are ignored even when they are suitable for a given situation.

3. The ESP practitioner as researcher Research has been particularly strong in the area of EAP (genre analysis). Regarding the research into English for Business Purposes, there is a growing interest in investigating the genres, the language and the skills involved in business communication. ESP teachers need to be in touch with the research. Teachers carrying out a needs analysis, designing a course, or writing teaching materials need to be capable of incorporating the findings of the research, and those working in specific ESP situations need to be confident that they know what is involved in skills such as written communication.

4. The ESP practitioner as collaborator. It is believed that subject-specific work is often best approached through collaboration with subject specialist. This may involve cooperation in which ESP teacher finds out about the subject syllabus in an academic context or the tasks that students have to carry out in a work or business situation. Or it may involve specific collaboration so that there is some integration between specialist studies or activities and the language. It might involve the language teacher specifically preparing learners for the language of subject lectures or business presentations. Another possibility is that a specialist checks and comments on the content of teaching materials that the ESP teacher has prepared.

The fullest collaboration is where a subject expert and a language teacher team-teach classes; in EAP such lessons might help with the understanding of subject lectures or the writing of examination answers, essays or theses, while in EOP they might involve the language teacher and a business trainer working together to teach both the skills and the language related to business communication.

5. The ESP practitioner as evaluator The ESP practitioner is often involved in various types of evaluation - testing of students, evaluation of courses and teaching materials. Tests are conducted 1) to assess whether students have the necessary language and skills to undertake a particular academic course or career which is important in countries such as the UK, USA, Australia where large numbers of international students do postgraduate course or research and need internationally required tests, e.g. International English Language Test Service (IELTS), Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), and 2) to asses the level of their achievement – how much learners have gained from a course. Evaluation of course design and teaching materials should be done while the course is being taught, at the end of the course and after the course has finished, in order to assess whether the learners have been able to make use of what they learned and to find out what they were not prepared for. Evaluation through discussion and on-going needs analysis can be used to adapt the syllabus.

Taining of ESP teachers

Most teacher training courses contain four basic elements:

1. Selection, initial and terminal, is necessary because not every human being would become an adequate language teacher. Each teacher has continuing responsibility throughout a career which can last for thirty years or longer. This responsibility makes it essential that potentially ineffective individuals should be discouraged from entering the profession by adequate pre-training or post-training selection procedures.

2. Continuing personal education. Teachers should be well-educated people. Minimum standards accepted for teachers vary from country to country. There are variations in how the trainee's personal education is improved – either simultaneously with his/her professional training; or consecutively where first two or three years of study with no elements of training as a teacher are followed by the fourth year containing methodology of foreign language teaching or one year post-graduate course of teacher training; or, as in many countries, by in-service courses. Either way, the assumption is that graduates' level of education is to be regarded as insufficient.

3. General professional training as an educator and teacher. This element involves what all teachers need to know regardless of which subject they teach – the components are as follows: a) educational psychology, the study of child development, social psychology, and the principles of educational thought – the component intended to lead the trainee to understanding of the nature of education; b) an outline of the organization of education in a particular country – the teacher should be aware of the different kinds of schools, of normal and unusual pathways through educational network, of responsibility, control and finance, of sources of reform and change, of the main features of history of education in the country where he will teach; c) an awareness of the moral and rhetorical function of the teacher: the building of standards, character, enthusiasm; d) knowledge of, and skill in, class management, discipline and handling of various groups of students; e) knowledge of, and skill in, basic instructional techniques, and understanding teacher-learner interaction; f) Acceptance of the fundamental need for the preparation of lessons; g) understanding the role of curriculum, syllabus and teaching materials; h) a teacher should be committed to keeping in touch with the teaching profession.

4. Special training as a teacher of a foreign or second language. The complexity of this training which constitutes the core of most teacher training courses can be made simpler if the distinction is to be made between three aspects of it. They are:

1) The skills component which includes three different skills required by the teacher: a) command of the language the teacher is teaching – this component must ensure that teacher's command of foreign language is at least adequate for class purposes; b) teaching techniques and classroom activities – the major part of teacher training is to assimilate a great body of effective techniques; c) the management of learning – it is a crucial part of teacher's classroom skills to learn how to assess from moment to moment the progress of each individual in the class and how to manage the classroom activities so that most able learners are not frustrated by being held back, while the slowest are not depressed by being left behind.

The skills component requires practical training in performing the skills themselves. There is a great range of activities which can be summarized as follows: a) the observation of specially-devised demonstrations of specific techniques and of complete lessons; b) the observation of actual class; c) practice in the preparation of lesson plans; d) micro-teaching –

the teaching (by the trainee) of several items or techniques with the possible use of camera recordings; e) peer group teaching (i.e. teaching fellow-trainees) as a form of exercise; f) being a teacher's assistant in real class; g) teaching real classes under supervision; h) discussion of the trainee's teaching; i) post-training, in-service courses of various kind (ESP courses for teaching EMP or EBP).

2) The information component – the needed body of information can be divided into three parts: a) information about education – about different approaches to the task of teaching language; b) information about the syllabus and materials he will be using – the syllabus, the prescribed textbooks, other teaching materials (readers, workbooks, etc.) and aids (flashcards, wall charts as well as tape recorders and language labs) make up the tools of the teacher's profession; c) information about language – when the teacher enters his course of training, his understanding of the nature of language is likely to be scanty; this information refers to knowledge of normal stages in the infant's acquisition of his mother tongue, the existence of common speech defects and whose job is to treat them, relation between speech and writing, literacy and education, notions of the 'correctness' and social judgments on language, language variety including dialects and accents, language in contact, artificial language, language and thought, and many more. The information content can be learned from reading or lectures.

3) The theory component – the language teaching profession makes connection with theoretical studies in several disciplines such as linguistics, psychology, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, social theory, education. The theoretical studies are likely to find a place when the trainee has attained a sufficient level of personal education and when he is preparing to teach high-level learners.

Alternatively, they can be included in postgraduate teacher training as the interdisciplinary approach of applied linguistics which integrates appropriate parts of the disciplines most relevant to language teaching. The theory component can be assimilated from discussion, practice in solving problems, tutorial explanations and time to absorb new ways of thinking.

Conclusion

Using skills as a framework of ESP, ESP teachers are provided with the necessary knowledge and tools to deal with their own students' specializations. It should be remembered - ESP teachers are not specialists in the field, but in teaching English, their subject is English for the profession but not the profession in English. They help students, who know their subject better than the teachers do, develop the essential skills in understanding, using, and/or presenting authentic information in their profession. A professional ESP teacher must be able to switch from one professional field to another without being obliged to spend months on getting started. He/she simply brings the necessary tools, frameworks, and principles of course design to apply them to new material. The material (the content) should be provided by the professors or experts in the subject. It should always be authentic (the main purpose of teaching skills is to enable students to deal with authentic information despite their level of English), up-to-date (the informational exchange is growing more intense), and relevant for the students' specializations (they ought to be given the information representative for their target language use situation).

Unfortunately, ESP teachers often feel isolated both from professionals in their students' specializations and their colleagues in other institutions. They also have difficulty in getting or exchanging information in the field. We can conclude, therefore, that the necessary ESP network should be provided.

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LEXICAL COMPOSITION OF FABLES

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Abstract

The article deals with the lexical structure of fables representing different epochs and cultures and discusses how these lexical devices help the authors to express their pragmatic intention. In spite of the fact that a fable is a very old genre, it also turns out to be significant in the twenty-first century. It is true that the main task of the fable research is the analysis of its diverse symbols and their didactic goals, however, different authors' choice of various lexical elements for the description of these symbols represents no less significant issue. It is important to focus on the author's narrative style and examine how it changes during centuries. While Aesop's fables always finish with a moral, which is usually similar to a preachment and a proverb, in a lot of modern fables we encounter no morals. The lexical choice is also significantly different, because modern fables often include some elements of everyday vocabulary and they sometimes even use slang.

Key words: vocabulary; lexical structure, fables

A fable as a small literary genre has passed a long and varied path of development. It takes its roots in the prehistoric period when a human realized the necessity of the knowledge transfer. A fable appeared in the period when there was no writing and a small size and didactic function of a fable provided its survival, and even in the age of developed technologies the genre of fable still continues its existence.

It is true that the main task of the fable research is the analysis of its diverse symbols, however, the different authors' choice of various lexical elements for the description of these symbols represents no less significant issue. It is important to focus on the author's narrative style and examine how it changes during the centuries.

Let us examine "The Wisdom of Lie" by Sulkhan-Saba Orbeliani (Amiranashvili, 2012). The speech system of his fables is laconic but deeply logical and accurate. The text structure can be subdivided into three main linguistic layers: literary, archaic and spoken. The literary language serves to strengthen the main storyline of the narration which is a neutral, intermediate link; it can sometimes be crossed by the other layers, but it does not lose its shape. As a rule, it is used at the beginning and in the end of a fable and is distinguished by emphatically calm tone.

The author frequently uses superlative forms of adjectives what enhances the effect and helps a reader to understand the author's intention better:

"Mas dgesa nadimi gardaikhada, aputsa vazirta mista, tumtsa romelta asmodes, anu itsodes misi msgavsi mdidari da uukhvesi mepe" ("Mepe Khorasanisa') – (He gathered together his nobles andarranged a feast to show what a great and rich king he was (The King of Khorasani).

Sakhan-Saba often refers to the means of expression by different connotative meanings of words. For instance, in “The Preacher Fox” the first phrase is a kind of an effective signal:

“Erti meli datsantsarebda’’ – (The Fox rambled back and forth).

On the one hand, it covveys the dynamism of narration and, on the other hand, fixes the author’s tone which contains a restrained irony.„Datsantsarebda’’(rambled back and forth) is a connotative word. It does not only points to a manner of walking but it denotes the information about the subject who “rambles” and discloses a frivolous and unscrupulous personality. So, the irony helps to reveal and motivate this fact.

Sulkhan-Saba also uses a lot of words and phrases that are characteristic to Georgian culture. These words can be divided in the following categories: 1.Words connected to Drinking: ‘’Satsde’’-(A thing used for drinking wine);” Mtsde’’-(A person pouring some wine for people”) 2. Words connected to domestic thematics: “Tabla’’-(kind of a low table) “Talari”-(Kind of a summer house”) ;“Sagebeli”-(a bed); “Akvani’’-(Kind of a baby’s bed; a cradle); “Tskhrili”-(A sieve); ” Kera’’-(A place on the floor where they light fire). Words connected to clothes and appearance: “Sumbuli’’-(Beard; (only for Sulkhan-Saba)); “Lechaki’’-(Something form women’s head to cover hair) 3. Words connected to professions: “Khuro”-(A carpenter); “Dalaqi”-(A hairdresser), etc.

The fables by Dodsley are distinguished by the artistic language which is full of various stylistic devices and phraseologisms. For example, a fable “Echo and the Owl’’ begins with an epithet ‘’A solemn owl’’ which causes a kind of irony and even in the first sentence shows the author’s attitude toward the character; it also points to the further development of a plot. Another interesting fact is the author’s attempt to express his intention on the lexical level:

“A solemn Owl, puffed up with vanity, sat repeating her screams at midnight from the hollow of a blasted oak.’’

“Puffed up with vanity’’ is a phraseologism, which is used in order to ironically ridicule a person with such features. The phraseologisms can be found in Dodsley’s other works.

In Russia the fable genre has reached its peak in I.Krylov’s creative work. The reality of everyday life and the truth are described with various devices. First of all, Krylov reaches the effect by the expressiveness and naturalness of spoken intonation that defines the whole structure of a fable. Krylov’s distinctive style, which is characterized by proverbs, figurative expressions, folk spoken vocabulary and phraseology, make his works absolutely unique (Anenkova, 2001). Krylov’s fables are characterized by use of folk spoken expressions which have an expressive coloring. They give a peculiar unique feeling of “the folk soul”. The fables are also distinguished by the use of some expressive words of “the low level”: For instance: “Kak my makhniom (oboz)” – we can go/do (The Wagon Train).

In the language of Kryov’s fables there can be found some words which have gone out of use or are preserved in dialects. For example: “Kupchina vystroil ambary’’ – The Merchant built a barn (“The Master and The Mice”); „,Kakoy-de otkupschik a samyy torovatyy ne davyval sekretaryam” (who was the tax-payer most generous who has not bribed the secretaries) (“Tit”).

Among the means of cultural information expressions in Krylov’s fables there are: 1. Non-equivalent vocabulary of different thematic groups (standard forms of reference: ”evo svetlost’’ – His Serene (reference toward the members of royal family) („The Wolf And The Lamb'');2. The names of constructions: „ovin" - a barn; („The Eagle And The Hens''); klet' - a cage ("The Farmer In Trouble"); 3. The names of household items:‚golik''– a broom („The Golic''); „teneta'' - toils („The Lion And The Mouse''); 4. The names of food and drinks: „kvas''- a kvass; „pivo''- a beer („The Barrel''); 5. The names of clothes, hats, shoes:„tulup''- a sheepskin coat("The Elephant in the Province"); „shuba''-a furcoat; „treukh''- a hat ("The Lady And Two Maids"); „lapti''- bast shoes („The Damask''); 6. Indications of Russian traditions and customs: 7. "bazarnyy den'» - the Market Day („The Geese''); „sgovorit'''- to persuade („The Picky Bride'').

Krylov frequently uses Russian proverbs and folk sayings. He is the author of many sayings himself. His sayings filled the Russian Paremiological Fund. The proverbs and folk sayings in Krylov's fables are tightly connected with the traditions of Russian people (Anenkova, 2001).

‚Khleb-sol' moya vam nadoyela''- bread – salt, mine fed you up (a custom to meet a guest with bread and salt) („The Peasant And The Snake'');

People's observations („iz izby ne vyneseno sory''- the litter hasn't been taken out of the house) («The Hermit And The Bear»);

The Internet also gives examples of Aesopian fables' transformation made by John Peck. They are called „Aesop's Lesser Fables''. Peck's transformations do not surely belong to the Internet folklore (they have an author) but they have undergone important changes. The fable of ""A Hare and a Tortoise''. In the anonymous version the hare and the tortoise change professions and there we meet words from the most recent vocabulary: a fan; to wager; single-record contract; paparazzi; a multi-record deal etc. But in Peck's transformation the title is also changed and it's called "The Tortoise, the Hare, and the Ninth-Grade Goth Chick".As we see, a new character who represents the extraordinary girl comes into the fables. But the vocabulary she uses is very uncharacteristic for a fable and her actions are also very degrading for the genre ("She lit a cigarette'').

The use of lexical devices in fables is individual and depends on the author's intention. Aesop expresses his thoughts without any additional connotations and tries to focus a reader's attention on a moral. Sulkhan-Saba uses various lexical means in different fables. Therefore, his spoken language is distinguished by three linguistic styles: literary, archaic and spoken. The fables of comparatively modern writers are characterized by a great number of phraseologisms and idioms which serve an ironical or satirical purpose.

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INTERTEXTUALITY IN ALDOUS HUXLEY'S "Brave New World"

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Abstract

The presented paper is an attempt to analyze Aldous Huxley's novel Brave New World in relation to William Shakespeare's plays based on the theory of intertextuality. The topic is sufficiently broad as Huxley refers to Shakespeare's many works in the novel - "The Tempest", "The two Gentlemen of Verona", "Macbeth", "Hamlet", "Troilus and Cressida", "Romeo and Juliet", "Antony and Cleopatra", "A Midsummer Night's Dream", "Othello", "King Lear", "Twelfth Night", "Julius Caesar", "As You Like It", and "King John". Allusion to only the three plays - "The Tempest", "Romeo and Juliet", and "Hamlet" - will be discussed in this paper. Aldous Huxley is one of the rarest writers who applies almost all types of intertextuality in his novel Brave New World. Selecting Miranda's (main character in Shakespeare's play "The Tempest") words as the title of his novel is an illustration of paratextuality. Hypertextuality is mastered by Huxley as Brave New World is a sequel and ironic repetition of Shakespeare's play "The Tempest": Huxley widely reconstructs Shakespearean characters; also, the themes of the novel and the plays are analoguous. While criticizing the modern technocratic society based on Shakespeare's plays, Huxley employs metatextuality. As a source of intertextuality Huxley singled out Shakespeare because the contrast between Shakespeare's epoch and modern society show the degradation of the latter. Referring to Shakespeare's plays, Huxley advises us to remember the past, the people of Shakespeare's epoch who created a great culture and to be aware of the negative influence of science which may make our lives much easier, but which is also capable of transforming us into soulless creatures.

Key words: intertextuality, paratextuality, hypertextuality, metatextuality

A relationship among texts has been a topical issue for several years. Many literary critics have been discussing a peculiarity of interaction linking narratives. One of the noted models of realations making written works connected belongs to Gerard Genette, an outstanding literary theorist. Founded on Mikhail Bakhtin's and Julia Kristeva's concept of intertextuality, Genette coins a term "transtextuality" which organizes the manner of referencing uniting texts effectively. The theorist proposes five types of transtextuality: 1. Intertextuality - Genette reduces the original idea of intertextuality to a relation among two or more texts in the form of quotation, plagiarism and allusion. 2. Paratextuality implies materials, messages or commentaries such as titles and subtitles, pseudonyms, forewords, dedications, epigraphs, prefaces, intertitles, notes, epilogues and afterwords surrounding the text. Genette differentiates two subcategories: on the one hand, autographic paratexts intended by the author (title, epigraph, preface, note); on the other hand, allographic paratexts created by publishers or editors (book cover, typography, review). 3. While using hypertextuality the previous text - hypertext is a basis of another text - hypotext. The writer modifies or extends a hypotext according to a hypertext. For example, writing a sequel or a parody of a previous text. 4. Metatextuality refers to an explicit or implicit critical commentary made on another text. Practising metatextuality writers explain, deny or approve a previous literary work. 5. Architextuality deals with a relationship among texts of the same genre, or as Genette puts it - interconnection between a text and the genre it belongs to.

At a first glance Genette's system seems perfect. However, one can find some flaws. Namely, the five types of transtextuality cannot be absolutely separated from each other – it is hard to draw a line between intertextuality, metatextuality and hypertextuality. In this paper I will use intertextuality as a broad term implying relationships among texts, while paratextuality, metatextuality, hypertextuality and architextuality will be its subcategories.

The presented work is an attempt to analyze Aldous Huxley's novel Brave New World in relation to William Shakespeare's plays based on the theory of intertextuality. The topic is sufficiently broad as Huxley refers to Shakespeare's many works in the novel - "The Tempest", "The two Gentlemen of Verona", "Macbeth", "Hamlet", "Troilus and Cressida", "Romeo and Juliet", "Antony and Cleopatra", "A Midsummer Night's Dream", "Othello", "King Lear", "Twelfth Night", "Julius Caesar", "As You Like It", and "King John". Only the three plays - "The Tempest", "Romeo and Juliet", and "Hamlet" - will be discussed in this paper.

It is not a secret that Huxley's novel Brave New World (1932) stems from Shakespeare's "The Tempest" (1610-1611). However, only a few know that the structure of Huxley's novel Time Must Stop (1945) comes from Shakespeare's play Henry IV (1596-1597). The name of Huxley's ninth novel Ape and Essence (1948) is taken from Isabelle's, a character from Shakespeare's play Measure for Measure (1603-1604), words. Moreover, Huxley's essay collection "Tomorrow and Tomorrow and Tomorrow" (1956) is connected with Shakespeare's Macbeth (1599-1606).

Aldous Huxley's novel Brave New World is related to Shakespeare's "The Tempest" in many respects. Huxley employs paratextuality when he borrows the title of his novel from Miranda's words. Miranda, who has hardly encountered any human beings during her existence, utters the following words when she notices other mortals:

> "O, wonder!
> How many goodly creatures are there here!
> How beauteous mankind is! O brave new world,
> That has such people in't!" (Grushow 1962, 42)

It may seem unclear why Huxley determined to take Miranda's words, as "brave" in modern English means fearless, courageous, daring. According to Oxford Dictionary of English, "brave" during the Renaissance meant not only courageous, but also astonishing and the word held a positive connotation. Using the word Huxley indicates astonishing development of technology with a negative association though. In Shakespeare's "The Tempest" Miranda's words are ironic. Miranda cannot see that the people she addresses to are not as superior as she vizualises.

Many critics argue that Huxley's novel starts exactly from the page where Shakespeare's "The Tempest" closes. Assuming Brave New World to be a sequel of "The Tempest" and Huxley to have modified and extended his book in accordance with Shakespeare's play, then we are presented with hypertextuality. While creating the heroes of his novel, Huxley alludes to the characters from Shakespeare's play "The Tempest". There is a vivid analogy between Bernard Marx and Caliban. Both of them are physically ugly. Prospero describes Caliban with the following words: "a devil, a born devil, on whose nature nurture can never stick, on whom my pains, humanely taken, are all lost, quite lost" (Grushow 1962, 43). The two are angry and discontented because of failure to achieve their dreams. Also, they are under influence of their masters. In Caliban's case, Prospero tries to control him with magic books while in Marx's case, hypnopedia is highly used by the officials to manipulate not only his but everyone's thoughts in the brave new world. Caliban reminds us not only of Bernard Marx, but also of all the citizens of the brave new world. Although he isn't as civilized as the Alfas and the Betas, there is still a connection between them. For example, punitive measures such as a behavioral method used to teach children to hate books is similar to Prospero's punishing of Caliban for disobedience. Moreover, Both Marx and Caliban rebel against their masters. Like Caliban, Marx tries to build his high reputation by confronting the director of the factory. He engages himself in an intrigue against the director who is about to dismiss him from his job. However, terrified to be exiled, Marx is ready to tolerate the society who is against his principles. Like Bernard, Caliban asks Prospero for forgiveness when his conspiracy is revealed.

Caliban, on the other hand, reminds us of Savage John when John makes a comment on modern civilization. Caliban complains that Prospero taught him his language: „You taught me language, and my profit on't is, I know how to curse, the red plague rid you, for learning me your language!" (Grushow 1962, 43). With these words Caliban refers to civilization forcefully imposed on him. Shakespeare shows that civilization is supposed to educate savages, in fact it enslaves people. John's positive expectation about civilization ends with his disappointment. Civilization is so disgusting that John feels sick: "Did you eat something that didn't agree with you?" asked Bernard. The savage nodded. "I ate civilization… it poisoned me; I was defiled" (Huxley 2013, 198).

It is hard to find Savage John's exact prototype. Savage John's function in the novel is similar to Miranda's in the play. The savage is a naïve and innocent creature who accidentally turns out in a sinful world. Savage Jon repeats Miranda's words about the brave new world when he sees attractive Lenina. Later, John says the same words when he learns that Bernard Marx is going to take him to civilized world: "O brave new world," he repeated. "O brave new world that has such people in it" (Huxley 2013, 93). John's knowledge about the new world is as little as Miranda's when they first see the people from the outside. Huxley shows that John and Miranda's reactions are related as he wants to emphasize the plot similarity between the works. At the same time, maintaining a platonic relationship with Lenina, Savage John resembles Ferdinand, Miranda's fiancé. In a similar way to Ferdinand, Savage John's sadness caused by death of a parent is overcome by love. Both Savage John and Ferdinand believe that they have to conquer many obstacles to win their sweethearts' hearts. It appears that, on one hand, Savage John is in the role of Ferdinand, but on the other hand, he embodies Miranda. Huxley changes the character's prototypes from "The Tempest" in order to emphasize a close relationship linking the two works.

It is possible to find Prospero's prototype as well. Both Prospero and Mustafa Mond are fathers. As we know, Lenina does not have a father, as she was born in a tube like most citizens of the brave new world. Mustafa Mond plays a role of Lenina's surrogate father as he is a leader of all the people living in the brave new world - programming and development of Alfas, Betas, Gammas, Deltas and Epsilons in the tube go according to Mustafa Mond's plan. Like Prospero, Mustafa Mond always decides the fate of his "subjects". Furthermore, everyone is afraid of Mustafa Mond and Prospero's fury. As Caliban trembles with fear in front of Prospero, Berdinand Marx does the same facing the controller. Also, Prospero with spells and Mustafa Mond with soma control people. Unlike Mustafa Mond, who prefers staying with the society to living alone, Prospero would rather live far from the society which according to him, is the only choice for people thinking differently.

Some themes of Shakespeare's "The Tempest" are repeated in Huxley's Brave New World. A theme of perfect kingdom is leading in the play. Gonzalo, one of Antonio's subjects, describes what he would do if the island was in his possession:

> Gonzalo: I' the commonwealth I would by contraries execute all things; for no kind of traffic Would I admit; no name of magistrate; Letters should not be known; riches, poverty, And use of service, none; contract, succession, bourn, bound of land, tilth, vineyard, none; No use of metal, corn, or wine, or oil; no occupation; all men idle, all; and women too, But innocent and pure; no sovereignty,
>
> Sebastian: Yet he would be king on't
>
> Antonio: The latter end of his commonwealth forgets the beginning.
>
> Gonzalo: All things in common nature should produce without sweat or endeavour: treason, Felony, Sword, pike, knife, gun, or need of any engine, would I not have; but nature should bring forth, of its own kind, all foison, all abundance, to feed my innocent people.
>
> Sebastian: No marrying 'mong his subjects"
>
> Antonio: None, man; all idle; whores and knaves (Grushow 1962, 44).

The regime described in Brave New World has many aspects in common with the one in "The Tempest". The features of a perfect state humorously listed by Gonzalo manifest themselves in the world of future. The freedom of a state from economic restrictions is especially noteworthy. In Gonzalo's perfect world work is not necessary. Although the people still work in a brave new world, due to developed technology the government has made hard work easier. As Mustafa Mond points out, the time for work can be reduced, but daily work, even with little duration, is necessary for the existence of people. In opposition to Gonzalo's dream, the world of future has a ruler. However, as people are pre-programmed there is no need to use power and physical abuse against them. If free sexual life is impossible in Shakespeare's time, Gonzalo's dream comes true in a new world.

A plot against a ruler is found in both "The Tempest" and Brave New World. In "The Tempest" the wine from the ship gives courage to Caliban, Stephano and Trinculo to rebel against Prospero. In Brave New World soma gives courage to Bernard, Helmholz and Savage John to criticize Mustafa Mond.

The love described in the novel – Savage John's attitude to Lenina – reminds us of pure love between Romeo and Juliet: "On the white wonder of dear Juliet's hand, may seize / And steal immortal blessing from her lips, / Who, even in pure and vestal modesty, / Still blush, as thinking their own kisses sin" (Shakespeare 2012, 230). The quote shows how romantic Romeo and Juliet's relationship is in opposition to Huxley's world where lust is widely supported by the government.

> "Did he dare? Dare to profane with his unworthiest hand that... No, he didn't" (Shakespeare 2012, 170).
> Romeo can't decide whether to kiss Juliet's hands or not. The same question arises in John's mind when he sees sleeping Lenina:
>
> "On the white wonder of dear Juliet's hand, may seize
>
> And steal immortal blessing from her lips,

Who, even in pure and vestal modesty,

Still blush, as thinking their own kisses sin" (Huxley 2013, 97-98).

John's reverence towards Lenina is ironic as Lenina has a free lifestyle. In a similar way to Romeo who does not know who Juliet is and how dangerous his relationship with her is, John cannot perceive that on grounds of Lenina's way of life, they will never be together.

Savage John belongs to the world of Shakespeare. He feels out of place in a brave new world. Instead of having fun with the guests at Bernard's party, John prefers to stay in his room and read "Romeo and Juliet".

In the manner of Hamlet the theme of revenge is mentioned in the novel. Huxley uses Hamlet to draw a parallel with Linda and Pope's affair. Hamlet plans to kill his uncle as he cannot stand his relationship with his mother. Like Hamlet John is ready to murder Pope because of having an intercourse with Linda. When John sees Linda and Pope together, he remembers Hamlet. Besides the relationship towards their mothers, Hamlet and John are similar in their loneliness. They try to find their place in the society, without any success, however.

Depening on Shakespeare's works Huxley condemns modern society. Assuming Shakespeare's plays to be a source of criticism to Huxley, I can say that in this case Huxley uses metatextuality. By comparing Shakespeare's epoch to modern society Huxley asks the following question: Does our civilization support poetry, literature, art, human relationships, or with the development of science are we becoming more like "civilized" creatures of brave new world? Huxley shows that modern society is stuck between Shakespeare's epoch and a brave new world. Huxley describes what a disgusting creature an almighty human being has become. He/she is an indifferent robot without any feelings. In the novel Huxley evokes a feeling of abhorrence towards the future society by indicating the exact similarity between modern and subsequent ones.

Thus, Aldous Huxley is one of the rarest writers who masters almost all types of intertextuality in his novel Brave New World. Selecting Miranda's words as a title of his novel is an example of paratextuality. Hypertextuality is employed by Huxley as Brave New World is a sequel and ironic repetition of Shakespeare's play "The Tempest" - Huxley widely reconstructs Shakespearean characters: Caliban's characteristics and life experience correspond to Bernard Marx and Savage John's; Savage John reflects Miranda, Ferdinand, Romeo and Hamlet's qualities; Prospero is Mustafa Mond's prototype; the themes of the novel and the plays are similar: the theme of ideal government, coup, revenge and love are found in all of them. Criticizing modern technocratic society based on Shakespeare's plays, Huxley uses metatextuality.

As a source of intertextuality Huxley singled out Shakespeare because the contrast between Shakespeare's epoch and modern civilization show the degradation of the latter. Referring to Shakespeare's plays Huxley advises us to remember the past, the people of Shakespeare's epoch who created great culture and be aware of a negative influence of science which may make our lives easier, but which is also capable of transforming us into soulless creatures.

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THE USE OF OXYMORONS IN MOVIE TITLES

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Abstract

The article deals with the role of oxymoron in movie titles. Movies perform an indespansable part in our lives, they have a profound impact on society and appear ubiquitous within cultures. The paper attempts to reveal the examples of linguistic oxymorons in movie titles. Films, advertisments and other commercial industries actively employ various linguistic devices to appeal to the segment of customers. Movie titles often contain tricky features to acquire an eye-catching effect. The article particularly makes an emphasis on oxymorons and their frequent usage in various movie titles.

Key words: movie titles, oxymorons, linguistic devices

Introduction

Nowadays movies are becoming increasingly popular and their role or importance is extremely obvious in the modern society. Filmmakers are highly involved in this competitive field and by means of different techniques they attempt to find their feet in the film industry.

S.C. Noah Uhrig (UK, 2005) in "Cinema is Good for You" describes how the narrative and representational aspects of film make it a wholly unique form of art. Moreover, the collective experience of film as art renders it a wholly distinct leisure activity. The unique properties of attending the cinema can have decisively positive effects on mental health. Cinema attendance can have independent and robust effects on mental well-being because visual stimulation can queue a range of emotions and the collective experience of these emotions through the cinema provides a safe environment in which to experience roles and emotions we might not otherwise be free to experience. Noah supports that cinema is a unique leisure activity with beneficial properties for well-being.

Filmmakers apply various tools and one of them is the usage of linguistic devices including oxymorons in which two opposite ideas are joined to create an effect, they occur when two contradictory words are together in one phrase. In fact, oxymoron originates from the Greek words oxy meaning sharp, and moron, which means dull. Thus, the word itself is two contradictory words pushed together. The most common examples of oxymoron are: "living death", "cruel sadness", " seriously funny", "alone together", "deafening silence" and etc.

Oxymorons in movie titles

As the research has shown movie titles are striving for creating something new and surprising in order to draw customers' attention. Thus, the role of oxymoron is actively highlighted. There are various movie titles where the examples of oxymoron prevail.

Stanley Kubrik one of the greatest American film director and screenwriter in his masterpiece "Eyes wide shut" employs oxymoron. What does the phrase "eyes wide shut" refer to? It sounds a bit strange because technically it is impossible for the eyes to be wide shut. The expression can be interpreted in various ways. When dreaming our eyes are shut, yet being aware of what is going on. The state when the line between conscious and unconscious is completely erased within the dreams. "Eyes wide shut" can also symbolize the person who is aware of perils and dubious results lying in front of him but still neglects inner signals without listening to intuition. The film is a combination of all of them.

The comedy film Mr. Mom stars Michael Keaton who plays Jack Butler, a recently laid-off Dad who must stay at home with his kids while his wife begins a new job. Jack must accept his wife's new role as the "breadwinner", and balance the identity transformations that come along with a life change. And while Caroline wrangles with charts, graphs, and an all-to-eager-to-be wrangled boss, he has to contend with their hyper kids, a ravenous vacuum cleaner, an angry washing machine, and an oversexed neighbor! From late nights in the boardroom to lonely nights in the bedroom, the biggest challenge for both Jack and Caroline is learning to trust one another with their reversed roles... With the help of the title the director describes the role switching in the family and tells the whole story with these two catchy words.

The appealing and uforgettable title "Slumdog Millioanaire" appears in 2008 and wins 8 Oscars. The title raised controversy and became a burning issue due to the diminishing form of slum residents. The director was accused of exploiting slum residents for the sake of gaining profit. Director Danny Boyle responded to criticism, defining that the purpose of the title was not to demean or mortify slum residents, but rather to underline the "underdog" aspect of the story. The title completely emphasizes the rags-to-riches aspect of the movie.

Another famous example of oxymoron in movie title is the most popular and well-known 2017 TV-series -"Big Little Lies." It was adapted by David E. Kelley from a Liane Moriarty novel of the same name. The TV series portray viciousness of lies, perseverance of friendships, frailty of marriages and golden rings of parenting.

Part of what has made "Big Little Lies" stand out amid the ever-growing crowd of interesting TV shows is its utterly natural rendering of violence as an ordinary part of women's lives. (Newyorker, April, 2017).

Different figures of speech turn language into more vivid and powerful mechanism. However, oxymoron has particularly great power due to presence of impossibility, placing completely opposite things together in order to create especially striking effect.

Other examples of oxymoron in movie titles are as follows:

"True lies"

" Dead man walking"

"Urban Cowboy",

" Little big man"

"Intimate stranger"

"Back to the future"

“Best worst movie”

“Frozen fever”

“Little Big Leauge”

She’s the man”

“The vicious kind”

On the basis of these movie titles one can infer the purpose of employing oxymorons, the titles present an object that can have two different qualities at once. This literary device challenges us to think a bit deeper.

Conclusion

We all need to get rid of life's calamities and tribulations. Movies suggest travelling into another world. Due to the enormous impact on society filmmakers attempt to pave their ways by utilizing all possible tools while creating new products. Figurative language such as hyperbole, idioms, irony, oxymoron, metaphor and other forms is increasingly significant in the movie making process. They profoundly intensify the main messages and draw our attention immediately. The article has proved the inevitable role and successful usage of one of these tools in movies. Oxymorons tend to be decipher the contradictory nature of words that appear to be tightly related at the same time. Mainly, they are used to create dramatic effect, to add vivid and colorful effect or just for entertainment.

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LESSONS FROM A KINDERGARTEN TEACHER TRAINING COURSE: AN INTEGRATED APPROACH TO NURSERY RHYMES IN EARLY CHILDHOOD LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

As part of the English-Hungarian bilingual kindergarten module, kindergarten teacher trainees at the Faculty of Primary and Pre-school Education, Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest are required to attend English children's literature courses. The aim of the first literature course is twofold: students gain some literary information about the short genres of children's literature, such as traditional chants, rhymes, playground games, counting-out rhymes, tongue twisters and contemporary poems. It is also explored how these rhymes can be integrated into the theme- and play-based curriculum of a kindergarten in a way that they promote children's language acquisition process in their cognitive, social, emotional and physical development in a holistic way. It will be presented that second language acquisition processes at kindergarten age (3-6) show similarities with first language acquisition and thus, structured activities for second language development need to take this into consideration. In my workshop I am going to present some student-generated, play-based activities to integrate nursery rhymes into the kindergarten curriculum and participants will have a chance to experiment with designing activities of their own.

Key words: bilingual, kindergarten teacher, nursery rhymes, toys, games, children's literature

Introduction

In this paper I intend to give account of an experimental project implemented in my English Children's Literature 1 course at the Faculty of Primary and Pre-school Education of Eötvös Loránd University (ELTE), Budapest, Hungary. The course is part of the training programme for the English-Hungarian Bilingual Kindergarten Teacher Module. For reasons of clarification, I would like to state that by kindergarten teacher a teacher working with children aged 3-6 is meant.

The aim of the project was to implement an assignment that is able to synthesize the course material of the children's literature course in a creative way. The task proved to be so successful that it was followed up by a joint presentation of the teacher and four students at the annual conference of IATEFL-Hungary in 2017, which was subsequently invited to the English department of another university.

Early childhood second language development

Early childhood foreign language development is becoming one of the hot topics in the field of English language teaching (ELT). The tendency for starting foreign language learning in early childhood was predicted in the near past, for example, by Grosjean (2008), who claimed that most children will learn a foreign language in early childhood or the Eurodyce report (2015), which claimed that the European Union will officially implement the teaching of a foreign language to children aged 6 and under. Graddol (2006) foresaw an intention of creating a bilingual population (p.88). Unfortunately, in spite of wide-scale research evidence proving the beneficial effects of an early start, the implementation of early childhood foreign language development in the general system of education has yet to come.

However, the starting age for language teaching is rapidly lowering in Hungary, reflecting international trends. Although foreign language education officially starts in grade four at primary school, as regulated by the National Core Curriculum, at most of the schools, it is frequently introduced in one of the earlier years, usually in response to parent demand, but depending on the availability of a teacher qualified to teach young leaners. At the same time, there is also a growing number of kindergartens that offer some form of foreign language education to very young learners aged 3-6. These programmes may be of several different types, ranging from one or two weekly sessions to full bilingual programmes. What is common between them, however, is that they all take the form of a fee-paying service (Kovács, 2009). Since there is very little data about them, a study to explore the types of early childhood language development programmes at kindergartens has been initiated by the Department of Foreign Languages and Literature of the Faculty of Primary and Pre-school Teacher Training, ELTE, Budapest. The study is going to include all of the kindergartens in the capital city.

The case of initiating early childhood language development programmes in kindergarten is an example for how parents are able to wield influence on the management of pre-school institutions, which coincides with international trends, such as those cases reported by Mourão (2016), Černa (2015) and Portikova (2015). Early childhood language programmes in Hungary have almost exclusively been initiated by affluent and well-educated parents who can usually speak languages themselves and are eager to ensure an early beginning in language learning for their children. However, it is not only the language knowledge or a near-native pronunciation they want for their children, but also the added value an early exposure to a second language means: language related cognitive benefits, such as a more open minded attitude to life (Árva, 2017) and other cultures. It is mostly privately owned kindergartens that were able to react to this demand.

A popular and successful form of early childhood second language development is bilingual kindergarten education. Children are able to start acquiring a new language while they are still in the process of learning their mother tongue (L1). The components of the foreign language development programme can be similar to activities for L1 development, which feel natural to children. Childcare activities can also be effectively exploited for language development. Having an English-speaking teacher who builds on these opportunities creates an environment for children, which resembles the atmosphere of bilingual families (Árva, 2017). Recent research has provided evidence about the beneficial effects of bilingualism. Cummins (2000), Swain (2000), Pinter (2006); Haznedar (2016) all reported about the cognitive advantages of early bilingualism and its positive effects on children's general development. While children starting learning languages at a later age might catch up with their early beginner peers, these advantages will remain with the ones who started at a younger age.

Training programme for English-Hungarian bilingual kindergarten teachers

In response to the growing demand for qualified early childhood language teaching specialists, in 2006 the Department of Foreign Languages and Literature of the Faculty of Primary and Pre-school Education at ELTE, Budapest, launched a training module for kindergarten teacher trainees in the field of English-Hungarian bilingual kindergarten education (Trentinné Benkő, 2015). This specialization is a training course to qualify students to carry out early childhood foreign language development in kindergartens that run a bilingual programme.

The training is popular with the students at the faculty and they need to pass a language aptitude test in order to become admitted. Only students with a B2 (CEFR) level of English are admitted. The three-year course comprises two semesters of a language preparatory course, a pronunciation development course, four methodology courses for conducting bilingual sessions in four different subject areas, such as Music, Physical Education, Visual Arts and Science, observations and practice at bilingual kindergartens and two English language children's literature courses, covering short genres and stories (Bérešová, 2017).

The students completing this course become young learner ELT specialists, who not only have an understanding of age-specific foreign language development, but are also qualified kindergarten teachers who are aware of the general developmental features of young children. As kindergarten teachers they work with the children all day and have several informal opportunities for language development. Based on informal feedback from the graduates, they can easily find employment where they can use their qualification.

Children's literature course

One of the courses in the English-Hungarian Bilingual Kindergarten Education Module is a children's literature course (English Children's Literature 1) that focuses on short genres, such as nursery rhymes, chants, riddles and first children's poems. The aim of this course is to help students understand the rationale for the use of rhymes in early childhood language acquisition, experiment with techniques when using nursery rhymes and to familiarize them with as many rhymes and poems as possible.

The topics of the course include the following:

Old, traditional nursery rhymes

Finger rhymes

Hand rhymes

Action rhymes

Counting out rhymes

Food-themed rhymes

Teaching rhymes

Lullabies

Number rhymes

Non-sense rhymes

Jazz chants

Contemporary children's poetry

Playing with rhymes, sound awareness

Pronunciation activities in kindergarten

Toys, playground games

Techniques to support learning nursery rhymes

Nursery rhymes and songs are one of the basic building blocks of early childhood language development. According to Linse (2006) even musically not inclined parents and teachers use them. The rhymes have a rich language that helps children to extend their vocabulary beyond their everyday surrounding in a natural and playful way (Reilly & Ward, 2008, p.18). Being frequently repetitive, they provide ample opportunities for 'drilling' (Crystal, 2001) and children do take pleasure in repeating familiar songs and rhymes.

Nursery rhymes can be sung, be accompanied with music and they have rhythm, as well. The human brain remembers words more efficiently when they are accompanied with music and have a melody, and the music also helps to reinforce vocabulary and improve pronunciation and intonation patterns (Fleta, 2015). The development of children's gross motor skills and coordination is also enhanced by moving to music (Fleta, 2015). Pinter (2006) explains that rhymes help children to experience language in a holistic way: they can easily acquire grammar and functional chunks of language. Rhymes also help children develop their phonological and phonemic awareness, pronunciation, intonation and stress patterns (Prosic-Santovac, 2015).

Dunn (2008) highlights the playfulness of nursery rhymes and the fact that their length corresponds with the length of children's limited attention span. The rhymes also manage to provide an instant sense of success, i.e. children can feel that they are actually communicating in the foreign language.

The advantages of nursery rhymes, such as their repetitive nature, attractive melody and rhythm can be further taken advantage of if they are exploited through extended activities, or even act as springboards for structured activities in subject areas, such as Math or Science (Kalyani, 2012).

Another possibility is to use them with children's games that are based on the familiar rhymes. A great proportion of time in Hungarian kindergartens is spent by children with free, child-initiated play. By offering nursery rhyme-related toys and games to the children, the teacher can remind them of the rhymes with the help of the characters and plots, which are made visible in these games. These toys, which may be cards, puppets, table-top games, etc. may serve as stimuli for recalling the chants during free play time.

COURSE PROJECT

The main assignment the students need to submit is a project work that explores one rhyme and its application in a bilingual kindergarten English programme. The students need to decide on a rhyme which they need to present, illustrate, research about its origin, develop an activity they can use as a structured visual art activity and plan a game or toy that is based on the theme of the rhyme and children can play with. The poster is presented orally to the rest of the group at the end of the term.

The rationale for the assignment is to synthesize the course material into a single, yet complex task. The assignment also provides some space for integration between courses, i.e. 'Children's Literature 1' and the 'Methodology for Bilingual Kindergarten Sessions: Visual Arts'. The literature project gives an opportunity for the students to apply their newly acquired skills in Visual Arts with a nursery rhyme.

The first step is to present the rhyme on the poster in three ways: first, students need to write the rhyme in hand or print it. Next, they need to produce an illustration to represent the topic or the plot of the rhyme: later this can be used in the kindergarten classroom instead of a commercially produced poster about the rhyme. Finally, students need to find some cultural information about the history of the rhyme.

The next stage is planning an activity for a visual art session. In a Hungarian kindergarten children usually have one structured activity a day, each day in a different subject area: visual arts, science, physical education or music and singing. The kindergarten curriculum is usually topic based, therefore songs and rhymes are frequently chosen based on their topic. Thus, using a rhyme as the starting point for the activity, the visual art session can smoothly be integrated with both the topics and learning the rhymes.

As a way of integration between the courses, the students have the opportunity to test their art activity in the parallel 'Methodology for Bilingual Kindergarten Sessions: Visual Arts' course as their micro teaching project. By the time their Literature poster assignment is due, they have piloted their activity with their fellow students in their micro teaching session.

The final task is to design a toy for kindergarteners that builds on the characters or the plot of the nursery rhyme. By creating such a toy they are able to support the learning of the rhyme or introduce the rhyme into the life of the kindergarten group beyond the time spent learning, practicing, revising or simply chanting the rhyme: the rhyme can become part of children's free play time, thus reinforces their learning, helps to consolidate the vocabulary. Children can engage in games where they are able to engage in manipulative, dramatic etc. activities. The images used for the playful activities remind them of the rhymes, characters and the plot of the nursery rhymes. It is important to note that these toys can be used independently of the rhymes, as well.

Thus, students are encouraged to look at the adaptation of nursery rhymes in a complex, integrative way, taking into consideration kindergarten age children's characteristics and imaginative ways of presenting and integrating nursery rhymes into their language development programme.

Outcomes, conclusion, and reflection

This task was first implemented in two groups in the academic year 2016/17. The posters were brought in for the last lesson and there was both a class exhibition and a series of student presentations. As a way to follow up, the posters were exhibited and presented jointly by the tutor and four of the students at the 26th Annual IATEFL-Hungary conference in Budapest. This gave an opportunity for the students to give account of their work and knowledge to an expert audience of English teachers, some of them young learner specialists themselves.

The nursery rhymes chosen by the students were mostly well known and popular, and included various types, such as finger rhymes, hand rhymes, action rhymes, rhymes that accompany games, rhymes about animals and food, lullabies, non-sense rhymes and rhymes for festivals, such as Halloween.

The art activities were age appropriate, matching the senso-motoric developmental stages of the age group of children they planned them for. The art activities included finger painting, hand printing, colouring, cutting and glueing, the use of various art materials and techniques, which are commonly used in kindergarten.

The games designed to supplement the rhymes also covered a fairly wide range: from simple picture puzzles to memory games, finger puppets, search games and spider races with drinking straws. The games can serve as support materials for teaching the rhymes, free time activites or games and can help the children remember the rhymes. At the same time they can also support the development of cognitive or fine motor skills. The target age of children within the kindergarten age group is indicated for both the game and the art activity.

The twenty-nine nursery rhymes chosen by the students are summarised in alphabetical order in Figure 1 and contain all the games and art activities. There were twenty five different traditional rhymes chosen by twenty-nine students in the two 'Children's literature' groups. Among them four rhymes were chosen by two and one rhyme by three students. There are five finger rhymes (e.g. Incy Wincy Spider, Here is the beehive) and three Halloween themed rhymes in the list.

Rhyme:	Toy/Game:	Art activity:
The Baby Shark game		Shark corner bookmarks
Daisy bell	Colour matching card /memory game	Flower folding
Do you know the muffin man	Photo puzzle Photo memory game	
Eency, weency/Incy, wincy/Itsy, bitsy spider	Spider races (with drinking straw)	finger painting
The elephant goes like	Body movements to accompany	Balloon and paper, paper plate, handprint, toilet roll elephants

Five green and freckled frogs	Frog-into-fly hand-eye coordination toy	Toilet roll frog
Five green and freckled frogs	Frogs – manipulative game	Origami frogs
Flowers tall, flowers small	Finger puppet	Flower crown
Here is the beehive	Playground game	Paper puppet
Hey Diddle, diddle	Puppet game or act out	Finger paint cow
Goosey, goosey, gander	Duck, duck, goose game	Rice goose
Hickory Dickory Dock	Finger puppets	Finger puppets
Hickory Dickory Dock	Memory/Pairing game	3D mouse
Humpty Dumpty		Humpty to assemble and glue
Incy windy spider	Tag game for P.E.	Walnut spider
Jack-o-lantern	Mathematical game	
Jack-o-lantern	Lift-the-flap story cards	Finger puppets
		Toilet roll pumpkins
Jack-o-lantern	Picture puzzle	Paper-and-pipe cleaner spider
Ladybird, ladybird	Memory game	3D paper ladybird
	Puppets	
Ladybird, ladybird	Ladybird dots: a mathematical matching game	Paper ladybird craft
Little Miss Muffet	Spider and flies tag game	Egg carton mouse
The Loch Ness Monster	Picture puzzle	Paper collage monster
Mary had a little lamb	Word card game	Cotton lamb
Mary, Mary …	Pretend flower planting	Harmonica paper flowers
Monkey babies	Memory game with animals	Toilet roll monkey craft
One, two, three, four, five …	Picture puzzle	Moving paper fish

Two little blackbirds	Cutting and colouring bird puppets	Puppet making
Two little blackbirds	Puzzle	Puppet making
This little piggy	Finger play	Paper finger puppets

Figure One: Students' rhymes, games and art activities

The toys and games included a wide range of activities: matching cards, memory games, puzzles, a racing game, hand-eye coordination games, playground games, finger plays, story cards, mathematical games, puppets and word cards. Puppets, puzzles and matching activities seemed to be the most popular activities because they are cognitively appropriate for kindergarten aged children and help to develop hand-eye coordination and fine motor skills.

Having looked at the art activities, it is paper-based activities that dominated: most of them were cut-and-paste type of tasks, but there were also two that involved the use of finger paint. All such activities are not only amusing, but also beneficial for the development of fine motor skills.

The posters were prepared with great care and contained creative activities that are perfectly suitable for the purpose of language development with kindergarten aged children. The students managed to integrate and put into practice what they learnt in the course and produce a visually appealing, hands-on piece of work. Such tasks seem to appeal to them and engage them in active learning. Having the opportunity to present their work to an informed audience of English tea

In the current academic year I set the same assignment for the participants. However, based on last year's experience I was able to provide a more detailed task specification and I am going to turn the presentation part into a more formal activity. I am also actively searching for opportunities for the students to present their work to ELT professionals. My intention is to find ways of cooperation with fellow students studying to become English teachers at other universities, whose training does not cover the methodology of teaching very young learners. Having this kind of cooperation would provide an authentic opportunity for the kindergarten students to practice their professional presentation skills.

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SURGERY TRAINING IN ENGLISH WITH THE USE OF MODERN TEXTBOOK AND MEDICAL SIMULATORS

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Abstract

Higher medical education of independent Ukraine needs to solve a difficult pedagogical task - urgently and systemically to pass from classical methods of teaching of subject matters to post-classical that would allow at catastrophically accruing volume of medical information various organizations' and administrative and medical (preventive, diagnostic, medical, rehabilitation), and also scientific genesis to turn it into knowledge of the student, and the theoretical knowledge received by the same student, to transform to his professional skills and abilities. All this together outlines the importance of the scientific and methodological research executed by us. Such systematic and methodological transition would allow to form among medical students motives for study. Taking into account 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 the doctor in institutes of higher education becomes obvious. In preparation of the student replacement of an estimated vector in the control of knowledge over existing volumetric parameters (an estimation on offset and examination) - before management and quality assurance of training will be powerful at studying the discipline on each practical employment, adhering to the unified scheme with attraction of the developed textbooks. The organization of educational process according to the Bologna Convention requirements demands to change passive methods of training of students – lecture - to the differentiated personal form, where the ideology of "driving in to knowledge" will be substituted by "the self-education organizations" of medical students. And for foreign intern-surgeons it is important to master surgical manipulation and stages of surgical interventions in treating the most common surgical diseases or providing an emergency assistance in case of emergency conditions. The received results underscore the increased objectivity in the control of knowledge on the part of teachers' interest and increasing of foreign students and of foreign medical interns' interest to master a subject, that allowed to prepare a general practitioner in surgery and surgeons, and integrate in the future in practical public health in worldwide.

Key words: Surgery, content training in English, textbook, simulators.

Introduction

One of the directions for improving the preparation of students in a modern university is the introduction of interactive forms of instruction. Currently, one of the requirements for the organization of the educational process in the university is the widespread use in the educational process of active and interactive forms of conducting classes for the formation of the necessary professional and general cultural competencies.

Interactive learning is learning, built on the interaction of all students, including the teacher. Active methods of teaching are forms of instruction aimed at developing independent thinking and the ability to solve non-standard professional tasks in a qualified manner. These methods are most consistent with the personal-oriented approach, since they involve collective learning in cooperation, and both the learner and the teacher are subjects of the learning process. The teacher often only acts as the organizer of the learning process, the leader of the group, the creator of the conditions for the initiative of the students. Interactive training is based on the direct interaction of students with their experiences and experiences of their friends, since most interactive exercises refer to the learner's own experience, and not only to the teaching. New knowledge, skill is formed on the basis of this experience.

The directions of the professional activity of the general practitioner determine the basic requirements for the amount of knowledge and practical skills for a graduate of a higher educational medical institution: questioning a patient, performing a physical examination, justifying a preliminary diagnosis, determining an algorithm for auxiliary research methods, analyzing the results, conducting differential diagnostics, , the construction of a treatment program and its implementation.

To achieve the necessary quality of training specialists in the education introduced a credit-module system. To gain sufficient knowledge and skills in the teaching of the discipline, it is necessary to build a practical lesson in accordance with the levels of training or levels of learning.

Methods

Structured, multifactor planning of the educational process and the application of various forms of step-by-step control in accordance with the levels of vocational training and training in the extra time allotted. For a sufficient mastering of the amount of knowledge and skills in the teaching of the discipline, the plan and structure of the practical classes are constructed according to the recommendations of the teaching and methodical department and the Department of General and Medical Psychology and Pedagogy of the NMU named after Bogomolets taking into account V levels of assimilation.

To provide the educational process in accordance with the credit and modular system, multimedia lectures, the textbook "Surgery" (2016, Bereznytskyy Ya., Zakharash M., Mishalov V.), methodological developments for students and teachers, an individual student's plan, a journal of a teacher have been developed and used at the department. The structure of the lesson consists of: the preparatory stage (10-25% of the total time of the session), the main stage (60-90%) and the final stage (10-20%).

Procedure

The preparatory stage lasts an average of 15 minutes. At this stage, knowledge control is conducted using tests I level and level II reproductive theoretical knowledge. The main stage lasts an average of 130 minutes, the control of knowledge and professional skills on the example of a patient's examination corresponds to the IV level of professional skills, mastery of practical skills - III level of practical skills.

In the planning of this lesson, several interactive teaching methods have been used. Firstly, this method is used in situational modeling; the main is the method of practical training, which allows most effectively to form the necessary practical skills for students. Also, professional training was used to solve typical and atypical tasks, including solving situational clinical problems for the formation of professional skills and problem-oriented thinking.

The use of interactive learning technologies allows:

- to form professional skills and practical skills;
- optimally use the acquired knowledge;
- increase the efficiency of mastering the actual material;
- to improve the skills of clinical application of the theoretical knowledge;
- promotes professionalization of the student; formation of creative thinking, skills of operative decision making and forecasting of the result.

For a more rational use of the time, the mastering and training of practical skills by students is carried out after the lesson, only quality control is performed in the lesson. To master and assimilate practical skills, two classes are used, equipped with modern medical simulators and mannequins, a video program with demonstration of practical skills was created. The final stage lasts up to 15 minutes, at this stage control and correction of the levels of professional skills and practical skills is not carried out. Creative V level is achieved due to students' research of individual issues of surgery with a report of the results on the student scientific circle.

Unfortunately, some students for valid reasons or without them miss practical classes. Therefore, in addition to building classes in accordance with the levels of vocational training, it is necessary to motivate students to build a teaching process with the development of missed classes at an additional allotted time.

When practicing missed classes, the same algorithm is used for conducting classes at an additional time, according to the thematic schedule. The educational part at the beginning of the academic year allocates a separate time for workings after the end of the semester in the vacation period, the practical training is a full-time and high-quality occupation.

Results

Thus, the teaching of surgery in accordance with the levels of vocational training and the development of missed classes in extra time is the most effective for obtaining the necessary knowledge and skills and allows you to reduce the number of absences. The number of passes in 2005-2008 was about 800 hours, after the introduction of excavations in extra time has significantly decreased to about 200 hours in 2012-2017. Virtually all omissions in recent years have been associated with valid reasons.

Conclusion

The interactive methods bring the greatest effect for the trainees when they are used together in combination with traditional types of educational work with new Textbook "Surgery" in the process of mastering the academic discipline. At the same time, higher efficiency is achieved in the training of specialists.

The experience in applying the credit-modular system in teaching and controlling knowledge of surgery in accordance with the levels of vocational training suggests that this approach is optimal and allows to effectively forming the necessary level of knowledge and skills for students for subsequent general medical practice.

Carrying out the workings of missed classes in the extra time allocated for workings after the end of the semester during the vacation period made it possible to significantly reduce the number of unjustified passes of classes and improve the quality of the students' preparation.

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AN EARLY LANDMARK IN THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH-MEGRELIAN LEXICOGRAPHY: D. R. PEACOCK'S CONTRIBUTION

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Abstract

The paper is a discussion of the Megrelian data in D. R. Peacock's work "Original Vocabularies of Five West Caucasian Languages" (1877). It contains 143 Megrelian lexemes both in singular and plural, up to 50 phrases and about 22 sentences. A headword is an English item being translated into the five languages, Megrelian among them, and transliterated in accordance with the rules of English orthography. We analysed the data with respect to how they are transliterated and translated, having observed a number of transliteration, lexical and grammatical errors. Notwithstanding those shortcomings, Peacock's vocabulary should be valued both for its being one of the earliest works in the scarce history of English-Megrelian lexicography and for adequate representations of Megrelian linguistic data.

Key words: English-Megrelian; Caucasian languages; Lexicography

Introduction

Whenever a general history of the lexicography of Megrelian is concerned, authors rightly tend to refer to earlier lexicographical attempts such as materials provided by the Italian missionary Arcangelo Lamberti who lived in Georgia, specifically in Samegrelo, in 1633-1649, and published his descriptions of various aspects of Megrelian life including some linguistic observations (Lamberti 1654; 1657), by the 17th century Turkish traveler Evliya Çelebi who, together with Georgian, Abkhazian, Circassian, and Ubykh, transcribed a number of words and phrases for Megrelian (Çelebi 1834), by Johann Anton Güldenstädt (1787, 1791) who spent three and a half years (1770-1773) in the North and South Caucasus and collected translations of his word set from twenty-two speech communities, Megrelian among them (247 entries), by Julius Heinrich Klaproth who also provided some vocabulary materials of Megrelian (Klaproth 1829); subsequent developments resulted in one of the most comprehensive reference works Megrelian-Russian Dictionary by I. Kipshidze (1914); for more detailed discussions of these and other works see, for instance, Chikobava (2008).

Judging from the aforementioned, the authors provided translations of Megrelian lexical data to and from Italian, Turkish, German, French, Russian, etc. An English component can hardly been visible in the history of the lexicography of Megrelian. Does it imply that there have been no relevant works? No, it does not; there have been a few attempts to compile lexicographic resources including English and Megrelian. However, they are rarely mentioned in respective literature (Wardrop 2010: 157).

With our readiness to fill in the gap, the present paper aims at discussing the Megrelian data in D. R. Peacock's work "Original Vocabularies of Five West Caucasian Languages (Georgian, Mingrelian, Lazian, Swanetian, and Abkhazian)" published in Journal of Royal Asiatic Society (Peacock 1887).

The author

When we open The Journal of the Royal Society of Great Britain and Ireland, New Series, Vol. 19, No. 1 (January, 1877) and go to page 145, we find that the paper about five West Caucasian languages is authored by Mr. Peacock (sic). Furthermore, we are informed that he was "Vice-Consul [of H. B. M.] in Batúm, Trans-Caucasia, South Russia" (Peacock 1887, 145). Thus, the publication in point does not provide his full name. Instead, it is available in other sources, however, scarce. His full name is Demetrius Rudolph Peacock. He was born in 1842 to Charles Peacock and Concordia Peacock (born Schlegel). He was born in Russia. As his granddaughter tells, "Charles Peacock was the son of a Lancashire farmer and his main interest was farming. When he married he was looking for a job and happened to see an advertisement saying that someone in the Tambov province of Russia was looking for an estate manager. So Charles Peacock and his young wife went to Russia. They got on very well with the owner of the estate who became a great friend. I cannot remember his surname but his Christian name was Dimitri and my grandfather was called after him, Dimitri Rudolph" (Peacock 1993, 105). Peacock was sent to school in England. When he finished school he came back to Russia and entered Moscow University where he studied law. As for his activities in Georgia, initially he was employed in the construction of the Poti-Tbilisi railway as a contractor. It was in 1881 when he entered the British Consular Service. Later, he was promoted to a post of a Consul. Here is what The London Gazette (1890) on Tuesday, January 28: "The Queen has also been graciously pleased to appoint Demetrius Rudolph Peacock, Esq., now Her Majesty's Vice-Consul in Batoum, to be Her Majesty's Consul for Transcaucasia, that is to say, the Governments, Districts, and Provinces of Baku, Elizavetpol, Daghestan, Erivan, Tiflis, Zakatali, Kars, Kutais, and Tchernomoria, to reside in Batoum." Very soon, in 1891, he was appointed Consul-General residing in Odessa where he died in 1892 "after a short illness, in May last. He had been ill-health for some time previously, his constitution having been shattered by the malarious fever" (Proceedings, 1892, 563). He was buried in Odessa.

As the obituary goes on to say, "while residing in Batum, he made a name both as a most efficient civil servant and a kind friend and host. A very large number of travellers on their way East will remember the aid and kindness they met with from Mr. Peacock. Speaking Russian like a native, he was able to mix in Russian society on perfectly equal terms, and his knowledge of Russian law often served him well in the difficult questions which sometimes arose at Batum. He was on equally good terms with the official world of Tiflis and with the native nobles, and his name was a passport in itself throughout the country" (ibid.).

As for his linguistic skills, his granddaughter reports the following: "He was supposed to know fifteen languages, which is probably an exaggeration. But he certainly knew several European languages and later, when he was working at the British consulate in Batum, he studied several Caucasian languages. He was friendly with the mountaineers of the Caucasus, and published original vocabularies of Georgian, Mingrelian, Lazian, Svanetian and Apkhazian" (Peacock 1993, 105).

The work

As the full title of the publication informs, it was compiled and written at the request of and was communicated by Dr. R. N. Cust; his note precedes the text of the paper: "When I visited Trans-Caucasia in 1882 for the purpose of collecting information regarding the Languages of the Caucasus, the result of which was published in Vol. XVII. of the Journal, I became aware of the scantiness of the Vocabularies, and I mentioned this to Mr. Peacock, the Vice-Consul of H.B.M. at Batúm, who had resided some time at Poti, and had made excursions into regions not often traversed. He was good enough to undertake the duty of collecting Vocabularies, and I forwarded to him a copy of the Standard Form of Words and Sentences prepared by the Bengal Asiatic Society. After some delay, […] he has forwarded to me the subjoined Vocabularies, which are highly important" (Peacock 1887, 145).

In his note, Cust mentions two noteworthy items: 1. His paper about languages of the Caucasus, and 2. "Standard Form of Words and Sentences." Notably, two years prior to the appearance of D.R. Peacock's "Vocabularies," Cust (1885) published his paper which is a superficial overview predominantly based on Russian sources and, hence, biased and erroneous. As for the instructions of compiling vocabularies and sentences, Peacock followed the List of English Words and Sentences prepared by the Bengal Asiatic Society. Such lists started to become widespread in language studies since the earlier half of the 18th century when, in order to classify as many languages as possible in genealogical groupings, Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz proposed that similar materials be collected from each newly-described language and compiled a list of vocabula rerum vulgarium ('words for common things'), including "numerals, kinship terms, necessitates (food, drink, weapons, domestic animals), naturalia (God, celestial and weather phenomena, topographic features, wild animals) and a dozen verbs (eat, drink, speak see...) (Tuite 2008, 25). Thus, Peacock's word-list was not randomly compiled but rather was a standard selection for collecting of data from various languages.

The vocabularies are organised in the following way: an English headword is followed by its Georgian, Megrelian ("Mingrelian"), Laz ("Lazian"), Svan ("Swanetian"), and Abkhazian equivalents being transliterated, and not transcribed, in accordance with the more widespread English transliteration system, however, not always consistent.

Megrelian lexis

The Megrelian part of the vocabularies includes 143 Megrelian lexemes both in singular and plural, up to 50 phrases and about 22 sentences. As already noted, Peacock followed the guidelines provided by the Bengali Asiatic Society, and his word-list thus contains the following groups: cardinal numerals, pronouns, nouns, verbs, and other parts of speech; however, he does not seem to be always consistent with respect to this mode of representation. Not all of the English headwords are accompanied with their Megrelian equivalents; e.g. A female, To be, Beating, Having beaten, I am beating, I was beating, I had beating, I should beat, I am beating, I was beaten, I shall be beaten.

There are a number of errors which we decided to classify into three groups: transliteration, grammatical, and lexico-semantic, with respect to their ends.

Transliteration errors

Of course, one may argue that Peacock just recorded what he heard from his informant(s); hence, what we refer to as transliteration errors can be viewed as speech variation. This is certainly possible; therefore, we do not target the co-occurrence of the w and v (e.g. kwata 'duck' and var 'no') as this is likely to be due to how informants pronounced them.

Some cardinal numerals, which occur in the initial part of the word-list, are transliterated improperly: Seven – Shvitki (the correct version is Shkviti), Eight – Rua (Ruo//Bruo), Ten – Wetti (Witi, if not Viti); similarly to the latter case, double consonant characters are redundant in, for instance, Ettinas ('Of us'), Ossuri ('Woman'). Other transliteration errors include: Cow – Tchkho (the correct version in Tchkhou), Cat – Rato (Katu), Give – Rom (Kom, if not Komutchi), etc.

Whenever Peacock's transliteration conventions are concerned, one should be most critical to the fact that he does not provide differences between aspirated and ejective stops and affricates, as far as these phonemic contrasts are essential for Megrelian, specifically, and for Kartvelian languages, at large. Moreover, he has totally dismissed transliterations of the following Megrelian phonemes: the voiceless glottal stop [ʔ], the alveolar central approximant [y], and the high back unrounded vowel [ə].

Grammatical Errors

A number of words appear both in the singular and plural. Among most salient grammatical errors, we ought to identify the occurrence of the Georgian nominal pluralisation marker -eb with Megrelian lexemes (the corresponding marker in Megrelian is -ep); e.g. Two good men – Jiri djghiri kotchebi (the correct version is Jiri djghiri kotchepi), Good men – Djghiri kotchebi (Djghiri kotchepi), Of good men – Djghiri kotchebshe (Djghiri kotchepshe), To good men – Djghiri kotchebis (Djghiri kotchepis), From good men – Djghiri kotchebishe (Djghiri kotchepishe); Horses – Tskhenebi (Tskhenepi); Bulls – Khodjebi (Khodjepi); Dogs – Djoghorebi (Djoghorepi). This is frequent though not ubiquitous; e.g. Women – Ossurepi; Fathers – Mumepi.

Another not infrequently observable grammatical error is that the v-, as an S1 marker is regularly dropped; e.g. I am – Ma orek (the correct version is Ma vorek), We are – Tchki oret (Tchki voret), I was – Ma ordi (Ma vordi), We were – Tchki ordit (Tchki vordit).

There are a couple of other errors associated with personal markers; however, grammatical errors do not abound.

Lexico-semantic Errors

When looking for lexico-semantic errors in Peacock's vocabularies, we mostly came across inadequate translations. As for individual words, such instances are few; e.g. What is translated as Muare; there is no such word in Megrelian. Peacock probably meant Mu re – What is; however, the phrase has hardly to do anything in the entry since the Megrelian for What is just Mu. Child is translated as Tchkhitchkha; a correct version is Chkichki. Foot is translated as Kutihkhe, while a correct version is Ku(t)chkhi. The English Fire is translated as Datchkhi; its correct translation is Da(t)chkhiri. There is another, very interesting entry: Ear is translated as Aldji; it is noteworthy that there is no such word in Megrelian. A correct version is ʔudji.

Inadequacies abound when he deals with entire sentences. The very first one of such entries is a notable example: What is your name? is translated as Si murdjokhos saxeli; this is a literal translation and, hence, bizarre. Similarly, most of the sentences in Peacock's list are just literal translations. Besides, in some entries, translated sentences lack a copula, a word, have an inappropriate word order, etc. We decided to present some of the notable examples in the following table:

Table 1. Mistranslations from English into Megrelian

English	Megrelian
How old is this horse?	Mutchomi retchinere te tskheni?
How far is it from here to ----- ?	Taure mushma shora kore ----- ?
How many sons are there in your father's house?	Skani mumas oudes muzma skualepire?
I have walked a long way to-day	Ma pkimini didi shara amodghra
In the house is the saddle of the white horse	Udesse onangheri tche tskhenishi
I have beaten his son with many stripes	Ma tishi skwasa breli ghivashghi
He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill	Tina tihkishins tchkuleps golash dus
Take those pounds from him	Gheitsughi ti funti tishe
Draw water from the wall	Gheshega tskhari tskushe

The overwhelming majority of the sentences do not seem to have been translated (and/or even revised) by a native speaker of Megrelian.

Judging from the contents of the sentences in the entries, it is hard to believe that they were drawn from any standard list compiled by any scholarly association (and/or institution), as different from other segments of the word-list. Most probably, they were selected by Peacock himself; however, we have no explanation what motivated him to make up the following sentence and include it in the list: The son of my uncle is married to his sister, the Megrelian equivalent of which appears as Djimadi tchkimishes skwa Gurghinelire tishi dasha, nothing to say about its inadequate translation and ungrammatical structure.

Conclusion

The history of the lexicography of Megrelian is neither rich nor scarce. Various lexicographic attempts have been observed since the 17th century whose authors provided translations of Megrelian lexical data to and from Italian, Turkish, German, French, Russian, etc. However, an English component is hardly visible in the history of the lexicography of Megrelian. In order to fill in the gap, we took on the task of detecting and analyzing of relevant work. Within this series, in the present paper we dealt with D. R. Peacock's "Vocabularies." It was due to the reason stated above (non-visibility of an English component in the lexicographic history of Megrelian) that we touched upon only the Megrelian lexis in the Peacock's five-language collection.

Before getting started to analysis of the work in question, we were to detect various facts from the life of D. R. Peacock in order to make them available to wider public. Only following this we turned to the description of his lexicographical compilation.

Having scrutinised various (transliteration, grammatical, lexico-semantic) aspects of the entries in point, we identified most typical errors. It is noteworthy that the errors in question in no way prevent a keen reader from recognising individual words and phrases. Unlike the initial parts of his word-list in which he provides individual words and phrases, the final segment, which consists of sentences, does not follow any standard, acknowledged principle and seems to have been compiled by Peacock himself; moreover, they can hardly be considered to have been translated by a native speaker of Megrelian.

Irrespective of these and other shortcomings, D. R. Peacock's "Vocabularies" should be valued both for its being one of the earliest works in the scarce history of English-Megrelian lexicography and for adequate representations of Megrelian linguistic data.

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SPEECH ACT OF COMPLIMENT IN SOCIO-DIGITAL ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

Speech act of compliment as well as compliment responses in face-to-face interaction has been extensively studied in different languages and cultures from the point of view of sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and pragmatics. It is generally accepted that compliments form part of a social ritual that enables speakers to generate and maintain rapport. Compliment responses are similarly restricted by the need to fulfill a social purpose and, in responding, the complimentee faces certain dilemma – to maintain positive face. Social networks have become increasingly popular means of communication all over the world. They have provided users a unique means through which individuals communicate, interact, self-present, and share their ideas or their personal life. Although speech acts on social networks are linguistically natural, these sites offer a unique and public context in which speech and utterance are mostly different from face-to-face context. Social network sites are hosts of pictures of users in different situations on their profile pages. One could infer that posting such pictures may be an attempt to fish for compliments by other individuals and to respond to these compliments to maintain relationships. In face-to-face interaction non-response to the compliments may threaten both positive as well negative face of the interlocutors and is regarded as breaking of politeness maxims. Internet interactions, which are characterized by both asynchronous and polylogical communication appear to offer at least one other alternative: that of ignoring the compliment altogether. The questions that we seek to address in this paper are as follows: What is the frequency of compliment response observed in the FB corpus under examination? What do FB users consider to be appropriate behavior with respect to (non)-response to compliments on FB? In responding to compliments, which strategies (accepting, rejecting, or evading) and sub-strategies (e.g. expressing agreement, questioning sincerity, etc.) are most commonly employed?

Key words: compliment behavior, compliment response strategy (CRS), socio-digital environment, computer mediated communication (CMC)

Basic notes about compliment speech acts (literature review)

It is well assumed that language serves many functions, but referential and affective functions are basic. The referential function of language is its function to convey information, facts, or content. The affective function refers to the use of language to convey feelings and reflect social relationships. The main function of compliments is affective and social rather than referential. Compliments are combinations of linguistic strategies that aim to establish or reaffirm common ground, mutuality, and social solidarity and expresses positive attitudes towards another speaker. Within the same culture, compliments vary according to the ways of their usage and role in context. The main target of using a compliment is not to lose one's face which is likely to be lost if a compliment is misused in context. Performing a successful compliment requires the following conditions: hearer (complimentee) has a certain quality; speaker (complimenter) believes that the quality is admirable; speaker wants hearer to know/believe that speaker admires the quality.

Compliments can be defined informally as 'both direct and indirect utterances expressing the speaker's positive opinion about the addressee's outward appearance, work, personality traits, possessions, and about third parties closely related to the addressee (e.g. children) hence, the most common topics of compliments are: possessions, appearance, skills and achievements (Holmes 1988; Wolfson 1983). Paying a compliment generally, perhaps always, involves communicating a positive evaluative judgment about the hearer (Chen 1993: 59). As people generally find positive evaluations of themselves desirable, compliments are used as 'social lubricants' (Holmes 1988: 486) 'to create or maintain rapport' and 'to make the hearer feel good by creating a mutual atmosphere of kindness and good will' (Wolfson1983: 86, Manes 1983: 97, Herbert 1990: 202).

Compliments may also straighten or replace other speech acts such as apologies, thanks, or greetings, and may soften criticism or the attitude conveyed by sarcasm. They also function as 'ice-breakers' because they can be used aptly to remove the social awkwardness of initiating a conversation.

Paying a compliment is one of the most obvious ways of expressing politeness. The concept of politeness implies keeping faces for both parties thus, when complimenting people demonstrate respect to another party's positive face and take care of another party's negative face as well. However, if they are too personal, compliments may easily threaten the complimentee's negative face, as the addressee may not feel comfortable with the level of intimacy shown by the complimenter. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), compliment giving might appear as a face threatening act when the acceptance of a compliment damages the sociality rights of the complimentee, if it involves self-denigration of his/her face or if he feels obliged to return the compliment.

Kerbrat-Orecchioni (2004: 15) describes a compliment as 'un cadeau verbal' and this characterization of the compliment as a verbal gift implies that the addressee is, in a way, put in the complimenter's debt (Petit, 2006) Thus, 'thanks a lot' response on the compliment 'you look great today' can be considered as a threat to addressee's negative face because he/she feels obliged to express thanks and his freedom of action is thus threatened in the moment of speaking.

Responding to a compliment creates a conflict between wanting to agree with the complimenter on one hand, and wanting to appear modest on the other, which, in Leech's (1983) words, can be described as a tension between the maxim of agreement and the maxim of modesty. Such tension is normally solved according to the speaker's attitudes towards those principles.

In conversational mechanism compliment and compliment response are considered as an adjacency pair and compliment responses form part of a social ritual that enables speakers to generate and maintain rapport. Compliment responses are similarly restricted by the need to fulfill a social purpose and, in responding, the complimentee faces certain dilemmas, first identified by Pomerantz (1978). Pomerantz observes that although acceptance of a compliment is considered to be the preferred response, other type of response, such as rejection, is far from uncommon. She describes the situation in terms of three constraint systems operating in conjunction with a system of preferences. When a compliment is given, the recipient can choose to either accept or reject it. This is the first constraint and it provides speakers with two opposing response strategies: acceptance or rejection. However, the recipient of the compliment can also evaluate the compliment and choose to agree or disagree with it. This second set of constraints is strongly aligned with the first since acceptance is often performed by agreement while rejection is often achieved via disagreement with the compliment. The third constraint is that of self-praise avoidance. Pomerantz considers the preferred response to be that of compliment acceptance. This, however, is in conflict with the desire to avoid self-praise, as the only way that self-praise avoidance can be achieved in conjunction with either of the other two constraint systems is by rejection/disagreement Pomerantz contends that a system of preferences which favors acceptance operates alongside the three constraints.

After Pomerantz, also Herbert and Holmes looked at compliment responses respectively in American and New Zealand English. In particular, drawing on previous research, Herbert firstly distinguished three broad categories of compliment responses, namely 'agreement' (complimentee agrees with complimenter), 'non- agreement' (complimentee disagrees with complimenter), and 'other interpretations' (i.e. complimentee interprets the compliment as a request). Subsequently, he identified further sub-categories of 'agreement' – namely (1)'acceptances', in turn made of (a) 'appreciation token' (complimentee thanks complimenter), (b) 'comment acceptance' (complimentee accepts the compliment and offers a personal comment on the appreciated topic) and (c) 'praise upgrade' (complimentee accepts the compliment and upgrades it), (2) 'comment history' (complimentee offers an impersonal comment on appreciated topic) and (3) 'transfers', that is, (a) 'reassignment'(complimentee transfers the merit to a third person or to the object itself) and (b) 'return'(complimentee returns the compliment to complimenter) – and 'non agreement' – namely (1) 'scale down' (complimentee points to some flaw in the topic of praise), (2) 'question'(complimentee questions the compliment), (3) 'non-acceptances', that is, (a) 'disagreement'(complimentee states the object complimented is not worth the praise) and (b)'qualification' (complimentee qualifies the compliment, usually with but ,well, though, etc.), and (4)'no acknowledgment', which could be (a) 'no response' (complimentee ignores the compliment) or(b) 'topic shift' (complimentee changes topic).

Due to its multi-modality and multi-functionality speech act of compliment has been thoroughly studied by many researchers consequently, there are abundant number of studies dealing with sociolinguistic, pragmalinguistic and cross-linguistic analyses of compliment speech act in face-to-face interaction. Though, studies on complimenting behavior in virtual contexts are comparatively few. (Cirillo 2012; Placencia and Lower 2013; Maíz-Arévalo 2013).

Development of technology including computers and the internet has introduced a new channel of communication - computer mediated communication (CMC). Although it lacks many information conveying clues such as voice, facial expressions, and non-verbal gestures, CMC hardly limits individuals' interaction and is becoming increasingly popular all over the world. Nowadays there are a lot of social networks providing different means of communication options. One of the most popular social networks used worldwide, Facebook (FB) is not only the means of communication, self presentation, and sharing ideas or personal life, but it is a host of pictures of users in profile pages and photo albums. One could infer that posting such pictures may be an attempt to fish for compliments. Accordingly, FB offers many opportunities for giving/receiving and responding on compliments. Thus, the present study aims to explore the extent to which practices that are relating to face-to-face compliment speech acts are adopted in digital environment by Georgian interlocutors and whether any new practices are emerging. The questions that we seek to address in this paper are as follow: What is the frequency of compliment response observed in the FB corpus under examination? What do FB users consider to be appropriate behavior with respect to non-response to compliments on FB? In responding to compliments, which strategies and sub-strategies are most commonly employed?

Data collection and result observation

In order to answer the study questions present research employed naturalistic, controlled observation, and recording of naturally occurring compliments and compliment response strategies among Georgian users of FB. This descriptive, qualitative and quantitative study aimed at data collecting and analysis procedures. The corpus comprises compliments addressed to 10 women. Total number of compliments comprises 115 compliments and 115 compliment responses. The participants selected for this study ranged in age from 35 to 60 at the time that the data was collected. They represent a relatively uniform group in terms of social background: have university degree, all of the participants are Georgian. The choice of participant according to gender was determined by the fact that they are found to make and receive more compliments then men.

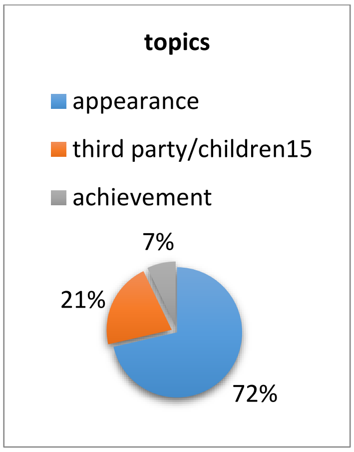
On the first stage of the analyses compliments were analyzed according to the following criteria: topic of the compliment; type of the compliment i.e. impersonal/personal; formulaic/ non-formulaic.

Compliment responses were analyzed according to Holmes's taxonomy of compliment responses. Despite this taxonomy having been developed for face-to-face interaction, we found it suitable for the analysis of compliment responses in CMC in FB. However, it has been necessary to make some modifications; Holmes' taxonomy includes the subcategory 'questioning accuracy' as a form of compliment rejection. No examples of this subcategory were found in our data and so it has been omitted from the present analysis. The most significant modifications to Holmes' taxonomy concern those forms of communicating appreciation on FB which are limited to online contexts such as 'Like'-ing and the use of emoticons and emojis. Emoticons in particular are often characterized as replacing key features of orality, such as gestures and facial expressions. However, fitting them into the existing taxonomy is not without controversy. Maíz-Arévalo chose to place such responses in a new branch of Holmes' taxonomy, dividing responses into explicit (using written text) and implicit (using forms such as emoticons and also the 'Like' function). In terms of complimenting behavior, the 'Like' function indicates approval or appreciation of the recipient, equivalent to a round of applause or a thumbs-up gesture (Placencia and Lower 2013). Liking something is a positive evaluation, therefore responding to a compliment with 'Like' appears to suggest acceptance of that compliment, but it could reasonably be interpreted as either a token of appreciation or of agreement. In addition, many compliments comprised several supporting moves, such as explanations and well-wishing. In such cases, it is unclear what the complimentee is 'Like'-ing. In some senses, clicking 'Like' could be seen as a way of avoiding the sticky issue of exactly what to say to the compliment, evading Pomerantz's (1978) constraints altogether Maíz-Arévalo (2013) designates non-verbal responses such as 'Like' and emoticons in separate subgroup naming the category as" un-classified".

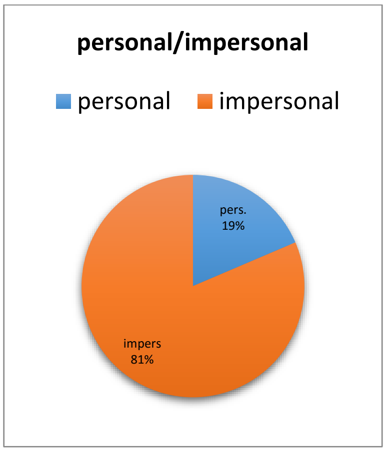
Emoticons were similarly difficult to interpret. In majority of the cases emoticons appeared in conjunction with text, users employ them to upgrade the appreciation token. However, emoticons were also used to alter the tone of discourse for instance to highlight humorous intent of interlocutors.

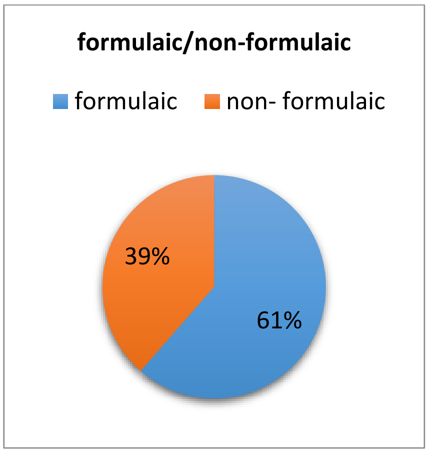
Data analyses

Data analyses of compliments on FB revealed the following results: the most popular topic of compliment on FB is compliment connected with appearance (72%) that is followed by third party compliment (mainly compliments regarding complimentee's children)(21%) and achievement compliments (7%).

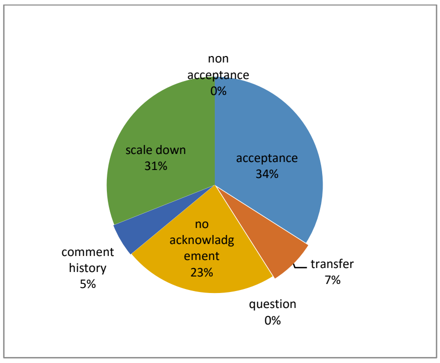


As for the type of compliments, according to the data we can conclude that Georgian FB users prefer to use impersonal type of compliments (81%) more often than personal ones (19%). Data results also revealed that formulaic compliments (61%) predominate over non-formulaic type of compliments (39%).





Data analyses of compliment responses of Georgian FB users revealed the following results: out of 115 compliment responses, acceptance was by far the most frequent form of response (34%), followed by scale down (31%), no acknowledgement (23%,) transfer (7%), comment history(5%) neither rejection/non acceptance nor return questions strategies were found in compliment response according to our data.



Discussion

According to data, we can conclude that the most popular compliment topic on FB is appearance oriented compliments. If in face -to- face interaction complimenter makes choice of the topic, in socio digital environment like FB complimentee himself sets the topic by posting the photo. This way complimenter undergoes negative face threatening act and following the rules of politeness, for maintaining positive face he/she either makes the compliment or employs hieroglyphic language - commenting the photo by the help of emoticons and emojis. Taking this fact in consideration, we can conclude that predominant cases of appearance oriented compliments are caused by the fact that the users of FB tend to place their photos accentuating their appearance rather than other possessions.

Compliment type on FB is mainly defined by such social variables as socials status and distance of the interlocutors. If the relationships are close and both participants have equal statues, close relationships and mutual presuppositional background knowledge, non-formulaic, personal compliments tend to emerge. However, the fact that compliments made on FB are public comments and in addition, socio-digital communication lacks one of the priorities of real interpersonal communication –interpretation of the compliment in case of misunderstanding, complimenter tries to avoid misinterpretation of his locutionary act and prefers to make impersonal, formulaic type of compliment.

As for the compliment responses, according to the collected data Georgian FB users tend to prefer positive CR strategy which is revealed through frequent use of explicit acceptance strategies like: 'Thank you!'/'Thank you very much!' it seems that the choice of agreement strategy is consistent with Leech's Politeness Principle, namely the Maxim of Compliance, that requires minimization of disagreement with others and maximization of agreement.

In face-to-face interaction, complimentee doesn't expect the compliment and could be confused by getting thus this circumstance could cause the use of negative CR strategy like non-acceptance, scaling down, transfer, denying together with compliments history, etc. On the other hand, FB complimentee is ready to accept the compliment as they fish for compliment by posting the photos they are proud of and expect appreciation, positive comments containing compliments. However, in order to avoid self praise and solve the CR dilemma proposed by Pomerantz FB users agree with the compliment and avoid self-praise at the same time following Leech's maxims of modesty and agreement by using the following CR strategies: acceptance + scale down or transfer. However, in FB interaction these strategies are less frequent than acceptance strategies.

One of the peculiar features of FB compliment response strategies is the wide use of non-acknowledgement and non-response strategies. This feature seems to arise from the nature of the medium. In a face-to-face interaction compliments are generally received one at a time and responded to as they arrive. On FB, one photograph can receive many compliments, which are typically viewed at a later stage. The owner of the photograph must then decide whom to answer. It may seem an unreasonable task to answer every compliment when most of them say similar things. Thus, in many cases compliments are not followed by response that might be regarded as breaking of politeness maxims in face to face communication and can threaten receiver's positive face.

Another peculiar feature of CR on FB is non-verbal response. If in face-to-face communication non verbal response are less common (with the slight exception in certain western cultures like Chinese, Iranian, etc.) on FB it can be regarded as expression of modesty. In this cases FB users employ only emojis or emoticons without any additional verbal comments expressing this way gratitude and humbleness.

Conclusion

Taking all things into consideration we can conclude that verbal behavior of interlocutors (considering both compliment giving and compliment response) in socio-digital environment differs from face-to face interaction. As we have seen in the data provided by this study, not all norms of face-to-face communication are carried over to CMC. Compliment topic is defined by the complimentee and not complimenter; to avoid misunderstanding complimenter prefers to make nutral type of compliment employing impersonal, formulaic patterns of compliment.

While giving compliments happens frequently on FB, as in real life, the other side of the interaction, that is, responding to compliments received, does not follow face-to-face interactions very closely. At first glance, the medium should lend itself well to compliment responses: users have time to consider compliments and formulate responses. Additionally, because compliments are not occurring in real time, perhaps within a group of people, those receiving compliments may feel more at ease to accept compliments. We have seen, however, that while some constraints of responding to compliments in face-to-face interactions do carry over to interactions on FB (e.g., acceptance + scale down or transfer) others, such as responding to compliments, do not. The most significant feature of responses on compliment in FB are as follow: the users of face book tend to accept the compliments more often than reject them; accepting the compliments are both explicit and implicit involving such subcategories as acceptation +comment history / transfer; the most frequently used techniques of acceptance are as follow : appreciation +emoticons (57%), emoticons and emojis (24%), downgrading (10%), appreciation token "like" (5%), accepting and returning of the compliment(4%).

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ON SOME PROBLEMATIC ASPECTS OF DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY

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Abstact

The present paper attempts to analyze some problematic issues in the study of derivational morphology. Although within the field of morphology many questions can arise in regard with the nature of words, among the most challenging questions we aim to pose the following ones in this paper: 1. How intuitive a speaker is at coining new words on the basis of other words available in the mental lexicon? 2. How does the principle of analogy operate in the process of derivation? Responses to the above questions and our own hypothesis towards the findings are drawn in the results section of the paper.

Keywords: derivation, morphology, affix, productivity, analogy.

Introduction

A communicative approach to language study has been an issue of interest for linguists for decades and this trend has led to linguistic analysis of a language in the facet of social, cultural and pragmatic perspectives. Although communicative competence has been brought into central focus of recent directions in research, structural and cognitive characteristics in a communicative approach to language have been paid relatively less attention. It is often argued that grammar as a systematic account of the structure of a language with its rule-governed pattern description is of secondary importance for communicative competence (CC). We take the view that grammatical knowledge improves communication strategies in the language. This being so, we can say that grammatical awareness is not only an efficient but also a proficient construct which enables a person to communicate cognitively with his or her purpose and intent.

A speaker's linguistic knowledge not only covers a skill of segmenting the stream of sounds of utterance into meaningful units, but also includes information which enables the speaker to specify morpho-syntactic characteristics of individual words of his or her mental lexicon. Owing to this knowledge, making distinction between grammatical and ungrammatical forms becomes possible. An internal arrangement of words as one of the most fundamental units of linguistic structure is a rule-governed system to a large extent. However, a human vocabulary has a live mechanism which operates dynamically and apart from static fossilized information, a speaker expands his or her lexical fund by forming words creatively through affixation. Affix morphemes have their semantic meanings. At this point, we might suggest that they are like content words which allow a speaker to construct new words. Prefixes also have their semantics. E.g. im (not), un (not), re (again), self (personal), ex (former), over (more than), post (after), pre (before), mini (small), etc. Brinton (2000) classifies English prefixes according to their semantics as follows:

Semantic Classes of Prefixes in English

"(a) Time

Pre

After

prearrange, presuppose, preheat

aftershock, afterthought, afterglow

(b) Number

Tri

Multi

tricycle, triannual, triconsonantal, multinational, multilingual, multimillionaire

(c) Place

In

Inter

infield, in-patient, ingrown, interconnect, interbreed, interlace

(d) Degree

Super

Over

supersensitive, supersaturated, superheat, overanxious, overconfident, overdue

(e) Privation

A

Un

amoral, apolitical, asymmetric, unlock, untie, unfold

(f) Negation

Un

Anti

unafraid, unsafe, unwise, antisocial, antitrust, antiwar

(g) Size

Micro

Mini

microcosm, microchip, microfilm, miniskirt, minivan, minimall" (Brinton, 2000: 87).

It seems reasonable to suppose that by virtue of this rule-patterned, derivational morphological knowledge our language creativity seems to be infinite. However, derivation is a complicated process which undergoes not only morphological and syntactic changes, but also semantic modification. According to Brinton, derivational affixation produces a new word with one or more of the following changes:

"– a phonological change (including stress change): reduce > reduction, clear > clarity, fuse

> fusion, photograph > photography, drama > dramatize, relate > relation, permit >

permissive, impress > impression, electric > electricity, include > inclusive;

– an orthographic change to the root: pity > pitiful, deny > denial, happy > happiness;

– a semantic change, which may be fairly complex: husband > husbandry, event > eventual,

post > postage, recite > recital; and/or

– a change in word class." (Brinton, 2000:86)

Noteworthy, when discussing issues of derivational morphology, in regard with new word formations, Fromkin explains that: "When a new word enters the lexicon by the application of morphological rules, other complex derivations may be blocked. For example, when Commun+ ist entered the language, words such as Commun + ite (as in Trotsky + ite) or Commun + ian (as in grammar + ian) were not needed; their formation was blocked. Sometimes, however, alternative forms do coexist: for example, Chomskyan and Chomskyist and perhaps even Chomskyite (all meaning "follower of Chomsky's views of linguistics"). Semanticist and semantician are both used, but the possible word semantite is not" (Fromkin, 2011: 89).

Therefore, a tacit assumption of anticipated words is not always acceptable. What all of this suggests is that we take the risk of predicting new forms on the basis of pre-existing words. Not all of the new words formed according to a fairly regular pattern are the product of derivational process. As already noted, within the field of derivational morphology many questions can arise in regard with the nature of words, but among the most persistent questions we aim to pose the following ones in this paper: 1. How intuitive a speaker is at coining new words on the basis of other words? 2. How reliable is to coin a word in analogy to existing words? Responses to the above questions and our own hypothesis towards the findings are drawn in the results section of the paper.

Grammatical Competence

In the early seventies of the 20th century, Hymes (1967) and Paulston (1974) started to put more emphasis on highlighting the difference between linguistic and communicative forms of competence. Before that, having proposed a fundamental differentiation between linguistic competence (the native speaker's tacit i.e subconscious knowledge of the language) and linguistic performance ("the actual use of language in concrete situations" (Chomsky, 1965: 4) Chomsky claimed that only competence is to be considered as the core object of linguistic study. In his later works, the focus was shifted from language to grammar. Radford views the approach of Chomskian postulates and concludes "Given that a grammar of language is a model of the competence of a fluent speaker of the language, and given that competence is reflected in intuitions about grammaticality and interpretation, an important criterion of adequacy for a grammar of any natural language is that of descriptive adequacy. We can say that a grammar of a given language is descriptively adequate if it correctly describes whether any given string (i.e. the sequence) of words in a language is or isn't grammatical, and also correctly describes what interpretation(s) the relevant string has" (Radford, 1998:4). In the late seventies of the 20th century, Cummins (1979) also made a distinction between two dimensions of language competence: academic proficiency and a basic skill. Though he differentiated cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) from basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS), Cummins emphasized the role of context for both skills. He claimed that for both dimensions of CALP and BICS the context, in which the language is used, is of crucial significance. Apparently, the communicative competence has established itself as a popular notion for language study. This wave of interest drew other linguists' attention to the subject. Before analyzing what makes up the construct of communicative competence, let us quote Canale and Swain's definition of CC: "Communicative competence is composed minimally of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and communication strategies or what we will refer to as strategic competence. There is no strong theoretical or empirical motivation for the view that grammatical competence is any more or less crucial to successful communication than is sociolinguistic competence or strategic competence" (Canale and Swain, 1980: 27). They single out four components of CC:

1. Grammatical competence - "knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology (Canale and Swain, 1980: 29)
2. Discourse competence - a set of meaningful utterances focusing on relationship between sentences.
3. Sociolinguistic competence –analyzing language in social context; knowledge of socio-cultural rules of language
4. Strategic competence – "verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficient competence" (Canale and Swain, 1980: 30).

All of these approaches by linguists are in agreement on a key factor: grammatical theory and analysis occupy a special place in understanding a communicative aspect of the language. We advocate the idea that CC must be examined on the basis of integration of different types of knowledge regardless of the aspect it reflects: a purely linguistic system or a sociolinguistic one. However, grammatical analysis concerns not only word-formation and sentence combining principles, but also those principles which govern interpretation of linguistic units on phonological, morphological, syntactical and super-syntactical levels. Radford describes grammar as the study of "the principles which govern the formation and interpretation of words, phrases and sentences" (Radford, 1998: 1) and notes that structural aspects of meaning are said to be part of the domain of grammar. We might generalize our argument at this point in the following terms: grammatical competence is part of a speaker's implicit, internal knowledge which is complete and perfect in its own turn, while grammatical performance can be incomplete and imperfect by its nature. The conclusion which our discussion here leads us to is that grammatical competence helps us use grammatically correct words, phrases and sentences.

Let us assume that a speaker is equipped with a wide range of vocabulary. Will the knowledge of thousands of words be enough to claim that the speaker knows a language? The question arises in regard with proficient use of the language. In this respect, Chomsky's postulates are fairly persuasive. He emphasizes the concern of grammatical aspects of the language. What all of this suggests is that a person is expected to know a language only in case he has already mastered a set of grammatical rules comprising sound and meaning correlation to produce an infinite number of possible sentences. Even knowing a single word as a linguistic unit involves being aware of sound and meaning interrelation. That is why a speaker starts to segment the stream of sounds into separate words to make his or her utterance sensible. Each word as a sound-meaning unit is stored in a speaker's mental lexicon and contributes to his linguistic knowledge. This linguistic knowledge also includes information about grammatical peculiarities of the word, e.g. knowledge of morphemic characteristics of the word, word classes and their morphological and syntactical categories, principles for sentence construction theory, etc. It seems reasonable to suppose that without this knowledge, a speaker would not be able to deliniate the differences between grammatical and ungrammatical sentences. Accordingly, we might generalize our discussion at this point in the following terms: Words belong to morpho-syntactic categories which are governed by structural principles of a specific language and can be invariant across languages. However, an obvious decomposition of sentences into phrases, phrases into words, words into morphemes, morphemes into phonemes implies a universal property of a human language; if a speaker is unaware of essential grammatical peculiarities of a word, then utterance or text becomes a set of ungrammatical sentences that might sound senseless and chaotic to a greater extent.

The Principle of Analogy

Let us start by defining morpheme and morphology. A morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of a language which has external and internal aspects. Morphemes may include roots and affixes. There also exists the notion of a zero morpheme for those word forms which have neither internal (notional) nor external (sound) realization, e.g., the plural of nouns such as 'sheep" - the number of plurality is not overtly marked. Clearly, the main distinction between morphemes is based on meaning. We can distinguish grammatical (inflectional) morphemes from lexical (derivational) morphemes. The types of morphemes with a few examples are illustrated below:

Morpheme

grammatical lexical

function word	inflectional affix	content word	derivational affix
and, but, so, because, for	s, ed,'s, ing	go, clock, slow	ful, less, ment, tion

In terms of a traditional definition, morphology is the study of internal structure of words, characteristics of their grammatical categories and their semantics. In a fairly apparent sense, grammatical operations in a language are category-based. Let's look briefly at what is implied by a grammatical category. It is commonly stated that in order to account for a grammatical category, significance of the notion of opposition is to be recognized. Any grammatical category must be represented by two contrasted grammatical forms at least. As an illustration, a simple example of opposition can be traced in the number of nouns. i.e., singularity vs. plurality. It follows that grammatical categories are made up by the unity of identical grammatical meanings. Thus, a grammatical category can be defined as an opposition of two or more mutually exclusive form - classes sharing a common set of grammatical properties. Similarly, on the principle of opposition, distinction between derivational and inflectional morphology is maintained. In this respect, syntactic information is encoded in inflection whereas derivation encodes lexical meaning. This being so, we can say that a grammatical category has two sides: external (meaning) and internal (form). A grammatical category does not exist without a grammatical form, which in its own turn implies the presence of opposition.

There is much interest today among linguists in the relationship between internal and external signs of words. To a greater extent, word-formation processes are rule-governed. However, we predict that there are no morphological rules which would be fully productive for derivation. A derivational process is considered to be completely productive in case it can produce a derived word from every appropriate target word on the basis of pre-existing source words. It leads us to the following view that it is doubtful und unconvincing whether any derivational process is fully productive. Some of them seem to be very productive while others can be either hardly productive or unproductive at all.

Let us provide further and more thorough explanation in regard with morphological evidence of a language. Along with the study of an internal structure of words, morphology (accidence) concerns with word-formation rules as well. In particular, relevant morphological evidence is based on inflectional and derivational properties of words. According to Radford, morphological properties of a word provide "an initial rough guide to its categorical status" but as he claims "we cannot always rely entirely on morphological clues, owing to the fact that inflectional morphology is sometimes irregular, and derivational morphology often has limited productivity" (Radford, 1998 : 35). He gives an example of the word "fat" which has no negative un +counterpart, (unfat) no adverb (fatly) and no noun (fatness) counterparts. According to Fromkin, discreteness of a language is an important part of linguistic creativity and by having morphological knowledge involving meanings and affixation rules of morphemes, a speaker can combine morphemes in numerous ways to create new ones. E.g. by virtue of knowledge of the discrete morphemes such as re, able, un, etc. a speaker can create new words whose meanings will be clear-cut to others. Radford draws our attention to the fact that morphemes may have more than one use and this makes "morphological evidence" very problematic. He considers that in order to determine a categorical status of a word, morphological criteria should be used in conjunction with syntactic ones. He proposes the technique of "substitution", e.g., differentiation between "better" as an adjective and "better" as an adverb is obvious as long as substitution test is applied, i.e. seeing whether the word in question can be substituted by a representative from a suggestive word class. Thus, meaning and form interrelation constitutes a grammatical paradigm and can lead to polysemy, synonymy and homonymy in morphology. Morphological polysemy implies representation of the word-form to different word classes. e.g. "but" may function as a conjunction, a preposition and as an adverb. What is meant by morphological synonymy is reflection of a variety of representations by different word classes for the same meaning. e.g. due to (adjective), thanks to (noun), because of (preposition). Morphological homonymy can be described as phonetic equivalents with different grammatical functions, e.g., a verb such as "look" comes to serve both as a verb and as a noun as well.

As noted earlier, knowledge of morphology comprises knowledge of not only pronunciation and meaning of individual morphemes, but also knowledge of word-formation and word combining rules. What we mean by the latter is the process of derivation i.e. forming new words according to regular pattern based on the basis of attested words. Herewith, we might refer to derivational morphology as a very complex process. Let us put forward a few questions that add up to our study interest here. 1. Whatever our morphological knowledge is, do we take risks of inventing new words? 2. What problematic aspects are more persistent in morphological analysis?

A tacit assumption made in our analysis here is that a very crucial aspect for derivational morphology is the phenomenon of analogy. Let us suppose that analogy is a modeling building block according to which other blocks are shaped. If our reasoning here is along the right lines, then analogy is the mechanism by which words can easily be derived on the basis of associative or similar sets of words. Still, how does it happen that the words which are not fixed in dictionaries are semantically meaningful, pragmatically efficient but morphologically irrelevant? The point is that words which are the product of derivational processes are commonly described and fixed in dictionaries. They have their individual entries with information about the word formation processes involved. Accordingly, we might argue that we tend to take risks when inventing new forms. As an illustration, let us consider a few examples.

1. We know that the suffix “able” is typically attached to transitive verbs such as washable, readable, predicable, rewritable, recordable and that is why “diable” is unacceptable because of its intransitivity. However, there can be found words of transitive nature which can not adhere the same suffix, e.g.: This dog is walkable. These are runnable shoes. The snow is meltable. Are these sentence composed of ungrammatical words?

2. Let’s look briefly at examples of adjectival suffixes “full” and “less”. If we assume that analogy is the main mechanism by which new words can be formed on the basis of similarities with attested words, how can we explain the fact that words such as “homeful,” “pointful,” “peaceless” or “delightless” are nonce-words? They will never be recognizable by dictionaries despite the fact that their meanings are clear-cut. We now turn to look at another type of adjectival irregularities over rule-governed pattern. The word “legal” maintains Latin origin and it has some common etymological features with the word “loyal”. If “illegal” is a correct form, why is “illoyal” considered to be incorrect then? The above instances prove that the principle of analogy does not always work.

As an experiment, we provided 45 students of English Philology at Batumi Shota Rustaveli State University with two sets of tasks to do: first, a set of tasks with model words (of different parts of speech) to observe morphemic structure of words and second, a set of roots of different word classes to predict new forms through derivation according to the suggested chart. (See the tasks below.)

Step 1.

Task 1. Divide the following words into morphemes.

	prefix	root	suffix
example: undeniable	un	deny	able
prepayment	__________	__________	__________

dislocation	_________	_________	_________
shorten	_________	_________	_________
invaluable	_________	_________	_________
unsinkable	_________	_________	_________
encouragement	_________	_________	_________
alligator	_________	_________	_________
unemployment	_________	_________	_________
ungrateful	_________	________	_________
illegal	_________	________	_________

Task 2. Analyze the following words according to morphemes using the model given below:

	Prefix(es)	Root	Suffix(es)
Example: inequality	in	equal	ity

1. inconsiderate...
2. unbelievable ....
3. overcooked ....
4. transcontinental ....
5. hyperactivity...
6. unforgettable...
7. interdependence..
8. subways..
9. overloaded..
10. discouraged...

Task 3. Divide the following words into morphemes and write R for root, D for derivational affix, or and I for inflectional suffix.

Examples: restlessness rest - less - ness

R - D - D

blackboards ____

sailors ____

paperboys ____

unhappily ____

recycling (v) ____

irresponsibility____

publicist ____

betoken ____

washable ____

player's ____

Step 2. Complete this table. Include all possible derived forms you can think of, including negative forms.

Put a cross in the box if you think that the form does not exist.

NOUN	VERB	ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
economy			
		poor	
			fashionably
home			
	Finance		
	Commercialize		
		warm	
			expensively
	Invest		
	Pay		
		popular	
	Run		
	Act		
harm			

	converse		
		journalistic	
	Enthuse		
friend			
ability			
			deeply

The results were quite impressive. 73 % of predictions were correct. Having figured out some similarities between the roots of two sets of words, the students managed to compute analogical sets of words to a greater certainty. Noteworthy, the instances of failure emerged from the fact that some derivational affixes such as "th" (e.g depth) are less productive or unproductive. They are attached to only a limited number of roots and are idiosyncratic in nature. Consequently, to which roots less productive suffixes will adhere is arbitrary and unpredictable by rule.

Conclusion

In our analysis presented here we have emphasized the importance of grammatical knowledge and defined and illustrated the notion of derivational morphology highlighting its problematic aspects. Thus, we might generalize our discussion in the following terms: It seems reasonable to suppose that unless the so called invented words or anticipated/predicted words are fixed in dictionary entries, we cannot regard them the result of productivity through derivational process. Herewith, the principle of analogy is a reliable factor which performs successfully with cases of affixation. It can predict a new derivative based on semantic features of both involved affixes and bases as well. The overall conclusion to be drawn from our discussion is that even though theory of derivational morphology is rather complex, its rules are universal, descriptive and explanatory in character to a greater extent.

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