

#19, 2021
Special issue

International Journal
of

**MULTILINGUAL
EDUCATION**

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL of MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION

E ISSN 1512-3146 (ONLINE VERSION)

ISSN 1987-9601 (PRINT VERSION)

www.multilingualeducation.org

The 19th issue of the journal contains scientific articles based on the presentations presented at the International Conference **SELTAME 2021** held in Tbilisi on September 29-30, 2021.



EDITORIAL BOARD:

Ekaterina Protasova
Olivier Mentz
Jost Gippert
Vilija Targamadze
Ilze Kangro
Victoria Yashikina
Iryna Losyeva
Dmitry Novokhatskiy
Natela Imedadze
Ramaz Kurdadze
Mzia Tsereteli
Rhonda Sofer
Merab Beridze

University of Helsinki
Pädagogische Hochschule Freiburg
Johan Wolfgang Goethe-Universität Frankfurt
Vilnius University
University of Latvia
Oles Honchar Dnipropetrovsk National University
Ivan Franko National University of Lviv
Crimean University for Humanities
Ilia State University
Tbilisi State University
Tbilisi State University
Gordon Academic College of Education
Samkhe-Javakheti State University

Finland
Germany
Germany
Lithuania
Latvia
Ukraine
Ukraine
Ukraine
Georgia
Georgia
Georgia
Israel
Georgia

Publisher

*Center for Civil Integration and
Inter-Ethnic Relations”*

Address:

Tbilisi, 8/90 Mtskheta St.

Tel: (+995 032) 2922595

Web-site: www.cciir.ge/

E-mail: info@cciir.ge



CCIIR

Guest editor

Giuli Shabashvili (TSU), Georgia

CONTENT

Reuven Enoch (Ruben Erukashvili), From The Panther Skin to the Translations of the Holy Books by Georgian Jews - Linguistic Parallels	1
Nato Shavreshiani, The Subordinate Clause with Simple Object Hypotaxic Constructions in Svan	8
Medea Sagliani, General Linguistic Aspects of Borrowed Svan Vocabulary	16
Guranda Chelidze, Ekaterine Kardava & Zurab Bragvadze, Raising EU Awareness in Ethnic Minority Areas – Following the One Example of a Jean Monnet Project „Triangle Effect of European Studies at Schools“ (TEESS)	26
Gulzhana Kuzembayeva & Banu Zhakanova, Needs Analysis in English Language Teaching of Medical Students in Kazakhstan	45
Nino Bagration-davitashvili,, First Person and Second Person Markers as Representatives of a Case in a Verb Form	56
Liliya Makovskaya, Use of electronic feedback in second language writing: teachers’ and students’ views	66
Naira Bepievi, Teaching a Second (Foreign) Language in Diverse Classes	74
Akram Khosravi, The process of acquiring the heritage or home language by children in immigrant families (A case study of Iranian migrant families to Georgia)	81
Nino Chitishvili, Research of Developing the Oral-communication Skill while ERT (Emergency Remote Teaching) (in the example of teaching English for Bachelor’s degree at Higher Educational Institutions of Georgia)	88
Tamar Makharoblidze, The second language acquisition: problems and challenges for Georgian Deaf community	95
Tamar Kekelidze & Guranda Kukuladze, TED talks as listening activities in the ESP classroom	101
Tsisana Giguashvili & Dali Sanaia, Teaching grammar in context and multilingual environment	113
Babulia (Khatuna) Akhobadze, Teaching grammar in context and multilingual environment	119
Maia Kikvadze Issues of mastering new vocabulary in Georgian, as in the process of learning a second language	127
Rusudan Saginadze Grammatical-pragmatic aspects of teaching verb forms to non-Georgian speakers	135
Nana Shavtvaladze Linguistic formulas – a priority of modern teaching "In the universe of grammar I"	147
Zaal Kikvidze Glossonymics as a University Curricular Reality	152
Ana Lemonjava Word Meaning, Androcentrism, and Language Acquisition (Based on a survey of English proverbs)	165
Irine Demetradze The Use of Popular Songs and Films in Overcoming the Typical Mistakes of Georgian Learners of English	173
Nino Kemertelidze & Meri Giorgadze The Significance of Critical Thinking in Text Comprehension	182
Khatuna Gelashvili Some Interesting Internet Resources and Activities for Teaching a Foreign Language (English) Online	188
Mariam Orkodashvili Expressing volition, imposition and latency through causatives	195
Nana Saganelidze Problems of teaching verb categories (contact, version and passive voice) of the Georgian language to non-native speakers	208
Lela Bolkvadze Developing English speaking skills through written	217
Nino Chitishvili Research of Developing the Oral-communication Skill while ERT (Emergency Remote Teaching) (in the example of teaching English	232

Reuven Enoch (Ruben Enochashvili)

Ariel University, Israel

From The Panther Skin to the Translations of the Holy Books by Georgian Jews - Linguistic Parallels

ABSTRACT

In the present paper, we will discuss some of the linguistic parallels that exist between the panther and these translations. Of course, such parallels can be inferred if the above assumption about the timing of the translation is correct and, on the other hand, given the immeasurable impact both of these monuments had on their readers. We will touch on some interesting linguistic parallels that emerge when comparing texts.

Keywords: Vocabulary; translation, Georgian-Jewish linguistic relations; linguistic parallels

For centuries, Georgian Jews have preserved translations of the holy books and some other fundamental religious books, translated into their vernacular and known as "Tavsili" (translation, commentary). For the last ten to fifteen years, little was known about these translations in scientific circles. In 2008, a translation of the book of Genesis was published in Israel (Genesis, 2008) in three different editions, followed by an extensive study of the text a year later, and in 2014 a translation of the Passover Legend (the Feast of Tabernacles) was released to the public (Feast of Tabernacles, 2014). These translations were passed down from generation to generation orally among Georgian Jews. The spiritual leaders of the community have been teaching them for years (there were also special terms - „თავბიძგებ ღვჯ“ - "stand on the head"). Nowadays, when the vast majority of Georgian Jews live in Israel, the area of use of these translations is significantly reduced. Their fragments are mainly used in the preaching of the so-called "Dibra Torah" ("Torah is said"). There is no direct document as to the time of the creation of the translations. According to indirect data, this date is estimated to be the 11th- 12th C. (Enoch, 2009, p. 8). One of the proofs is the language of translation, which is close to the language of Georgian secular monuments of that time. The beauty of Rustaveli's eloquence (Glonti 1961; Giginishvili, 1975) has been studied in

detail in scientific literature, including the peculiarities of the great poet's pronunciation of names.

In this regard, the form *ვექმარებო* attracts attention: „*თუ შენ შენს ცოლს არ შეგერთავ, მე ჩემსა არ ვექმარებო*“ (*If you do not marry your wife, I do not marry mine*) (1466,4). It seems that this verb existed in Georgian at that time (or in any of its dialects) and Rustaveli used it so gracefully in the poem. The fact is that in the original text of Genesis, we find the form of the second series of this verb: „*მიდი იმათ ცოლსა ძმის შენისას და დაექმრე მას*“ (*Marry your brother's wife*). In the modern translation of the Bible, we have the equivalent of it. Also in Shalom David's translation: *ექმრე*.

A different edition is presented in the translation of Abram Mamistvalov, Tamar Mamistvalov-Kezerashvili, and Gershon Ben-Oren, where other lexical items are used: *შეირთე*. We see another edition in the old Georgian translation of the work - *ესობე* (O, AKS), *დაესობე* (CV). All these clearly indicate the diversity of Georgian vocabulary and to the fact that translators were not entirely sure which word would be more appropriate for the translated text. It is noteworthy that in both the text - in the panther skin and in the chapter we have the initial form of this verb:

1. „*შენგან ჩემისა ქმრობისა წინასცა ვიყავ მნდომია*“ (I thought I was before you in my manhood).;

2. „*და ის დარქმეული ქმრობითა*“ (20.3) (And he is called a virgin) (with a slight phonetic change), which literally means: because he is married. This is clearly seen in the old translation of the Bible: *ვეგე შეყოფილ არს ქმარსა*. (CB: *იგი თანა-მკვიდრ ქმრისა*).

This form is discussed by Shalva Glonti, who thinks that it, like a number of other verbs, must have been coined by Rustaveli. Of course, no one doubts the unique mastery of the great poet, but in this case, Ivane Gigineishvili's view that Rustaveli was well acquainted with the possibilities of the Georgian language and skillfully used the existing forms should be more correct. In our humble opinion, the fact that these forms can be found in Tavsili, which should have been created slightly earlier than the genius poem, backs up Ivane Gigineishvili's opinion (Gigineishvili, 1975, ; Ben-Oren, 1993). However, it should be emphasized that we are not discussing the case of influence here, but merely highlight that both Rustaveli and the anonymous creator of Tavsili use existing forms from the rich source of the Georgian language (Enoch, 2009).

Both texts also confirm the *ნუკევა* form, which is explained as follows: "request, supplication": „შენ გენუკვი მონახვასა“ (128, 4). An interesting phonetic variant of this verb is presented in the chapter: *გენუკები*, which means

"I beg you". We must repeat that the use of such forms indicates their existence in the Georgian language.

One of the forms used in Panther's skin needs careful consideration, as it can be understood in a different way from the traditional definition. We have in mind the verb *ჰლაღავს*: „მათ უხმობდა მხსნელად მათად, ტკბილად უჭვრეტს, არა ჰლაღავს“: 1646, 4. In the dictionary attached to the edition, this word is defined as: "does not quarrel." As it is known, Rustaveli's masterpiece was translated into Hebrew by Boris Gaponov (Gaponov, 1991) and this translation is recognized as congenial. It should be noted that in this case the translator does not follow the above definition and offers a different understanding: "ומענה ונתקרה להם" "ישענו" לאשמ. Translating this back to Georgian, we have the following situation: the primary meaning of לאשמ is „*ხსოვნა*“ (memory); the word מענה has essentially the same meaning, but it has a secondary meaning as well "plan or action that gives a solution". We should roughly understand the translation like this: pays enough attention (does not show lack of attention). It is difficult to say with certainty which understanding is more acceptable, but in our view, Rustaveli's researchers should also look to the Gaponovian understanding. We have an interesting word in one of the most beautiful stanzas of the Panther's skin, which is still used in some contexts in Georgian: „შენ ხარ მიზეზი სოფლისა ასრე გასამსალებისა“.

According to the definition, this word is related to "*სამსალა*" and is explained as follows: „*სამსალად ქცევა*“ (Becoming poison). It is interesting that Georgian Jews use even today, the modified version of this word: „*გასანსალება*“ (for example, in the materials collected in Kutaisi, the following sentence can be found: „*რათ უნდოდა ამ ხენაგ ასე გასანსალება*“ (Who and why made this Khenag dish (popular dish among Georgian Jews, made of wings and walnuts) so spicy/billet?. Of course, the meanings are very close, but for the sake of clarity, we point out that greed here means "bitterness" and maybe Rustaveli also had this meaning in mind.

Particular attention is paid to the form „*ხასი*“, which is confirmed several times in Rustaveli's poem with two different meanings:

1. "Person close to the king": „*წიგნსა მოვცემ, გმორჩილობდენ, ვინცა იყოს ჩემი*

ხასი“ (164, 4);

2. Genuine, pure: „*tarie;s udghvna gvirgvini, ver-„ტარიელს უძღვნა გვირგვინი, ვერ- დანადები ფასისა, იაგუნდისა მრთელისა, ყვითლისა, მეტად ხასისა*“ (1438, 2-3). The word *ხასი* is often found in the speech of Georgian Jews, and according to this we could add other meanings - "true", "saint of saints". This can be clearly seen from the short verse that is very common among Georgian Jews: „*შაბათი არი ხასი, რა არი მისი ფასი*“ (Saturday is a “khasi”, it is priceless). The words *დაახასებს, დაახასებინებს, ხასდება*, (characterizes) are derived from *ხასი*. The translation of Tavsili uses this very phrase: „*აკურთხა ღმერთმან იგი დღე მეშვიდე და დაახასა ის*“ (God blessed him on the seventh day and made him a saint): (*ენესის*, 2008, 2-3). In one of the previous works I expressed an opinion that the word *ძი* was used as “saint” in the speech of Georgian Jews (Enouch, 2009, p. 87). Thus, we can conclude that lexical items of approximately similar meaning were developing in parallel in the speech of Georgian Jews and in the Georgian literary language.

Another "common" word between Tavsili and Rustaveli's poem is „*პაემანი*“ (in Tavsili), which means "promise": „*ესერა პაემანი ჩემი შენ თანა*“: *Genesis*, 2008, 17, p. 4). In the section 17,2- 13, this lexical unit has been used several times. Sometimes the speaker left him unchanged, but in most cases he said "*პირობა*" instead. So for him these units are absolutely identical. The publishers of Panther's skin define the word “paemani” as agreement, pact, deadline. I think it should be clear that this lexical unit is used smoothly by both texts. Discussing any influence here does not seem justified. It is interesting in itself that Tavsil has preserved this archaic form.

In some cases, it is not so easy to bring the form confirmed in the translation of the poetic unit and the chapter to the "common meaning". For example, one of the most interesting forms of the poem is *გამეტადება* („*მან უბრძანა: აღარ გაჩყენ, აღარც სიტყვა გამეტადდეს*“), , which is defined as: "more behavior, exaggeration." The lexical unit attested in the chapter has the opposite meaning: „*გაამეთიადებს*“ (Divides into ten parts), and yet, in our opinion, it is not impossible to judge the common origin of these units not only because of external similarities but also as a result of the so-called meaning in one text, replace with the opposite meaning.

It is very interesting the form „*ბრძნობა*“ (wisdom) attested in the panther skin: „*ხელო*

კითხვის ბრძნობას“ (*The hand seems to make wisdom: 886, 1*). In Tavsili, in the translation of Agad, we find a new word derived from this verb:

„დაუბძენდეთ მათ, არამც გამრავლდეს“ (*We must act wisely so that they do not multiply*)... These examples once again show the great potential of Georgian vocabulary, which is used with true mastery by both the genius poet and the most talented translators of the Tavsili.

One of the most interesting lexical items in the poem is *დამართებით* (righteous): „*მან ბალოში დამართებით დადვა მას მზედ საქებარსა*“: 410,2. In this case, it really means "beyond", but there is no doubt that we are dealing with the same lexical unit. It is noteworthy that neither Iliia Abuladze (Abuladze, 1973) nor Zurab Sarjveladze's (Sarjveladze, 1995) old Georgian dictionaries have confirmed this lexical unit. With great caution, perhaps, we can say that it must have been the product of the time of the creation of the „Tavsili“ and „The Panther Skin“.

The word *ნასი*, which means "ugly, ugly", is often used in panther skin. It is a well-known complaint of Fatman: „*მით არ ჯერ ვარ ქმარსა ჩემსა, მჭლე არის და თვალად ნასი*“ In the speech of Georgian Jews, a slightly modified phonetic version of this word is used: *ნარსი*. R sound development is a completely normal process in Georgian; But In none of the translations of the Tavsili is this word found without the consonant r. The poem also confirms the accusation taken from this word: *დანასვა: „ახალმან ფიქრმან დათოვა, ვარდი დათრთვილა, დანასა“* 179,1), the explanation of which is "to become". Gaponov's (Gaponov, 1991) translation *לבי אייפיקה* - sound and freeze, which indicates a different understanding of the text and offers a different meaning of the word.

In the text of the poem we have the form "*მოზალდადენი*": „*ჰკადრეს: „ჩვენ ვართო მოზალდადენი ვაჭარნი*“ (1031, 1). According to the dictionary, the meaning of this word is "Baghdadi ". Gaponov's translation is as follows: *מבגדד העיר איתנו*. With the translation: "We are coming from Baghdad". It is noteworthy that there is a similar form in the speech of Georgian Jews: „*მესტამბოლე*“. This is a merchant who trades in Istanbul (another similar form is „*მერუსეთე*“ - a merchant who trades in Russia). We think that in this context „*მოზალდადენი*“ are the merchants who go to Baghdad to trade, and not the merchants from Baghdad anyway.

Every Georgian remembers the Rustaveli stanza from his childhood: „*ხატაეთს მყოფნი ყველანი ჩვენნი სახარაჯონია*“ (We pay the cost (contribution)). By definition, „*ხარაჯა*“ is a contribution. It seems that in Georgian there was a term not only to denote a contributor, but also a tribute. This is evidenced by the testimony of the „Tavsili“: In A edition of the translation we read: „*მეზაყეები*“; In the B edition, the translation is corrected and the word is used as *მეხარაჯეები*. It is clear that the speaker here is influenced by a new Georgian. In the text of the 60s of the twentieth century, but in the text preserved by oral tradition, a completely re-Georgianized form appears: "supervisors of works". Of course, it is especially valuable for us to show the A and B editions, according to which we are talking about tax collectors. So, we can present the specification regarding the lexical item under consideration.

In some cases, with the parallel forms of „Panther Skin“ and „Tavsili“, we can also discuss the possible time for certain words to enter the Georgian language. For example, the poem confirms „*მოშაით/ მუშაითი*“ forms: „*მგოსანი და მუშაითი უხმეს, პოვეს რაცა სადა*“ (119, 4); „*ჩემსა სიმცროსა გამზრდელნი სამუშაითოდ მზრდიდნან*“ (1394, 1). This lexical unit is not found in the passages published by the translation of the chapter, but is in the texts provided by the speakers. For example, Mrs. Eter Kezerashvili-Chikvashvili suggested a sentence from the speech of the Jews of Akhaltsikhe: „*მუშაითი გეგონება*“ This form is no longer found in the speech of the Jews today, and we may assume that it is a reminder of earlier eras.

We are sure that after publishing the rest of the chapter and comparing the texts, many more interesting materials will be revealed.

Nato Shavreshiani

*Arnold Chikobava Institute of Linguistics,
Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi, Georgia*

The Subordinate Clause with Simple Object Hypotaxic Constructions in Svan¹

ABSTRACT

The paper presents such hypotactic constructions in Svan, where the subordinate clause is a simple object and plays the role of a simple object to any member of the principal clause, explains and clarifies the meaning of the simple object expressed by the pronoun. There is no comprehensive research on this issue in the scientific literature, where the data of all four dialects (Upper Bal, Lower Bal, Lentekhian, Lashkian) would be considered. In our study, samples of Cholur speech are also presented, which provides a basis for making quite interesting conclusions. Research has shown that in Svan there is a lot of evidence of subordinate clause with simple object complex sentences and no significant difference between dialects is observed. The results of our research are also important in terms of teaching Svan.

Keywords: Svan language, Syntax, Sentence, Construction

One group of subordinate clauses perform the syntactic function of some member, and therefore their classification and naming are identical to those members. It is in this group that subordinate clause with simple object is also considered. A subordinate clause is a simple object if it refers to and explains the simple object expressed by the pronoun in the principal clause and presents its broad version.

As it is known, simple (unmarked) object, like in Georgian, is found in four cases of Svan – in dative case, in genitive case, in instrumental case and in adverbial case (with or with no postposition), accordingly subordinate clause with simple object also explains unmarked object inserted in above mentioned cases, which is presented by pronoun in the principal clause.

Let us discuss the correlation words presented by both with and with no postposition taking into account the data of all Svan dialects, including the Cholur speech, since according to the latter, nothing has been said in the scientific literature on this issue:

ტუფ ო თხუიმ ეჩიშ ლ'ე, დერჟუა ჩუადგარი... tup i txwim ečiš l'ē, jerwāj

čwadgäri... (Shanidze, Kaldani & Chumburidze, 1978, 124) – “the skin and head are the one’s who kills”...

ალის ეჯნომ ჰედნის გუდ, ერე ჭინირ ლიყლეს ჩუ როქ ქუცე alis ežnoš qednix gud, ere činir liqlēs ču rok kuce... (Shanidze, Kaldani & Chumburidze, 1978, 180) – “they understand it by the fact that chianuri stops playing”...

ალ მაროლ მეჟარ ლგწხუაჟე ეჩოჟშ, ერ ნადარიბომ ოჯახ ქა ლახაცჟირ... al marol mewar lačxwawe ečowš, er nayariboš ožax ka laxcwir... (Shanidze, Kaldani & Chumburidze, 1978, 321) – “this man {was} very upset that he left his family because of poverty”...

ეჩაშდ ხტეთხელი ქიპარს, სი ერ სჟიტრ ემგელჟრ დინარს ečašd xwetxēli kipars, si er switr emgəḷər zinars... (Lashkian, speaker O. Jankhoteli) – “I am looking for the threads for you have torn my sweater in the morning”...

ამდ ხოდროლ დესმა მაძენა, ლადი ერ მეყარ amd xodrōl desma majēna, ladi er meqar... (Cholur, speaker Ts. Kvastiani) – “I have not witnessed anything worse than this (“as this”) that happened to me today”...

We should also pay attention to the fact that in Svan there is simple object twice being in case and unmarked simple object, which is expressed by former genitive adverbial case with no postposition having the semantics of postposition თვის *tvis* – “for”, also sometimes the meaning of Georgian dative case with postposition -ზე *-ze* “on” is expressed by dative case with no postposition of simple object, which was also shown in the words indicating the principal clause:

ჯჟინალ დჟრეჟსა მარე ერ იქუნაჟალნოლ, ეჩაშჟდ ხეკჟეს ახოჯიდანხ ბაჰ ჯwinal dwrejsa mare er ikunawalnol, ečašed xeḷwes axoqidanx bap... (Topuria & Kaldani, 1967, 54) – “in ancient times, when a man was fighting with the death, a priest had to be brought for him”...

დარმომ იყდგდა ამდ ხოჩილს, ნად ერ ელყიდედ ლადი dārmoš iqdāde amd xočils, naj er elqided ladi... (Cholur, speaker T. Chegiani) – “no one could have bought better than this (“as this”) we had bought today”...

Sometimes in Lentekhian pronoun explaining the semantics of former genitive adverbial case simple object with no postposition has truncated the adverbial case mark, although in Georgian it expresses the meaning of the postposition -თვის *-tvis* “for”:

იმუა **imwāj** “what”; ხედუა/ხედ **xedwāj/xedi** “who/which”; იმნოუ **imnōwš** “with/by what”; იმნარდ **innardi** “for what”; იმდ/იმად **imdi/imäjd** “in what”... with different phonetic variants:

ალეს ეჯნოუ ბოშამ იჯრუ, დერბი ფიფა ერ შსუენე ლეთუ ტეტრისკა ales ežnowš xošam ižräwi, jerbi pipa **er** äšçwene letwš tewriška... (Shanidze, Kaldani & Chumburidze 1967, 73) – “he believes this more that he saw two shadows in dense forest at night”...

დერუა ზორს ხოჯდე, ეჩა ყორჟი ეჯა ჟი ხამზერი ეჯ მეზგემ ნშდობახენ **jerwāj** zors xoqde, eča qōrži eža ži xamzəri ež mežgem näšdobaxen... (Topuria, 1957, Shanidze, Kaldani&Chumburidze, 1978, 178) – “who brings him/her an offering, he/she will pray at the door of that family for the sake of peace”...

ეჯდარგნეა დარს ათბედულნისხ, დარ გუემდახუ ათხე ეჯარანკა jars atbedwālñsx, **jari** gwejmaxw atxēj... (Cholur, speaker V. Xabuliani) – “whom they will let dare except for those, who still enmities us”...

ალ დინას ერითე შუტრლე, ხედუა მურყუმა შდურთეჟი ნესყა ცხემადს ქა ბჯდა al dīnas ečīšte ačwīlē, **xedwāj** murq̄wma šdurteži nēsqa cxemäds ka xaqda... (Shanidze, Kaldani&Chumburidze, 1978, 167) – “he/she will marry this girl to him (“to him”), who would shoot the arrow at the needle on the merlon of the tower” ...

As it is known, relative pronouns are form-changing words and therefore the relative pronouns presented in a subordinate clause with simple object are also confirmed in the form of different cases:

დარს ჩიგარ ხეგუნებლდა, ეჩაშხენეა იმჟი ხეხონოლ დაგრა?! **jarsī** čigar xegwnēbāl̄da, ečāšx̄enka imži xexōnl̄ol dagra?!... (Cholur, speaker Ts. Kvastiani) – “to whom he/she attended carefully forever (“always”), how he/she deserved the death from him/her?!”...

ეჩქანლო დეშუაშდ ლეშხი ხადხ, ერ ჭიშხი ნაზიმდ ჟაცბურახ ეჩკანო **ješwāšd** lešx̄bi xād̄x, ečī čīš̄xi nazimd ž’acburax... (Shanidze, Kaldani&Chumburidze, 1978, 138) – “then whom they had to sew for, they would cut it to the size of his foot”...

იმად მეკუედი, ეჯდ ასუასიპი **imäjd** mekwedi, ežd aswasipi... (Topuria&Kaldani, 1967, 224) – “what I want I will turn into it” ...

As it is known in Svan particles უა/უა **wāj/wāj**, ი/ი **j/i** (-tsa) give interrogative words the meaning of relativity, the cases of using of which vary according to dialects. The particle

ჟჷწა **wāj** is most often confirmed in Upper Bal and Lentekhian and more or less frequently in other dialects, including Cholur. The particle **ō** is more productive in Lashkhian and Cholur.

The reviewed material showed that in relative words presented by different form of case the case mark mostly added to the particle ჟჷწა **wāj** joined to stem (აერჟჷწაბ **jerwājs** “whom/to whom”, ეშჟჷწაბ **ešwājs** “whose”) and the particle **ō ī** is preceded by the case mark (აარსბ **jarsī** “whom/to whom“, აეშაბ **ješāī** “whose”...).

In Cholur we have cases in relative words with postposition, when despite the adjoining the particle ჟჷწა **wāj** of relative pronoun, which precedes the postposition, at the end the particle **ō ī** is also added to it and we get double particle forms (ეშჟჷწაბცახანბ **ešwājcaxanī** “with whom”, აერჟჷწაბთჷბ **jerwājštēj** “to whom”, where the particle ჟჷწა **wāj** without **ō ī** must have the advantage of expressing relativity. Such forms are typical for Cholur.

As for the subordinating conjunctions, in the constructions to be discussed in Georgian subordinating conjunction თუ **tu** – “if” is found, in Svan ერე **ere** “that” conjunction is predominant, although in Svan dialects (except Lower Bal) there are cases when the relative pronouns are accompanied by an indefinite particle ლენ **yen ghen** (with different phonetic variants), which would have a certain function.

This particle has different functions and semantics in Svan “...the main function, as it appeared from the analysis of various materials, is the command, to strengthen the command. It should also be noted that in most cases, even according to the context, it is difficult to understand the function of the analytical lexeme ” (Sagliani 2016, 261).

The particle ghen must also has a function of subordinating conjunction, as evidenced by the Cholur speech patterns, where in complex sentences the particle ლენ **yen ghen** at the same time is added to the interrogative and relative pronouns and have the semantics of თუ **tu** – “if” in both case:

თელ ლეთ გაგზადახ [ეჩეჷი], პასუხდ იმ/იმბ ლენ ხეჷქნახ მორაჷს tel lēt gagzədax [ečēži], pasuxd **im/imī yen** xēkwnax mōraws... (Cholur, speaker V. Xabuliani) – “they were talking unceasingly the whole night about {on that}, {if} what they would say to the mediator”...

გუმგჷეურ მაა/მაბ ლენ ორიბ, აშიშტ ლედეგრელიდ ეჩეჷნ gušgweur **maj/maī yen** īrix, ašišt lejgərglid ečēži ... (Cholur, speaker T. Khergiani) – “{if} what they are without us,

we will talk about it soon”...

ჟახას დემ ჯატული [ეჩა], დარ/დარღ დენ მინჯარ žaxas deš žaṭūli [eča], **jar/jarī yen minqār**... (Cholur, speaker J. Xabuliani) – “I can’t say the name, {if} who was with me”...

As for the other dialects, the situation is similar there, however, when checking with the respondents, when questioning, for example, in Lashkhian the understanding and semantics of the conjunction **თუ tu** – “if” is lost and the forms - **იმდღენ ხაშდბა imīyen xašdba/იმდ ხაშდბა imī xašdba** are explained by them in this way - “what he/she/it does” since the difference between them is no longer distinguishable by addition of **ghen**, however, it is noteworthy that in subordinate clause with simple object we have relative adverbs in subordinate clause accompanied by the particle **ghen**. It seems that it was **ghen** that had the function of subordinating conjunction of **თუ tu** – “if”, since in this case the relative adverbs could not be considered as member-conjunctions of the unmarked simple object:

ეჩრმ დესამა მიხ’ე, ისგუა ქესაშ, იმტაღენ ჯირო ეჩიშ dēsama mix’ē, isgwa kesāš, imwājyen žiri... (Shanidze&Topuria, 1939, 276) – “I do not know anything about it, eh, your purse, {if} where you have it”...

იმთღენ ხარ ლეზი, ეჩა მამ ხობალ imtēyen xār lēzi, eča mām xoxal... (Shanidze, Kaldani&Chumburidze, 1978, 283) – “he does not know {of that}, [if] where he has to go (“he has a way to go”)”...

There have been cases when the conjunction **ერე ere** “that” and relative adverbs or relative pronouns with **დენ yen ghen** are also found in subordinate clause, however in this case the function of the conjunction is clearly performed by **ერე ere**:

მახელტაჟარ ...უმხუარ ხემქარალხ, **ერე ხედღენ** ხომა ჯრდიად ადკუანნე ბეჩს maxeywažar... ušxwār xemkarālḥ, **ere xediyen** xošya xoša žōdiad adḳwānne bečs... (Kaldani&Oniani, 1979, 141) – “young people are competing in that which one will throw the stone farther”...

გიგა მაგრაფს დესმა ხახლენა ეჩა, **ერე იმთღენ** ოთწურლახ მერბამდ მიჩა დი giga magraps desma xaxlēna eča, **ere imtējyen** oṭṭwīlax mērbāmd mica di... (Cholur, G. Zurabiani) – “aunt Magrap did not know anything about, that where they had married her mother for the second time”...

The tendency of dividing up of subordinating conjunctions and member-conjunction is very interesting. It should be noted that the means of connection create a homogeneous picture and can be found at the beginning or middle of the subordinate clause on both positions,

although the difference is that member-conjunctions are always presented and subordinating conjunction **ერე** can be missing, although it is assumed and easily restored:

ჩოლურ [ერ] კუბ ოხტაბახ, ეჩხაუტესგ'ესუდახ ჯიჯუარ čolir [er] kub oxṭābax, ečxāwtēsg'eswdax žižwar ... (Shanidze, Kaldani & Chumburidze, 1978, 106) – “in Cholur [that] they cut out the coffin, they put bones in”...

In going to be discussed complex sentences principal and subordinate clauses can be found as follows: principal+ subordinate; subordinate + principal and principal+ subordinate + correlation word:

აშხუნდო სორთმანს გუი ლოჰოდა, ერე მიჩა ფამლი მამდარობჟიმდ ხოშა ლუწხუტაჟე ლემწრ ašxunyo sortmans gwi lohoda, ere mica pämlī mājdarobžišd xoša lučxwawe ləmār... (Topuria, 1957, 8) – “after a long time, Sortman noticed that his slave was more anxious during the starving time”...

ხედისი ერე თეთრ ოთბაცე, ეჩაცხან ახცხენე ლიზი ამნემდო xedisī ere tetr otbace, ečacxan axcxēne līzi amnēmdī... (Cholur, speaker G. Liparteliani) – “whom {that} he/she promised money, he/she preferred to go with him/her”...

ალე მად ლი, მი ერ გემ მაყა, ეჩაცხან ale maj li, mi er gem maqa, ečacxan... (Lashkian, The Svan Prose, volume IV 1979, 71) – “what it is, that I have a ship, (compared) with it”...

Conclusion

As the discussed material has shown, in the traditionally known dialects of Svan as well as in Cholur speech many subordinate clause with simple object complex sentence is confirmed. No significant difference is observed between the dialects, except the subordinate clause containing ghen particle, which has the semantics of the subordinating conjunction “if” in contrast to Upper Bal, Lentekhian and Lashkian (the particle mentioned in Lower Bal, as already mentioned, is not confirmed), where its function has been concealed over time.

NOTES:

1. The report was prepared in 2019 within the framework of the project (“Parataxic-hypotactic constructions in Svan YS-19-435”) funded by Shota Rustaveli National Science Foundation of Georgia.

References

- Saghiani (2016). სვანური ენის სტრუქტურის საკითხები [On the Structure of the Svan Language]. Artanuji Publishing House. Tbilisi.
- Shanidze, A., Kaldani, M. & Chumburidze, Z. (1978). სვანური ენის ქრესტომათია [Svan language Chrestomathy]. Tbilisi. Tbilisi State University Publishing.
- Shanidze, A. & Topuria, V. (1939). სვანური პროზაული ტექსტები, პირველი ტომი, ბალსზემოური კილო [Svan prose texts, I: Upper Bal dialect]. Tbilisi. Publishing-House of the Georgian Academy of Sciences.
- Topuria, V. (1957). სვანური პროზაული ტექსტები, მეორე ტომი, ბალქსქვემოური კილო [Svan prose texts, II: Lower Bal dialect]. Publishing-House of the Georgian Academy of Sciences.
- Topuria, V. & Kaldani, M. (1967). სვანური პროზაული ტექსტები, მესამე ტომი, ლენტეხური კილო [Svan prose texts, III: Lentekh dialect]. Publishing-House of the Georgian Academy of Sciences.
- Kaldani, M. & Oniani, A. (1979). სვანური პროზაული ტექსტები, მეოთხე ტომი, ლაშხური კილო [Svan prose texts, IV: Lashkh dialect]. Publishing-House of the Georgian Academy of Sciences.

Medea Sagliani

Arnold Chikobava Institute of Linguistics,

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi, Georgia

General Linguistic Aspects of Borrowed Svan Vocabulary¹

ABSTRACT

This paper presents general conclusions on all aspects related to word borrowing, taking into account the borrowing-adaptation of foreign-language lexical units assimilated into Svan from Georgian- Zan, as well as North Caucasus, Western European, Russian and Eastern languages (directly or indirectly), to determine the ways and chronology of borrowings, which is very important and interesting to present a general picture of the development of Svan phonological and lexical systems. The study of borrowed material of Svan, as it has been said many times, will once again support the opinion recognized in Kartvelology for the great (sometimes decisive) importance of the grammatical phenomena of Svan in solving a number of linguistic problems.

Keywords: *Vocabulary, Phonetics, Semantics*

In Svan, as in any language (unwritten or written), words borrowing is one of the main sources of vocabulary enrichment. The possibility of making this conclusion was provided by the analysis of great illustrative material, which we conducted on the example of simple roots or composites according to the data of traditionally known dialects of Svan (Upper Bal, Lower Bal, Lashkhian and Lentekhian) and Cholur speech.

This paper presents general conclusions on all aspects related to words borrowing, taking into account the borrowing-adaptation of foreign- language lexical units assimilated into Svan from Georgian-Zan, as well as North Caucasus, Western European, Russian and Eastern languages (directly or indirectly), to determine the ways and chronology of borrowings, which is very important and interesting to present a general picture of the development of Svan phonological and lexical systems. The study of borrowed Svan material, as it has been said many times, will once again support the opinion recognized in Kartvelology for the great (sometimes decisive) importance of the grammatical phenomena of

Svan in solving a number of linguistic problems.

As research has shown, borrowed Svan vocabulary includes many examples of North Caucasian (Kabardian, Circassian, Abkhazian, Ossetian ...), Western European (Greek, Latin), Russian and Eastern (Turkish, Persian, Arabic, Armenian) languages, which is due to certain contacts in time and space... Alongside, of course, there are borrowings related to Kartvelian languages (Georgian, Mingrelian, Laz), the common Kartvelian data of which is not always easy to separate, however, as it is known, the situation arising from language contacts differs substantially from the post-differentiation situation... As a result of borrowing and adaptation (interference) we do not get regular phonetic correspondence” (Machavariani 1965: 49). Since such correspondence, with a few exceptions, so far only deals with sibilants, Zan vowels transitions (Georgian **a** - Zan - **o**, Georgian - **e**, Zan **a**) can be used as a means of control. Here, of course, borrowing is out of the question, where so-called Zan vowels transitions are evidenced. At the same time, it should be taken into account whether this or that particular lexeme is represented in old Georgian written monuments. In case of a positive answer, probability of borrowing from Georgian into Svan are less confirmed, especially if the vowels correspondence will be revealed in Mingrelian.

It turns out that the roots of foreign language lexemes are confirmed as phonetically- semantically unchanged in Svan (e.g.: **აბანო abano** (Upper Svan, Lower Svan) < Georgian abano; **აგუისტო agwisto** (Upper Svan, Lower Svan) < Georgian agvisto < Latin **augustus** “saint, divine, great”; **ალუბალ alubal** (Upper Svan, Lower Svan) < Georgian alubal-i; **ანკეს ankes** (Upper Svan, Lower Svan) < Georgian ankes-i < Pra-Indo-European ***ankes**; **კარტოფილ kartopil** (Lower Bal) < Georgian kartopil-i < Russian **Картофель** < German **kartoffel**; **სირმა sirma** (Lower Bal, Lentekhian) < Georgian sirma < Persian **sirmā**; **სპილო spilo** (Upper Svan, Lower Svan) < Georgian spilo < Pahlavi **pīl**; **ფინთ pint** (Upper Svan, Lower Svan) < Georgian (Gurian, Kartlian, Kiziqian) pint-i < Ossetian **fyd** “avi, tsudi” – “wicked, bad”; **ყარაულ qaraul** (Lower Bal) < Georgian karaul-i < Turkish – **karawul**; **ხალ xal** (Upper Svan) < **Georgian** khal-i – < Arabic **hāl**; **ჯიშ ჯიშ** (Upper Svan, Lower Svan) < Georgian jish- i < Arabic **Jins** and etc.), so with different phonetic variants (e.g.: **ბარაქ barak** (Upper Bal, Lower Svan) < Georgian baraka < Arabic **baraq**; **პირობ pirob** (Upper Svan) < Georgian pirob-a; **სუფრ supr** (Upper Svan) < Georgian supra < Arabic **sufre**; **ფალანგ palang** (Upper Svan, Lashkhanian) < Georgian (Lechkhumian, Rachian, Imeretian)

palanga “a pole (for hanging something)” < Persian **palanga**; რიყ **riq** (Upper Svan, Lower Svan) < Georgian riverside rocks < Persian **rīg** “gravel, small stone”; ჯიბ ჯიბ (Upper Svan, Lentekhian) < Georgian jibe < Persian (< Arabic) **J** < **b**; თოქალთუ **tokaltw** (Upper Bal) < Georgian tokalto < Persian **tukaltu**; ოქრ **okr** (Lower Bal) < Georgian okro < Greek **oxpos** “yellow”; სამარხუ **samarxw** (Upper Bal, Lower Svan) < Georgian sa-markh-o; კემუხ **kemux** (Upper Bal) “book cover” < Georgian kemukht-i “leather”; მოახ **moax** (Lentekhian) < Georgian moakhle; ყუიხ ყუიჩ (Upper Svan, Lower Svan) “cock” – Georgian kvinchila...) or in the context of data modified by semantic nuances (e.g. კალმახ **kalmax** (Upper Svan, Lashkhian)/კალმახუ **kakmaxw** (Lakhamulian) “fish” < Georgian kalmakh-i; კერძ **kerz** (Lower Svan) “friend, relative” < Old Georgian kerdz-i, kerdzo < Ossetian **kærd**; კირაუ **kiraw** (Lower Svan) “wattle building” < **karav-i**; მასდიკ **masdik** (Upper Svan) “hurtful, offence, grief” < Georgian sisastike < Pahlavi “strong, firm, severe”; მწიდან **mäjdan** (Upper Svan) “the door of balcony” < Georgian moedan-i < Persian **maydān**; საუდ **saud** (Upper Bal)/სეუდ **seud**/სეუდ **sewd** (Lower Bal, Lower Svan) “miss, dream of seeing” < Georgian sevda < Arabic-Persian **souda**; ჭირ **çir** (Upper Svan, Lentekhian) “to work, to take some pains, heavy work” < Georgian chir-i and etc.).

Some borrowed roots are “Svaned”, it means they contain morphonological inventory typical of Svan: palatal, veral or labial umlaut (e.g.: ბან **bän**, ღერ **yär**, უფელ **upäl**, ყუითელჿ **qwiteläj**, დიდჿ **didäb**, ზირჿ **zirüb**, დუმჿ **dumäj**, ჭალჿ **çaläj**, ჭალჿ **çalä**, გინდუერ **gindwer**, გუირგუინ **gwirgwin**...), long vowel (e.g.: ზირებ **zīreb**, მაცხუერ **macxwär**, გზარობ **gzārob**, ბედნიერ **bedniēr**, ლადრაჯალ **ladražäl**...), anaptyctic element (e.g.: აკლდამ **aḱəldam**, გემრ **gəmr**, გერზნეუილ **gərznewil**, კახემბალ **ḱaxəmbal**...) and etc., which guides to clarify geographical direction of borrowings (e.g., კალთო **ḱalät** entered in Upper Bal and Lentekhian dialects through Georgian, this is confirmed by the last vowel umlaut, which is the trace of the loss of nominative case morpheme; the original Greek **καλαζα** is preserved only in Georgian).

Sometimes the root borrowed from Georgian is so “Svaned” that quite complex phonological transformations are taken into account to restore the original version: e.g.: Upper Bal ლწხირ **lāxir** “spade” < *ლწ-ხუ-ირ **lā-xw-ir** < *ლწ-ნ-ხუ-ირ **lā-n-xw-ir** < *ლა-

ნე-ხტ-ორ *la-ne-xw-ir* < Georgian *sa-nekhv-e*; for comparison Lower Bal ლაჟხი *lawxi*, Lashkhian ლაჟირ *läyir*, Lentekhian ლაჟერ *läyer*. If we had only Lower Svan data, it would probably be difficult to connect this root to Georgian root "*nekhv*". Upper Bal ჩამსტულ *čamswäl*, Lashkhian ჩამსტალ *čamswal* "duty of gunpowder" < Georgian *shemosaval-i*, the presumable transformation of which in Svan is as follows: შე-მო-სა-ვალ-ო *še-mo-sa-wal-i* > შე-მო-სა-ტულ *še-mo-sa-wäl* > *შე-მ-სა-ტულ *še-m-sa-wäl* > *შა-მ-სა-ტულ *ša-m-sa-wäl* > *ჩა-მ-სტულ *ča-m-swäl*; Lower Bal ნაცემულ *näcemul*, to which had to go through a rather complicated phonological transformation from Georgian form *natlismtsemel-i*. Georgian *na-t-l-i-s-m-ts-em-el-i* > Svan *ნა-თ-ლ-ის-მ-ც-ემ-ულ *na-t-l-is-m-c-em-ul* > *ნა-თ-ლ-ის-ც-ემ-ულ *na-t-l-is-c-em-ul* > *ნა-თ-ლ-ო-ც-ემ-ულ *nä-t-l-i-c-em-ul* > *ნა-თ-ლ-ც-ემ-ულ *nä-t-l-c-em-ul* > *ნა-თ-ც-ემ-ულ *nä-t-c-em-ul* > ნაცემულ. The stages of phonological evolution of the relevant "soul mentioning" Svan term is particularly interesting in respect of the precedence-posterior of complex transformations: Georgian *sun/l-is mo-khsen-eb-a* > Svan *სუინ-ომ მო-ხსენ-ებ *suin-iš mo-xsen-äb* > სუინ-ომო-ხსენ-ებ *swin-i-mo-xsn-äb* > სუინ-მო-ხსენ-ებ *swin-mo-xsn-äb* > სინ-მო-ხსენ-ებ *sin-mo-xsn-äb* > სინ-ო-ხსენ-ებ *sin-o-xsn-äb* > სინ-ო-ხსენ-ობ *sin-o-xsn-ob* or: სუინ-მო-ხსენ-ებ *swin-mo-xsn-äb* > სუინ-ო-ხსენ-ებ *swin-o-xsn-äb* > სუინ-ო-ხსენ-ებ *swin-o-xsn-äb* and etc.

One extremely well-defined tendency of auslaut nature of Svan names transformation open-syllables structures into closed-syllables ones is most often expressed in borrowed stems (წმინდ *čmind* (Lower Svan) < Georgian *tsminda* < Pahlavi *spand*; ხელმწიფ *xelčip* (Lentekhian) < Georgian *khelmtsipe*; საწუთრ *sačutr* (Lashkhian) < Old Georgian *satsutro*; ამბ *ambä* (Lower Bal) < Georgian *ambav-i* < Pahlavi *hambav*; მოახ *moax* (Lentekhian) < Georgian *moakhle*; საბერწამ *sabərčäm* (Lower Bal) < Georgian *sa-pir-is-tsaml-e* and etc., which implies simplification of forms.

in most borrowed Svan words there are the compensatory ones obtained as a result of the loss of consonants or the merging of vowels (e.g.: გზარობ *gzärob* (Lashkhian) < Georgian *m-gza-v-r-ob-a*; ლი-გა-ზდ-ილ-ე *li-gä-zd-il-e* < *ლი-გა-ზრდ-ილ-ე *li-gä-zrd-il-e* < *ლი-გა-ზარდ-ილ-ე *li-ga-zard-il-e* "to bring up well, to train" < Georgian *ga-zrd-a...*) or combinatorial length (e.g.: ზირებ *zireb* (Lashkhian) < Old Georgian *ziareba*;

მაცხტურ **macxwār** (Upper Bal)/მაცხტურ **macxwār** (Lashkian) < Georgian ma-tskh-ov-ar-i...), deaffrication-spirantization (e.g.: ზზანება **bzaneba** (Upper Bal) < Georgian brdzan-eba (**dz** > **z**) < Pahlavi **frazān** “to get to know, to understand; თერზ **terz** (Lower Bal) < Georgian terdz-i (dressmaker); ქინზ **kinz** (Upper Svan) < Georgian kindz-i; ღერზ **yerz** (Upper Bal) < Georgian gherdz-i; შიშლანგ **šišläg** (Upper Bal) < Georgian chichilak-i...), to make consonants voiced (e.g.: აზად **azād** (Lakhamulian) < Georgian azat-i “free peasant” < Persian **āzād** “free”; პრისდაუ **prisdaw** (Lower Svan) < Georgian pristav-i < Russian **пристав**; ყაჯ ყაჯ (Upper Svan) < Old Georgian kach-i...), alternation of sonant consonants (e.g.: შაშალ **šašäl** (Lower Bal) “blow” < Georgian (Pshavian, Kiziqian) sha-shar-i “sword tip, edged on both sides; “sharp to be released blood” (Saba); ხანჯარ **xanžār** (Upper Svan, Lentekian)/ხანჯარ **xanžar** (Lashkian) < Georgian khanjal-i; შაურდელ **šawur-del** (Upper Svan) < Georgian she-var-den-i; მუზეინ **muzein** (Lower Bal) < Georgian muzeum-i...), reduction (ა a, ე e, ი i, ო o, უ u > გ ə) processes in light and hard forms (e.g.: მარგალიტ **margaliṭ** (Upper Svan) < Georgian margalit-i; კახემბალ **ḵaxəmbal** (Lashkian)/კახემბალ **ḵaxəmbal** (Lentekian) < Georgian kakhambal-i “thick cherry”; გემრ **gəmr** (Lower Bal), for comparison Lower Svan გმირ **gmir** < Georgian gmir-i: ლილუპაუი **liywpäwi** (Upper Bal, Lentekian)/ლილუპაუი **liywpawi** (Lashkian) < Georgian daghupva...), assimilation-dissimilation (e.g.: ართქუილ **artkwil**/ართქუილ **ärtkwil** (Upper Bal) < Georgian ertgul-i; წიმწარ **čimčār** (Upper Svan, Lentekian)/წიმწარ **čimčar** (Lashkian) < Georgian dzir-m-ts-ar-a/e; წუნწ **čunč** (Lashkian)/წინწკუ **činčkw** (Lentekian) < Georgian dzunts-i...), to add the sounds (e.g.: ხანჭ **banč** (Lower Svan) < Georgian paich-i; ბუხ(ტ)არ **bux{w}ar** (Upper Svan) < Georgian bukhar-i < Persian **buxar**; დეპუტანტ **depuṭaṭ** (Ushgulian) < Georgian deputat-i < Russian **Депутат**; საღათ **sayät** (Upper Svan) < Georgian saat-i < Turkish (Arabic-Persian) **saat**; კუმალმანდ **qwmalmänd** (Upper Svan, Lentekian)/კუმალმანდ **qwalmänd** (Lashkian) < Georgian khomald-i < Turkish **xumald**...), aspiration (e.g.: ჰარაყ **haräq** (Upper Svan) < Georgian arak-i < Arabic **arak**; ჰემმა **hešmäj** (Upper Bal) < Georgian eshkma{k}-i < Pahlavi **hēšmak**; ჰენგორ **həngir** (Upper Bal)/ჰინგორ **hingir** (Lower Bal) < Georgian unagir-i < Iranian **hunagīr**...),

metathesis (e.g.: ბერტკილ *berwḱil*/ბერკუტილ *berḱwil* (Upper Bal) < Georgian *bork-il-i*; თაკუ *täḱw* (Upper Svan, Lentekhian)/თეკუ *teḱw* (Lashkhian) < Georgian *tok-i* < Armenian *tok...*) and etc.

As the observation on the material showed, the borrowed material entered in Svan not only from the literary language, but also from dialects (e.g.: Lentekhian ბულტდან *buywdän* “fertile” < Georgian (Rachian) *bughdavan-i* “good accessible place”, (Lechkhumian) *baghdavan-i* “good, abundant place”; Lentekhian გუპრჯილ *gwärzil*/გუარჯილ *gwärzil* “sulgun-i – “variety of hard cheese” < Georgian (Lechkhumian) *gvajil-i* “sulguni - variety of hard cheese”; Upper Bal ჩაბანა *čabänäy* “measure of cereals” < Meskhian ჩანა *čanay-i* < literary Georgian *chanakh-i* < Turkish *çanak* “crockery”; Cholur წუადილნელა *čwadiłnelaj* < Georgian (Rachian) *mtsvadinela* “blue-flowered bulb plant of the lily family - Tsistvala" and etc.

In this regard, the abundance of data of western dailects of Georgia is especially noticeable. There is difference even within the dialects of Svan itself: In Lashkhian and Lentekhian there are much more Georgian borrowings than in Upper Bal dialect, while in Lower Bal Zan (Mingrelian-Laz) vocabulary is more prevalent (e.g.: Lower Bal ბუყუინ *buḱwin* "wooden barrel for storing cheese for winter" < Zan (Mingrelian) ბუყუნ-ო/ბუყუნ-ო *bukun-i/buk'n-i* "wooden utensil, barrel made specially, which are used to pour milk, to make yogurt; often to store grain (maize), flour"; Lower Bal კორკოც *korḱoc* < Zan (Mingrelian) კორკოც-ე *korḱoc-e* “whooping cough; strong cough”; Lower Bal ნახუაწა *naxwača* < Zan (Mingrelian) ნახვაწა *naxvača* “crust formed on the bottom of the saucepan when making Ghomi (porridge), _ Ghomi crust”; Lower Bal უოსხირ *wosxir*/ოსხირ *osxir* < Zan (Mingrelian) ოსხირი/ოსხერი *osxiri/osxəri* “beam, foundation, basis, on which the wall of the house were built”; Lower Bal ჩხუინდ *čxwindä* (Lower Bal) “a man with a twisted nose or an ugly nose” < Zan (Mingrelian) ჩხვინდ-ამ-ო *čxvind-am-i* “big-nosed, long-nosed, pointed”, Laz ჩხვინდა *čxvinda* “big-nosed” and etc.).

Attention must be paid to the chronological flatness of the borrowed words. The situation is especially difficult when dealing with ancient borrowings, which may have been represented by sounds correspondence in Kartvelian languages: Although Georgian სპილენძ-ო - *spilendz-i* and Svan სპილენჯ *spilenḱ* - *spilenj* at first glance reveal the regular

phonemes correspondence (**dz** _ **j**), we still can not consider them as later data after the differentiation of the Pre-Georgian language, because in ancient Georgian **პილენძ-ო** - **pilendz-i** (< Middle Persian **pirinz* _ Andronikashvili 966, 16-18, 168, 186, 202, 262, 361-365) was more common than **სპილენძ-ო** - **spilendz-i**; the latter seems relatively late and therefore, naturally, could not give correspondence in Svan. The same can be said about the stem **ვერცხლ-** **vertskhl**, which is only found in old written monuments of the 11th -12th centuries, and in ancient sources this lexeme without sonant is represented in inlaut (**ვეცხლ-ო** - **vertskhl-i**). According to special literature (Z. Sarjveladze, H. Fenrich, G. Klimov), Svan **ჭარჩხილ** **warčxil** - **varchkhil** is considered to be borrowed from Mingrelian **ვარჩხილ-ო** - **varchchkhil-i**.

Adding sonant in inlaut, is common phenomenon for Mingrelian. Since Georgian form **ვერცხლ** - **vertskhl** is late, obviously, we consider this stem to be derived from the common Kartvelian level. Also, despite the fact that in Svan "black colour" is conveyed by the suffix **შხ-** **shkh** (for comparison Georgian „**ნა-ხშ-ორ-ო**“ - “*na-khsh-ir-i*” - coal or „**ცხ-ობ-ა**“ – “*tskh-ob-a*” – to bake) expressing the root "burning" after the differentiation of the Pre-Kartvelian language, at least in relatively late borrowings (Upper Svan **შაუბედ** **šawbed** “black fortune”; Upper Bal **შაუგურმალ** **šawgurmäl**, Upper Svan **შეგურმან** **šegurmän**, Lashkian **შეუგურემან** **šewgwreman**, Lentekhian **შაუგურმან** **šawgurmän** “swarthy”; Lower Bal **შაურაშ** **šawräx** “dark-complexioned”; Lashkian **შაუფსხალაჲ** **šawpsxalaj** “pear variety, black pear”, Shavmskhala) **შავ** - **shav** is confirmed.

We have specially studied as borrowed religious (mainly Christian) vocabulary (e.g.: **აიაზმა** **aiazma** (Upper Svan) “saint, sanctified (water)” < Georgian *aiazma* < Greek **ἁγιασμός** (**agiasmos**) “sanctify”; **ბარძიმ** **barzim** (Upper Svan, Lower Svan) < Old Georgian *bardzim-i* "church utensils having feet made of silver (or other precious metal) for eucharist" < Pahlavi **Barzīn** “tall”; **ზირაბ** **ziräb** (Upper Svan)/**ზირებ** **zireb**/**ზიარებ** **ziareb** (Lashkian)/**ზირაბ** **zirab** (Lentekhian)/**ძიარება** **ziareba** (Ushgulian) < Old Georgian *ziareb-a*; **კრისდე** **krisde** (Upper Svan, Lashkian) < Georgian **kriste** < Greek **χριστός**; **მაცხუარ** **macxwär** (Upper Bal)/**მაცხუარ** **macxwär** (Lower Bal, Lentekhian), for comparison Lashkian, Cholur **მაცხუარ** **macxwär** 1. “Our Savior”, 2. “the church of Our Savior” < Old Georgian *ma-tskh-ov-ar-i...*), as well as foreign-language toponymic material

assimilated from Georgian-Zan directly or indirectly (e.g.: **ასტმელდ astməld** (Upper Bal) “shrubby”; pasture (exactly **ასტამ-უკა-astam-uka**)” < Old Georgian *astam-i*; **ორლობ oryob** (Lashkian) “pasture (exactly **ორ-ლობე - or-ghobe**)” < Georgian *orghobe*; **ტევრ თევრ** (Lentekhian) “vineyard (exactly **ტევრ-ი - tevri-i**)” < Georgian *tevri-i* “dense forest, tickets”; **ბულონ bulon** (Lentekhian, Lakhamulian) “mountain, summer pasture of the Mingrelians (exactly **ბალ-ნ-არ-ი -bal-n-ar-i**)” < Mingrelian *bulon-i* “a place where many cherries (trees) stand”; **ტყაბედნიერ tğabednier** (Lakhamulian) “cornfield (exactly **ტყე-ბედ-ნ-იერ-ი - tke-bed-n-ier-i**)” < **ტყაბედნიერ-ი tğabednirer - tyabednirer-i**; **წყურგინ çqurgin** (Lakhamulian) “way (exactly **წყარო გრილი - tskaro grili**)” < Mingrelian **წყურგილი çqurgili** “spring”; **კანოლ kanol** (Lower Bal) “hay meadow; legislative place (exactly - **კანონ-ი - kanon-i**)” < Georgian *kanon-i* < Greek *kanōn*; **ლათთუნუარ lattunwar** (Lentekhian) “pasture (exactly **სა-თუთუნ-ე - sa-tutun-e**)” < Georgian *tutun-i* < Turkish *tutun* “tobacco”; **ჭაბუკუანი çabgwäni** (Lower Bal) “arable (exactly - **სა-ჭაბუკ-ე - sa-chabuk-e**)” < Georgian *chabuk-i* < Persian *čāpūk*; **ლაშერბათილ lašərbätıl** (Upper Bal) “spring (exactly **სა-შარბათ-ო-უკა - sa-sharbat-o-uka**)” < Georgian *sharbat-i* < Arabic *Sarbat*; **ლერანგ leräng** (Lower Bal) “hay meadow (exactly **სა-რანგ-ე - sa-rang-e**)” Georgian (Rachian), Mingrelian *rang-i* “drink made of honey, honey wine” < Ossetian *rong...*), most of them are presented for the first time in Kartvelological linguistics. It was interesting to study Svan hybrid (resp. crossbreed) toponyms containing borrowed anthroponyms. One of the components we have identified in most of the basic models of hybrid toponyms (mostly the first, or in this case anthroponym), as a result of a considerable amount of illustration material, as expected, turned out to be borrowed from different languages (directly or indirectly). It is known from special literature that foreign anthroponyms are found next to national names in almost all languages, and, obviously, Svan is no exception in this respect, where besides the Svan material itself, it is often foreign, mainly borrowed from Turkish (e.g.: **ბეკერბი bekerbi** < Karachay-Balkar **bij** < Turkish **beg** (/bej) “mister”; **რადიმხან dimxan** < Turkish **radim** + the oldest Turkish rank **xan**; **ყარბეგ qarbeg** < Turkish **kara** “black”, “brave” + **beg** (/bej) “mister”...), anthroponyms are also confirmed, most of which are considered to have been assimilated from Karachay-Balkar in Svan (Jikia 1973: 213).

Exactly the language absorbed these anthroponyms and used as forming a geographical name, although along with Turkish anthroponyms we often find anthroponyms borrowed from Greek (e.g. **ანთიმოზ** *äntimoz* (Upper Svan, Lentekhian) < Georgian *antimoz-i* (< Greek) “florid”, blossoming”; **პეტრე** *peṭre* (Upper Svan, Lower Svan) < Georgian *Petre* (< Greek) “rock, large rock”...), from Hebrew (e.g.: **ეესებ** *jeseb/ესებ* *eseb* (Lower Bal) < Georgian *Ioseb-i* (< Old Hebrew) “reproduction”, “increase”; **აბრამ** *abram* (Upper Svan, Lower Svan) < Georgian *Abram-i* (< Old Hebrew) “father of heights”, “raised up”...), from Russian (e.g.: **მეხა** *mexä* (Lower Bal)/**მიხე** *mixe* (Iakhamulian) < Georgian *Mikheil-i* < Russian **Михаил** < **Greek** **Μιχαήλ** < Old Hebrew **Miqael**...), from Ossetian (e.g.: **სოსლან** *soslan* (Lower Bal) < Georgian *Soslan-i* (< Ossetian < Ingush) “the name of one of the heroes of the epic of the Narts” ...), from Iranian (e.g. **არჩილ** *ärçil* (Upper Svan, Lentekhian)/**არჩილ** *arçil* (Lashkhan, Cholur) < Georgian *Archil-i* (Iranian) “correct”, “sincere”, “right”, “bright”, “merciful”, from Old Slavic (**ლადიმერ** *lädimer* (Upper Svan) < Georgian *Vladimer* (< Old Slavic) “owner of the country), from Arabic-Persian (**მურზაყან** (Upper Svan) < Georgian *Mirza* < Arabic-Persian **Amirzade** “Emir’s son” + Persian suffix **xan** (**Mirzakhani**)...) and etc. Borrowed anthroponyms, most of which are currently found only in toponyms and in names denoting family-branch names. Most of the foreign-language anthroponyms have been preserved by the names denoting family-branch names and, as M. Kaldani indicated, they saved them from eventual oblivion (Kaldani 1987: 304). Obviously, most of the mentioned anthroponyms are assimilated into Svan from Georgian-Zan (directly or indirectly).

Conclusion:

Clearly, our main area of interest is to determine the geographical direction of the borrowing and, if possible, the chronology, which, of course, is associated with great difficulty. Determining the chronological boundaries of borrowed words is usually difficult, especially when dealing with ancient borrowings, which may have been represented by sound correspondence in Kartvelian languages (Sagliani 2005: 218). The anthroponyms that have survived in Svan toponyms and family-branch names are of ancient formation and most of them, as already mentioned, have been preserved by

toponyms and family-branch names. In addition, early proper nouns of Svan have undergone phonetic-semantic adaptations over time, that makes it difficult to restore the original form of analytical forms and makes it even difficult to define both chronological boundaries and the geographical direction of borrowing.

NOTES:

¹ The research was conducted in 2019 within the framework of the young Scientist Research Project funded by the Shota Rustaveli National Science Foundation of Georgia _ „Phonetical-Phonological and Semantic Analysis of Loan- Words in the Svan Language” (fundamental-applied research, appended with a dictionary)“.

REFERENCES

- Andronikashvili M. (1966). Andronikashvili M., Outlines from Iranian-Georgian Linguistic Relationship. T. Publishing House of Tbilisi University. Tbilisi.
- Fähnrich, H. & Sarjveladze, Z. (2000). Etymological Dictionary of the Kartvelian Languages. Sulkhani-Saba Orbeliani State University Press, Tbilisi.
- Jikia, M. (1971). Jikia M., Anthroponyms of Turkish Origin in Georgian. Science. Tbilisi.
- Kaldani, M. (1987). Kaldani M., Semantics and Structure of Svan Names (According to the Materials of the Chronicle of Souls): Onomastics. I. Publishing House of Tbilisi University. Tbilisi.
- Klimov, G. (1998). Etomological Dictionary of the Kartvelian Languages, Berlin/New York.
- Machavariani G. (1965). Machavariani G., Common Kartvelian consonant system. Publishing House of Tbilisi University. Tbilisi.
- Sagliani M. (2005). Sagliani M., borrowings in Svan language. Candidate's dissertation. Science. Tbilisi.

Guranda Chelidze, Ekaterine Kardava, Zurab Bragvadze
Caucasus University, Tbilisi, Georgia

Raising EU Awareness in Ethnic Minority Areas – Following the One Example of a Jean Monnet Project „Triangle Effect of European Studies at Schools“ (TEESS)

ABSTRACT

In the context of European Integration of Georgia, great importance is attached to the knowledge and expectations of the population, including the ethnic minorities, regarding Georgia's integration in the EU and implementation of the EU-Georgia Association Agreement. According to the surveys taken by various organizations, the popular mood in Georgia is positive where the EU-integration is concerned. Although the interest towards the association is substantial it does not rely on the specifics and dynamics of the bilateral relations. Mostly, the information the people get from the TV is superficial.

One option to raise the popular awareness is to implement the Caucasus University Erasmus + Jean Monnet “**Triangle Effect of European Studies at Schools**” (TEESS) project and share the university knowledge of European Studies with public schools. The project aims at raising awareness of the European integration, the Association Agreement and DCFTA in the regions densely populated by the IDPs, namely, the school children, teachers and their families.

The workshops staged in the Georgian, Russian, Armenian and Azeri public schools in the capital Tbilisi and the towns of Akhaltsikhe and Marneuli partly attended by the IDPs made the scarcity of the information and the interest evident. The discussions showed that most of them realized the importance of the EU support to Georgia. However, some of them were still skeptical. We suggest a different planning of the information campaign targeted at sharing the European values and generally the EU-Georgia relations, on the one hand and better instruction in the Georgian language in the regions populated with the ethnic minorities. The outcome of the project made it clear that supply of more comprehensive information on Europe at the history and civic education lessons to the school children could be a good option. That is what “The European Association Process in Georgia”, a quadri-lingual textbook published within the frameworks of the Caucasus University “Erasmus +” Jean Monnet project funded by the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia is targeted at. We suppose stepping up the project activities by adding elements of informal education and last but not the least, closer involvement of public agencies and institutions.

Key words: *EU, TEESS, ethnic minority, awareness, public schools, handbook for history and civic education teachers.*

Introduction

Georgia declared European Integration as a priority in its foreign and domestic policy from 1996. Following the successes in various areas, in 2014, Georgia and EU signed the

Association Agreement and the one On the Deep and Comprehensive Free Trade Area (AA/DCFTA). Fulfillment of the obligations under the said Agreements, calls for substantial changes in nearly all the fields, the public support to the progress towards the EU and raising popular awareness of the European values. Every citizen should know how important the European integration and association are, and the prospects they open up.

There are ideological obstacles on Georgia's way to Europe created by the Russian Media propaganda, especially effective where the ethnic minorities, with their insufficient knowledge of the official language are concerned. The Internally Displaced People (IDPs) from Abkhazia and Samachablo (South Ossetia) are also prone to the Russian disinformation campaign.

The Georgian people, including the ethnic minorities should be well informed about the EU and implementation of the Association Agreement, so that they have a clear picture of what is in store for them. According to the surveys taken by various organizations, the popular sentiment is pro-European (www.epfound.ge); Although the interest in the association process is keen enough, the people are not fully aware of the specifics of the EU-Georgia relations and the dynamics thereof. It is mostly from TV that people get the information, which is far from sufficient.

Within the frameworks of Jean Monnet Project: "Triangle Effect of European Studies at Schools" (TEESS), we suggest introduction of European learning experience to public schools as a means of raising awareness of the European Integration, the Association Agreement and DCFTA among the IDPs students, teachers and their families by the professors of Caucasus University European Studies BA program, as well as the students and graduates.

On the Caucasus University Erasmus+ Jean Monnet "Triangle Effect of European Studies at Schools" Project (TEESS)

In order to enter the competition, the Caucasus University Erasmus+ Jean Monnet project "Triangle Effect of European Studies at Schools" (TEESS) was uploaded to the EC website in February 2019. In late July of the same year, we were supplied the information

on the selection process and funding, and the formalities having been settled, the Project was launched on 14 November 2019.

Among others, TEESS involves workshops at the public schools. The target group is made up of the basic and secondary stage ethnic minority and IDP pupils of the public schools, their parents and teachers. The workshops mainly involve the teachers of history, civil education, geography, Georgian language and literature and foreign languages etc. interested academic staff. Each working meeting involved 55 students, teachers and parents. The workshops have been conducted in the public schools of Akhaltsikhe and Marneuli, as well as public school #3 in Tbilisi of predominantly the IDPs pupils. All in all, over 500 beneficiaries have participated in the workshops.

TEESS was developed by the academic staff of the Caucasus University, BA Program of the European Studies of Caucasus School of Humanities and Social Sciences: Prof. Ekaterine Kardava and Prof. Guranda Chelidze. As to the training module, it was developed by the Project authors and experts, including Dr. of History, Prof. Zurab Bragvadze of the School of Humanities and Social Sciences.

Apart from raising awareness of the European association process, the workshops aim at motivation of the ethnic minority students to improve their proficiency in the Georgian language, so they are conducted in Georgian. Even more so, those after workshops, the students are supposed to enter “I Saw Europe in Georgia” essay competition; so sufficient knowledge of the official language matters a lot. In their essays to be written in the Georgian language, the students are going to impart their opinions on the significance of AA/DCFTA for the progress of the country, their personal development and the part they may play in creating a democratic society built on the European values. According to the Project curriculum, the competition is to follow the workshops, so that in the meantime, the non-Georgian students could improve their writing and communication skills.

We believe that the printed training materials handed out to the students and teachers are going to be helpful in terms of preparation to the essay competition. The same is true for “The European Association Process in Georgia” handbook for history and civic education teachers supported by the Georgian Ministry of Education, Science, Culture and

Sports. To make it more accessible to the ethnic minorities, apart from Georgian and English, the handbook was translated into the Armenian and Azeri Languages (cu.edu.ge, 2021). The softcopies of the handbook were uploaded to the Caucasus University and the Project websites and posted on Facebook. The handbook was shared by several organizations also working on the European integration and association issues. The National Center for Teacher Professional Development, which reviewed the said manual approved and recommended it for instruction. The Center posted the relevant information in the Georgian and English languages (tpdc, 2021) on its web-portal. The handbook sets out the training materials, which meet the national curriculum standards of citizenship: student's knowledge of the public he/she is a member of and the local, national and global developments, as well as their implementation in practice. The workshops are going to help the students in terms of generating the sense of true citizenship, motivate them to take care of the country they live in, teach them the ways of civil involvement, make them realize that they can and should make a difference where the country (community/municipality or the state) is concerned; develop their collaboration, conflict settlement, entrepreneurial and financial management skills, make them focus on the human rights, tolerance, rule of law etc. democratic principles and motivate them for closer involvement in the public and political affairs (Citizenship – basic stage Standard). The handbook made up of three parts deals with the issues such as formation of the EU, its goals and tasks, European values, the EU expansion, progress of the EU-Georgia relations, the results of AA/DCFTA where the judiciary, labor relations, introduction of the EU market standards, food safety etc. issues are concerned. The authors of the handbook also speak about the cultural heritage issues within the frameworks of the EU-Georgia Association Agreement (Textbook, 2021).

The workshops have made it evident that the purpose of the project has been achieved: the teachers and pupils of the public schools in the regions densely populated by the ethnic minorities, as well as those of the IDPs schools have developed a new vision of association with the EU and importance of AA/DCFTA. The students realize how to get involved in building the society they are a part of and more of them support the national European Integration and Association policy. The number of Georgia's European integration

supporters has increased. The ethnic minority school children are trying to improve their knowledge of Georgian.

However, the problems remain and we are going to touch upon them based on the trainings held at the public schools. We believe that meetings with school children and not infrequently with their teachers and parents for promotion of the EU and Georgia's integration in it are very important. Not only do those three groups get more comprehensive knowledge about Europe by listening to the trainers and doing exercises, but they also communicate and, sometimes, voice criticism at the seminars. All in all, it is a good way in terms of assessment of the environment they find themselves in.

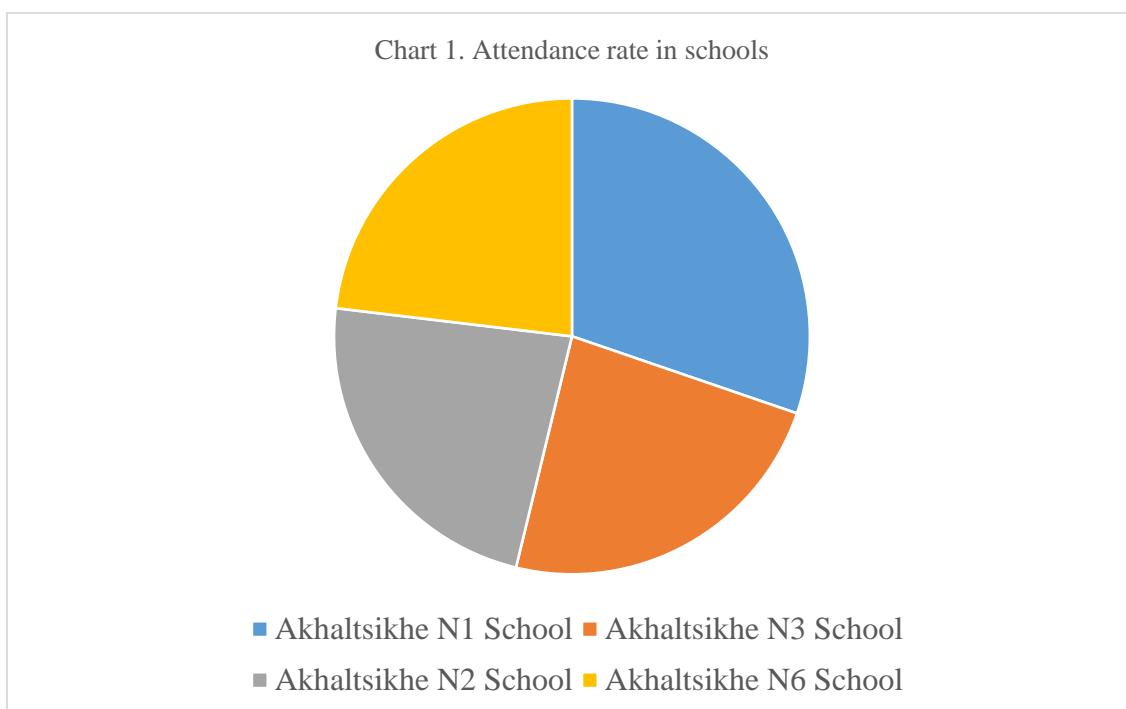
TEESS in Akhaltsikhe Public Schools

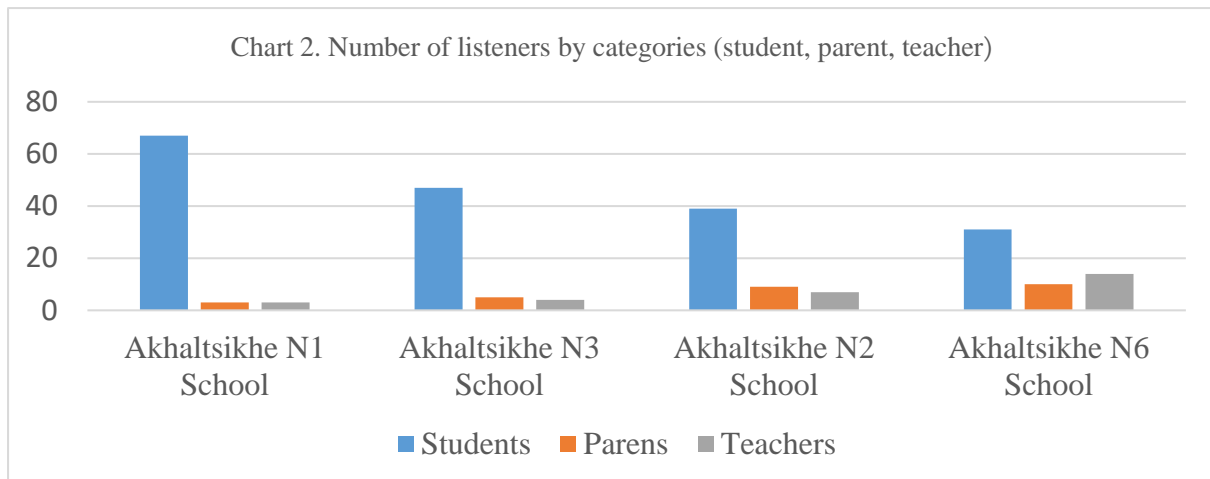
We will start by saying in the first place that we found it quite difficult to implement the project in cooperation with other institutions.

The project was acknowledged with a high contest evaluation (88 points) by European Commission, but clearly stated goals and objectives in the project, the content of the planned workshops were not sufficient for starting practical activities in public schools without the relevant permission from the Ministry of Education, Science, Culture and Sports Affairs of Georgia. We would like to express our gratitude to National Department of Educational Plans, the management and experts of the Office of Assessment of National Educational Plans and Resources who exercised high consideration toward our project, provided their immediate support in acknowledgement of urgency and importance of teaching / promulgation of information about the European Union, the EU Association Agreement and the EU-Georgia Deep and Comprehensive Free Trade Agreement, although we had to rework the training module for admission to schools with consideration of the rules and requirements existing in Georgia. It is quite logical that it required a certain amount of time to learn, discuss, analyze and assess the module for the reason of which we received permission for its introduction to schools only on February 18, 2020. The process of negotiations with the local educational resource centers and school managements was started for agreement upon the time terms for the project

implementation, but from March 2, 2020, the Covid-19 pandemic caused suspension of the educational process in public schools in Georgia to last till October. Even if the process resumed in the regions of Georgia where ethnical minorities form a part of the population, the educational resource centers, despite their sharing the opinion that conduction of the training was important, avoided admission of foreign persons into school buildings and conduction of similar activities. We, on our side, naturally treated this attitude with understanding, although on the other side, in view of the project time frames and the plan we had, were willing to start the process of the project practical implementation. On October 19-22, 2020, with the support provided by Akhaltsikhe region educational resource center, we were given the possibility to conduct four meetings in N1 Georgian, N6 Georgian, N3 Armenian and N2 Georgian-Russian public schools of Akhaltsikhe. The meetings were held in full compliance with the regulations of the Ministry of Healthcare of Georgia.

It should be underlined that the students of these schools and their parents as teachers showed great interest toward the training. In some of the schools the number of attendees even outnumbered the figures we had estimated which requires appreciation on our side. If we look at the statistics, the figures look as follows:





We should say that side by side with the public schools we held one meeting in a private school as well. It should be mentioned here that the level of the involvement of teachers in the workshops was even higher in the private school the proof of which is the number and quality of the works of the participants in the essay competition.

The workshops bore an interactive character although we had some separate time allocated for the question-and-answer session as well during which we provided answers to all the questions asked by the attendees. We should also mention it here that the workshop module was detailed down considering various activities within its scope, but the regulations imposed upon schools for the pandemic (the social distance to be kept between the students, prohibition of using the same things) excluded conduction of any group activities.

Upon the completion of the workshop the attendees filled up the questionnaire given to them for the training evaluation:

1. What was most important for you at the training?
2. About which of the issues would you like to deepen your knowledge?
3. Will you be able to use the knowledge acquired through the training in practice?
4. Please write your opinion concerning the training and the trainers. Any opinion will be accepted and appreciated.

Filling out the questionnaire was not mandatory. In case of Akhaltsikhe the workshop, attendees, as different from other regions, had no additional views in connection with the

questionnaire filling up. Most activity in answering the questions asked by the questionnaire was shown by the students, parents and teachers of the Armenian school. At the same time, we had cases in other schools when a part of the training attendees refused to fill up the questionnaire, the other part demonstrating a scrupulous attitude toward answering on the questions meanwhile. When working on questionnaires after the completion of the workshops the trainees provided sincere answers to the questions given to them and underlined that the information on the process of European association in Georgia was new to them. Judging from the great interest the students as well as their parents and teachers showed toward the issue during the workshops clearly and vividly demonstrated the same. The beneficiaries express their willingness to put the knowledge obtained by them to use, for instance, to set up micro-enterprises complying with European standards for their family undertakings. Moreover, they link their future education to the prospect of benefiting from the share programs. Judging from this it is evident that the majority of the attendees of our workshops acquired the right understanding of what the EU support means for Georgia. On the side though, summing up the process and its outcomes from all points of view, we should mention the skeptical attitude demonstrated by a smaller part of the participants in the process believing that the EU is acting within its own interests willing to bring Georgia under its influence. It is a sad reality to respond to which actions are to be taken not only at the level of schools. Notwithstanding our project as well as the intense activities performed in the region by the information center concerning NATO and European Union, more information campaigns are required with the media taking an active part in them. Speaking of this, we will say it here that our work in Akhaltsikhe was broadcasted by both the local press * <http://sknews.ge/ka/old/29872>) and the local TV channels (tv9news, 2021). We are going to speak about the aforementioned problems in light of the goals and objectives of the “Triangle of European Studies” project as well as the results achieved in it. We see it reasonable that European studies become more active within the scope of the history and civil education lessons at school in order to ensure raising the awareness among the pupils. The supplementary reference material prepared within the frameworks of our project “The Process of EU-Association in Georgia”

will have its good share in this. Immediately after the completion of the workshops, we heard the participants express their willingness for holding more of such meetings more frequently. Both the teachers and the students expressed their readiness for participation of similar type workshops in future. What we think in this respect is that side by side with all this it would be desirable to activate project designing working in schools and introduce the elements of informal education to get acquainted with the local undertakings set up with the EU-support, learn the specifics of their working and the existing benefits in their own region. This all would raise the level of knowledge/awareness as well as the sense of responsibility calling on them to take part in the introduction and implementation of the EU-association processes in Georgia. At the same time, we want to state it that while pursuing achievement of certain specific goals, it is not enough to just implement projects developed with the financing from various donor organizations. Despite the fact that the Ministry of Education, Science, Culture and Sports of Georgia provides its due support to us, their involvement in school activities in regions should be of a higher degree not in terms of the European Integration-related teachings but also in settling such issues as equipment of these schools with the required technical devices and technologies, ensuring the internet access for them, raising the teachers' skills of practical usage of information technologies which is partly in deficit in the schools we visited. There is one more very interesting issue that we want to speak about and that calls for attention indeed: when sending the contest essays receiving the materials from non-Georgian schools took a relevantly longer time. The reason was not the students' unwillingness to participate in such contests – on the contrary, the willingness expressed by them is quite high; the reason for this turned out to be that the students of these schools speak the Georgian language but their conversational language is not enough to let them write freely and due to the difficulties in their written communication these children commonly happen to be among the outsiders when it comes to different contests. This fact once again proves the necessity of teaching the state language in the non-Georgian schools on one side and at the same time shows the necessity to break the stereotype that if a student does not have the required competence in the writing skills he or she cannot freely demonstrate his/her opinions and

judgments to the public. Such attitude on our part triggered some stimulus in these students and some of them are already writing their contest essays while the latter will on their part will further their knowledge and raise the level of their awareness in the EU-Georgia relations.

And last but not least, we want to deal with one more issue that was not envisaged by the introduction part of the training. The first part of the reference material and the training module prepared by us deals with the chronology of the EU-Georgia relations though the emphasis here is made on the major events having taken place in the course of preparing the Association Agreement. A part of the attendees of our workshops and meetings identified certain issues that were of interest to them and this should be necessarily taken into account when modifying the training modules in future. The issue deals with the role of the European Union in the 2008 Georgia-Russian war concerning which, the training attendees unfortunately have incorrect outlook. Therefore, we see it reasonable to enrich the material regarding this topic.

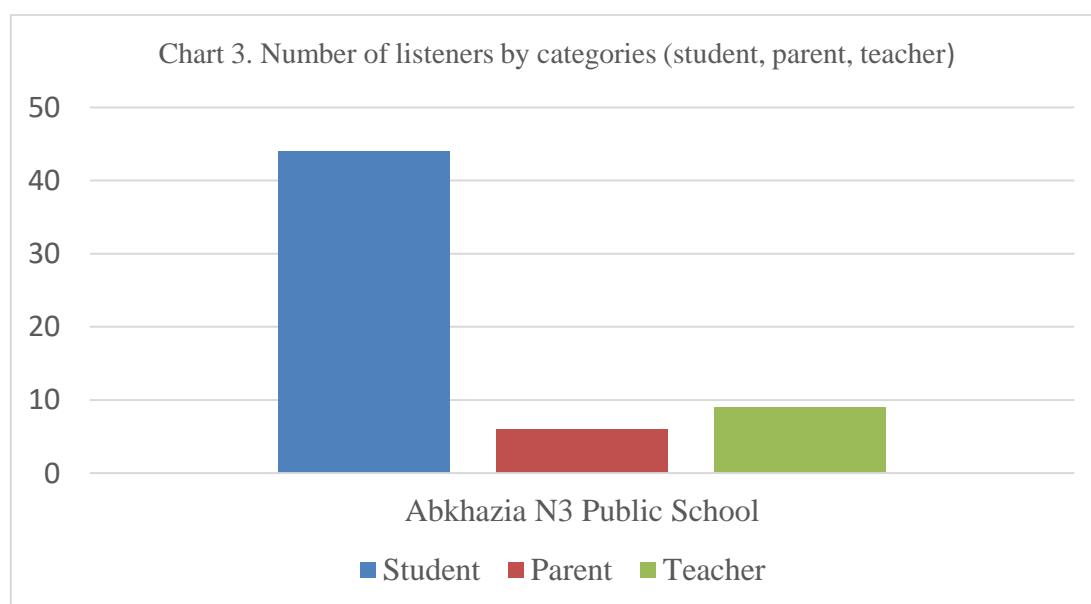
TEESS in IDP's Abkhazia N3 Public School

As said above, inadequate knowledge of the Georgian language is the main reason behind the scarcity of information available to the ethnic minorities in Georgia. A number of surveys taken in Georgia say that to fill the gap, they mostly rely on the Russian Media (Mikashavidze, 2016). Understandingly, it makes it difficult for them to comprehend what Georgia's association with Europe is all about and ultimately support the European integration policy. It is necessary to intensify strategic communication for better awareness of the issue. The ethnic minorities are now the target groups of various awareness raising projects. However, the prevalent mood regarding the European integration among the IDPs from Abkhazia and Tskhinvali region (South Ossetia) displaced as a result of the Russian occupation and armed conflicts has not been duly investigated, as yet. The IDPs speak Georgian, so getting information is no problem. The IDPs living in close knit communities and mostly marginalized. They get social allowances and humanitarian aid and are the target groups of the so-called integration projects (womenfundgeorgia, 2021).

Public school #3 in the capital Tbilisi with a large number of IDP pupils was made the target group of the “Erasmus +” Jean Monnet “Triangle Effect of European Studies at Schools” (TEESS) project. As the head master said, 100 IDP pupils and their families, mostly the Georgian displaced from Abkhazia live and study in the school facility.

44 pupils, 9 teachers and 6 parents attended the seminars. The atmosphere was charged with their memories of the war, the loved ones and the property they had lost and the inadequate living conditions and social allowance they have to come to terms with. Therefore, it is no wonder that some of them, the teachers and even pupils, who had never lived in the USSR, sounded nostalgic about the Soviet Union where they were much better off. It shows that the pupils are largely influenced by the stories the adults tell them.

The participants agreed that the EU is Georgia’s partner, but what they don’t understand is why it has taken over 20 years for them to feel the benefits.



The strategies the trainers pursued was not denying or disregarding the concerns or anti-European mood of the participants but demonstrating the contrary facts, sources and statistics instead. For instance, when someone claims that the EU imposed single sex marriages on Georgia, the adequate answer is not the rhetoric about the personal freedom but neutralizing false information on Europe by referring to the Constitutions of several European states stating that the family is a registered union of a man and a woman. Only

after a listener admits that he has been subjected to false information and believes what the trainer says, can we proceed with breaking down the other stereotypes.

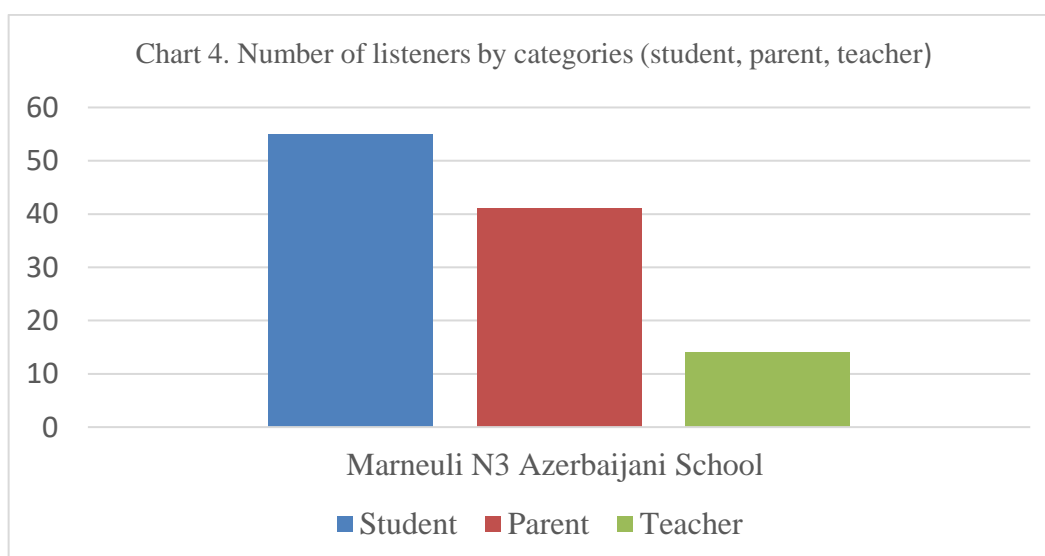
The information on the EU support to Georgia is especially scarce. The people ask why they cannot feel the EU support in their daily lives. The meager technical equipment of the school housing such a vulnerable group is another problem creating obstacles in terms of the development of the younger generation.

For all the contrary views and heated discussions, even the most radical participants, both the teachers and pupils acknowledged that they had not known the truth about the EU, which is a positive indicator. It should be said though that this type seminars have to be staged regularly. Promotion of the EU-Georgia ties and trust-building will take continuous information supply and retraining of teachers. Hi-tech is to be available to the IDPs and namely, the schools they study at. And, that is the task of the Georgian Government and the authorities exiled from the breakaway regions, who retain their powers since the violation of the country's territorial integrity.

TEESS in Marneuli Azerbaijani and Georgian-Russian Public Schools

Working in Marneuli region densely populated with the ethnic Azeri proved to be especially interesting. The workshops supported by the Education Resource Center were held at Georgian-Russian public school #2 and Azerbaijani public school #3.

The one at Azerbaijani public school #3 was attended by 55 pupils, 14 teachers and 41 parents. Incidentally, the parents, mostly mothers were the most active among the participants.



In terms of the pandemic regulations and the technical equipment except for a projector, the school is fit for appropriate instruction. Although the Georgian language and literature is taught and the teachers have a good command of the Georgian language, some of the pupils and most of the parents do not speak and understand it. So we had to hold the training in Russian or some of the pupils took on the part of the interpreters. However, on one occasion it was the other way round: the pupils did not understand Russian either, so we had to do the translation into Azeri language.

At Azerbaijani public school #3 in Marneuli, they know next to nothing about the EU and its member states. To them the EU, NATO and the USA are about the same, something concerning. They believe that Georgia should maintain close ties with Azerbaijan, Russia and Turkey. To our question: “Turkey is a NATO member and an EU aspirant state, so, what about Georgia’s relationships with it?” they retorted that Turkey was never going to be admitted to the EU and it was all a part of the Western propaganda campaign! They think that the Western countries are against the Azeri-Turkish progress, and it was Turkey and Russia that were instrumental in the settlement of the Azeri-Armenian conflict over Nagorno-Karabakh and supported Azerbaijan in restoration of its territorial integrity.

Understandingly, they know but little about the EU projects implemented in the Georgia’s Lower Kartli region, namely in Marneuli Municipality. Many of the parents, pupils and even teachers did not know anything about the Erasmus+ programs and as they learned that those are educational programs for young people, some of the pupils sounded willing to get involved apparently for purely practical reasons, such as employment and financial stability. It was during the trainings that the attendees learned about AA/DCFTA holding promise of export of agricultural produce from the Marneuli region to the EU market. In their words, they would pay more attention to the opportunity and make a good use of it.

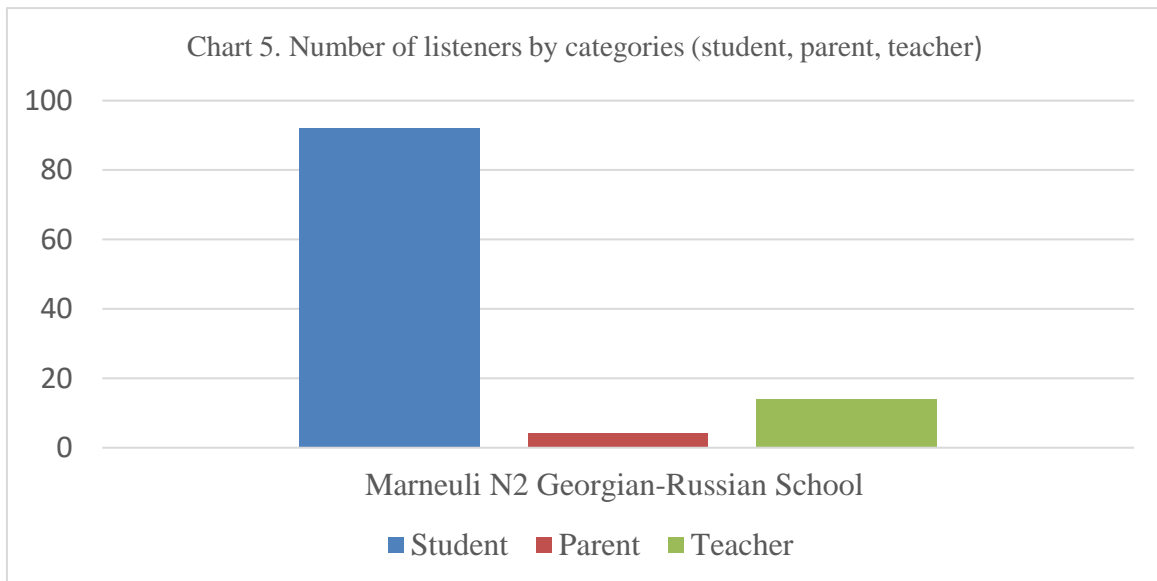
The most striking problem in the said and presumably the other ethnic minority public schools is poor knowledge of Georgia’s official language, scarcity of information on the political, economic and cultural developments in the country and total unawareness of Georgia’s foreign policy priorities and its strive towards the West. Many of them even do

not know what the visa-free travel is and whether it is a benefit to the Georgian citizens. They were surprised to learn that the Georgian passport holders were free to travel in the Schengen area. Some of them even asked whether it was true. They made no secret that they watch only the Azeri and Russian TV channels.

For all our efforts to provide them with as much information as possible on the EU and the benefits Georgia gets, they were skeptical. Some of the participants did not even sign the attendance register and refused give feedback. When we asked “Why”, they said the signature could be used for the Covid vaccination. The project team did their best to explain that it was wrong.

Regardless of the aforesaid difficulties, the trainings proved to be productive for dozens of children got the information on the EU and Georgia-EU relationships. The pupils promised to look for more information in the Internet. The teachers realized they had to work harder in that direction. Some of the parents realized the prospects the EU opened up for their children. As to the trainers, we saw there still was a lot of work to do for the pupils to perceive themselves as truly Georgian citizens and realize the challenges facing the country. Also, it is clear that merely the trainings will not do and tackling the above problems calls for joint efforts of the NGOs and State agencies, such as the Education Ministry, local government (town hall, city assembly, educational resource center), as well as more intensive communication between the Western Embassies in Georgia and the locals.

It should be noted that we got a somewhat different picture at Georgian-Russian public school #2 in Marneuli: the pupils are much better informed where the EU and the European values are concerned. The school maintains close ties with regional office of “The NATO and EU Information Center”. Moreover, the Office head teaches the Civic Education course there. Over 100 pupils, teachers and parents attended the TEES project workshops.



Several sessions were dedicated to the EU history, Georgia-EU Association Agreement etc. The answers to our questions showed the interest to the issues and support to Georgia's integration into Europe. Not only the history and civic education teachers but those of geography, Georgian and foreign language teachers voiced their readiness for the European studies at the school. They said that jointly with the BA students of the European Studies of the School of Humanities and Social Sciences at the Caucasus University and the academic staff they would like to implement the projects involving the European values and, to this end, use the manual published within the frameworks of the project. Most of the pupils of the school are ethnic Azeri, have a good command of the Georgian language and associate Georgia's future with Europe. They showed keen interest to the issue and entered "I Saw Europe in Georgia" competition of essays. As against their fellow pupils of the other school, they did not hesitate to fill out the training assessment questionnaire. We are ready to work harder where the Europe-related information supply to the residents of the Marneuli region is concerned. We hope that the public interest to the EU-Georgia association is going to be galvanized by the local Media: TV (facebook, 2021 (24news, 2021) coverage of the project in the Georgian and the Azeri languages.

After the trainings in Marneuli, the NATO and EU Information Center in Georgia (LEPL) at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Georgia showed interest to Jean Monnet "Triangle Effect of European Studies at Schools" (TEESS) Erasmus+ Project of the Caucasus

University, and during “The 2021 European Days” jointly with the Project team, arranged the ZOOM presentation of the textbook “European Association Process in Georgia” for the teachers of the regions. At the presentation, the project team spoke in detail about the structure, content and application of the manual. It would be no overstatement to say that TEES broke through the school and University limits and resulted in productive collaboration with the NATO and EU Information Center in Georgia and the National Center for Professional Advancement of Teachers, which on its part, arranged an online presentation of the said manual for teachers across Georgia. Also, at the Caucasus University, the Project team met with the Civic Education Teachers’ Forum and members of the History Teachers Association. We suppose the collaboration is going to provide more opportunities in terms of implementation of the EU-related projects. Finally, we wish to acknowledge the Georgian-Armenian Union for its support to our work at the Armenian schools.

“I Saw Europe in Georgia” Essay Competition

“I Saw Europe in Georgia” competition of essays roused plenty of the pupils’ interest. Understandingly, not all the pupils entered the competition but most of them were eager to know more about Georgia’s aspiration for EU membership. Scores of pupils of the Georgian, Russian, Armenian and Azerbaijani schools from across Georgia got involved in the competition. For all the concerns of the non-Georgian participants to write essays in Georgian, the results confirmed that the project team did the right thing by staging the workshops in the Georgian language. The pupils asked for the Georgian teachers’ consultations and ultimate the results were impressive enough: the essays of the pupils of the Armenian public school #3 in the town of Akhaltsikhe and Armenian public school #104 in the capital Tbilisi stood out in terms of their content and calligraphy. The essays were assessed by the senior BA students of the European Studies of the School of Humanities and Social Sciences at the Caucasus University. Checking the essays was a good hands-on work for the University students. Their arguments while picking out the best essays were well-grounded. The essays made the pupils’ belief in Georgia’s European

prospects evident. The winners of the 6 competing schools were awarded with the certificates, books etc. The Project team acknowledged the teachers for their use of the manual in the instruction. On their part, they voiced their proposals as to how they are going to introduce the European values during the classes. We have the author of the best proposals. The practical implementation of the plan offered by the civic education teacher from Marneuli N2 Georgian-Russian School, will further ensure the sustainability and continuity of the results obtained by the project. The interest and participation of the Forum of Civic Education Teachers in project “Round table” can also be a guarantee of this.

Conclusions

Based on the project assessment, we suggest countering the increasing anti-Western propaganda by a regular, intensive public dialog to ensure creation of a positive popular mood where Georgia’s European integration is concerned. For all the problems created by the Coronavirus pandemic both in Georgia and the rest of the world, we managed to implement the project and achieved its objectives. There is a lot of work to do, though. Insufficient awareness of the European values and poor command of the Georgian language among the ethnic minorities is still a challenge. While carrying out the project, we saw clearly the interest in Georgia’s integration into Europe not only at the beneficiary schools but the other secondary schools, as well. It was their independent decision to introduce a civic education manual. “Tsiskari”, the Georgian-Italian school has come up as the frontrunner, which means that the text book is now available across the national educational system. The outcome of the project stimulates us to implement similar projects in various Georgian regions. To this end, the support of the Ministry of Education and Science and sharing the experience gained in the implementation of TEES project is essential. We believe that the interest in Europe is going to be stimulated by a wider application of the EU Erasmus in Schools project and national competitions involving all-the-level pupils.

References

- Chelidze G., Kardava E., Bragvadze Z., (2020). European Association Process in Georgia, Handbook for History and Civic Education Teachers, Caucasus University Publishing House, Tbilisi, 2020
- Citizenship, (2018-2024). Basic Stage Standard, <http://ncp.ge/ge/curriculum/satesto-seqtsia/akhali-sastsavlo-gegmebi-2018-2024/sabazo-safekhuri-vi-ix-klasebi-proeqti-sadjaro-gankhilstvis> (access 21.05.2021)
- Fassoulas, (2016). Fassoulas Petros, Learning EU at School' on the ground: the work of the European Movement network,
- Mikashavidze, (2016). Mikashavidze Maia, Ethnic Minorities in Georgia: From Media Involvement to Strengthening, Policy Document, 2016 - https://www.osgf.ge/files/2016/EU%20publication/Angarishi_A4__Media_GEO.pdf (access 21.05.2021)
- Triangle Effect of European Studies at schools (TEESS), (2021). / ევროპული სწავლების სამკუთხედი, 611026-EPP-1-2019-1-GEEPPJMO-PROJECT, 2021.
- 24news, (2021). https://24news.ge/read/id/47642?fbclid=IwAR01-8xiPnqA8fFeZ-BKa8gbHEibfh7a V7I7zIx7H_PI-OT3nR8iQ4j1nLg
- cu.edu.ge, (2021). <https://cu.edu.ge/files/gallery/Grant%20Projects/2020/broshura-geo-Bolo.pdf>.
- facebook, (2021). <https://www.facebook.com/watch/?v=4438599982822825>
- Sknews, (2021). <http://sknews.ge/ka/old/29872>
- textbook, (2021). <https://cu.edu.ge/grant-projects/cu-grant-projects-news/european-association>
- tpdc, (2021). <http://tpdc.ge/geo/news/706>
- tv9news, (2021). <https://tv9news.ge/ka/akhali-ambebi/ganathleba/article/22358-akhalcikheshi-evrokavshirthan-asocirebis-themaze-treningebi-tardeba?fbclid=IwAR15x-quWJP3vj1LH-wbHg1QozGAfP-JA91PeBkpCWhxgk7FDMkaxejOZAs>
- Womenfundgeorgia, (2021). <https://womenfundgeorgia.org/en/News/AllNews/2133>
- www.epfound.ge - Unfortunately, the website has been temporarily inaccessible since 11.03.2021)
- <http://sknews.ge/ka/old/29872> (access 21.05.2021)

<https://cu.edu.ge/grant-projects/cu-grant-projects-news/european-association> (access 21.05.2021)

<https://europeanmovement.eu/learning-eu-at-school-on-the-ground-the-work-of-the-european-movement-network-2/> (access 21.05.2021)

<https://tv9news.ge/ka/akhali-ambebi/ganathleba/article/22358-akhalcikheshi-evrokavshirthan-asocirebis-themaze-treningebi-tardeba?fbclid=IwAR15x-quWJP3vj1LH-wbHg1QozGAfP-JA91PeBkpCWhxgk7FDMkaxejOZAs> (access 21.05.2021)

<https://womenfundgeorgia.org/en/News/AllNews/2133> (access 21.05.2021)

Gulzhana Kuzembayeva, Banu Zhakanova

K. Zhubanov Aktobe Regional University (Aktobe, the Republic of Kazakhstan)

Needs Analysis in English Language Teaching of Medical Students in Kazakhstan

ABSTRACT

Teaching English at higher education institutions regardless of students' area of specialization ignores their individual differences, needs, wishes, interests and goals. The most important and problematic question in teaching and learning is whether the course is effective or not. The effectiveness of the course is strongly related to learners' attitudes, needs, expectations, satisfaction, and achievement. English for Specific Purposes is student-task oriented, and the basic insight into this trend is to offer course design, content and materials by being responsive to target language learners' own agenda. In this respect, the English language needs of undergraduate medical students in Kazakhstan were investigated by means of a case study conducted with the students of the Faculty of General Medicine at the West Kazakhstan Marat Ospanov Medical University. 52 students (14 males and 38 females) in their first and second year of studies participated in a quantitative survey during the spring semester of the academic year 2020-2021. A questionnaire was adapted from the previous studies in this field (Ait Hattani, 2019; Kayaoglu, Dag Akbas, 2015; Tang, Zeng, 2020), and included items on students' attitudes towards the English course, identify their language strengths and weaknesses, and shed light on their language needs. The findings of the study will suggest practical implications for ESP course design for medical students.

Keywords: *needs analysis, English language teaching, university, medical students, English for specific purposes.*

1. Introduction

The rapid growth of globalization and the increasing demands of the 21st century have affected different fields, including education. The major goal of the latter is to improve the individual's social and economic prospects. As a matter of fact, the millennial requirements have generated a great demand to drastically change the way teaching and learning is taking place both inside and outside instructional settings, which has consequently led to various innovative practices around the world. One of the major education issues in the 21st century is related to language teaching and learning, English language in particular. With English

becoming the global and most dominant language worldwide in addition to the political, economic, and cultural changes, English language education needed to be reconsidered. English language education has been gradually shifting from its classical applications such as English as a foreign language (EFL) or English as a second language (ESL) toward new paradigms like English for science and technology (EST), English for business and economics (EBE), and English for academic purposes (EAP) (Hattani, 2019).

As far as the Kazakhstani educational system is concerned, the State policy of trilingualism in the Republic of Kazakhstan suggests speaking three languages: Kazakh as a state language, Russian as a language of international communication and English as a language of successful integration into global economics. With more than 130 nationalities living in Kazakhstan, most of the population is bilingual (Kazakh and Russian). Several new reforms have been launched in terms of English language education, approaching English as the international language of science, technology, business, and communication. These reforms focus on institutional, pedagogical, and practical issues, aiming at preparing students and future generations to meet the current academic and professional requirements. People's studying of English is motivated by the government programmes on the development at all stages of education. Introduction of trilingualism at the Universities provides opening English departments, systematic work on publishing and translation of university text-books into English and studying languages based on international standards (Kuzembayeva et al., 2018).

Teaching general English regardless of the area of specialization of students neglects their individual differences, needs, wishes, interests and goals (Kayaoglu & Akbas, 2015). With an awareness of such problems in language education, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) arose as a key solution in 1960s (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Johns, 2013; Master, 2005). The basic insight into this trend is to offer course design, content and materials by being responsive to target language learners' own agenda. Therefore, it is necessary to find out first what is specifically appropriate, available and applicable for the target situation and target language learners in terms of their needs. In time, different reasons such as demands of a fast changing world resulted in emergence of different ESP branches.

Due to the acceptance of English in twentieth century as international language of science and medicine, a considerable body of medical research and literature has been produced in English. This dominance of English in medical accounts paves the way for emergence of a new English for Specific Purposes (ESP) branch as English for Medical Purposes (EMP). The basic insight into this trend is to offer course design, content and materials by being responsive to

target language learners' own agenda (Kayaoglu, Akbas, 2015). Most of the EMP research emphasizes on the importance of intra-professional communication, spoken interactions in conferences or medical discourse communities (Master, 2005) and written medical genres including case reports, letters of referral etc (Ferguson, 2013). Similarly, doctor-patient communication skills are particularly at the heart of the field (Basturkmen, 2010).

Compared to other majors, medicine features in its length of schooling, special curriculum, etc. Confronted with an ocean of difficult professional courses, the students always feel unable to get everything done perfectly. Under such great pressure, they are compelled to channel their energy into the courses considered as more important due to the necessity of fulfilling their own demands or realizing their own dreams. Therefore, College English, in which they are not so interested, is their first choice to give up. In the English teaching practice, the students always keep a cold eye towards the English teaching, diverting their energy to the study of professional courses, so it is imaginable that the English teaching efficiency is unlikely to be guaranteed under such circumstances (Tang & Zeng, 2020).

Students of higher education institutions in Kazakhstan regardless of their future professions and departments are taught Foreign Language course which covers general English as regulated by the State Compulsory Standard of Education. Foreign Language (SCSE). According to SCSE, Foreign Language (300 hours or 10 credits) is included in the list of compulsory subjects offered by the universities. The most important and problematic question in ESP teaching and learning is whether the course is effective or not. ESP is student-task oriented, thus, measuring its effectiveness is strongly related to measuring learners' attitudes, needs, expectations, satisfaction, and achievement (Hattani, 2019).

In discovering students' needs, needs analysis is regarded as an integral part of decision making processes before designing a course. Accordingly, needs analysis process is considered as an attempt to answer questions regarding when, where, and why language learners need target language (Basturkmen 2010). Beginning with Munby's communicative needs processor in 1978, meanings of needs or types of needs are still matter of discussion in related literature (Basturkmen, 2010). Addressing all these issues, Dudley-Evans and John presents a comprehensive framework of needs analysis:

A. professional information about the learners: the tasks and activities learners are/will be using for - target situation analysis and objective needs

B. personal information about the learners: factors which may affect the way they learn such as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectation of it, attitude to English - wants, means, subjective needs.

C. English language information about the learners: what their current skills and language use are – present situation analysis – which allow us to assess (D)

D. the learners' lacks: the gaps between (C) and (A) – lacks

E. language learning information: effective ways of learning the skills and language in (D) – learning needs

F. professional communication information about (A): knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation – linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis

G. what is wanted from the course

H. information about the environment in which the course will be run – means analysis (Kayaoglu, Akbas, 2015).

Therefore, it is necessary to find out first what is specifically appropriate, available and applicable for the target situation and target language learners in terms of their needs. In studying their needs, needs analysis is regarded as an integral part of decision making processes (Kayaoglu, Dag Akbas, 2015). Without conducting a needs analysis process, teaching practices might not be enough for addressing the needs of a medical student studying in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context. Accordingly, as a part of a needs analysis process, this study aims to investigate the English language needs of first and second year medical students who are attending the English language course at the Faculty of General Medicine at West Kazakhstan Marat Ospanov Medical University (Aktobe city, the Republic of Kazakhstan).

2. Method

A case study was conducted to investigate the English language needs of undergraduate medical students in Kazakhstan. The participants of the survey are the students of the Faculty of General Medicine at the West Kazakhstan Marat Ospanov Medical University. A questionnaire was adapted from the previous studies in this field (Hattani, 2019; Kayaoglu & Akbas, 2015; Tang & Zeng, 2020). The questionnaire included items on students' attitudes towards the English course, their language strengths and weaknesses, and their language needs, and consisted of closed-ended questions. The responses were coded by means of the Microsoft Excel software, and the data of the questionnaire were analysed by using descriptive statistics.

The summaries of students' responses to the items were presented in the form of frequencies, and displayed into tables.

3. Results

The questionnaire was answered by 52 students (14 males and 38 females) in their first and second year of medical studies during the spring semester of the academic year 2020-2021. The study reported the findings on medical students' (1) attitudes towards the English course, (2) language strengths and weaknesses, (3) language needs.

3.1. Medical students' attitudes towards the English course

The students were asked to indicate the importance of studying English for their personal needs and future careers. The students' responses are summarized in Table 1, and demonstrate that 96.2% of students consider the English language important for their career.

Table 1. Importance of English for personal and professional careers

Very important	13	25%
Important	37	71.15%
Somehow important	2	3.85%
Unimportant	-	-
Total	52	100%

The students were asked to report the reasons for learning English. The responses are presented in Table 2, and reflect that students' wish to pass IELTS or TOEFL (30.77%), apply for postgraduate studies in future (28.85%), and fulfil studies in an English-speaking country (17.3%).

Table 2. Reasons for Learning English

I learn English because ...	N (%)
I want to pass IELTS or TOEFL	16 (30.77)
I need it for my future postgraduate studies	15 (28.85)
I want to fulfil my studies in an English-speaking country	9 (17.3)
I need it in my studies to understand new concepts, and know about new research in my domain	4 (7.69)

I like to meet and get acquainted with native speakers and take part in conversations	4 (7.69)
I will need it in my future career (job)	3 (5.77)
It is a mandatory course in the program (I am obliged to take it)	1 (1.92)

All the participants of the survey state the effectiveness of the English language course offered within the frame of the University study programme (Table 3).

Table 3. Usefulness of the English language course with regards to students' English language needs

Very effective	16	30.77%
Effective	30	57.69%
Somehow effective	6	11.54%
Not effective at all	-	-
Total	52	100%

Total number of respondents indicates that the English language course helps to develop the linguistic ability to deal with the scientific and technical contents in English related to their field. The students prefer their English courses to be more concentrated on speaking and communication, reading and comprehension (Table 4).

Table 4. Areas of English courses to be focused on

Areas	High	Above Average	Average	Below Average	Low
Speaking and communication	21.15%	42.3%	36.54%	-	-
Reading and comprehension	28.85%	30.77%	38.46%	1.92%	-
Vocabulary and medical terminology	13.46%	38.46%	48.08%	-	-
Writing	13.46%	48.08%	38.46%	-	-
Grammar	1.92%	40.39%	57.69%	-	-

3.2. Medical students' language strengths and weaknesses

The students were asked to indicate their content with the English language skills. The results demonstrated that all the respondents are dissatisfied with their levels of English. The students further evaluated their writing, reading, listening, speaking, vocabulary and grammar skills. 5-point Likert scale, where 5 is high, and 1 is low was used to evaluate the language skills. The responses were presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Students' abilities in English language skills

Items	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Writing	3	4	3.385	.4913
Reading	3	4	3.327	.4737
Listening	3	5	3.462	.6405
Speaking	3	4	3.462	.5034
Vocabulary	3	5	3.519	.6101
Grammar	3	5	3.538	.5409

Among the skills of high ability students showed listening (7.69%), vocabulary (5.77%), and grammar (1.92%). Skills of speaking were indicated as above average by 51.92% of students, grammar by 50%, vocabulary by 40.39%, and writing by 38.46%.

The students were offered to state to what extent they had difficulties with the English language sub-skills. 4-point Likert scale, where 4 is seriously difficult, and 1 is easy was used to evaluate the challenges. The results were given in Table 6.

Table 6. Challenging sub-skills of English for medical students

Item	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Understanding spoken instruction	2	4	3.154	.8257
Listening to presentation and discussion in conferences, seminars, etc.	2	3	2.500	.5049
Listening to Media contents in English	2	4	3.173	.7598

Giving speech in English in front of an audience	2	4	2.731	.6298
Speaking to native speakers	3	4	3.346	.4804
Pronunciation	3	4	3.442	.5015
Writing technical texts like letters, CV, email, reports, etc.	3	4	3.442	.5015
Taking notes	1	3	2.500	.5423
Understanding general vocabulary	2	4	2.981	.8042
Understanding technical and scientific terminology	1	4	2.154	.8941
Making correct grammar structure: tenses, articles, etc.	1	3	2.096	.7985

The study showed that students need to improve their sub-skills of English such as writing technical texts, pronunciation, speaking to native speakers and understanding their speech.

3.3. Medical students' language needs

The students were asked to report on how often they use English in their daily life or outside the classroom. The responses were evaluated and presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Frequency of using English outside the classroom

Frequency	N (%)
Frequently	6 (11.54)
Sometimes	19 (36.54)
Rarely	24 (46.15)
Never	3 (5.77)

The students evaluated the significance of English language skills such as speaking, listening, reading, writing. The results are stated in Table 8.

Table 8. Significance of language skills for medical students

Types	Very important	Important	Somehow important	Unimportant
Speaking	50%	50%	-	-

Listening	51.92%	48.08%	-	-
Reading	34.62%	65.38%	-	-
Writing	65.38%	34.62%	-	-

According to medical students, the skills of the highest importance in learning English are writing, listening and speaking.

Regarding the purposes of using English, medical students were offered to measure the activities with 5-point Likert scale (5 – high criterion quality, 1 – low criterion quality). The results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. Purposes of using English

Item	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Interact with people	2	5	3.250	.9471
Study on medical resources	3	4	3.462	.5034
Perform activities in my field	3	5	3.827	.8098
Write medical reports/papers	3	5	3.846	.7767
Attend any academic context (conference, meeting with professionals etc.)	3	4	3.481	.5045
Correspond with English speaking professionals in the field	3	5	3.808	.7679
Achieve a sufficient score on language exams in the field	3	4	3.462	.5034

Most of the students state the importance of writing medical papers and reports in English.

Regarding the students' preference of assessment types during the courses of the English language, 40.39% of students state their eagerness not to be evaluated during the course, 38.46% prefer process-oriented evaluation (assignments, group works etc.), 19.23% wish to have product-oriented evaluation (a series of examinations, quizzes, etc.), and only 1.92% choose self-evaluation.

5. Conclusions

The results of the study were categorized regarding the students' attitudes towards the English course, language strengths and weaknesses, language needs.

Target situation analysis identified the importance of learning English for medical students. This is objectified with the students' intent to pass English language proficiency examinations such as IELTS and TOEFL, continue with postgraduate studies and abroad.

Regarding students' attitudes to English, most of them consider university course of English quite effective in developing the linguistic ability to deal with the scientific and technical contents related to their field.

Their subjective needs include concentration on reading and comprehension, as well as speaking and communication. It is explained by the importance of being aware of current scientific data on medicine which is usually presented in English, and attending academic context for communication and exchanging best practices with foreign peers during conferences, workshops, etc.

Among the objective needs of medical students is the development of reading and writing skills, which is grounded on the option of performing activities in their fields and writing medical reports and papers in English. Moreover, present situation analysis demonstrates, that students need to improve their sub-skills of English such as writing technical texts like letters, CV, email, reports, pronunciation, speaking to native speakers and understanding their speech.

The findings of the study will suggest practical implications for English for specific purposes course design for medical students and make it become more effective.

References

- Athanasiou et al., (2016). Athanasiou, A., Constantinou, E. K., Neophytou, M., Nicolaou, A., Sophocleous, S. P., Yerou, C. "Aligning ESP courses with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages": *Language Learning in Higher Education*, 6(2), 297-316.
- Basturkmen, H. (2010). *Developing courses in English for specific purposes*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave/Macmillan.
- Ferguson, G. (2013). English for medical purposes. In Paltridge, B., Starfield, S. Chichester (eds). *The Handbook of English for Specific Purposes*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

- Hattani, H. (2019). Ait Hattani, H. “ESP Needs Analysis at the Moroccan University: Renewable Energy Engineering Students at EST Fes as a Case Study”: *Journal of English Language Teaching and Linguistics*, 4(1), 101-115.
- Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A., (1987). *English for specific purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1987.
- Johns, A. M. (2013). The history of English for specific purpose research. In B. Paltridge & S. Starfield (Eds). *The handbook of English for specific purposes* (pp. 5-31). Chichester, West Sussex; Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Kayaoğlu, M. N., & Dag Akbaş, R. (2015). “An Investigation into Medical Students' English Language Needs”: *Participatory Educational Research (PER)*, Special Issue 2016-I, 63-71. 2015.
- Kuzembayeva at al., (2018). Kuzembayeva, G., Karimsakova, A., Kупenova, A., „Trilingualism in Kazakhstan.” *International Journal of Multilingual Education*, No. 11, 87-90.
- Master, P. (2005). Research in English for specific purposes. In E. Hinkel (ed.). *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 99-116.
- Tang, Y. & Zeng, X., (2020). “A Study on College English Teaching of Medical Students under the Guidance of CSE – Taking Chengdu Medical College as an Example”: *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research*, Vol. 505, 228-232.

Nino Bagration-davitashvili

Ivane Javakishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi, Georgia

First Person and Second Person Markers as Representatives of a Case in a Verb Form

ABSTRACT

There are many various opinions regarding the definition of the person category in the scientific literature. A. Shanidze defines person category in three aspects: "which person", "what kind of person" and "quantity" - how many persons are represented in one form of the verb. There are two types of markers in Georgian- v- order and m-.order. They are basically divided as follows: v -order markers mainly express the markers of the subjective person and the m- order markers – the markers of the objective person. There are many cases in the language when the objective person is expressed by the subjective person marker and the subjective person is expressed by the objective person markers. This is called inversion and the verbs of these types are called inversion verbs. It is very difficult to understand and study inversion for non-Georgian students. In Georgian Linguistic Literature it is known that there is internal relationship in formation of nouns and verbs. The interrogative pronoun (who) refers only to the human and what- to all others-animate and inanimate subjects. Perhaps the v- prefix was an ancient sign of expressing the category of human and it expressed the first person in the verb, because the first person can only be human and the action of the first person means only human. He is both – the initiator of the action and the speaker. The same form of the interrogative pronoun "Who" in Nominative and Ergative cases makes us think that v- prefix was the representative of the Nominative and Ergative cases in the verb form. As has been noted, in the Georgian language nouns linked to a verb create constructions. There are three constructions identified in a language (based on two-person verbs): nominative construction, ergative construction and dative construction. Constructions are built according to the basic person's cases forms (the term - basic person has been introduced by us, since the use of subjective and objective persons often cause confusion. We denote basic and non-basic person. Basic person is whom the action is mainly concerns, it either acts or is experiencing an action, is either an initiator, etc. A non-basic is a person who has a certain role in an action).

Keywords: *Category of person, Inversion, system, representatives, case*

The grammar system of the Georgian language differs considerably from that of the Indo-European one. This complexity is due to polypersonal nature of a Georgian verb,

determining the cases of persons (nouns) linked to it as well as the identification of person markers that is non-uniform.

There is a subjective person and an objective person in every language. In Georgian, as has been mentioned above, they are represented by certain markers, in particular, subjective person is expressed by *v*- order markers, while objective person – by *m*- order markers. All of it would have been easy to understand if a subjective person was always expressed via subjective person markers and an objective person -- by an objective person markers. In Georgian this is not always the case. Often, person markers express opposite persons. This phenomenon, the change of the function of person markers is known as inversion, while these types of verbs are called inversion verbs. The understanding and the study of the matter of inversion is very difficult for non-Georgian-speaking students. Our goal is to simplify the material as much as possible to make it easy to remember and understand. Determining the cases of the nouns associated to a verb's form in Georgian is critical, as proper understanding of the content of a sentence depends on it. For example: *Ninos mostsons Irakli/Nino likes Irakli*. If we change cases of the names, we will get a different meaning of the sentence: *Nino Mostsons Iraklis/Nino is liked by Irakli*. Therefore, to pass along a sentence correctly it is important to determine precise cases of the nouns linked to a verb; it determines a proper formulation of semantics, as well as of a construction.

The definition of a person's category is paramount for analyzing the given matter. T. Gamkrelidze notes that a person's category is one of the universal semantic categories that find diverse manifestation in the linguistic system. It flows from an act of linguistic communication and expresses an attitude of the parties of the given act towards linguistic communication (Gamkrelidze, 2000).

A. Shanidze explains that a verb's person is a “form of a verb that shows either who is a speaker, or the person who is addressed by the speaker, or that who or what is neither a speaker and nor an addressee, rather, another person (Shanidze, 1980). Respectively, there is the first, second and third person in singular, as well as in plural. Here he means “which person”, the author also determines “what kind of the person”, i.e., what a person

is like from the perspective of performing an action: whether it is active or passive, subjective or objective, and he refers to this as a “what kind of a person”, i.e., the state of a person. He notes that “in absolute majority of cases v- order markers still predominantly denote a subjective person, while m- order markers predominantly denote objective persons (Shanidze, 1980). And then, depending on the number of persons represented in one form, he establishes the number of persons. In the opinion of A. Shanidze, personal markers express “which person” (I, II, III) and “what kind of a person” (subjective-active, objective-passive). Questions arise concerning the latter.

Arn. Chikobava, in his fundamental work “The Problem of a Simple Sentence in Georgian”, notes that “a person expressed by a personal marker is not always active. In the verbs such as: “vdrek” (I am bending), “vglej” (I am pulling), activity is evident, but in such verbs as: “vhkhedav” (I see), “vbrtskinav” (I shine), “vevedrebi” (I plead), etc. activity is extremely inconspicuous. While in such examples as: “var” (I am), “v-dga” (I am standing), “v-zi” (I am sitting), “v-kudebi” (I am dying), activity is out of question. Here there is only a state of I, I is absolutely inactive, lastly, in the examples, “vikvli” (I am being killed), “viguemebi” (I am being tormented), “vitanjvi” (I am suffering), I is actually not active; rather, it is passive and anguished as a result of another person’s action. Not only is it inactive, in addition, it is subjected to action, it can be said (Chikobava, 1968).

Similarly, an actual object expressed by an objective person’s m- prefix is not always subject of an action and not active. Examples: “mkavs” (I have), “maqas” (I possess), “msuris” (I want), “mnebavs” (I desire), “mina” (I wish), “mdzuls” (I hate). An author assigns to I an active attitude towards the outer world. In “mkavs” (I have), “maqas” (I possess) I is an owner and a master of something, while in the verbs “ganmitsesebia” (I have ordered), “damitseries” (I have written), “damimzadebies” (I have prepared)... I is as active as in the verbs “davitser” (I will write), “davamzadeb” (I will prepare)... Hence, the author presents I’s role in a verb’s form from complete passiveness to complete activeness. He assigns the same meanings as can be possessed by the forms with v- personal marker (Chikobava, 1968).

To overcome this opposition, the author introduces terms Real Subject and Real Object, morphological subject and morphological object.

A. Oniani deems it inappropriate to introduce the terms of real subject and real object in the morphological analysis of a person. Actually, real subject and real object imply v- and m- order. “There are no person markers that regularly express a real subject; similarly, there are no their opposite person markers that regularly express a real object.” The author concludes that person markers do not create opposing forms denoting real subject and real object and in his opinion, the opposition that is not denoted by person markers cannot be subjected to morphological analysis.

The author is concerned by the following question: why the subjective person markers are alternated by precisely indirect-objective person markers (Oniani, 1978).

A. Oniani is of the opinion that if any of the morphological units express various grammemes (let’s say, v- order mark expresses an active person) then it should be expressing this grammeme not only predominantly, but regularly, always, similar to that a first person marker always expresses a speaker, second person marker – always a listener, respectively, it will not serve as a basis for linguistic classification (Oniani, 1978).

He introduces the so-called neutral person to denote the cases when a person is neither active nor passive. He deems that it is not the function of person markers to express activeness or passiveness of a person, since v- order and m- order markers can equally express active as well as passive and neutral persons (Oniani, 1978).

The author introduces a neutral person for this very reason of presenting his opinion more clearly: a marker that expresses all members of the opposition – active, passive and neutral (or, both active and inactive) actually is not a marker of either of them. Therefore, morphological persons’ activeness-passiveness, based on which subject and object are distinguished, are not defined by person markers, evidently, cannot be a determinant of “what kind of a person” and at the same time it cannot be subjected to morphological analysis (Oniani, 1978). Thus, v- and m- order markers have the same function with respect to the activeness-passiveness and they only express “which person”.

A question arises – why are there two order markers in the language, if both of them have the same function and express only “which person”?

In our view, these two different systems of v-order and m- order are the most ancient, it gave rise to a certain opposition from the very beginning and was certainly justified. Otherwise, the language would have long eliminated one of them. It is worth noting also that this opposition is manifested in all Kartvelian languages; inversion, among others, which is expressed in Svanetian and Megrelian exactly like in Georgian. All of the above makes us think that that v- and m- orders are the ancient ones and they likely date back to the pre-Kartvelian period.

According to Arn. Chikobava, “a verb may not reflect a morphological makeup of a word combination, but it correctly shows a syntactic relationship of the parts of a syntagma,” (Chikobava, 1968) he defines related pronouns, i.e., the cases of linked persons. A verb governs a noun in a case, while, in our opinion, an order of person markers are tied to a case. In particular, first and second person’s markers. This is the most ancient scheme of a language manifestation that formed the basis for the construction.

As is known, Arn. Chikobava identified two semasological categories at the level of ancient Georgian – that of a human and of an object – “vin” (who) and “ra”(what) categories (Chikobava, 2008). In the opinion of an author, nouns in vin- category were denoted by one prefix (m-//v-) while a main marker for an object was s-, with its dialectic or phonetic variations (Chikobava, 1979).

Arn. Chikobava’s opinion about the persons is important as well. He regards the distinguishing of the persons secondary. Before, only the classes, grammar classes – of a human and an object were distinguished in conjugation (Chikobava, 2008).

A. Arabuli says that there is an interesting convergence of S₁ v- marker with a ‘vi-n’ pronoun’s fundamental element and of O₁’s m- prefix with a me- (I) pronoun (Arabuli, 2011).

We share these views and think that v- and m- prefixes must have been most ancient markers denoting human category that expressed a first person in a verb. First person can only be a human; a first person’s presence implies only a human being.

A question arises: if these morphemes had the same function – denoted a human category in the first person, even the more, they existed simultaneously and their alternation was not phonologically conditioned, they should have definitely had another basis for difference and the case was the very distinguishing element. We should also keep in mind that they formed different paradigms.

In our view, the mentioned markers did not express subjectiveness-objectiveness of persons in a verb; rather, they were representatives of certain cases in a verb's first and second person form, since in these persons pronouns without altered form were linked with a verb based on a case, and representatives, the so called person markers provided in a verb served this function.

As for the system of cases, a number of the researchers of the Kartvelian languages refer to the archaic nature of the Dative case as compared to other cases. Arn. Chikobava says "Three levels are identified in the formation of Georgian cases: one is possessive and dative, followed by ergative, and the most recent is nominative" (Chikobava, 1954). Apparently, dative had significant influence in the language from the very beginning which is still evident. For example, we can take first and second person's combinations, when m- or g-, representative of a noun in a dative case is denoted, it is never lost:

Me g-elaparakebi shen (I am talking to you)

Shen m-elaparakebi me (You are talking to me)

In these specific combinations the expression or the lack of personal markers cannot be explained by means of active and inactive, subjective and objective concepts.

In our view, v- was representative of the nouns in a nominative and ergative cases, while m- was a representative of a noun presented in a dative case in a verb. Naturally, the ancient period of the development of the language is implied, when the understanding of a subject and object was not yet formed and the system of conjugation had not been developed yet.

Since v- prefix was a representative of nominative and ergative cases and m- prefix – of a dative case, they created certain constructions with a verb. In first and second person combinations, where pronouns were and are represented in an unchanged form,

expressing a case became necessary for organizing and comprehending a sentence. v- and m-, case representative took upon this function.

As for third person forms, they, as is known, were developed relatively late and they did not need case representatives, since pronoun linked to them changes by cases; as for person markers, over time they took the function of expressing numerous grammatical categories, among others, “what kind of a person”. A. Shanidze, Arn. Chikobava, V. Topuria, Iv. Imnaishvili, and others (Shanidze, 1980, Chikobava, 1968 Topuria, Imnaishvili, 1996) have noted about the specificity of the production of third person markers. The forms of the third person continue the first and the second persons paradigms.

The difference in the expression of person markers, in particular, that first and second person markers are always prefixes and third person markers are suffixes except for an indirect object, speaks about their different origin, as noted by a number of scientists. As for an indirect object’s marker, it seems to have developed later. It is a fact that it does not have the value in the language that is enjoyed by first and second person markers, which is evidenced by the contemporary Georgian as well. It is used only before plosives, otherwise is represented by zero allomorph; it may or may not be present. This excludes its indispensability, which is an indication that it effectively no longer has a grammatical function, since this function of opposing first and second person’s forms is served well by a zero allomorph.

As has been noted, in the Georgian language nouns linked to a verb create constructions. There are three constructions identified in a language (based on two-person verbs): nominative construction, ergative construction and dative construction. Constructions are built according to the basic person’s cases forms (the term - basic person has been introduced by us, since the use of subjective and objective persons often cause confusion. We denote basic and non-basic person. Basic person is whom the action is mainly concerns, it either acts or is experiencing an action, is either an initiator, etc. A non-basic is a person who has a certain role in an action). We must note that basic and

non-basic persons are never represented in the same case in the Georgian language. When a basic person is in the nominative case, non-basic person will always be in dative. Ergative construction envisages basic person in ergative and non-basic person in nominative, while dative construction – basic person in dative and non-basic person in nominative. Whenever another non-basic person is present in a verb, it will always be in a dative case. The Georgian language system is entirely based on the afore-mentioned constructions, thus, a learner sees the language as a whole in an organized, not a chaotic form; the mentioned constructions will help non-Georgian speaking students to find an easy way to understand the system of the Georgian language and, respectively, build sentences correctly.

Let us present constructions at the example of a bipersonal verb:

Nominative construction:

Basic person - Nominative case *Me (kac-i) v-aketeb sachmel-s . (I am (the man) cooking a meal).*

Non-basic person - Dative case. *Shen (kac-i) aketeb sachmel-s. (You are (the men) cooking a meal).*

Is (kac-i) aketebs sachmel-s. (He is (the men) cooking a meal).

Dative construction

Basic person----- Dative case *Me (kac-s) m-kavs dzaghl-i. (I (the men) have a dog).*

Non-basic person—Nominative case *Shen (kac-s) g-kavs dzaghl-i. (You (the men) have a dog).*

Mas (kac-s) h-kavs dzaghl-i. (He (the men) has a dog).

Ergative construction:

Basic person-----Ergative case *Me (kac-ma) gavakete sachmeli. (I (the men) cooked a meal).*

Non-basic person- Nominative case *Shen (kac-ma) gaakete sachmeli. (You (the men) cooked a meal).*

Man (kac-ma) gaaketa sachmeli. (He (the men) cooked a meal).

References

- Arabuli, A. (2011). ავთანდილ არაბული, თანამედროვე ქართული ენის მორფოლოგია, სალიტერატურო ენა. [Morphology of Modern Georgian Language, Literal Language], თბილისი, გამომცემლობა „მერიდიანი“. 2011.
- Arabuli, A. (2016). ავთანდილ არაბული, ინვერსია: ახალი ქართული ენა: სალიტერატურო ენის მორფოლოგია. [“Inversion”. *New Georgian Language: Morphology of Literal Language: Verb.*]; თბილისი, თსუ გამომცემლობა, 2016.
- Chikobava, A. (1954). არნოლდ ჩიქობავა, მრავლობითის სუფიქსთა გენეზისისათვის ქართულში.” [Genesis of Plural Suffixes in Georgian] *იკვ. ტ. 6* [Iberian-Caucasian Linguistic]. თბილისი, თსუ გამომცემლობა, 1954.
- Chikobava, A. (1968). არნოლდ ჩიქობავა, მარტივი წინადადების პრობლემა ქართულში. [Problem of Simple Sentence in Georgian.] თბილისი, გამომცემლობა „მეცნიერება“, 1968.
- Chikobava, A. (1979). არნოლდ ჩიქობავა, იბერიულ-კავკასიური ენათმეცნიერების შესავალი. [Introduction of Iberian-Caucasian Linguistics]. თბილისი, თსუ გამომცემლობა, 1979.
- Chikobava, A. (2008). არნოლდ ჩიქობავა, ქართული ენის ზოგადი დახასიათება” [General Description of Georgian Language]. *ქართული ენის განმარტებითი ლექსიკონი, ტ. 1.* [Explanatory Dictionary of Georgian Language 1]; თბილისი, თსუ გამომცემლობა, 2008.
- Gamkrelidze, T. (2000). თამაზ გამყრელიძე, რჩეული ქართველოლოგიური შრომები. [Kartvelological Papers.]; თბილისი, თსუ გამომცემლობა, 2000.
- Imnaishvili I., (1996).: ზმნა ძველ ქართულში 2 ნაწილადი; ნაწ. 1. [Georgian Verb, 2 parts]; მაინის ფრანკფურტი.
- Machavariani, M. (1987). მაია მაჭავარიანი, ქცევის გრამატიკული კატეგორიის სემანტიკა. [Semantics of Grammatical Category of Version.]; თბილისი, გამომცემლობა „მეცნიერება“, 1987.

Oniani, A. (1978). ალექსანდრე ონიანი, ქართველურ ენათა ისტორიული მორფოლოგიის საკითხები. [*Issues of Historical Morphology of Kartvelian Languages.*] თბილისი, გამომცემლობა „განათლება“, 1978.

Shanidze, A. (1980). აკაკი შანიძე, ქართული ენის გრამატიკის საფუძვლები: თხზულებანი, ტ. 3. [*Issues of Georgian Language, v. 3.*] თბილისი, თსუ გამომცემლობა, 1980.

Liliya Makovskaya

Westminster International University in Tashkent, Uzbekistan

Use of electronic feedback in second language writing: teachers' and students' views

ABSTRACT

Feedback has always been considered important in second language writing. Quite recently due to various reasons, electronic feedback has become one of the frequently applied types (Zareekbatani, 2015; Ene & Upton, 2018). The aim of the research study was therefore to identify lecturers' and students' views on the use of online comments provided on the second language writing tasks. The data was collected through conducting online semi-structured interviews with undergraduate students and lecturers of one Uzbek university. The findings revealed that a variety of comments given on different aspects of the written assessment tasks in the Google documents and combined with additional oral feedback were effective. The article aims at discussing the detailed findings of the research study and providing possible suggestions for language teachers on the use of electronic feedback in L2 writing.

Keywords: *electronic feedback, second-language writing, undergraduate students, Google Docs*

Introduction

Providing feedback has always been considered an important constituent of the teaching and learning process. Hyland and Hyland clarify that feedback is “seen as an important developmental tool moving learners through multiple drafts towards the capability for effective self-expression” (Hyland, 2006, p. 83). The ways comments are provided to students might depend on different aspects including the nature of the task, availability of technological tools, teachers' beliefs, students' knowledge and skills, and many others. Language teachers give comments on different types of assessment tasks, especially on the formative ones, on a regular basis. Irons notes that formative feedback “should provide positive student learning opportunities, encourage dialogue and discourse between students and teachers, enhance the student learning experience and provide motivation for students” (Irons, 2008, p.8). Feedback might be given orally, when teachers and students discuss the quality of the assignment either one-on-one, in small groups or with the whole class. Written comments are another common way of feedback giving, which is practiced for individual and groupwork tasks. Brookhart explains that the mode of feedback might depend on different aspects including the type of an assignment, students' abilities, and their age (Brookhart, 2008).

Written assignments are regarded as the most challenging among the university students; therefore, lecturers usually devote much time to the feedback on learners' writing so that it might contribute to the development and improvement of this skill. Although oral and written comments have been the most common ways, due to the development of technology and availability of different online tools, lecturers started applying online feedback. Hyland and Hyland suggest differentiating between two types of providing computer-mediated feedback, e.g., synchronously, when teachers and students communicate online in real time, and asynchronously, when they communicate via email or discussion boards (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Specifically, online comments can be provided in the Word document, which might include track changes and additional commentaries on the written task and can be sent to the students via email. Another common way is the use of the Google documents, which have very similar editing functions to the Word document, but the comments are kept online and are available to both teachers and students. The third way of providing electronic feedback (e-feedback) is through the online discussion boards, which might be available on the Learning Management Systems (LMS) of the higher education institutions (Ene & Upton, 2018).

After the outbreak of the pandemic at the beginning of 2020, university lecturers were required to change the mode of teaching and quickly select the internet-based sources that might be useful for remote teaching (Hartshorn & McMurry, 2020; Lv, X., Ren & Xie, 2021). English language teachers additionally had to find the way(s) they would provide feedback on the written assignments that were produced and submitted online. Depending on the task requirements, lecturers' and students' opportunities, Internet connection, and many other factors, each university department and team members chose the way they would provide e-feedback. Although giving online comments was not new in teaching language skills (Saadi & Saadat, 2015; Zareekbatani, 2015; McGrath & Atkinson-Leadbetter, 2016; Johnson, Stellmack & Barthel, 2019; Saeed & Al Qunayeer, 2020), it was the first time when only remote teaching was possible and technologically supported feedback was provided on the assessment tasks.

A similar situation was observed in one international university in Tashkent (Uzbekistan), where English language lecturers switched to online mode of teaching and providing feedback, which was not common before the pandemic started. As both teachers and students experienced this process for the first time, the purpose of the current study was to identify their views on the use and effectiveness of electronic comments on the second language written assignments.

Methods

Semi-structured online interviews were conducted with the English language teachers and first-year students, who were involved in the feedback process. The participants of the study are multilingual speaking Uzbek, Tajik, Karakalpak, Russian, Tatar or Korean. English is a foreign language for all students, who were required to provide an IELTS certificate upon entrance to the university. Both

teachers and learners have different levels of knowledge of some other languages including German, French, Spanish, Turkish, and Arabic.

The first-year students were tasked to produce a written assignment, which should be submitted several times to the teachers online for formative feedback at certain period within a semester. Every lecturer was required to give electronic comments on the learners' tasks and be available for additional online discussions on a regular basis. The final written assignment was also submitted online, and students were able to see teachers' comments in the LMS. Both teachers and students were provided with a consent form before the interview, which guaranteed confidentiality of their responses and gave them an opportunity to withdraw from the study at any point. As the interviews with the participants were conducted after the marks were published, no influence on the feedback process and responses was made.

Results

The interview was aimed at finding out the types of comments provided, the areas identified by teachers, and participants' views on the effectiveness of formative e-feedback for improving the quality of second language writing.

Types of comments

Based on the interview analysis several types of comments were identified. The English language teachers provided suggestions for improvement of the written task, which were usually given in the margins of the Google document. Some of the common suggestions included changing the structure of written tasks, providing relevant and reliable sources, using academic vocabulary, and being objective in writing. Another common type of e-feedback was detailed explanation of the mistakes made in the written assignment and the nature of the task. For instance, the lecturers explained how to make the written piece more logically organized, why long block citations should be avoided in essay writing, how the sources should be properly referenced within the text, and what sentence structures might be used. Recommendations provided by the language teachers as side comments were also mentioned in the interviews. These included the links to the websites that might be helpful for improving students' grammar and word choice, the use of a referencing guide to correct the citations and referring to the relevant seminar to revise the material.

Only few participants informed about error corrections made via the track changes in the written tasks. Some common examples were related to the use of language, i.e., word forms, sentence structures, irrelevant statements, and others. Teachers either crossed out the errors in the document or provided the correct word or phrase, which was a rare case. Two students mentioned that teachers also referred to the assessment criteria of the written task, which was done by providing a link to the coursework description available on the LMS or copy-pasting a description of the relevant criterion

into the side comments. Several participants referred to leading questions on the content of the written task, which were provided by the language teachers in the Google document.

Both lecturers and students informed that the focus of the online comments was made on different aspects of the written assignment. E-feedback was mostly provided on the content and structure of the written piece. Comments on the relevance and logical flow of ideas were another common area identified in the students' papers. Online feedback was also provided on the use and referencing of sources in the written tasks. Writing style and use of language (grammar structures, word choice and mechanics) were not mentioned as the mostly frequent aspects of electronic feedback.

Views on online feedback

The findings of the interview showed that all teachers provided written electronic feedback i.e., marginal comments in the Google document, and some combined it with oral comments via Zoom (during teachers' office hours) or online discussion boards. The lecturers presented different perspectives on the use and effectiveness of e-feedback on the quality of second language writing. The majority informed that the types and focus of the comments depended on the quality of students' written work. The teachers gave a larger number of suggestions for improvement and detailed explanation if the paper was poorly written and required much improvement. Those written works which met the task requirements did not take much time for giving feedback and therefore teachers provided recommendations and referred students to the relevant seminar material for enhancing the writing quality.

The lecturers informed that they tried to avoid using metalanguage and to make their comments clear as the students should be able to understand them. In case the feedback seemed vague, the teachers organized online sessions with the students to clarify the points made in the Google documents or posted additional comments on the task in the discussion boards. Brookhart (2008) highlights that clarity in feedback is very important as students have different backgrounds and experience, which might have either positive or negative impact on comprehending teachers' comments. The participants felt that e-feedback gave an opportunity for creating a meaningful dialogue between them and learners as there was a possibility to have an online discussion in the Google document, which was available at any time to both parties. However, a few teachers mentioned that sometimes providing e-feedback was time-consuming as they should be careful in choosing the relevant comments, identifying the proper areas for improvement, and providing the right amount of feedback to each student. That is why, some lecturers informed that when they checked the updated version of the written task that was not improved much, they felt that their comments were not appreciated by all the students.

The students' views on the e-feedback were mostly positive. They considered it to be helpful in improving the content and structure of the written task. A few learners mentioned that teachers' reference to the task requirements helped them to understand the nature of the task much better. The

majority regarded online comments provided by the language teachers to be important as they could get a higher mark for the final submission. Some students also informed that the e-feedback they received was useful in other subjects at the university. For example, the comments on referencing the sources, logical organization of ideas, proper structure of the written assignment and following the task requirements were applicable in other contexts as well. A few participants mentioned that feedback given in the Google documents resembled an online dialogue as they were able to discuss their written work with the teachers inside the document and refer to it whenever they wanted. Irons (2008) explains that formative feedback should be dialogic as it might promote open discussion and acceptance of critical comments by learners. For most students online comments were clear, and they could easily apply what they were recommended to; only some of them revealed that very few comments were vague, but they had an opportunity to clarify them with teachers in the online discussions.

Discussion

The interview analysis revealed that language teachers had an opportunity to provide a variety of online comments in the Google document, i.e., explanation, suggestions, error correction, and recommendations. These results are supported by the investigation of Johnson, Stellmack and Barthel who found that in comparison to written feedback margins in the online document give an “unlimited space” for language teachers to provide as many comments as they want to (Barthel, 2019). In addition, the functions of an electronic document allowed providing detailed comments, deleting irrelevant phases and statements, asking leading questions, and organizing an online discussion of the written assignment. The students informed that feedback was not related only to correcting the language use, but commenting on the content, structure, use of reliable sources, referencing the material, academic writing style, relevance and flow of ideas. Based on the results of investigation, Ene and Upton found that e-feedback was more focused on the content-related issues rather than linguistic accuracy (Ene & Upton, 2018). Similar findings were observed in the study of McGrath and Atkinson-Leadbetter who identified that in comparison to direct changes in the language use, long comments on different language aspects given in the margins were better understood by students and led to more frequent revisions of the written texts (McGrath & Atkinson-Leadbetter, 2016).

Another positive feature of the e-feedback was its availability both for the teachers and students. The lecturers were able to comments on the written task and learners could refer to them at any time of the day. Similar results were observed by Bakla who found that in comparison to oral and written comments on paper, online feedback was more practical, and less time-consuming for learners as they could refer to teachers' comments when they wanted and quickly revise the written paper (Bakla, 2020). Interestingly, none of the respondents of the current study mentioned facing problems with the

Internet connection, which means that both parties had an opportunity to perform their task at the most convenient time. These findings are in line with Hartshorn and McMurry who identified that online teaching might be beneficial for developing students' writing skills as in comparison to speaking writing instruction does not appear to be so interactive (Hartshorn & McMurry, 2020).

Online comments were found to be useful in different aspects, including the improvement of the paper content and structure, understanding the task requirements, and having an opportunity to receive a higher mark for the written assignment. These results are supported by Lv, Ren and Xie who identified that computer-mediated feedback might have a positive impact and be effective for improving the quality of L2 writing (Lv, X., Ren & Xie 2021). Based on their investigation, Saadi and Saadat (2015) explain that learners might enhance their writing skills when the e-feedback is provided systematically, as it enables them to revise their drafts. The research findings by Zareekbatani also showed that teachers' online comments encouraged students to be actively involved in the writing process and become more confident in L2 learning (Zareekbatani, 2015).

Although positive comments were provided on e-feedback, several participants mentioned that combining it with the additional clarification during online meetings and in the discussion boards helped to make the feedback clearer and more useful. These findings are in line with Saeed and Al Qunayeer who clarify that e-feedback in the Google documents is given asynchronously and is therefore limited in providing interactivity between teachers and students (Saeed & Al Qunayeer, 2020). The researchers suggested using audio feedback and combining synchronous and asynchronous ways (e.g., including online chats) that might support teacher-student interaction and be more helpful in promoting the revision of the written texts. This idea is also supported by Ene and Upton who advise combining different sources of feedback giving to enhance L2 writing skills and positively influence students' performance (Upton, 2018).

Another disadvantage of online comments mentioned by the teachers was the amount of time devoted to performing their duty. This idea is supported by Zareekbatani who found that providing e-feedback was sometimes time-inefficient and increased the teachers' workload especially when they had to concentrate on the language accuracy of the written tasks (Zareekbatani, 2015). The participants of the current study informed that as they were not able to clarify certain points face-to-face, they had to provide long detailed explanation in the margins of the Google documents and refer students to the relevant material on the LMS, so learners would be able to understand how the written task could be improved. These findings slightly differ from the study of McGrath and Atkinson-Leadbater, who revealed that although language teachers spent a great amount of time on providing online comments, they felt students' appreciation (McGrath & Atkinson-Leadbater, 2016). However, the researchers also clarify that despite providing detailed e-feedback, language instructors organized additional face-to-face sessions to discuss the written task.

Conclusion

The current study was aimed at identifying English language teachers' and university students' views on the effectiveness of online feedback provided on the second language written assignments. The findings revealed that lecturers' e-feedback given in the Google documents is valued by the learners as they had an opportunity to receive a variety of comment types and track the changes. However, both teachers and students preferred to have a combination of oral and written electronic feedback as it allowed receiving additional comments and understand them in a clearer way. Therefore, it is recommended for English language instructors to provide feedback in different modalities so that their students might benefit from a variety and have better opportunities for enhancing the quality of their L2 written assignments.

As the study showed, university students were tasked to submit several drafts of the written paper, and teachers were required to provide e-feedback on a regular basis regardless of the quality of their writing. Some learners were less responsible in performing a proper task, and thus teachers wasted their time on providing detailed comments on a poorly written paper as they had to do it. Based on this investigation it is recommended to avoid a "must-write" drafting and provide feedback only upon students' request. Another possible suggestion for language teachers is to identify key areas for improvement that the students should focus on. In addition, lecturers should avoid giving too many detailed comments on the L2 written task.

The present study contributed to the growing body of research on computer-mediated feedback and supported some of the investigations on the effectiveness of Google document use for L2 written assignments. However, the study was conducted during the pandemic and might be limited to the resources available to the language teachers and students. Therefore, the findings should not be conclusive and further research on the use of electronic feedback on second language writing in different contexts and conditions is recommended.

References

- Bakla, A. (2020). A mixed-method study of feedback modes in EFL writing. *Language Learning & Technology*, 24(1), 107–128. <https://doi.org/10.125/44712>
- Brookhart, S. M. (2008). *How to Give Effective Feedback to Your Students*. Alexandria: ASCD.
- Ene, E. & Upton, T.A. (2018). Synchronous and asynchronous teacher electronic feedback and learner uptake in ESL composition. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 41, 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2018.05.005>
- Hartshorn, K. J., & McMurry, B. L. (2020). The Effects of the COVID-19 Pandemic on ESL Learners and TESOL Practitioners in the United States. *International Journal of TESOL Studies*, 2(2), 140-156. <https://doi.org/10.46451/ijts.2020.09.11>
- Hyland, K. & Hyland, F. (2006). Feedback on second language students' writing. *Language Teaching*, 39(2), 83-101. <http://hdl.handle.net/10722/57356>
- Irons, A. (2008). *Enhancing Learning through Formative Assessment and Feedback*. London: Routledge.
- Johnson, W. F., Stellmack, M. A., & Barthel, A. L. (2019). Format of Instructor Feedback on Student Writing Assignments Affects Feedback Quality and Student Performance. *Teaching of Psychology*, 46(1), 16-21. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0098628318816131>
- Lv, X., Ren, W., & Xie, Y. (2021). The Effects of Online Feedback on ESL/EFL Writing: A Meta-Analysis. *Asia-Pacific Edu Res*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40299-021-00594-6>
- McGrath, A. & Atkinson-Leadbetter, K. (2016). Instructor Comments on Student Writing: Learner Response to Electronic Written Feedback. *Transformative Dialogues: Teaching & Learning Journal*, 8(3).
- Saadi, Z. K. & Saadat, M. (2015). EFL Learners' Writing Accuracy: Effects of Direct and Metalinguistic Electronic Feedback. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(10), 2053-2063. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0510.11>
- Saeed, M. A. & Al Qunayeer, H. S. (2020). Exploring teacher interactive e-feedback on students' writing through Google Docs: factors promoting interactivity and potential for learning. *The Language Learning Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2020.1786711>
- Zareekbatani, A. (2015). *Technology and L2 writing: EFL student perspectives on electronic feedback using online learning logs* (Published Doctoral Dissertation). University of Exeter, Exeter, UK. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10871/17297>

Naira Bepievi

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi, Georgia

Teaching a Second (Foreign) Language in Diverse Classes

ABSTRACT

In diverse classes, that is, in classes in which multilingual students study, the difficulties that accompany the teaching of a second language (foreign language) should be taken into account. In schools where the Ossetian language is taught, Georgians learn this language together with Ossetian children. It is known that the Ossetian language belongs to the group of Indo-European languages and, naturally, differs from the Caucasian languages, although there are some similarities between them. This difference concerns both phonetics, morphology and syntax. In this work, we will touch upon some morphological and syntactic peculiarities, which should be known and taken into account when studying/teaching this language in diverse classes. In order to better guide the teaching/learning process, this work will analyze the ways and methods of overcoming grammatical difficulties. It should be taken into account the circumstance that in most Indo-European languages there is no category of behavior and contact. Comparative methods explain some of the characteristics of verbs, verbal nouns, prepositions, and other categories. In addition to theoretical material, the work will take into account practical exercises that will be of interest to both teachers and students.

Keywords: Second Language, Foreign Language, Teaching, Diversity, Bilingualism, Multilingualism, Phonetics, Morphology, Syntax.

In a variety of classes, that is classes in which students of different languages study, the difficulties that accompany the teaching of a second language (foreign language) should be taken into account. In several schools where the Ossetian language is taught, Georgians learn this language alongside Ossetian children. While the Ossetian language belongs to the Indo-European language family, namely, the Iranian group, the Georgian language is from the Kartvelian language group. Therefore the structural and linguistic features of these two languages must be taken into

account when the bilingual teaching process occurs. Therefore, taking into account and making a comparative analysis of the phonetic, morphological, and syntactic nuances is a must.

It is known that the Georgian verb has quite a variety of expressive means; it has a coordinating role in the sentence. In some other languages, it is difficult for a verb to convey all the nuances that a Georgian verb has (representing the diversity of a person; the issue of the relationship between subjective and objective persons; contact; category of behavior, others).

In bilingual teaching, first of all, it is necessary to convey the features of the verb adequately. In particular, a tricky issue is the relationship of the transitive verb and the subject in the appropriate declension. The subject of the transitive verb in the case of the verb of I, II, and III series is found in three declensions in the Georgian language; With the I series verb it is in the nominative, with the second series verb it is in the ergative, and with the third series verb - in the dative.

Unlike the Georgian language, in the Ossetian language, we do not have an ergative declension, and the subject is only in the nominative form (very rarely in genitive). The acting, or the subject, stands in nominative with both the I series verb and the II and III series verbs.

Thus, there is a natural expression in Ossetian: *сывæллох зары* – the child is singing (**bavshvi mgheris**); *сываллон азарыд* – the child sung (**bavshvi imghera** instead of **bavshvma imghera**); *лæг худы* – the man is laughing (**katsi itsinis**) *лæг бахудти* – the man laughed (**katsi gaitsina** instead of **katsma gaitsina**).

Due to the construction of the Ossetian language, it is natural to say: Bulbuli galobs, Bulbuli igaloba, Bulbuli ugalobia, (ბულბული გალობს, ბულბული იგალობა, ბულბული უგალობია) whereas in Georgian we have bulbuli galobs, bulbulma igaloba, bulbuls ugalobia (ბულბული გალობს, ბულბულმა იგალობა, ბულბულს უგალობია) (English Translation: The nightingale sings, The nightingale sung, The nightingale has sung).

In Georgian, contact is the form of a verb that shows that a subjective person acts directly on an object directly or through another person. According to this, we have causative markers.

The suffixes that are used during causative markers are: **-in, -ev, -evin, -vin, -ebin**.

It should be noted that “the Ossetian language does not mention the category of contact and behavior. Several languages regard it as a category” (Bepieva, 2017: 93).

As mentioned above, in the Georgian language, the verb has suffixes that produce contact. In the Ossetian language, the initial form of a verb accompanied by an auxiliary verb is used to express intermediate contact, for example: **кæны** - аразын æй ын **кæны** – makes somebody do, амæлын æй ын **кæны** – makes somebody kill.

In the case where the verb already contains the auxiliary verb, in some cases, the auxiliary verb is re-attached to express the direct contact.

For example:

хæрын кæны – feeds somebody, **ныв ын кæны** – paints for somebody

хæрын ын кæнын кæны – makes somebody feed; **ныв ын кæнын кæны** – makes somebody paint.

In such a case, the subject (he/she) of the transitive verb acts as the actual acting person (him/her) that at the same time is the indirect object.

Thus, when teaching causative markers, the Ossetian language teacher must explain the possibility of the Georgian verb concerning the contact category and train the students using a different, comparative method.

In Georgian, the verb also expresses belonging-purpose: a) The object does not belong to anyone and is not intended for anyone; b) The object belongs to the acting person, the subject; c) one object belongs or is intended for him/her.

According to this, we have three types of behaviors: for nobody (vasheneb), for himself-herself (visheneb) and for somebody else (vusheneb), that is, three versions: neutral, subjective and objective (Shanidze, 1969). Different forms of behavior in Georgian are sometimes conveyed by prefixes (a-keteb, i-sheneb, u-tsers), sometimes only in the form (tsers).

How are different forms of behavior transmitted in the Ossetian language?

Behavior in the Ossetian language cannot be conveyed through the verb form. By including prefixes or suffixes, it is impossible to convey a verb in any form. To convey any form of behavior, it is necessary to attach appropriate nouns or pronouns to the verb:

He built a house - **Уый хæдзар самадта** (for nobody - Никайон архайд), he built a house for himself **Уый хæдзар самадта йæхицæн** (for himself - хион архайд), he built a house for him **Уый**

кæмæндæр хæдзæв (for somebody - и McKayон архайд). In one case, in the second case and the third case **built (самадта)**, it is conveyed in the same way. To convey a Belonging-purposeful relationship, the verb in the Ossetian language does not change the form; rather the name or a pronoun used accordingly has to change.

To convey self-behavior in Ossetian, it is necessary to include proper pronouns. Here are a few cases to consider separately:

1. When the action of a verb is intended for the first person, the possessive pronoun of the first person is used (together with the first person pronoun):

æз мæхи дасын I shave.

When expressing doing something for oneself it is necessary to use the personal and the possessive pronouns together with the verb. "I built for myself" form is conveyed by the pronoun of the first person + the possessive pronoun of the first person + verb (in adjective behavior):

I built a house for myself (I built a house) æз мæхицан хæдзæр самадтон.

The same is true in other cases.

As for doing something for someone, we have the following construction here:

1. When in the Ossetian language the first person expresses doing something for someone, we use the following form: pronoun of the first person + personal pronoun of the third person + verb (conjugative form, for nobody);

I built a house for him (Georgian: Sakhli avushene) æз уыман хæдзæр самадтон;

2. II person pronoun + third-person pronoun + verb;

You built a house for him (Georgian: Sakhli aushene) ды уыман хæдзæр самадтай.

3. Third person pronoun + third-person pronoun + verb;

He built a house for him (Georgian: Sakhli aushena) уый уыман хæдзæр самадтæ.

уый манæн хæдзæр æдтæ He built a house for me. (Georgian: amishena)

уый дауæн хæдзæр æдтæ He built a house for you. (Georgian: agishena)

уый уымæн хæдзæр æдтæ He built a house for him/her. (Georgian: aushena)

While teaching Ossetian as a second language, it is necessary to pay attention to the nuanced meaning of the negative pronouns, negative particles, and the rules of their use.

There are no negative particles in the Georgian language and they cannot express the nuanced difference of action. Their unlocking gives the action mentioned in the verb a negative context, but different from each other. In particular, the non-particle with the verb denotes an action when the subject does not want to act, the action corresponds to his/her negligence: I will not write! I will not draw! I will not eat! I will not go! etc. The nuances of categoricalness are not part of it. And while the particle, which is also expressive of negative content, is devoid of such categoricalness, it denotes an action which, despite the subject's obscurity, is impossible: I can not write, I can not draw, I cannot eat. In the Ossetian language, the negative participle *næ* expresses both nuances - both categorical (not) and out of possibility (can not).

нæ ныфыстон I did not write - categorical

нæ ныфыстон I have not written - neutral

нæ ныфыстон I could not write - possibility

In this case, the speaker in Ossetian adds words (I could not), thus explaining that he/she could not write (for various reasons).

When studying and determining the meaning of adverbs, it is necessary to take into account: one-syllable postpositions **-vit, -tan, -ze, -shi, -tvis, gan (dan)** are combined with the noun in Georgian. The Ossetian language does not have such a combination. The function of these adverbs is performed by certain declensions in Ossetian (and not postpositions).

Compare хадзæрай - like a house; хадзæрæй -from home.

The nouns accompanied with **-gan** postposition (amkhanagisa-**gan**) and **-dan, -idan** (tskharo-**dan, sopli-dan**) are asked different questions in Georgian: from whom? From where?

The above-mentioned postpositions are conveyed in one form of the genitive in the Ossetian language.

Sometimes one Georgian postposition has two matches in Ossetian.

For example, I went to the village - **хъаутам ацъдтан** (sopel-**shi** tsavedi), another form is - I am in the village - **хъæуты дæн** (sopel-**shi** var); **-shi** postposition is used in Georgian both during statics and during dynamics. In Ossetia, these forms are conveyed in clearly different forms of declension. **хъаутам** - I go to the village; **хъæуты** - I am in the village.

As well as in other Indo-European languages:

Russian: **В школе (находится) В школу (ходит).**

It is conceivable that in Ossetia, at an early stage of its development, there should have been more postpositions than are today. This assumption is confirmed by some of the surviving forms of the Ossetian language in the Digor dialect, some of which are also established in the literary language. It looks like this, for example:

Раз-дарæн (apron); дæл- базыр (under the wings); дæл-барад (attitude); уæл-арв (heaven).

Some of the functions of the Georgian postposition are performed by the prepositions and adverbs in Ossetian. In some cases, the Georgian postposition form is conveyed by declension in Ossetian. This is especially noticeable about Georgian, where the verb conveys these forms in most cases with appropriate markers.

Ossetian has both prepositions (Разæвæрдтæ, Раздзырдтæ) as well as postpositions (Фæсæвæрдтæ, Фæсдзы- рдтæ). Both prepositions and postpositions are adpositions, which "is attached to this or that form of declension of the name to indicate the state, direction, purpose or any other relation to the named object" (Shanidze, 1969).

There are only a few postpositions in Ossetian compared to the prepositions, namely;

æд, **-tan, ian, -ad** postpositions (in modern Georgian it is rare to have them attached as a prefix).

М æд-гæзертæ - armed (iaraghian-**ad**); æд- дзаума - with objects (nivtebian-**ad**)

The preposition æд is only attached to nouns and it is only in the nominative. It is inadmissible to include other words between it and the noun (Akhvlediani, 1968, p. 296).

The preposition æд in Ossetian is known as an unproductive preposition, while æнæ - as productive.

It should also be noted that the suffixes **-ian, -osan, -ovan, -ier**, which are suffixes that produce property names in Georgian, corresponds to the suffix -джын in Ossetian; Compare: дур-джын - stony (kv-**iani**); фыд-джын - fleshy (khorts-**iani**).

æнæ - u-o; u; æнæ-зæнæг - childless (**u**-shvil-**o**); æнæ-мат - careless (**u**-dard-**o**).

The preposition æнæ stands in the nominative (this proposition is close to the Georgian singular adposition - gareshe (without):

Unlike æд preposition, æнæ can sometimes have a delimiter, including a pronoun, between the preposition and the accompanying word (Abaevi, 1970, p. 296).

It should also be noted that in Ossetian æнæ prefix is sometimes replaced by its abbreviated version æ, which is used with the same meaning (denotes absence-not having) (Abaevi, 1970: 678). æ-дзар - homeless (**u**-sakhkhar-**o**); æ-дых - powerless (**u**-ghon-**o**).

In addition, some scholars of the Ossetian language also distinguish the third preposition фæйнæ, which expresses the amount of semantics (Medoiti, 2003:235). The preposition фæйнæ (approaching in meaning - single or one: gave me one five, one twenty, one three apples) is mostly in the nominative, although it can also be found in other declensions.

Thus, when teaching a second language, it is necessary to study the comparative grammar course of the (languages to be studied), to get acquainted with the phonetic, morphological, syntactic, or other features of the languages to be studied, which will greatly help students, listeners and those interested in learning these languages.

References

- Abaev V. (1970) - A short grammatical sketch of the Ossetian language in the book Ossetian-Russian dictionary, Ordzhonikidze, 1970.
- Akhvlediani G. (1968) - Grammar of the Ossetian language, vol. I, edited by prof. G.S. Akhvlediani, Ordzhonikidze, 1968.
- Бериеви Н. (2017) - Practical Grammar of the Ossetian Language, Tbilisi, 2017.
- Gabaraev N. (1987) - Габараев Н. Я. Ирон æвзаг, ахуыргæнæн чиныг 5-6 кълæстæн, Цхинвал, 1987.
- Medoiti B. (2003) - Медойты Б. Г., Нырыккон ирон æвзаг морфологи, Цхинвал, 2003.
- Shanidze A. (1969) - აკაკი შანიძე, ქართული ენის გრამატიკა, ტ. I. თბილისი, 1969.

Akram Khosravi

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi, Georgia

The process of acquiring the heritage or home language by children in immigrant families (A case study of Iranian migrant families to Georgia)

ABSTRACT

In this study, we are researching the impact of immigration on acquiring the heritage language in Iranian immigrant families to Georgia whose children age was between 3 to 15 years. The methodology used in this research is a survey study in the Iranian community, and the results methodology is questionnaires. According to the answers and the independent variable which is immigration, the result has shown that Iranian immigrant families to Georgia try to keep their heritage language even though some families were multinational. People are immigrating in the 21st century more than ever. This result is that people are being separated from their mother tongue and joining a new world and language. One of the challenges people face is how to preserve their heritage language while it faces a variety of obstacles that may be lost by its speakers. In this research, we study the effects of immigration on language knowledge from each side in addition to find out how the immigrant family's children acquire languages.

Keywords: *heritage language. Immigration. Language acquisition. Mother tongue.*

The aim of writing this article is to figure out how immigration can affect languages.

People are immigrating in the 21th century more than ever. The result of this is that people are being separated from their mother tongue and joining a new world and language. One of the challenges people face is how to preserve their heritage language while it faces a variety of obstacles that maybe lost by its speakers. In this research, we

study the effects of immigration on language knowledge from each side in addition to find out how the immigrant family's children acquire languages.

Mother tongue is very significant and is concerned to the honor of one's cultural heritage and language identity; a device in the transmission of thought that distinguishes human beings from so many other beings, the United Nations designates February 21st as World Mother Language Day. Around half of the languages in the world are endangered. The death of every language means the extinction of a set of cultures, histories, and customs of a group of people on earth. Heritage speakers are bilingual, concurrent, or sequential, who have been raised in homes where they have spoken a language other than the dominant language of the wider community (Valdés, 2000). The mother tongue is often known as the first language learned by an infant. If a language is spoken at home or otherwise readily accessible to young children, a language qualifies as a heritage language and this language is essentially not the dominant language of a larger national community (Rothman, 2009). Immigrant children and children of ethnic groups or even minority-born religions do not usually study or do not master their mother tongue, as well as the host country's language and the ruling ethnic community. In other words, in human life, the mother tongue is not always the most important language that remains and plays a role (Bateni, 2006). Complete bilingualism in itself cannot be perfect bilingualism unless the social, political, and cultural conditions of the region where he lives are also suitable for him. Some bilinguals are not complete. "That is, one of their languages dominates the other, the reasons for which must search in society" (Narcissians, 2006). Heritage languages are increasingly used in bilingualism debates and with good reason that few instances of bilingualism are fully balanced, with the supremacy of both languages being equivalent. Instead, due to the changing focus that emerges from shifting sociolinguistic situations, one language sometimes wins out over the other. The inheritance language, the weaker language of a bilingual dyad, results in this asymmetric bilingualism (Polinsky and Scontras, 2019).

Nowadays, migration to developed countries increased as people are looking for a better life, having a better job position, economic issues, and beneficiary of human rights, enjoyment of commonwealth and welfare and many other reasons. Meanwhile,

there will be some difficulties for children, those who are born in these families in a foreign country. They will face two different languages or even in some countries with three languages. International migration is one of the main factors that harm languages. Language as the most important means of communication and messaging between people is the first concern of immigrants. By knowing the host language, one can more easily integrate into the new community and work towards one's goals (Olumi, 2020). The heritage language, which is spoken at home by parents, assured is quite different from the host country's language. Among a diversity of cultural subjects, language has an essential role, from the policymaker's point of view in migrant matters. Immigrants have to have an acceptable level of language skill and embrace the culture of the receptive country. Therefore the immigrants end up with a set of cultural and linguistic change (Jusczyk, 1997).

The human language is used to share one's thoughts and ideas to his/her community. The units are words, the materials are the limited form of sounds from which they are developed, and the mixes are the sentences into which they can be collected. According to the multifaceted nature of this system, it appears to be doubtful that only children could find its basic structure and use it to communicate. However, most do with eagerness and no difficulty, all within the first few years of life (Saffran, Aslin, Newport, 1996). By merging the statistical regularities of reasonably pointless acoustic occasions, newborn children can quickly structure etymological contributions to significant and eventual meaningful units (Aslin and others, 1998). Finding the expressions of a language and what they mean in the world is just the first step for the language learner. Children must discover how the circulation of these components, including syntactic endings and capacity words, pass on the further combinatorial significance of an expression. The parsing cycle is consequently a fundamental part of the language understanding gadget since it permits kids to collect a series of components to register significantly, and even novel, relational conceptions of the world (Saffran, Aslin, Newport, 1999). Before infants can start to plan words onto objects, they should figure out which sound sequences are words. To do so, newborn children should reveal probably a portion of the units that belong to their native language from a great consistent stream of sounds in which words

are only occasionally encircled by pauses (Saffran, Griepentrog, 2001). Language acquisition is a cycle that can happen at any time in one's life. In the sense of first language obtaining, notwithstanding, it alludes to the procurement of oblivious learning of one's native language or dialects on account of bilinguals during the initial 6 or 7 years of one's life, generally from birth to the time of the beginning of one's school life (Nordquist, 2020). The first language acquisition is an instinct, very rapid, complete, and does not require instruction. For the most part, the capacity to procure a language with native speaker ability decreases severely around pubescence. The obtaining is done in the main long stretches of adolescence and prompts oblivious information on one's local language that is practically indelible. Learning a second language acquired later is characterized by imperfection and the likelihood of being misremembered. Learning leads to conscious knowledge. Bi-and multilingualism this is the learning in early childhood of two or more languages from birth or, at least, together. It is difficult to find the optimal situation where all languages are equally represented in the child's setting and where the child has an unbiased relationship with each one, such that one is bound to be dominant in two or more languages., Different second language learning models reflect how learners acquire knowledge of the new language, either in a similar way to their native language, the identity hypothesis or the intervention hypothesis against the context of this. Some models emphasize how the monitor model is produced in a second language or stress the role of external discourse factors and acculturation models (Nordquist, 2020).

Language is the most vital communicational tool and the first-turn issue to deal with for the people who decide to immigrate to other countries. Having a background about the language for the aimed country, those immigrants can improve and promote as much as possible, so people strive to learn the new language and the fact is that they prefer their children to learn the language which is spoken in society. The impact of the quantity of input on heritage language results has been recorded in several studies (Unsworth, 2016). More exposure to the heritage language over a more extended period contributes to more integrated bilingualism, to sum up, the general findings. Besides, the recurrence of that exposure seems to play a crucial role: both accumulated

lifelong exposure and current everyday life exposure are predictive of grammatical outcomes (Unsworth, 2015).

Results

According to research and interviews conducted in Tbilisi, the results are as follows: except for one case, all children of Iranian families are fully acquainted with their mother tongue in the listening and speaking sections and have also learned their mother tongue as their first language. The second result of the research shows that all families are very inclined to choose English as their second language. Due to the learning Georgian language difficulty and not being one of international languages concerning other languages in other countries, people have not made much effort to learn the language "completely". Also, having the heritage language as a priority in Iranian immigrant families is the ability to understand and comprehend everything, emotive, emotionally, and in terms of ease of expression. They believe that emotions can be fully and accurately expressed only by their mother tongue. One of the reasons immigrant children in Georgia do not know the official language of Georgia is their restriction on entering Georgian public schools.

Questionnaires

How good is the child in speaking the Georgian language?

How does the child acquire the Georgian language?

What is the school language thought? (Which school does the child attend?)

Where do you usually use the Georgian language?

How often are you in contact with Iranian-speaking people? Which language or languages do you speak at home?

Do you use Georgian words at home, by any chance?

Do you imitate or follow any of Georgian cultures or ceremonies or celebrate any of their festivals?

Do you celebrate Iranian ceremonies?

How much is your business depends on knowing the Georgian language?

Do you have multi nationalities?

References

Aslin R N., Saffran, J. R. & Newport, E L. (1998). *Psychol Sci* 9.

Batani, M. R. (2006). "Linguistics: Speech Perception".

Carroll, D. (2008). *Psychology of Language*. 5th ed, Thomson.

Field, J. (2003). *Psycholinguistics; a Resource Book for Students*. Routledge.

Jusczyk, P. W. (1997). *The Discovery of Spoken Language*. MIT Press, Cambridge, MA.

Narcissians, E. (2006). "Bilingualism and mother tongue".

Nordquist, R. (2020). "What Is Psycholinguistics?" Thought Co, Aug. 28, 2020, thoughtco.com/psycholinguistics-1691700.

Olumi, E. (2020). *Globalization, International Migration and Languages*.

Polinsky, M. & Scontras G. (2019). *Understanding heritage languages* University of Maryland . University of California, Irvine.

- Pulvermüller, F. (2007). "Word Processing in the Brain as Revealed by Neurophysiological Imaging": *The Oxford Handbook of Psycholinguistics*. Edited by M. Gareth Gaskell. Oxford University Press.
- Rothman, J. (2009). Understanding the nature and outcomes of early bilingualism: Romance languages as heritage languages. *International Journal of Bilingualism* 13 (2), 155–163.
- Saffran, J. R., Aslin R. N., & Newport E. L. (1996). *Science* 274:1926–1928, pmid: 8943209. <https://p.dw.com/p/A7QW>
- Saffran, J. R., & Griepentrog G. J. (2001). *Dev Psychol*, pmid: 11206435.
- United Nations, (2012). Archived from the original on 6 December 2012. Retrieved 21 Feb 2009. "*International Mother Language Day - 21 February*".
- Unsworth, S. (2015). Amount of exposure as a proxy for dominance in bilingual language acquisition. In C. Silva-Corvalán and J. Treffers-Daller (Eds.), *Language dominance in bilinguals: Issues of measurement and operationalization*, pp. 156–173. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Unsworth, S. (2016). Quantity and quality of language input in bilingual language development. In E. Nicoladis and S. Montanari (Eds.), *Lifespan perspectives on bilingualism*, pp. 136–196. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Valdés, G. (2000). Introduction. In *Spanish for Native Speakers, Volume I*, New York: Harcourt College.

Nino Chitishvili

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi, Georgia

Research of Developing the Oral-communication Skill while ERT (Emergency Remote Teaching) (in the example of teaching English for Bachelor's degree at Higher Educational Institutions of Georgia)

ABSTRACT

2020 started in a hard way for the whole world and it was a remarkably tough year for the educational system. On the 12th March the World Health Organization announced the Pandemic, which changed many things for Georgia and for the whole world. Georgia shifted from offline learning to the online/distant learning, that turned over the whole educational system. Some of the countries met this situation well-prepared, but for others, it was quite new and strange. Georgia was on the second list. My research topic highlights teaching-learning processes while ERT (Emergency Remote Teaching). On closer inspection, it studies changes in the traditional methodology of developing the oral-communication skill of English while teaching online because of the pandemic. First of all, we have to differentiate several terms that emerged through the pandemic into the educational system due to the non-traditional forms of teaching processes. These are: e-learning, distance education/distance learning, online education/online learning, blended learning, hybrid learning. But in pandemic, a new term emerged: "emergency remote learning and teaching". This term is used by EUA (European Universities Association) in their short report of September, 2020 "European higher education in the Covid-19 crisis". The same term is used in North America, "emergency remote teaching", where the majority of universities offered their students online learning next to the traditional forms of teaching to their students before the pandemic as well. Hence, teaching-learning processes that became online just because of the pandemic made vivid differences between the existing online learning forms and the learning that became remote because of the emergency situation. Therefore, my research highlights what changes the traditional forms of teaching gone through, when in the Spring term of 2020, the whole system of Higher Educational Institutions of Georgia adapted their offline teaching courses for the online ones.

Key words: *distant, oral-communication, development, teaching, pandemic.*

Thesis Actuality

The announcement of Pandemic on the 12th of March, 2020 by the World Health Organization and shifted educational system which became fully online. Universities of Georgia had to adapt their teaching resources into the online ones. The professors had to

start teaching in virtual classrooms by the help of different platforms. Most of them were not aware of online teaching techniques at all. March semester of 2020 was the first, when University teachers had to face so many challenges that were caused by the fastest shift ever done by the administrations of the Higher Educational Institutions.

Emergency changes in the curriculum of HEI of Georgia caused changing methods of teaching the oral-communication skill of English while using online platforms too.

My research highlights the techniques of developing the oral-communication skill of English in the students of different faculties for the Bachelor degree. Particularly, how the methodology changed because of the Emergency Remote Teaching. It is a well-known fact that there have been online courses for studying foreign languages. They were specially created for online platforms, with specially trained professors and the suitable online resources that had been observed and explored before the courses started. But in this new reality, ordinary professors were obliged to teach the materials, that had been chosen by universities for offline learning, not the online ones. This is the reason, why the topic of my research is so actual nowadays, it studies how the teachers and professors managed to adapt the offline resources and traditional methods in such a way that they would have become suitable for the distance learning. That is why I use the new term for my research topic: ERT (Emergency Remote Teaching) and not just distance learning as there is a huge difference in terms of the content.

My research will study the readiness of professors and lecturers in terms of technologies and methodology whilst Emergency Remote Teaching. As I mentioned above, most of the university lecturers of Georgia were not so aware of using computer technologies and online platforms or applications in actual classrooms. Their lectures had been interesting for their students, they used to teach with traditional methods for developing oral-communication skill of English, such as discussions, task based approach, problem based approach, group work or pair work, though, how they would organize these activities productively while teaching online, is quite a different issue.

The importance of the oral-communication skill in the 21st century and challenges of teaching-learning processes whilst Emergency Remote Teaching is another reason why the research is so actual. We all know that in the 21st century English is considered as a

“lingua Franca” for the whole world. Internationalization, globalization and Europeanisation are three main forces that have caused the popularization of the English language to such an extent. Despite the above mentioned reasons, students of different faculties (non-English professions) have trouble while speaking English. Some of them have got anxiety, others lack confidence or vocabulary knowledge or lack practice. These challenges have doubled while emergency remote learning. E.g. They do not switch microphones at all, some of them have internet problems, others do not like their voice, or are not used to speaking via Zoom or other online platforms. These challenges have not been studied systematically yet. We do not have thorough research how the lecturers assess the processes of developing oral skills or the challenges they have to overcome while teaching online.

Research Novelty

Currently there is no systemic research and its analyses about professors' assessment of the quality of developing the oral-communication skill in students of BA at HEI of Georgia .

What changes have been made on traditional methods of teaching languages whilst Emergency Remote Teaching.

Deep research has not done yet on studying the challenges which were faced by University professors and lecturers when they started teaching English in students of different faculties using the shifted curriculum and online platforms in terms of developing the oral-communication skill of English.

There are no surveys on exploring the satisfaction of University professors and students about the online learning as well as the feedback they give to exact universities about the effectiveness of online studies whilst Emergency Remote Teaching.

CEFR, the parts it consists of and challenges in terms of linguistic, pragmatic and socio-cultural components defined by those documentaries whilst ERT. (Emergency Remote Teaching)

In the following research, the oral-communication skill implies the idea, that students have got skills and abilities to speak English effectively and fluently. Nunan (1999) claims that success of a foreign language learner can be measured by his/her skills of making a conversation with an interlocutor in the target language. Nevertheless, Oral-communication skills are full of challenges in the context of foreign languages.

This research studies the development of oral-communication skills in Bachelor students of different faculties during ERT (Emergency Remote teaching), caused by the pandemic and highlights the complexity and challenges of the issue that have emerged while teaching in virtual classrooms where we have to rely only on our technologies. Though, this skill itself, implies face to face communications. Nowadays, the conversations are available only through online platforms. The same platforms are used to assess the objectives that should be reached at the end of the curriculum. Let us take an example of the oral exam that checks the oral-communications skills of students each semester or once a year, depending on definite university regulations. There are a bunch of challenges while conducting such kind of exams, e.g. unstable internet connection, bad microphones, crashing computers and unsuitable conditions at home. There are cases, when students change places during the exam, or somebody prompts them the answers via headphones, or sheets of papers and etc. All these issues must be observed properly to take measures what should be done to improve the quality of developing the oral skill as well as the quality of assessing the students' speaking skills. As we do not know how long Covid-19 is going to live with us or how long the Emergency Remote Teaching will be the major form of teaching-learning processes at universities and what changes it will cause in curriculums of Higher Educational Institutions.

Research Question

How the traditional methods developing the oral-communication skill of English in the students of different faculties of BA have/have not changed whilst Emergency Remote Teaching?

The research interrogates corresponding sub-questions

How the processes of developing the oral-communication skill of English in BA students of different faculties go on?

How University professors assess the processes of developing the oral-communication skill of English in BA students of different faculties whilst ERT

How the process of developing the oral-communication skill of foreign languages go on in America and Europe

Research objective

Research objective is to explore the development of the oral-communication skill of English in different faculty students of BA in Georgia while Emergency Remote Teaching.

Research Methodology

Qualitative research: Processing the secondary literature and reviewing the scientific articles and researches already conducted about the issue.

Reviewing the foreign researches about ERT and finding similarities in Georgia.

Reviewing CEFR

Reviewing traditional methods of teaching languages and the analyses of possibilities of using them while teaching online

Defining the communication concept and reviewing The USA five standards of languages.

Organizing semi-structured interviews with university professors and head of language departments in six universities of Georgia (four universities, two state and two private will be explored in Tbilisi and the rest two universities will be regional to have an overall impression about the real situation of ERT throughout Georgia).

Doing an **experiment** with my own groups by using the shifted traditional methods/techniques/activities that can be used productively to develop oral-communication skills of English while teaching online because of the pandemic.

Here is a list of activities that will be observed and used while using online platforms:

How we can use contemporary music forms (Rap, Hip Hop, Rock, Jazz) in our online/distance classes as a source of developing linguistic (phonology, morphology, lexis, syntax) and sociolinguistic (e.g. discourse language peculiar for definite social groups) components of the oral-communication skill.

How to include films while ERT (Emergency Remote Teaching) and how to organize the corresponding modern activities before or after watching movies that will serve for developing the oral-communication skills of English effectively.

Which games are helpful to use during distance/online classes and how we can change forms of offline games to such an extent that they can be played via online platforms. How to plan a lesson in such a way that students' participation is achieved in an amusing and funny way as well as those games will be a good conversational practice for them. (e.g. "Mafia Night", "Never Have I Ever", "Guessing Games" etc.)

How to organize competitions and social work in our virtual classes, how to divide in large and small groups, how we can foster our students via giving them online awards or badges, or some statuses. (e.g. I always have an online Oscar Rewards Ceremony for active students, I show them the photo of Oscar together with clapping sounds and then they have to say their Oscar Speech in front of their groupmates, which is really interesting and desirable for them. They even take screenshots of their Oscar and upload in their stories. Although it is just an oral comment and maybe they do not get extra points, it is still reflected on their motivation to speak in English in a better way.

Which applications and online resources (web-sites) can be used by the teachers to replace some offline activities or fill those gaps that emerged in our virtual classrooms because of Emergency remote Teaching.

Theoretical and Practical Importance of the Research:

The research will give us systemic analyses of developing the oral-communication skill of English in Bachelor students of different faculties throughout HEI (Higher Educational Institutions) of Georgia.

The research results can be used by the people who are interested in the following issue or by other scholars to conduct further research.

The research results will be used to create a guidebook for professors and teachers and university administrations, recommending those methods that can still be used in a virtual class with some changes whilst Emergency Remote Teaching.

References

- Bakradze, L. (2020). "Tanamedrove saganmanatleblo realoba, terminebi, gamotsvevebi". "New Educational Reality, Terms, Challenges", http://erasmusplus.org.ge/files/files/HERE/ახალი%20საგანმანათლებლო%20რეალობა_2020.pdf
- Harmer, J. (2007). *How to Teach Speaking* (London: Longman), p. 123.
- Nunan, D. (1991). *Language Teaching Methodology A Textbook for Teacher* (New Jersey: Prentice Hall International, p. 40
- Turk, Ch. (2003). *Effective Speaking Communicating in Speech*(Francis: Spoon Press).

Tamar Makharoblidze

Ilia State University, Tbilisi, Georgia

The second language acquisition: problems and challenges for Georgian Deaf community

ABSTRACT

As stated in the title, the paper is devoted to the issue of second language acquisition by Deaf people in Georgia, describing the current situation and the challenges. There are about 2500 Deaf and hard of hearing residents in Georgia. Being the linguistic minority in the country, these people communicate with each-other in the Georgian Sign Language – GESL. The second native language for local Deaf and hard of hearing people is the Georgian spoken language – the State language. In many countries Deaf people are bilingual, while it is hard to consider the local Deaf and hard of hearing people bilingual, as the knowledge of spoken Georgian on the level of a native language among the Deaf residents is not observed. Unfortunately in Georgia there are no studies concerning the second language acquisition for Deaf and hard of hearing people. The main problems are the agrammatism in written communication on the state language and the ignorance of deferent hierarchical levels of spoken Georgian. This short paper offers the key issues for the plan of strategy of spoken Georgian acquisition for local Deaf and hard of hearing residents.

Key words: *Sign languages, Georgian sign language – GESL, Second language acquisition, Multilingual education, Inclusive studies*

Introduction

There are about 2500 Deaf and Hard of Hearing residents (DHH) in Georgia. They are considered bilinguals like everywhere else in other countries, but this looks as a very superficial approach in this case. Their first native language is the Georgian Sign Language (GESL), which is a natural language with strong influence from Russian Sign Language (RSL), as there was only one Soviet Sign Language (of course based on RSL) for all DHH-s in the Soviet country.

The second native language for local DHH is the Georgian spoken language – the State language. Unfortunately, due to the absence of proper education and due the poor Deaf education system in the country, the local DHH have the problems with the knowledge of state language and this turns into a serious barrier to their full integration into the wide civil society. For example, on social media such as facebook, which is the most popular with local DHH users, they prefer to communicate with each-other using GESL, avoiding written Georgian texts and written communications with other ordinary people, because they are ashamed for their

mistakes. As GESL is the first and basic communication language for Georgian Deaf community members, the first ‘second language’ is spoken Georgian. It should be noted, that the most DHH in Georgia are originally non-Georgians. Deafness is hereditary for the most cases, and Georgian genome has a tiny little number of Deaf Georgians. In the most cases we observe the secondary Deafness among Georgians, such as deafness developed due the overdoses of antibiotics, age-deafness, stress-caused deafness, etc. The local DHH in the majority of cases are non-Georgian nationalities, and they (their family members as well including the hearing family members) do not know spoken Georgian well. There is a challenge to learn the spoken Georgian for local DHH. The main problem is that the members of Georgian DHH as Late learners are facing the problem of agrammatism in written communication of the state language – the spoken Georgian language. As mentioned above, DHH always tries to avoid written communication and therefore often stays away from the wide civil society giving an advantage to the signing communication among the community members. This problem has a negative effect on the entire communication process at the different levels, significantly limiting the process of integrating local DHH into the civil society in the country.

1. Second language acquisition for local DHH

1.1. Current situation

In Georgia, there are three schools for Deaf children: in Tbilisi, in Kutaisi and in Batumi. Deaf Children living in these cities study in these schools. According to the general educational plan they should follow the same educational program covering the same disciplines as any other schools in the country. I have to say with regret that unfortunately, there are serious problems in Deaf education in Georgia. There is no preschool at all, and mainly children study and improve the knowledge of GESL at Deaf schools. GESL is the main communicative language for these residents, and they have a very poor knowledge of the state language – spoken Georgian. Thus the second language is the spoken Georgian language for local DHH. Here we should outline the differences in linguistic skills and language knowledge between the following groups of children: A. Children with Deaf parents and B. Children with hearing parents. Usually A-group children know GESL better than B-group children. The parents of B-group children need to have the certain trainings to understand the meaning and importance of the local sign language (GESL) and to learn it in order to help their children in communication process.

The difference between these groups (A and B) is observed in the other countries as well. The strategy for second language acquisition and the Deaf education in general as well very much depends on the specifics of these groups.

It should be also noted that besides children, it is a challenge to learn the second language for adult DHH and the other types of Deaf Late Learners as well. As it was highlighted by working with the Georgian Deaf community members, the main problems are the agrammatism in written communication of the state language and ignorance of deferent hierarchical levels of spoken Georgian.

I learned that in elementary grades at Deaf schools in Georgia 5 hours are devoted to GESL in a week and for spoken Georgian are 6 hours (including the courses of Georgian literature). In the upper classes 2-4 hours are devoted to GESL in a week, and for spoken Georgian (language and literature) are 6 hours again. The results prove that the number of hours for spoken Georgian must be increased at these schools; and a new method and new approaches must be elaborated.

In Georgian Deaf schools Deaf children do not really study any other languages, such as English, Russian or German. This is just a formality on paper. Only a very few members of local Deaf community know the other foreign languages. These members are mainly the hearing children of Deaf parents, who work as GESL interpreters at this community.

It must be outlined, that the young generation of local DHH has a great wish to communicate with foreign Deaf people via specific websites and social nets. They try to make their first steps to learn English by themselves. Of course, in this case the International experiences of learning-teaching foreign languages to DHH can be shared successfully.

1.2. The key issues for the strategy plan

It is necessary to construct the proper environment at home and in the Deaf schools for Deaf children to learn the second language. The strategy plan should be elaborated and developed by the multi-professional groups including the teachers of Deaf schools, linguists of sign languages and second language acquisition specialists, psychologists, parents of Deaf children, and stake-holders.

First of all it should be mentioned that we need to have step by step actions. I regret to point out that in 2012 in a close collaboration with the local Deaf community I have elaborated the Georgian dactyl alphabet, which is mainly based on the copied letters from modern Georgian written alphabet – Mkhedruli. Till now, the local Deaf schools use Russian dactyl

alphabet, which in turn is based on Cyrillic, and of course it creates a problem in learning-teaching process of spoken Georgian – writing one type of letters (Mkhedruli) and orally using the different (Russian) system. It is very important to bring the Georgian dactyl alphabet into the local Deaf schools. The Georgian Deaf children at this age do not have good linguistic skills and learning the different systems (for dactyls and graphemes) simultaneously is very confusing for them. The Deaf schools should use the National alphabet – Georgian dactyl alphabet. This will positively affect their studying process.

To elaborate a good real strategy we need to follow the specifics of the abovementioned groups.

The work must be divided for three brunches:

1. Strategy for A group;
2. Strategy for B group;
3. Strategy for and adult Deaf and Deaf Late Learners.

The A-group will be mainly based on the knowledge of GESL to learn spoken Georgian, as these children know the sign language. B-group Deaf children have better knowledge of spoken Georgian, and they will mainly improve this knowledge with bilingual methodology. On the following steps the program can be untied for these groups, but for the beginners it is very important to have the right approach.

Learning spoken Georgian for adult members of local DHH and Deaf Late Learners will be based on detailed explanations of linguistic specifics on different hierarchal levels of the language – mainly morphological, syntactic and lexical levels. First of all, it is necessary to provide the research in order to reveal the types of mistakes that DHH make in written communication in Georgian. Then the concrete plans must be elaborated to teach the correct forms of spoken Georgian. It must be also taken into consideration that this kind of teaching must exclude too heavy grammatical explanations. The spoken Georgian acquisition can rely on the knowledge of GESL for Deaf adult groups and the other types of Deaf Late Learners. The approaches can be quite individual.

It is noteworthy that non-professional activities in the fields of Deaf studies and Deaf education are very damaging. Unfortunately, we had such negative experiences in these fields.

2. The methods of study

The method of the presented paper is analytical and descriptive, along with a comparative method, as I learned the Deaf education problems world-wide in order to share the best

experience. The information on local DHH was collected at the Union of Deaf of Georgia using the survey method and elicitation as well. To estimate the level for the knowledge of spoken Georgian – I used the written communications at face-book between the community members and other people. The language sources for the study were DHH of different age and gender, who signed the *informed consent* according to the International ethic rules.

3. Conclusion(s)

The main conclusion of this paper is that Georgian DHH needs the better integration process into the wide civil society, and for this goal, they need to have a good knowledge of the state language – spoken Georgian. The above mentioned strategy plan with the discussed key issues must be realized and the Georgian dactyl alphabet must be implemented in Deaf studies, preschool program must be elaborated including spoken Georgian teaching; and the education program and methods for local DHH must be significantly improved. All these topics and issues are challenging for everyone, both for the teachers and the learners.

Acknowledgment

I would like to thank the members of Deaf Union of Georgia Lamara (Leke) Japoshvili and Tamar Jikidze for their support.

References

- Bybee, J. (2003). Cognitive Processes in Grammaticalization. 145-167; In: *Cognitive and Functional Approaches to Language Structure*. Vol. 2 of *The New Psychology of Language*. Ed. Michael Tomasello. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Charrow, V. R., & Fletcher, J. D. (1974). as the second language of deaf children. July 1974. *Developmental Psychology* 10(4):463-470; DOI: 10.1037/h0036711. Access September 27, 28, 2021
- Humphries, T., Kushalnagar, P., Mathur, G., & Rathmann, Ch. (2014). Ensuring language acquisition for deaf children: What linguists can do. June 2014. *Language* 90 (2):31-52 DOI: 10.1353/lan.2014.0036. Project: Language Rights of Deaf Children. Access September 27, 28, 2021
- Hopper, P. & Traugott, E. C. (2003). *Grammaticalization*. 2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Janzen, T. (2012). Lexicalization and Grammaticalization. 816-841. In: *Sign Language – An International Handbook*. Eds. Roland Pfau, Markus Steinbach and Bencie Woll. Berlin, Boston: De Gruyter Mouton. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110261325>
- Makharoblidze, T. (2015). *kartuli jest'uri enis leqsik'oni [Georgian Sign Language Dictionary]*. Iliia State University; Shota Rustaveli National Scientific Foundation. Tbilisi. ISBN 978-9941-16-225-5 1368 pp.
- Makharoblidze, T. (2012), *kartuli jest'uri ena [Georgian Sign Language]*. Ministry of Education and Science, USAID, Save Children International. Tbilisi. 2012 615pp.
- Makharoblidze, T. (2014), *E-learning in inclusive education*. International conference on e-learning - new agenda. GIZ, MOE, VIT. 2014 25-26 Nov.
- Makharoblidze, T. (2015). *Agrammatism in Georgian. (Theoretical Discussion)*. International Conference „Speech and Language Therapy: Contemporary Approaches and Perspectives in Georgia. Iliia State University. Tbilisi. 2 Nov.
- Makharoblidze, T. (2014). *The Identity Issues of Georgian DHH*. International Conference “The European values and identities” TSU, Georgia Pro-Europa, French University” TSU. pp. 229-234; 426-420
- Makharoblidze, T. (2013). *The Georgian Dactyl Alphabet*. *Disability studies Quarterly*. Vol. 33, No.3 2013 <http://dsq-sds.org/article/view/3318>
- The Linguistics of Sign Languages*, (2016). An introduction. Ed. By Anne Baker, Beppie van den Bogaerde, Roland Pfau, Trude Schermer. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Tamar Kekelidze, Guranda Kukuladze

ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi, Georgia

TED talks as listening activities in the ESP classroom

ABSTRACT

The paper aims at showing how a well-known website ‘TED talks’ is used for creating listening activities in the ESP classroom in order to achieve the main goal which is to develop active listeners. It is needed when one is talking to another person (interactive listening) or when listening to a talk or a lecture (one-way listening). (Christine C. M. Goh 2012) . Listening tasks discussed in the paper are designed for students of social and political sciences. The syllabus of the faculty includes several disciplines such as Psychology, Politics, International Relations, Human Geography, Mass Communications. The paper presents how ‘TED talks’ might be used for creating listening activities using ‘top-down’ and ‘bottom-up’ strategies (Harlan Mills and Niklaus Wirth developed the top-down approach for software development field). In addition, the paper shows how the activities are conducted and what are the results of the performance. ESP listening might be considered as different from ESL listening since each discipline, listed above, has its own specific technical and specialized terms. However, methods of working on listening skills are similar and consists of stages which give opportunity to accomplish the task easily. Since Students who get ESP training are supposed to have experience in doing ESL course, they have motivation to be involved in the process and high interest in order to enrich skills for their professional development.

Key words: *listening skill, ESP, social and political sciences, TED talks*

Introduction

The perceived differences between ESP and ESL listening is the assumption that learners who require ESP training need to know specific vocabulary of the field of work or study. For example, people working in following areas: psychology, mass media, politics, sociology, international relations and human geography are expected to use and recognize phrases specific to their area of work so that they can communicate effectively with specialists from different countries. However, the listening problems encountered by learners in both general English and ESP contexts are similar and are linked mainly to factors that influence fundamental cognitive processes, for example: accents (Goh, 2012); vocabulary (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991).

and the demands of interactive listening that require quick and appropriate responses (Ferris & Tagg, 1996). The paper attempts to show how to use accessible online material for working on listening skill in the ESP classroom.

TED (Technology, Education, and Design conference) is dedicated to researching and sharing knowledge that matters through short talks and presentations. Since the presentations are intended for a wide audience the content and wording are quite understandable for non-specialists but at the same time it might be considered as an excellent source material for listening activities in the ESP classroom. The site is organized so that it enables to choose a presentation on the appropriate topic. The example introduced will feature main stages of a listening task and outline some activities which might be used in the classroom for working on the listening skill.

Choosing audio material

Listening activities create two groups: top-down and bottom-up. (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Top-down approach focuses on a bigger picture while bottom-up strategy involves listening for details. Both processes are involved in listening comprehension. The paper attempts to show how TED talks presentations might be used to create activities according to top-down and bottom-up processes and which approach to choose at the specific stage. Choosing audio material from diverse talks is the very first step in organizing listening strategy. The teacher can opt for native or non-native speakers from TED platform. It depends on the goal of the lesson. TED has evolved into a global phenomenon, inviting experts in all fields to present what TED calls “Ideas worth spreading”. The presentations are not designed only for scholars in the fields, they are for bigger audience and might be considered as short lectures on different topics. Consequently, acceptable as activities in the ESP classroom. Since the site is well-organized and user-friendly tracking down the talk on the specific area is not difficult. The question is how to transform the talks into activities. ESP listening is similarly dependent on knowledge about language forms and vocabulary that directly facilitates the perception and parsing of spoken input. Vocabulary remains a challenge for ESP listeners since each discipline has its body of technical and specialized terms that have to be additionally acquired. Furthermore, even after a learner has encountered these words and become familiar with their meanings, they may still have problems recognizing the words in a stream of speech (Goh, 2012) How to overcome the problems is mostly dependent on clear and detailed rubric of a listening activity. There are several reasons for offering a listening task such as listen for

details, understand and identify specific information, listen for main ideas, understand and summarize key points in a text, listen for global understanding, listen and predict, understand the gist of the message, listen selectively. The abovementioned goals define what material to choose and how to conduct the task. If the objective is to practice on listening for gist the teacher can introduce non-native speaker or a native speaker who has fast talking pace and ask very few questions on the content of the talk like: what is the speech about? or what do you remember from the speech? This is top-down strategy, which enables students to get more familiar with spoken English. A presentation from TED talks is chosen to feature the stages and processes of a listening activity. The talk is delivered by social psychologist Keith Payne who shows how economic inequality changes the way people see and behave towards one another, Payne helps explain the rise of the political polarization that's slicing up society -- and challenges us to think twice the next time we dismiss someone for the sake of politics. Since we focus on listening activities for students of Social and Political sciences the topic of the talk tends to be appropriate for this audience and might be offered to the students who major in sociology or in political sciences. From the library section of TED talks the teacher can decide on the talk which might be not only suitable for the ESP lesson but interesting for students as well. It is important to pay attention to the length of the presentation on TED platform. This feature might determine not only the objective of the listening task but range of activities offered during the listening. For example, if the talk is too long the main objective would be using top-down strategy, which is asking for general information. While for shorter talks bottom-up strategy would be more suitable and the teacher can offer activities, which are considered to be main features of this approach. All activities, discussed in the paper, are easy to prepare for the teacher because TED talks site offers transcripts of the talks. So, the teacher can use the text as a source for creating activities for the listening task. As we are aware, training the listening skill involves passing three stages pre-listening, listening and post-listening. The paper shows how the teacher can use separate stages in the classroom. The talk, which was chosen, lasts for about twelve minutes. Quite a long time in the classroom where there are lots of other activities to conduct. There might be solutions to this so-called problem. The teacher can divide the talk in two or three parts and thus work on one talk for several lessons following all three stages of a listening activity. Another option is to use only activities associated with top-down strategy and offering the TED talk without division. The paper gives some examples of activities that the teacher can design based on the talk chosen. The activities are organized for pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening stages. Listening means receiving a language through ears. It involves identifying the sounds of speech and processing them into

words and sentences. Students usually find listening the most difficult of four skills. Many people find it difficult to concentrate when listening to their native language. Listening in a foreign language is more complicated and requires even greater focus (Mary Underwood 1989).The formation of listening comprehensive skills includes three stages: I stage – pre-listening stage, during which we help our students prepare to listen ; II stage – during which we help to focus their attention on the listening text; III stage – post-listening stage, during which we help our students integrate what they have learnt from the text into their existing knowledge.

Pre-listening phase

Pre-listening work can consist of activities which encourage students to be involved in carrying out the task.

Example1. The teacher introduces the title of the talk ‘the psychology of inequality and political division’ and asks questions to make students predict and speculate on the content of the talk. The teacher writes four questions on the whiteboard which are arranged in the table.

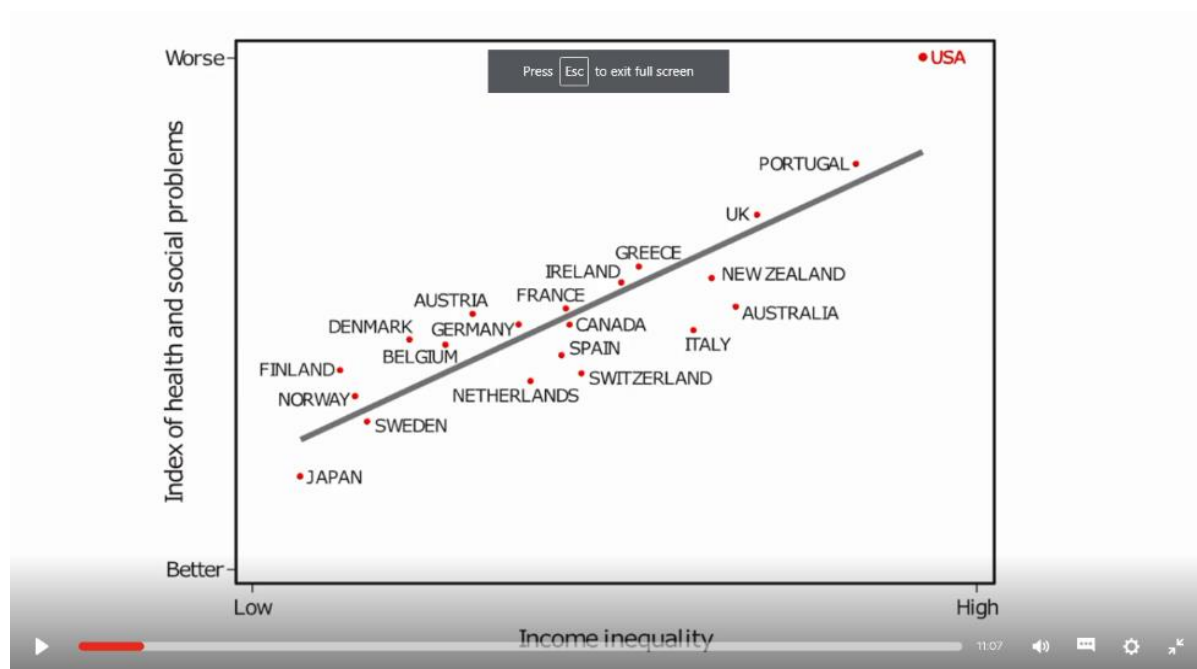
What is meant under inequality?	Which countries tend to face inequality?	What are the reasons of inequality?	What should be done to eliminate inequality?

Students have to answer the questions and write short answers below each question. The list of ideas is written and whether the suggestions appear or not in the talk will be checked after listening. While this activity two strategies are used. The first is predicting and speculating, the second one is making list of ideas, suggestions.

Example 2. The teacher divides the group in pairs. Each pair has the transcript of the talk. The students in each pair write out unfamiliar words, try to find out the meaning and if there are still unknown words and phrases, they write new vocabulary on the whiteboard. Each pair does the same work and the teacher monitors the words not to be repeated on the board. At the end of the activity new vocabulary appears on the whiteboard and the teacher starts eliciting meaning by giving synonyms or definitions. When all the words and phrases are explained students can make sentences

using the words on the whiteboard. Reading the text before listening is a type of a pre-listening task where pair work is followed by whole class activity.

Example 3. Keith Payne talk is a PowerPoint presentation so there are some images, diagrams and tables. The teacher can choose one image from the presentation and ask students to write a report on it. The rubric says: write a report on how income inequality is associated with health and social problems.



(https://www.ted.com/talks/keith_payne_the_psychology_of_inequality_and_political_division?referrer=playlist-the_political_mind&language=en#t-53966).

Writing activity can be conducted in groups or pairs (depends on the number of students). Two students might be assigned as jurors and after reading the reports they announce the winner group or pair. The writing task will serve not only as a pre-listening activity but as revision how to write reports as well.

Example 4. TED talks are conducted in front of big audiences. This performance is full of people's reactions to the speaker's emotions. We can see how people enjoy jokes and how people sympathize with predicaments the speaker mentions. Keith Payne's talk has a few laughter interruptions. Understanding jokes is conducive to possessing sense of humor, however, existing cultural differences won't be eliminated before stating that something is funny or not. In order to get acquainted with cultural differences and facilitate understanding jokes the teacher can divide the class into two groups. Both groups have to read the passages from the script where the people laugh.

The first group has to choose the funniest abstract and the second group has to opt for the least funny part from the talk. The following stage of the activity would be sharing the information and introducing the arguments for clarifying the choices.

While-listening phase

While-listening activities can include a wide range of tasks such as marking/checking items in pictures/finding the appropriate pictures etc.; – storyline picture sets/ putting pictures in order/ drawing the pictures; – carrying out actions; – making models/ arranging items in patterns; – following the route; – completing grids/charts/forms/text; doing true/false activities; – multiple-choice questions (Underwood, 1989). The paper accentuates some of them which will be easily designed and carried out.

Example 1. The teacher prepares printed version of the talk, where some words are missing. The teacher can decide on the length of the text and only one part of the talk might be offered. The main aim of the task defines the character of the activity (it is lead-in activity, during a lesson activity or the final activity). The handouts are submitted to students and they have to follow the rubric which says: Listen to the talk and fill in with the missing words. Only one or two words are missing. How many words to remove from the text depends on the group level. If this is B1 level group there might be only few words missing or specific parts of speech like adjectives or nouns. However, for higher level groups the missing words might be different parts of speech. Both versions are introduced below.

Ver 1. Fill in with missing words (The words in bold are missing in the handout)

Did you know that economic**inequality**is associated with shorter **lifespans**, less happiness, more crime and more drug abuse? Those sound like problems of **poverty**, but among**wealthy**....., developed nations those health and social problems are actually more tightly linked to inequality between**incomes**..... than to absolute incomes. And because of that, the United States, the wealthiest and the most unequal of nations, actually fares worse than all other developed countries.

.....**Surveys**..... show that large majorities of Americans, both Democrats and Republicans, believe inequality is too high and want more equal**pay**..... And yet as a society, we don't seem to be able to find the common**ground**....., the consensus, the political**will**..... to do anything about it. Because, as inequality has

risen in recent**decades**....., political polarization has risen along with it. We see those who disagree with us as idiots or as immoral. Nearly half of Democrats and Republicans now think that the other side is not just mistaken but a**threat**..... to the nation. And that animosity prevents us from finding the common ground to change things.

Ver 2. Fill in with missing words. (The words in bold are missing in the handout)

Did you know that economic inequality is associated with**shorter**..... lifespans, less happiness, more crime and more**drug abuse**.....? Those sound like problems of poverty, but among**wealthy**....., developed nations those health and social problems are actually more**tightly**..... linked to inequality between incomes than to**absolute incomes**..... And because of that, the United States, the wealthiest and the most unequal of nations, actually**fares**..... worse than all other developed countries.

Surveys show that large majorities of Americans, both Democrats and Republicans, believe inequality is too high and want more**equal pay**..... And yet as a society, we don't seem to be able to find the common ground,**the consensus**....., the political will to do anything about it. Because, as inequality has risen in**recent decades**....., political polarization has risen along with it. We see those who disagree with us as idiots or as**immoral**..... Nearly half of Democrats and Republicans now think that the other side is not just**mistaken**..... but a threat to t-he nation. And that**animosity**..... prevents us from finding the common ground to change things.

Students read the gapped text and then listen to the talk once or twice. While-listening activities are also called during-listening activities. Well-designed during-listening activities can help students to: identify what's important in a passage, perceive the text structure, keep themselves concentrated throughout the passage, show their understanding or non-understanding of the passage.

Example 2. The teacher works on the typescript in advance and creates some sentences based on the talk. The teacher writes sentences on the whiteboard and allows students to listen to the talk. The students have to decide whether the sentences are true or false. Example sentences on the whiteboard with correct answers.

Decision-making task was conducted in order to earn some money-false
 The better-than-average group consider themselves as very skillful and qualified -true
 Filling incompetent motivates people-false
 When everything's going your way, all you notice is yourself and our own amazing talents- true
 Disagreeing makes people think that they are better than others-true

Example 3. The teacher divides the text of the talk into several paragraphs. The scrambled paragraphs are given to students and they have to put the paragraphs into the correct order while listening to the talk. The final result looks like this:

1	I'm a social psychology professor at the University of North Carolina, and I study the effects of inequality on people's thinking and behavior. I'm going to argue that it's not just an unfortunate coincidence that inequality and political division have risen together. There are good psychological reasons that inequality drives wedges in our politics. That means there are good psychological paths to improve both at once.
2	The better-than-average group said that they were more competent than the below-average group. The better-than-average group said that their success was a fair outcome of a meritocracy. The below-average group thought the system was rigged, and in this case, of course, they were right.
3	For decades, social scientists looked for evidence that feeling deprived compared to other people would motivate political action. They thought it would mobilize protests, strikes, maybe even revolutions. But again, and again what they found was that it paralyzed people, because the truth is, feeling less than other people brings shame. It makes people turn away, disgusted with the system. Feeling better than other people, though -- now that is motivating. It motivates us to protect that position, and it has important consequences for our politics.
4	Every successful person I know can think of times when they worked hard and struggled to succeed. They can also think of times when they benefited from good luck or a helping hand but that part is harder. Psychologists Shai Davidai and Tom Gilovich call it the "headwind-tailwind asymmetry." When you're struggling against headwinds, those

	obstacles are all you can see. It's what you notice and remember. But when the winds at your back and everything's going your way, all you notice is yourself and our own amazing talents. So we have to stop and think for a minute to recognize those tailwinds helping us along.
--	---

5	The next time you're tempted to dismiss someone who disagrees with you as an idiot, think about the tailwinds that helped you get where you are. What lucky breaks did you get that might have turned out differently? What helping hands are you grateful for? Recognizing those tailwinds gives us the humility we need to see that disagreeing with us doesn't make people idiots. The real hard work is in finding common ground, because it's the well-off who have the power and the responsibility to change things.
---	---

Three examples given are only part of those activities which are considered to be while-listening activities. However, the paper focuses only on those which are not as time-consuming to prepare as for example multiple choice exercise or missing sentences / paragraphs.

Post-listening phase

A post-listening activity represents a follow up to the listening activity and aims to utilize the knowledge gained from listening for the development of other skills such as speaking or writing.

Post-listening activities can be used after listening to the audio to help students analyze concepts for a deeper understanding of ideas. In this stage, students have done a pre-listening activity, participated in a few while-listening tasks, and they are ready to move on to something else.

Example1. The teacher puts students into pairs, asks them to take turns recalling one bit of information from the listening without repeating anything. The teacher challenges students to continue as long as possible. Teachers can check understanding by asking students to summarize the information they heard, this can be done orally or in writing. Students can make pairs and then they can talk during a minute to another student, once the minute is over, they change partner.

Example2. One of the post-listening activities that a teacher can do is asking students to have a short discussion about the topic. The topic for the discussion must be taken from the listening

task that they previously did and should be interesting enough to inspire comments and debates. On the example of Keith Payne's talk there might be several subjects of the discussion such as how inequality affects social behavior or why is it important for a society to have more than one political party?

Example 3. Another post-listening activity that students can do is identifying vocabulary and then finding synonyms and antonyms for some words in the transcript. When they have done that, they can pair up and share their finding with other. The teacher provides student with copies of a typescript. It might be only one or two passages from the talk. The teacher writes some words from the script on the whiteboard and students have to find these words, understand the meaning from the context and try to give synonyms and antonyms. The handout looks like this:

I think our best bet starts with those of us who have benefited the most from inequality's rise, those of us who have done better than average. If you've been successful, it's natural to chalk up your success to your own hard work. But, like the studies I showed you, everybody does that, whether or not it really was the hard work that mattered most. Every successful person I know can think of times when they worked hard and struggled to succeed. They can also think of times when they benefited from good luck or a helping hand but that part is harder. Psychologists Shai Davidai and Tom Gilovich call it the "headwind-tailwind asymmetry." When you're struggling against headwinds, those obstacles are all you can see. It's what you notice and remember. But when the wind's at your back and everything's going your way, all you notice is yourself and our own amazing talents. So we have to stop and think for a minute to recognize those tailwinds helping us along. The next time you're tempted to dismiss someone who disagrees with you as an idiot, think about the tailwinds that helped you get where you are. What lucky breaks did you get that might have turned out differently? What helping hands are you grateful for? Recognizing those tailwinds gives us the humility we need to see that disagreeing with us doesn't make people idiots. The real hard work is in finding common ground, because it's the well-off who have the power and the responsibility to change things.

The words on the whiteboard:

	synonyms	antonyms
chalk up headwinds		
tailwinds humility		

Example 4. Play the audio once, and then tell the students that you want them to write some questions about it. They will ask other students these questions. This could be done in pairs or small groups. Finally, swap the questions around and play the audio again so that the students can answer each other's questions.

Conclusion

The lack of coursebooks in ESP for social and political sciences creates some problems for the teacher. The internet offers variety of sites where you can find the material which might be appropriate to the ESP learners. However, there are questions how to use those materials. The paper introduces how TED talk site, which is full of presentations on different topics, might be used for listening activities in the ESP classroom. Two distinct kinds of processes are involved in listening comprehension, which are sometimes referred to as “bottom-up” and “top-down” processing. Bottom-up processing refers to the use of incoming data as a source of information about the meaning of a message (Richards, 2006). From this perspective, the process of comprehension begins with the message received, which is analyzed at successive levels of organization – sounds, words, clauses, and sentences – until the intended meaning is arrived (Richards, 1990). Top-down strategies focus on the ‘big’ picture and general meaning of a listening text. Often the starting point is to discuss the topic and then to use a ‘gist’ or ‘extensive’ task to listen for the overall meaning. Top-down strategies rely on students knowing something about the topic. (Chaudron, Loschky & Cook, 2012). How The teacher uses both strategies while creating listening activities for students depends on subjective and objective circumstances. The teacher should take into account the group level, the number of students, time limit for the activities. All these elements help to define the goal of the listening activity. If it is less proficient group the teacher can offer top-down activities such as putting the paragraphs in the correct order (while- listening activity) or after listening the audio asking student what they remember(post-listening). To be more specific, it is not always necessary to conduct listening activities according to the established sequence: pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening phases. The teacher can decide on the listening task which is appropriate for a specific stage of the lesson. This might be a lead-in activity, an activity for the middle of the lesson or an activity for the last stage of the lesson. The listening samples in the paper might serve as examples how to create and organize listening tasks without spending a lot of time and yet training students how to become comfortable with listening not only to a native speaker talking on professional topics, but listening to their peers in group work or pair work tasks. According to Jack C. Richards the role of the teacher is to facilitate and monitor rather than be the only model for correct speech.

References

- Chaudron, C., Loschky, L. & Cook, J., (2012). Second language listening, Chapter 4; Comprehension and lecture note-taking Published online by Cambridge University Press: 05 October
- Ferris, D. & Tagg T. (1996). Academic Listening/Speaking Tasks for ESL Students: Problems, Suggestions, and Implications. TESOL Quarterly Vol. 30, No. 2 (Summer, 1996), pp. 297-320 (24 pages) Published By: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, <https://doi.org/10.2307/3588145>
- Goh, C. M. (2012). The Handbook of English for Specific Purposes (eds B. Paltridge and S. Starfield). – John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, Chichester, 2012. – P. 55-76.).
<https://www.cambridge.org/core/books/abs/academic-listening/second-language-listening-comprehension-and-lecture-notetaking/2D6A3AFA255FD16E3EDE357AAC118E56>
- Johns, A. M. & Dudley-Evans, T. (1991). English for Specific Purposes: International in Scope, Specific in Purpose 1991 TESOL Quarterly Vol. 25, No. 2 (Summer, 1991), pp. 297-314 (18 pages) Published By: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587465>
- Richards J. C. & Rodgers Theodore S. (1986). Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching Cambridge Language Teaching Library
- Richards, J. C. (2006). Communicative Language Teaching Today. Cambridge University Press
- Richards, J. (1990). Designing instructional materials for teaching listening comprehension, in 'The Language Teaching Matrix', Cambridge,
- Underwood, M. (1989). Teaching Listening. Longman

Giguashvili Tsisana, Sanaia Dali

Ivane Javakishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi, Georgia

Teaching grammar in context and multilingual environment

ABSTRACT

Multilingual environment has always been characteristic to Georgian reality. Today, due to current political or economic changes multilingualism has impacted the various fields including education. In this respect, Tbilisi State University is no exception, where the number of multilingual classes of ESL students of Azeri, Armenian and Georgian nationality is increasing. This process is accompanied by new challenges posed to the acquisition of the English language. The necessity of tackling these problems imposes responsibilities on English teachers, who are constantly engaged in the search for appropriate strategies and approaches fostering the proper learning process.

Having a good command of a foreign language implies the acquisition of new language items and the development of all the skills and sub skills that cannot be achieved without knowing grammar as an important component for developing the receptive and productive skills. The paper aims at finding the efficient ways of teaching grammar in multilingual environment. For this purpose, the problems related to learning grammatical structures are identified and analyzed and their solutions are suggested. Reviewing the advantages and drawbacks of applying various approaches and strategies, the paper singles out teaching grammar in context and supports its utilization in the multilingual classroom with the findings demonstrated by the experiment conducted.

The paper presents scholarly viewpoints regarding the above mentioned issues, inferences and concludes that the proper strategies, methods and approaches to teaching grammar should be determined considering the peculiarities of multilingual classroom so as to achieve the favourable learning outcomes.

Key words: *Grammar constructions, context, multilingual, strategies.*

Introduction

Multilingualism is a phenomenon accompanying the current globalization processes which have penetrated the various fields and aspects of life. Obviously, they have affected the education posing challenges to teaching foreign languages in multilingual classrooms. According to Poudel, “Multilingualism refers to the condition in which more than two languages are used in the same setting for similar purposes” (Poudel, 2010, p.121).

Challenges in multilingual classes and the goal of the paper

In multilingual classes learners speak different native languages, hence, the only language for communication is English which, at the same time, represents the target language for students to learn, this is the main reason causing the problems encountered in all the aspects

of teaching a language and hindering the achievement of linguistic as well as skill development goals.

Hence, ESL teachers have to comply with the core requirements emerged in the language learning process in multilingual setting at TSU as well, where the most prevailed multilingual classes consist of students of Azeri, Armenian and Georgian nationalities. Multilingual environment necessitates finding the appropriate strategies of Language teaching.

The challenges of teaching a foreign language for ESL teachers, are even more acutely felt in multilingual classrooms, because the common challenges of a foreign language acquisition such as linguistic and structural differences between the target language and a mother tongue, language knowledge level of students, differences in learners' characteristics and learning needs are added to the problems identified in the multilingual environment such as diverse national and linguistic backgrounds of students. A teacher has to seek for and select the strategies, methods and approaches of transferring the new language to students, so that it can be perceived, understood and acquired by each of the learners despite their national backgrounds.

The process of the second language learning encompasses all the linguistic aspects such as vocabulary, grammar, various lexical structures as well as the development of receptive and productive skills. The paper aims to single out the effective methods of teaching grammar in multilingual classroom as well as focuses on identifying the problems posed and finding the solutions to them

Significance and problems of teaching grammar in multilingual classes

We consider grammar to be the “cornerstone” of a language acquisition and the development of communicative skills. Understanding, mastering the grammar rules and constructions and their adaption to or usage in communication is essential to have a good command of a language. “Grammar is the weaving that creates the fabric” (Azar, 2007, as cited in Mart, 2013 p. 125). “Grammar teaching, can be defined as “any instructional technique that draws learners' attention to some specific grammatical form in such a way that it helps them either to understand it metalinguistically and/or process it in comprehension and/or production so that they can internalize it” (Ellis, 2006, as cited in Bikowski, 2018, p. 1). Accordingly, “helping students to have clear picture of language patterns and its rule are the goal of teaching grammar which aimed at producing practical linguistic (Souisa & Yanuarius, 2020, p. 1121) The significance of teaching grammar necessitates utilizing the effective

methods and strategies for transferring new grammar. For this purpose, it is essential to integrate the peculiarities of grammar teaching with those of multilingualism, which is associated with some challenges to be dealt with.

In order to find solutions to the difficulties related to grammar teaching in multilingual classroom, first of all, the reasons accounting for these problems should be identified. Relying on our experience gained in multilingual classrooms at TSU, the reasons conditioning the difficulties in teaching grammar are as follows: 1. Difference in the English language knowledge level- the only language used at the lesson is English, hence, the new language, or grammatical structures and constructions introduced and explained by the teacher, may not be well understood by every student. 2. Difference in linguistic backgrounds of the students. As Merita Ismaili suggests, “learners rely on their background experience and prior knowledge of their native language to acquire a second language” (Ismaili, 2015, p.199). In monolingual classes while explaining a certain grammatical pattern, we often refer to the similar linguistic structures existing in the mother tongue, find parallels and collate them with each other. This strategy greatly benefits learners to understand the new language, however, it is impossible to do in multilingual classes, as the sources and means facilitating the introduction and explanation of new grammar is confined to only the English language 3. Diverse cultural and social backgrounds – the examples of using grammatical structures and rules introduced by a teacher may not correspond to the cultural and social reality familiar to students of all the nationalities. 4. Lack of involvement –the low self-confidence conditioned by their national affiliation, feeling of belonging to national minority in the group, although groundlessly, leads them to being passive to participate in activities

The method of teaching grammar in context, its advantages and drawbacks

Occasioned by the above listed, teachers are faced with dilemma about which strategies and methods of teaching grammar to apply in the multilingual classroom. There have always been debates about how to teach grammar: deductively or inductively, focusing on the form or function, explicitly or implicitly, isolated or in context. Among the well-tried and accepted approaches we tend to apply the approach of teaching grammar in context, because, “language is context-sensitive” (Thornbury, 1999, as cited in Mart, 2013, p.125). As Mart states, “presenting grammar in isolated sentences will not allow learners to see how grammatical structures function in sentences (Mart, 2013, p.126). And the ”context gives a more precise understanding of how to use the grammar, and provides accuracy in the studied language both

in oral and written skills” (Wajnryb, 1990, as cited in Mart, 2013, p. 126). According to David Nunan (Nunan, 1998, p. 103), learners “ need an approach through which they learn how to form structures correctly, and also how to use them to communicate meaning. Such a methodology [...] will show them how to achieve their communicative ends through the appropriate deployment of grammatical resources”. The approach of teaching grammar in context implies the application of inductive teaching, when students are provided with the texts or situations where they themselves identify the grammatical structure and with a teacher’s assistance determine its meaning and rule of usage in contrast to deductive teaching when a teacher gives the explicit explanation of the rule or grammatical structure which is followed by practicing exercises.

One more reason conditioning our preference is the following: students having entered the university have already acquired a certain level of English language knowledge, which provides the “safety” of presenting the new language items through the context to be understandable and comprehensible for students. However, it is worth noting, that the text should be straightforward, not overburdened with complicated grammatical structures, so as to allow learners focus their attention on perceiving new grammar.

The above mentioned characteristics of contextual teaching allows to determine the advantages of applying this approach in multilingual classrooms. First of all, comprehending the text as a whole enables students to familiarize themselves with grammar structures without realizing that they are new language, this can be compared to a child starting speaking in his native language, who is exposed to the new language in contextual way without explaining any grammar rules and structures. Secondly, the textual introduction as well as the provision of new grammar with the true-life examples and situations implied by this approach enables students to connect the form and function of a grammar term with each other and use them in reality in different situations and environment. In addition, this approach highlights the learner’s independence to understand, guess and grasp the meaning and usage of new grammar in his/her mother tongue without the “interference” of English. Furthermore, the mentioned approach offers the students of various nationality the equal opportunities to comprehend the new material that elevates the level of their involvement and motivation.

The drawback emerged while using this method in multilingual class is conditioned by different cultural and social backgrounds of students that may hamper multilingual learners from comprehending all types of situations, that’s why, the context for a grammar pattern

should be generalized as well as familiar and close to awareness of students with any national and religious backgrounds.

Experiment

In order to confirm the feasibility of contextual grammar teaching we conducted the experiment in a multilingual class. The target group consisted of 12 students, among them 6 were of Georgian nationality, 3 - Armenian and 3- Azeri students. The grammar material to be transferred was the passive voice. The acquisition of grammar was evaluated by the accuracy assessment quiz of 20 items comprising the usage of tenses, changing the sentences from active into the passive voice and vice versa, personal and impersonal passive. Students performance implying their involvement and motivation was evaluated by the observation method.

Diagram 1 illustrates the results of the experiment:

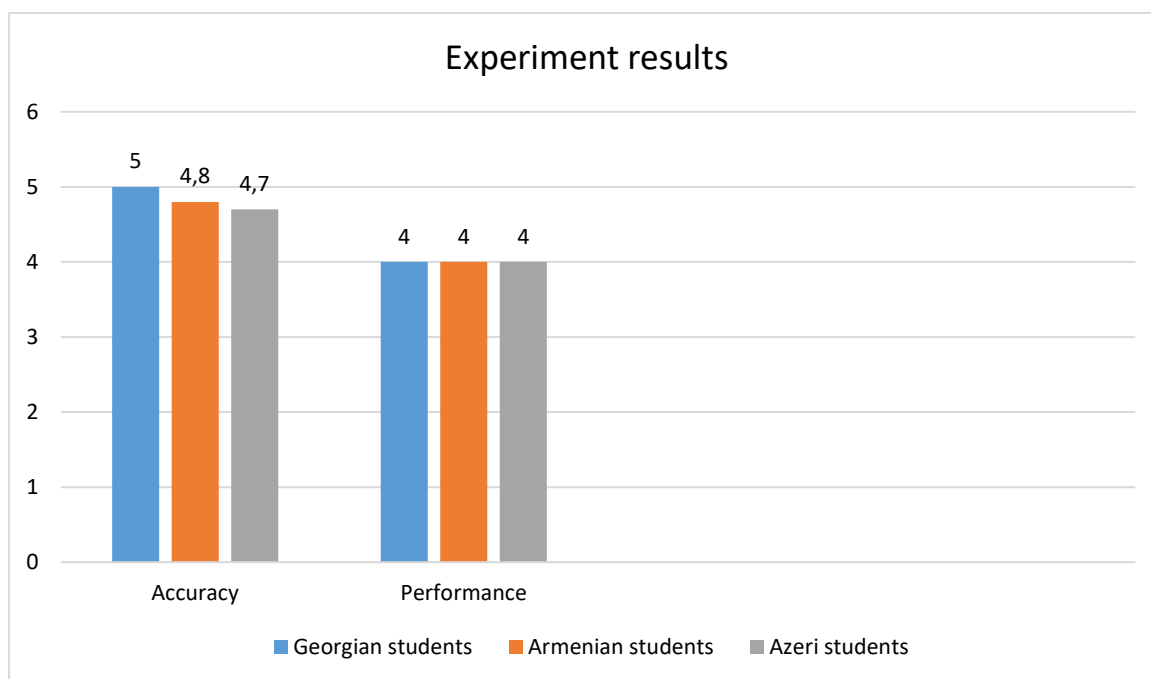


Diagram 1

So, on average, the assessment of students' accuracy showed more or less similar results demonstrating quite a high level of acquisition of passive voice

Learners observation revealed the equal level of involvement and motivation of students with all the three national backgrounds that was conditioned by their elevated self-confidence.

Conclusions

Occasioned by the experiment results we can infer that the contextual introduction of new grammatical structures benefit both the multilingual learners to grasp their meaning and essence without teacher's "interference" as well as the teachers to transfer new material. The teacher's role is increased in the other segments of a lesson that implies the additional clarification of the material and further controlled practice in using it.

Textual grammar teaching approach allows students to rely on their own knowledge and capability to comprehend the new grammar and its function as well as it can be considered to be students-centered.

Properly selected context providing multilingual students with the familiar reality facilitates the comprehensibility of the text, as a whole, and allows learners to focus their attention on new grammar patterns so as to perceive and understand them correctly. However, a teacher's role and assistance, which is revealed in giving necessary explanation and conducting the controlled practice, cannot be ignored.

Based on the fact that contextual grammar teaching offers equal opportunity to all the students to understand the grammatical structures transferred, the mentioned method elevates the level of self-confidence that, for its part, increases the involvement and motivation of multilingual students.

References

- Bikowski D. (2018). "Technology for Teaching Grammar, 2018, p.1
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/326689342_Technology_for_Teaching_Grammar
- Ismaili, M. (2015). "Teaching English in a multilingual setting" *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 199, p. 190, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.505>
- Mart, C. T. (2013). *Teaching Grammar in Context: Why and How? Theory and Practice in Language Studies*. Vol. 3, No 1, pp. 125-126. ACADEMY PUBLISHER. Finland. ISSN 1799-2591, <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.3.1.124-129>

Nunan, D. (1998). Teaching grammar in context. *ELT Journal*, Vol. 52, No 2, p. 103. Oxford University Press.

Poudel, P. P. (2010). Teaching English in Multilingual Classrooms of Higher Education: The Present Scenario. *Journal of NELTA*, Vol. 15, 1-2:121.

Souisa T.R., & Yanuarius, L. (2020). Teachers' strategies on teaching grammar: Facts and expectations of senior high school teachers at Ambon. *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education (IJERE)*, Vol. 9, No 4, p.1123, ISSN: 2252-8822, <https://doi.org/10.11591/ijere.v9i4.20643>.

Babulia (Khatuna) Akhobadze

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State Universit, Tbilisi, Georgia

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at Higher Educational Institutions of Georgia

ABSTRACT

The Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) method focuses on teaching the main subject through a foreign language. This method is already successfully used in various around the world no specific formula or textbook exists so far. Based on the study of the existing literature, the possibility of using CLIL at Universities of Georgia and its anticipated results are analyzed in the present thesis. Target language of CLIL is mostly English. In our country English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is successfully taught in many Universities. For example, at the Faculty of Economics and Business our students are taught Business using a special English textbook to learn some issues of economics and business. Teaching any curricular subject using CLIL will be twice as effective and convenient for both the student and the university than teaching English and this particular subject separately. CLIL ensures a comprehensive study of a specific subject and a high level of English language proficiency. CLIL has a significant positive impact on the growth of the students' language competence. It helps them to achieve significant success in terms of various linguistic aspects, such as: vocabulary, terminology, academic English, etc. However, the assessment is made not in terms of language competence, but in terms of subject matter proficiency. Indeed, CLIL does not only mean language teaching - it is a complex method of using a foreign language to study a major subject. Consequently, knowledge is assessed within the competence of the main subject and thereby the language proficiency as well. With no database of textbooks for CLIL, everything is upon the teacher training, as a result of which the teacher must be able to compile a lesson plan based on different subject materials. We propose to use CLIL to teach different curricular subjects to the students of the Faculty of Economics and Business. To begin with economics, famous economists, e.g., Marshall, Robbins, Sandmo, etc. have different answers to the question "What is economics?" Therefore, the goal of the lecture course we suggest within CLIL will be to find the answer to this question.

Keywords: *CLIL, economics, English language, HEI's.*

In today's world, it is no longer a question of the need of knowing two or more languages. Over the years, scientists, linguists, professors, and finally programmers have created and developed numerous methods of teaching a foreign language. At the end of the twentieth century, another new method of teaching a foreign language emerged - CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning). This method has been used successfully for several decades in various schools and colleges around the world. In the present thesis, based on the study of the existing literature and practical experience

of different countries, the possibility of using the method of language-content teaching in higher education institutions and the expected results are analyzed.

CLIL is a complex method, which combines teaching foreign language through the content of the subject and teaching the content of the subject through a foreign language. It is interesting to note that CLIL, where it has been introduced, is beginning to influence institutionalised education in a positive way. The approach seems to confirm innovative methodological claims and to lead to new pedagogical insights. Practicing CLIL teachers have pointed, for example, to a number of exciting methodological options which can be realised more easily in a CLIL environment: task-based learning, project work, learner orientation and autonomy, to name just a few. In recent academic research it could be shown that this assumption is correct: it is not only the learner's language competence but also his content subject competence which benefits from this approach (Wolff, 2012, pp. 105-116).

The name CLIL was coined by David Marsh and Anne Maliers in 1994, but in practice its use began much earlier. As Marsh and Frigols point out, "CLIL emerged in contexts where educational provision required upgrading; language learning levels needed to be improved; and content-related educational outcomes were not being achieved" (Marsh, Frigols, 2012, 2).

Since the 1950s, the European Union began to intensively focus on the study and teaching of European languages. Since 1976, serious steps were taken in that direction. In the following years, the European Parliament adopted a number of resolutions to promote language learning / teaching. The innovative method of content and language integrated learning (CLIL) has been highly praised by the European Commission.

What is CLIL what is its objective and what is the subject matter of teaching in general?

"An outsider might imagine that the content would comprise two major elements, namely knowledge of the language's grammar and knowledge of lots of vocabulary. Of course, these do form an important part of what is taught/learned, but it's important to realise that someone learning a language needs far more than 'in-the-head' knowledge of grammar and vocabulary to be able to use language successfully." (Scriveener, 2005, 27).

The ultimate goal of CLIL can be different. „The reasons for CLIL implementation include: diversifying methods and forms of classroom practice; building intercultural knowledge and understanding; enabling students to access international certification; increasing learner motivation and building self-confidence towards learning English; giving added value to the learning of content; preparing for future studies and working life; and, enhancing school and region profiles“ (Marsh, Frigols, 2012, p. 5).

Although a lot of time and effort is spent on learning / teaching a foreign language, specifically English, the overall level of language knowledge of students and pupils is quite low. Therefore,

some initiatives of CLIL are driven by the need to make changes in English language teaching practice.

The essence of CLIL is in integration. The methods used in the classroom depend on a set of core variables. These are interwoven into the curriculum and realized through classroom practice. They revolve around the type of subject learnt, the cognitive demands involved, and the pupils' linguistic competence and learning load (Marsh, Frigols, 2012, p. 3).

Dalton-Puffer provides the curricular model (Fig.1) with its four areas content, communication, culture and cognition adapted by Zydatið where communication, and hence language does not hold the centre-place.

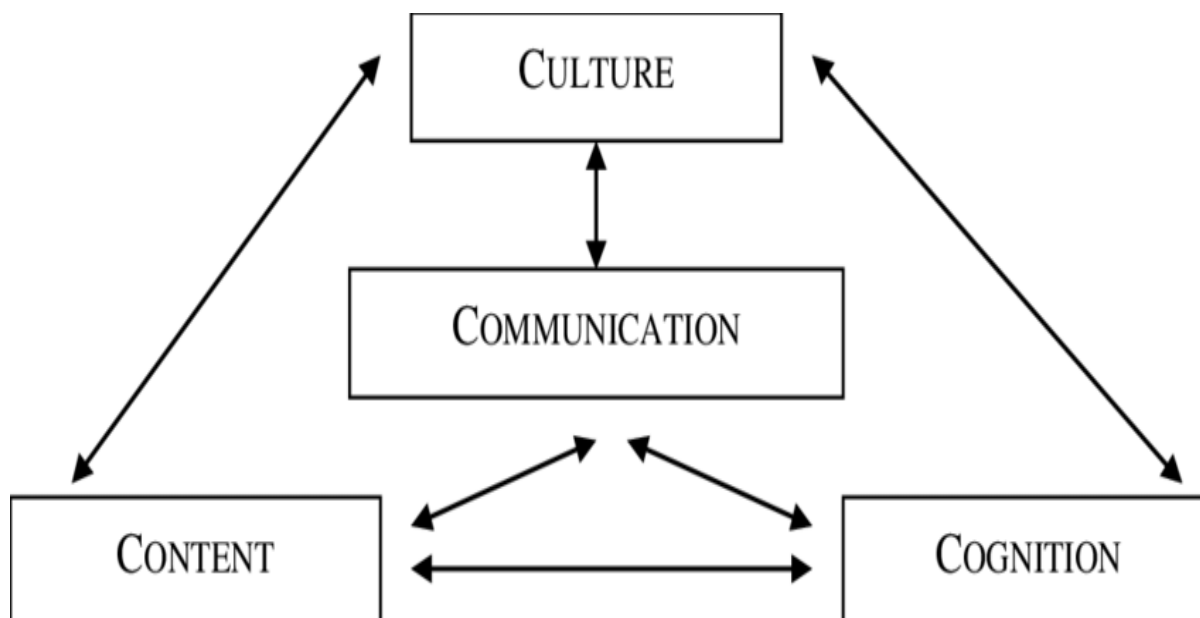


Figure 1. A curricular framework for CLIL (adapted by Zydatið)

It is true that CLIL does not give priority to the study of language, but it has many opportunities to improve language skills. It helps students to achieve significant success in terms of various linguistic aspects, such as: vocabulary, terminology, academic English, etc. However, the assessment is made not in terms of language competence, but in terms of subject matter proficiency. Indeed, CLIL does not only mean language teaching - it is a complex method of using a foreign language to study a major subject. Consequently, knowledge is assessed within the competence of the main subject and thereby the language proficiency as

well. The level of language knowledge is revealed through the test carried out for checking the knowledge of the main subject.

The experience of different countries proves that children under this program achieve significant success in terms of different linguistic aspects. Based on the analysis of existing studies, it can be said that CLIL has a significant positive impact on the growth of students' language competence. It provides a much higher level of foreign language than foreign language lessons in general (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, 5), including higher in some respects and relatively lower in some respects. (Table 1). Generally, CLIL has positive impacts on children's language competences.

Table 1. Language competencies favourably affected or unaffected by CLIL

<i>Favorably affected</i>	<i>Unaffected or Indefinite</i>
Receptive skills	Syntax
Vocabulary	Writing Informal/non-technical language
Morphology	Pronunciation
Creativity, risk-taking, fluency, quantity	Pragmatics
Emotive/affective outcomes	

The table contrasts areas where clear gains are observable with areas where there are not. It has a good effect on the development receptive skills, vocabulary, morphology, creativity, risk-taking, fluency, quantity, emotive/affective outcomes. On the other hand, it has little or no effect on syntax, writing informal/non-technical language, pronunciation and pragmatics.

CLIL encourages students to learn languages, as the motivation to learn a language increases along with the interest in a particular subject. One of the frequently observed positive effects of CLIL is that “after a certain amount of time spent in CLIL lessons the learners seem to lose their inhibitions to use the foreign language spontaneously for face-to-face interaction” (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p. 6). But it should be noted that “the greatest gain in terms of the language system, however, is undoubtedly produced in the lexicon: through studying content subjects in the foreign language CLIL learners possess larger vocabularies of technical and semi-technical terms and possibly also of general academic language which gives them a clear advantage over their EFL-peers. (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p. 6).

The 2014 report of the European Commission, based on the data of experienced teachers and researchers reflects the positive moments of CLIL. The research and observation is still

ongoing to confirm the pros and cons of this method. The International Research Journal systematically publishes papers on CLIL. Andreas Bonnet, the professor of Hamburg University considers that further empirical research is needed, and a brief methodological analysis of what evidence base is there might point the way (Bonnet, 2012, pp. 66-77).

Initially, the CLIL was introduced at a lower level of teaching, at primary and secondary schools. However, recently universities have also become interested, especially in Europe. Using this method in higher educational institutions will give students more motivation to learn a foreign language better allowing them to learn a specific subject in that language, to read a wide range of foreign books and papers in that particular field and to learn great number of technical terms.

The nature of CLIL is interdisciplinary. It is not based on a single evidence, single theory or single textbook. According to Marsh and Frigols Martín (2012, p. 294), “applications of CLIL are multifarious depending on educational level, environment and the specific approach adopted. The learning outcomes tend to focus on achieving higher levels of awareness and skill in using language in real-life situations, alongside the learning of subject matter. This approach can be viewed as being neither language learning, nor subject learning, but rather an amalgam of both. Successful application involves utilising and developing a broad range of language awareness capacities.”

Consider, for example, the curriculum in science designed for fourth grade students for one of Spanish school– the topic of is “watercycle” planned for 5 lessons (www.cicloagua-mariamoliner):

Lesson plan

Content 1. What is water; 2. What does water circulation mean; 3. How is water recycled and what is pollution, etc.?

Language. To learn basic vocabulary; Semantic groups of new words related to the water cycle: River, sea, lake, etc. Condition: liquid, solid, vapor, gas; Temperature and size adjectives: hot, cool, freezing, Warm, cold, big, small ...

Grammar. Use of present simple/present continuous to describe, characterize and explain water cycle processes, etc.

Mathematics: Practical to measure the water volume.

Poetry and Literature. Various poems on this topic, for example:

Rain -*Water, water everywhere, water all around, Water in the ocean, water in the ground.*

Water in a river, water in a creek, Water in a faucet with a drip-drip leak!

Water -*I think, think think the water comes from the kitchen sink.*

But no, no, no

and now I know that water comes from rain and snow , etc.

All the subjects such as music, art, poetry and literature are involved.

In terms of CLIL implementation, our country is significantly behind the European countries, especially at the university level. But it should be noted that English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is successfully taught in many Universities. For example, at the Faculty of Economics and Business our students are taught Business using a special English textbook to learn some issues of economics and business, while CLIL implies comprehensive study of a curricular subject using a wide range of English language resources. Some schools have a practice of teaching certain subjects in English, which is confined to the English textbook that is far from the resources provided by CLIL. Teaching any curricular subject using CLIL is twice as effective and convenient than teaching English and that particular subject as separate disciplines. As practice shows, high school students show more interest in learning professional English rather than general English. This is probably due to the fact that general English is taught in school for several years, while professional English is something new and a kind of challenge for them. CLIL ensures a comprehensive study of a specific subject and a high level of English language proficiency. We propose application of CLIL at the Faculty of Economics and Business. For example, “The history of Economic Thought” has long been taught at the Faculty of Business Economics at various universities around the world. It is a curricular subject at our universities. However, it is mainly confined to the native language textbook consisting of limited information on global business and economic issues translated from foreign languages, While CLIL allows students to study economic analysis and economic doctrines in detail based on a wide range of English-language sources. Also, it allows teaching two subjects at the expense of one in terms of time and money. The integrated teaching of the English language and The History of Economic Thought should be carried out at the interdisciplinary level like any other CLIL subject. CLIL will allow to teach the history of economic analysis and economic doctrines in close connection with Ancient economic theories with their similarities and differences with modern economic theories, economic policy and

political economy, philosophy, sociology, statistics, demography, banking policy, agriculture and urbanism, history of Georgia, etc. Language learning will be provided by classroom discussions, written exercises and assignments. The subject itself will be taught through a variety of English-language economic resources, both classic and modern, such as: A. Sandmo, *Economics Evolving: A History of Economic Thought*; L. Robins, *A History of Economic Thought – the LSE Lectures*; C. Menger, *Principles of Economics*; B. Gordon, *Aristotle and the Development of Value Theory*; S. Lowry, *Recent Literature on Ancient Greek Economic Thought*, etc.

For implementation of CLIL the role of the teacher is especially important. In its resolutions on multilingualism strategies The Council of Europe devotes particular attention to the further training of language teachers and to enhancing the language competences of teachers, in general, in order to promote the teaching of non-linguistic subjects in foreign languages.

As for the trainings, language teachers should do a certificate or credit course in relevant subject abroad. In conditions of modern globalization and computerization, teachers can remotely do such courses at any university of the world. Also, the students can easily search for relevant foreign sources in any subject on the Internet.

In conclusion, CLIL is a new effective method that combines two subjects under one umbrella. Its intensive implementation in higher educational institutions will help students to learn a foreign language at a high level through the content of the subject and to study the content of a nonlinguistic subject in depth through a foreign language.

References

- Bonnett, A. (2012). Towards an Evidence Base for CLIL. *International CLIL Research Journal*. 1 (4), 66-77. <http://www.icrj.eu/14/article7.html>.
- Dalton-Puffer, C. (2007). Werner Delanoy and Laurenz Volkman, (eds.) *Future Perspectives for English Language Teaching*. Heidelberg: Carl Winter.
- European Commission. *Improving the effectiveness of language learning: CLIL and computer assisted language learning (2014)*. London: Education and Learning. https://ec.europa.eu/assets/eac/languages/library/studies/clil-call_en.pdf.

<https://www.univie.ac.at/Anglistik/Dalton/SEW07/CLIL%20research%20overview%20article>.

Marsh D. & Frigols, M. (2012). Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).;

Marsh D. & Frigols, M. (2007). Introduction: Content and Language Integrated Learning.

https://www.unidue.de/imperia/md/content/appliedlinguisticsdidactics/lingon/marsh_frigols__clil_intro__ts_me.pdf.

Scrivener, J. (2005). Learning Teaching. Oxford: Macmillan Books for Teachers.

Wolff, D. (2012). The European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education. Synergies Italie n° 8 - pp. 105-116 https://gerflint.fr/Base/Italie8/dieter_wolff.pdf.

Maia Kikvadze

Shota Rustaveli State University, Batumi, Georgia

Issues of mastering new vocabulary in Georgian, As in the process of learning a second language

ABSTRACT

Study and acquisition of the second language primary foresees gradual development of the lexis. A rich lexicon of the person directly promotes easy acquisition of the second language.

In our reality, at Batumi Shota Rustaveli State University, we deal with different groups of the Armenians, Azerbaijanian, Turks, Russians, Ukrainians, Belarusians, Kazakhs and other people, prompted with different aims to study the Georgian language. Some of them acquire the Georgian language easily, some with difficulties. In order to detect the factors promoting and complicating acquisition of Georgian vocabulary, we'll discuss the following cases: 1. The vocabulary, which is common for all ethnic groups (the international words); 2. The vocabulary, which is allied to some ethnic group; 3. Fully new vocabulary (according to the aims of studies); Thus, these and other related issues will be covered within the frames of the paper.

Keywords: *vocabulary, assimilation, group, process*

Introduction

The number of Georgian language learners has increased especially in recent years. Many foreigners are interested in our country, culture. Georgian language has become the second mother tongue for many non-Georgians. Many foreigners have received and are still receiving education in Georgian language in various higher education institutions of Georgia. This is really a pleasant fact, but we face the most important problem - how to teach Georgian to foreigners, what we can offer to non-Georgian speakers to make a second language learning process enjoyable and pleasant.

The fact is that, unfortunately, we have seen representatives of ethnic minorities living in Georgia who practically do not know the Georgian language, Georgian citizens (Armenians, Azerbaijanis), for whom Georgian language and literature were considered as a necessary

subjects in the curriculum of the school. This has been a serious problem for many years. Non-Georgian speaking young people graduated from school in such a way that their knowledge of the state language could not meet the minimum requirements. The Government of Georgia has made a correct and timely decision in connection with raising and improving the quality of Georgian language teaching in non-Georgian language schools. At the same time, launching a one-year educational program in Georgian language in Georgian higher education institutions from 2010 and then fully implementing it, is considered as a successful project. Today, the result is really felt: a much better generation of non-Georgian-speaking schools enters universities, and their level of knowledge of the Georgian language is much higher.

Main part

„The second language is the language spoken by a person, learned in chronological order after the first language or in parallel with the first language. The second language is the language by which a person makes contact with other people who speak the same language in an informal everyday environment. As a rule, the second language appears in the lives of people living in a country where this language is native"(Shaverdashvili at al., 2014).

Learning a second language is a cognition of a new world for any person, which is naturally associated with difficulties. But learning process should be as fun as possible and not related to fear, complexes. The complex has the worst effect on the language learner. Mastering the second language, first of all, means a gradual development of a new vocabulary. It is easier to learn the second language when the vocabulary of the new language learner is richer and fuller. Vocabulary and discourse are interdependent. The more dynamic the process of mastering the second language is, the easier is to achieve a successful communication.

It should be noted that modern life, European education directly requires knowledge of a new language/languages. The question is often asked, is it easier to learn a second language or a foreign language? As they say, learning a second language is usually easier than learning a foreign language. People studying any foreign language, not being able to hear and use that language outside the classroom, for example, in familiar, everyday situations. Thus, foreign

language acquisition is like learning a second language under limited conditions. For this reason, the process of foreign language acquisition lasts longer than the second language acquisition, and is more difficult "(Shaverdashvili at al., 2014).

With the alphabet, we offer language learners the exact vocabulary connected with the sounds we teach at a particular time. Mastering a new language, mastering a new vocabulary is an individual process of learning . Some do it relatively easily, while others find it much harder. In addition, the introduction of a new culture is directly related to language learning. The similarities between the native language and the language learners cultures can be seen in general vocabulary.

Muriel Saville-Troike discusses the second language acquisition issues in his book „ Introducing Second Language Acquisition”. The author explains the acquisition of a second language in connection with the events that are involved in the process of learning that language. He notes: "Sometimes it is necessary for us to know the differences in what we use the second language in our life, because it has a significant impact on what we learn. These differences may determine which specific areas of vocabulary knowledge are required"(Saville -Troike, 2016).

According to Troike, when learning the second language, a number of factors must be taken into account: linguistic, psychological and social.

In reality, we are dealing with the different groups of language learners at Batumi State University and Adjara Education Foun. They are: Armenians, Azerbaijanis, Turks, Russians, Ukrainians, Belarusians, Kazakhs, etc. Who has different goals to study the Georgian language. For some learners learning Gergian language is easy and for some hard.

The question is: for whom and why is it easier to learn a second language? Who is more enthusiastic and successful in learning a new language? To answer this question, you need to consider the categories of language learners. As Muriel Saville-Troike notes: "Linguists can distinguish categories of learners depending on their identity and how their first language relates to the second language" (Saville-Troike, 2016). Therefore, to answer the question on what determines simplicity and difficulty in learning Georgian vocabulary we consider several cases:

1. General vocabulary for all ethnic groups (international words);
2. Vocabulary that is close to a particular ethnic group;

3. Completely new vocabulary (depending on the learning objectives) and vocabulary used in emergency situations, which can be referred to as active, and frequently used vocabulary.

1. In the process of learning a second language the introduction of international words at the very first stage of learning is a proven method (University, student, tourist, internet, telephone, manager, messenger, Facebook, Skype, viber, school, manager, bank, culture, theater, opera, etc.). Familiar vocabulary helps the language learner from the very beginning, eliminates the fear that always accompanies when learning a new language. It is also much more effective to name international words by displaying photos. The perception of familiar vocabulary by the eyes makes their pronunciation even more fun. So we can draw the first parallels between the mother tongue and the language to learn.

2. One group is formed by vocabulary that is close to a particular ethnic group. When working with Turkish speaking groups, many common words that entered into Georgian through Turkish should be taken into account. These are: bag (çanta), window (pencere), pen (kalem), sugar (şeker), newspaper (gazete), bank (banka), ship (gemı), pocket (cep), doctor (doktor, hekim)... "Both oral and written borrowing that entered the Georgian language were organically assimilated into Georgian. The semantic content and volume of borrowed words often changed, as well as their functional status, stylistic marker, combinational and derivational properties " (Antadze, 2011).

As for Armenian and Azerbaijani listeners or students, here we are dealing with completely different target groups . They are citizens of Georgia, representatives of Akhaltsikhe and Akhalkalaki regions on the one hand, and Marneuli-Bolnisi regions on the other. They learn Georgian as a second language in Georgia, and at the same time, Georgian is the state language for them. As we've mentioned above that over the years the knowledge level of Georgian language of Azerbaijanis and Armenians was very unfavorable. But one thing is obvious , they learn Georgian vocabulary more easily than others, because they hear Georgian words almost every day, communication with Georgians has a positive effect on the level of language skills, even in terms of vocabulary, but we cannot say the same about the agreement between the subject and the verb and syntactic constructions. As for Ossetians,

Georgian language was spoken almost in every family (today the situation is different). They are amazingly happy when in a second language they find words that are native to them.

3. Completely new vocabulary (depending on the learning objectives) and vocabulary used in emergency situations, which can be referred to as active, and frequently used vocabulary.

Over the years, Turkish speaking population has expressed a desire to learn the Georgian language most of all. There were those who wanted to continue their education in Georgian universities and those who did business in Georgia. Recently, and especially during the pandemic, the number of Russians, Ukrainians and Belarusians has obviously increased who have been living in Georgia for a long time, but have not yet expressed a desire to study Georgian language, or who even have moved from Russia, Ukraine, for working conditions and for business, and for clear communication it has become necessary to learn our language. It should be noted that there are a lot of language learners in this category. They belong to different age groups and consequently there is a difference in terms of language acquisition. Depending on the learning objectives, the teacher individually has to make a choice, selects new words and gives relevant simple phrases, usually starts with international words and gradually moves to general vocabulary. In addition, we should take into account the interests of Georgian language learners, subject specific vocabulary, terms. In this regard a new training course was introduced for Georgian language training educational program. "language and subject integrated teaching", depending on the learning objectives it helps to learn vocabulary. As for the vocabulary used in emergency situations, first of all, we mean the invisible enemy in present days, the words related to covid-19, that unfortunately, have become the active vocabulary today, regardless of nation or ethnic group. They are: pandemic, virus, vaccine, vaccination, statistics, etc. They can be referred to as active and frequently used vocabulary.

It is easy for a language learner to learn the vocabulary by pronouncing the words with the same sound or with only one sound different, e.g. Kari-qari-dari-zari-lari; qari-qali. It is difficult for a foreigner to pronounce some Georgian deaf-mute and sharp consonants, such as:

პ – ფ = p

კ – ქ = k

ტ – თ = t

Some Georgian consonants are even more difficult, which do not correspond in other languages: ყ, წ, ქ, ლ.(k,ts,ch,gh) When learning the alphabet language learners face some difficulties with deaf-mute and sharp consonants, that causes the first fear of pronunciation, which will follow them for a long time. (in this respect the exceptions are letters, that are not unknown to the speech apparatus). We often hear phrases like : I can't say or I can't pronounce: პური-puri, ფული-phuli, პეპელა-pepela, ტელევიზორი-televizori, წიგნი-tsigni, ჩურჩელი-churcheli, ჩიქა-chika, ყვავილი-kvavili etc. The sounds should be taught through hearing and eye perception. However, language learners should be told that just a few words are difficult to pronounce and make them remember these words. Learners of Georgian as a second language relatively easily learn general vocabulary, these are the names of products, fruit, food and simple communication phrases: Who? What? How much? How many? Which one? Where? From where? How much do you want?

The experience of previous years has shown that teaching will get better results if different teachers work in non-Georgian speakers group, namely:

1. Vocabulary and grammar-teacher I
2. Writing – teacher II
3. Conversation- teacher III

The forms of vocabulary enrichment are: Dialogue, oral and written assignments, description of pictures , texts, exercises (grammar, comprehension).

Required grammar vocabulary: Letter, sound, vowel, consonant, syllable, phrase, sentence, noun, verb, synonym, antonym, auxiliary words.

Vocabulary related to the learning process: Lesson, lecture, table, classroom, exam, check, oral answer, homework, question, answer ... reference, application.

One of the most successful forms of communication is the dialogue. The following question words should be included in the dialogue: Who? What? Where? When? How? Where...from? Which one? etc.

Therefore, our goal is to develop speaking and communication skills and an important issue in the learning process is developing listening and understanding strategies, and here, in our opinion, the role of the teacher is also important. We have already mentioned that the language learner gets used to the voice and intonation, expressions of the teacher from the very beginning, tries to understand, catch and remember new words through listening. In this way it becomes easier for language learner to learn the words with similar sound.

A1 – At the elementary level we introduce parts of speech and consequently enrich the vocabulary of the language learner. Memorizing pairs of antonyms is a good method of studying the parts of speech. In particular, the teaching of nouns and adjectives occurs in parallel. e.g. Ball - big, small; Table - low, high; Apple - red, white; Street- narrow, wide; Pupil - clever, stupid; Student - Georgian, non-Georgian; Verbs-antonyms: am- am not; go- come; fall asleep- wake up; Adverbs-antonyms: Here and there, up and down, well and badly, above and below ...

A certain level of vocabulary knowledge and elementary grammar requires the use of conversation and elicits free thinking. It is desirable to make the process successful, as at this stage of communication results are achieved. The art of conversation mainly covers social topics and everyday discourse on issues such as: ways of greeting; polite forms; family and relatives; everyday activities; bank and bank operations; travelling by train or by bus; university and lectures; at the café or cinema, theater and museum, exhibition; at the table and etc.

Conclusion

Teaching Georgian as a second language should be focused on communication. Communication is the main function of the language, which contributes to the acquaintance of different languages, nationalities and cultures, defines common and distinguishing characteristics. Effective communication can be achieved, first of all by enriching the vocabulary that improves the process of learning. All given exercises, dialogues, texts, planned lessons or situations which the teacher sets up in the lesson are adapted to target groups, which simultaneously involve the correction of spelling, morphological and syntactic errors. Enjoyable and entertaining lessons help Georgian language learners to overcome difficulties .

References

- Antadze F. (2011). On the Factor Historically Contacting Language in Linguodidactics (On Persian-Georgian material): *Issues of State Language Teaching, Problems and Challenges, Proceedings of the International Scientific Conference*, Batumi.
- Shaverdashvili, E. (2014). Co-authored by Nino Pitskhelauri, Pati Ramishvili, Megi Gvasalia, *Fundamentals of Foreign Language Teaching Ilia State, Part One*. University. Tbilisi, 2014. https://www.researchgate.net/Shaverdashvili/publication/275583428_utskhouri_enebis_sapudzvlebi/links/553feb4e0cf2736761c25beb/utskhouri
- Saville-Troike, M. (2016). *Introducing Second Language Acquisition; Second Edition*, Tbilisi, CCIIR.

Rusudan Saginadze

Akaki Tseretely State University, Kutaisi, Georgia

Grammatical-pragmatic aspects of teaching verb forms to non-Georgian speakers

ABSTRACT

For non-Georgian speakers, in the process of teaching the Georgian language, it is crucial to overcome the problems that accompany the understanding, comprehension and mastering of verb forms. The complexity and diversity that is characteristic to the Georgian verb is conditioned not only by polypersonalism or even by the large number and functional richness of the prepositions, but also by the variety of lexical means. The Georgian language has inexhaustible means to produce new verb forms, in order to give the speaker (speaking individual) opportunity to express the new semantics more accurately, to specify the utterance and to add more clarity to the meaning. For example, if a language learner expresses a desire to perform an action, then it is better to first get him/her used to the infinitive constructions of the verbs including **მინდა (მსურს) minda (msurs) I want (I would like)**, for example, I want (I would like) წაკითხვა tsakitkhva – to read (მუშაობა mushaoba – work... წასვლა tsasvla – go, დადგომა dadgoma – stand... თქმა tqma – say, ჩაცმა chatsma – dress...). In the next level of language learning, we can also introduce verb constructions expressing the desired action: **I want (I would like) წავიკითხო tsavikitkho – to read** (ვიმუშაო vimushao – to work... წავიდე tsavide – to go, დავდგე davdge – to stand... ვთქვა vtqva – to say, ჩავიცვა chavitsva – to put on)... This will also prepare the ground for the language learner to express the obligation with the help of a particle **უნდა unda (I must)**: unda tsavikitkho – I must read (vimushao – work... tsavide – go, davdge – stand... vtqva – say, chavitsva – put on)... He/she could easily build relatively extensive constructions: qartuli ena kargad unda vistsavlo – "I must learn Georgian well"; dghes bevri unda vimushao – "I must work a lot today"; khval universitetshi unda tsavide – "I must go to university tomorrow"; dilit adre unda avdge – "I must get up early in the morning"; es teqsti zepirad unda vtqva? – "Should I say this text orally?"; Tbilad unda chavitsva – "I must dress warmly". The report will provide extensive material to demonstrate the grammatical and lexical means that will make the learning / teaching process of verb forms easier for non-Georgian speakers.

Key words: *learning, teaching, Verb construction, Language learner, Semantics*

Introduction

It is recognized that the verb is the "backbone" of the Georgian sentence, that "a Georgian speaks only with verbs" and "if you know a verb, then you know the Georgian language". These expressions show both the variety and complexity of the Georgian verb. Therefore, for non-Georgian speakers, in the process of learning the Georgian language, it is crucial to overcome the problems that accompany the understanding, comprehension and study of verb forms. Our goal is to show what should be given

priority in learning / teaching different forms of Georgian verbs, where the line between grammar and pragmatics goes, what methods should be used to make it easier for the learner to master the Georgian language.

We mainly rely on the principle of "teaching a language in one language" and to achieve the goal we prefer the communicative method of teaching. In addition, we consider one of the main dogmas of sociolinguistics, "communicative competence", which are used by specialists in teaching a second language. "Communicative competence" is "what a speaker needs to know in order to communicate properly with a particular language group" (Saville-Troike, 2003). This implies not only knowledge of vocabulary, phonology, grammar or other aspects of linguistic structures), but also the social and cultural knowledge that a language learner should have in order to be able to use and understand linguistic forms (ibid.).

We will return to the communicative method. It "involves mainly the use of a system of communicative exercises, which are themselves based on grammatical patterns" (INasaridze, 2013). We also consider the method of demonstration to be effective. This involves the visual presentation of information, as well as providing the audio-visual material for the study. Along with the visual we apply verbal-nonverbal and practical methods. However, step-by-step, from simple to complex, the method of repetition and reinforcement of the previous material achieves the result of language mastery that we expect in the learning / teaching process.

The Main part

The complexity and diversity that is characteristic of the Georgian verb is conditioned not only by polypersonalism or even by the large number and functional richness of the prepositions, but also by the variety of lexical means.

The Georgian language has inexhaustible means to produce new verb forms, in order to give the speaker (speaking individual) opportunity to express the new semantics more accurately, to specify the utterance and to add more clarity to the meaning. At the stage of language teaching, when we are still only at the communicative level trying to enrich the language learner's vocabulary with verb forms, we are on the bound of grammar and pragmatics. The teaching process can be compared to the process of building. Imagine that the foundation of the "building" is grammar, and the "building" itself is pragmatics.

Infinitive constructions. We believe that on the bound of grammar and pragmatics the whole emphasis should be shifted to pragmatics, to strengthening communicative skills. For this it is

necessary to use the various means in the process of teaching verb forms, which we have already mentioned. One of such means is the **infinitive construction**. To demonstrate this, let's take the forms expressing modality.

It has been suggested that "Selection of lingual units of modality in oral discourse is defined by the extra-linguistic factors: intention of addresser (for the purpose of communication), social characteristics of communicants, their interrelation, situation or pragmatic context" (Zekalashvili, 2008, p.174).

For example, if a language learner expresses a desire to perform an action at the initial stage of language learning, then taking into consideration the level of language knowledge it is better to first get him/her used to the **infinitive constructions** of the verb **მინდა minda (I want) (მსურს msurs) (I would like)** for the first person first, and then for all three others. See **table 1**.

table 1.

person		infinitive
S ₁	(მე) მინდა (მსურს) (me) minda (msurs) (I) want (would like)	წაკითხვა tsakitchva (to read) სწავლა stsavla (to learn)
S ₂	(შენ) გინდა (გსურს) (shen) ginda (gsurs) (you)want(would like)	მუშაობა mushaoba (to work)... თქმა tqma (to say) ჩაცმა chacma (to dress)...
S ₃	(მას) უნდა (სურს) (mas) unda (surs) (He)wants(would like)	წასვლა tsasvla (to go) დადგომა dadgoma (to get up)...

Verb constructions. In the next level of language learning, we can also introduce **verb constructions** expressing the desired action according to all three persons in singular. See **table 2**.

table 2.

Singular form		
person		ზმნა (II კავშირებითი)
S ₁	მინდა (მსურს) minda (msurs) I want(I would like)	წავიკითხო tsavikitxo (to read) ვისწავლო vistsavlo (to learn) ვიმუშაო vimushao (to work)... ვთქვა vtqva (to say) ჩავიცვა chavicva (to dress)... წავიდე tsavide (to go) დავდგე davdge (to get up)...
S ₂	გინდა (გსურს) ginda (gsurs) You want (You would like)	წაიკითხო tsaikitxo (to read) ისწავლო iswavlo (to learn) იმუშაო imushao (to work)...

		<p>თქვა tqva (to say) ჩაიცვა chaicva (to dress)... წახვიდე tsakhvide (to go) დადგე dadge (to get up)...</p>
S ₃	<p>უნდა (სურს) unda (surs) He wants (He would like)</p>	<p>წაიკითხოს tsaikitxos (to read) ისწავლოს iswavlos (to learn) იმუშაოს imushaos (to work)... თქვას tqvas (to say) ჩაიცვას chaicvas (to dress)... წავიდეს tsavides (to go) დადგეს dadges (to get up)...</p>

After showing verb forms in singular, verb constructions can be built in the plural according to all three persons. See **table 3**.

After elaborating this material the ground will be prepared for the language learner to use particle **უნდა unda** (must) to express obligation and use the forms of subjunctive mood:

S₁: (მე) უნდა წავიკითხო (me) unda tsavikitkho – I must read (ვიმუშაო vimushao – I must work, ვთქვა vtqva – I must say, ჩავიცვა chavicva – I must dress, წავიდე tsavide – I must go, დავდგე davdge – I must get up...

S₂: (შენ) უნდა წაიკითხო (shen) unda tsaikikho – you must read (იმუშაო imushao – you

table 3.

Plural form		
პირი		ზმნა (II კავშირებით)
S ₁	<p>ჩვენ გვინდა (გვსურს) chven gvinda (gvsurs) (we want) (we would like)</p>	<p>წავიკითხო-თ tsavikitxo-t (to read) ვისწავლოთ vistsavlot (to learn) ვიმუშაოთ vimushaot (to work)... ვთქვათ vtqvat (to say) ჩავიცვათ chavicvat (to dress)... წავიდეთ tsavidet (to go) დავდგეთ davdget (to get up)...</p>
S ₂	<p>თქვენ გინდათ (გსურთ) tqven gindat (gsurt) (you want) (you would like)</p>	<p>წაიკითხო-თ tsaikitxo-t (to read) ისწავლოთ istsavlot (to learn) იმუშაოთ imushaot (to work)... თქვათ tqvat (to say) ჩაიცვათ chaicvat (to dress)... წახვიდეთ tsakhvidet (to go)</p>

		დადგეთ dadget (to get up)...
S ₃	მათ უნდათ (სურთ) mat undat (surt) (they want) (they would like)	წაიკითხო-ნ tsaikitxo-n (to read) ისწავლონ istsavlon (to learn) იმუშაონ imushaon (to work) თქვან tqvan (to say) ჩაიცვან chaicvan (to dress.)... წავიდნენ tsakhvidnen (to go) დადგნენ dadgnen (to get up)...

must work, თქვა tqva – you must say, ჩაიცვა chaicva – you must dress, წახვიდე tsakhvide – you must go, დადგე dadge – you must get up)...

S₃: To express the action of a person, it is necessary to remind the language learner of the present-past tense forms of verbs of nominative and ergative construction:

ის კითხულობს is kikhulobs – he reads – მან წაიკითხა man tsaikitkha – he read – მან წაიკითხოს man tsaikitkhos – he must read...

Then we introduce the **S₃** person: (მან) უნდა წაიკითხოს (man) unda tsaikitkhos – he must read (იმუშაოს imushaos – he must work, თქვას tqvas – he must say, ჩაიცვას chaicvas (he must dress), წავიდეს tsavides – he must go, დადგეს dadges – he must get up).

On this basis, the language learner can easily build even relatively extensive constructions, of course, after completing the appropriate exercises and assignments. For this we use the methods of word order, gap filling. Here are some exercises:

Exercise 1. Use the given words and fill them in the right place!

სწავლა stsavla – to learn, ყიდვა qidva – to buy, წასვლა tsasvla – to go, მუშაობა mashaoba – to work

1) ქართული ენის კარგად მინდა.

Kartuli enis kargad minda.

right answer: ქართული ენის კარგად სწავლა მინდა Kartuli enis kargad stsavla minda – I want to learn Georgian language well.

2) დღეს სახლში ადრე გინდა?

Dghes sakhishi adre ginda?

right answer: დღეს სახლში ადრე წასვლა გინდა? Dghes sakhishi adre tsasvla ginda? –

Do you want to go home early today?.

3) დედას ახალი პურის უნდა.

Dedas akhali puris unda.

right answer: დედას ახალი პურის ყიდვა უნდა Dedas akhali puris qidva unda –

Mother wants to buy a new bread.

4) ქართული ენის კარგად შესწავლისთვის საჭიროა ბევრი

Kartuli nis kargad shestsavlistvis sachiroa bevri

right answer: ქართული ენის კარგად შესწავლისთვის საჭიროა ბევრი მუშაობა kartuli enis kargad shestsavlistvis sachiroa bevri mushaoba – In order to learn Georgian language well you have to work really hard.

Exercise 2. Make sentences with the given words!

1) ენა ena – language / უნდა unda – must / კარგად kargad – well / ქართული kartuli –Georgian / ვისწავლო vistsavlo – learn

.....

right answer: ქართული ენა კარგად უნდა ვისწავლო kartuli ena kargad unda vistsavlo – I must learn Georgian language well);

2) ვიმუშაო vimushao – work) / ბევრი bevri – a lot / დღეს dghes – today / უნდა unda – must

.....

right answer: დღეს ბევრი უნდა ვიმუშაო dghes bevri unda vimushao – today i must work a lot today);

3) ზეპირად zepirad – by heart / ვთქვა vtqva – vtretell / ტექსტი teqsti – text / ეს es – this / უნდა unda – must

.....

right answer: ეს ტექსტი ზეპირად უნდა ვთქვა es teqsti zepirad unda vtqva – I must retell this text by heart.

Exercise 3. Fill the sentence with appropriate word!

1) თბილად tbilad – warmly ჩავიცვა chavicva – dress.

right answer: თბილად უნდა ჩავიცვა tbilad unda chavicva – I must dress warmly.

2) ხვალ უნივერსიტეტში უნდა khval universitetshi unda – I must to university tomorrow

right answer: ხვალ უნივერსიტეტში უნდა წავიდე – I must go to university tomorrow;

3) დილით ადრე უნდა dilit adre unda (I must early)

right answer: დილით ადრე უნდა ავდგე dilit adre unda avdge – I must get up early in the morning.

Expressing Permission-Possibility. By the same principle, that is, by using the **infinitive construction**, it will be easier for the language learner to express permission-possibility at the initial stage of teaching. Take, for example, constructions including the word form "may". According to the Explanatory Dictionary of the Georgian Language (eight volumes, 1950-1964), the intransitive state verb **შეიძლება-sheidzleb-a (may)** is found only in the present form and means: Possible, permitted; supposed; expected; allowed (<http://ena.ge/explanatory-online>).

We think that the given definition is not complete, because in many cases the verb form **may** (without the passive subject, more precisely, the patient) contain the semantics of **asking permission**. For example, imagine a person knocking on a door. If the knock on the door was followed by a question – **შეიძლება? Sheidzleba?** (May I?) – What does this mean, if the person standing at the door is asking to enter; Also: If, for example, a buyer entering a supermarket looks at packaged bread and asks the question – **შეიძლება?** (May I?) – This means that he is asking for permission to take (or buy) a bread, and so on. At first, the language learner masters this form (**შეიძლება May**)), on the next level of language learning, we introduce the infinitive construction, and then – the **subjunctive forms** of proper verb. See **table 4**.

table 4.

	infinitive	verb		
		S ₁	S ₂	S ₃
შეიძლება (?) (may I)(?)	ყიდვა qidva – to buy	ვიყიდო viqido – buy	იყიდო iqido – buy	იყიდოს iqidos – buy
	თქმა tqma – to say	ვთქვა vtqva – say	თქვა tqva – say	თქვას tqvas – say
	გასვლა gasvla– to go	გავიდე gavide – go	გახვიდე gakhvide – go	გავიდეს gavides – go

Nominative verbs. "The construction of Georgian verb stems reveals both the oldest layer of form production, as well as relatively late formations" (Jorbenadze, 1980, 194). The expression of the oldest layer of formation is **nominative verbs**, introducing such verbs in the teaching process is one of the most productive means for better fulfilment of the language learner's vocabulary and better mastering of verb forms. In Georgian, a verb can be derived from any part of speech. There is a great variety of verbs derived from nouns, especially from adjectives.

It is very important to show how we can get, produce new verb forms, with easily understandable semantics, to show of what a "transparent etymology" the word can be. We can do this, first of all, by using adjectives denoting colors and paying attention to the verb level (derived with **-ღ -d** suffix) form (**გა-R-ღ-ა**). See **table 5**.

table 5.

Adjective	თეთრი tetri (white)	შავი shavi (black)	წითელი tsiteli (red)	ყვითელი qviteli (yellow)	მწვანე mtsvane (green)	ლურჯი lurji (blue)
Nominative verb	გა-თეთრ-ღ-ა ga-tetr-d-a (became white)	გა-შავ-ღ-ა a (became black)	გა-წითლ- ღ-ა ga-tsitl- d-a (became red)	გა-ყვითლ- ღ-ა ga-qvitl- d-a (became yellow)	გა-მწვან- ღ-ა ga- mtsvan-d- a (became green)	გა-ლურჯ- ღ-ა ga-lurj- d-a (became blue)

The colors on the chart shows how black has turned white or white has turned blue... See **Scheme 1**.

Scheme 1.



At the next stage, when the language learner already has an idea of the simple combinations of verb persons, we can introduce the forms with vowel prefixes **ა- a-, ი- i, უ- u** (according to all three persons): **ვ-ა-თეთრ-ებ** (მე მას) v-a-tetr-eb (me mas) – I am whitening it, **ვ-ი-თეთრ-ებ** (მე მას) v-i-tetr-eb (me mas) – I am whitening it to me, **ვ-უ-თეთრ-ებ** (მე მას მას) v-u-tetr-eb (me mas) – I am whitening it to him/her/it (according to appropriate context). The main function of „**ა- a, ი- i, უ- u**” vowel prefixes is to indicate the existence of an objective person in general, in particular, to express

the relation of a subject to the objects with certain belonging-purpose, locative and other semantics” (Melikishvili, 2014, p.133). Therefore, the introduction of **ა-ა, ი-ი, უ-უ** vowel prefixes reveals the relation of verb persons and thus lays the foundation for the teaching of verb person combinations

In the process of learning the nominative verbs, accents can be made within a single semantic field. For example, we can distinguish between different verbs expressing **warmth-cold**, including antonyms. See **table 6**.

table 6.

Adjective	ცხელი-ი Tskheli (hot)	თბილ-ი tbil-i (warm)	ცივ-ი tsiv-i (cold)	გრილ-ი gril-i (cool)
Nominative verb	გა-ცხელ-და-ა ga-tskhel-d-a (became hot)	გა-თბ-ა ga-tb-a (became warm)	გა-ცივ-და-ა ga- tsiv-d-a (became cold)	გა-გრილ-და-ა ga-gril-d-a (became cool)
		და-თბ-ა da-tb- a (it got warm)	ა-ცივ-და-ა a-tsiv- d-a (it got cold)	ა-გრილ-და-ა a-gril-d-a (it got cool)

Similarly, we can use antonyms expressing size-quantity:

- დიდ-ი didi – big > გა-დიდ-და-ა ga-did-d-a – became bigger
- პატარა patara – small > და-პატარა-ვ-და-ა da-patara-v-d-a – became smaller
- მრავალ-ი mraavl-i – many > გა-მრავლ-და-ა ga-mraavl-d-a – became more
- მცირე mcire – little > შე-მცირ-და-ა she -mcir-d-a – became less
- დაბალ-ი dabal-i – short > და-დაბლ-და-ა da-dabl-d-a – became shorter
- მაღალ-ი maghal-i – tall > ა-მაღლ-და-ა a-maghl-d-a – became taller
- გრძელ-ი grdzel-i – long > გა-გრძელ-და-ა ga-grdzel-d-a – became longer
- მოკლე mokle – short > და-მოკლ-და-ა da-mokl-d-a – became shorter

After introducing the verb forms, we give the phrases, exercises, tasks containing the appropriate verbs.

Preverbal forms. One of the most productive means of teaching verb forms is the preverb. At the initial stage we mean the function of expressing only the orientation of the verb. We introduce a scheme of simple and complex verbs according to one verb, which, as A. Shanidze points out is not used without preverb. These are the verbs of **ვალ-ვედ val-ved** root: მი-ვიდა mi-vida – he got there, მო-ვიდა movida – he got here, შე-ვიდა she-vida – he got in, გა-ვიდა ga-vida – he got out, წა-ვიდა

tsa-vida – he left, და-ვიდა da-vida – he went down, გადა-ვიდა gada-vida – he went over, ა-ვიდა a-vida – he went up, შემო-ვიდა shemo-vida – he entered, გამო-ვიდა gamo-vida –he came out, წამო-ვიდა tsamo-vida – he came with, ამო-ვიდა – he he went upstairs)... (Shanidze, 1980, p.289). Through the scheme the language learner in the shortest time will get introduced to 16 infinitive (ასვლა asvla – go up, გასვლა – go out), გადასვლა – go over...), and then verb forms. See **Scheme 2**.

To understand and comprehend verb forms expressing different directions, we will introduce the three basic verb tenses in the appropriate context and work on situational communicative phrases. for example:

ასვლა asvla – go up: ავდივარ avdivar – I am going up — ავალ aval – I will go up — ავედი avedi – I went up

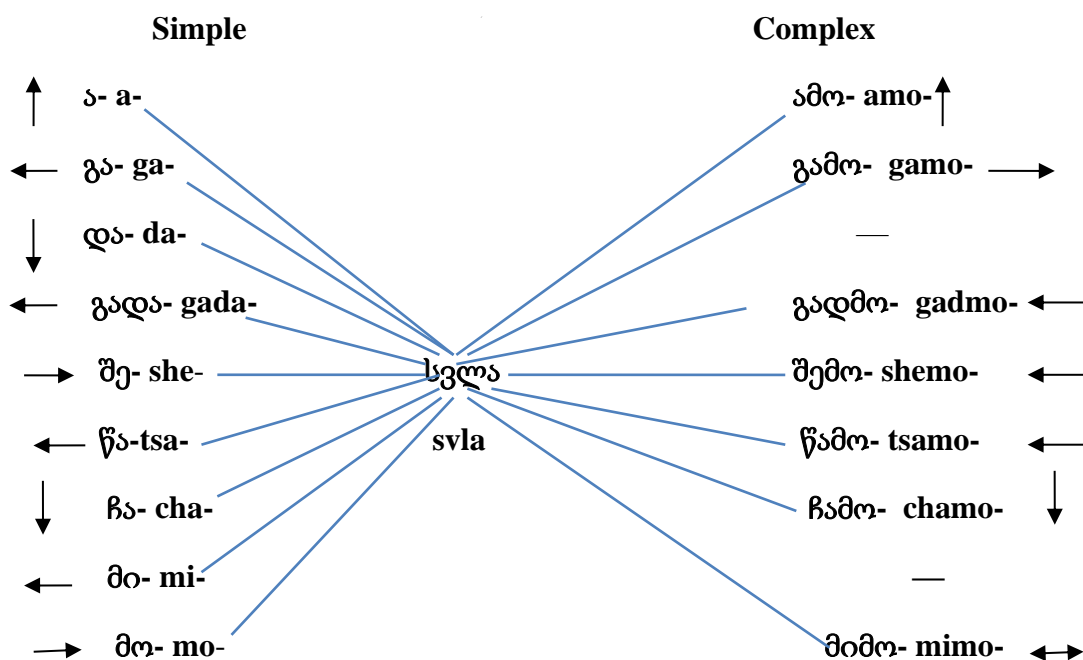
ბავშვი კიბეზე ადის bavshvi kibeze adis – The child is going upstairs;

შენ ფეხით ახვალ მაღლა? Shen fekhvit akhval maghla? – will you go up on foot?

მგზავრები ავტობუსში ავიდნენ mgzavrebi avtobusshi avidnen – passengers got on the buss...

წასვლა tsasvla – go: მივდივარ mivdivar – I am going — წავალ tsaval – I will go —

Scheme 2.



წავედი tsavedi – I went...

ჩემი მეგობარი უნივერსიტეტში მიდის *chemi megobari universitetshi midis* – my friend is going to university;

ჩვენ ერთად წავალთ თეატრში *chven ertad tsavalt teatrshi* – we will go to the theatre;

სტუმრები გუშინ წავიდნენ *stumrebi gushin tsavidnen* – the guests went yesterday.

In the next stage of language acquisition, it is advisable to introduce the preverb with a derivation function, which already transfers us to the field of lexicology. Antonymous and synonymous verbs are also considered in the same field.

Conclusion

The article implies some of the grammatical and lexical means that will make the learning / teaching process of verb forms easier for non-Georgian speakers. Our methods are based only on the principle of "teaching in one language", although in some cases we do not completely exclude the introduction of explanatory translation material.

References

- Inasaridze, M. (2013). მაია ინსარაიძე, "მეთოდოლოგიური მითითებები ქართულის როგორც მეორე ენის მასწავლებელთათვის" ["Methodological guidelines for teachers of Georgian as a second language"]: <http://mastsavlebeli.ge/?p=3707>
- Jorbenadze, B. (1980). ბესარიონ ჯორბენაძე, ქართული ზმნის ფორმოზოლოგიური და ფუნქციური ანალიზის პრინციპები ["Principles of formal and functional analysis of Georgian verbs"]. Tbilisi University Publishing House.
- Melikishvili, D. (2014), დამიანა მელიქიშვილი, "ქართული ზმნის სისტემური მორფო-სინტაქსური ანალიზი" ["Systemic morpho-syntactic analysis of Georgian verb"]. Tbilisi: Program "Logos".
- Saville-Troike M. (2016). Introduction to Second Language Acquisition, Second Edition (Translator: K. Gochitashvili, Editor K. Gabunia), Center for Civic Integration and Interethnic Relations. Tbilisi. <chrome-extension://efaidnbmnnnibpcajpcglclefindmkaj/viewer.html?pdfurl>

=<https://www.ice.ge/images/pdf/introducing%20second%20language%20acquisition.pdf&clen=4444917&chunk=true>

Shanidze, A. (1980). აკაკი შანიძე, თხზულებანი, ტ.3; თსუ გამომცემლობა, თბილისი.

Zekalashvili, R. (2008). რუსუდან ზექალაშვილი, მოდალობის გამოხატვის საშუალებათა სისტემა და სემანტიკური ნიუანსები ქართულ დისკურსში ["System of Expressing Modality and Semantic Nuances in Georgian Discourse"].: 2nd International Symposium: "Iberian-Caucasian Linguistics: Heritage and Perspectives", dedicated to Acad. Arn. Chikobava's 110th anniversary. 2008. http://www.ice.ge/symposium/symp_geo.html

Nana Shavtvaladze

The University of Georgia, Tbilisi, Georgia

Linguistic formulas - a priority of modern teaching "In the universe of grammar I"

ABSTRACT

We have the variety of forms, ways, methods, strategies of teaching in the 21st century. It's important to achieve the goal, to gain the result, to perceive the given materials. Everyone is free to choose any ways from the given approaches. Most of the textbooks are dedicated to English language. English is dominated worldwide and it's not only foreign language but a second language as well in many countries. There are different visions and approaches in teaching a language as a foreign or as a second one. Textbooks are made based on the four skills: reading, writing, speaking, listening. Demand of Georgian as a foreign language has increased. Many philologists have occupied themselves with teaching Georgian as a Foreign language. Plus, they have means of teaching, once there are many textbooks already created, especially for the beginner levels. Online teaching has also increased these demands. Every author forms his/her own style, approach and vision when creating a textbook. In my opinion, it's important to first calculate the common methodical view from the beginning to the end and only then start working on the new textbook. This kind of approach helps instructor gain the results and consistent logical motion is encouraging hopeful for the student.

Key words: *grammar, teaching, foreign, language, material, Georgian language abroad, word building, postpositions, adverb*

We have the variety of forms, ways, methods, strategies of teaching in the 21st century. It's important to achieve the goal, to gain the result, to perceive the given materials. Everyone is free to choose any ways from the given approaches. Most of the textbooks are dedicated to English language. English is dominated worldwide and it's not only foreign language but a second language as well in many countries. There are different visions and approaches in teaching a language as a foreign or as a second one. Textbooks are made based on the four skills: reading, writing, speaking, listening. Demand of Georgian as a foreign language has increased. Many philologists have occupied themselves with teaching Georgian as a Foreign language. Plus, they have means of teaching, once there are many textbooks already created,

especially for the beginner levels. Online teaching has also increased these demands. Every author forms his/her own style, approach and vision when creating a textbook. In my opinion, it's important to first calculate the common methodical view from the beginning to the end and only then start working on the new textbook. This kind of approach helps instructor gain the results and consistent logical motion is encouraging hopeful for the student.

Even if the textbooks are one of the means of teaching materials, it's also very basic and important. The dominated visions of teaching a language consists of following attributes: self studying textbook; workbook; appropriate reading materials. Would be excellent if the above mentioned books are supported with the listening materials, with a CD. This is the best case for perfect practice and achieving the goals, as both the instructor and the learner are given a possibility to proceed the teaching ways with the proper method. We must highlight the role of the dictionary, which helps a student to properly understand the ideas and thoughts. The specialist from the whole world have created lots of supplementary means apart from the textbooks, for active learning, the so-called alphabet, posters, word cards, large books, dominoes for various vocabularies, boards, etc. Such tools for teaching also exist in Georgia, which are actively used to teach Georgian as a Foreign language.

Word cards written on one side in Georgian, for example, „didi“ - on one side, and on the other side in English - big. Here, such tools are often very fun for foreigners and acceptable for some learners. There are cards for different purposes. For example, only for numbers, nouns and adjectives separately, and so on. There are also lots of picture dictionaries that are thematically sorted by situation.

Many countries have also developed an A4 size grammar board that is easy to understand and easy to use. Basically, these boards are three-sided, tied together and folded. This grammar board contains the complete and basic grammatical linguistic forms of the language to be studied easily, with its own instance. For example, English-Russian contains a total of three pages of grammar with its own hints.

As I told you, there are many things in teaching Georgian as a foreign language, but we did not have this kind of grammar board. We will present this material and introduce its content to you. Due to the Georgian language system, unlike other languages, "In the universe of grammar I" has three pages, but it includes only the alphabet, a small overview of the language and names, when the verb in other languages is also discussed in this format. The verb will require a separate "In the universe of grammar II", which is planned to be created in the future.

Our main message is to differentiate our „In the universe of grammar I“ from other languages`, as ours is dedicated to names.

First page contains:

- Georgian Alphabet, but without the names of the letters; Vowels are highlighted;
- The system of cases; with their names and case markers with two examples: „qali - gog^o“;
- How to distinguish animate from inanimate, for example: „bavshvi **hqkhavs** – has a child/ qkhava **aqvs** – has a coffee“;
- Nouns with their endings – consonant and vowel ending nouns;
- Nouns and their declensions based on the endings – consonant ending and vowel ending nouns.

Second page contains:

- Pluralization – qalebi - women/ khuti qali – five women / qalta – of women;
- Adjectives: descriptive form and derived form – tetri (white) / mariliani (salty); derivation of consonant and vowel ending adjectives: didi – big/ patara – small; declension of adjective and noun together: didi otakhi – big room/ patara otakhi – small room; comparative and superlative degree of the adjective: **ufro** didi – bigger/ qkhvelaze didi / the biggest; structure of the adjectives: kargi – good/ tsudi – bad/ cota – few/ bevri – many.

Third page:

- Pronouns and their derivation in different cases: personal pronoun; demonstrative pronouns; possessive pronouns; interrogative pronouns; possessive-interrogative pronouns; relative pronouns; mutual pronouns; indefinite pronouns; definite pronouns; negative pronouns.

Fourth page:

- Numerals: 0-1 000 000; stems are in bold and red color; how numerals agree in number and case with the nouns: eleven / twenty-one / eighty / A thousand. Rotation of separate consonant-based and vowel-based numeric names: ori- two / rva-eight.

- Times, action and repetition;
- Collectives.

Fifth page:

- Ordinal numbers with exception – pirveli/first and the general structure of other numerals: **me...e**; **meore** - second/otsdameore-twenty-second; derivation with the noun: **merve bitchi** / eighth boy
- Postpositions, which are used and systematized in cases: nominative – **vit**; dative – **vit**; **-tan**; **-ze**; **-shi**; genitive – **-tvis**; **-gan**; **-ken**; **-ebr**; **-dmi**; instrumental – **-idan/-dan**; **-urt**; adverbial – **-mde/-amde**;
- Separate postpositions, mostly in two cases: dative and genitive.

Sixth page:

- Genitive case with adverbs:
- Adverbs: location, time, manner, reason, intention, random-quantitative, derivated from questions;
- Word building – prefixes and suffixes: person, thing, property, manner, abstract suffixes: **-oba/-eba**, place – prefix and suffix, adjective, not having, negation, past, future.

This is the material what can be used for any level student. In The Universe of Georgian Grammar I was added Word building. The colorful six pages makes deferences Goergian Grammar with other languages tables.

References

- Shanidze, A. (1953). Kartuli gramatikis sapudzvlebi, morfologia, I. [Basics of Georgian grammar, Morphology, I]. Tbilisi: Tbilisi University Publishing House.
- Kvatsadze, L. (1977). Tanamedrove kartuli enis sintaqsi. [Syntax of modern Georgian language]. Tbilisi: Education Publishing House.

Zaal Kikvidze

Arnold Chikobava Institute of Linguistics,

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi, Georgia

Glossonymics as a University Curricular Reality

ABSTRACT

Glossonymics (<Gr. *glossa* ‘language’ + *onyma* ‘name’) is a linguistic discipline studying language names, their origin and development, their formation, meaning, uses, taxonomies and classifications, etc. Despite its salient theoretical and practical relevance, the aforementioned realm is still in its earlier stage of development, this being highlighted by the fact that the term for language names (and for a respective discipline) has not been unified.

The hitherto identified glossonymic taxons are relevant, however, insufficient. Some occasionally occurring terms and notions can in no way represent a systemic picture of existing relations. A more intensive inclusion of issues of glossonymics in academic circulation will allow us to solve problems associated with their taxonomies and classifications.

Glossonymics is also concerned with problems of relationships of language names with respective ethnonyms, choronyms, toponyms, and/or politonyms. As a rule, the majority of glossonyms have been derived from them; however, there are some reverse cases, and they should receive due attention.

As for descriptions of glossonyms for individual languages and language families and/or groups, they should be dealt with both within a historical framework and based on contemporary references (for instance, ISO 639; Glottolog). Adequate application skills of these resources are a necessary part of a would-be linguist’s professional competence.

Various problems pertaining to glossonymics can be discussed both within a course of an individual language or a language family and within a framework of a specialized course; the former normally occurs in materials of virtually every such course and the latter still awaits its implementation. It is such a specialized course that will provide for the teaching of glossonymics in its completeness and consistency.

Keywords: *glossonymics; language names; university education*

Introduction

No matter whether we conceive the need for a linguistic discipline concerned with language names, when giving a language course, we normally provide our students with at least sketchy information about how a language in question is referred to; less frequently, but still we have to instruct them about do’s and don’ts of language-naming practices. Both in teaching and research we come across the aforementioned and other aspects associated with it and commonly observe outwardly mutually exclusive circumstances: on the one hand, one is

confused by the occurrence of redundant and competing terms and, on the other, of insufficient notions and respective terminological designations. These are evident properties of an underdeveloped field and they are about what we should refer to as *glossonymics*, a linguistic discipline studying language names, their origin and development, their formation, meaning, uses, taxonomies and classifications, etc.

Truly enough, despite its salient theoretical and practical relevance, the aforementioned realm is still in its earlier stage of development. One of the manifestations of this circumstance is the fact that the term for the basic object, a ‘language name’ (hence, for the respective discipline), has not been unified. Multiple competing terms occur across the literature; here are some of them: *glossonym*, *glottonym*, *linguonym*, *linguanym*, *logonym*, etc. I opt for the term *glossonym* (<Gr. *glossa* ‘language’ + *onyma* ‘name’)¹; hence, for a name of the respective field, I favor *glossonymics*. Therefore, throughout the present paper I will use the term *glossonym* to refer to a language name and *glossonymics* to refer to the discipline that studies language names.

Entities and taxons

What has already been demonstrated in the foregoing, no matter how explicitly, is that a glossonym should be conceived of as a basic unit of glossonymic studies. Ultimately, a glossonym is a language name², this including names of individual languages and their varieties and of genetic and areal groupings of languages. It is undoubtedly of particular significance to identify and define it; however, alongside this, we have to take a look at their relationship schemes, that is, what taxons are identified and what their organization is.

Cysouw & Good (2013, p. 340) identified three important inherent relations among glossonyms (and not among their referents): spelling variants, language-specific morphological variants, and etymologically related variants, and proposed ‘homology’ as a cover term for these relations: On the synchronic side, linguists would normally refer to homologous glossonyms via concepts like derivation, inflection, or compounding (depending on the grammatical details). On the diachronic side, linguists would normally refer to homology using notions like cognate or loanword (depending on the historical scenario)³.

For example, the glossonyms ‘ქართული’ (in Georgian), ‘Georgian’ (in English), ‘gürcüce’ (in Turkish), ‘грузинский’ (in Russian), ‘Հրացերեն’ (in Armenian), etc. are not homologous because they do not enter into any of the aforementioned inherent relations. On the contrary, if we take glossonyms for another Kartvelian language, we will be able to observe

that ‘მარგალური’ (in Megrelian), ‘მეგრული’ (in Georgian), ‘Megrelian’ and ‘Mingrelian’ (in English), ‘абырца’ (in Abkhazian), ‘мегрельский’ and ‘мингрельский’ (in Russian), and the like do form a homologous set as far as all of them are in an inherent relationship with each other.

Another type of taxonomic relation, albeit indirectly associated with the aforementioned one, is represented by the following taxons: *autoglossonym/endoglossonym* ‘a language name used by native speakers,’ and *alloglossonym/exoglossonym* ‘a language name used by speakers of other languages;’ for example, the designation ‘ქართული’ is an autoglossonym (//endoglossonym) for Georgian (that is, how Georgians refer to their mother tongue), whereas ‘Georgian’ (in English), ‘gürcüce’ (in Turkish), ‘грузинский’ (in Russian), ‘Հրացերեն’ (in Armenian) are alloglossonyms (//exoglossonyms) for the same language (that is, how speakers of other languages refer to Georgian). One should admit that these are very significant taxons, however, rather insufficient. Occasionally occurring items like ‘subglottonym’ (Gabinski, 1997, p. 212), ‘biblioglossonym’ (Barrett & Johnson, 2001, p. 857) and ‘pseudoglossonym’ (Díaz-Fernández, 2006, p. 100) are not of systemic character. Given the significance of synchronic and diachronic aspects of glossonymy, Matisoff’s (1986, p. xiii) two coinages: ‘paleonym’ and ‘neonym’ (for older and new language names) should be considered whenever relevant.

I believe that a more intensive inclusion of issues of glossonymics in academic circulation will enable us to solve at least some of the problems associated with their taxonomies and classification.

Glossonyms and respective entities

Alongside the aforementioned, glossonymics is concerned with problems of relationships of language names with respective ethnonyms, choronyms, toponyms, and/or politonyms. Naturally enough, these entities are essentially interconnected, and, most commonly, the majority of language names have been derived from them, more frequently, from ethnonyms (Back, 1988); hence, the notion and term ‘ethnoglossonym’ as a name of both a people and their language (see, for instance, Rader, 1989, p. 28). Alongside this overwhelming practice, there are instances of the other way round, that is when ethnonyms and demonyms are derived from respective glossonyms: for instance, the “term Maya is a “linguonym, since the ethnonym (the name for a people) is derived from the language the people spoke” (Muse-Orlinoff, 2014,

p. 16). Of course, this is just one of the other, not few examples of the phenomenon in point (see, for instance, Kikvidze, 2013, pp. 195-196).

It is of utmost significance not to treat the aforementioned relations in a simplified way, thus to avoid confusions and falsities. For instance, ქართული (*kartuli* ‘Georgian’) and სვანური (*svanuri* ‘Svan’) are glossonyms for two sister languages, their respective ethnonyms being ქართველი (*kartveli*) and სვანი (*svani*); however, the latter are not parallel entities as far as all Svans are ethnic Georgians in the same way as Kartlians, Kakhetians, Mtiulians, Imeretians, etc. while their respective glossonyms are actually hyponyms, that is, subglossonyms referring to the territorial dialects of Georgian. Thus, as glossonyms, *Georgian* and *Svan* are parallel entities, whereas, as ethnonyms, they are incommensurable since *Georgian* is a superordinate and *Svan* is a hyponym.

Codes and tags

Whenever language names are concerned, one definitely feels the need for an unbiased, universally accepted system for their representation. In the early 1960s, the Library of Congress introduced the *MARC Code List of Languages* (normally, consisting of three-character lowercase alphabetic strings usually based on the first three letters of the English form of the corresponding language name) used as a tagset for its holdings. The ISO 639 family of standards appeared in the same period⁴, and it still is one of the most adequate and consistent systems for the representation of names of languages. Its two earlier substandards (ISO 639-1 and ISO 639-2) quickly became insufficient and, hence, obsolete, paving way to ISO 639-3 which, as different from its forerunners, consisted of three-letter codes and thus “no longer faced quantitative limitations ($26^3=17576$)” (Kikvidze, 2013, p. 197); presently, it contains 7,893 entries. However, the capacious volume did not spare it from some utter inadequacies; for instance, ISO 639-3 provides three-letter codes for six (!) Kartvelian (South Caucasian) languages:

Table 1. ISO 639-3 codes for the Kartvelian languages

Code	Language
<i>kat</i>	Georgian
or	
<i>geo</i>	
<i>oge</i>	Old Georgian

<i>jge</i>	Judeo-Georgian
<i>lzz</i>	Laz
<i>sva</i>	Svan
<i>xmf</i>	Megrelian

The most problematic aspect is that the substandard assigns an individual code for Judeo-Georgian which is just one of the varieties of the Georgian language.

Another substandard (ISO 639-5) was designed for the representation of names for language families and branches; here is how the names for the Caucasian language family are represented in it:

Table 2. ISO 639-5 codes for the Caucasian language family

Code	Family/Branch
<i>cau</i>	Caucasian languages
<i>ccs</i>	South Caucasian languages
<i>ccn</i>	North Caucasian languages

It is not clear whether those behind the venture wanted to portray the Caucasian languages as a *Sprachbund* or as a (macro-)family. This kind of representation is definitely inadequate and can only be interpreted as an outcome either of one's incompetence or of an attempt to draw political borders between and among genetically related languages.

2009 saw the introduction of another substandard (ISO 639-6: Alpha-4 representation for comprehensive coverage of language variation). The substandard, consisting four-letter codes, presents a host of inconsistencies associated with Caucasian languages; some of the inconsistencies have been dealt with in Gippert (2012) and Kikvidze (2012). In another work, J. Gippert and M. Tandashvili revisit the problem in question concluding that "it is more than doubtful that the complex interrelationship between the chronological, dialectal, and other "lectal" layers of Georgian can at all be depicted adequately in a flat tree structure of the given sort" (Gippert & Tandashvili, 2015, p. 320). It is noteworthy that in the period between when the chapter was submitted and published the aforementioned standard was withdrawn.

The ISO 639 is not the only codeset for languages and their variation. The Glottolog project, as a comprehensive catalogue of the world's languages, assigns a unique and stable identifier to all linguistic entities, that is, families, individual languages and their varieties (Nordhoff & Hammarström, 2011).

The ever-booming IT industry requires specific tags usable for various applications. While language codes are static lists, language tags “allow for specifying deviations from default values of a given language in a certain text written or spoken in the according language. Therefore, they account for certain degrees of variation in language and are used like annotations rather than identifiers” (Kim & Breuer, 2017, p. 193). It is noteworthy that most of tags and subtags are normally associated with various ISO standards (for instance, *IANA language subtag registry*).

The aforementioned resources should be applied both as references and class material for analysis and discussion within the framework of a course in glossonymics.

Glossonyms and identity issues

Since languages and their varieties are intertwined with their speakers’ ethnic identities, that is, the way how individuals label themselves as members, representatives of a certain ethnic group, one can easily imagine the role of language names in processes of identity maintenance, of shaping and even reshaping identities, including political manipulations. It is us, humans who assign names to languages and their varieties (in other words, are engaged in a process of ‘glottonomaturgia,’ as referred to by Marco Trizzino, 2020, pp. 371-417), and we have various motivations; our motivations and attitudes are revealed in ultimate outcomes of our language-naming practices. In a section about glossonyms and associated entities, I noted that, most commonly, the majority of language names were derived from respective ethnonyms, choronyms, toponyms, and/or politonyms. Notably, the other way round is also possible; its most illustrative examples are the following: the Greek *barbarian* referring to non-Greek-speaking foreigners (lit. ‘a stammerer’); the Slavic *nemec* referring to all non-Slavic speaking foreigners (lit. ‘a dummy’); etc. Therefore, auto-/allo-glossonymic oppositions may have various implications. One of the implications is about an ethno/lingua-centric character of a number of glossonyms, “that is, in translation, they lose and acquire culturally specific shades of meaning, thus, becoming somewhat deictic; specifically, what one considers as — babbling, stupid, and even savage, is another individual’s mother tongue” (Kikvidze, 2013, p. 196). Thus, language-naming practices are associated with ethical issues, and it is linguists who should take on particular responsibility when confronted with choices of glossonyms; however, some of them do not seem to have much consensus about respective principles (see, for instance, Haspelmath, 2017; Dryer, 2019).

Glossonyms, as not only names *per se* but also as symbols, are quite infrequently utilized in constructions of identity and ideological campaigns, hence, are involved in activities aimed at partition and merger of languages (resp. language varieties); this is why they are closely associated with the notions of glossotomy, glossogamy, and schizoglossia (Goebel, 1979). As C. M. B. Brann claims, it was him who “coined the terms glossotomy and glossogamy for these movements of planned divergence and convergence” (Brann, 1994, p. 178). A very good example of these opposite processes is the still contested glossonym ‘Macedonian’ and identity of its speakers; here is a brief description of the situation in question (Lubliner, 2006): Macedonian Slavs were regarded – and regarded themselves – as Bulgarians until the Balkan Wars of the early twentieth century, when the part of Macedonia that did not belong to Greece or Bulgaria was annexed by Serbia and called South Serbia. It retained this designation in the kingdom of Yugoslavia, where an effort was made to Serbianize the population. This attempt failed, and under Tito the Macedonians were given nationality status, a republic, and a standard language. But this standard was based, not surprisingly, on dialects as far as possible from Bulgarian proper, and the Cyrillic script chosen for it is much closer to Serbian than to Bulgarian Cyrillic. Of course, Bulgarians and Macedonians communicate orally with ease.

As it is seen from the foregoing, the community underwent both processes – split with Bulgarian identity and merger with Serbian identity, and the glossonym was used as an instrument in these endeavors.

All over the world, there are abounding cases associated with processes of ethnic/national identity construction across various communities, and, thereby, language names are used not only as instruments but sometimes as weapons as well.

In this sense, phenomena pertaining to glossonymics extend their scope beyond linguistics. Peetermans reflects on the circumstance in point in the following way: The fact that glottonyms are ideologically or politically charged, on the one hand, and that the outcome of the naming process is determined by socio-politically motivated human agency, on the other, means that glottonyms can serve as gateways to study the social processes and attitudes that underlie them. (Peetermans, 2016, p. 120).

A diachronic perspective

There is no one-to-one relationship between a language and a glossonym; thus, there are languages referred to by multiple names and there are glossonyms referring to more than one language. Moreover, a glossonym may undergo semantic modifications through time, and

sometimes these modifications may lead to drastic outcomes, thus producing confusions and erroneous associations.

When addressing the problem of alloglossonyms for the Georgian language in the earlier literature, one comes across the following items: *Iberian*, *Georgian*, and even *Grusinisch*, hardly referring to its autoglossonym (and there is nothing unusual in it). Unlike the tendency, the Dutch physician and writer Olfert Dapper reports that the language spoken throughout the country (Georgia) is called *Kardueli* (Dapper, 1672, p. 709). This seems to be the first-ever, though not the last reference to Georgian by its autoglossonym in foreign literature. This is a notable example and, together with similar ones, should be spotlighted by diachronic glossonymics.

An illustrative example of the significance of a diachronic perspective of glossonymic studies is found in George Ellis's book, containing the earliest English-Caucasian lexicographic collections (Ellis, 1788). Kikvidze and Pachulia studied the resource in point having not spared how Ellis dealt with language names; they note that the author refers to individual Kartvelian languages as "dialects," thus identifying three entities: "Carduel Dialect," "Imeretian Dialect," and "Swaneti Dialect." In fact, the idioms referred to are languages per se. His further terminological blunders (mildly speaking) include the designations "Carduel Dialect" to refer to the Georgian language and, egregiously erroneous, "Imeretian Dialect" not to refer to an actual dialect of Georgian spoken in the province of Imereti but rather to Megrelian, as one of the Kartvelian languages (Kikvidze & Pachulia, 2019, p. 452).

Hence, 'Imeretian,' as it occurs in the aforementioned book, is not a pseudoglossonym but rather an erroneous shortcut. However, it is a glossonym, and we should be aware of all adequate and inadequate instances of its use within a diachronic perspective.

1993 saw the publication of a volume, including contributions by Georgian historians, ethnographers and linguists, about terms referring to Georgia and the Georgians (Paichadze, 1993); since language names are essentially interconnected with respective ethnonyms, toponyms, politonyms, demonyms, etc., one would logically expect to find discussions on glossonyms at least in some of the contributions. Actually, glossonyms appear to have been given very limited, if any, space in the volume in point. This is a shortcoming which should be rectified both for the sake of glossonymics (and linguistics, at large) and of history, ethnography, etc. as well. There is a good example of how language names can and should be studied in a diachronic perspective; it is a French project within which nomenclatural representations of languages were dealt with in various ancient grammatical traditions

(Aussant, 2009). It is a good example and a role model for further studies owing to the outcomes of the research: documented discussions of language-naming practices based on data mined from ancient grammatical texts. I believe that another very productive venture would be studies of glossonyms for individual languages and language families and/or groups as they occur in later resources, for instance, in the so called polyglottic collections compiled by G. Postellus, C. Gesner, H. Megiser, J. Adelung, etc.

Languoids

What I should initially do in this section is provide a definition of the term *languoid*; for the sake of this, I choose to refer to those who introduced it (Good & Hendryx-Parker, 2006, p. 5) stating that it is a cover term for any type of lingual entity: language, dialect, family, language area, etc. It is roughly similar to the term *taxon* from biological taxonomy, except it is agnostic as to whether the relevant linguistic grouping is considered to be genealogical or areal (or based on some other possible criteria for grouping languages).

It goes without saying that the reader easily understands that the label is coined (En. *langu[age]* + Gr. *-oid* ‘x-like entity’) in order to avoid confusions associated with notorious language/dialect distinctions; but why do we deal with them in a discussion of glossonyms? Normally, glossonyms are proper names assigned to individual languoids; there is an association, although not an immediate one. What I mean is that the French school of glossonymics suggests a broader understanding of what we know to be glossonyms, that is, not only language names proper such as *Georgian*, *Greek*, *Latin*, etc., but also notions such as *language*, *dialect*, *idiom*, etc. One of their arguments is that the border between language names proper and languoids are sometimes fluid; there are some bright examples of the aforementioned such as ‘Creole/creole’ (Tabouret-Keller, 1997), ‘Koine/koine’ (Siegel, 1985), ‘Lingua Franca/lingua franca’ (Brosch, 2015), etc.

What Brosch states about the ‘Lingua Franca/lingua franca’ problem (that is, a distinction to be made between a glossonym as a proper name and a term for a language (resp. a language variety)) can be easily extended to other, similar cases: it is highly advisable to use lower-case *lingua franca* only for the common noun (with indefinite article), viz. the figurative use, leaving upper-case *Lingua Franca* for the original Mediterranean pidgin, in accordance with the general rules of capitalization in English (Brosch, 2015, p. 73).

With its implications to various fields such as linguistic terminology and history of linguistics, to name but a few, this approach is not only logical but quite adequate and

productive for glossonymics, thus opening avenues for new insights for the investigation of both already explored and so far unexplored phenomena.

Conclusion

I would not dare to claim that glossonymics already exists as a full-fledged discipline; however, it is more than evident that problems pertaining to glossonymics do exist and they should be studied in a more profound and consistent way than it has been done so far, subsequently offering new insights not only for various branches of linguistics but also for the humanities at large and even beyond.

In the title of one of his presentations, Andy Peetermans referred to it as “a could-be subfield of onomastics” (Peetermans, 2016); whether a subfield or not, I believe that glossonymics is a *should-be* curricular reality at our universities.

The aforementioned and other problems pertaining to glossonymics can be discussed both within a course of an individual language or a language family and within a framework of a specialized course; the former normally occurs in materials of virtually every such a course and the latter still awaits its implementation. It is such a specialized course that can and will provide for the teaching of glossonymics in its completeness and consistency.

NOTES:

1. A comprehensive and detailed socioterminological discussion of these and other, related items will be presented in a forthcoming paper; however, here I will refer to the earliest, at least to my knowledge, instances of the occurrence of the following terms: ‘linguonym’ (Duličenko, 1973) and ‘glottonym’ (Kahane & Kahane, 1976).
2. Some authors prefer ‘language labels’ to ‘language names’ (see, for instance, Khubchandani, 1983, p. 48).
3. Distinct terms (and a distinct taxonomy) were offered by Matisoff (1986, p. ix): “It is useful to distinguish between genuinely different names for the same people/language — i.e. *allonyms* — and merely different spellings or pronunciations of the same name — i.e. *allograms*.”
4. For a comprehensive description of the development of language-related standards, see, for instance, Dalby et al., 2004; Kamusella, 2012.

References

- Aussant, É. (ed.). (2009). La nomination des langues dans l'histoire. *Histoire Épistémologie Langage*, 31/2, 5–173.
- Back, O. (1988). Glottonyme und Ethnonyme. *Die Slawischen Sprachen*, 14, 5-9.
- Barrett, D. B. & Johnson, T. M. (2001). *World Christian Trends, Ad 30-Ad 2200: Interpreting the Annual Christian Megacensus*. Pasadena: William Carey.
- Brann, C. M. B. (1994). A prognosis for language management in the Third Republic. In M. Pütz (ed.), *Language Contact and Language Conflict*, (pp. 165-180). Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Brosch, C. (2015). On the Conceptual History of the Term *Lingua Franca*. *Apples: Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 9/1, 71-85.
- Cysouw, M. & Good, J. (2013). Languoid, Doculect and Glossonym: Formalizing the Notion 'Language.' *Language Documentation and Conservation*, 7, 331-359.
- Dalby, D., Gillam, L., Cox, C. & Garside, D. (2004). Standards for language codes: Developing ISO 639. In *Proceedings of the LREC 2004. Forth International Conference on Language resources and evaluation*. <http://www.lrec-conf.org/proceedings/lrec2004/> (accessed on July 31, 2021)
- Dapper, O. (1672). *Asia, of Naukeurige beschryving van het rijk des Grooten Mogols, en een groot gedeelte van Indiën*. Amsterdam: Jakob van Meurs.
- Díaz-Fernández, A. (2006). Glosónimos aplicados a la lengua mapuche. *Anclajes*, 10, 95-111.
- Dryer, M. S. (2019). Language names and nonlinguists: A response to Haspelmath. *Language Documentation and Conservation*, 13, 580-585.
- Duličenko, A. D. (1973). La Lingvonimiko – ĝlaj esenco kaj problemoj. *Scienca Revuo de Internacia Scienca Asocio Esperantista*, 24/2-3, 83-90.
- Gabinschi, M. (1997). Reconverging of Moldavian towards Romanian. In M. G. Clyne (ed.), *Undoing and Redoing Corpus Planning*, (pp. 193-214). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
- Ellis, G. (1788). *Memoir of a Map of the Countries Comprehended Between the Black Sea and the Caspian; with an Account of the Caucasian Nations, and Vocabularies of Their Languages*. London: John Edwards.
- Gippert, J. (2012). Language-specific encoding in endangered language corpora. In F. Seifart, G. Haig, N. P. Himmelmann, D. Jung, A. Margetts, & P. Trilsbeek (eds.), *Potentials of Language Documentation: Methods, Analyses, and Utilization*, (pp. 17–24). Manoa: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Gippert, J. & Tandashvili, M. (2015). Structuring a Diachronic Corpus. The Georgian National Corpus project. In J. Gippert & R. Gehrke (eds.), *Historical Corpora: Challenges and Perspectives*, (pp. 305-322). Tübingen: Narr Verlag.

- Goebel, H. (1979). Glottonymie, Glottotomie und Schizoglossie: Drei sprachpolitisch bedeutsame Begriffe. *Ladinia*, 3, 7-38.
- Good, J. & Hendryx-Parker, C. (2006). Modeling Contested Categorization in Linguistic Databases. In *Proceedings of the EMELD '06 Workshop on Digital Language Documentation: Tools and Standards: The State of the Art*. Lansing, Michigan. June 20–22, 2006.
- Haspelmath, M. (2017). Some principles for language names. *Language Documentation and Conservation*, 11, 81-93.
- Kahane, H. & Kahane, R. (1976). *Lingua Franca: The Story of a Term*. *Romance Philology*, 30/1, 25-41.
- Kamusella, T. (2012). The global regime of language recognition. *International Journal for the Sociology of Language*, 218, 59–86.
- Khubchandani, L. M. (1983). *Plural Languages, Plural Cultures: Communication, Identity, and Sociopolitical Change in Contemporary India*. Manoa: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Kikvidze, Z. (2012). Language names: Terminology and ideology. *Caucasiologic Papers*, 4, 47-54.
- Kikvidze, Z. (2013). Lost and acquired in translation: Shades of meaning in language names. *General and Specialist Translation/Interpretation: Theory, Methods, Practice. 6th International Conference Proceedings*, (pp. 194-198). Kyiv: Agrar Media Group.
- Kikvidze, Z. & Pachulia, L. (2019). Prior to D. R. Peacock: Notes on the Earliest English-Megrelian Lexicographic Resource. *9th International Research Conference on Education, Language and Literature. Proceedings Book*, (pp. 450-460). Tbilisi: IBSU.
- Kim, A. & Breuer, L. (2017). On the Development of an Interdisciplinary Annotation and Classification System for Language Varieties – Challenges and Solutions. *Journal of Linguistics*, 68/2, 191-207.
- Lubliner, J. (2006). Adventures in Glossonymy. <http://faculty.ce.berkeley.edu/coby/essays/gloss.htm> (accessed on August 4, 2021)
- Matisoff, J. A. (1986). The languages and dialects of Tibeto-Burman: An alphabetic/ genetic listing, with some prefatory remarks on ethnonymic and glossonymic complications. In J. McCoy & T. Light (eds.), *Contributions to Sino-Tibetan studies*, (pp. 3–75). Leiden: Brill.
- Muse-Orlinoff, L. (2014). *Pioneer Entrepreneurs: Legal Capital and Social Network Changes in a First Generation Mexican Community*. PhD Dissertation in Sociology. University of California, San Diego.
- Nordhoff, S. & Hammarström, H. (2011). Glottolog/Langdoc: Defining dialects, languages, and language families collections of resources. In *Proceedings of ISWC*; <http://iswc2011.semanticweb.org/fileadmin/iswc/Papers/Workshops/LISC/nordhoff.pdf> (accessed on July 31, 2021).

-
- Paichadze, G. (ed.). (1993). *Foreign and Georgian Terminology Referring to Georgia and the Georgians*. Tbilisi: Mecniereba. [in Georgian]
- Peetermans, A. (2016). Glottonymy as a could-be subfield of onomastics: Terminological considerations and historiographical applications. Presented at the Annual Colloquium of the Henry Sweet Society for the History of Linguistic Ideas, Cambridge.
- Peetermans, A. (2020). *The Art of Transforming Traditions: Conceptual developments in early modern American missionary grammar writing*. PhD Dissertation in Linguistics. KU Leuven.
- Rader, J. (1989). People and language names in Anglo-American dictionaries. *Dictionaries: Journal of the Dictionary Society of North America*, 11, 125-138.
- Siegel, J. (1985). Koines and koineization. *Language in Society*, 14/3, 357-378.
- Tabouret-Keller, A. (1997). Les enjeux de la nomination des langues: Présentation. In A. Tabouret-Keller (ed.), *Le nom des langues I: Les enjeux de la nomination des langues*, (pp. 5–20). Louvain-la-Neuve: Peeters.
- Trizzino, M. (2020). PARDUOMA A DUMBARD. I nomi del “lombardo” di Sicilia tra glottonimia e glottonomaturgia. In M. Trizzino (ed.), *AINIFMATOΣ ANOIFMA. IL VARCO DELLA SFINGE. Nuove etimologie nell’odierno orizzonte linguistico-etnografico. Miscellanea di studi etimologici ed etnografici in memoria di Remo Bracchi*, (pp. 371-417). Roma: LAS.

Ana Lemonjava

Akaki Tsereteli State University, Kutaisi, Georgia

Word Meaning, Androcentrism, and Language Acquisition (Based on a survey of English proverbs)

ABSTRACT

In our days second language acquisition is not just an option but rather a necessity, particularly, when it is about English which is a global lingua franca. It is a permanent process involving consideration both of constantly updating methods and techniques and novel approaches to various aspects of language. Given the intensified discussions of the androcentric nature of some aspects of English and of the so called he/man approach, I decided to check whether and how similar phenomena may evolve among Georgian learners of English. For the sake of this goal, I conducted the following survey.

The object of the survey was the dual meaning of the word man in English proverbs. The word referred either to “a male person” or “a person in general.” The survey was conducted in a group of 10 students.

The students got a survey file while being on the online meeting. The language of the meeting was English. After having read all the proverbs, the students were to write “a male person” or “a person in general” at the end of each proverb. If they were unable to distinguish between the meanings, they could write “I cannot guess.”

The paper presents the results of the survey with an emphasis on the students’ capability of distinguishing between generic and masculine meanings of the word in question and on related linguistic and didactic implications.

Key words: *androcentrism, English as L2, proverbs, survey*

Introduction

Androcentrism is the practice of placing a masculine point of view at the centre of one’s culture, history and even existence. The term androcentrism was introduced by Charlotte Perkins Gilman in a scientific debate. Her book “*The Man-Made World; or, Our Androcentric Culture*” was published in 1911. A man is the face of the mankind defining its past, present and future whereas a woman is an additional element created to deliver new humans. Women have always been considered to be in the position of being in a relationship with men.

Under androcentrism ,masculinity is normative and all things outside of masculinity are defined as other. Masculine patterns of life and masculine mindsets claimed universality while female patterns were considered as deviance. Things that are around us

are regarded as normal and natural, but at the same time something that we call a human nature is a masculine one..

The famous French writer Simone de Beauvoir brilliantly described androcentrism in her article “The Second Sex” without even using this term. The article was initially published in French in 1949. The relationship between men and women is a relationship of a dominant and a submissive. Men have a direct connection with the universe so they get it in the right way. On the other hand, women are obstacles and full of dilemmas. They are not considered to be autonomous or independent. They are additional, unimportant and trivial as opposed to men who are substantial and inseparable parts of our universe. Therefore, women are so called “others”.

The examples of linguistic bias in the English Language

As we can observe, androcentrism has invaded all the fields of human existence including languages and word choices used and made by humans every day. A key feature of androcentric language is that it involves the deployment of semantic and pragmatic values that sit alongside communicative strategies which exploit a particular knowledge of and understanding about gender, which has a certain impact on women’s sense of identity and place in culture and society.

The implicit and explicit linguistic bias against the feminine is evident in the use of the third – person singular pronouns *he* and *she*. The generic use of *he* in a British Act of Parliament in 1850 set the tone for its modern prescriptive import. Historically speaking, such usage can be traced back to Old English texts. English is a “naturally” gendered language in which personal pronouns tend to be pronominalised in a biased way, favouring *he* over *she*.(Martin & Papadelos, 2016, p.3). For example: if a student works hard, he will pass exams successfully. Or: if a teacher plans a lesson properly, he will deliver it with confidence. In spoken language the plural pronoun *they* is used co-referential to grammatically singular antecedents, as in for example, ”A doctor should carefully examine patients before they prescribe medicines.” In recent years, some people have been deliberately using *she* as a generic pronoun. For example: “ If a student works hard, she will pass exams successfully.”

Besides the third-person singular pronouns *he* and *she*, the word *guy* is an appropriate example of the androcentric nature of the English language. In ordinary usage *guy* has an explicit referential function to a man. For instance: “There was a tall guy

wearing a black coat and leather gloves.” The word *guys* is used to refer to men exactly. “A group of guys was gathered in the corner approximately 50 metres away from a group of women.” By extension, the word *guys* can be used for a mixed group of men and women.” “Guys! We need to be more careful or we’ll fail” [a teenager to a mixed-gender group of friends]. (Martin & Papadelos, 2016, p.4)

The word “*Man(Men)*” and its meanings in the English and Georgian Languages.

Perhaps the most prominent illustration of androcentric usage of language is revealed in the word *man* (including its plural form *men*). Various scholars have touched upon its meaning of the word in question. They have drawn attention to the problem of its biased use. The “he/man” approach to language implies use of male terms to refer both specifically to males and generically to human beings. In linguistic terms, some have characterized the male as an unmarked; the female a marked category. The unmarked category represents both maleness and femaleness, while the marked represents femaleness only (Martyna, 1980, p.483).

Since my paper is immediately concerned with the word *man*, I will discuss its meanings in English in details. The word has the following meanings:

1. An adult male person, as distinguished from a boy or a woman: *The man standing on the river bank disappeared.*
2. A member of the species *Homo sapiens* or all the members of this species collectively, without regard to sex: *prehistoric man.*
3. The human individual as representing the species, without reference to sex; the human race; humankind: “That’s one small step for man. One giant leap for mankind.”
4. A husband
5. A male lover or sweetheart.
6. A male follower or subordinate: *the king’s men.*
7. A male employee or a representative.
8. A male having qualities considered typical of men: Be a man!
9. A male servant
10. A valet

Initially, *man* was a generic term. Old English used *wer* and *wif* as the words for adult male and female human beings. At the turn of the 1st and 2nd millennia A.D., *man*

became a word for an adult male, retaining the initial meaning, while *wer* began to disappear (surviving only in werewolf) in the late 13th century and was totally replaced by *man*. Thus, the two meanings were conveyed by the word. (Kikvidze, 2015, p.19)

Yet the question of what “he” and “man” really mean is fully answered neither by turning to dictionary definitions nor by consulting the intentions of their users. Good intentions are not enough, unfortunately, to guarantee that generic meaning will be conveyed. And guided tours through Latin and Old English are not enough to guarantee that the generic masculine is used clearly and fairly today. (Martyna, 1980, p.487).

It would be noteworthy to look at meanings of *k'ac'i* (*man*) in the Georgian language in order to detect similarities and differences between the meanings of the two words in both languages..

Irrespective of background distinctions , the English *man* and Georgian *k'ac'i* appear to have a lot in common. Based on the *Explanatory Dictionary of the Georgian Language* , it has the following meanings:

1. Human being
2. Male person
3. Call. Husband
4. Obs. Manservant
5. Errand-boy
6. Indefinite pronoun one:”one can agree with that”
7. Final component of a compound: *jaris-k'ac'i*-army-GEN-man-NOM. (soldier)

As we see, both the English *man* and Georgian *k'ac'i* initially referred to a human being in general. Later, both items took on the meaning of “an adult male person,” retaining the initial sense. Notwithstanding the co-existence of the meanings, Georgian speakers do not find any traces of linguistic sexism and androcentric bias in the said practice and, thus, do not tend to offer any reformative steps. (Kikvidze, 2015, p.20).

The Survey

While reading and studying various research papers on the subject, I decided to check if such bias existed in the students who are studying English as a second language. For the sake of this goal, I conducted a survey. As I mentioned above, English *man* has a lot of meanings but I decided to choose only two of them: *man*-a male person and *man*-a person in general. The object of the survey was the dual meaning of the word *man* in

English proverbs. The word referred either to “a male person” or “a person in general.” The survey was conducted in a group of 10 students. They are 11th and 12th graders. Their level of English proficiency is Intermediate+ (B1+) according to European framework. They are talented, determined and hard-working students. The students have a relevant level in all four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking). They are able to translate proverbs correctly and understand their meanings adequately. I have been teaching English to them for 5 years, hence, when I asked them to take part in the survey, they were more than eager to participate in it.

The students got the survey form while being on the online meeting. The meeting lasted for two hours. The first half was for filling in the form. The second one was allocated for the discussion. The students were to read each proverb and write “a male person”, “a person in general” or “I cannot guess” at the end of each proverb. The language of the meeting was English. They did this task independently thus they had no communication with each other during the first period of the meeting. An hour later, I started discussing the results with the students. They read proverbs one by one. Whoever read the proverb, had to explain its meaning too. Then the person reading the proverb said the answer. If anyone had a different answer had to persuade the other students that their answer was correct. If there was no clear answer and the students could not come to conclusion, I announced the correct answer and explained why it was the correct one. The meeting was lively and the students were actively involved in the discussion.

I could say that the results were surprisingly impressive. Out of 10 students, one student had 48 answers correct (96 %). Four students got 43 (86%) right and five of them had 40 (80%) answers correct. I had the role of a facilitator. I let them express their opinions on the proverbs, discuss and share ideas with each other. The students were amazed by how much more interesting English became when discussed from linguistic points of views. The students asked me to conduct more surveys as they saw English from different angles and this was a breaking point for them to research further.

Concluding Remarks

The androcentric nature of the language is perfectly represented in using male-related words to refer to both males and females.

Such nature is characteristic for every language more or less, so conducting a survey among Georgian students who are studying English as their second language would

show them the differences and similarities in their first and target languages.

Language acquisition is a complicated process and conducting surveys based on word meanings is a helpful hand for both teachers and students.

The survey I conducted showed me how much progress my students can make if they think, discuss and express themselves in the target language.

References

- Bodine, A. (1975). Androcentrism in prescriptive grammar: singular 'they', sex-indefinite 'he', and 'he or she' >>> *Language in Society* 4, 1975: 129-146.
- Khakhiashvili, N. (2009). K'ac-sit'q'vis ist'oriisatvis [On the history of the word k'aci (man)] *kartvelur enata st'rukt'uris sak'itkhebi* [issues of the structure of Kartvelian Languages], 10: 285- 307.
- Kikvidze, Z. (2011). *New Approaches to Gender Issues in Text-based Analyses: Georgian Printed Media in Context. Languages and Cultures in the Caucasus*, ed. By V.S. Tomelleri, M. Topadze, A. Lukianowicz. Munich & Berlin: Verlag Otto Sagner: 398-393
- Kikvidze, Z. (2015). The English man and The Georgian k'aci: An Outline of (dis)similarities. In D.Gay Sylvestre (ed), II, *Elle: Entre Je(u)* 17-25 Limoges: PULIM: Presses Universitaires de Limoges.
- Martin, P. Papadelos, P. (2016). Who stands for the norm? The place of metonymy in androcentric language. *SocialSemiotics*, Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.
- Martyna, W. (1980). Beyond the "He/Man" Approach: The Case for Nonsexist Language. *Signs* Vol.5, No 3. The university of Chicago Press:482-493
- Rayfield, D. (ed.-in-chief) (2006). *A Comprehensive Georgian-English Dictionary, Vol.1* London: Garnett Press.
- Simpson, J. Speake, J. (1999). *Concise Dictionary of Proverbs*. Oxford University Press.

Appendix

The students filled in the following survey form. They were given detailed instructions before they started working on it. The proverbs were arranged in no particular order.

Name:

Grade:

Date:

Linguistic Survey on the Word “Man (Men)” in English Proverbs

Please complete the survey about meanings of the word “man(men)” occurring in the following English proverbs. The word man has different meanings. However, the present survey is focused on two of them: Man may occur as a male person and also a person in general. In the proverbs below you should distinguish between the meanings of this word. Write “a male person”, “a person in general” or “I cannot guess” at the end of each line. You will have two hours to complete the survey. After completing the survey, we will discuss our answers and find out which ones are correct. The proverbs are arranged in no particular order. Thank you for your participation.

Proverbs containing the word “man(men)”

1. Men are but children of larger growth.
2. An old man is twice a boy.
3. Honest men marry soon, wise men not at all.
4. A man without money is no man at all.
5. Man is wolf to man.
6. One man’s meat is another man’s poison.
7. Clothes don’t make the man.
8. Opportunity knocks at every man’s door.
9. A man is known by the company he keeps.
10. Early to bed, early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy and wise.
11. The wealthiest man has the biggest hump.
12. A man’s home is his castle.
13. It’s easier for a camel to go through the eye of a needle than for a rich man to enter into the kingdom of god.
14. Time and tide wait for no man.
15. A drowning man will clutch at a straw.

16. Boldly go there where no man has gone before.
17. Every man has a price.
18. In the land of the blind, the one-eyed man is king.
19. Man proposes, God disposes.
20. A hungry man is an angry man.
21. Every man is the architect of his own fortune.
22. When the wind is in the east, it's neither good for man nor beast
23. Man cannot live by bread alone.
24. You can't keep a good man down.
25. A man without a smiling face mustn't open a shop.
26. A tree is known by its fruit and a man by his deeds.
27. Give a man enough rope and he will hang himself.
28. A man who is his own lawyer has a fool for a client.
29. Rich man's joke is always funny.
30. You should know a man seven years before you stir his fire.
31. There is an hour wherein a man might be happy all his life, could he find it.
32. There is no good accord where every man would be a lord.
33. Try not to become a man of success but a man of value.
34. Two things a man should never get angry at: what he can help and what he cannot.
35. The coat makes the man.
36. The healthful man can give counsel to the sick.
37. The man in boots doesn't know the man in shoes.
38. The rich man may dine when he will, the poor man when he may.
39. The riches of the mind may make a man rich and happy.
40. The wit of one man, the wisdom of many.
41. If a man deceives me once, shame on him; but if he deceives me twice, shame on me.
42. No man can play the fool so well as the wise man.
43. In the end, a man's motives are second to his accomplishments.
44. No man is content with his lot.
45. Man learns little from success, but much from failure.
46. God help the rich man, let the poor man beg.
47. Hope often deludes the foolish man.
48. A man may die old at thirty and young at eighty.
49. Authority shows the man.
50. Do not correct a fool or he will hate you, correct a wise man and he will appreciate you.

Irine Demetradze

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi, Georgia

The Use of Popular Songs and Films in Overcoming the Typical Mistakes of Georgian Learners of English

ABSTRACT

The paper focuses on the typical mistakes of Georgian learners of English. The students' errors are usually caused by native language interference. The theoretical framework embraces the works of Lado, 1957; Corder, 1981; Spicher & Sweeney, 2007; Salcedo, 2002; Ludke, 2009 etc. The empirical material is obtained from personal experience of teaching as well as popular media platforms. As English and Georgian are structurally extremely different, the errors of Georgian students are most frequently related to grammar. Based on the longstanding experience of teaching English as a foreign language, the author argues that students easily overcome the problem of native language interference and related frequent errors if they are given examples from the texts of popular songs and films.

Taking into account that songs and films represent authentic, natural language, they serve as an ideal medium for improving pronunciation, learning morphological and syntactic patterns, enriching the vocabulary, improving the students' listening skills and so on. Besides, the lyrics of songs are usually very easily obtainable from Youtube or other media platforms. It is widely discussed that songs facilitate foreign language acquisition. Listening to songs and watching interesting fragments of films is not as time-consuming as reading grammar textbooks, learning the rules and doing exercises. The process is very efficient and enjoyable both for the teacher and the students. Thanks to the refrains of songs, which are repeated several times, certain words and syntactical patterns are firmly fixed in the learner's mind. This is especially important when the teacher tries to help students overcome the typical errors caused by the so-called "negative transfer" i.e. native language interference. The paper analyzes cases when the texts of songs and films have helped overcome issues like: complex object vs direct object, the use of relative pronouns and conjunctions, various types of subordinate clauses, the rules of using *so/such*, conditional sentences of different types and so on. The paper gives recommendations as to which particular song or film is the most efficient in overcoming each of the above-mentioned problems. The author also notes that, in some cases, the lyrics of songs have the opposite effect on the learner, i.e. the grammar and spelling rules are completely ignored in some songs. The paper argues that in such cases teachers should be extremely careful and offer special explanation to students in order to prevent them from making such errors.

Key Words: *language interference, typical error, lyrics, film fragment, foreign language teaching.*

Introduction

It is well known that every language speaker has certain linguistic habits i.e. language patterns. When speaking a foreign language, people transfer native language patterns

into the foreign one (Gass, 1979, p.327). In the preface to R. Lado's book „*Linguistics Across Cultures*“, C. Fries notes that native language, new habits are acquired on the background of non-existence of habits, whereas in the process of foreign language acquisition, new habits are opposed to the already existing ones, and this creates difficulties (Lado, 1957, p.1). As every language is a set of habits, acquisition of each new language implies acquisition of new habits. When new habits are similar to those of the native language, learning a new language is facilitated. However, if there is a significant contrast between the patterns of the native language and the foreign one, acquisition of the latter is complicated due to the native language interference (ibid, p.2). It is widely known that similar structures between the native and target languages lead to positive transfer (facilitation), while different structures lead to negative transfer (interference) (Corder, 1981, p.1).

Taking into account the above-mentioned, with regard to the Georgian learners of English, we can conclude the following: since English and Georgian are languages of different families and there are significant differences between the two languages on each level (phonetics, morphology, syntax and vocabulary), it is quite natural that cases of facilitation are rare, if any at all. Hence, the given paper focuses on several interesting cases of interference (negative transfer) that lead to the difficulties and errors of language learners.

Methodology

Using a contrastive method, the paper focuses on the semantic and structural differences between the native and target languages (in our case, English and Georgian). Based on a longstanding experience of teaching English at Tbilisi State University, the author analyzes the successful cases when fragments from famous songs and films have helped the students in the mastering of those words and syntactic patterns that are a frequent source of typical errors.

The Importance of Songs in Language Teaching

According to Larry Lynch, there are 9 reasons why English teachers should use songs in the classroom¹:

1. Songs almost always contain authentic, natural language;
2. A variety of new vocabulary can be introduced to students through songs;
3. Songs are usually very easily obtainable;
4. Songs can be selected to suit the needs and interests of the students;
5. Grammar and cultural aspects can be introduced through songs;
6. Time length is easily controlled;
7. Students can experience a wide range of accents;
8. Song lyrics can be used in relating to situations of the world around us;
9. Students think songs are natural and fun.

Besides, numerous scholars note that listening to songs in the classroom arouses positive emotions in the learners. This, in its turn, facilitates the process of language acquisition, because the mind is more open to new information in a cheerful and enjoyable environment (Spicher & Sweeney, 2007; Medina, 1993)².

Smith Salcedo notes that, unlike the material learnt from a textbook, the vocabulary and grammatical constructions learnt from a song steadily remain in the learner's mind for a long time, because a song, which consists of melody and lyrics, is frequently repeated in the learner's mind (Salcedo, 2002, p.108).

Below are given concrete examples of typical errors of Georgian learners of English, with quotes from the songs and films which help the learners in the acquisition of English vocabulary and syntactic patterns.

Grammatical Errors Caused by Negative Transfer and the Means for Their Prevention:

1. Complex Object

Georgian learners of English find it very hard to master the complex object structure.

Although this structure is quite simple, Georgian learners of English transfer the native language pattern into English and, instead of saying "*I want him to read this book*", they use a more complicated and wrong structure, saying: "*I want that he reads this book*"* This is a widespread problem not only on the beginner level but also at an advanced level of learning. It should be noted that during the experiment carried out in a group of students of English philology at Tbilisi State University, I asked the students to translate the sentence

„მე ყველაფერს გავაკეთებ იმისთვის, რომ ის ბედნიერი იყოს“ /me qvelafers gavaketeb imistvis rom is bednieri iqos/ (I will do everything for her to be happy). 100% of students translated this sentence as follows: “*I’ll do everything because she will be happy*”*.

In order to solve the above-mentioned problem, I used a famous film “French Kiss”, namely, I compared two episodes from this film. In the first one, Kevin Kline’s character – Luke –tells Kate (performed by Meg Ryan): „*I want you*“. Kate perceives this phrase as a direct object and is greatly surprised, but Luke continues “*I want you.... to make Charlie suffer*”. Hence, this is a case of complex object. However, in the final episode of the film, Luke realizes he has fallen in love and tells Kate „*I want you*“. This time, Kate thinks that a complex object construction will follow, but Luke says: „*I want you. That’s all*“, i.e. this is a case of direct object. When students are shown these fragments, they easily perceive the difference between the two types of objects and remember how to construct the complex object correctly.

a. Interrogative Constructions

Acquisition of interrogative constructions represents a problem on each stage of learning. This is due to the fact that, in the Georgian language, interrogative sentences do not require either auxiliary verbs or inversion. In Georgian, general questions differ from affirmative sentences only in intonation. Despite the complexity of the problem, learners of English usually manage to overcome this difficulty on the beginner level. However, later on, another problem arises: according to the rules of English grammar, a question in the object clause does not need any auxiliary verb and is not subject to inversion. This is a major source of errors. Approximately 90% of students say: “*I don’t know where is he*”*, instead of the correct construction “*I don’t know where he is*”. This problem was easily overcome when the students listened to Nelly Furtado’s famous song “*I’m Like a Bird*”, with numerous repetitions of the phrases: “*I don’t know where my soul is, I don’t know where my home is*”.

b. Relative pronouns

Georgian learners of English transfer the native language pattern into the target language regarding the construction “*of which*”. The case is that in Georgian the same semantics is expressed by a correlate question word in the genitive case „*რომლის*“

/romlis/. Thus, instead of saying: “*I went to the restaurant, the manager of which was my friend*”, Georgians say: “*I went to the restaurant which’s manager was my friend*”, i.e. due to native language interference, they transfer the Georgian sentence structure into English and put the question word in the genitive case.

Besides, the Georgian relative pronoun „რომელიც“ /romelits/ is used with reference to both animate and inanimate nouns. Therefore, Georgian learners of English often say: “*the man which was looking at me*”*, instead of the correct form “*the man who was looking at me*”. This problem is easily overcome thanks to Nirvana’s famous song “*The man who sold the world*”.

c. Misleading Constructions with the Word “That”

Special mention should be made of the word “*That*”, used as a conjunction and a relative pronoun. Above all, we should note punctuation errors: under the influence of Georgian rules of punctuation, students use a comma before the conjunction *that*, because its correlate conjunction „რომ“ /rom/ is preceded by a comma in Georgian. Besides, the Georgian construction „ყველაფერი, რაც“ /qvelaferi rats/ (everything that/all that) is

wrongly translated into English as “*All what*”. Hence, the students say: “*All what I want*”* instead of the correct form “*All that I want*”. This problem is easily overcome when the students listen to Justin Bieber’s song “*You are all that matters to me*”. The same mistake is made by a vast majority of students regarding the construction “*everything that*”. Once again, under the influence of the native language, Georgian students say “*everything what*”*. This error is successfully prevented thanks to the song “*Everything that kills me makes me feel alive*”.

d. Reflexive Pronouns

The Georgian correlate of all the English reflexive pronouns is “თავი“ /tavi/. This word is usually used in the phrases referring to feelings. For instance: „თავი ბედნიერად იგრძნო“ /tavi bednierad igrdzno/ (he/she felt happy). However, transferring the native language pattern into English, Georgian students often say: “*he felt himself happy*”.

However, as soon as I remind the students of James Brown’s song “*I feel good*”, this problem is easily overcome.

It should be noted that this song helps in coping with another widespread problem related to adjectives and adverbs: for the Georgian language, it is natural to say: „თავს

კარგად ვგრძნობ“ /tavs kargad vgrdznob/ (literally: “I feel well”), i.e. Georgians use an adverb, while in English adjectives are used in similar constructions. Therefore, the Georgian learners of English tend to say: “*I feel well*”* instead of the correct form “*I feel good*”. Once again, when teaching such constructions, I rely on James Brown’s help.

e. Errors Related to the Use of “So” and “Such”

Georgian learners of English are usually given detailed instructions regarding the rules referring to the use of “so” before adjectives only and “such” before adjectives followed by nouns. However, as the Georgian language does not make such distinctions, the use of “so” and “such” still remains a significant problem. In order to cope with this issue, students are asked to compare the lyrics of two famous songs: Joe Cocker’s “You are so beautiful” and Lou Reed’s “It’s such a perfect day”.

f. Introductory phrase “As For”/Time Clauses and Conditionals

The Georgian correlate of the English “*As for*” is „რაც შეეხება“ /rats sheekheba/. The problem is that the same Georgian phrase is also a correlate of the English “*what about*”. Hence, Georgian learners often say: “*what about John, he was ill*”*. This error is easily overcome thanks to a well-known film “Cabaret”. In her famous song, Liza Minelli repeats twice: “*And as for me, and as for me, I made my mind up back in Chelsie, when I go, I’ll go like Elsie*”.

Besides, this song helps overcome the problem of using the future tense in clauses beginning with the word “*when*”. In similar time clauses (as well as conditional sentences of Type 1), the Georgian language uses the future tense. Hence, such clauses are a frequent source of errors of Georgian learners of English. Apart from Lisa

Minelli’s song, this problem is prevented with the help of the song “*When I’m sixty-four*” by the Beatles and “*If you go away*” by Frank Sinatra.

g. Calques

The Georgian construction „კარგი დროს გატარება“ /kargi dros gatareba/ is often literally translated into English as “*spend a good time*”*, instead of the correct form “*have a good time*”. This widespread error of Georgian students is easily overcome by means of Queen’s popular song “*Don’t stop me now, I’m having such a good time!*”.

h. Reinterpretation

Prator and Celce-Murcia mention different types of complexities related to foreign

language acquisition, out of which the most widespread type is “reinterpretation” (Prator & Celce-Murcia, 1979 p.3). In case of reinterpretation, one and the same language unit is perceived differently in the native and target languages. The errors of Georgian students of English are often caused by reinterpretation. For instance, even at the beginner level, the students know what the English word “love” means.

However, they consider the English word “lovely” as a derivative with the same semantics. Hence, they translate this word into Georgian as „საყვარელი“ /saqvareli/ (which is also derived from the root denoting “love” but has the meaning of

“favourite”). It is a frequent case to hear from Georgian students phrases like “my lovely writer”* (instead of the correct form “my favourite writer”). Apart from explaining the meaning of the word “lovely”, I offer the students to watch the beginning scene from the popular film “My Favourite Lady”, where the word “lovely” is used 14 times by Audrey Hepburn to describe her dreams. Thanks to this vivid context and frequent repetition, the students remember the meaning of this word forever.

The Negative Influence of Songs on English Learners

Despite all the above-mentioned, it should be underlined that the rules of English grammar and punctuation are frequently violated in the lyrics of songs. For instance, for the sake of maintaining the rhythm, Rolling Stones sing “I can’t get no satisfaction” with double negation which is inadmissible for correct English grammar. In his popular song “Hound Dog”, Elvis Presley uses the construction “you was high class”. The lyrics of a famous song by “The Doors” contain the following error: “People are strange when your a stranger”* (the correct form is: you’re) and so on. In my practice, students have often argued with me when I explain certain rules of grammar and punctuation. They try to prove their arguments based on the lyrics of songs they have found on the internet. Thus, to a certain extent, lyrics of songs also have a negative impact on foreign language acquisition. Yet, this problem is easily overcome by means of correct instructions given by the teacher. In most cases, as we have seen, songs largely assist the teacher in the prevention of typical errors of Georgian learners of English.

Conclusion

Naturally, mastering of a foreign language is a complicated a time-consuming process, especially when it is a case of such different languages as Georgian and English. Native language interference hampers this process and leads to different morphological, syntactic and lexical mistakes. Unfortunately, the textbooks of English language widely used in Georgia do not focus on the typical errors of Georgian learners of English, and the texts and exercises given in these manuals are not aimed at the prevention of typical errors caused by native language interference. The typical errors of Georgian learners of English and the ways of overcoming these errors discussed in the given paper prove that the process of foreign language teaching can be facilitated by means of listening to fragments from popular songs and watching films in the English language.

NOTES:

1. Retrieved from: <https://www.eslbase.com/teaching/using-songs-to-teach-efl> (Seen on June 21, 2021).
2. Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/260229876_Teaching_foreign_languages_through_songs (Seen on June 21, 2021).

References

- Corder S.P. (1981). *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*. Oxford University Press. London.
- Fries C. (1983). *Linguistics and Reading*. Irvington Publishers. New York.
- Gass, S. (1979). *Language Transfer and Universal Grammatical Relations in Language Learning*, Volume 29, No. 2. pp. 327-344.
- Lado R. (1957). *Linguistics across Cultures*. University of Michigan Press. Louisiana State University.
- Ludke, K. (2009). *Teaching Foreign Languages through Songs*. University of Edinburgh.
- Lynch L.M. (2012). *9 Reasons Why You Should Use Songs to Teach EFL*. Retrieved from

<https://www.eslbase.com/teaching/using-songs-to-teach-efl>, visited on June 21, 2012.

- Medina, S. (1990). *The Effects of Music upon Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*. Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (San Francisco, CA).
- Prator, C. H., & Celce-Murcia, M. (1979). *An Outline of Language Teaching Approaches. Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. Celce-Murcia and McIntosh. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Smith Salcedo, C. (2002). *The Effects of Songs in the Foreign Language Classroom on Text Recall and Involuntary Mental Rehearsal*. Doctoral dissertation,
- Spicher & Sweeney, (2007). *Folk Music in the L2 Classroom: Development of Native- Like Pronunciation through Prosodic Engagement Strategies*. *A Journal for Foreign Language Educators*. pp. 35-48.

Nino Kemertelidze

Georgian Technical University, Georgia

Meri Giorgadze

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Georgia

The Significance of Critical Thinking in Text Comprehension

ABSTRACT

What is critical thinking? It is rather difficult to give an exact definition of this interesting phenomenon as the opinions of scholars vary. The majority of linguists consider that critical thinking is a complex process using inquiry strategies, forming questions, and seeking answers to these questions. It implies not only fixing facts but also clearing up their reasons and results. The essence of critical thinking can be defined as taking care of one's own thinking. Critical thinking starts as soon as the information reaches our mind and ends when we already have our own standpoint regarding this information. The aim of this paper is to study the importance of critical thinking in text understanding. Critical reading strategies, in their way, develop critical thinking skills that are essential for a deeper and successful perception of a text. It supports and encourages pupils and students to be more aware of reading comprehension skills, to explore how to read between lines and behind the words. Critical thinking is independent thinking. When teaching is built on the principle of critical thinking, each pupil or student is able to formulate his/her own ideas, estimations, and convictions independently. Consequently, thinking is critical only when it carries individual character. A pupil or a student should have enough freedom in order to think and solve different problems independently. It is true that people who are able to think critically, always ask a set of questions formulated in a proper way, try to pick up information from different people and make proper conclusions about this or that person, thing, or phenomenon. Critical thinking is not a child's innate quality. Some individuals can develop it as a result of training. In order a person to think critically, an individual has to have a rich imagination, be rather creative, and have background knowledge. All these three qualities are absolutely necessary for a good critical thinker. Critical thinking is an attempt to see through things. It is challenging the existence and making counter-arguments. The main function of critical thinking is to enable a thinker to see the effectiveness of an argument by exploring the reasons, assumptions, and warrants behind a particular stand. One of the most significant peculiarities of critical thinking is that it enables a person to make a claim with a perspective to appreciate the strength of others' arguments and helps recognize how one has reached a particular point while developing arguments. It is worth mentioning that the basic components of critical thinking are properly formulated why and how questions to make pupils/students think profoundly and penetrate into the essence of any kind of text, which leads to its full comprehension.

Keywords: *Critical thinking, text comprehension, background knowledge, effectiveness.*

What is critical thinking? It is rather difficult to give an exact definition of this interesting phenomenon as the opinions of scholars vary. The majority of linguists consider that critical thinking is a complex process using inquiry strategies, forming questions, and seeking answers to these questions. It implies not only fixing facts but also clearing up their reasons and results. The essence of critical thinking can be defined as taking care of one's own thinking.

Though most teachers/lecturers strive to make critical thinking an essential thing in the process of text comprehension, many may not know that in order to develop as thinkers, pupils/students must go through critical thinking development phases. That is, most teachers/lecturers are uninformed of the stages of intellectual growth that people go through as their thinking skills increase. We believe that major improvements in the intellectual quality of student work will not be accomplished until teachers/lecturers grasp that competent critical thinking develops only when it is appropriately cultivated and only through predictable phases.

We assume the following: (1) every individual who develops as a critical thinker goes through predictable phases; (2) moving from one phase to the next requires a certain level of commitment on the part of an individual to develop as a critical thinker, is not automatic, and is unlikely to occur subconsciously; (3) instructional effectiveness is inextricably linked to the intellectual content of student learning.

We consider that the critical thinking goals are broad statements that focus on intentional critical thinking development. They are intended to apply critical thinking, starting by focusing first on the received information, then on developing the intellectual standards for the topics under discussion, and finally, they also include feedback. Critical thinking aims at developing in pupils/students the skills of analysis, those of independent judgment as well as reasoning skills.

Critical thinking strategies and activities should be properly formulated to establish a clear and logical relationship between them and achieve critical thinking goals. Critical reading strategies, in their way, develop critical thinking skills that are essential for a deeper and successful perception of a text. It supports and encourages pupils and students to be more aware of reading comprehension skills, to explore how to read between lines and behind the words.

The planned activities should be clear and succinct in order for students to be able to evaluate things and show reasons for supporting their ideas with certain facts. Consequently, they will become skilled at independent judgment and develop cognitive skills. Critical thinking is independent thinking. When teaching is built on the principle of critical thinking, each pupil or student is able to formulate his/her own ideas, estimations, and convictions independently. Consequently, thinking is critical only when it carries individual character. A pupil or a student should have enough freedom in order to think and solve different problems independently. It is true that people who are able to think critically, always ask a set of questions formulated in a proper way, try to pick up information from different people and make proper conclusions about this or that person, thing, or phenomenon.

According to Linda Elder and Richard Paul, there are six types of thinkers: "The unreflective thinker, the challenged thinker, the beginning thinker, the practicing thinker, the advanced thinker, the accomplished thinker" (Elder & Paul, 1996).

Unreflective thinkers are unable to objectively realize their thinking and improve it. When thinkers become aware of the significant role of thinking, they become "**challenged**" **thinkers**. Those who develop into **beginning thinkers** are actively pursuing the goal of gaining explicit control over their thinking in various areas of their lives. Such thinkers acknowledge that their thinking has fundamental flaws and make first efforts to better grasp how they may take control of and change it for better. **Practicing thinkers** are aware of the habits they must cultivate in order to gain control over their thoughts. They not only understand that there are flaws in their thinking, but they also see the necessity to address these flaws in a systematic and global manner. They are actively examining their thinking in a variety of fields, based on their awareness of the need to practice constantly. However, as practicing thinkers are just beginning to address thinking development in a systematic fashion, they have limited insight into deeper levels of thought, and hence deeper levels of the issues that are buried in thinking. **Advanced thinkers** develop solid thinking habits. They not only actively evaluate their thinking in all important sectors of their life, but they also have significant insight into problems at deeper levels of thought. While advanced thinkers are capable of thinking well across the main aspects of their life, they are not yet capable of consistently thinking at a high level across all of them. **Accomplished thinkers** have not only methodically taken control of their thinking, but they are also constantly monitoring, updating, and rethinking ways to enhance their thinking. They have fully absorbed fundamental thinking abilities, making critical thinking both conscious and natural for them. Accomplished thinkers use their considerable experience and expertise in self-assessment to not only actively analyze their thinking in all major aspects of their life, but also to generate fresh insights into issues at a deeper level.

The goal of each teacher/lecturer should be to turn pupils/students from unreflective thinkers to accomplished ones, passing through all stages of development.

M.J. Bezanilla, D.F. Nogueira, M. Poblete, and H.G. Dominguez consider that the most common techniques used by teachers/lecturers to foster critical thinking may be divided into three groups: "Firstly, the methodologies that are most commonly used to develop critical thinking are related to oral and written communication as well as to reading and text analysis, that is, oral and written reflection and argumentation, and reading, analysis and synthesis of

resources; secondly, methodologies which are considered active methodologies, as for example, case studies, collaborative and cooperative learning, connection with the real world, and problem and project based learning are used; and thirdly, other methodologies which are used to a lesser extent are: assessment, follow-up, and feedback, questioning, evaluation, interpretation, and justification, research, other methodologies (flipped classroom, role playing, and so on), and lectures” (Bezanilla, Nogueira, Poblete & Dominguez, 2019).

As the aim of the presented paper is to study the importance of critical thinking in text understanding, we would like to go through the stages of text cognition according to the text structure. The organization of information inside a written text is referred to as a text structure. This method teaches pupils/students that any text might provide a core concept and details, a cause and subsequently its effects, and multiple perspectives on a main topic. Being aware of recognizing a text structure, pupils/students will be able to check their comprehension. As R. P. Pirozzi states “students’ critical thinking, critical reading, and reading comprehension were significantly correlated. In conclusion, students’ success in reading comprehension was significantly affected by their critical thinking and critical reading” (Pirozzi, 2003).

Critical thinking starts as soon as the information reaches our mind and ends when we already have our own standpoint regarding this information. Consequently, pupils/students start thinking immediately as they read the title of a text. After giving correctly formulated *why* and *how* questions, a teacher/lecturer asks pupils/students to brainstorm their ideas around the title. They focus on thinking independently and clarify and analyze the essence of the title the way they perceive it.

The next step is text reading. It is worth mentioning that the structure of any text (be it a short story, a novel, a fable, a poem) should be divided into four components: exposition (the situation at the outset of the story before the action begins), story (the succession of tensions and events in the story that leads to the climax), climax (the turning point, the most intense, thrilling, or crucial aspect of the text), denouement (the end of a story in which the plot's intricacies are revealed and the conflict is ultimately resolved).

The process of the text discussion and its critical analysis involves the chronological order of the text’s constituent components. We consider that before expressing their overall impressions about the text and analyzing it critically, pupils/students should scrutinize each of the aforementioned components separately. The teacher/lecturer should pose a set of questions for the pupils/students to think about the text critically, comprehend it and get ready for the further discussion. The process of text analysis should necessarily be interactive.

Pupils/students listen to each other in a critical way and also make plausible inferences and predictions or interpretations.

Through discussions, pupils/students increase the depth of their understanding, broaden their background knowledge, and develop critical thinking skills. On the other hand, discussions help the teacher/lecturer to find out how pupils/students learn and understand the basic idea of the text. The teacher/lecturer can initiate the discussion by presenting pupils/students with open-ended questions. Good questions, on the one hand, give them an opportunity to think profoundly, and on the other hand, give the teacher/lecturer the full picture of the degree and depth of student understanding. Such questions engage pupils/students in debates that expands their thinking horizon. Finally, as a follow-up activity, it would be recommended that pupils/students write an essay on the analysis of the given text showing their critical thinking skills. The teacher/lecturer has to monitor the process to avoid any kind of cheating and observe pupils/students to follow the intellectual standards, such as: accuracy, precision, depth, breadth and fairness.

Thus, developing critical thinking takes a lot of practice.

Conclusion

It is a well-known fact that critical thinking is not a child's innate quality. It can be developed as a result of training. In order a person to think critically, they have to have a rich imagination, be rather creative, and have background knowledge. All these three qualities are absolutely necessary for a good critical thinker. Critical thinking is an attempt to see through things. Unlike other things, thinking is not visible. But everything is possible. It can happen that even thinking can be made visible by using the language of thinking, by surfacing a great number of opportunities for thinking during subject matter learning, by asking appropriate questions, such as "What do you see that makes you say so?" It is easier to study anything when one visually sees it. Such an approach should be applied from the very first day the teacher/lecturer enters the class.

Furthermore, the idea of questioning is the most effective method of teaching in order to develop critical thinking skills. Questioning is the most effective method of teaching critical thinking. Teachers/lecturers should have the skills of asking questions, but these questions should certainly be appropriate to the topic. It can probably be called the "art" of asking good questions. Appropriately set questions definitely make pupils/students think critically.

Otherwise saying, this is the most effective method for developing the skills of critical thinking in pupils/students. In the process of questioning-answering, teachers'/lecturers' and pupils'/students' roles should correctly be distributed.

Conducting the teaching process actively and pupils'/students' participation in the process is utmost crucial. Involving pupils/students in debates is a very effective method of active learning, which, consequently, leads to the development of critical thinking skills in pupils/students through text comprehension.

Thus, the main function of critical thinking is to make a thinker able to see the effectiveness of an argument by exploring the reasons, assumptions, and warrants behind a particular stand. One of the most significant peculiarities of critical thinking is that it enables a person to make a claim with a perspective to appreciate the strength of others' arguments and helps recognize how one has reached a particular point while developing arguments. It is worth mentioning that the basic components of critical thinking are properly formulated *why* and *how* questions to make pupils/students think profoundly and penetrate into the essence of any kind of text, which leads to its full comprehension.

References

- Akyuz, H., & Samsa, S. (2009). The Effects of Blended Learning Environment on the Critical Thinking Skills of Students: *Journal of Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1, 1744-1748.
- Arifin, S., & Ilyas, H., Sukmawidjaya, M. (2020). Using Journal Entries and Assigned Writing to Promote Students' Critical Thinking: *VELES Voices of English Language Education Society*, 4(1), 104–115. <https://doi.org/10.29408/veles.v4i1>.
- Bezanilla, M., Nogueira, D., Poblete, M., & Dominguez, G. (2019). Methodologies for Teaching-learning Critical Thinking in Higher Education: *The teacher's view. Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 33.
- Elder, L., & Paul, R. (1996). Critical Thinking: A Stage Theory of Critical Thinking. *Journal of Development Education*, v20 n1.
- Ennis, R. (2011). What is Critical Thinking. <http://www.criticalthinking.net/definition.html>
- Hudson, T. (2007). *Teaching Second Language Reading*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Pirozzi, R. (2003). *Critical Thinking & Critical Reading*. New York, NY: Longman.

Khatuna Gelashvili

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi, Georgia

Some Interesting Internet Resources and Activities for Teaching a Foreign Language (English) Online

ABSTRACT

Is online teaching worse than the one in the classroom? No, it is different and sometimes even better, only teachers should be aware of available resources and techniques in order to use peculiarities of online teaching effectively. We should know when and how to apply them and how to select the most effective ones for specific tasks to achieve the best results in teaching. The aim of this conference presentation is sharing some effective webpages, activities and techniques that work better while teaching online and that have been tested in my online teaching English and Georgian as second languages. The participants will practically get familiarized with some of the resources. More specifically, the presentation will cover the following topics:

- some websites for presenting new material, practicing it and testing it
- some websites and the activities or techniques for teaching, revising and activating vocabulary
- some websites for correct pronunciation
- some websites for getting students' feedback

The participants of this presentation will not only theoretically learn the presented resources, teaching activities and techniques, but also they will immediately use the most effective ones for online teaching at the conference session. They will be able to select some new resources of their interest and use them in their teaching practice.

Keywords: *online teaching, the second/foreign language, English as a Foreign Language (EFL), sharing experience, online teaching resources*

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to prove that online teaching is not worse than the one in the classroom, it is different and it takes different skills, resources and techniques from a teacher. I would like also to share some of the best online teaching resources and activities that work the best while we teach online. They are the ones I have tested in my online teaching practice.

Online teaching has become an integral part of our education, especially since 2020, when universities and schools in Georgia started online teaching due to the pandemics but I have been teaching Georgian as a second language online earlier, since 2006. All the time as a reflective teacher interested in multimedia teaching I have been researching respective resources. Since March 2020 my research has become much more active in order to motivate stressed students, get them more involved in learning and even to have better results than when teaching in the classroom.

Methods

The methods of my unofficial research vary:

- I have attended numerous TEFL, TOT, training sessions and conferences on educational technologies
- I have constantly been searching for some new websites, apps and techniques while planning a new lesson
- I have a diverse classroom or online teaching/teacher training and experimenting experience

Results

As a result of the above-mentioned research I have gathered plenty of electronic and internet resources, which have proved to be really effective in practice.

The websites and activities I have discovered are listed below according to their teaching functions.

1. The websites for presenting new material, practicing, production (PPP) and testing it

- www.quizizz.com
(e.g. <https://quizizz.com/admin/quiz/5cad6f401f3b67001b3c7a5a/english-proverb>)

This site is the most practical, effective, entertaining, productive and convenient in my experience. A teacher can find a ready lesson on any topic and share the slides on the screen to present new material. When students have already learnt it, the teacher can find a quiz on the same topic and the whole class can practice it in the “preview” mode. The teacher may comment for clarity. This mode is very productive and less stressful for students, when they are at a practicing stage.

The same or similar quiz can be given as a live test, when we would like to test students and their rating is displayed on the dashboard. It is this dashboard and immediate results, as well as limited time frame (defined by a teacher) that makes Quizizz.com very convenient for testing. It can be used for both formative and summative testing. A teacher does not need to spend hours on checking students’ tests as their results are transparently and immediately displayed on the screen.

A teacher can give the same quiz as homework too and see the report of students’ results later.

Quizizz.com has plenty of ready-made lessons and quizzes on various EFL and other topics or other subjects and it makes the site very handy as a teacher can find an appropriate test in

the last minute to fill a gap or to practice different grammar, vocabulary, etc. Creating a new quiz or lesson is also very easy.

The colorful design, sound/music, fun memes and the bonus system makes the site truly multimedia one. All these provide students' complete concentration and involvement.

It is worth noting that quizizz.com has an app too.

- **www.baamboozle.com**
(e.g. <https://www.baamboozle.com/game/55556>)

This site has numerous ready-made lessons and games too. A teacher just needs to find a right grammatical or lexical topic on the website in the "games" section or he/she can design a new test himself/herself.

I use the "play" mode. I divide the class in two teams and they compete with each other giving a group answer, when it is their turn. Students are much more cautious before they give final answer in fear of losing points. On top of it the program sometimes orders to swap, to lose or to gain points for no reason. It causes a lot of emotions. The sense of unexpectedness and competitiveness between the teams provides full involvement, teamwork and the need to know the topic consciously. This way a lesson turns into a mixture of a game and learning/practicing. A teacher should help with facilitation and analysis.

- **wordwall.net**
(e.g. <https://wordwall.net/resource/3286388/subject-and-object-questions>)

This is one more site, where we can find plenty of ready activities on a topic of our interest or we can design one. Different fun modes make the test more enjoyable. Wordwall.net can be used for grammar, vocabulary, etc. The different function, for what I use this site the most frequently is speaking. We may find or create a list of questions or topics in the form of wheel of fortune or cards. All students randomly get their question or topic to speak about. It is ideal for breaking ice at the first lesson. The site can be used so that all students, even passive ones take part in a lesson.

- **www.quizlet.com**

This is a site of flashcards, frequently accompanied with a native-speaker's pronunciation. Quizlet is especially effective for vocabulary learning or revision. I use it for checking a class's or a student's knowledge. On one side of flashcards we can see a definition/translation or

picture of the word/phrase and if they know it, they can immediately check by clicking the flashcard. The program repeats the word, to which a student gives a wrong answer until it is learnt.

Quizlet has different modes: flashcards, learn, write, test, gravity. Like quizzz, it can be used for testing as well. In “live” mode students can be tested as individuals or as teams of up to four players. Quizlet is convenient for self-study and homework. Except from the site its respective app is also available too.

- **www.listenaminute.com**

(e.g. https://listenaminute.com/?fbclid=IwAR1361NENmqOv4lj3g6ovCYumA_rktuED5EHWJ3IMWKc_P4e_54HFw6UHSI)

This is the site that provides a huge amount of diverse topics each containing a small text, respective audio and exercises on reading, writing, spelling, speaking, etc. Students can select a desirable topic.

It can be used as a warming-up, a gap-filler, an additional activity on a taught topic, a homework, a vocabulary booster, etc.

2. The activities or techniques for teaching, revising and activating vocabulary

Vocabulary learning or revision techniques, games and activities online differ from face-to-face ones. These are the ones I have been successfully using:

Hangman on Zoom whiteboard

This is the activity, which takes no preparation, a teacher can select a word from a certain wordlist, e.g. from a covered unit and draws as many dashes on the Zoom whiteboard as there are letters in the word. At the same time he/she draws gallows. Students try to guess the word letter by letter, if the teacher draws all body parts or “hangs” them before they can guess the word, the students lose. If someone wins, she/he thinks a word.

Making a collective dictionary in Google.doc

A teacher / a student shares a document in Google.doc, where all students enter new vocabulary items, respective definitions/ translations and examples from the recently covered text. Each group is responsible for one paragraph only. Eventually they get a dictionary in a

short time. This website enables teachers and students to correct one another's mistakes in the file.

Writing a story

Breakout rooms in Zoom give us a wonderful chance for pair and group or team work. The way we can use the technique is e.g. writing a story collectively.

A teacher displays a set of words/phrases and asks the students to write a story. Students should use all of the vocabulary items in any sequence in it. The teacher may additionally specify the genre of the story, e.g. comedy, detective, etc. This activity can be done in Google.doc or MS Word in breakout rooms.

Another option of group story-writing is when we give the middle part of a text and students should write the beginning and the end of it.

PowerPoint can give additional effects to a presentation or a story, if students accomplish a text with pictures, special effects, audio, etc. They can write it on the topic they have just finished.

Story-writing is useful for developing cohesion and coherence skills, spelling, punctuation, usage of new words in a context, etc.

Dubbing a video

This activity takes a lot of preparation, teamwork and creativity. It should be given to a group of students as a homework or a project. There are several options how to do it depending on what we would like to achieve:

1. A group of students watch a video story with subtitles (e.g. this <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8D4nRi2juq0>) and they should get ready to read the lines of a narrator and other characters as close to the original as possible having turned off the volume.
2. Students may change the text making it funny or just different and role play it in front of the class again having the volume turned off.
3. Students get a short extract of a dynamic passage with a lot of facial expressions and context but without sound and they should dub the video improvising texts according to the contents.

These activities are not only fun but very productive too in order to elicit a lot of vocabulary and grammar, practice correct pronunciation and appropriate intonation.

3. The websites for correct pronunciation

- **Google Pronunciation**

(e.g. <https://www.google.com/search?q=entrepreneur+pronunciation>)

The quickest way to check correct pronunciation is to type any word in Google together with the word “pronunciation” and we get normal and slow ways of pronouncing the word correctly, also American and British versions of it.

- **howtopronounce.com**

This site not only provides the correct pronunciation, but also it enables learners to practice it recording their voices.

- **<https://www.naturalreaders.com/online/>**

There are many “text to speech” sites and apps but this website is one of the best ones. It enables us to paste or upload even whole texts, then we select a native speaker’s voice, a male’s or female’s, British or American accent (other accents are for fun or research, I suppose), we can also speed up or slow down reading.

This website can be very useful for students before a presentation, learning a new text, etc.

- **www.google.doc**

This site has **tools/voice typing** function, which enables users to dictate a text and it will be typed. This function can be used by a teacher to check students’ pronunciation. They say some words and if Google.doc “understands” and types correctly in the document, this pronunciation is acceptable.

4. The website for getting students’ feedback

www.surveymonkey.com

(e.g. https://www.surveymonkey.com/create/preview/?sm=PDglFG047L2wgsIwJByoOXmh5_2B9jm1HfEh9U84yymbE_3D&tab_clicked=1)

Zoom reactions is the simplest way to get all students’ feedback at a lesson. But for more comprehensive survey, poll or any other feedback www.surveymonkey.com is very useful. It

is simple, user-friendly and it gives statistics to see the full picture of our teaching, students' attitude, preferences, choices, recommendations, etc.

Conclusion

To summarise, online teaching can be much more colorful, entertaining, motivating and productive than typical classroom teaching. All the above-discussed resources, activities and techniques serve this purpose. Hopefully, other English and not only English teachers will find them interesting, productive and useful and they will benefit from my research.

References

- Gelashvili, Kh. (2021). August 28) #GYRSA pedagogebi saqartvelodan, presentation "Sharing of some effective multimedia, methods and activities for online teaching a foreign language" delivered at the online conference "Online education and digital transformation during the pandemic" organized by GYRSA, August 28, 2021 https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1PyVB_zX3GIQRD3gLXydbJTwmYQw9WdT0?fbclid=IwAR3-18z8KSoF8nB5AWJD6W7SgLV7sQG1FCR3Gzff42AaRrEQMwWDpfnsuFQ
- Spratt, Pulverness, Williams, (2012) - The TKT (Teaching Knowledge Test) Course, Mary Spratt, Alan Pulverness, Melanie Williams, Cambridge University Press, 2012.
- <http://www.quizizz.com>
- <https://wordwall.net>
- <https://wordwall.net>
- <https://www.baamboozle.com>
- <https://www.google.com>
- <https://www.google.doc>
- <https://www.listenaminute.com>
- <https://www.naturalreaders.com/online/>
- <https://www.quizlet.com>
- <https://www.surveymonkey.com>
- <https://www.utube.com>

Mariam Orkodashvili

Georgian American University, Tbilisi, Georgia

Expressing volition, imposition and latency through causatives

ABSTRACT

The present study analyzes the different ways in which causative structures in these languages express the ideas of causation, volition vs imposition, and temporal sequencing of actions. The examples have been gathered from media discourse (written and spoken examples of news reports, articles or discussions from electronic media), and informal conversations with the native speakers of the languages during interviews and discussions. The forms of expressing the concepts of *desire*, *wish*, *will* on the one hand, and the forms of *expressing imposition*, *request*, *incentive*, *order* or *involuntary action*, on the other, differ across languages from purely syntactic structures to morphological, or lexical-semantic means.

Latent causation is yet further interesting issue raised in the paper.

Keywords: *causative, causation, volition, imposition, latency*

Aims and research goals

The present research investigates the concept of causation and its expression in Indo-European and non-Indo-European languages on the examples of Georgian (non Indo-European), English, German and Russian (Indo-European) languages.

Causation is expressed through morphological affixation in the Georgian language and is constructed through syntax in most Indo-European languages, for instance, in German and English.

The forms of expressing the concepts of *desire*, *wish*, *will* on the one hand, and the forms of *expressing imposition*, *request*, *incentive*, *order* or *involuntary action*, on the other, differ across languages from purely syntactic structures to morphological, or lexical-semantic means.

Theoretical framework

Is there a presence of choice in causative actions? And if there is, then to what extent is its presence demonstrated through language? Does language present a material embodiment of our intentions, attitudes and desires that cause certain consequences? To what extent do linguistic units and structures convey the meanings of causality across languages? How transferrable is the idea of causation from one language to another?

Is willingness a conscious content that is prospectively causal of the subsequent motion? Or is it only retrospectively causal of motion? Or could a feeling that one causes a motor act be merely *an illusion of agency*? Is willingness the conscious feeling of being about to move? Or is it rather intending to move, or having an urge or desire to move? Is it a feeling that an imminent motion is agentially authored by oneself? And how are all these actions expressed through language? Moreover, how are causative actions transferred from one language to another language?

The list of questions could go endlessly further and could engender even more questions than answers due to the mysterious, dialectical, nebulous, controversial, and seemingly metaphysical nature of the issue of *causality* and *causation*. The problem has been raised by numerous scientists, philosophers and scholars in various fields of study. However, the questions have remained mainly unanswered or partially answered with many *buts* and *howevers* following (Chilton, 2014; Jackendoff, 2009; Parikh, 2010; Pearl, 2009).

Expressing causation across languages presents manifold interests from morphological, syntactic and typological standpoints. In grammar, the concept that is expressed through morphological derivation in one language (Georgian), can be expressed through syntactic structure in others (English). From semantic-pragmatic perspective, the interplay of precise semantic meaning of causation and pragmatic shades of meaning of imposition, request, incentive, voluntary or involuntary actions presents yet further points of interest.

Starting by speculative and explanatory realm, throughout the centuries, causatives moved to the empirical stance of explaining how things happened, and entered the responsibility sharing mode in the modern life. Therefore, the *why* approach changed into

the *how* approach and gradually entered the *whose responsibility* stance. David Hume argued that the *why* attitude was not the deep enough approach and offered the *how* approach instead. And since causal connections are the products of observations, we come to the epistemic, and not speculative, nature of causation.

And finally, as Judea Pearl very wittingly puts it, ‘explanations (*i.e. finding causes of actions*) are used exclusively for passing responsibilities’ (Pearl, 1999: 402), and ‘...the very essence of causation (is) the ability to predict the consequences of abnormal eventualities and new manipulations’ (Pearl, 1999, p. 415).

Methodology

The main methodology used in the research is cross linguistic and typological analysis. Constructing and conveying the ideas of causation and causatives in different languages are the research issues that yield noteworthy findings in language typology, linguistic psychology, and cognitive processes involved in language acquisition. Hence, causatives present an interesting psycholinguistic and typological topic to be researched.

Georgian language, for instance, offers complex verbal forms and affixation for expressing the concept of causation, while English has a specific syntactic structure for stating the same idea, and German and Russian offer further specific syntactic constructions for expressing the same concept.

Hence, causation bears one more testimony to the typological difference between analytic and agglutinative languages.

Data

The present study analyzes the different ways in which causative structures in these languages express the ideas of causation, volition vs imposition, and temporal sequencing of actions. The examples have been gathered from media discourse (written and spoken examples of news reports, articles or discussions from electronic media), and informal conversations with the native speakers of the languages during interviews and discussions.

Empirical study and findings

The most common English causative structures are: *have something done; get something done; have someone do something; get someone to do something* [the corresponding syntactic structures are: *have/get + DObj + V; have + IObj + V + DObj; get + IObj + to + Verb + DObj*]. These structures are used when a speaker gives another person responsibility to handle the task for him, i.e. causes certain action, state or condition through delegating responsibility, giving instructions, requesting, ordering, incentivizing, encouraging, inspiring, convincing, etc., for instance: *I had my car fixed; please, have your teacher send the forms to us; I got the letter finally published; I got her to finish the job*. It should be noted that the structures with *get* imply the meanings of additional effort, or persuasion from the speaker to cause the doer perform the task.

Causatives can also be expressed through the verb phrases with *make* or *let*, such as, *made him do something; let him do something* [the corresponding syntactic structures are: *make + IObj + V + (DObj); let + IObj + V + (DObj)*].

When we cause something to happen by force, we usually use the verb *make*, which means that another person has no say in the matter, since he is forced to do what he is told to. There is no choice or alternative, and hence, no free will. Moreover, the structure usually expresses the situation when a person does not want to do what he is made to do. Therefore, the verb structures imply the causation of the acts through coercion or imposition. The usual examples are: *she made me do the task; or the weather made us cancel the event*.

As for *let*, it expresses permission, in which case the performer of the action has more freedom of choice by receiving permission from the speaker. The end-result is the causation of a certain action, state or condition through granting permission to the performer of an action, e.g. *She let us go home; he let us take the books with us*.

In Georgian, there is a suffix expressing causative: *-ობ (-in) გავაკეთებ-ობ-ე* [gavak'eteb-in-e] (I made him/her do something; I had him/her do something). The interesting point is that the same suffix *-ობ (-in)* can express the ideas of imposition, coercion (*akin* to English: *made*), delegation of responsibility, request, order,

encouragement, convincing (as expressed through *have/get* structures of English) and permission (*akin* to English *let, allow permit*). Therefore, the Georgian suffix *-ობ* (*-in*) is one more evidence to the fact that imposition (coercion, forceful obligation) and permission (freedom of choice, free will) are the two flip sides of one coin, i.e. in this case, causation.

Following are some examples of causative structures:

Such a beautiful landscape made me write a song.

His enthusiasm makes me work harder.

We are encouraged to go on with the project.

It is well-known that causation entails in itself the primary meaning of imposition, responsibility, agency, and volition.

Examples:

a) *I had the car repaired.*

b) *She had the letter published.*

However, there are cases when involuntary causation occurs. This latter form is mainly expressed morphologically in synthetic and agglutinative languages (e.g. Georgian) and is transferred syntactically in analytical languages (e.g. English, German).

Example:

c) *ნამცხვარი მემომეჭამა.*

[Namcxvari šemomech'ama].

[I ate the entire cake without realizing it].

It literally means: *the cake was so delicious it made me eat it up without realizing the fact* (or, *I only realized it upon the completion of the eating process*).

One interesting case of causation is the verb *methinks* (Georgian *mepikreba*), which is no longer used in modern English and which is mostly used in Shakespeare's works. It expresses the involuntary mental or cognitive activity that makes an experiencer feel or think in a certain way. A rough analogy in modern English would be so-called tentative thought process expressed in the following way: *I should think (methinks), it will rain today.*

However, in Georgian such verbs that express involuntary mental or cognitive activity are in abundance, e.g.:

- d) *მეეჭვება* [*meech'veba*] [*I doubt it*; literal meaning: *it makes me doubt*];
- e) *მეადვილებს* [*meadvileba*] [*it is easy for me*; literal meaning: *it makes me feel that it is easy*];
- f) *მეწერინება* [*mec'erineba*] [*I write it*, literal meaning: *either inspiration or circumstances or my condition make me write something, say, a poem or a story*];
- g) *მეჩვენება* [*mechveneba*] [*it seems to me*, literal meaning: *I might be seeing or feeling things*].

The complex affixation system of the Georgian language makes it possible to express the involuntary causation in one single word. The preverb *me-* in such verbs presents a particular interest for morpho-semantic analysis, in which the first-person singular is expressed. Other points of interest are the suffixes *-in* and *-eb* express the meaning of involuntary causation.

The same idea in Russian and German are expressed through dative cases:

- h) Mn'e dumaets'a
- i) Mn'e nnavitsa
- j) Mir gefällt.

Besides, periphrastic causative constructions present a specially interesting case (I'll have you know – *č'k'vas gasc'avli*, causative also conveys the idea of threat). !!! It is noteworthy that while in English the structure is causative, Georgian corresponding translation offers an ordinary active voice version.

Another interesting case is of a double causative. The verbs like *მიგვზავნებო* [*migegzavnebi*], meaning: *I will go and talk to him instead of you*, could be named as *double causatives*, since they entail *double agency*, and hence, engender *double causation*. Here, doubling of agency happens as a result of one agent (the speaker) offering another agent (the listener) to perform the action in his stead (to go and talk to a third person), as if it was the second agent (the listener) asking the first agent (the speaker) to go and talk to the third

person on his behalf (for different reasons, e.g. being shy to talk to the third person himself, not being on the appropriate terms of talking with him, or not having enough competence, ability or will to talk to him). Therefore, the first agent (the speaker) is performing here the roles of both *a causer* and *a causee*. The interesting point here is that while in English the action could be expressed and explained by several syntactic structures, the Georgian complex affixation system makes it possible to accommodate the meanings if all the agents, patients and accompanying emotive (shyness, inability, social distance) *sememes* in one linguistic unit.

Another interesting quasi-causative form that the Georgian morphology can produce is *შემოგვედირექტორის* [*šemogvedirekt'ora*] (*behaved himself/herself in such a bossy way that gradually took the position of a director or any such kind of a bossy manager, without others realizing how it all happened, i.e. when others realized what had happened the agent had already acquired the managerial, directorial position*). The interesting *sememe* (giving additional shade of meaning to the verb) that the word entails is that the agent liked giving orders and instructing others so much that this bossy feature of his/her character caused him/her attain the managerial position, where people regarded him/her a director or manager, and hence, nobody noticed how all this happened till the end-result came about as a natural consequence.

The interesting questions that rise in this case are: how much volition, intention, purpose and how much unintended/involuntary action can be traced in this verb? How much of a causation is implied in it? Did the agent behave in a bossy manner intentionally to cause the result or did his/her natural bossy character brought about the result, as a natural consequence?

These types of complex morphological structures in synthetic languages, like Georgian, make it possible to produce the linguistic units that are interesting not only from structural-morphological viewpoint, but yield rich and manifold semantic-pragmatic interpretations as well. Besides, they are also interesting for the purposes of transferring the ideas of causation and volition from language to language. As the above definitions showed, the transfer of such complex morphological structures from Georgian into Indo-European

analytical language, such as English, requires several syntactic structures to fully explain and convey the expressed and implied shades of meanings entailed in the verb.

Causatives and inchoatives

Let us now consider the following prefixes and suffixes.

Causative prefixes: *be*-friend, *en*-rich, *em*-power, *en*-slave.

Causative suffixes: dark-*en*, soft-*en*, sharp-*en*; length-*en*; memor-*ize*; liber-*ate*

He dark-*en*-ed the room.

All the above suffixes and prefixes in one way or another express the idea of causation, whether through delegation of power or responsibility, through imposition or coercion, through physical or mental activity or effort that all engender certain results, and hence, cause certain condition, state or effect.

It should be noted that *-en* presents an interesting case, since it can be both causative and inchoative suffix. Compare the causative suffix *-en* in 'I dark-*en*-ed the room' with an inchoative suffix which does not imply causation but rather a natural phenomenon:

The room dark-en-ed (when it drew closer to night).

Causative frequencies

Douglas Biber present the usage frequencies of causative verbs: *help*, *let*, *allow* and *require*, per million words across four different registers: conversation, fiction, news and academic discourse. According to their corpus findings, *help* has the highest usage frequency in the news (media discourse), which is over 500 per million words; *let* is most frequent in conversations and fiction, with over 500 occurrences per million words in each; *allow* and *require* are most frequent in academic discourse with over 300 and 500 occurrences per million words respectively (Biber et al., 1999).

Besides, as already indicated above, there are verbs expressing causation: *affect*, *cause*, *enable*, *ensure*, *force*, *prevent* (with over 50 occurrences per million), and *assist*, *guarantee*, *influence*, *permit* (over 20 occurrences per million) (Biber, et al, 1999).

Let us now look at some German examples:

Ich lass mir ein Haus bauen.

Ich habe den Wagen reparieren lassen.

Sie lässt ihrem Wagen reparieren.

Man lässt uns gehen.

Die Beamtin hat mich nicht reden lassen.

Die Tür lässt sich öffnen. (Die Tür kann geöffnet werden).

Die Frau lässt es zu, daß man sie trägt.

Er lässt sich vom Friseur rasieren.

Ich lasse mir einen Mantel (von einem guten Schneider) nähen.

Er lässt sich von niemandem befehlen.

Die schwere Tür lässt sich von einem Kind nicht öffnen.

Der Junge bekommt ein Fahrrad von seinem Eltern geschenkt.

Unser Handeln muß sich dabei von dem Bewußtsein leiten lassen, daß wir für lange Zeit auf den jetzt studierenden und wissenschaftlich qualifizierenden Nachwuchs angewiesen sein werden.

As it can be observed from the above examples, the verb *lassen* expresses the meanings of both permission and causation, i.e. by permitting something to happen or to be done, the agent causes certain activities, states and results. Being an Indo-European language, German relies on syntactic means for constructing sentences to express causation.

As already noted, the cases with *let*, *lassen*, present an interesting case for causation, where the permission plays the so-called *agentive* role in engendering causation, implying that by letting something happen or letting someone have their own way, a speaker engenders (i.e. causes) certain actions, conditions or states. Therefore, as state, permission (let, allow, permit, lassen) present a flip side of imposition in one coin of causation.

Expressing causation through ergativity

Another interesting feature of the Georgian language is the presence of ergative constructions. The ergative case (or literally, the Narrative case, as it is referred to in

Georgian) presents a particularly interesting instance for cross linguistic comparative and typological analysis.

For instance, an interesting case of ergative construct triggering causation meaning is demonstrated in the following causative structure, where the additional meanings volition/involition are intertwined:

- k) შიშმა გადაამწყვეტინა [*šišma gadamac'q'vet'ina*], [*fear has made me make this decision*].

The present research makes a conjecture that not only do the ergative constructions denote the agent of the action but semantically they add extra shades of meaning of responsibility, intentionality, intentionality and in certain cases, causality to the entire statement.

Is the real causative power in latency?

Are the accompanying attitudes, actions (inactivities), emotions, mental activities, latent variables in causation? If yes, then, to what extent do they contribute to causality? Or do they rather contribute to the strength of causality? How much latency is hidden in the intentionality factor? To what extent do the attitudes, dispositions, emotions, mental activities form causality bonds with the consequential actions, states or events? And after all, do causatives always entail the meaning of causality in language and linguistic units?

As already mentioned, one widely spread assumption regarding causation in statistics is that there is no causation without manipulation. However, language structures are much more intricate and subtle both in their forms (phonology, morphology, syntax) and meanings (semantics, pragmatic) to limit their usage solely to manipulation. Unlike AI language, human language can produce more varied, creative and original structures that could tacitly imply meanings of causation, imposition or volition that indirectly bring about consequential states or conditions.

The latent nature of causation calls for the need to analyze the concept of fifth-dimensional *holographic memes* and *memeplexes* that are invisibly utilized in modern social media discourse and have the nature of widely spreading and affecting individuals,

communities and societies around the world. In the analogy of genes, *memes* and *memplexes* can be constructed, engineered, changed, manipulated and effectively spread across the globe in a matter of minutes thanks to modern day possibilities of information technologies.

Therefore, the hidden idea or meaning of causation (in the disguise of seemingly free will and choice) can be constructed through various linguistic or extralinguistic means and can be spread through world communities.

Distractors and latent quasi-causatives

The following cases can be regarded as distractors, since they do not convey the meaning of causation, or rather convey hidden latent indirect quasi-causation, and hence, the meaning of involuntary action (as discussed earlier the case of eating the whole cake up without realizing it) that is expressed through the complex affixation system in Georgian.

The following is another interesting case of latent or quasi-causative: *შემოგვაღამდა* [*šemogvayamda*], meaning we did not notice how it started to get dark (compare with the inchoative structure, in which the speakers notice the process of getting dark). However, the interesting fact about this verb in Georgian is that the complex affixation system makes the verb structure analogous to that of [*šemogveč'ama*] *შემოგვეჭამა* (*having eaten up the whole cake without realizing it*), which adds the hidden latent agency, and hence, causation to the semantic structure of the verb (which, like morphological structure, is also complex). The hidden causation of the verb implies that the agents, having worked hard throughout the day or having walked all through the day, did not notice how it started to get dark. Hence, their working or walking all through the day is a kind of another latent agent that made them work or walk till twilight.

Similarly, the verb *დაგვათეხდა* [*dagvatenda*], expresses the involuntary natural phenomenon of daybreak, i.e. we did not notice the daybreak (how the morning approached), but the interesting fact in this case is again the hidden (latent) seemingly-causative meaning that we intentionally did not go to sleep and worked all through the

night or walked all through the night, so that by the end of our activity it was already early morning. Therefore, our activity of working or walking is a kind of latent agent that made us stay awake till daybreak.

Concluding remarks

Individuals have symbolic consciousness. Causation is closely associated with symbolic consciousness of individuals. It is one of the strongest activators of conscious and subconscious symbols in a human mind. Moreover, causation is one of the strongest indicators and reflectors of mindset, attitude and disposition of a person. In this respect, the language reveals not only its communicative and expressive functions, but it also displays cognitive function and close links to brain. This latter case relates a person's linguistic performance to his / her mental disposition, and is an important part of understanding a thought process through linguistic analysis.

Furthermore, the analysis of causation also provides a window on interaction between grammar and meaning. In addition, it reveals how grammatical and structural processes interact with meaning (semantics) and human interaction processes (pragmatics).

Hence, constructing and conveying the ideas of causation and causatives in different languages and their comparative analysis of the relevant corpora are the research issues that could yield interesting findings in language typology, linguistic psychology, and cognitive processes involved in language acquisition, language usage and language research. Hence, causatives present an interesting psycholinguistic and typological topic to be researched.

In addition, comparative linguistics research and analysis of causative morphosyntactic forms could facilitate the compilation of significant volume of data reflecting this linguistic and psychological phenomenon across languages.

Therefore, the concept of causation requires further research in the fields of linguistics, linguistic typology, psycholinguistics, morphosyntax, semantics and corpus studies.

Finally, the cognitive aspect of understanding, interpreting and inferencing causative structures would add further asset to the studies and investigations in the field of cognitive linguistics.

References

- Baider, Fabienne & Georgeta Cislaru (eds.). (2014). *Linguistic Approaches to Emotions in Context*. John Benjamins Publishing Company: Amsterdam / Philadelphia.
- Baker, Paul. (2006). *Using Corpora in Discourse Analysis*. Continuum: London, New York.
- Biber, D., et al. (1999) *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. Longman Publishers.
- Biber & Douglas. (2006). *University Language. A corpus-based study of spoken and written registers*. Studies in Corpus Linguistics 23. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Brown, J. W. (1996). *Time, Will, and Mental Process*. Cognition and Language, A Series in Psycholinguistics. Plenum Press: New York and London.
- Dancygier, B. (1998). *Conditionals and prediction. Time, knowledge and causation in conditional constructions*. *Cambridge Studies in Linguistics, 87*. Cambridge University Press.
- Gilquin G., (2010). *Corpus, Cognition and Causative Constructions*. Studies in Corpus Linguistics 39. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Grandi, N., & Körtvélyessy (eds.). (2015). *Edinburgh Handbook of Evaluative morphology*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Hart, C., & Dominik L. (eds.). (2007). *Cognitive Linguistics in Critical Discourse Analysis. Application and Theory*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Pearl, J. (2009). *Causality. Models, Reasoning, and Inference*. Second Edition. Cambridge University Press.

Nana Saganelidze

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi, Georgia

Problems of teaching verb categories (contact, version and passive voice) of the Georgian language to non-native speakers

ABSTRACT

Teaching Georgian to non-native speakers, it is important to focus on categories students' first languages lack or express them in a different way. The paper discusses the formation of indirect contact, neutral version, and passive voice in verbs.

Infixes *-in-* and *-evin-* are used to form forms of indirect contact. They are added to infinitive forms without markers - *-in-* is used with stems containing vowels, and *-evin-* with stems without vowels. At the same time, prefix *a-* is added to verbs at the beginning, and the thematic marker *-eb* at the end. Like all other thematic markers, the latter disappears in the second series of conjugation.

Deriving version forms is a little more complicated, as there are neutral version forms without markers and with the prefix *a-*, subjective and objective version forms with the prefix *i-* for the first and second persons and *u-* for the third person in both singular and plural forms.

Neutral version is formed with the prefix *a-* in verbs with *eb-* and *ob-* thematic markers apart from several exceptions and verbs with the *am-* thematic marker, apart from one exception (as version is impossible in the third series of conjugation, examples are in the first and second series of conjugation): *a-šen-eb-s - a-a-šena, a-tb-ob-s - ga-a-tbo, a-b-am-s - da-a-ba*).

Thematic markers make no difference in forming subjective and objective version forms. If a verb is semantically able to have subjective and/or objective versions, verbs in the first and second series of conjugation take forms of subjective and/or objective version.

Forms of subjective version use prefix *i-*: *c'ers - i-c'ers, dac'era - da-i-c'era*.

In forms of objective version, verbs take the prefix *i-* in the first and second person and *u-* in the third person, both singular and plural. Like in the forms of indirect contact, the aforementioned rule of using person markers can be put to use: *m-i-c'ers is me, g-i-c'ers is šen, u-c'ers is mas/mat, gv-i-c'ers is čven, g-i-c'ert is tkven, u-c'er-en isini mas/mat*.

As for the passive voice, it can be formed with prefixes (*i-* and *e-*), a suffix (*-d*) and without any markers. Thematic markers and the presence/absence of a vowel in the infinitive play a role in forming verbs in the passive voice.

In the passive voice, prefixes are added to verbs with single stems (without thematic markers) and verbs with *-av*, *-am*, *-op*, *-i* thematic markers, those with vowel interchange, and some verbs with the *-ob* thematic marker.

Verbs with a vowel in the infinitive form the passive voice the thematic stems of the second series of conjugation: *xat'va – i-xat'eba*, *e xat'eba*; *breca – i-briceba*, *e-briceba*, while stems without vowels form the passive voice from the infinitive without markers. There are several such verbs with *-av* and *-eb* thematic markers, verbs with *-i*, *-am* and *-eb* thematic markers and some verbs with the *-ob* thematic marker: *šek'vr-a – i-k'vreba*, *e-k'vreba*; *da-d-eba – i-deba*, *e-deba*; *č'r-a – i-č'reba*, *e-č'reba*; *da-dgm-a – i-dgmeba*, *e-dgmeba*; *ga-q'op-a – i-q'opa*, *e-q'opa*; *da-xrč-oba – i-xrčoba*, *e-xrčoba*.

Verbs with a vowel and the *-eb* thematic marker, apart from two exceptions, form the passive voice with the suffix *-d* from the thematic stem of the second series of conjugation: *šen-eb-a – šen-d-eba*.

The passive voice is formed without markers from verbs with the *-ob* thematic markers. The thematic stems of the second series of conjugation are used as the roots: *ga-tb-ob-a – tb-eb-a*.

The passive voice with suffixes (with the *-d* suffix) is formed only in verbs with the *-eb* thematic marker. The passive voice markers is formed only in some verbs with the *-ob* thematic marker. Other verbs can form the passive voice only with the *i-* and *e-* prefixes.

Verbs in the passive voice with the prefix *e-* have only two persons (*emaleba is mas*). Other passive voice forms can have only one person (*imaleba is*, *c'itldeba is*, *idgmeba is*, *išleba is*, *iq'opa is*, *igrixeba is*, *xmeba is*).

The author hopes that this approach to these problems can help Georgian language learners.

Key words: *Georgian, contact, version, passive voice, formation.*

When teaching Georgian to non-native speakers, it is important that we focus on teaching such categories that their first languages do not have, or form them in a different way. In this paper we will discuss the formation of contact, version and passive voice in verbs.

Usage of subjective and objective person marks denoted through prefixes is noteworthy while teaching contact and version. Prefixes are used to mark objective person. Prefixes

denote the first subjective person as well; the second subjective person is marked only in two verbs (x-ar and mo-x-val), also with prefixes.

Mark of the subject person - prefix v- is used only when the subject is the first person and object is third person. In all other cases, marks of objective persons are used (except for the verbs of objective conjugation and the third series of subjective conjugation, where inversion takes place). When the object is the first or the second person, it makes no difference whether it is direct or indirect object, as they take the same marks¹:

S₁O₂ *g-c'er me šen², g- c'ert me tkven, g- c'ert čven šen (tkven)*

S₁O₃ *v- c'er me mas (mat), v- c'ert čven mas (mat)*

S₂O₁ *m-c'er šen me, m-c'ert tkven me, gv-c'er šen čven, gv-c'ert tkven čven*

S₂O₃ *s-c'er šen mas (mat), s-c'ert tkven mas (mat)*

S₃O₁ *m-c'ers is me, m-c'eren isini me, gv-c'ers is čven, gv-c'eren isini čven*

S₃O₂ *g-c'ers is šen/tkven, g-c'eren isini šen/tkven*

S₃O₃ *s-c'ers is mas (mat), s-c'eren isini mas (mat)*

Using this rule, those learning the language will easily conjugate verbs and make forms for any person and any type of causative forms and version (this goal was easily reached as I worked with non-Georgian students at Iv. Javakhishvili State University Kartvelology Summer School).

Contact

It is not enough to tell those learning Georgian that indirect contact form can be generated with the help of *-in-* and *-evin-* infixes. They should be told that these infixes are added to infinitives (without the ending mark *-a*). *-in-* is added to infinitive forms that contain vowels, while *-evin-* is added to infinitives that do not contain vowels.

Apart of this, infixes *-in-* and *-evin-* only are not sufficient for forming indirect contact. Verbs are added prefix *a-*, and thematic marker *-eb* at the end, which is not used

¹ Examples are given for indirect object marks only, as indirect objects take person mark for the third person as well, unlike direct objects. Pronouns for direct objects are not given here for the sake of clarity of the use of person marks.

² Pronouns corresponding with direct objects are not given here for the reason of more clarity.

in the second series of conjugation. Here, we use the above-mentioned rule of the usage of subject and object person marks: *xat'v-a* → *m-a-xat'v-in-eb-s*, *da-m-a-xat'v-in-a*, *dauxat'v-in-eb-ia*; *še-k'vr-a* → *m-a-k'vr-evin-eb-s*, *še-m-a-k'vr-evin-a*, *šeuk'vr-evin-eb-ia*; *ga-sxvl-a* → *m-a-sxvl-evin-eb-s*, *ga-m-a-sxvl-evin-a*, *gausxvl-evin-eb-ia*; *da-c'vn-a* → *m-a-c'vn-evin-eb-s*, *da-m-a-c'vn-evin-a*, *dauc'vn-evin-eb-ia*; *šeneba* → *m-a-šeneb-in-eb-s*, *a-m-a-šeneb-in-a*, *aušeneb-in-eb-ia*; *a-nteb-a* → *m-a-nteb-in-eb-s*, *a-m-a-nteb-in-a*, *aunteb-in-eb-ia*; *txr-a* → *m-a-txr-evin-eb-s*, *ga-m-a-txr-evin-a*, *gautxr-evin-eb-ia*; *t'k'epn-a* → *m-a-t'k'epn-in-eb-s*, *da-m-a-t'k'epn-in-a*, *daut'k'epn-in-eb-ia*; *da-sxm-a* → *m-a-sxm-evin-eb-s*, *da-m-a-sxm-evin-a*, *dausxm-evin-eb-ia*; *ga-q'op-a* → *m-a-q'op-in-eb-s*, *ga-m-a-q'op-in-a*, *gauq'op-in-eb-ia*; *ga-tbob-a* → *m-a-tbob-in-eb-s*, *ga-m-a-tbob-in-a*, *gautbob-in-eb-ia*; *grex-a* → *m-a-grex-in-eb-s*, *da-m-a-grex-in-a*, *daugrex-in-eb-ia* (If we had not generated indirect contact forms from infinitives, we would have *damaxat'ina* instead of *damaxat'vina*, *gamasxlevina* instead of *gamasxvlevina*, *damac'nevina* instead of *damac'vnevina*, *damagrixina* instead of *damagrexina* in the second series of conjugation).

Version

Of the verb categories, version and the active and passive forms are especially noteworthy.

Armenian (and other Indo-European languages that I am aware of) have no notion of version. That is why my Armenian neighbor used to tell me: “Nana, švilo, iseti k'argi cxeli borši makvs, ar ginda, *dagasxa?*” [“Nana, we have some nice hot broth, would you like me to pour it on you?”] Armenian does not differentiate between *davasxa*, *davisxa*, *davusxa*, *dagasxa*, *dagisxa* forms. For all of these forms it uses a single form.

Language-learners should be explained the notion of version: *mxat'vari xat'avv surats* (a painter is drawing a picture), we do not know who the picture is for and who is going to buy it; *mxat'vari ixat'avv surats* (it means that the painter does not intend to sell or give it to somebody, he/she wants it for himself/herself); *mxat'vari uxat'avv surats* (the form *uxat'avv* means that the painter wants the picture for somebody else and intends to sell it or give it as a present to someone else). In the first case, the verb is of neutral version, in the second it is of subjective version and in the third case it is of objective version.

Understanding the meaning of version is easy. As for deriving version forms, it is a little more complicated, as there are neutral version forms without markers and with the prefix *a-*, subjective version with the prefix *i-* for all persons, and objective version forms with the prefix *i-* for the first and second persons and *u-* for the third person in both singular and plural forms.

Neutral version is formed with the prefix *a-* in verbs with *eb-*, *ob-* and *am-* thematic markers.

Verbs with *-eb* thematic marks, except for several exceptions, form neutral version with *a-* prefix (as version is impossible in the third series of conjugation, examples are in the first and second series of conjugation): *šen-eb-a* → *a-šen-eb-s*, *a-a-šena*; *k'et-eb-a* → *a-k'et-eb-s*, *ga-a-k'et-a*; *ga-čer-eb-a* → *a-čer-eb-s*, *ga-a-čer-a*; *ga-xun-eb-a* → *a-xun-eb-s*, *ga-a-xun-a*; *qeb-a* → *a-k-eb-s*, *a-k-o*; *a-geb-a* → *a-g-eb-s*, *a-a-g-o* and so on. There are several exceptions – *dabadeba*, *dak'ideba*, *dadeba*, *bržaneba*, *dat'oveba* that derive version without a marker *a-* prefix: *badebs* – *dabada*, *k'idebs* – *dak'ida*, *bržanebs* – *bržana*, *t'ovebs* – *dat'ova*.

Also, except for several exceptions, verbs with *-ob* thematic marker derive neutral version with *a-* prefix: *ga-tb-ob-a* → *a-tb-ob-s*, *ga-a-tbo*; *ga-xm-ob-a* → *a-xm-ob-s*, *ga-a-xmo*; *gamo-cx-ob-a* → *a-cx-ob-s*, *ga-mo-a-cxo*; *dn-ob-a* → *a-dn-ob-s*, *da-a-dno*; *ga-lx-ob-a* → *a-lx-ob-s*, *ga-a-lxo*; *da-c'q'-ob-a* → *a-c'q'-ob-s*, *da-a-c'q'o* and so on. Exceptions are: *šoba*, *datmoba*, *dagmoba* and *mosp'oba* that form neutral version without the *a-* prefix: *š-ob-s* – *šva*, *tm-ob-s* – *da-tmo*, *gm-ob-s* – *da-gmo*, *sp'-ob-s* – *mo-sp'o*.

Of verbs with *-am* thematic marker, *a-* prefix is used for forming neutral version in *dabma*, *dart'q'ma* and *dasxma*: *a-b-am-s*, *da-a-ba*; *a-rt'q'-am-s*, *da-a-rt'q'a*; *a-sx-am-s*, *da-a-sxa*.

Dadgma derives neutral version without *a-* prefix: *dg-am-s*, *da-dga*.

All verbs without thematic markers (single-theme), verbs with *-av-*, *-i-*, *-op* thematic markers and verbs with vowel interchange form neutral version without *a-* prefix: *c'er-a* → *c'er-s*, *da-c'era*; *xat'v-a* → *xat'av-s*, *da-xat'a*; *še-k'vr-a* → *k'r-av-s*, *še-k'ra*; *da-c'vna* → *c'n-av-s*, *da-c'na*; *ga-sxlv-a* → *sxl-av-s*, *ga-sxla*; *txr-a* → *txr-i-s*, *ga-txara*; *ga-q'-op-a* → *q'-op-s*, *ga-q'o*; *grex-a* → *grexs*, *dagrixa*.

Forming subjective and objective version is simple. Thematic markers make no difference in forming subjective and objective version forms. If a verb is semantically able to have subjective and/or objective versions, verbs in the first and second series of conjugation take markers of subjective and/or objective version.

Forms of subjective version use prefix *i-*: *c'er-s* → *i-c'er-s*, *da-c'era* → *da-i-c'era*; *xat'av-s* → *i-xat'av-s*, *da-xat'a* → *da-i-xat'a*; *k'ravs* → *i-k'ravs*, *šek'ra* → *še-i-k'ra*; *sxlavs* → *i-sxlavs*, *gasxla* → *ga-i-sxla*; *c'n-av-s* → *i-c'n-av-s*, *dac'na* → *da-i-c'na*; *ak'eteb-s* → *i-k'eteb-s*, *gaak'eta* → *ga-i-k'eta*; *txris* → *i-txris*, *gatxara* → *ga-i-txara*; *a-sxams* → *i-sxams*, *da-asxa* → *da-i-sxa*; *q'op-s* → *i-q'ops*, *ga-q'o* → *ga-i-q'o*; *a-tbobs* → *i-tbobs*, *ga-atbo* → *ga-i-tbo*; *grexs* → *i-grexs*, *da-grixa* → *da-i-grixa*.

In forms of objective version, verbs take the prefix *i-* in the first and second person and *u-* in the third person. Like in the forms of indirect contact, the aforementioned rule of using person markers can be put to use: *m-i-c'er is me*, *g-i-c'ers is šen*, *u-c'ers is mas/mat*, *gv-i-c'ers is čven*, *g-i-c'ert is tkven*, *u-c'er-s is mas/mat*, *m-i-xat'av-s is me*, *g-i-xat'av-s is šen*, *u-xat'av-s is mas/mat*, *gv-i-xat'av-s is čven*, *g-i-xat'avt is tkven*, *u-xat'av-s is mas/mat*, *m-i-šenebs is me*, *g-i-šenebs is šen*, *u-šenebs is mas/mat*, *gv-i-šenebs is čven*, *g-i-šenebt is tkven*, *u-šenebs is mas/mat*; *m-i-cxobs is me*, *g-i-cxobs is šen*, *u-cxobs is mas/mat*, *gv-i-cxobs is čven*, *g-i-cxobt is tkven*, *u-cxobs is mas/mat*; *m-i-dgams is me*, *g-i-dgams is šen*, *u-dgams is mas/mat*, *gv-i-dgams is čven*, *g-i-dgamt is tkven*, *u-dgams is mas/mat*; *m-i-q'ops is me*, *g-i-q'ops is šen*, *u-q'ops is mas/mat*, *gv-i-q'ops is čven*, *g-i-q'opt is tkven*, *u-q'ops is mas/mat*; *m-i-zrdis is me*, *g-i-zrdis is šen*, *u-zrdis is mas/mat*, *gv-i-zrdis is čven*, *g-i-zrdit is tkven*, *u-zrdis is mas/mat*; *m-i-k'reps is me*, *g-i-k'reps is šen*, *u-k'reps is mas/mat*, *gv-i-k'reps is čven*, *g-i-k'rept is tkven*, *u-k'reps is mas/mat*.

Passive Voice

As for the passive voice, it can be formed with prefixes (*i-* and *e-*), a suffix (*-d*) and without any markers. Thematic markers and the presence/absence of a vowel in the infinitive play a role in forming verbs in the passive voice.

In the passive voice, prefixes are added to verbs with single stems (without thematic markers) and verbs with *-av*, *-am*, *-op*, *-i* thematic markers, those with vowel interchange.

Verbs with a vowel in the infinitive form the passive voice the thematic stems of the second series of conjugation, while stems without vowels form the passive voice from the infinitive without markers. (There are several such verbs with *-av* and *-eb* thematic markers, verbs with *-i*, *-am* and *-eb* thematic markers.)

The formation of passive voice for verbs with single stems:

c'er-a → *i- c'er-eb-a*, *e- c'er-eb-a*; *ban-a* → *i-ban-eb-a*, *e-ban-eb-a*; *ksov-a* → *i-ksov-eb-a*, *e-ksov-eb-a*; *k'vet-a* → *i- k'vet-eb-a*, *e- k'vet-eb-a*; *k'vec-a* → *i- k'vec-eb-a*, *e- k'vec-eb-a*; *xvec'a* → *i-xvec'-eb-a*, *e-xvec'-eb-a*; *čeča* → *i-čeč-eb-a*, *e-čeč-eb-a*; *čexa* → *i-čex-eb-a*, *e-čex-eb-a*.

The formation of passive form in verbs with *-av* thematic marker:

mal-v-a → *i-mal-eb-a*, *e-mal-eb-a*; *xat'va* → *i-xat'ateba*, *e-xat'eba*; *k'umšva* → *i-k'umš-eb-a*, *e-k'umš-eb-a*; *kargva* → *i-karg-eb-a*, *e-karg-eb-a*; *p'ranč'va* → *i-p'ranč'-eb-a*, *e-p'ranč'-eb-a*; *tutkva* → *i-tutk-eb-a*, *e-tutk-eb-a*; *c'urva* → *i- c'ur-eb-a*, *e-c'ur-eb-a*; *xutva* → *i-xut-eb-a*, *e-xut-eb-a*; *recxva* → *i-recx-eb-a*, *e-recx-eb-a*; *t'usva* → *i- t'us-eb-a*, *e- t'us-eb-a*.

The formation of passive voice for verbs without a vowel in stem with *-av* thematic marker from the infinitive:

da-rgv-a → *i-rgv-eb-a*, *e-rgv-eb-a*; *da-pkv-a* → *i-pkv-eb-a*, *e-pkv-eb-a*; *mo-rc'q'va* → *i-rc'q'v-eb-a*, *e-rc'q'v-eb-a*; *da-rtva* → *i-rtv-eb-a*, *e-rtv-eb-a*; *txzva* → *i-txzv-eb-a*, *e-txzv-eb-a*.

Verbs with *-av* thematic markers without a vowel in the stem, the infinitives of which end on *-vra*, *-vla* and *-vna* (with thematic markers in the stem), form the passive voice from the infinitive:

še-k'-v-r-a → *i-k'-v-r-eb-a*, *e-k'-v-r-eb-a*; *da-ʒ-v-r-a* → *i-ʒ-v-r-eb-a*; *x-v-r-a* → *i-x-v-r-eb-a*;

da-k'-v-l-a → *i- k'-v-l-eb-a*, *e-k'-v-l-eb-a*; *ga-sx-v-l-a* → *i-sx-v-l-eb-a*, *e-sx-v-l-eb-a*;

x-v-n-a → *i-x-v-n-eb-a*, *e-x-v-n-eb-a*; *da- c'-v-n-a* → *i-c'-v-n-eb-a*, *e- c'-v-n-eb-a*.

Verbs with the same ending, but with a vowel in the stem derive passive voice forms from the second series of conjugation: *čagr-v-r-a* → *i-čagr-eb-a*, *e-čagr-eb-a*; *mo-xib-v-l-a* → *i-xibl-eb-a*, *e-xibl-eb-a*; *ga-sap'-v-n-a* → *i-sap'n-eb-a*, *e-sap'n-eb-a*.

Verbs with *-i* thematic markers form passive voice from the infinitive trimmed off the marker, as other stems without vowels:

tl-a → *i-tl-eb-a*, *e-tl-eb-a*; *ga-zrd-a* → *i-zrd-eb-a*, *e-zrd-eb-a*; *tvl-a* → *i-tvl-eb-a*, *e-tvl-eb-a*; *txr-a* → *i-txr-eb-a*, *e-txr-eb-a*; *ga-svr-a* → *i-svr-eb-a*, *e-svr-eb-a*; *c'a-šl-a* → *i-šl-eb-a*, *e-šl-eb-a*; *č'ra* → *i-č'r-eb-a*, *e-č'r-eb-a*.

Verbs with vowel interchange form passive voice from the stem of the second series of conjugation:

gřex-a → *i-gřix-eb-a*, *e-gřix-eb-a*; *břec-a* → *i-břic-eb-a*, *e-břic-eb-a*; *glež-a* → *i-glíž-eb-a*, *e-glíž-eb-a*; *dyveb-a* → *i-dyvib-eb-a*, *e-dyvib-eb-a*; *znek-a* → *i-znik-eb-a*, *e-znik-eb-a*; *k'rep-a* → *i-k'rip-eb-a*, *e-k'rip-eb-a*; *křeč'-a* → *i-krič'-eb-a*, *e-krič'-eb-a*.

The formation of passive forms for verbs with *-am* thematic markers from the infinitive:

da-bm-a → *i-bm-eb-a*, *e-bm-eb-a*; *da-sxm-a* → *i-sxm-eb-a*, *e-sxm-eb-a*; *da-dgm-a* → *i-dgm-eb-a*, *e-dgm-eb-a*.

Passive voice forms for verbs with *-op* thematic markers are also derived from infinitive: *ga-q'op-a* → *i-q'op-a*, *e-q'op-a*

As for the verbs with *-ob* thematic markers, a part of them form the passive voice without markers. The thematic stems of the second series of conjugation are used as the roots: *ga-tb-ob-a* → *tb-eb-a*; *ga-šr-ob-a* → *šr-eb-a*; *ga-xm-ob-a* → *xm-eb-a*; *da-dn-ob-a* → *dn-eb-a*; *ga-ly-ob-a* → *lyv-eb-a*; *da-t'k'b-ob-a* → *t'k'b-eb-a*; *č'k'n-ob-a* → *č'k'n-eb-a*; *ča-krob-a* → *kr-eb-a*; *tr-ob-a* → *tvr-eb-a*; *cx-ob-a* → *cxv-eb-a*.

A part of verbs with *-ob* thematic markers form passive voice with *i-* and *e-* prefixes like other stems without vowels:

da-xrč-ob-a → *i-xrč-ob-a*, *e-xrč-ob-a*; *c'rt-ob-a* → *i-c'rt-ob-a*, *e-c'rt-ob-a*; *nd-ob-a* → *i-nd-ob-a*, *e-nd-ob-a*; *mq'n-ob-a* → *i-mq'n-ob-a*, *e-mq'n-ob-a*; *cn-ob-a* → *i-cn-ob-a*, *e-cn-ob-a*; *tm-ob-a* → *i-tm-ob-a*, *e-tm-ob-a*; *gm-ob-a* → *i-gm-ob-a*, *e-gm-ob-a*; *mo-sp'-ob-a* → *i-sp'-ob-a*, *e-sp'-ob-a*. Passive voice for these verbs are formed without *-eb* suffix.

Verbs with a vowel and the *-eb* thematic marker, apart from two exceptions, form the passive voice with the suffix *-d* from the thematic stem of the second series of conjugation:

šen-eb-a → *šen-d-eb-a*; *k'et-eb-a* → *k'et-d-eb-a*; *ga-t'ar-eb-a* → *t'ard-eb-a*; *da-lag-eb-a* → *lag-d-eb-a*; *ga-q'uč-eb-a* → *q'uč-d-eb-a*; *ga-čer-eb-a* → *čer-d-eb-a*; *ga-xun-eb-a* → *xun-d-eb-a*; *da-ob-eb-a* → *ob-d-eb-a*; *da-č'aob-eb-a* → *č'aob-d-eb-a*; *a-did-eb-a* → *did-d-eb-a*.

Verbs with *-eb* thematic markers with a vowel in the stem do not form passive voice with *i-* or *e-* prefixes.

The exceptions are *da-bad-eb-a* and *da-k'id-eb-a*, which form the passive voice with *i-* and *e-* prefixes, not with *d-* suffix: *i-bad-eb-a*, *e-bad-eb-a*, *i-k'id-eb-a*, *e-k'id-eb-a*. Verbs that take *eb-* thematic markers without vowels form passive voice with *i-* and *e-* prefixes from infinitives trimmed off the markers, as all stems without vowels:

a-nt-eb-a → *i-nt-eb-a*, *e-nt-eb-a*; *a-vs-eb-a* → *i-vs-eb-a*, *e-vs-eb-a*; *k-eb-a* → *i-k-eb-a*, *e-keb-a*; *a-g-eb-a* → *i-g-eb-a*, *e-g-eb-a*; *ga-γ-eb-a* → *i-γ-eb-a*, *e-γ-eb-a*; *da-c'q'-eb-a* → *i-c'q'-eb-a*, *e-c'q'-eb-a*; *ga-vl-eb-a* → *i-vl-eb-a*, *e-vl-eb-a*; *da-d-eb-a* → *i-d-eb-a*, *e-d-eb-a*.

According to Akaki Shanidze, the formation of passive voice with prefixes is characteristic for denominative verbs: *mdidari* – *mdidr-d-eba*, *mc'vane* – *mc'van-d-eba*, *mc'are* – *mc'ar-d-eba*, *mxeci* – *mxec-d-eba*, *mt'k'ice* – *mt'k'ic-d-eba*, *zveli* – *zvel-d-eba* and so on. (Shanidze, 1953)

I believe that passive voice is formed through prefixes for denominative verbs with *-eb* thematic marker: *mdidari* → *gamdidre-eb-a* – *mdidr-d-eba*, *mc'vane* → *gamc'van-eb-a* – *mc'van-d-eba*, *zveli* → *da-zvel-eb-a* – *zvel-d-eba*.

As for denominative verbs without thematic markers (single-stem) and with *-av* thematic markers, they form passive voice through prefixes: *toxi* → *toxn-a* – *i-toxneba*, *e-toxneba*; *zyveni* → *mizyvna* – *e-zyvneba*; *bari* → *bar-v-a* – *i-bareba*, *e-bareba*; *beč'edi* → *beč'd-v-a* – *i-beč'deba*, *e-beč'deba*; *santeli* → *gasantl-v-a* – *i-santleba*, *e-santleba*; *c'amali* → *moc'am-v-l-a* – *i-c'amleba*, *e-c'amleba*.

Denominative verbs with *-ob* thematic marker form passive voice without markers: *tbili* → *gath-ob-a* – *tbeba*; *t'k'bili* → *dat'k'b-ob-a* – *t'k'beba*; *prtxili* → *daprtx-ob-a* – *prtxeba*; *xmeli* → *gaxm-ob-a* – *xmeba*.

The above-mentioned once again proves that the type of formation of passive voice depends on thematic markers.

I believe the rules formulated in this article on the usage of prefixal person marks for the formation of contact, version and passive form, derived by me during the process of teaching Georgian to non-native speakers will facilitate Georgian language teachers working with both non-Georgian and Georgian students.

References

Shanidze, (1953). Akaki Shanidze, “kartuli gramatikis sapuzvlebi”, Tbilisi: Tbilisi State University, 1, 298. 1953.

Khatuna Buskivadze

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi, Georgia

Functions and Frequency of Using Code-switching in CLIL Lesson (Case Study, teaching Math (CLIL) in the private school, Tbilisi)

ABSTRACT

The aim of the present study is to investigate the sociolinguistic functions and frequency of Teacher's Code Switching (CS) in the content and language integrated (CLIL) Lesson. Furthermore, our purpose is to reveal students' and teacher's attitudes towards teacher's code-switching in CLIL lesson. After a brief review of the literature concerning CLIL and the issue of code-switching the case study of teaching Math (Educational discourse) in one of the private schools in Tbilisi will be outlined as data, gathered by means of anonymous questionnaires, which were administered among students in the above-mentioned Math classes. Moreover, the qualitative research aims to single out the number of teacher's CS examples and analyze the interview with math's teacher. The results show that there are 36 cases of teacher using L1 (Georgian) in 10 lessons (9 hours). Math's teacher's CS behavior mostly serves (1) the conversational function of interjection; (2) the classroom functions of introducing unfamiliar materials and topics, explaining difficult concepts, maintaining classroom discipline and the structure of the lesson; The teacher and 13 students have negative attitudes towards using only Georgian in teaching Math's. The higher level of English the students have the more negative is attitude towards using Georgian in the classroom. Although all the students were Georgian, their competence in English is almost as high as in their mother tongue, therefore they consider English as an inseparable part of their identities.

Keywords: *Attitudes, Bilingualism, Code-Switching, CLIL, Conversational analysis, Interactional Sociolinguistics.*

1. Introduction

Nowadays, Georgian society struggles to become the part of the European world, the English language itself plays a role in forming new generations with European values. So, these days English is gaining the status of second language in Georgia. Due to the demand of current socio-political situation in the country English is becoming a language of instruction in more and more private schools of Tbilisi. Therefore, the use of L1 in CLIL classroom is an issue of great importance for all CLIL teachers in our country since it is a resource that teachers and

students may use to achieve a specific communicative purpose, improve their students' competences in the subject area.

Code-switching is “the systematic alternating use of two languages or language varieties within a single conversation or utterance” (Lightbown, 2001, 598). In the context of CLIL classroom, it can be defined as the alternate use of the students' and teachers' mother tongue and the target language as the interaction tool in the classroom. Skiba asserts that code-switching “provides continuity in speech rather than presenting an interference in language” (Skiba, 1997, 2). He states that code-switching should be viewed as a linguistic advantage rather than an obstacle in communication.

In the given study, code-switching is considered as a resource in CLIL lesson rather than a problem since it helps non-language subject teachers not only to strengthen the rapport with their students but also to impart content knowledge to students. The novelty of the present research is findings in Georgian educational discourse. The number of studies that have examined Georgian teachers' code-switching, from the sociolinguistic perspective, in this type of multilingual programs is almost non-existence. Both, quantitative and qualitative research methods are used to show a better picture of functions and frequency of using CS in CLIL lesson.

This study thus seeks to answer the following Research Questions: 1. What is the students' attitude towards teacher's code switching in Math's (CLIL) classes? 2. What is the teacher's attitude towards teacher's Code switching in Math's (CLIL) classes? 3. What are the sociolinguistic and classroom functions teacher assigns to his CS behavior in Math's classes? 4. What can results show about what values speakers assign to different languages?

Before the response to the above-given questions, some theoretical background of the study will be outlined.

1.1 Theoretical background of the research

The paper uses the concepts of the several scholars (Ferguson, 2009; Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, etc.).

The term code is defined as “a set of conventions for converting one signaling system into another” (Crystal, 2003). In sociolinguistics, the term ‘Code’ derives from Bernstein's controversial work (Bernstein, 1971, Bernstein, 1973). Code refers to the language and a variety

of language which are transmitted by different groups in social situations (Mey, 1998; Swann, 2004).

Code-switching is defined as alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence, or constituent. According to Gumperz, code-switching is “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to different grammatical systems or subsystems” (Gumperz, 1982, p. 59). The general definition of codeswitching is “the use of two languages, varieties in the same conversation” (Myers-Scotton, 2006, p. 239).

The code refers to the language (English and Georgian) in the given study. As for code switching, it states alternative uses of both, English and Georgian in the same conversation.

From the sociolinguistic perspective there are several studies concerning the different types of code-switching (Appeal and Musken, 1987; Milroy, 1987; Gardener-Chloros, 1995, 2005; Myers-Scotton, 1983, Myers-Scotton, 2001) to determine how to identify the roles of each language in the community and the motivation of the speakers to switch codes. Based on a sociolinguistic approach, the speakers’ incentives of choosing a particular code are determined by several aspects: ‘the topic of the conversation, the participants, the setting, and the affective aspect of the message’ (Hamers and Blanc, 2000, p. 266). The earliest studies on code-switching were done by Gumperz who distinguishes between the situational and metaphorical code-switching (Gumperz, 1976). Situational code-switching deals with the change in the situation the speakers are exposed to while metaphorical code-switching implicates language choice to attain special communicative effects.

The focus of Gumperz’s work is on discourse and function as well as on speakers and settings. He suggests the conversation analyzing factors: a topic of discourse, speakers, their strategies as well as settings.

1.2 Two approaches to code-switching

Code-switching can be studied from several perspectives. There are some of them: the structural, the macro-sociolinguistic, conversation analytic and interactional sociolinguistics approaches. The table given below represents the comparison between interactional sociolinguistic and conversation analytic approaches.

Table 1. Comparison of two approaches (IS and CA)

Interactional Sociolinguistic approach	Conversation analytic approach
Electronic recordings, recorded naturally occurring talk, transcription.	
Interaction, conversation	
Meaning making interpretation process	Structure organization of the conversation
Dialectology/anthropology	Orderliness and structure of interaction
Social and cultural diversity focus Social diversity and cultural meanings	No cultural variation and meanings. Cultural judgments are seen subjective and misguided as accurate.

Interactional sociolinguistics grow out of traditions (dialectology and anthropology). Thus, cultural pragmatic knowledge and ethnographic methods are used to help interpret social interaction (Bailey, 2015).

Conversation analysis, in contrast, generally rejects such ethnographic methods and tries to limit the application of cultural knowledge from contexts outside the interaction. The conversation analysts attempt to collect many instances of a structure of interest and show that the participants in interaction are orienting to that structure in consistent ways.

In the given study we aim to use both approaches in combination.

1.3 Content and Language Integrated learning (CLIL) in Georgia

‘Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is a dual-focused education approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching both content and language.’ [Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p.1]

Based on our research conducted in 2019, out of all 114 private schools in Tbilisi, full-programs of CLIL are taught in 7 schools, while only some subjects using CLIL are conducted in 3 schools. The goal of the former research was to define the features of Content and Language Integrated learning (CLIL) methodology within the process of teaching English on the Example of Georgian private high schools. Since 1990s bilingual education has had a role in Georgia. As for CLIL methodology, it has become popular last 5-6 years in our country. With the help of qualitative research (interview) and quantitative (questionnaire for CLIL teachers) we came to the following conclusions (some of them are provided below):

- Most teachers interviewed have more than 10 years of experience in teaching their subjects as well as conducting CLIL lessons.
- CLIL teachers do not collaborate with the English language teachers.
- CLIL teachers believe that students' age characteristics, interests and competence in the foreign language and subject are considered in their CLIL lessons.
- Teachers reckon that using CLIL methodology increases students' motivation.
- CLIL teachers consider that using CLIL methodology improves the subject knowledge as well as the foreign language competence.
- Most of the teachers surveyed states that the students' motivation is high not only at the lessons but also in terms of doing their homework.
- The CLIL teachers claimed that they use additional materials together with the coursebooks which are 100% in English.
- In contrast to English as a foreign language teaching, the priority of teaching CLIL is the functional and pragmatic usage of the foreign language.

David Graddol in his book 'English Next' wrote about the world now viewing English not so much as a language but as a core skill (Graddol, 2006, p.15). Georgia, as a pro-western country, agrees on the importance of having English as a core skill in the school curriculum.

The school of our case study has both Georgian and English sectors for their students. The subjects, Math, Chemistry, Physics, History, are taught in English. Moreover, the exams of the above-mentioned subjects are passed in English by those students who want to continue studying abroad.

1.4. Functions of Classroom CS (EFL)

Our research is based on two categorizations of Classroom code-switching out of which one is suggested by Ferguson, who explored the role of the code switching across different classroom context, outlined three broad functional categories:

1. Code switching for curriculum access.
2. Code switching for classroom discourse management.
3. Code Switching for Interpersonal relations (Ferguson, 2003).

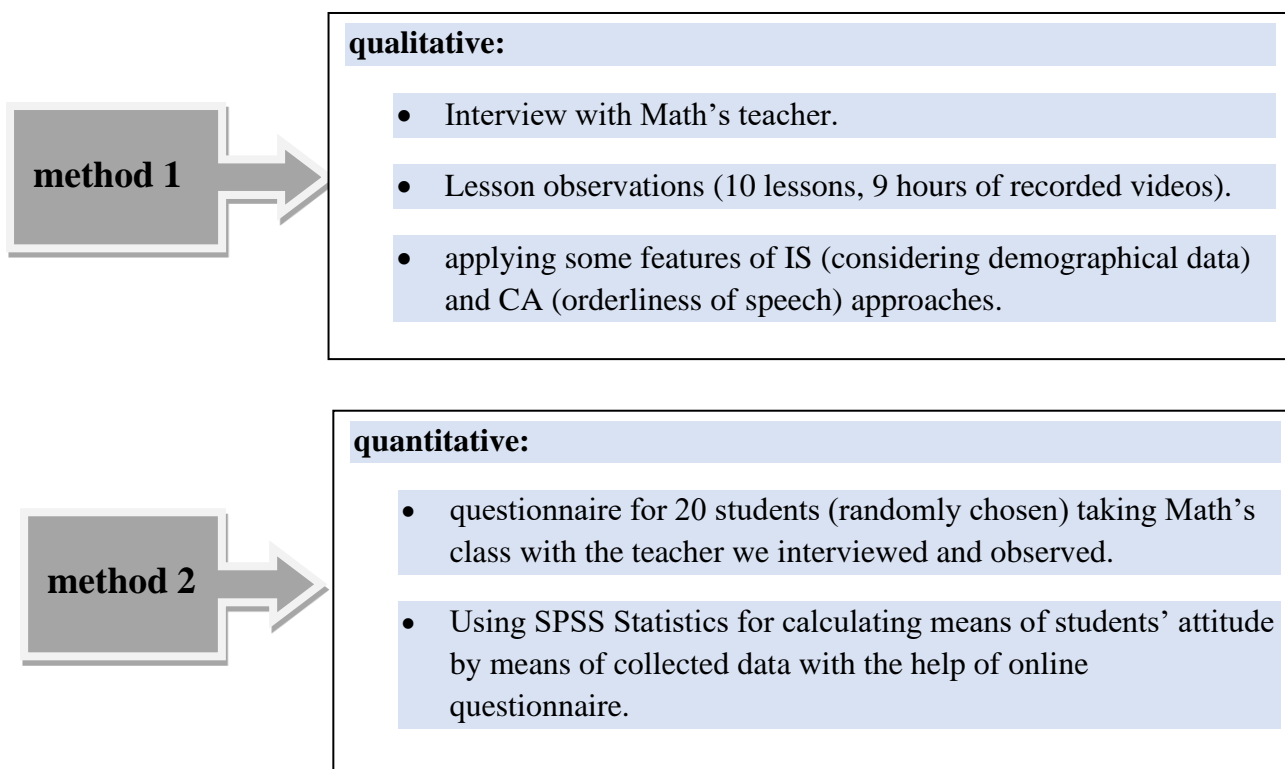
The other is related to Canagarajah, who introduced micro functions of classroom CS (Canagarajah, 1995) based on the example of teaching English as a second language in Jaffna.

The above-mentioned classifications helped us form the questionnaire for the students taking Math's classes in English.

2. Research data and methodology

To investigate sociolinguistic and classroom functions of teacher's CS behavior the following research methods were implemented. They are shown on the Figure 1 in the right succession.

Figure 1. Research Methodology



2.1 Research Participants

The study was carried out among 20 students (randomly chosen) and their math's teacher at one of the private schools (BGS) in Tbilisi.

CLIL Teacher: The educational background of the Math's teacher is the following: The bachelor (the faculty of Mathematics); MA degree (the faculty of Mathematics); PhD (the faculty of Mathematics). His field of studies (Probability Theory and Stochastic processes). As for his age, he is 34. The place of birth is Georgia, Baghdati, the town in the west part of Georgia; The language he uses with his family members is Georgian; Having a good command of English is immensely important for him, since he considers English as an important part of his identity. Although he doesn't possess any

international certificate of English, he doesn't have any difficulties giving Math's lesson using the target language.

Students: To start with their age, 65% of the students were 15-17 years old; 35% were 18-20. The survey showed that 55% of students were female and 45% Male. A place of birth for all the students surveyed is Georgia and their mother tongue is Georgian. The language all the participants use with their family members is Georgian. Talking about the students' proficiency level in English, they consider themselves to have (Starter A0 (1/5%); Intermediate B1 (1/5%); Upper-intermediate B2 (9/45%); Advanced C1 (9/45%). They study English as a foreign language for 0-5 years (3/15%); 6-10 (11/55%); 11-20 (6/30%).

3. Results and Discussions

The teacher was asked to record zoom videos of his lessons (one in a week) during one school semester; The recordings (10 lessons, 9 hours) were observed, and CS examples were detected and analyzed using the IS and CA approaches. The chapters - equations and inequalities, graphs and transformations, straight line graphs, trigonometric ratios were covered during his lessons. He was interviewed. As for the quantitative research the Math's teacher's 20 students (randomly chosen from 11th and 12th grades) were sent the online questionnaires.

3.1 Qualitative Research:

Conducting the quantitative research, the questionnaire is based on the classification –functions of using CS in ESL Classroom (proposed by Ferguson, 2009). Taking the Georgian reality and cultural features into account, the modified version of the questionnaire is used. The present study analyses codeswitched utterances in CLIL classes of BGS High school male teacher in Tbilisi.

Based on the observations on the process of teaching, find some authentic examples from teachers' repertoire. 36 examples of CS behavior were detected in 10 lessons. The average number of CS behavior per lesson (45 min.) is 3-4; Intrasentential (21 cases); Intersentential (15 cases).

Some examples are given below:

Example 1

T: This is not equal to 11.41, yes?!

S: ზუსტად equal უნდა იყოს? (Is it a must to be equal?)

T: ნუ, or at least it must be remarkably close to 11.41.

The example of the teacher's unconscious, situational, intrasentential code-switching is introduced by means of the discourse marker (filler). According to Gumperz, the conversational function of this CS behaviour is interjection, to fill the gap in the sentence. Considering the CA analysis (which studies the language choice considering the turn-taking and sequence within the conversation) the teacher is influenced by the student's question which is also an example of intrasentential CS.

Example 2

T: Okay, so, this ზუმი ეხლა მალე გაითიშება, ამიტომ მოდი, გავთიშავ და შემოდით ეგრევე, კარგი?! (Zoom will be over soon, please, come back right away)

The second example illustrates intersentential, metaphorical code switching, the language (Georgian) itself is given the function of giving directions and maintaining the structure of the lesson. Since the teacher conducted the whole lesson in English, his language competence can not be low.

Example 3

T: What do we write under this diagram?

S: Ah, (silence)

T: აი, ძალიან სხვაგან ხართ საერთოდ რა, ონლაინ სწავლების საერთოდ აღარ გწამთ. (Ah, you are out of context, you no longer believe in online learning).

S: Frequencies.

T: Cumulative frequencies

T: And from here what is our required number? windspeed, ისა, was greater than, so we need to take subtraction.

The 3rd example illustrates teacher's unconscious, metaphorical, intersentential code-switching. Georgian Language in this case is used to show teacher's frank emotion (anger) and friendly relationship between the teacher and his students.

Example 4

T: If we don't have this assumption then of course our estimate will be very rough and not a proper estimate.

T: ანუ, უყურეთ, ასე, პროპორციით რომ ვპოულობთ, ჩვენ ვგულისხმობთ, რომ მონაცემები მეტ-ნაკლებად არის პროპორციულად და თანაბრად გადანაწილებული. თორე, ეს რომ ეგრე არ იყოს მაშინ, ცხადია, ჩვენი შეფასება ძალიან არაზუსტი იქნება, რა! (pause) გასაგებია?!

S: ვგულისხმობთ და, ანუ, არის კიდევაც ხომ პროპორციული.

T: სხვა გზა არ გვაქვს, წინასწარ არ ვიცით.

T: კარგო, okay, so, now let's do it.

The example of the teacher's conscious, metaphorical, intersentential code-switching is introduced by means of giving explanation. According to Gumperz, the conversational function of this CS behaviour is reiteration or repetition, to clarify and emphasize the already-said points. Considering the CA analysis (which studies the language choice considering the turn-taking and sequence within the conversation) student is influenced by the teacher's explanation said in Georgian which is also an example of intersentential CS

3.2 The Quantitative Research

Considering the current world challenge known as Covid-19, the online questionnaire (Google forms) was found to be the most helpful instrument for conducting the quantitative research. Students (who are taking the Math's) were sent questionnaire links. The Questionnaire was based on the Ferguson's classification, functions of CS in English language classes (Ferguson, 2003).

Table 2 Validity of the responses

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
1. I want him to use --% English	2.90	1.021	20
2. he uses ---% English	2.90	1.071	20
1. I want him to use %---- Georgian	3.15	1.137	20
2. He uses ---% Georgian	3.45	1.050	20

The study aimed to show the validity of respondents' answers, we asked four questions 2 for preference and 2 for reality of using Georgian and English Languages. As the following intervals (1= 0-20%; 2=21-40%; 3=41-60%; 4=61-80%; 5=81-100%) were given, the mean calculated illustrates that students are more positive than negative towards teacher's English, but they want him to use less Georgian than he generally uses.

The 2nd table illustrates the correlation between students' level of English and their attitude towards usage of Georgian language by their teacher. Standard deviation is a mathematical tool with the help of which we assess how far the values are spread above and below the mean. A high standard deviation shows that the data is widely spread (less reliable) and a low standard deviation shows that the data are clustered closely around the mean (more reliable). So, our data is reliable.

Table 3. Correlation between students’ attitude and level of English

			Level of my English				Total
			Starter	B1	B2	C1	
Students’ Attitude towards using Georgian	negative	Count	0	1	5	7	13
		% within Level of my English	0.0%	100.0%	55.6%	77.8%	65.0%
	positive	Count	1	0	4	2	7
		% within Level of my English	100.0%	0.0%	44.4%	22.2%	35.0%
Total		Count	1	1	9	9	20
		% within Level of my English	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The data shows that the higher the students’ English level is the more negative their attitude is towards using Georgian in Math’s class. Overall, 13 students feel negative towards using Georgian. The 3rd table illustrates students’ answers of what functions teacher assign to his code-switching behavior. The students surveyed showed the reality (numbers in bold) and their preference (the rest). The right columns of the table show the frequently used functions by the teacher.

Table 4 Classification of classroom functions used in Math’s class.

In the Math Classes, Teacher uses Georgian	Functions *P for Preference **R for Reality	Never		Hardly Ever		Often		Most of the Time		Every Time	
		P	R	P	R	P	R	P	R	P	R
	To review the topic of the previous lesson	3	2	8	10	8	6	1	1	0	1
	to explain difficult concepts	1	2	4	4	7	5	2	3	6	6

Curriculum access	To introduce unfamiliar materials and topics	2	1	7	3	6	10	2	4	3	2
	To check for comprehension	1	1	5	4	8	7	3	4	3	4
	To provide synchronous translation of his talk	1	0	9	5	5	9	5	5	0	1
	To provide parallel explanation of the topics and materials given in Georgian and English Math coursebooks	1	0	4	8	8	7	6	3	1	2
Classroom management	To organize classroom tasks	2	1	10	7	5	9	2	2	1	1
	To maintain classroom discipline and the structure of the lesson	2	1	4	3	8	8	4	4	2	4
	To build and strengthen interpersonal relationships between teacher and students	2	4	4	3	8	6	4	5	2	2
	To reduce students' anxiety in learning	3	4	2	4	9	4	3	3	3	5

Interpersonal relations	Math										
	To increase students' motivation and confidence in learning Math's	2	4	5	2	8	7	2	3	3	4
	To provide praise about students' performance	2	2	5	6	10	8	2	1	1	3
	To provide personal remarks about students' performance	3	3	4	2	10	8	2	4	1	3
	To provide feedback about students' performance	2	3	4	6	9	5	3	3	2	3
	To encourage students' participation in the classroom	3	4	3	3	9	5	0	2	5	6

So, from the table we can distinguish the positively encouraged functions by the teacher and his students in the Georgian educational context:

Curriculum Access

- to explain difficult concepts
- to introduce unfamiliar materials and topics
- to check for comprehension
- to provide synchronous translation of his talk

Classroom management

- to maintain classroom discipline and the structure of the lesson

Interpersonal relations

- to build and strengthen interpersonal relationships between teacher and students
- to increase students' motivation and confidence in learning Math's
- to provide personal remarks about students' performance
- to encourage students' participation in the classroom

The quantitative study represents the students' (20 students surveyed) attitudes towards their teacher's code switching.

The collected data illustrates that using only Georgian is not positively encouraged neither by teacher nor students. As for students' and teachers' attitudes towards the usage of a combination of Georgian and English is quite positive towards several functions. The interesting fact is that introducing unfamiliar materials/topics in Math (CLIL) lesson is characterized by CS more than explaining the difficult concepts in Math.

4. Conclusions

Nowadays, Georgia struggles to become the part of the European Union. English is becoming a core skill among the modern generations. Moreover, CLIL is the product of the modern world, it requires functional knowledge of the language in the subject. Beside the General English courses taught at all public and private schools, bilingual program (CLIL) is demanded at private schools. As CS appeared to be the most common behavior among bilingual speakers, it became a subject of our survey.

Thus, we came to the several conclusions:

- Math teacher's CS behaviour mostly serves the conversational function of interjection.
- Math teacher's CS behaviour mostly serves the classroom functions of introducing unfamiliar materials and topics, expressing the emotions explaining difficult concepts, showing emotions, maintaining classroom discipline and the structure of the lesson.
- Based on observations of the recorded lessons, 80% of teacher's CLIL lesson is conducted in English.
- Teacher and 13 students have negative attitudes towards using only Georgian in teaching Math.
- 18 students consider English as a part of their identity, as their level of English fluctuates between B2-C2.
- Teacher considers English as a part of his identity as he tries to use the target language while conducting the lesson.

- Based on the result, English is more valued than Georgian in Math (CLIL) Lesson.

References

- Auer, P. (1988). *A Conversation Analytic Approach to Code-Switching and Transfer*. Sonderdrucke aus der Albert- Ludwigs-Universitat Freiburg.
- Auer, P. (1998). *Code-switching in conversation: Language, interaction and identity*, London&New York: Routledge.
- Bailey, B. (2015). *Interactional Sociolinguistics*. University of Massachusetts, Amherst, USA. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Canagarajah, S. (2007). *Lingua franca English, multilingual communities, and language acquisition*. *The Modern Language Journal*.
- Coyle D., Hood P., & Marsh D. (2010). *Content and Language Integrated Learning*. 2010.
- Ferguson, G. (2009). *What next? Towards an agenda for classroom codeswitching research*. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*.
- Gumperz, J. (1977). *The Sociolinguistic Significance of Conversational Code-Switching*, University of California, Berkeley.
- Gumperz, J. (2002). *Language and social identity*. Cambridge University Press.
- Hamers, J., Blanc, M. (2000). *Bilinguality and Bilingualism*, Second edition, Cambridge University Press.
- Mayers-Scotton, C. (1993). *Social motivations for codeswitching: Evidence from Africa*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Lela Bolkvadze

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi Georgia

Developing English speaking skills through written translation

ABSTRACT

The article deals with problems of acquiring English speaking skills by adult learners and represents an attempt to determine the influence of written speech on the development of oral speech and define the role of translation in this process, based on which some new approaches can be formed both for teaching as well as learning processes to promote independence. In addressing these issues, the article focuses on issues of language learning, teaching, developing fluency through written translation and delves into the roots of the term bilingualism to come to satisfactory solutions. The aim of this article is to present the two facets of using translation for educational purposes and try to demystify the way teachers and learners should follow. The scholarly references I cite in this article span quite a long period because the problem has a long history, not yet solved, and some older perspectives are just beginning to reappear in a new light.

Keywords: *bilingualism, translation, automaticity, fluency, cognition*

Introduction

Whether it be in personal relationships, business or social communications, more than half of the people can speak more than one language in all types of societies. Many challenges come with this ostensible process and acquisition of speaking skill itself. Despite the numerous material and experiences that have been accumulated on this topic, there is no one solution to the problem and there still is a need to redefine approaches to the development of speaking skills. Also many myths exist about bilingualism that makes the problem even more complicated. What is the actual meaning of bilingualism? Does it imply one is fluent in two languages, that one equally shares two cultures or starts to see the world as two people? To tackle the common misconceptions for better understanding of the true nature of the intricate issue of fluency we have to take a closer look at all the things that may affect but at the same time not lose sight of the big picture. The things which have to be observed and reexamined are language processing, cognition, peculiarities of bilingual brain, audio-visual integration

in oral performance, the processing of decontextualized words and how they are processed in context to ensure overall coherence, cognitive architecture that subserves language processing and the cognitive basis of bilingualism. It does seem excessively overstated with regard to just making minor adjustments in curriculum, but defining what role should be given to students' first language may help teachers to teach effectively in diverse contexts.

Natural influences

The English language has become the main lingua franca of social interactions, education, trade and culture. The conscious desire of learning languages increases in adulthood but chances of acquiring it decrease and constant questions are heard from learners what they can do to be able to use at least what they already know in an unplanned conversation. A number of problems hinder their success like a lack of practice, peculiarities of adulthood, undefined approaches etc. and the solutions we all would like to have are missing and their speaking skills and generally productive skills stay far behind their receptive skills and have problems in adopting strategic competence, which means to use language without fear. (*The term "fear" belongs to psycholinguist Iva Mindadze and the concept of "strategic competence" is introduced by linguist Scott Thornbury*).

Quite a large number of scientists mention the problem, but as we have noted, these issues have not been studied to the full, which is demonstrated by the unsolved practical problems that our learners still have in terms of acquiring speaking skills. As the act of speaking as well as learning is one of the models of human behavior, it seems reasonable to rely on and draw data from psychology and psycholinguistics as well as Andragogy.

Noam Chomsky says that "Language is a tool for thought" (Chomsky, 2002, p.11) and if we agree with that we can assume that the development of written speech can leave a significant positive trace on the development of oral speech and therefore, can be used as an educational tool in a teaching/learning process as people continuously think while writing through linguistic units and the process of constantly thinking leads to much needed automaticity which is in accordance with Thornbury's three-stage model according to which the activity of speaking consists of: conceptualization, formulation and articulation where a speaker observes one's own speech (Thornbury, 2002, p.75). Here the third stage can be replaced by creating a text, making recordings instead of the articulation stage. This can be converted into one of the means of achieving automaticity as without this feature a speaking process is glitchy and with significant flaws in the absence of practical speaking situations and creating additional scaffold for learners to promote them to the next level of fluency is

greatly to their benefit especially in countries like Georgia where frequent direct communication is less of a chance.

Gains and losses of using translation

There are contradictory opinions about the need of using translation in teaching process and it is truly a very difficult task to determine its practical affect on educational purposes as claims which different scientists make are mutually exclusive. It should be noted that in recent times using translation has been less popular than a widely used direct method and methods derived from it. It doesn't seem detrimental to raise this issue once again because unequivocally effective approaches do not appear and still need to be the object of study.

Scott Thornbury says if a learner uses a translation to find the equivalent of the word, they will become dependent on getting the meaning this way and will only be able to implement this process in mind only through translation (Thornbury, 2008, p.46) but at the same time he says in another discussion that a second language learner already has the first language in his mind and these are not just words but also the whole verbal systems in which these words are coded and speaks about the vital importance of acquiring automaticity for the implementation of new systems in order to get fluent conversational act (Thornbury, 2008, p.123) So, if this is the case, maybe the constant transfer to the foreign language and back of these already deeply ingrained conceptual systems in an adult mind is the effective mechanism to evolve this process so that subsequently translation will not be of use any more.

The lack of appropriate comparison groups makes the issue even more complicated as very often little is known about the student's language acquiring process details and consequently a retrospective comparison is potentially flawed. Valuable contributions have been made by scientists of different fields here, based on which we can rebuild new visions that will be a blend of old and new. It will be invaluable in order to find a mechanism how code-switching be triggered artificially and *inner linguistic urge* obtained naturally to control processes that enable language selection and equip learners with means of avoiding obstacles easily while speaking. (*The term 'inner linguistic urge' is new and introduced by me to describe the case when a person almost unconsciously starts to express an opinion in a foreign language.*)

Beneath the surface

Psychologists address the issue of different selves from many angles, some of which are almost directly related to language learning, as we all know, each language is a different

platform to see the world. Also many scientists of different fields like linguistics, psycholinguistics, psychology, andragogy and etc. point out that students should feel that the material they learn is suitable for them and that emotional closeness should be developed with the language for learners. So, with that in mind, we can think that selecting the most necessary linguistic material takes place during forming opinions in native language at initial stages of training if the use of students' first language is adequately assessed and used.

In order to demystify the issue a little and find some initial support for further research exactly the same matter was debated in my class of adult B1 students. We did some speaking activities at first without a single opportunity to use their first language and then I asked them to answer only one question but not publicly and on a sheet of paper. The question was as follows: 'Do you feel like a different person sometimes when you use your different language?' Clearly, these respondents are not representatives of general bilingual society and much depends on age, cognitive development, manner of acquisition and etc. but the majority of answers were alike: 'I feel as if the first language is real, new one is fake', 'I feel as though I am acting', 'I feel like I am someone else if I speak English and more at ease if I express myself in Georgian' etc.

Out of this simple example we can draw important conclusions that the need of delving into the disarray of arguments for and against the translation is still beneficial and rejecting the first language may preclude original thinking.

Peculiarities of adult learners

Psychologist Carl Rogers says about perceiving the environment by adults "even when stimulus comes from the outside, the sense of discovery, of reaching out, of grasping and comprehending, comes from within" (Rogers, 1969, p.5). Adult learners hang on the past experiences, feel the uniqueness of the self, have ingrained skills which are developed through practice and are not passive recipients of transmitted knowledge. Adults have a deep need to be self-directing and they may learn better if their experiences are taken into account. Here we can also mention Sigmund Freud's "influence of subconscious mind on behavior" and Rogers' words "Experience which, if assimilated would involve a change in the organization of self, tends to be resisted through denial or distortion of symbolization" (Rogers, 1969, p.27)

Emphasizing the issue of past experiences has something to do with student's identity. Young children derive their impressions from the outside world, from their families, schools, environments, but gradually they start to see all of these through their own perspective as their perceptions become sharper, so adults are made of their experiences and if their experiences

are devalued, they may get this as rejecting themselves altogether. In recent years the links between adult needs and adult education has become permeable and although using a translation as a tool for developing fluency is not an entirely new approach, this recent surge in attempting to renew past beneficial traits in teaching is fueled by the key findings and their implications rejecting of which runs the risk of ignoring the essential that would improve individual effectiveness and performance of adult learners.

As we close this article, we do not attempt to provide any responses at this point, as scientific discussions are ongoing in the field. The article suggests the importance of reexamining benefits of using translation as an educational tool through written practice and poses noteworthy questions surrounding the issue of developing fluency.

References

- Adult Transitions Longitudinal Study, (2007). *Adult Basic Education and Literacy Journal*, 1(3), 2007.
- Courtney, S. (1989). *Defining Adult and Continuing Education*, Pearson Education Ltd. ISBN 978-0-584-56-988-6
- Harmer, J. (2013). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, Pearson Education Limited, ISBN 978-1-405-85-311-8
- Thornbury, S. (2002). *How to Teach Speaking*, Pearson Education, Limited, ISBN 978-0-582-42-966-6
- Thornbury, S. (2008). *How to Teach Vocabulary*, Pearson Education Limited, ISBN 978-0-582-77-998-3
- Mindadze, I. (2009). *Psycholinguistics, Arete*, ISBN 978-99940-54-06-0
- Chomsky, N. (2002). *Ideas and Ideals*, Cambridge University Press, ISBN 0-521-47-570-8
- Rogers, K. (1969). *Teaching Adults*, Pergamon Press Inc. ISBN 0-08-025338-5