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Nahla Mahmoud Abd

Tikrit University, College of Education for Women

Madeha Saif Al-Deen Saleh

Tikrit University, College of Education for Women

* Corresponding author: E-mail :

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The Impact of Telegraphic Cue Activities on EFL Iraqi Pupils' Production

ABSTRACT

While the importance of English as an international language cannot be overstated, Iraqi pupils need to develop skills for creative communication in both spoken and written forms; however, many pupils struggle with fluency and creativity due to insufficient exposure to effective teaching strategies. In this regard, Telegraphic Cue Activities play a crucial role as they may exploit the natural tendencies of learners in using cues composed largely of content words. However, the effect of Telegraphic Cue Activities on creative communication has not been significantly investigated in the Iraqi context. The current study, therefore aims to identify the impact of TCA on Iraqi EFL pupils' written and spoken production and to test the hypothesis that There is no statistically significant difference in the experimental group of EFL Iraqi pupils who are engaged in TCA in their spoken and written communication than in the control group who are not. Following a quasi-experimental treatment, 60 fourth-year preparatory female pupils, consisting of an equal number of pupils from Al-Khansaa Preparatory School for Girls, Kirkuk, were equally divided into experimental and control groups. Pupils in the experimental group received Telegraphic Cue Activities-based classes while those in the control group followed conventional communicative courses. Both groups were administered a validated achievement test in both components of creative communication before and after treatment. The results revealed that Telegraphic Cue Activities are effective for spoken language development, as they significantly enhanced the pupils' oral creative expression, whereas only a negligible improvement was noted in the written communication of the pupils, which shows that written communication needs extra supplementary support. The study therefore recommends that Telegraphic Cue Activities-based lessons should be integrated into the EFL instructional plan to promote oral creativity, accompanied by a different set of writing approaches to enhance written communication.

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تأثير الأنشطة البرقية على نتاج الطلاب العراقيين

مديحة سيف الدين صالح / جامعة تكريت، كلية التربية للبنات

نهلة محمود عبد / جامعة تكريت، كلية التربية للبنات

الخلاصة:

تعتبر اللغة الإنجليزية من أهم اللغات العالمية، ورغم ذلك يواجه الطلاب العراقيون صعوبات في تنمية

الاتصال الإبداعي سواء الشفوي أو الكتابي، وترجع هذه المشكلة إستراتيجيات التدريس التقليدية التي تعتمد على الحفظ والتلقين. نتيجة لذلك تظهر أهمية استخدام الإشارات البرقية كطريقة جديدة ومبتكرة نظرا لاستخدامها الميل الطبيعي لدى الطلاب في استخدام عبارات قصيرة لا تتضمن سوى الكلمات المفتاحية ذات الدلالة الرئيسية، لتسهيل عملية التواصل. ونضرا الى انه لم يتم استكشاف تأثير الإشارات البرقية على تطوير التواصل الإبداعي في البيئة العراقية بشكل واف، لذا تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى معرفة أثر الإشارات البرقية في تحسين التواصل الإبداعي والشفوي والكتابي لدى طلاب اللغة الإنكليزية للمرحلة الإعدادية في العراق. كما تسعى الدراسة إلى معرفة صحة الفرضية الأولى صحيحة والتي تشير الى عدم وجود فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية بين الطلاب الذين يتعلمون بلاشارات البرقية وبين الطلاب الذين يتعلمون بالطرق التقليدية. تم استخدام التصميم النصف تجريبي، وشملت الدراسة ٦٠ طالبة من الصف الرابع الإعدادي في اعدادية الخنساء للبنات في محافظة كركوك، وتم تقسيم العينة إلى مجموعتين متساويتين المجموعة التجريبية حيث تم تدريسها باستخدام الاشارات البرقية، والمجموعة الضابطة التي تم الاعتماد في تدريسها على الطريقة التقليدية. تم تطبيق اختبار تحصيلي على الطالبات في كلا الجانبين قبل وبعد التجربة. أظهرت النتائج أنّ الإشارات البرقية كانت فعالة في تحسين الوظيفة التعبيرية الشفوية للطالبات وقد تحسن أداء الطالبات بشكل ملحوظ اما فيما يخص وظيفة التعبير الكتابي فقد كان تحسن أداء الطالبات بنسبة متواضعة، بناءً على النتائج المستخلصة توصي الدراسة بتوظيف الإشارات البرقية في مناهج اللغة الإنكليزية كلغة أجنبية بهدف تعزيز الإبداع الشفوي في الوقت ذاته يجب تزويد الطلاب بأساليب كتابية مختلفة.

يعبر الباحث عن شكره وامتنانه لمكتبة جامعة تكريت لرفد البحث بكل ما هو جديد ومعتمد في الحقل المعرفي الخاص بالبحث

1.1 Introduction

Brown (2000) claims that the English language is now a major worldwide communication tool indispensable for business, education, technology, and cross-cultural contacts. Iraqi schools teach English as a foreign language (EFL), and pupils are supposed to grow in both creative written and spoken communication skills as well as in linguistic proficiency. If pupils are to solve problems, express original ideas, and participate actively in real-life interactions, they must be able to communicate creatively (Ahmed et al., 2015). Many Iraqi EFL pupils, however,

suffer from fluency and creativity when they lack experience with successful teaching strategies that inspire impromptu and creative language use.

Telegraphic speech is a speech phenomenon known as a normal step in language acquisition, where pupils produce speech that contains only important content words or keywords to convey meaning. Has been employed in language education to help get pupils started talking (American TESOL Institute, 202٤). **Telegraphic Cue Activities (TCA henceforth)** are designed to take advantage of this natural way of speaking by using shortened cues to elicit more meaningful communications from the pupil. This approach can help to close the distance between basic language competency and creative expression. Although the potential benefits are enormous, few studies have examined how **TCA** influences the creative output of Iraqi EFL pupils, particularly in terms of the integration of spoken and written modalities.

Although earlier research has shown how well cue-based techniques improve language fluency and pupils' confidence (Stegmaier, 2011), their exact impact on creative communication is yet unknown. Furthermore, many times Iraqi EFL classrooms lack creative language use strategies that actively involve pupils, thus compromising their communicative ability and motivation. The present study, then, seeks to investigate the impact of **TCA** on the creative communication production of Iraqi EFL pupils, aiming to determine whether **TCA** can significantly improve their ability to produce language in a creative and comprehensible manner in both spoken and written English.

The objective of the study is to identify the impact of **TCA** on Iraqi EFL pupils' written and spoken production. The study hypothesizes that: There is no statistically significant difference in the experimental group of EFL Iraqi pupils who are engaged in **TCA** in their spoken and written communication than in the control group who are not.

The scope of the study is limited to:

- 1- Fourth-year scientific preparatory school pupils at "Al-Khansaa Preparatory School for Girls" in Kirkuk Governorate.
- 2- Units 1, 2, and 3 of the "English for Iraq" 4th Preparatory Student's Book
- 3- The academic year 2024-2025

2.1 Theoretical Background

2.1.1 Telegraphic Cue

Early-stage language, Telegraphic speech is a case in point. Both children in their earliest speech-making efforts and pupils studying EFL produce simple statements targeting the content words. Careless alike of Nouns and Verbs. However, they put more emphasis on content words, which appear to grow wary of these function words (Douglas, 2023). The ubiquitous use of the zero copula in the SV family makes sentences seem shorter because they are less complex.

Using function words and some meaningful vocabulary as intermediaries, communication is simplified for the learner. This reduces cognitive load and makes it easier to memorize and understand material (Halili, 2017). Telegraphic speech is good for language acquisition. It provides learners with the chance to build sentences, communicate among themselves effectively, and move towards fluency (Karande 2024).

Crucially, telegraphic cues balance content and function words. Instead, function words are gradually introduced as children become more proficient. Such a developmental approach respects development stages, heads off overload, and allows for secure, meaningful communication.

2.1.2 Telegraphic Cue: A Significant Landmark in Linguistic Advancement

Young children and EFL speakers in particular use a simplified representational and telegraphic speech, e.g., “go park” or “want cookie”, without full grammar (Douglas, 2023). Children and adult language learners practice these not-sentences, but learn from them as well, as they develop their understanding of grammar and vocabulary. Teachers need to be aware of these patterns and correct them for pupils to attain linguistic competence and not develop bad pronunciation habits. Junior pupils demonstrate the development of basic language awareness, rapid language, and cognitive development when they are actively taught simple grammar and noun and verb forms (Venker et al., 2019). Telegraphic speech is a significant turning point for students. Sentence combining is a crucial reading technique, especially in the Common Core era.

1. Telegraphic speech facilitates pupils' understanding of the basic sentence with the use of crude nouns and verbs in the right order. Though grammar continues to be a struggle, the stage helps them to create sentences and to begin writing, a significant aspect of their language.
2. Telegraphic cues help pupils in expressing opinions, exchanging ideas about their surrounding environment, and conveying feelings to one another in a more efficient pattern and diminish frustration caused by ineffective communication.
3. Through practice, learners progress to higher levels of language complexity: vocabulary and comprehension expand, and learners readily learn more sophisticated sentence structures and grammar (Karande, 2024).

2.1.3 Features of Telegraphic Speech

- **Omission of Function Words**

Telegraphic speech, common in young children and those learning a first language, consists of some kind of content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives) alone without function words (articles, prepositions), as in, for instance “want cookie” or “car drive” (Venker et al., 2019). By easing the burden of complex grammar, telegraphic speech allows learners to concentrate on the essential meaning; the result is clear, direct, and comprehensible messages – perfect for language learners. This now facilitates language development by aiding in word learning, pronunciation, and syntactic imitation, and frequently yields better comprehension than complex sentences (Wolfe & Heilmann, 2010). This is particularly beneficial for EFL pupils to learn vocabulary and sentences first, before they progress to more abstract grammar (Ellis, 1997), and it increases the recollection and retention of the main points (Lewis, 2020). Telegrammic speech is effective, as is that of the simple media headlines, primarily because they are memorable and believable (Lund, 2005), and they can be naturally tailored or adapted easily for different audiences and contexts, thus leading to a better-quality communicative process.

- **Use of Basic Word Order**

As Wells (1986) points out, telegraphic speech offers learners prototype sentences which underlie early rule learning as well as provide the basis for more mature grammar. This word order is in line with clear, transparent communication, especially for those with difficulty in complex grammar and for fast, efficient means

of expression (Nelson, 1985). Through the focus on the ‘unforgotten’ part and low acquisition of unnecessary words, telegraphic speech instruction facilitates the speaker and hearer in their cognitive load (Ellis, 1997), in turn promoting vocabulary and sentence structure growth. In short, SVO word order not only facilitates self-expression but also facilitates how children learn language, for they can learn simple phrases first before learning complex sentences.

2.1.4 Content words vs Function words

A **content word** supplies the main semantic load of a sentence; they are typically nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. They lay out most of the raw information required for understanding or expressing concepts. In “The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog,” “fox”, “jumps”, “quick,” and “lazy” are just some examples of content words.

1. Nouns: persons, locations, objects, and concepts (dog, city, happiness).
2. Verbs: Actions (like run) and states (like is, happened).
3. Adjectives: modifying nouns (blue, fast, beautiful).
4. Adverbs → words that describe verbs/adjectives (quickly, very, well).

Function words carry little to no lexical meaning, but are grammatical words that encapsulate the structure of a sentence, not its meaning. These words are prepositions, pronouns, determiners, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs, and particles. For instance, the and over in the above sentence are function words.

1. Prepositions: all about relationships (in, on, at).
2. Pronouns — these replace nouns, such as he, they, it, etc.
3. Noun phrases: Determiners: (e.g., a, the, some) – specify nouns
4. Conjunctions are used to connect clauses/words (e.g., and, but, because).
5. An auxiliary verb: helping verbs that are used with a main verb (i.e., be, have, will)
6. Particles: create phrasal verbs (e.g., up in look up)

Making this distinction is important in language development because learners first have to classify their words into content and function classes, assisting in

understanding complex grammar and sentence structure (Morgan, Shi, & Allopenna, 1998).

2.1.5 Telegraphic Speech and Cognitive Development

Telegraphic speech demonstrates considerable cognitive and linguistic development in that learners are using key nouns and verbs to semantically express themselves without mastering grammar. This indicates developing syntactic and semantic consciousness, enhances communicative effectiveness, and precludes environmental interaction impairments (Karande, 2024).

In the EFL situation, telegraphic cues (short, meaning-focused sentences) indicate learners' communicative competence. Teachers can utilize this telegraphic speech as scaffolding in interaction, which promotes fluency (Vygotsky, 1978), but combine it with grammatical accuracy to avoid overgeneralizing. Language simplification may take the form of either grammatical or telegraphic input: grammatical simplification applies grammatical rules (e.g., "Go Mommy"), whereas telegraphic simplification eliminates grammar for concision (e.g., "Cup full after Mommy put in"), which may impede grammatical development. Telegraphic speech, as found in old telegrams, omits adjectives and articles to deliver the content meaning of a message with reduced cognitive burden at the expense of reduced opportunities to predict grammatical word forms (van Kleeck et al., 2010). Use accurate, simple sentences with good grammatical cues to support both expressive and receptive language, especially with children who have language disorders.

2.1.7 Telegraphic cue activities

1- Coloring Conversation

(Materials) Coloring pages based on a theme (such as scenes set in space)

(Activity) Students use telegraphic phrases to describe colors: "red star" instead, model entire sentences (e.g., "The star is red") to practice grammar. This encourages vocabulary and copying (Meleen, 2019).

2-Telegraphic Story Questions

(Materials) Simple picture books

(Activity): Reference when reading (e.g., "Who runs?"). And prompt answers such as, "Boy runs." Helps develop an understanding of narrative (Meleen, 2019).

3-Role-Playing Simulations

(Materials): Props (e.g., toy food in a restaurant scene)

(Action)"Want pizza"—how students use it in an activity. Presents functional language in context (Meleen, 2019).

4-Picture Descriptions

(Materials)Visuals of common locations (Example: Park, Kitchen)

(Activity): Describe images using telegraphic phrases, e.g., Dog bark improves abilities in observation and note-taking (Gabig, 2021).

5-Sentence Strips

(Materials) slips with words or expressions (nouns, verbs, adjectives)

(Activity) They can then arrange them into sentences (ex, Cat Sleep). (Gabig, 2021).

2.1.8 Teaching EFL with Telegraphic Cues: Roles, Strategies, and Theory

In EFL classrooms, telegraphic cues act as effective scaffolds, enabling pupils to communicate before mastering full grammar. Teachers model and gradually increase complexity, guiding pupils from simple phrases to full sentences. Interactive activities, visual aids, and cooperative tasks enhance engagement, while teachers provide supportive feedback and scaffold real-world communication (Venker et al., 2015; Colorado Colorín, 2021; Gillick, 2021). pupils actively participate, collaborating with peers and reflecting on language use, which fosters fluency, confidence, and responsibility for learning. This approach aligns with Communicative Language Teaching CLT, prioritizing meaningful interaction and fluency over formal accuracy (Thomson, 2024). The theoretical foundation blends Social Interactionist Theory (Vygotsky, 1978) and behaviorism, supporting pupils at their current level while guiding them toward more complex expression.

1.2 Previous Studies

The telegraphic cue strategy had not been studied previously in the context of teaching. However, studies related to its therapeutic use have been analysed. For instance, Schaar (2021) investigated speech-language pathology graduate students' level of knowledge and use of telegraphic input based on a survey with 48 students

and ten children with ID. The research revealed that 63% claimed to understand telegraphic communication, 32% were not sure, and 5% could not recognize the term at all. This indicates a knowledge gap in telegraphic communication during speech pathology training.

3. Methodology and Procedures

This study uses an experimental design appropriate for testing hypotheses and analyzing the impact of particular teaching strategies (Creswell, 2017). A pretest-posttest design not randomized is employed: the experimental group is taught with TCA, and the control group is taught conventionally. Pre- and posttest measures using tests for the language materials will be employed to test the effects of TCA on language development, to develop an understanding of effective methods for teaching language. (Sample group composition can be found in Table 3.1.

1. Two groups of pupils are selected at random and designated as the experimental and control groups.
2. Ensuring the experimental and control groups are comparable in age, parental education, and prior English scores.
3. The independent variable is exclusively applied to the experimental group.
4. The two groups receive instruction on the identical content from the textbook.
5. The experimental group receives instruction based on the TCA, while the control group is instructed using the Communicative method.
6. Implementing the Posttest for the two participating groups of pupils.
7. Utilizing suitable statistical tools to analyze the collected data and obtain the final results.

Table (3.1)

The Experimental Design of the Study

Groups	Pre-test	Independent variable	Posttest
E. G	Pretest	TCA	Post-Test
C. G	Pretest	Conventional Method	Post-Test

3.2 Population and Sample Selection

The ‘population’ refers to the whole group having in common the character under consideration in the study (Garg, 2016). For this study, the sample is a group of Iraqi EFL fourth preparatory stage pupils who have studied in the city of Kirkuk during 2024–2025. The sample is defined as a subgroup in the population (Richard et al., 1992). The subjects of the present study are 60 pupils from Al-Khansaa Preparatory School for Girls who are randomly divided equally into two groups: the experimental group and the control group Table 3.2, with 30 pupils for each group, to have adequate assurance of the effectiveness of the teaching method.

Table (3.2)

The Sample of the Study

Group	Section	Number	Total
E. G	A	30	60
C.G	B	30	

2.3 Test construction

Researchers use the post-test to ascertain that differences between control and experimental groups are statistically significant. Accordingly, they could formulate a test based on the type of subject at the beginning of the study.

2.4 Face Validity

Face validity — or the appearance that a test measures what it is intended to measure (Patton, 1997; Brown, 2001). This test was reviewed by English language professionals, and they made suggestions for the revision and confirmed the appropriateness of the test for measuring student development in oral and written output. Following modifications, professionals reached consensus on content, question type, and scoring, and a group of ELT experts confirmed the appropriateness of the test for its purposes.

3.5 Content Validity

Content validity is the extent to which a test covers the domain it purports to measure (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007). As posited by Brown and Abeywickrama

(2010), a test has content validity if its items represent fair samples of the kinds of skills targeted and if pupils are required to perform the tasks the test is designed to measure. Content validity can be supported by assessment of the target population, skills tested, test items, and scoring rubric.

3.6 Pilot Administration of the Posttest

A pilot study has as its objectives these:

1. To ensure whether the items are appropriate
2. To examine the test items, the difficulty level, and the discrimination power of the items
3. To assess the clarity of the test instructions
4. to know how much time the examiners need to answer the given questions.

For the present study, a pilot study is highly advised. Fifteen pupils from the fourth scientific class at Al Kansaa Preparatory School for Girls are chosen at random for this aim. The pilot test took place under conventional settings in a classroom on December 15, 2024. Afterwards, the researcher herself gathers and fixes the taste papers. The researcher and another English teacher then deliver the oral test.

In the aftermath of conducting the pilot study, the researcher discovers that:

1. There is no serious ambiguity in the instructions of the posttest.
2. The time required to answer the test items ranges between 45-50 minutes for the posttest.

3.7 Reliability of the Posttest

- Reliability is crucial to excellent tests. Reliability is when a test gives the same result to the same pupils under the same conditions (Verma & Beard, 1981). (Alderson, Clapham, & Wall, 1995, p.294), dependability "is the degree to which test scores tend to stay the same." Ravitch (2007) details this notion and emphasizes its usefulness in exact measurement. Cronbach's alpha determined posttest reliability. The result was 0.87, indicating internal consistency (George & Mallery, 2016).

3.8 Item Analysis

The test items need to be analyzed to determine two key features: difficulty level and discrimination power.

3.8.1 Difficulty Level

Rosas (2000) states that the difficulty level is based on how many pupils answered each item correctly. Item difficulty is how complicated or simple an item is in a certain number of scores. It shows the percentage of pupils who identified the object correctly. The difficulty ranges of most approved test items fall between 0.15 and 0.85 (Brown, 2010). The sixty pupils were split into two groups following the highest to lowest results ranking. The overall number of pupils in both upper and lower groups divides the total scores of pupils who correctly answer exam items. To project the degree of difficulty (DL) of every item. The test items had DLs ranging from 0.30 to 0.72.

2.8.2 Discrimination Power

The difficulty ranges of most approved test questions are between 0.15 to 0.85 (Brown, 2010). The thirty pupils were split into two groups following the highest to lowest results ranking. The overall number of pupils in both higher and lower groups divides the total scores of pupils who correctly answer exam items. To project the degree of difficulty (DL) of every item. The test items had DLs ranging from 0.30 to 0.72.

3.9 Final Administration of the Posttest

The final written exam was administered to both experimental and control groups on January 14, 2025, in two locations within a 45-minute range; the researcher supervised the test, assisted by two teachers from Al-Kansaa Preparatory Schools for Girls. Post-oral examinations were given to each group separately on January 15–16, 2024. The researcher then introduced the test aims, greeted the students, and established rapport. For the oral examination task, written questions were put inside a container, and the children were asked to pick one (without looking) and answer the question in handwriting on the respective slide with the researcher, who responded to each answer in writing.

4. Analysis of Data and Discussion of Results

4.1.1 Results

To accomplish the objective of determining the influence of TCA on the written and spoken production of Iraqi EFL pupils.

In order to characterize the ratings of the experimental and control groups in both written and oral performance, descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) are computed.

For the Written Test:

The experimental group's mean score is 47.97 points higher than that of the control group, which is 45.50 points. Based on the standard deviation, it is clear that the experimental group has a lower deviation. This implies that the experimental group's data distribution is more concentrated around the arithmetic mean.

Table (4-1)

The t-value for Iraqi EFL pupils' Written Creative Communication

Group	N	Mean	St. Deviation	St. Error Mean	T-Value	df	Sig.(2-Tailed)
E. G	30	47.97	6.636	1.212	1.122	58	0.267
C.G	30	45.50	10.044	1.834			

The results of Levene's Test suggest that the assumption of equal variances is not upheld ($F = 4.280, p = 0.043$). Consequently, the "Equal variances not assumed" entry in the independent samples t-test is implemented.

$t(50.265) = 1.122, p = 0.267$, the independent samples t-test indicates that there is no statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups in written creative communication.

Accordingly, it can be concluded that the written creative communication skills of the pupils have not been increased by applying TCA.

(Table 4-2)

Independent Sample Written Test for Equality of Variances

Equal Variances Assumed	N	F-Ratio	Sig.	df	Sig(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Err Difference	95% Confiden Interval of t Difference
							Lower	Upper
							-1.947	6.881

For the Oral Test:

The experimental group's mean score is 31.70 points higher than that of the control group, which is 21.64 points. From the standard deviation, it can be seen that the variance in the experimental group is less. That means the data in the experimental group centers their distribution nearer to their mean.

Table (4-3)

The t-value for Iraqi EFL pupils' Oral Creative Communication

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T-Value	DF	Sig.(2-Tailed)
E. G	3	31.70	6.331	1.156	5.493	58	0.000
C.G	3	21.64	7.251	1.450			

The assumption of equal variances is satisfied, as evidenced by Levene's Test (F = 0.285, p = 0.595). Thus, the "Equal variances assumed" entry is implemented.

A highly significant difference between the two groups was determined by the independent samples t-test (t (53) = 5.493, p = 0.000).

The control group was outperformed by the experimental group, which was exposed to TCA, by a mean difference of 10.060 points.

This implies that TCA have a substantial positive effect on the enhancement of the oral production abilities of the pupils.

Table (4-4)

Independent Sample Oral Test for Equality of Variances

Equal Variances Assumed	F-Ratio	Sig	t	Df	Sig(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
	0.285	0.595	5.49	58	0.000	10.060	1.831	6.387	13.733

The study found that TCA affect pupils' written and vocal creative communication differently. In the written communication exam, the experimental group scores somewhat higher ($M = 47.97$) than the control group ($M = 45.50$), but the difference is not statistically significant ($p = 0.267$). This shows that telegraphic cue exercises do not improve pupils' written communication abilities.

In contrast, the oral communication test scores varied greatly between groups. The experimental group outperformed the control group by 10.060 points, which is extremely statistically significant ($p = 0.000$). These findings show that telegraphic cue exercises improve oral creative communication but not written abilities in pupils.

This partially supports the null hypothesis that there is no statistically significant difference between the experimental group of EFL Iraqi pupils who use telegraphic cues in their oral and written communication and the control group. It is accepted for written communication (no difference) but rejected for spoken communication.

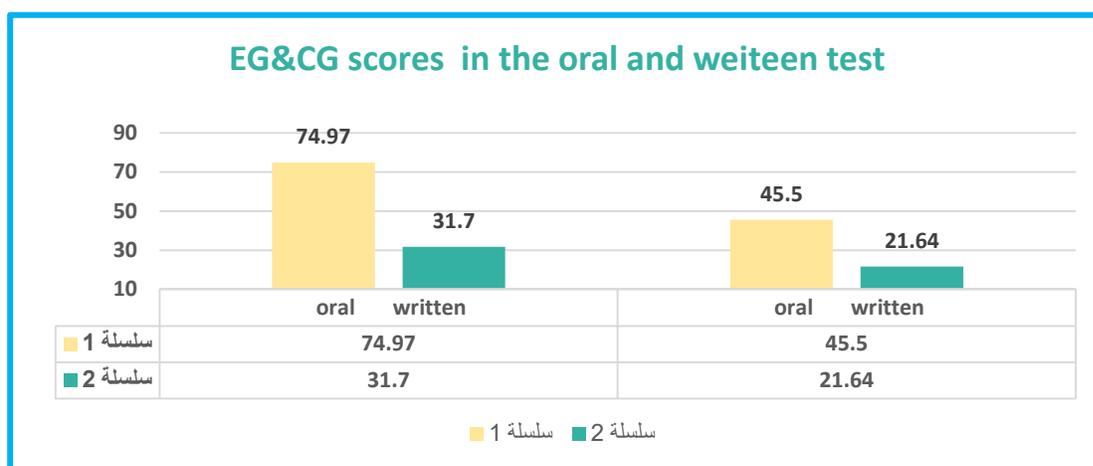
4.2 Discussion of Results

Results show a clear difference between written and spoken creativity. Although the experimental group ($M = 47.97$) scored higher than the control group ($M = 45.50$) in

the written exam, the difference was not statistically significant ($t = 1.122$, $p = 0.267$), indicating that TCA had little impact on writing. In written tests, the experimental group outperformed the control group ($M=31.70$ and 21.64 ; $t=5.493$, $p=0.000$), indicating that telegraphic cues enhance oral creativity (see figure 4.1).

Figure (4.1)

The scores of the EG & CG in the oral and written tests



This may be due to speaking work being simpler and requiring a clear understanding, whereas writing demands advanced grammar and structure. This implies that TCA promote Iraqi EFL pupils 'oral and written creativity, while the latter suggests partial adoption of the null hypothesis.

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