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Lexical Repetition in the Hypotactic Constructions of Kartvelian Languages¹

ABSTRACT

In the Georgian folk literature, repetition has a profound psychological basis. The paper focuses on lexical repetition in hypotactic constructions. Stylistically used lexical repetition forms a kind of hypotactic construction which becomes more comprehensible based on the preceding context. Research of the functional styles of oral folklore and written literary texts is topical. The methods used are as follows: statistical, historical-comparative and distributional (syntagmatic and paradigmatic). Such attitude reveals diverse linguistic capacity of structuring (shaping and transfer) of information. The research outcomes will be of interest for linguists, specialists in the theory of literature, professionals working in other related fields as well as students.

Keywords: Lexical Repetition, Hypotactic construction, Subordinate conjunction.

1. Introduction

Words are repeated by the speaker with the aim of enhancing the impression and expressing complicated psychological passages when the definition of the main character's action requires tense attention of the hearer (Ghlonti, 1975, 22). In such cases, repetition is also considered as a means of linking the sentences (Kurdadze, 1987, 99-100). Repetition is also a means for emotional-logical emphasis on a certain phenomenon or sign (Moren, Teternikova, 1960, 277). Repetition used in a stylistic function is termed as anadiplosis. Repetition-anadiplosis may be of different types: *phonetic, lexical, rhythmical*. The area of use of such repetitions is broad: they are found in works of poetry and prose as well as various structural types of sentences.

Repetition as a stylistic device enhances the impression and underlines and connects the narration: "It creates a continuous line of narration... The words and collocations are given in a

¹ The research was carried out with financial support of Shota Rustaveli National Science Foundation of Georgia (SRNSFG). Grant number FR-21-352

chain and are realized in the narration in the form of logical sentences“ (Apridonidze, 1989, 63). Hypotactic constructions containing “such repetitions with pauses“ (Sh. Apridonidze) are peculiar of both oral speech and fiction texts. Moreover, such literary works “abound in folk intonations” (Jorbenadze, 1987, 248).

2. The Topic of Research, Material and Problems

The topic of the given research is lexical repetition in the hypotactic constructions with conjunctions. The research is based on oral speech and Georgian literary texts. Oral spontaneous speech is reflected in the following: *Georgian colloquial speech, Georgian dialects, non-literary Kartvelian languages (Megrelian, Laz and Svan)*. Thus, the empirical material has been obtained from the above-mentioned fields. Empirical material has also been obtained from the works of classical Georgian writers and poets – Iliā Chavchavadze, Mikheil Javakhishvili, Giorgi Leonidze, Revaz Inanishvili, Otar Chkheidze and others.

It is interesting to identify the linguistic means of actualization in the hypotactic constructions containing lexical repetition.

3. Analysis of the Material

Lexical anadiplosis (= repetition of the last word of the sentence in the beginning of the following sentence) enables the speaker underline the information and express it emotionally. Such information, expressed by means of specific intonation, impresses the hearer and attracts the latter’s attention. Stylistically used lexical repetition forms a kind of hypotactic construction which becomes more comprehensible based on the preceding context. The hypotactic constructions with lexical repetition, as a rule, tell stories like oral fairy-tales, adventures etc.

The most widespread Georgian conjunction in such constructions is *რომ* rom “that”. More rarely, other conjunctions are also found. Megrelian uses enclitic conjunction **-ხო -ni**, which is the correpete of the above-mentioned Georgian conjunction, or other subordinating conjunctions.

Note 1: *In the dialects of the Georgian language, alongside with the conjunction რომ rom “that”, we also find its phonetic variants: რომი rome, რო ro.*

Based on the empirical material, we have analyzed cases of repetition of verb, noun or both of these parts of speech. The conjunction is added to the repeated lexeme emphasized by the speaker. For instance:

(1) [კაცს] მოუვიდა გული და... **თავი გაუტეხა; თავი რო გაუტეხა**, ეს კაცი გაიქცა... [kacs] mouvida guli da...**tavi gauṭexa; tavi ro gauṭexa**, es kacaci gaikca...(the dialect of Kartli, Kurdadze, 1987, 99-100) “The man got angry and...broke his head; as he broke his head, the man ran away...”.

(2) აი პურის კეკალი ქე **შეჭამა ქათმემა**; აი რომ ქათმემა **შეჭამა**, მოვიდა დედნაცვალი... ai puris keḳali ke **šeḱama katmema**; ai rom katmema **šeḱama**, movida dednacvali...(Gurian dialect, Gurian Texts, 2019, 145) “The wheat was eaten by chickens; when the wheat was eaten by the chickens, the stepmother came”.

Lexical repetition is peculiar of oral speech. This is vivid from the fragment below which contains a repetition of several lexical units:

(3) [გაცეცხლებული მოურავი] **გუთნისკენ გაიქცა, გუთნისკენ რო გაიქცა** და იქ რო მივარდა, ჩეკი აგლიჯა, **გუთნის ჩეკი, აგლიჯა ჩეკი** და ამ კაცს **უშხუვლა თავში, თავში რო უშხუვლა** და ერთი **რო უშხუვლა**, მერე გაბრუნდა და მინამ მასწრებდნენ, მინამა სცემა [gacecxlebuli mouravi] **gutniṣken gaikca, gutniṣken ro gaikca** da ik ro mivarda, **čeḱi agliḱa, gutniṣ čeḱi, agliḱa čeḱi** da am kacacs **uṣxuvla tavṣi, tavṣi ro uṣxuvla** da erti **ro uṣxuvla**, mere gabrunḁa da minam maasṣrebdnen, minama scema (The dialect of Kartli, Kurdadze, 1987, p. 99-100) “[The infuriated servant] ran to the plough. When he ran to the plough and achieved it, he seized a stick from the plough, the plough stick; He seized the stick and hit the man’s head. When he hit the man’s head and hit it once, he turned the man over and went on beating him until people came”.

Lexical repetition has been studied on the material of Mikheil Javakhishvili’s novel “Arsena of Marabda”. It is considered that the language and style of this novel “are enchanting due to their folk nature”. The author applies the style of Georgian folk tales in narration (Chumburidze, 1962, 92-135):

(4) [ოძელაშვილმა] **ლურჯა ძლივსლა შეაჩერა და როცა შეაჩერა** და მოიხედა, ამილახორი ბალახში დაინახა... [oḱelaṣvilma] **lurḱa ḱlivsyla šeacḁera da roca šeacḁera** da moixeda, amilaxori

balaxši dainaxa... (Javakhishvili, 1976, 49) “[Odzelashvili] stopped his horse at last, and, when he stopped his horse and looked back, he saw Amilakhvari in the grass”.

Note 2: In a literary text, the repetition with a conjunction can be placed at the beginning of the sentence.

(5))...როცა უყვარდა, უყვარდა ყოველგვარ საზომებსა და ზედსართავებზე უფრო ძლიერადა... უყვარდა ისე, რომ... ხელი აიღო ყოველგვარ სიამოვნებაზე... ...roca uqvarda, uqvarda qovelgvar sazomebsa da zedsartavebze upro zlierada... uqvarda, ise, rom... xeli aiyo qovelgvar siamovnebase (Chkheidze, 1980, 122) “...When he loved, he loved immeasurably...he loved to such an extent that.... he deprived himself of all pleasures...”.

Repetitions with subordinating conjunctions are most frequent in **Megrelian**. This is due to the flexibility of the subordinating enclitic conjunction -ნი -ni “that”. It is added either to the verb or to the noun.

1. Repetition of the Verb

(6) მურს მუმ ქიანაშა; მურსუ-ნ, დაასერუ ართ ქიანას **murs** muš kianaša; **mursu-n**, daaseru art kianas (Khubua, 1937, 229) “He is going to his country; as he is going, [to his country], night falls”.

During repetition, a verb can be replaced by another, synonymous verb:

(7) მოლართუ ართიქ; ეყარუ-ნ, ათე ჭითა პაპაქ ქოწოხვადუ **molartu** artik; **eqaru-n**, ate čita papak koçoxvadu (Khubua, 1937, 263) “One brother was coming; when he started going, he met a priest dressed in red”.

2. Repetition of the Noun:

(8) ართი მეღეჯე ქოძირუ; კითხუ ამბე მეღეჯესუ-ნი, იქ უწუუ arti **meyeže** koziru; kixu ambe **meyežesu-ni**, ik uçuu (Megrelian Texts, 1991, 30) “He saw one swine-herd; when he asked the swine-herd what was going on, the latter replied”.

In this type of hypotactic construction, the conjunction is not only a subordinator (SUB); it also serves as a marker of the focused member (FM). This phenomenon is especially vivid in Megrelian, where the conjunction-enclitic -ნი “that” marks a concrete member:

(9) მა მოკონია აკა ცხენი დო ონანგერი (N), სახარჯო ფარა (N) ტანისამოსიმ ოციდე...; მუთ(SUB) ოკო სახარჯო(N)-ნ(FM), ცხენი დო ონანგერი(N)-ნ(FM), ირფელით დააკმაყო-

ფილგ ე ბოში [ხენწიფე] ma moḡonia aka **cxeni** do **onangeri(N)**, **saxarჴო para(N)** ṭanisamosiḡ o'ide...; **mut(SUB)** oḡo **saxarჴო(N)-n(FM)**, **cxeni** do **onangeri(N)-n(FM)**, irpelit daakmaḡopilə e bosu [xenḡipek] (Megrelian Texts, 1991, 212-214) “I need a horse and a saddle, and some money to buy clothes...; whatever he needed, a horse and a saddle and everything, the King gave him”.

The repeated phrase containing the conjunction is pronounced with a **rising tone**. In general, rising tone enables distinguish focused and non-focused information. cf.: different kinds of information are pronounced with rising tone in waves, and soft, falling tone (for further information, see Asatiani, 2009, 3-13).

The empirical material is also interesting from the viewpoint of **word order**, “placing a topical member of the sentence at the beginning is a typologically widespread strategy. However, in some cases, the topical member may be placed at the end of the sentence as well” (for detailed information, see Ivanishvili, 2009, 69-81). The empirical material proves both of the above-mentioned cases. The balance of widespread and rare cases is also preserved in the empirical material analyzed in the given paper.

4. Laz and Svan Material

In Laz, the particle -ში -shi performs the function of the conjunction “that” in cases when the verb is repeated. “-ში -shi is used in almost every dialect. Khopian dialect of the Laz language uses only this particle” (Chikobava, 2008, 190).

(10) აწი აია ოხორჯაკ ოწიუს კოგიოჭკუ. ოწიუს კოგიოჭკუ-ში, სერსი მითიშა ვა აგნაფინუ
aḡi aia oxorḡak oḡius kogioḡku; oḡius kogioḡku-ši, sersi mitiḡa va agnapinu (Materials of the expedition) “The woman started screaming; when she started screaming, nobody heard her”.

The main feature of such constructions in the Svan language is the absence of the subordinating conjunction. In such cases, a correlate may be given in the main clause, whereas the function of the subordinating conjunction and emphazier is performed by intonation, this phenomenon is typical of Balskvemouri speech, which is less influenced by the literary language:

(11) ათხე ამის ეჯ ლეთ ქრისდე-ღერმეთ ლჴხმუშგურან ო ქრისდე-ღერმეთ ლჴხმუშგურან,
ეჯის ალ მარე გუდ დეშ აჯად, დეშ ათირ atxe amis eḡ let **krisde-ḡermet lăxmuḡwran** i **krisde-ḡermet lăxmuḡwran**, eḡis al mare gud deḡ aqad, deḡ atir (Materials of the expedition) “Jesus Christ

visited the man, but the man could not realize [that] Jesus Christ had visited him, he could not recognize the Lord”.

5. Substitution of the Conjunction რომ rom “that” with the Conjunction და da “and”

When the subordinating conjunction რომ rom “that” is used in the stylistic function, it is usually substituted by the coordinating conjunction და da “and”. In some cases, contrasting conjunctions are also used. “Such repetition-anadiplosis is found in Giorgi Leonidze’s prose: ჩვენს ეზოში ია შემოვიდა; შემოვიდა და შემოეფინა... čvens ezoši ia šemovida; šemovida da šemoepina “violets came to our garden; they came and spread all around...” (Koshoridze, 1995, 144). This makes Giorgi Leonidze’s style close to the style of fairy-tales (Uturgaidze et al, 1979, 91-98).

Megrelian:

(12) ქიმერთუ ათე ბოშიქ; ქიმერთუ დო, მესთი მააძუნ, თეშა ვიშო ქალეხუნუუ თენა...
kimertu ate bošik; **kimertu do**, mesti maažun, teša višo kalexunuu tena... (Khubua, 1937, 295) “The boy came; he came and put it in his sock...”.

Laz:

(13) ავჯი დაღის გონდინეი კულანის ქონარგუ; ქონარგუ დო, ახელუ avži dayis gondinei kulanis **konargu**; **konargu do**, axelu (Materials of the expedition) “The hunter met a girl who was lost in the forest. He met her, and he was glad”.

Svan:

(14) ალ მეთხუჯრს ლახხუიდ დალ; დალ ლახხუიდ ი ეჩა ოქრემ ფტურე ნარჰიდ თერარ
წ’ოთბურე al metxwärs **laxxwid däl**; **däl laxxwid** i eča okreš pätwre nährhid terär č’otbure (Materials of the expedition) “Dali (*goddess of hunting = Diana*) met the hunter; Dali met him, and he was blinded by the light coming from her hair”.

Dialectal material:

(15) წამევედი ტყვიასავით და დავასკტი ბეტონზე; დავასკტი, მარა გევიარე დედომიწა, მარა
გადავჩი çamevedī tḡviasavit da **davaskṭi** beṭonze; **davaskti**, **mara** geviare dedomiṭṭa, mara gadavchi (Gurian dialect, Gurian Texts, 2019, 142) “I fell down like a piece of lead and fell on the concrete. I fell and hurt myself hard but I survived”.

6. Conclusion

Thus, in the hypotactic constructions of Kartvelian languages containing lexical repetition, the underlined member of the sentence can be formally marked by phonetic-phonological and morphological-syntactic means such as intonation, enclitic conjunction and word order.

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Materials of the expedition. The materials were recorded during linguistic expeditions in Svaneti
and Laz region, implemented within the framework of the grant FR-21-352.

Abbreviations:

N – Noun

SUB – Subordinate

FM – Fokus marker

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Students' cognition in the teaching of technology opportunities for activity development

ABSTRACT

The issue of developing cognitive activity and logical thinking of primary school students occupies an important place in the goal of general education. At the same time, preparation for choosing a profession and labor activity is also in the center of attention. Achieving the quality of education, learning and benefiting from new pedagogical technologies based on guidance is the main function. In the lesson, special importance was given to thought-provoking issues and problematic questions that allow creative and cognitive independence for the development of creative imagination in young school children.

Keywords: teacher training system, cognition, cognitive activity, technology, formation of cognitive activity, junior schoolchildren, technology teacher

Introduction

Active learning is an effective means of effective organization of educational and cognitive activities. When teaching the subject "Technology" are characteristic: the teacher consciously (arbitrarily) organizes a cognitive problem situation; keep in mind and evaluate the active research activities of younger students in the process of solving problems; the availability of opportunities for self-collection and assimilation by students of new and necessary knowledge.

What does the learning process depend on? Learning process from the nature of learning. The nature of learning depends on the characteristics of the learning material to be mastered, the teacher's pedagogical mastery and experience, personal abilities and methodology (Agayev & Hajizadeh, 2020)

Of course, improving the quality of training in educational institutions in modern times can be discussed on a wider level as one of the important educational problems, and it is possible to make

more detailed considerations about it. By relying on democratic principles, it is possible to perform creative activities and thereby achieve greater achievements in the field of improving the quality of education. (Abbasov, 2021). Therefore, the efficiency of training increases significantly. The reasons for this are as follows: due to the cognitive activity and learning motivation of students; due to independent, productive and creative acquisition and assimilation of knowledge based on thinking. Applying active (interactive) training changes school conditions and increases students' self-confidence, improves interpersonal relationships, and makes the attitude towards school and studying more positive. (Agayev & Hajizadeh, 2021)

The new approach is effective, since learning is not only about enriching the memory of schoolchildren with new knowledge and information. At the same time, on the basis of the development of thinking, conditioned by cognition, it becomes possible to independently acquire more knowledge, acquire the necessary skills and, at the same time, skills. At the same time, under the guidance of a teacher, students learn to identify causal relationships and patterns of facts and events, come to appropriate conclusions, and make generalizations when familiarizing themselves with very important teachings and textbook materials. a topic that is easy to understand and remember.

The position of a student in the pedagogical process is the position of a “discoverer”, “researcher”. When faced with problems that are within his control, he freely performs them during his exploration. They are in the position of researchers of this process, as equal participants in school educational activities. They acquire knowledge in the process of seeking knowledge.

The teacher who teaches classes in the subject of technology plays the role of a facilitator ("guide"). He constructs problem situations systematically and purposefully. It clarifies the problems associated with research, and at the same time provides assistance in solving them.

The active learning method is characterized by the following characteristic features:

that learning is subject-based; deep interest of schoolchildren in learning, independent thinking;

- active participation of participants in technological classes; creation of a problem situation at the beginning of the lesson and the direction of the educational process to solve the problem;
- directing students to self-discovery of new knowledge through questions that require reflection and guidance;
- conducting training based on the research method; learning topics in a dialogue form, forming feedback; availability of pedagogical cooperation and interaction.

Achieving the quality of education, learning and benefiting from new pedagogical technologies

based on guidance is the main function.

The main principles of education - democratization, humanization, individualization, differentiation, integration, personality formation and development are now being successfully realized. Those principles were taken into account in the classes on technology in classes I-IV involved in the experiment.

Interactivity consisted of the nature of elementary teacher and student interactions in the lesson, separate topic, dialogue, explanation, role play, etc. That is, the method that is being talked about is not planned in advance, the course of the learning process creates that point and emerges with the independence and intervention of many schoolchildren.

Also, there was interactivity among the students themselves. The main issue is that in that process, the student and the teacher, who are in a cooperative relationship, have a rightful position. As a teacher, he acts as a guide, facilitator, and consultant. Without interfering in the activities of schoolchildren, he puts forward problems, gives directions, supervises, helps to prepare search maps, but students work together on educational tasks - among themselves, in research, in a discussion environment.

Interactive learning meant inter-student learning communication and cooperation, teacher-school cooperation that occurred in technology classes. Interactive methods are the methods, approaches, styles, works, and tools that make learning and understanding, skills and qualities of young schoolchildren in the classroom. According to the theory of constructivism, based on the theory of constructivism, the trainer is not the teacher, but the learner (student) is in direct contact with objects and events, and as a result, he adopts their properties and solves the problem. The student is encouraged to act independently and to be proactive, he was able to achieve an effective result by connecting new knowledge with previous knowledge in the course of learning. Dansereau (1978) expresses that cognitive skills help the learners to identify the relevant and pertinent materials for their courses. It also assists them to retrieve information under appropriate circumstances

According to the representatives of this theory, the environment and the student's opinion and attitude have an effect on the process of acquiring knowledge and skills.

Constructivist teaching is based on recent research on the brain of the individual and knowledge of how to implement the learning process. The connection of student learning to technology is an important theory that was introduced in 1999 by Sharon Adams and Mary Burns as part of the Technology Assistance Program at the Southwest Laboratory for Educational Development. Since 2005, teachers have been introduced step by step to constructive, interactive training, and modern pedagogical technologies in trainings for improving the professional level of teachers, which is a project of the Ministry of Education and Madad Azerbaijan Humanitarian Organization (RELIEF) in

our country. Trainings have important practical importance.

In order to achieve the cognitive activity of young schoolchildren in the experimental classes on the subject of technology, the exercises on technology were organized at the level of modern lessons. When we say modern lesson, we understand the pedagogical skill and mastery demonstrated by the teacher during the acquisition of knowledge, skills and habits. If the teacher creates business conditions in primary classes, allocates necessary space to the independent judgments of young schoolchildren, challenges them, benefits from problem-based learning using methods, styles and tools appropriate to the nature of this or that subject, then his lesson is realized according to modern requirements. In the lesson, special importance was given to thought-provoking issues and problematic questions that allow creative and cognitive independence for the development of creative imagination in young schoolchildren. Such organization of the lesson formed the necessary life skills and technological habits in the students. A modern lesson on technology requires the teacher's responsible approach to teaching. A primary school teacher determines in advance which methods and styles, how and when he will use the means to achieve his goal, thinks in advance about the structure of the information he will convey, helps to solve the main problem related to the topic, learns from scientific and technical innovations, important social and political events of the time, he regularly enriched his knowledge. A modern lesson on the subject of technology should develop the outlook of students of I-IV grades and create conditions for their conviction. In the lesson, students' understanding was enriched by the use of visual aids and information collected from different sources.

The unity of training and upbringing is also an important requirement for modern lessons. Technology classes helped students become morally active, educate them in the spirit of philanthropy, patriotism, and hard work. In the classes participating in the experiment, democratization, differentiation, humanization, integration, personalization, etc. are the basis of modern technology lessons. the principles stood.

Under the conditions of the implementation of the curriculum, favorable learning conditions were established for young schoolchildren, taking into account national and universal values, general development, tendencies and interests, for the objective evaluation and stimulation of school achievements. The position of an active researcher was acquired by the schoolboy, and the teacher created opportunities for them to independently acquire and understand new knowledge. Active, creative thinking skills and means of independent acquisition of knowledge were combined in schoolchildren in active learning conditions. This form of work taught them to solve problems together, respect each other's position, and acquire independent knowledge. Taking advantage of

interactive learning methods and methods (groups, pairs, roles, brainstorming, results, etc.) intensifies the learning activity, makes it important and interesting for each student, the level of activity in the lesson, as a result, the developmental aspect of the training is strengthened.

The formation of competences, which include skills such as using interactive learning methods, acting in current conditions, cooperation and decision-making, includes a new attitude to the importance and at the same time tasks of general education. In the modern era, technology teachers who have received an improved image from the methodical, scientific-pedagogical, and psychological point of view, understand well what innovation and modernity are, they benefit from them in lessons, including in primary classes, and they effectively benefited from the demands placed on the modern lesson and its organization. It is important to take into account the requirements for training, that teachers who conduct classes on technology in classes I-IV participate in each other's classes and organize "open classes" of teachers with advanced work experience. The discussion and analysis of the observed lessons is ultimately based on critical thinking, the generalizations help teachers to improve methodically, and at the same time to have the opportunity to use new teaching methods.

In the primary classes participating in the experiment, the interactive learning process on the subject of technology was organized in such a way that students acquired knowledge through research. All this creates conditions for the search for the solution of the problem in the form of class (audience) groups and pairs. The groups wrote the obtained results on worksheets and then presented it. After the presentations, the results were reviewed again, the information was systematized and summarized. Younger schoolchildren saw which of the results matched, what was new, and came to a general conclusion. Motivation was created due to the high level of assimilation of the subject to be studied. Motivation means incitement. In other words, it directs the learning-understanding position of students in technology classes towards problem solving. Another function of motivation is to frame the research question. It is this research question that allows us to make hypotheses and direct research. A research question makes the research a requirement. The results of the research are written in a worksheet and there are presentations. Conclusions are drawn by comparing the received savings with the initial assumptions. Then work is done on the implementation of the results.

One of the most complex problems of the traditional education system is the conservatism and nature of the pedagogical technologies used. Previously, students were satisfied with 2 main sources of knowledge (teacher and textbook) to acquire knowledge, but now there are more of those sources. As a result, one of the main tasks of training is to make learning a habit in the process of teaching subjects, including technology. Students should be able to acquire knowledge independently. In terms of the quality of training methods, their orientation to students and their needs increases the

effectiveness of training in the conditions of benefiting from creative thinking in acquiring knowledge. At the same time, such a personalized educational process will affect the quality of its development, will increase the cognitive and social activity, and will form the values and habits of the student. Taking these requirements into account makes it absolutely necessary to give priority to active learning technologies that incorporate productive, thinking and means of free acquisition of new knowledge.

The world experience shows that the active learning method is an effective tool for improving the quality of training. The method makes the lesson interesting and attractive for students. Active learning increases the efficiency of content learning and application at the same time, makes it easier for schoolchildren to understand. The project of using modern training methods is being implemented in our country. The main knowledge, skills and habits have been formed in the experienced teachers, which can be considered important for the planning and implementation of active lessons. From the conducted monitoring, it appears that teachers face some problems when applying active learning methods. So, they need to exchange experience in designing innovations. As the experience of teachers teaching technology lessons in implementing innovations increases and relatively more teachers join this activity, the need for new methodical recommendations, teaching materials and other sources of methodical information increases. It is one of the effective and appropriate ways to overcome the issues of dissemination and application of information and modern teaching practice on active training for teachers.

Through the existing website, it is possible to collect and improve active (interactive) learning resources for the future in a short time. The application of active learning by each of the teachers will increase the cognitive activity of the students in the learning process and the willingness to cooperate. Our experiment proved it.

New pedagogical technology becomes remarkable based on active learning. The model of active training is conditioned by certain components. Active learning content, methods, learning environment, assessment can be included her.

The content of training seeks answers to what and how to teach, in what ways to teach methods, and in what conditions to teach the educational environment. Evaluation reveals the result according to the factors that determine the efficiency of this or that component.

Junior schoolchildren are full participants in technology classes. They acquire the acquired knowledge through searches and discoveries. Active learning methods have several features. Let's consider them: the active learning position of schoolchildren; cooperation and interaction in a group; independence and freedom of thought; creative use of knowledge to achieve life goals. These

characteristics can be considered the main factors of the preparation of students of I-IV classes for educational activities.

By creating an active learning environment during the teaching of technology to the experimental schoolchildren, they treated the students individually and benefited from the most effective training methods and information technologies for the development of their knowledge, skills and habits. At the same time, the efficiency of training (the ability to absorb more information in a short time) increased significantly. Some of the reasons for this can be noted: due to students' cognitive activity and learning motivation; with the free and creative acquisition and comprehension of knowledge with reference to thinking.

By changing the method of applying active learning, it increases the self-confidence of young schoolchildren, improves interpersonal relations, improves the attitude to study in the educational institution, and gives the opportunity to independently gain knowledge and acquire new ones.

As the enthusiasm and achievements of schoolchildren increase, the activity of the teacher becomes easier. However, this does not mean that the teacher's hard work decreases. Although there are advantages of active (interactive) training, the teacher should not completely ignore the use of traditional (explanatory-illustrative and reproductive) methods. Depending on the goal of the training, the content, and the level of preparation of the students, the teacher should make his choice. For example, if the teacher defines technology as the main goal of the formation of skills and habits, he may consider the more reproductive (repetition and model work) method to be superior. If the content of the training is relatively complex, if it is required to learn a lot of new concepts and information, then the traditional explanatory-illustrative method is effective. However, interactive elements (asking clarifying questions, conducting a short exchange of ideas in pairs, explaining what has been observed, etc.) can be useful in traditional class time.

These issues were the focus of the classroom teachers involved in the experiment.

Active training. Through his educational activity, the student perceives technological knowledge within the program, stores it in his memory, applies it, and determines the compatibility. By taking advantage of modern learning technologies in individual lessons, by changing the traditional learning system and infusing it with a research character, it is possible to make the student a subject of learning during the acquisition of knowledge. In that process, the person who implements the technology exercises acts as a guide of the path to acquiring knowledge, a researcher in the student, a discoverer of knowledge. Modern training technologies increase the efficiency of training.

Knowledge and skills in the field of technology must be connected with modern life and the development of society, otherwise that knowledge will be a meaningless burden for the student. As a result, the interest of students in scientific knowledge decreases, the level of awareness and activity

causes concern.

Knowledge and skills in the field of technology must be connected with modern life and the development of society, otherwise that knowledge will be a meaningless burden for the student. As a result, the interest of students in scientific knowledge decreases, the level of awareness and activity causes concern. There are certain requirements for the pedagogical qualification and methodical preparation of the teacher who teaches the subject of technology. These requirements are reflected in the technology teacher's program. It is important for a teacher who teaches technology subject to follow didactic principles to know student psychology and take it into account in his activities. (Orucov, Rzayeva 2021) Here, it is considered necessary to enrich and make it more interesting with a creative approach to technology lessons at the discretion of the teacher. In particular, it is important and necessary to expand opportunities and create conditions for free and independent acquisition of knowledge and practical skills by students, to adhere to the principle of "teaching to learn". (Akhundov, Ahmadov, Salimova, Aliyev, 2019)

The urgency of the problem. It is an urgent issue to report the attitude to cognitive activity in labor training in primary education.

The novelty of the problem. In the article, cognitive activity in labor preparation in primary education is brought to the center of attention.

The practical importance of the problem. The article will be useful for young researchers.

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Investigating Speech Characteristics of Georgian Native and Non-Native Speakers: A Forensic Phonetics Study¹

ABSTRACT

Forensic Phonetics aims to identify speakers through various speech characteristics that may differentiate them from others. This paper discusses the importance of selecting appropriate parameters that are independent and have high inter-speaker and low intra-speaker variation. Speech rate and fundamental frequency are analyzed to collect statistical information on the Georgian language for both native and non-native speakers. The study recorded oral speeches of 60 Georgian native speakers from three different age categories, and 20 high-competence Azerbaijani-speaking Tbilisi State University students. Results show the normal articulation tempo of the Georgian language to be between 5.1 to 6.3 syllables/second. Additionally, fundamental frequency differences were observed in the non-native speaker group compared to the native speaker group.

Keywords: *Fundamental frequency, Articulation rate, Speech analysis, Forensic phonetics, Speaker identification.*

1. Introduction

Forensic Phonetics is a cross-disciplinary field and is one of the branches of applied linguistics. The field aims to enhance the quality of audio recordings used in the investigation process, to decode the content of hard-to-understand or damaged sections, verify the authenticity of audio recordings and to identify speakers. Identifying speakers is a key issue in forensic phonetics. As is typical in the speaker identification process, two or more audio recordings are compared. One of them is the questioned recording in which the investigation attempts to identify the voice of the suspect and the

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other is a known voice sample that is obtained from suspect and the speaker's identity is known for certain.

In the process of examination, voice samples are compared on the basis of many speech characteristics through which speakers may differ from one another. These characteristics should be chosen on a case-by-case basis, considering the unique features of the search samples. While there are some criteria that should guide the expert in the selection of search parameters. Parameters must:

- Have a high degree of inter-speaker and a low degree of intra-speaker variations;
- Not be subject to attempts of imitation or disguise;
- Be simple and accurate to report;
- Be relatively easy to measure (Nolan, 2009).

Philip Rose (Rose, 2002) puts an additional condition in the process of selecting parameters - each parameter should be as independent as possible from the other parameters, so that the research is strong in terms of the speakers' discriminant power.

In the research process, it is very important to determine whether the similarity (or difference) between the compared samples according to a certain parameter is speaker specific or is a common in the relevant population. The more uncommon a characteristic is among speakers, the more effective it will be in differentiating between them. Consequently, it is important for each language to have statistical data on the prevalence of certain speech parameters. The research presented in our current article aims at collecting this statistical information on the Georgian language.

Research parameters can be categorized as segmental and supra-segmental units of speech, voice and manner of speaking. Some characteristics can be analyzed using both auditory and acoustic methods. The most common characteristics are: language, dialect, accent, speech rate, fundamental frequency, voice quality, formant frequencies, hesitation, speech pathologies, and etc. (ENFSI, 2022). In the current paper, we discuss the speech rate and fundamental frequency for the Georgian-speaking population.

2. Research data description

To collect data on the Georgian native speaker population, we selected three age categories - [18-30], [31-40], [41-50] - for the study of Georgian native speakers. In each age category 10 women's and 10 men's oral speeches was recorded (60 speakers in total). There selected different sections from a speaker recording and measured their fundamental frequency and articulation rate based on the number of syllables uttered in a ten-second interval excluding pauses, hesitation elements and disfluencies.

We selected a group of 20 speakers (10 men & 10 women) from the age category of 18-30 to research F0 and articulation tempo of Georgian as a second language. The speakers were selected

from the groups with high linguistic competence of the Preparatory Educational Program at Tbilisi State University.

3. Speech rate

As mentioned above, in the process of comparing speakers, one of the most frequently used comparative characters is the speech rate. Speech rate is a quantitative characteristic that can be measured by counting the number of speech units uttered within a specific time interval. Speech unit may be a word or a syllable. As the length of words can vary significantly both across different languages and within the same language, it is recommended to use the number of syllables as the unit of measurement. There are two methods for measuring speech rate: speaking rate and articulation rate. To measure speech rate, the number of speech units uttered within a continuous period of time is calculated, including pauses, disfluencies, and hesitation elements. Articulation rate is measured by considering only the time required to utter speech units as a unit of time, excluding pauses, hesitation elements, and disfluencies (ENFSI, 2022).

Speech rate can also be described qualitatively using auditory analysis as "slow," "normal," or "fast," but this type of description can be very arbitrary and may represent an illusion of the listener.

The aim of this study is to investigate the articulation tempo of both native and non-native Georgian speakers. As mentioned above, for the group of nonnative speakers we chose high language competence Tbilisi State University students whose native language is Azerbaijani.

3.1 Inter and intra-speaker variations in articulation rate

The comparison of the rate of articulation between gender groups gave us the following picture:

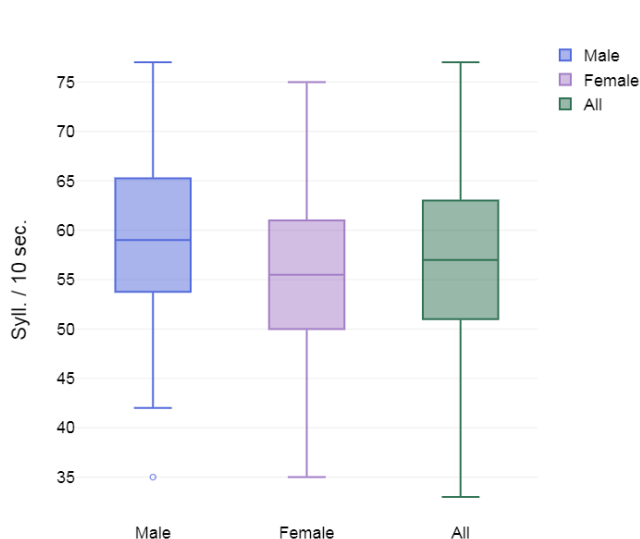


Figure 1. Number of uttered syllables in 10 second interval by native speakers of Georgian language.

Groups:	men	women	all
Sample size (n):	90	90	180
Minimum:	35	35	33
Q1:	54	50	51
Median:	59	55.5	57.5
Q3:	65	61	63
Maximum:	77	75	77
Mean (\bar{x}):	58.9	55.4	57.1
Outliers:	35, 33		

Table 1. Statistical data of uttered syllables in 10 seconds by native speakers of Georgian language.

Data analysis shows that the minimum number of syllables spoken in a ten-second interval is 33, while the maximum is 77. The mean and median values of syllables are both approximately 57 (i.e., 5.7 syllables/second). The first quartile of the total data $Q1 = 51$, and the $Q3 = 63$. As approximately 50% of the data falls between the first and third quartiles, it is possible to determine the 'normal' or most common tempo in Georgian as 5.1 to 6.3 syllables/second. Articulation rates that fall outside this range can be considered 'slow' or 'fast'.

An analysis of the articulation rate across age and gender groups revealed the following findings:

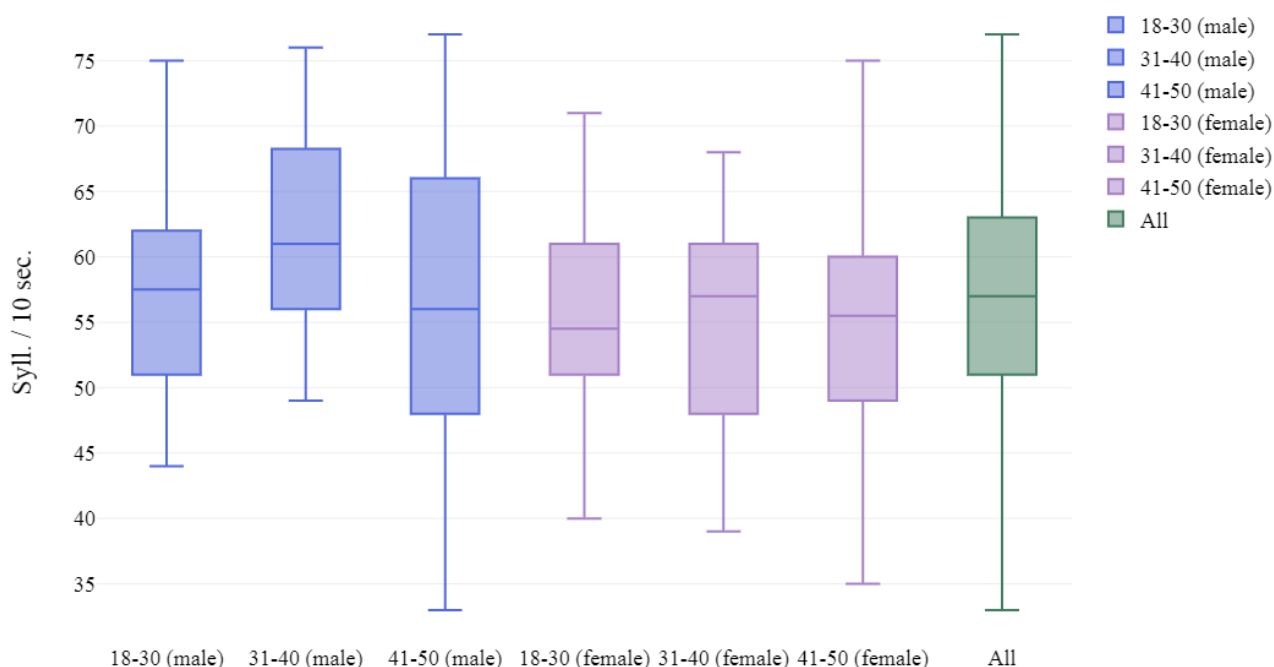


Figure 2. Box-plot of uttered syllables in 10 second interval by native speakers of Georgian language in different age groups.

Groups:	18-30 (male)	31-40 (male)	41-50 (male)	18-30 (female)	31-40 (female)	41-50 (female)	All
Sample size (n):	30	33	30	30	30	30	180
Minimum:	44	49	33	40	39	35	33
Q1:	51	56	48	51	48	49	51
Median:	57.5	61	56	54.5	57	55.5	57

Q3:	62	68	66	61	61	60	63
Maximum:	75	76	77	71	68	75	77
Mean (\bar{x}):	57.27	61.94	56.57	56.27	54.57	55.33	57

Table 2. Statistical data of uttered syllables in 10 seconds by native speakers of Georgian language in different age groups.

The data analysis shows that in the 41-50 age group, the degree of data dispersion is relatively high for both sexes. The articulation rate of women is slightly lower than that of men, and for both genders, middle-aged speakers have a greater articulation tempo compared to other groups. No other correlation trend was found between speech rate and age groups. There's no significant difference in articulation rate between age and gender groups, so it seems that this parameter does not have discriminating power in terms of determining a speaker's age and gender group.

Since there were no significant differences according to gender and age groups with this parameter, we only compared the general data of the native and non-native speaker groups. The

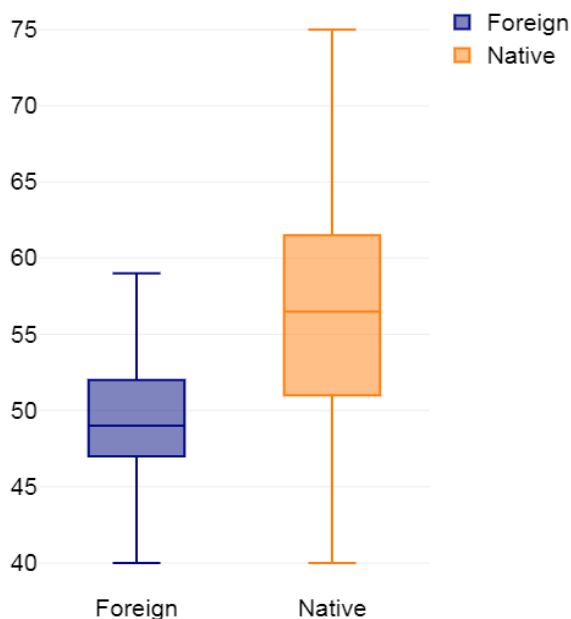


Figure 3. Box-plot of uttered syllables in 10 second interval by native and non-native speakers from 18-30 age category.

measurement of the tempo of articulation and comparing it to the articulation tempo of Georgian language native speakers from the relevant age category shows the following picture:

Groups:	Foreign	Native
Sample size (n):	60	60
Minimum:	40	40
Q1:	47	51
Median:	49	56.5
Q3:	52	61.5
Maximum:	58	75
Mean (\bar{x}):	49	56.76

Table 3. Statistical data of uttered syllables in 10 second interval by native and non-native speakers from 18-30 age category.

As can be seen from the diagram, if the average tempo for native speakers is 5.6 syll./s, the articulation tempo for the group of speakers of Georgian as a second language is significantly lower

and represents 4.9 syll./s. It should also be taken into account that the data of this group is less dispersed, and the range is 18 syllables (compared to the range of 35 syllables in the group of native speakers). Basically, the tempo of articulation ranges from 4.7-5.2 syll./s.

As stated above, the expert must determine whether the questioned and known samples came from the same or different sources after comparing the linguistic profiles of the two speakers.

As stated above, the expert must determine whether the questioned and known samples came from the same or different sources after comparing the linguistic profiles of the two speakers. The more parameters we match in the process of comparison, the more categorical the conclusion can be. How prevalent a particular trait is in the relevant population is also crucial in the decision-making process. The rarer the matching characteristic, the stronger the hypothesis that we are dealing with the same speaker. Consequently, while evaluating speech profiles, matching with a rare feature has higher caliber than matching with a common feature. Thus, we prefer to break these classes into subclasses and rate them on a 5-point scale rather than a 3-point scale because different forms of data were included in the same class ("slow," "rapid") in terms of frequency of repetition (see histogram). Statistical data can also be used for articulation rate verbal characterization.

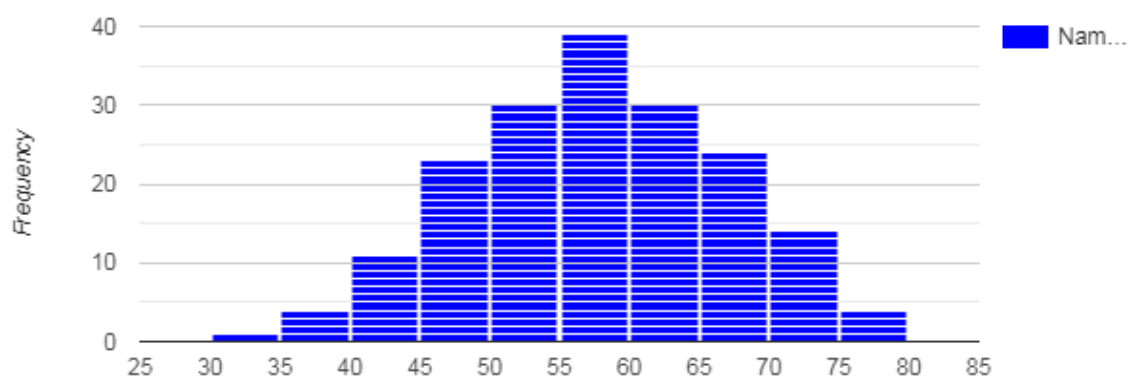


Figure 4. Histogram of uttered syllables in 10 second by native speakers of Georgian language.

- 0 to 40 syllables ($\approx 3\%$ of total data) – "very slow";
- 40 to 51 syllables ($\approx 19\%$ of total data) – "slow";
- 51 to 63 syllables ($\approx 54\%$ of total data) – "normal";
- 63 to 75 syllables ($\approx 21\%$ of total data) – "fast";
- Above 75 syllables ($\approx 3\%$ of total data) – "very fast"

We evaluated the number of syllables spoken by the speakers in a 10-second section according to the 5 point-scale and got the following picture:

Mean syllables per 10 sec.	Verbal description	Number of native speakers	Number of non-native speakers
0 to 40 syllables	very slow	1	0
40 to 51 syllables	slow	10	14
51 to 63 syllables	normal	39	6
63 to 75 syllables	fast	9	0
Above 75 syllables	very fast	1	0

Table 4. Evaluation of the average articulation rate of speakers on the 5-point scale.

In the evaluation process, it should be taken into account that the articulation rate is more susceptible to attempts at disguise in terms of deceleration than acceleration. To be more specific, the speaker can deliberately slow down their articulation rate, while they are limited by their physical-morphological condition to increase the articulation rate beyond a certain level, even if they wish to do so.

We compare measurements taken from various parts of the same speaker's recording in order to evaluate intra-speaker changes in articulation tempo. The minimal and greatest measurement differences between identical speakers are 1 and 31 syllables, respectively. The average range is 11 syllables. The standard deviation between each speaker's measurements ranges from 0 to 17 syllables. The average standard deviation of the measures is 6. As a result, in speaker comparison, the upper limit of the standard deviation of intra-speaker variation in the Georgian-speaking population can be considered as 17 syllables.

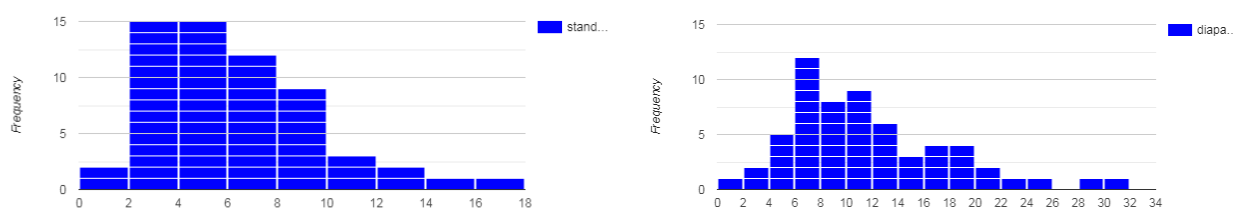


Figure 5. Histograms of standard deviation and diapason of intra-speaker variations of articulation rate.

4. Fundamental Frequency (F0)

The fundamental frequency (F0), also known as the first harmonic is the number of repetitions of a (quasi-)periodic wave (of any type actually) during the time unit of one second (Hollien, 1990,

20). It plays a crucial role in the process of sound production and perception. Many individuals exhibit habituated pitch patterns that can aid the listener in identifying them by voice (Hollien, 1990, 198). It is the lowest frequency in the sound wave and is perceived as the "tone quality" of the sound. The fundamental frequency is usually measured in Hertz (Hz). It can vary significantly between speakers or even between different utterances of the same speaker. The fundamental frequency can be affected by factors such as gender, age, physical or emotional state, and more. Variations in fundamental frequency may also indicate cultural, regional, or individual identity.

As mentioned above, fundamental frequency is measured in Hertz and as a rule is represented as the arithmetic mean, although it can also be reported as the median, maximum and minimum value or standard deviation (Drygajlo, et al., 2015).

Fundamental frequency changes between various genders as a result of physiological differences between men and women, particularly related to the length of the vocal cords. Because their vocal chords are considerably shorter than men's, women's fundamental frequencies are higher than men's. "typical ranges of interspeaker variation for F0 mean value are 80-200 Hz for men and 150-400 Hz for women who normally have higher F0 due to shorter vocal fold length" (ENFSI, 2022, p. 8).

The correlation between fundamental frequency and age may be individual and population dependent and requires further research. However, in general, this parameter tends to decrease with age.

4.1 Inter and intra-speaker variations in F0

We measured the average fundamental frequency of the voices of the speakers we recorded and presented the data as a box-plot.

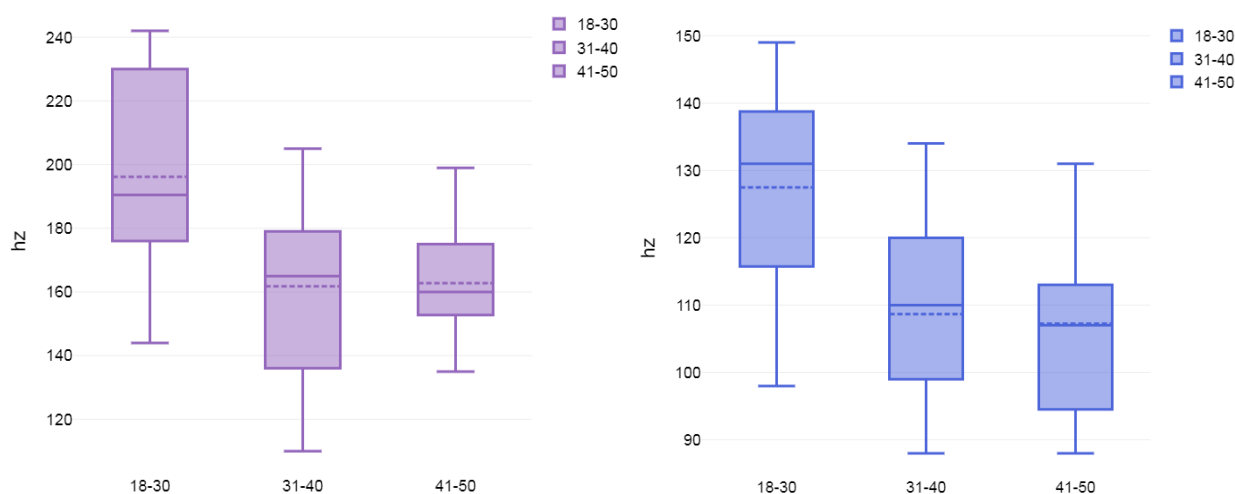


Figure 6. Box-plot of mean Fundamental frequency in different age and gender categories.

Groups:	18-30 (Female)	31-40 (Female)	41-50 (Female)	18-30 (male)	31-40 (male)	41-50 (male)
Sample size (n):	30	30	30	30	30	30
Minimum:	144	110	135	98	88	88
Q1:	176	136	153	116	99	94.5
Median:	190.5	165	160	131	110	107
Q3:	230	179	175	138	120	113
Maximum:	242	205	199	149	134	131
Mean (\bar{x}):	196.17	161.77	162.76	128.37	108.67	107.25

Table 5. Statistics of mean Fundamental frequency in different age and gender categories.

The diagrams show that the fundamental frequency decreases with age for both men and women. However, the gap between the age categories of 18 to 30 and 31 to 40 is substantially wider than that between 31 to 40 and 41 to 50. From a physiological perspective, the reason for this may be the still-developing body. Additionally, the fundamental frequency is less distributed, and the primary data is centered between 153-175 Hertz and the range of 135-199 Hertz in female speakers who are between the ages of 41 and 50. The data analysis leads us to the following conclusion: the following assumptions can be made when creating linguistic profiles of native speakers of the Georgian language:

- If $F_0 > 205$ Hz, this will be positive data in favor of the hypothesis that the voice sample belongs to a woman under 30 years old;
- If $F_0 > 199$ Hz, this will be positive data in favor of the hypothesis that the voice sample belongs to a woman under 40 years old;
- In the case of male speakers, if $F_0 > 134$ Hz, this is positive data in favor of the hypothesis that the voice sample in question belongs to a male person under the age of 30.

A comparison of intra-speaker variations in the fundamental frequencies of male speakers showed that the maximum difference between the speaker's measurements was 24 Hertz, and the average range value was 8 Hertz. Regarding the standard deviation, it has a range of 1 to 15, with a mean value of 2.5. As a result, when comparing the questioned and known sound samples, a fundamental frequency difference of up to 29 Hz and a standard deviation of up to 15 Hz should be

regarded as acceptable for intra-speaker differences.

The frequency range for female speakers is 1 to 42 Hz, with an average of 20 Hz. In terms of the standard deviation, it has a mean value of 10 and a range of 1 to 23. Hence, the difference in fundamental frequency up to 42 Hz and the standard deviation up to 23 Hz should be taken into account as acceptable when comparing the questioned and known sound samples.

A comparison of non-native speakers' F0 from the 18-30 age group to Georgian native speakers from relevant age group showed the following picture:

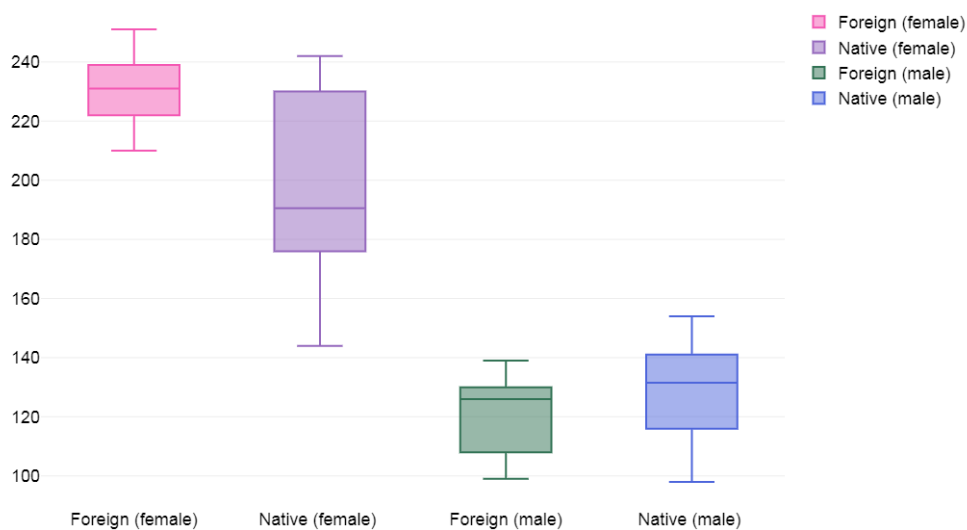


Figure 7. Box-plot of mean F0 of Georgian language native and non-native speakers from 18-30 age category.

Groups:	Foreign (female)	Native (female)	Foreign (male)	Native (male)
Sample size (n):	30	30	30	30
Minimum:	210	144	99	98
Q1:	222	176	108	116
Median:	231	190.5	126	131.5
Q3:	239	230	130	141
Maximum:	251	242	139	154
Mean (\bar{x}):	231.38	196.17	120.53	128.37

Table 6. Statistics of mean F0 of Georgian language native and non-native speakers from 18-30 age category.

The non-native speaker women's group has an average fundamental frequency of 231 Hertz, ranging from 210 to 251 Hertz. This is 41.5 Hertz higher than the native speakers' fundamental frequency. On the other hand, the situation for men is somewhat different; in particular, the range is 99-139 Hertz (as opposed to 98-154 Hz for native speakers), and the average is 139 Hertz, which is 15 Hertz below the F0 of Georgian native speaker men. As a result, the fundamental frequency appears to be greater for women and lower for men in the Azerbaijani native speaking group when compared to the Georgian native speaking group.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, this study provides valuable statistical information on the speech rate and fundamental frequency of the Georgian language for forensic phonetics purposes. The findings suggest that speech rate and fundamental frequency can be useful parameters in differentiating between speakers, with the normal articulation tempo of the Georgian language identified to be between 5.1 to 6.3 syllables/second. These results can aid forensic phonetics experts in the identification of speakers for legal purposes. The study also highlights the importance of selecting appropriate parameters that are independent, have high inter-speaker and low intra-speaker variation, and are applicable to the specific case being investigated.

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Lingua-cultural Peculiarities of Tourism Discourse and the Perspective of its Teaching

ABSTRACT

The article deals with the problem of lingua-cultural peculiarities of tourism discourse, contrastive analysis of English and Georgian tourism-related vocabulary and terminology, and outlook of teaching tourism discourse to students or people who are interested in the field of tourism. Tourism discourse is an independent type of discourse that has a specific addressee and it refers to communication among people who do not belong to a specific social or cultural group or language community. Therefore, our main focus will be addressed to reveal language peculiarities of English and Georgian tourism discourse to make the teaching process easier for any group of people who are interested in understanding the specific terms and expressions used in the texts. Revealing lingua-cultural differences and similarities between the chosen English and Georgian texts contributes to a better understanding of various cultures and traditions. Thus, the paper aims to research the vocabulary and terminology of the tourism discourse and to select the appropriate terminology for teaching tourism-related texts considering their lingua-cultural peculiarities.

The research based on contrastive analysis of English and Georgian tourism-related texts shows that in professional and academic tourism discourses certain terms and special vocabulary are observed, in public tourism discourse - evaluative vocabulary and emotional connotations prevail. Lingua-cultural analysis of the tourism-related English and Georgian texts showed that they are characterized by an abundance of borrowed words and lacunas, although the use of idioms is rare. The conclusions drawn in the paper contribute to the further research of tourism texts. In addition, it should be noted that the work is interdisciplinary, and it will be useful not only for specialists working in the tourism industry but for philologists and teachers teaching English to students qualifying in tourism..

Keywords: *lingua-cultural peculiarities, teaching tourism discourse, tourism-related texts, borrowed words, terms of tourism, lacunas.*

1. Introduction

To understand the lingua-cultural peculiarities of tourism discourse it is relevant to overview typological status and the institutional function of this type of discourse, and furthermore, how this issue is discussed in the scientific literature.

Political, economic, social, and cultural factors that contributed to the development of tourism in the 20th century: transport has developed, communication has become easier, more means of comfort have appeared, and prices have become affordable. Since the 21st century, all this has been given a larger scale. Tourism is actively gaining a foothold in Georgia. Our country has repeatedly become the subject of foreign visitors' attention, and this attention is increasing year by year. Since the number of tourists in the country is increasing every year, the demand for the corresponding service is also increasing, which is determined by the tourist guide along with the travel companies. The need for highly qualified specialists in the field of tourism has become urgent that is achieved by teaching the style, vocabulary, and terms of tourism discourse to people who are involved in the tourism business.

The development of the tourist business in Georgia has presented an important task to specialists to create texts, which would easily and correctly promote the events in this region. Accordingly, a new type of discourse was introduced and developed, which was called tourism discourse. It is characterized by a variety of expressions, in particular, a written and spoken style that allows us to achieve a comfortable and reliable atmosphere; it is based on intercultural communication, therefore the values and traditions related to the national character of different peoples are reflected in the tourism-related texts.

1.1. Discussion on the Issue of Tourism Discourse

Tourism discourse is understood as a set of texts that are the product of speech activity in the field of tourism. Like any other discourse, tourism discourse has a sender and an addressee. Often, tourism discourse uses media texts to describe certain social realities.

Tourism discourse differs from other types of discourse because it involves not only communication among people who do not belong to a particular social group or language community but various organizations included in the tourism industry: tourist companies and agencies, airline and railway ticket offices, guides and interpreter agencies, service employees.

The above-mentioned specific patterns of tourism discourse are based on the typological status:

- a) Tourism discourse is undoubtedly an institutional category, as it is used mainly in communication situations in which at least one party is a social or economic institution

operating within the tourism business - management, marketing, financial flows, personnel policies, public relations, media resources, various cultural and artistic institutions, state, legal, social and environmental organizations;

- b) Entering the space of institutional discourse, participants of communication have official relations with each other when performing specific professional functions; social ties are taken into account; the existence of a business problem, time and place, normativity of communicative behavior, etiquette, tone depends on the purpose of the discourse. The sociability of representatives of tourist organizations, etiquette in relations with tourists, knowledge of the historical past of Georgia, and its monuments, love for the country, trust, and showing the intention of friendly relations, are just some of the important factors.
- c) The functional status of tourism discourse lies in providing information, advertising, establishing communication, and attracting tourists to this or that country or a specific place, which is determined by lexical-grammatical, syntactic, and stylistic means that create a friendly conversational style.

As we can see, tourism discourse has a hybrid character. It combines both normative and creative discourse, which is explained by its pragmatic and linguistic features (Филатова, 2014).

According to Vestito, tourism discourse is the use of language in oral and written form, a form of practice (activity) where the social and cultural meanings of places and people are created and disseminated; a language that promotes tourism and is represented by specific genres (Vestito, 2006).

According to Cappelli, tourism discourse exhibits different levels of specialization that are associated with different types of texts about specific audiences (Cappelli, 2007).

Important for our research is the definition of discourse as a fully formed unit of information, characterized by connectivity and conditioned by linguistic and extra-linguistic parameters, and is a collection of texts that contain similar themes, principles of construction, and similar pragmatic parameters (Арютюнова, 1990).

This discourse is represented mainly by media texts described in tourism discourse. These media texts are used as tools for describing and creating a certain social reality (Добросклонская, 2005). Tourism discourse is determined by the use of specific strategies and values.

From a theoretical perspective, discourses can be conceptualized by people of various professions in their everyday social and cultural interactions (Fairclough, 1992). They act based on identities, social relations, and knowledge that reflect the context in which these actions take place (Van Dijk, 1993). A key difference that must be taken into account when attempting discourse analysis is the careful consideration of the socio-cultural context.

In tourism discourse, we should distinguish the forms of content, textual, semiotic, and

discourse analysis, and among them, we should demonstrate the usefulness of discourse analysis in an interdisciplinary aspect for its further development. Forms of discourse analysis view texts as mediated cultural products that are part of broader systems of knowledge. From this perspective, discourses largely determine what kind of knowledge we allow ourselves to know (Shotter, 1993).

The genre of tourism discourse can be defined as follows: 1) oral speech genres that depend on oral communication in certain situations and conditions (dialogue with the tour operator, speech of guides, etc.); 2) written genres that refer to written versions of tourist texts (guides, brochures, booklets, etc.).

The most specific and complex genre is the guide genre because it is the most important source of information about the country's natural, economic and cultural characteristics, it is the visiting card of the country. Therefore, we consider that teaching lingua-cultural peculiarity, terms, and vocabulary to people who are involved in the tourism business will be useful.

The lexical, structural, and thematic features of touristic texts allow us to consider them as a special informative genre. Valdeon (2015) claims that museums have become part of the modern concept of tourism. Thus, tourism discourse with its non-linguistic basis can exist independently from the linguistic point of view.

Tourist brochures have a significant influence on tourists' decisions. They give a certain impression of their destination. Hence, it becomes crucial when choosing their vacation packages. Tourist brochures are studied by Andereck (2005). His research shows how a brochure can increase potential visitors' interest in visiting a destination. Its strategic importance for the tourism industry is also emphasized by Morgan and Pritchard (1998) when they argue that the tourist vision is formed by the professional authors who create the brochure. One of the identifying features of tourist brochures is the use of expressive vocabulary.

Angela Goddard (2002) asserts that the expression of feelings in advertising has a special role because, as a form of communication, it consciously aims to manage our emotions. Authors use a combination of lexical-grammatical resources to positively convey the reality they are trying to promote. We live in a world saturated with advertisements, and their volume and impact are increasing day by day. Advertisements do not exist independently of people, they require the involvement of the public to decipher the information and perceive the various connections (Goddard, 1998).

Davidson (Davidson, 1992) defines tourism advertising as a social language, a genre of viewer/reader experience, a technique of persuasion, almost a world in its own right, with its language, traditions, and purpose. The language that is best designed to convey impressions that match visitor's expectations must be well-chosen and woven into persuasive, engaging texts, as

Dann points out: ...” the language of tourism attempts to persuade, lure, woo and seduce millions of human beings, and, in so doing, convert them from potential into actual clients” (Dann,1996, 2).

Dann notes how tourism acts as a language of social control over hotels and resorts. According to him, a hotel can be considered “an institution that brings tourists together and protects them from external threats” (Dann, 1996, 88). Dann cites Wood’s suggestion that hotels are essentially agents of social control, and the larger the hotel, the greater the social control exerted by management. In the most general sense, social control is the regulation of human behavior, and tourists realize that there are both potential obligations to use the services provided by the hotel, as well as restrictions on their use. This assumption led to another trend such as self-catering, and other forms such as mass tourism and others. Therefore, special training should be held for the people involved in the hotel business introducing specific vocabulary and terms.

Tourism is a profoundly semiotic industry committed to the display, commodification, and development of culture and cultural differences; Language is an essential resource in this cultural industry, tourism discourse (Thurlow & Jaworsky, 2010).

Dann (1996) in his work “The Language of Tourism: A Sociolinguistic Perspective” claims that tourism has its discourse and that the language of tourism fulfills many social functions: it stipulates the active involvement of users (both in the process of consumption and in the process of co-creating language) and is subject to social control (by norms and values). He also points out that the language of tourism is a special type of communication that differs from other forms of exchange because it defines the world’s largest industry - the tourism industry. Therefore, the language in which these texts are written is of particular importance. They allow people to plan their trips. Tourists respond to this discourse, and if it does not match the promises described in tourism texts, frustration and dissatisfaction begin. On the other hand, when tourists are satisfied with their experience, they contribute to the development of the tourism discourse and become their supporters. The language of tourism discourse is so popular that it deserves a thorough study and analysis by tourism researchers.

As mentioned above, tourism discourse is represented by a variety of genres that are intended for a wide audience. We are familiar with the written forms of tourism discourse: tourist magazines, airline companies, brochures, hotel catalogs, tour operator brochures, advertising flyers, etc. Tourism discourse is also widely represented in Internet networks: on the websites of tourist agencies, tourist forums, and electronic magazines. Tourism discourse is aimed at a broad mass of heterogeneous audiences and is therefore characterized as popular and highly in demand.

2. Research Methodology

The aim of the research is to study the vocabulary and terminology of the tourism discourse and to select the appropriate material and terms for teaching tourism-related texts considering their lingua-cultural peculiarities. To achieve this goal, we selected and analysed tourist brochures and internet guides in English and Georgian languages.

The research was conducted with the following methodology:

1. **Finding, collecting, and describing authentic materials, and information;**
2. **The observation method** for obtaining information.
3. **Lingua-cultural analysis** of the texts that reveal cultural peculiarities of different nations, their traditions, customs, values, and beliefs.
4. **Synthesis and analysis methods:**
 - a) **Discourse analysis;** tourism discourse is characterized by specific lexical, stylistic, syntactic, functional, and graphic features that distinguish it from other types of discourse. The majority of tourism texts are creolized, that is, information is presented verbally and visually/graphically. Illustrations, photos, charts, and pictograms are used in the texts.
 - b) **A lexical and semantic analysis of touristic guides, and brochures were conducted;**
 - c) **Lexicological analysis of texts to identify borrowed words and terms;**
 - d) **Quantitative analysis of tourism texts.** It is appropriate to study them from a quantitative point of view because it is interesting how many adjectives, adverbs, abbreviations, compound words, etc. are used in the texts written in different languages of similar volume to attract tourists;
5. **Contrastive research,** when similar and different linguistic features are revealed in texts written in different languages.

The corpus of English (50) and Georgian (50) tourist texts from brochures and internet guides were analysed in the paper. These texts may be suggested as samples for teaching tourism terms and vocabulary to people interested in tourism discourse.

1.2. Analysis of Research Results and Important Findings

As the research of tourism-related texts revealed, tourism discourse is characterized by a high persistence of specific vocabulary most of which contribute to the expansion of the addressee's cultural competence. The desire to gain and deepen knowledge can be an additional motivation for travelling to the described place. In tourism discourse, such language tools as special vocabulary, compound words, idioms and phrases, historicisms, exotic words, lacunas, borrowings, terms, proper

names, and also various tropes are used.

The observation and analysis of the chosen English and Georgian tourism-related texts proved that argumentation is actively used in tourism discourse, which is a special type of individual speech activity that influences the addressee so that he decides to purchase a tourist product.

In tourism discourse, all kinds of combinations of beliefs and evidence are used to achieve these goals, which has a significant impact on the addressee. The argument is successfully carried out using strategies and tactics. Several factors influence the choice of strategy in tourism texts. In this regard, the following strategies are distinguished: differentiation strategies; value strategies; assessment strategies; strategies for getting closer to the addressee; strategies to increase the reading of messages; effective lexical argumentation, and others. This can be done using synonyms, antonyms, idioms, proverbs, and sayings. Syntax also plays an important role in the construction of argumentation. Various tropes are used to perform the functions of semantic perception and emotional impact and persuasion in texts. Thanks to them, argumentation strategies and tactics are implemented in the text. The following tropes are used in tourism discourse: metaphors, metonymies, comparisons, and hyperboles.

The research proved, that tourism-related texts written in English are characterized by the following linguistic features:

1. The vocabulary of such texts consists of three parts: general words; stylistically neutral words (historical, cultural, architecture, sight, attract); scientific words (phenomenon, relic, circular, erect), architectural, historical, art history terms (pinnacles, masonry, crenelate);
2. Positive evaluations of tourist objects are created using clichés (to be famous for, to be an important part of, to cater for, to be popular with), relative adjectives, superlative adjectives, modal verbs, phraseology; using stylistic techniques: metaphor, comparison, hyperbole; using the emotional-expressive syntax: constructions of ellipsis, repetition, antithesis, rhetorical question;
3. Abbreviated use of size units, time intervals, use terms characteristic of journalistic style and advertising, numerals, toponyms, acronyms, and abbreviations;
4. The syntactic aspect varies depending on the type of text. In the text of guidebooks and brochures, there are parallel constructions, and syntactically complex sentences characteristic of scientific-popular and journalistic styles, while simplified syntax dominates in tourist brochures.

The majority of tourism texts are creolized, that is, information is presented verbally and visually. To make an effective impression on the addressee, illustrations, photos, diagrams, and pictograms are used in the given texts.

Partially creolized texts include newspaper and magazine articles, tourist columns, guides, and

brochures. Full creolization is presented in announcements, maps, tickets, and transport schedules.

Therefore, we distinguish three types of tourist texts, which are presented in different genres and are recommended to use in the teaching process:

1. Informative texts: articles from tourist magazines, newspapers, and websites, a guide, in which partially creolized texts are presented and have an informative function;
2. Small-sized texts: brochure, instruction, advertisement, announcement, menu, traffic scheduling, iconized tickets, which combine with the verbal part and ensure its understanding;
3. Iconized signs (pure iconized texts): road signs, geographical maps (physical, touristic), metro schemes, street, and park plans, and building plans (hotel floor, other tourist facilities), which perform warning, and explanatory functions.

Finding out the main function, the representatives of the field of tourism refer to textual information sources and select important information for them according to the situation and requirements. As for less formatted, smaller texts with iconized signs, they encode them and decode the information. Tourist guides are mostly formal texts, in which we find both formal and medium-formal words, but the difficulty is created by such phraseological units and collocations, which are difficult for tourists to understand.

The brochures include the following sections: historical facts, traditional holidays, cultural events, information about historical monuments, a map, and general information about the location of the country, as well as - excursion programs, tour costs, times, etc. The structure of the tourist guide is unlimited. Some guides may contain advertisements, images, and encyclopedic information. The main thing is that this kind of brochure should make an effect, it should interest the tourist and make him want to come to this or that country. Therefore, the image of the country is formed by tourist guides.

As for the oral genres of tourism discourse, here we can combine the dialogue with the tour operator, the speech of the staff, and guides in the field of tourism.

Thus, participants in the teaching process of tourism discourse may include people working in the tourism business, various travel companies, airlines, guides, translation agencies, and service workers. To make a tourism discourse, the representatives of tourist organizations must be communicative, observe etiquette about tourists, and also know the history of our country, its culture, customs, and its historical monuments.

1.3. Quantitative Analysis of the English and Georgian Tourist Guides

We analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively fifty English and fifty Georgian texts from which we have chosen two tourist guides, one in English and the other in Georgian as a model of quantitative analysis. We considered it appropriate to study them from a quantitative point of view because we were interested in how many different linguistic units were used to attract tourists in texts of almost the same size. We studied the number of words in them, namely, nouns, adjectives, pronouns, conjunctions, verbs, adverbs, idioms, phrasal verbs, abbreviations, derived or affixed words, complex words, and sentence types: simple, complex, and subordinate sentences. We also studied borrowed words. We analyzed the use of semantics, in particular, descriptive language in the brochures to find out if there is anything in common in the texts of the two languages. An example of quantitative analysis of the English and Georgian (with translation) texts is presented below. The corpus analysis was conducted via the Corpus of British English.

English text:

Historical sites take you back through time, vast landscapes to explore, and wildlife to make you go ‘aw’. That’s Northumberland. Countless Northumberland castles jostle for attention - ‘proper’ castles with battlements and portcullises, ghostly ruins guarding endless sandy beaches, and ones that echo with ancient footsteps. There is a plethora of things to do in Northumberland for history fans, hikers, mountain bikers, and romantics alike, from ambling along the Northumberland coast to glamping and camping in the county’s endless countryside, but one of the best places to visit in Northumberland of all is the Farne Islands, where dozens of puffins await to melt your hearts. At night, turn your gaze upwards to see millions of stars pinpricking the famed dark skies in Northumberland’s National Park (<https://www.visitengland.com/things-to-do/region/northumberland>).

Georgian text:

ზღვის ტურიზმი აჭარაში ერთ-ერთი ყველაზე პოპულარულია. სუბტროპიკული კლიმატი, თბილი ზღვა, კეთილმოწყობილი სანაპიროები, ზღვისა და მთის შერწყმა – ეს ყველაფერი დასვენებისთვის უნიკალურ გარემოს ქმნის. სანაპირო ზოლის სიგრძე 21 კილომეტრია, ზღვის წყლის ტემპერატურა – საშუალოდ, +21-29 გრადუსი.

აჭარის საკურორტო ზონაში შედის: ქობულეთი, ციხისძირი, ჩაქვი, მწვანე კონცხი, ბათუმი, გონიო, კვარიათი, სარფი. ეს ადგილები მნახველს განუმეორებელ

შთაბეჭდილებებს დაუტოვებს. სანაპირო ზოლს გადევნებული და პლაჟის ბუნებრივ საჩრდილობლად ქცეული ფიჭვნარი, ზღვის პირზე გაბნეული ქვები, რომელთა ფორმებსაც წყალი საუკუნეების განმავლობაში აყალიბებდა, ბულვარის მაღალგანვითარებული ინფრასტრუქტურა და გართობის ფართო არჩევანი – სასურველი დასვენების მოწყობას აქ ყველა შეძლებს. (<https://www.gobatumi.com/ka/seaside-adjara>).

Table 1. *A quantitative survey of the corpus*

Points to be discussed	English	Georgian
Nouns	33	48
Adjectives	15	11
Pronouns	5	3
Conjunctions	7	4
Verbs	15	7
Adverbs	5	3
Phrasal verbs/idioms	5	-
Abbreviations	2	-
Derived/affixed words	14	10
Complex words	9	5
Simple sentences	1	6
Complex sentences	7	2
Complex subordinate clauses	2	1
Borrowed words	5	11

Research shows that descriptive and positive adjectives are used in guidebooks to attract and persuade readers (*Historical, vast, countless, ghostly, endless, sandy, ancient, best, dozens, famed, dark*, etc.). Infinitives, participles, and gerunds are often used in the English language. We combined the latter into affixed/derived words. In Georgian, there are many derived verbs. The tourism language used in tourist guides is different from colloquial English and Georgian. Also, it has a special register that differs from general English because it serves certain specific purposes.

According to the results of research, the language of tourism contains many adjectives. These adjectives are pleasant and express positive emotions. Using words *fascinating, colorful, and vivid* in descriptions make an impression and attracts more potential tourists. Many adjectives express positive emotions. It is common to use adjectives in superlative and comparative degrees. The use of hyperboles also gives positive results. They influence the reader's emotions, attitudes, and beliefs. In

tourism discourse, we find a whole group of borrowed words, mainly Latin borrowings.

Appeals, imperatives, and instructions are often found in travel brochures. Imperative sentences are used to give instructions, requests, or even advice. These sentences are sometimes called directions.

There are also examples of adventures. This narrative tells us about what might happen at the destination. The tone is relaxed and calm, yet exciting and encouraging for potential tourists to visit the described places. All this creates a magical illusion that travellers look forward to. Phrases like *paradise await you, unbelievable sight, and exotic places* are often used.

Tourism is of special importance for many countries, so we should pay special attention to the preparation of travel brochures. They represent a kind of visiting card for the country. Persuasive information about the country is conveyed in them in laconic and artistic language. At the same time, we must keep in mind that although the colourful pictures and maps in them attract people, it is the language that convinces them to visit, to go on a trip to these countries.

One of the features of the English tourism discourse is the optimistic mood and the use of euphemisms in the texts. The analysis of the lexical and stylistic features of English tourism texts showed us that they have common linguistic features such as the use of neutral and expressive vocabulary. Depending on the target parameter, the general informational character of the content of tourist texts leads to the frequent use of proper names, statistical data, and words denoting time.

The significant growth of tourism in the world has given rise to the need to research the linguistic features of this genre that are effectively used in teaching vocabulary and terms used in tourism discourse. It should be noted that the research of this genre in linguistics involves the study of linguistic features of the text, the study of lexical and grammatical forms of the word, its semantic and pragmatic analysis.

As an example of specific lexical, syntactic, and textual features, some of the common features that characterize the language of tourism giving it the appearance of a specialized language can be found below. This classification will help the teachers or trainers select material for teaching tourism discourse.

- At the lexical level:

1. Using positive adjectives to add beauty and distinctiveness to the text (*outstanding, spectacular, exotic, colourful*);

2. Using superlative adjectives or morphological forms (*the most exciting; Windsor Castle is the oldest and largest occupied castle in the world*) (<https://www.rct.uk/visit/windsor-castle>);

3. Extremely careful selection of such lexical elements as *away, adventure, dream, imagination, pleasure, and escape* to justify the tourist's expectations regarding the trip; This is also

combined with the so-called linguistic communication technique (Dann, 1996), which implies the use of foreign and composed words in touristic texts to evoke exotic sensations in the tourist;

4. Using cultural contexts called realia or lacunas (*chiringuito, gazpacho, kilt, pizza, khachapuri, churchkhela*, etc.) that do not have an equivalent in the target language.

Adjectives play a primary role in promoting tourist destinations and services and in persuading and attracting readers and potential tourists. The linguist Edo-Marza (2011) emphasizes that the use of cumulative, hyperbolic, and exaggerated adjectives can even have the opposite effect on the reader, the tourist. He explains that if a particular destination is expressed in an overly idealized and positive way, the tourist may be disappointed if he is not met with the charming and perfect picture of the destination that he expected. This may also have other negative consequences, such as negative comments by tourists on popular travel websites.

In advertising texts, adjectives with negative prefixes are not often used, although, in the case of evaluative adjectives, the use of such forms has a positive meaning: *unforgettable, unmarked, unspoiled/unspoiled, unparalleled, undiscovered, incomparable*, etc.

Compound words in English tourism discourse are more often nouns. For example, compound nouns are: *airplane, exhibit manager, excursion tour, king room, visitor flow, wine routes, and wine appreciation, world round trip, city ticket office* ;

Some compound words are made up of semantic heads or determinative parts. Those compound words in which the two constituent elements are endocentric (non-idiomatic) compound words, for example, *waterfalls, food-coach (nutrition instructor), surf-wear (surfing clothes), swim-wear (swimsuit), open-air, bathtubs, speedboat, waterspout, underwater, foothills, honeymoon, five-stars, awe-inspiring, world-class, mouthwatering, thanksgiving, doorstep, nightlife, seafood, lovebirds, homestay, takeaway*, etc.

However, there are other compounds where the headword is not expressed but implied, i.e. the essential part of the semantic head is obviously missing; it is implied and understood but not formally expressed. These compounds are exocentric (idiomatic) because their semantic head lies outside E.g. *a bellboy- a person whose job is carrying people's suitcases in their rooms in the hotel*. Difficult words of this type are rarely found in tourism texts, as some misunderstanding may hinder the decision-making process of a potential tourist. endocentric compound words were abundant in the texts we obtained from the famous website www.travelandleisure.com:

*England's exceptional public transportation makes it simple and **stress-free** to travel between them* (<https://www.travelandleisure.com/travel-guide/london>);

*If your day is too packed to have **a sit-down lunch**, a sandwich from a chain will be legitimately delicious* (<https://www.travelandleisure.com/travel-guide/london>)

Lively, theater-dotted Soho in the West End is the place to go for the nightlife of all stripes. Take in a show, go dancing, enjoy a late-night movie or dinner, or a few of the above (<https://www.travelandleisure.com/travel-guide/london>)

The analysis of compound words in touristic texts (100) showed us that they mainly have the following structure N+N, Adj+N, Adv+N, Num+N, and perform different functions in a sentence, such as nouns, adjectives, adverbs, etc.

Table 2. *Morphological analysis of compound words*

Structure	Number of examples	Function	Example
N+N	31	noun, adjective, adverb	Playground, glasswork; Waterfront, waterproof; Foothill; doorstep; etc.
Adj+N	10	noun, adjective	Natural resource, greenhouse; Modern-day, open-air;
Adv+N	5	adverb, adjective	Downtown, Upscale, underwater;
Num+N	3	adjective	Three-course, five-star
N + V+ed	7	adjective	Family-oriented, mosaic-scattered, fashion-focused

We set the following criteria for differentiating a compound word and the corresponding free word agreement according to classification suggested by Makovey (Makovey, 2009): 1) semantic integrity; 2) nominal integrity; 3) graphic criterion 4) morphological integrity; 5) phonetic criterion; 6) impenetrability, the impossibility of separating the components of a complex word by the third word; 7) the impossibility of freely changing the sequence of components; 8) performance the function of one part of speech; 9) syntactic indivisibility; 10) The relationship between the components of a complex word is: a) predicate; b) attributive; c) adverbial; d) objective; 11) the possibility of generating according to certain structural-semantic models; 12) pragmatic criterion

1.4. The Terminology and Idioms in the Tourism Discourse

The terminology of any field is always in a state of quantitative and qualitative change: some terms are obsolete and unused, and others are created and introduced, replacing previously known terms semantically; this indicates the activity of lexical-semantic relations in terminology, which is somewhat different from the literary language. Therefore, teaching terms of tourism discourse is very essential and needs to be highlighted. The terms given below are suggested for teaching discourse vocabulary.

Tourism terminology is characterized by full and short forms of one concept due to its ineffectiveness. The use of complete forms contradicts the principle of linguistic economy, according to which only separate, optimized linguistic forms of communication are introduced in speech (Golovin, 1979). Therefore, short versions of the term, abbreviated forms, hybrid forms, as well as elliptical constructions appear in the texts, when one of the constituent parts of the terms is used instead of the full form of the term: *tourist base - turbase, tourism business - turbo business, tourist operator - tour operator, tourist package - tour package, environmental tourism - ecotourism, geological tourism – geotourism.*

In English terminology, abbreviations have a greater place in creating short versions of terms: *DET - domestic escorted tour, DIT - domestic independent tour, FIT - foreign independent tour, GIT - group inclusive tour, VFR - visiting friends and relatives, DMC - Destination Management Company, DMO - Destination Marketing Organization, DOS - Director of Sales, FAM - Familiarization Tour, FIT - Free and Independent (of group) Traveler, FIT – Foreign Independent Traveler, GS - Guest Services, GSA - Guest Service Agent, GSM - Guest Service Manager, GST - Goods and Services Tax, M & IT - Meetings & Incentive Travel, MLOS - Minimum Length of Stay, OCC – Occupancy, REV PAR - Revenue Per Available Room, RRW - Resort Reservations Worldwide, TA - Travel Agent, B & B - Bed & Breakfast, WTTC World Travel Market – WTM - World Travel and Tourism Council*

(<https://faculty.ksu.edu.sa/sites/default/files/Tourism%20Abbreviations.pdf>).

In recent decades, an authoritative view has emerged that these forms should not be considered synonymous because the short version is secondary, it depends on the full meaning and form (Simmons, 1984).

We based our research on the following classification of tourism terms suggested by Yakubova, (Yakubova *et al.*, 2020):

1. Graphic - terms that differ only in spelling. Examples: *traveler – traveller, pressurization – pressurisation, familiarization trip – familiarisation trip, travel catalog – travel catalogue, traveler's check – traveller's cheque, appetizer – appetizer, camping site – camping site*, etc.

In English tourism terminology, the existence of graphic options is primarily due to the existence of British and American versions of the language (Gassling *et al.*, 2008).

2. Phonetic variants that differ only in pronunciation. In most cases, the different pronunciations of terms arise due to differences between the British and American versions of the language, which leads to an increase in the number of phonetic variants in the English terminology of the tourism sector.

3. Phonetic-graphic variants – variants that differ only in pronunciation and variant spelling of the same vocabulary: *snorkeling – snorkelling, barber's shop – the barber shop, draft [dra: ft] - draft [draft]*;

4. Word-forming variants – variants that differ in derivational affixes or the order of elements: *shopping tour - shop tour, yachting tourism - yacht tourism, camping site – campsite, turning down – turndown*.

5. Syntactic structures - phrases that differ in the syntactic model of formation (order of words and the relationship between them): *date of departure - departure date, date of arrival - arrival date, country of origin - origin country, tourism demand - demand for tourism, tourism infrastructure – the infrastructure of tourism*.

Besides, we distinguished the following types of morphological and syntactic forms: ellipsis, which is formed by omitting one of the elements in a multi-component term so that its meaning remains unchanged: *farm stay tourism - farm tourism, healthcare tourism - health tourism, ground handling operator - ground operator, day tripper – tripper, world round tour - world tour, scuba diving – diving*, etc. In the English terminological system of the tourism sector, there are such composites or blends as *agricultural tourism – agritourism, familiarization trip - fam trip, apartment hotel – aparthotel, floating hotel – floatel, cork charge – corkage, motorist hotel – motel*, etc.

Terminology in the field of tourism is constantly updated and developed. We share the opinion of Georgian Professor and expert on tourism Metreveli (Metreveli, 2006), who distinguishes the following terms:

The first characteristic feature is the borrowing of terms from other fields;

carrousel, animation, hospitality industry, restricted goods, standby, stopover, etc.

The second characteristic feature – is creating the original terms:

back-to-back charter, catering, concourse, consolidator, inclusive tour, itinerary, open-jaw fare, redcap, time-share, tour package, etc.

An important part of tourist terms can be found in international terminology systems. Through transliteration, the word is partially assimilated into the receiving language system and is often consolidated in the form of internationalism. For example, in the Georgian language, the following words were borrowed that sound the same as the English terms: ინკლუზივ-ტური (*an inclusive tour*), ტუროპერეითინგი (*tour operating*), კონსოლიდატორი (*consolidate*), კეიტერინგი (*catering*), პეკიჯ-ტური (*package tour*), ოვერბუქინგი (*overbooking*), and others.

As mentioned above, one of the reasons for this process is that the target language does not have a counterpart. For example, *inclusive tour – a tour that includes all types of tourist services necessary for the tourist during the trip; catering – delivery of food and drinks outside of restaurants and cafes, services for picnics, festivals, outdoor events, weddings, buffets, and exhibitions, on board airplanes and trains* (Metreveli, 2006).

Several terms are kept without transliteration, for example, *საწოლი და საუზმე (bed and breakfast) - a type of hotel service that includes only overnight accommodation and breakfast; სწრაფი კვება მანქანიდან გამოუსვლელად, მოგზაურობის დროს (fast food drive-in) - fast food without getting out of the car, while travelling* (Metreveli, 2006). Due to the difficulty of pronunciation, such concepts are rarely stored in the user's active dictionary (Markova, 2014).

Thus, the dynamism of the system and its international character can be considered the main features of the terminology system in the field of tourism. In the complex study of tourism discourse, it is also necessary to take into account the means of the etymology of the relevant terms. Among the terms in Georgian, simple lexemes prevail (*ტურიზმი (tourism), გიდი (guide), ვიზა (visa)*), over affixed words, i.e., generated ones (*კონსოლიდატორი (consolidator), ინსენტივ-ტური (incentive-tour), ინკლუზივ-ტური (inclusive-tour)*). The most common compound words are *ვან-რესტორანი (a car-restaurant), ბორტგამცილებელი (flight attendant), ბიზნესკლასი (business class)*, as well as terms formed through blending: *ეკონომკლასი (economy-class), ავიახაზი (airline), ტურაგენტი (tour-agent)*. Simple lexemes also prevail in the English-language material: *track, flight, steward*; affixed lexemes (*package, administrator*) are less frequent than compound ones (*doorman, railroad, airport, aircrew*). Two-component attributive word formation is often used both in English and in Georgian, for example, *flight attendant – ბორტგამყოლი, entry*

visa – ქვეყანაში შესასვლელი ვიზა, agency tour – ტურისტული სააგენტოს სპეციალური ტური, minimum connection time - გადაჯდომის მინიმალური დრო, rented car (rent-a-car) - დაქირავებული მანქანა, educational tour - შემეცნებითი ტური, etc.

The syntactic method is the preferred method of word formation for English and Georgian tourist terms (*check-in, check-out, baggage-man, identification paper, in-house guest*).

Lexemes borrowed from different languages are found in the Georgian tourism terminology more than in the English terminology: English words – *ჯიპ-საფარი (jeep-safari), ბიზნესკლასი (business class); კემპინგი (camping); ქარავანიზმი (caravanning)*; French words (*ტურისტო-tourist; რესტორანო-restaurant; ტრანსფერი-transfer*). There are words borrowed from Spanish (*კაფეტერია-cafeteria*), Latin (*ანულირება-annulment*), Turkish (*ქარავანი-caravan*), German (*აგენტი-agent*), etc.

The difference in the subgroups of tourism discourse is visible in terms of their vocabulary. The lexical items that make up professional and academic tourism discourses appear to be highly specialized terms. Examples are *inbound tourism, outbound tourism, hard tourism, alternative tourism, amenities/facilities, pleasure periphery, edutainment, Plog's Psychographic Typology, and Butler Sequence* (Metreveli, 2006).

In addition to highly specialized terms in professional and academic tourism discourses, there is a multi-functional terminology that is used not only in the field of tourism but also in other professional fields: *break-even point, market segmentation, focus group, branding, risk assessment* (Metreveli, 2006).

In public tourism discourse, emotional, ethical, and aesthetic lexical units prevail: *attraction, entertainment, leisure, lifestyle, tourism appeal, fair trade tourism, ecotourism / responsible tourism, pro-poor tourism, heritage tourism, UNESCO heritage sites*, etc. (Metreveli, 2006).

The formation of the English and Georgian tourism terminology took place in different ways, as a result of which the English language system can be considered relatively established, while the Georgian language system is still developing and at the same time oriented towards English.

There are many words in the English discourse that are borrowed from French, such as *route, abolition, porter, and quay*; also, we observed lexemes borrowed from Spanish (*cafeteria*), Swedish (*smorgasbord*), and Dutch (*snack*) languages.

Non-equivalent words, in particular lacunas, are often used in touristic texts. This is due to the semantics of national culture. It is difficult for tourists to understand them. Therefore, they are often accompanied by an explanation.

To study the borrowed words, we classified them as follows:

1. By naming and translation, for example, when a borrowed word or lacuna is followed by a translation or definition:

***Gazpacho** is a Spanish chilled soup with ripe, fresh tomatoes and other seasonal vegetables (<https://www.simplyrecipes.com/recipes/gazpacho/>);*

***Karachokheli** was the ordinary craftsman of Georgia. They typically wore black chokha (traditional men's wear). They were known for hard work yet a carefree life, as well as a love of Georgian wine and beautiful women, all of which are well represented in the dance (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Georgian_dance);*

*The main part of Ajarian cuisine is food mixed with dairy products, nuts, and spices, such as **achma, borano, sinori, kaimaghi, boregi, pkhallobio, tavmakaroni** (thin layers of dough, filled with walnuts, butter, and sugar), **tufaye** (pumpkin with walnut, sugar and butter filling) (Booklet “Chirukhi-Khikhani-Goderdzi Alpine Route”, 2019, in Georgian).*

2. Such borrowed words that imply the use of foreign lexical and idiomatic material without any direct translation and explanation:

*Tourists who visit Kyoto are now able to be dressed up as **Maiko** for a fee at establishments called “Henshin” Studios... (<https://moushifj.wordpress.com/2013/02/21/maiko-and-geisha-how-to-tell-the-real-from-the-fake/>);*

***Maiko** is a lacuna that is not translated and means a Japanese dancer (*geisha*). Such words should be explained in parentheses so that the tourist can understand what is being offered to him/her:*

*Venture to Thailand's Ko Surin islands for an up-close and personal encounter with the **Chao Ley** (sea gypsy) community (<http://www.responsiblethailand.co.uk/green-tourism/thailand-chao-ley-community-sea-gypsies/>);*

As our research showed, borrowed words are abundantly found in Georgian tourist texts: *On the territory of 6 May Park in ბათუმის 6 მაისის პარკის ტერიტორიაზე განთავსებულია დელფინარიუმი, რომელიც თავისი უნიკალური სამეზღვეო შოუებით უკვე იქცა ქალაქის ერთ-ერთ ყველაზე ვიზიტორებულ ტურისტულ ატრაქციად (Batumi, there is a dolphinarium, which with its unique trilingual shows has already become one of the most visited tourist attractions of the city) (Guidebook “Ajara-Batumi”, 2015, in Georgian);*

სტრიტ არტისა და ექსპერიმენტალური, თანამედროვე ხელოვნების ნიმუშები გამოფენილი ქალაქის ახალ საგამოფენო სივრცეში „41/41“... (Works of street art and experimental, contemporary art are exhibited in the city's new exhibition space “41/41” ...)

(Guidebook “Ajara-Batumi”, 2015, in Georgian);

*სწორედ რეგიონის უნიკალური ტოპოგრაფია და კლიმატი განაპირობებს გადამფრენი ფრინველების სიმრავლეს, რაც ბერდვოჩინგის უამრავ მოყვარულს იზიდავს და დაუვიწყარ შთაბეჭდილებებს ჰპირდება (It is the unique **topography** and **climate** of the region that lead to the abundance of birds flying along, which attracts many **birdwatchers** and promises unforgettable impressions (Guidebook “Ajara-Batumi”, 2015, in Georgian);*

Non-assimilated of French origin are often found in English texts: **grandeur, boutique, châteaux, boulevards:**

*From the **grandeur** and bustle of London to the pastoral countryside that inspired Wordsworth, to some of the quaintest towns you'll ever experience, England delights (<https://www.ricksteves.com/europe/england>);*

There are also calques from Spanish (e.g., *paella*), Italian (e.g., *Gelato, vistas*), Finnish (e.g., *sauna*), Scottish (e.g., *kilt*), Russian (e.g., *czar*), Indian and other languages:

*And yet, they've persevered magnificently, with good humor, a zest for architecture and design, deep love of **saunas**... (<https://www.ricksteves.com/europe/finland>);*

*... Spain means many things: bullfights, massive cathedrals, world-class art, Muslim palaces, whitewashed villages, and delicious **paella**... (<https://www.ricksteves.com/europe/spain>).*

Lingua-cultural peculiarities of tourism discourse are well displayed in the phraseological fund. This is the other most preferable unit of the language that should be taught.

A person's life is inseparably connected with geographical names, historical persons, or simply with their names spread in different countries. This could not but affect the language, in particular the set expression which are the products reflecting the historical and socio-cultural development of the society. Such idioms are easily understood by native speakers who understand by association what is implied in a given speech but remain completely incomprehensible to a foreigner who is not familiar with the culture, traditions, and history of these people. Understanding the meaning of idioms, namely toponymic and anthroponymic, without the semanticization of the cultural component is connected with great difficulties.

A large part of the phraseological fund represents the best example of intercultural communication. It is sometimes impossible to determine the source of their entry into different languages, as they have been assimilated into those languages and become part of their culture. This allows a person to use phraseology during discourse and thereby enrich his speech. However, the difficulty is often created by the style and situation of the conversation, the use of idiom variants by foreigners, who transfer a variety of idioms from their language into English, which often means

nothing to an English native speaker. Therefore, it is necessary for any discourse, especially tourism discourse, to preserve the form of idioms fixed in this language.

In the English language, it is not uncommon to hear phrases or expressions that confuse any foreigner for whom English is not their native language. These are specific idioms and phrasal verbs that are an integral part of an English speaker's everyday conversation. Idioms and phraseological units are an integral part of the culture of English-speaking countries, so we need to know and understand their structure, semantics, and essence to understand the national mentality of the language. Tourism discourse is no exception, in various touristic guides or tourist sites we often encounter such idioms as *To travel/ pack light; To live it up; On a shoestring/ on the cheap; At the crack of dawn; To call it a day/ night; Off the beaten track; Walk-in guest; Live out of a suitcase; Break the journey; Hit the road; Paddle one's way; To sip one's way; To have a hotbed; To catch a thrill; Tickle one's senses; Make a pit; Catch a glimpse*, etc. Phrases like *watch your back, get a move on, a full plate, bright and early if worse comes to worst*, and others.

e.g., Edible glitter, tongue-in-cheek dish names, and an excellent beer list all make Black Axe a top spot for a good time (<https://www.travelandleisure.com/travel-guide/london>)

It is not surprising that in English touristic guides and brochures we come across such phrasal verbs as *drop off, check-in, check out, set out, take off, get in, brush up, hike up, serve up*, and others.

3. Conclusions

The success in teaching of English and Georgian tourism discourse is achieved when the term "tourism discourse" is defined and its terms and vocabulary are studied, the lingua-cultural peculiarities of the tourism-related texts are analysed. The research confirmed that tourism discourse as an independent type of discourse has its specific vocabulary, terminology and style; selected appropriate terminology for teaching tourism-related texts considering their lingua-cultural peculiarities will contribute to better understanding discourse written in English; tourism discourse has a definite purpose, objectives, and linguistic means; it refers to communication among people who do not belong to a specific social group or language community; it includes such attributive features as being official, showing status and norms, etiquette, and business relations;

Quantitative and qualitative analysis of linguistic units in English and Georgian tourism texts revealed that borrowed words in Georgian prevail over borrowed words in English, while the use of compound words in English is almost twice as much as in Georgian. Also, the English language has an advantage in the frequent use of idioms and phrasal verbs; analysis of language units in tourism-related texts revealed that in the English language derived and compound words are predominant, with frequent use of infinitives, participles, and gerunds, as well as complex sentences, while

borrowed words, nouns, and simple sentences prevail in Georgian.

Taking into account that the field of tourism is dynamic, in which many communicators participate, the study of tourism discourse is quite a promising direction for modern linguistics and education.

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Internet resources

1. <https://www.visitengland.com/things-to-do/region/northumberland>
2. <https://www.gobatumi.com/ka/seaside-adjara>
3. <https://www.rct.uk/visit/windsor-castle>
4. <https://faculty.ksu.edu.sa/sites/default/files/Tourism%20Abbreviations.pdf>
5. <https://www.simplyrecipes.com/recipes/gazpacho/>
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Ways of Forming Social-Emotional Development In Preschool Children

ABSTRACT

The article talks about ways of shaping social-emotional development in preschool children. At the same time, the issues of the development of this process in different age periods are also touched upon. Ways to support social-emotional development are also included in the analysis.

The article also examines the issues that ensure community and its development in the process of social development. Examples of games about this are given in the article.

In addition, social and emotional development of a child from the first years of his life has a great influence on the development of his personality. Social development is the ability of the child to communicate, cooperate, work together with relatives, and then with children and adults, as well as mastering social norms. Emotional development means that the child understands the feelings of others, expresses his own feelings correctly and regulates his feelings. The social development of the child starts with the family and is continued in the pre-school educational institution. This chain continues and shows itself.

For a child, the early age period is characterized by unstable emotional mood, emergence of emotions, sensitivity. All this determines the main directions of psychological work with children - the emotionality of the child's life and help in its regulation. In preschool children, social and emotional qualities develop together. The child regulates his emotional mood based on the norms of the social environment in which he lives. Through socio-emotional development, children develop a positive attitude towards people, kindness, care, mutual help, sharing in other people's pain, conflict resolution, etc. such moral qualities are formed. Children acquire basic skills of play, work and practical activities, rules of behavior in a team. During this period, various forms of initial interaction of children with adults and peers emerge. In the article, the work carried out in this direction is included in the analysis and detailed information is given about them. The fuller and more colorful the child's activity, the more important it is for the child and reflects his nature, the better his development will be.

Keywords: *child, social, development, emotional, formation, environment.*

Introduction

In preschool children, social and emotional qualities are formed together. The child regulates his emotional mood based on the norms of the social environment in which he lives. So, the processes

taking place can sometimes raise his mood and sometimes lower it.

Social-emotional development, which is one of the 4 areas of development in the preschool education program (curriculum), is distinguished by the fact that it includes many important issues. Thus, the child's social development covers the issues like knowing the traditions and culture of the society and finding a unique place in the society where he lives. Let me mention one point that during infancy, the child establishes the first communication with adults, makes eye contact, trusts them, starts to control his body and behavior, and organizes his speech. In order to form the social development of the child, it is necessary to pay special attention to him and his interests, to allocate time.

Social and emotional development of a child from the first years of his life has a great influence on the development of his personality. Social development is the child's ability to communicate with relatives, other children and adults, to cooperate, to act together, and to master social norms. Emotional development means that the child understands the feelings of others, correctly expresses his own feelings and regulates his feelings.

For a child, the early age period is characterized by unstable emotional mood, emergence of emotions, sensitivity. All this determines the main directions of psychological work with children, that is, the emotionality of the child's life and help in its regulation.

1. The role of social conception in the process of social-emotional development

Through social-emotional development in young children, positive attitude towards people, kindness, caring, mutual assistance, sharing in other people's pain, conflict resolution, etc. such moral qualities are formed. Children acquire basic skills of play, work and practical activities, rules of behavior in a team. During this period, various forms of initial interaction of children with adults and peers emerge. Thus, with the help of communication, interpersonal relations, respect for elders, and concession to peers, mutual influence and mutual understanding are ensured in various types of joint activities. People constantly exchange information with each other during cohabitation and joint activities, and on this basis, they interact with each other. At this time, they operate in the conditions of perception and understanding. In other words, a communication process is created. Communication is a necessary condition in all human activities. Without communication, it is impossible for people to carry out joint activities. People feel lonely and lonely without communication.

Many psychologists who have conducted research in the field of communication have explained its functions in detail. From this point of view, the ideas put forward by B.F. Lomov attract special attention. "B.F. Lomov (1981) combines the functions of communication in three groups:

informative-communicative, regulatory-communicative, and affective-communicative. The socio-economic and cultural backgrounds of children are different around the world and have a substantive influence on language development (Salomo and Liszkowski, 2013; Fawcett and Liszkowski, 2015).

Apparently, according to B.F. Lomov (1981), communication primarily fulfills the task of giving and receiving information, in other words, the function of information exchange. That is why, it is not accidental that they consider information exchange as one of the main aspects of communication. However, during communication, people are not limited only to information exchange, but at the same time, they also affect the mutual regulation of behavior in this process. The importance of this is self-evident. By fulfilling this function, communication serves to create effective mutual relations between people and to regulate mutual relations"

Preschool children continue to develop their communication skills. Genetically, the earliest form of communication is imitation. A.V. Zaporozhets (1971) notes that a child's self-imitation is one of the ways to assimilate social experience.

"According to D. Feldstein, (2010) issues related to social development in child psychology have their own problems. Those problems include the following important issues:

1. Specific laws of personal development;
2. Formation of conscious and purposeful activity;
3. Creation of practical skills with real and imaginary objects;
4. Strengthening the internal position of the child and other similar opportunities.

The leading essence of the form of activity consists in the fact that mental processes are developed more successfully and intensively in that activity. The child is preparing to move to a new and higher stage of development" (Aliyeva, Mustafayeva, and Hamidova 2010).

Many games are used to form the culture of communication in the process of social-emotional development in preschool children. Let's focus on a few:

"Forest Life" game

The educator-teacher sits on the carpet and gathers the children around him.

Educator-teacher. Imagine that you are in the forest and you are speaking different languages. But you have to communicate with each other in any way you can. How to do this? How can you express your kindness without saying a word? What to do to ask something? We shake our partner's hand to ask the question "How are you" (shows). We bow our heads to his shoulder to say "it's all right"; we stroke his head to express our friendship and love (shows). Unprepared? We started. It's morning, the sun has risen, you just woke up...

The teacher voluntarily continues the further course of the game and makes sure that the children do not talk among themselves.

"Anthill" game

The educator-teacher sits the children around him.

Educator-teacher: Have you ever seen an anthill in the forest? In an anthill, not a single ant sits idle, each one is busy: one carries wood shavings to strengthen the house, one cooks, one looks after the children. This kind of ant life lasts all spring and summer. When the cold autumn comes, the ants gather together and sleep in their warm houses. Since their sleep is so sound, neither snow nor blizzard can frighten them. The anthill wakes up with the arrival of spring. But before starting their usual work life, the ants throw a big party. I have a suggestion: let's become happy ants who live the holiday? Let's show how the ants greet each other, how they are happy about the arrival of summer, how they tell each other about the dream they saw in winter? But we must not forget that ants cannot speak. That's why we have to communicate with gestures. The educator-teacher and the children show the above story in the form of a pantomime and finish it with dances" (Aliyeva, Mustafayeva, and Hamidova 2010).

Thus, communication becomes the main tool in the formation of a child as a social personality.

1.1. The issues of the Pre-school child's attitude to the environment and nature in the process of social-emotional development

It is very important to create conditions for the child to develop a caring and responsible attitude towards the environment, nature, and the products of human labor, including taking care of animals and plants, feeding birds, observing cleanliness, and protecting toys and books. Also, social-personal development implies having moral norms of behavior in nature and public institutions, understanding the sense of responsibility for oneself and other people (relatives, peers, etc.).

The environment refers to the inanimate and living nature that surrounds us, the society we are surrounded by, and the social environment. Each of these has an important impact on children's education, upbringing, general development, and formation as a personality. It is difficult to achieve the goal without taking into account all these, and without taking them together.

The socio-emotional development of a preschool child is inextricably linked with the general processes of his intellectual, emotional, aesthetic, physical development and other types of development. Therefore, sometimes it is very difficult to limit it from other types and directions of development.

"Preschool education is important in the intellectual, physical and psychological development of children, revealing their potential, preparing them for school, acquiring simple work habits, revealing their talents and abilities, protecting their health and aesthetic development, and forming qualities,

feelings and life skills such as independence, creativity, initiative plays a role. In the first years of life, pre-school educational institutions have great responsibilities in the proper organization of physical and mental, cognitive, social, communicative, aesthetic development, in the field of preparing children for school. Preschool age is a period of active socialization of a child, more communication with adults and peers, acquisition of cultural habits, awakening of spiritual and aesthetic feelings. Kindergarten, in turn, is able to ensure mutual harmony of the child with the surrounding world, to arouse good feelings, to achieve cooperation and positive self-affirmation. The child's social activism arises when he strives to express his attitude to the surrounding world in accordance with the cultural traditions accepted by the society. The basis of these is laid in preschool institutions. It is during this period that children form their initial ideas about the world around them, elements of thinking, the ability to determine mutual relations between the events, simple laws and regularities of the world around them, and to independently apply the acquired knowledge in practical activities. Children acquire skills such as comparing processes (objects), summarizing, grouping, separating according to their characteristics, drawing conclusions"

Pre-school education is the first stage to hear the beauty of the surrounding world, to perceive it aesthetically and to create suitable artistic examples from this point of view. Works carried out in this field are included in the tasks of aesthetic education. Thus, the aesthetic development of preschool children makes their creative abilities more colorful.

Aesthetic education forms the development of artistic feelings and taste, consciousness, artistic creative abilities in preschool children. The harmony of colors and shapes in visual activity classes, building various models in the installation process, listening to a simple melody in music classes, and playing children's musical instruments contribute to the aesthetic development of preschool children and support their formation on a higher level. At the same time, the ability of young children to appreciate the beauty of the surrounding world is formed here.

The situation changes when young children are offered a concrete action, for example, drawing a picture of a leaf, making a mushroom, building a bridge. Figurative actions do not work here anymore; the solution of the training task is required. It is from this point of view that the condition of creating game situations in order to fulfill the training tasks is created. Such a situation with children can be implemented on the basis of the principle of "play-training-play", and the situation with five-year-olds can be implemented on the basis of the principle of "training-play-training". It is necessary to take into account one issue that here we are not talking about the organization of children's activities in general, but about their subjective aspects.

In the pre-school age, a person's approach to the events of the surrounding world, the individual style he chooses for the activity process, his personality and cognition are manifested with all their

possibilities, and an idea about his character is formed. Whatever should be taught in this field, it is necessary to teach them at the age of 3-6. Taking into account these conditions, those effects can be made to the child not directly, but through indirect means, by forming feelings that have a dynamic effect on moral qualities.

1.2.The role of social-emotional development in the formation of a child as a personality

The child's behavior is often characterized by self-respect, aimed at gaining the sympathy of the elders. A 3-year-old child has enough social experience to communicate with the environment. He acquires this experience on an individual basis with various social influences. The child's identity is already fully formed.

Every person is born as an individual. That is, he is born as a human being with his biological characteristics, but over time he becomes a personality. The study of the personality problem has attracted the interest of philosophers since ancient times. Starting from the last century, scientists, especially pedagogues and psychologists, have conducted more serious research on the problem of personality both in our country and in the world. Articles and scientific works have been written in this regard. Since the works conducted in this field are very extensive, the authors have investigated various aspects of the fields of personality.

By personality, we mean someone who is conscious, socially engaged, and benevolent. The word personality means "persona" in Latin. That is, this word in its first sense showed comic and tragic characters in theaters. From here we can say that "personality in its original meaning is valued as a social image that plays a certain role".

Identity is a historical category. So, as a biological being, man is both different and conscious from animals. Personality development depends on internal and external factors. Internal factors: genetic, biological, physical, physiological factors. Therefore, internal factors include a person's self-interest. External factors: individual belonging to culture, family. In this respect, external factors include the social environment.

Personality traits are different. To them that the personality has consciousness; to have speech; to be able to master personal social and historical experience; to be able to transfer social-historical experience to others; to be able to use labor tools; being able to protect labor and labor tools, etc. we can relate the issues.

The foundation of the formation of human personality is laid in the pre-school period. The initial and most dynamic, comprehensive, meaningful stage of this process is over. Thus, during this period, spiritual feelings develop, ideas and understandings about spiritual qualities are formed. The child begins to understand himself as a social being. From this point of view, personality is formed in the

process of understanding. This event occurs on the basis of mutual relationship with the surrounding world, that is, in the process of self-awareness. Therefore, the initial stage of understanding and personality development is self-knowledge. A child experiencing the process of self-awareness begins to understand his body and internal organs through muscles, tendons, and ligaments. This stage continues from the moment the child is born to naming the body parts and understanding their functions. As a result, it distinguishes itself from other objects.

The second important stage in the development of a child's personality is the period of individuality. They name and distinguish their people, things, family, home, the area they live in, and finally, their Motherland. At the age of 3, qualitative changes are observed in the child's personality with the emergence of the "I" - imagination. On the basis of regular contacts with the surrounding world, the child acquires ideas about his identity, and differentiates himself from the gender point of view. Thus, a child learns his name, gender, and whose child he is, and begins to realize that he remains a valuable person for everyone, regardless of his height and relationships with others. A child's rich social development environment strengthens the sense of individuality.

From the end of the second year, the child begins to understand the means and ways of communication, which creates the basis for the work on moral education. During this period, the joint activity of children in the team gradually creates good, emotional communication relationships.

In the sixth year of his life, the child acquires important qualities that will be needed throughout his life: he understands what adults are talking about, he can explain his thoughts to them. The most prominent form of communication with adults is personal communication based on mutual understanding. He wants to know the opinion of adults about his personal qualities.

In the process of playing and learning, which is a more complex form of communication with adults, mutual assistance and simple tasks begin to form feelings, cognition and moral qualities in the child.

During this period, the child's interaction with peers is strengthened. Based on mutual understanding and sympathy, children are united in a group. Every child has a critical attitude towards the actions of their peers. Intra-group relations create the first seeds of solidarity and lay the foundation of collectivism.

"Tantrums are at their peak at this age, as your child learns to manage himself in stressful situations.

So even though your 3-year-old demands independence, he can't control his feelings even when he's given the chance to try something on his own. Some 3-year-olds may experience anxiety when separated from their caregiver (mom, dad, etc.). Therefore, when you put your child in kindergarten, even if he loves it very much, he may cry or be disappointed. Some 3-year-olds have difficulty leaving their caregivers. So your child may cry when you cut preschool, or

express sadness that you're not going to daycare, even though he likes it there” (Schilling, 2022).

The child, under the influence of internal forces in the early stages, acts with immediate feelings without serious consideration or planning, and has difficulty explaining what he wants. It is possible to determine the main reason that prompts him to act only from the purpose of the action.

When social motives were first formed is a matter of debate, but the scientific analysis of the formation process is reflected in numerous theories. The main aspect of these theories is the explanation of social motives as an integral part of the process of personality formation. The formation of personality is associated with the 3-5 age stage.

As in early childhood, at the age of 3-5, feelings affect all aspects of the child's life and give them a unique tone and expressiveness. At this age, the child cannot control the impressions created by the world around him and almost always becomes a prisoner of the emotions that dominate him. All children have individual characteristics, and their experiences determine the understanding of the world and the world around them. Compared to adults, the external manifestation of emotions in children is more passionate, naive and sincere. The child's feelings are quickly and brightly excited, and just as quickly extinguished: in many cases, his overwhelming joy is replaced by tears. The strongest and most important source of a child's impressions is his relationship with other people, that is, with adults and children. When the surrounding people are kind to the child, protect his rights, pay attention and care to him, the child feels emotional comfort - certainty and security. Usually, in such conditions, the child is in a cheerful and cheerful mood.

"In everyday life, the attitude of others to the child has a wide palette of feelings, in which there are various mutual feelings - joy, pride, resentment, etc. A child is extremely dependent on the attitude of adults. In communication through imitation, the child learns how people relate to each other. He is eager to receive praise, to learn the ways of movement that are attractive to him, to listen to an interesting story about him. he plunges into communication with a loved one or a favorite fairy tale, living for someone else, projecting himself into the place of this other person with childish enthusiasm. At the same time, in order to confirm his independence, the child is very unambiguously isolated, he shows a desire to insist on himself: "I said so!", "I will do it!" and so on.

In childhood, the child is still unable to control his emotions skillfully, which prompts him either to identify himself with another person or to reject him in anger"¹

There are many ways to support social-emotional development, which are distinguished by their importance.

¹ http://www.anl.az/down/megale/az_muellimi/2011/sentyabr/196970.htm

Ways to support social-emotional development are as follows:

- "Always expressing your feelings with facial expressions and words;
 - Encouraging children to see change and to have a positive attitude towards any change they see by having conversations about changes in the environment and in their family;
 - Always build the relationship with the child on the basis of attention, respect and love;
 - Involve the child in role-playing games, always giving him the opportunity to act in another role and behave accordingly. Intended skills in the field of social-emotional development:
 - Follows simple communication etiquette.
 - Expresses desires, feelings and wishes.
 - Demonstrates collaborative skills (plays with peers and adults, holds discussions, etc.).
 - Values the wishes and desires of others.
 - He relates to his own and others' emotional state.
 - He tries to do everything himself, uses the expressions "I will do it", "I know it".
 - Personal qualities are formed. He understands the expressions of good and bad, good and evil, beautiful and ugly, lie and truth.
 - Express your emotions, joy, sadness, fear, excitement, etc. he expresses his feelings with words and shows them with his actions.
 - Makes choices, expresses what he likes and what he doesn't like.
 - Recognizes and evaluates his achievements.
 - He already hears the comments and remarks of adults and tries to implement them.
 - Is tolerant of peers during play.
 - The child can communicate his ideas during communication.
 - Can share roles with friends in games"²

The purpose of social-emotional development and education is to create comfortable conditions that ensure the comprehensive development of the personality of a preschool-age child.

To achieve this goal, the following tasks must be performed:

1. To form a positive emotional feeling in all situations of life.
2. Develop awareness of the individual characteristics of the child and their uniqueness (positive

² icma-esasli-3-5-yash-tam.pdf (arti.edu.az)

image - "I").

3. To develop confident behavior (ability to express wishes and demands, show will, make one's own decision, make a choice) and regulatory skills.
 4. Forming the child's positive attitude towards others.
 5. Develop social skills: the ability to resolve various socially acceptable ways to resolve conflict situations, pay attention to etiquette and safety rules, reach agreement, build friendships and new relationships.
- The following mechanisms are recommended and necessary for the performance of tasks related to the social and emotional development of students:
 - Organization of the educational process.
 - Interaction with family.
 - Changing the developing object-spatial environment.

All these mechanisms represent a single educational environment.

2. Research of scientists about understanding the situation of social development

In this process, 2 points attract attention: 1. Social - i.e. issues of connection with the life and relationships of people in society. 2. A situation is a set of conditions, conditions that create this or that relationship, situation or situation.

The concept of "state of social development" was first put forward by L.S. Vygotsky. According to the scientist, the main characteristics of the developmental period, including central mental neoplasms and age-related changes in the child's psyche as a whole, as well as the child's relationship with the surrounding social environment, leave their mark on personal development. The scientist believed that each stage of children's development is characterized by their social status. Over time, this field of research has been filled with new scientific knowledge.

At the same time, Vygotsky's main ideas were implemented during the organization of work in preparatory school groups as follows:

- Mastering new material is a social activity resulting from child-teacher interaction.
- Both a professional teacher and a parent can act as educators.
- Depending on the child's ability, the material to be learned should be divided into parts and steps.

Depending on the emotional attitude, the experiences of different children of the same events, environmental factors and social relations play a different role in the mental development of children and can determine their own developmental trajectories.

"The separation of subjective and objective aspects of the social situation of development put

forward by L.S. Vygotsky, the conditions and mechanisms of the transition of objective relations to subjective relations that have an individual meaning for the child were investigated by L.I. Bozovich. The scientist defined the objective side of the social situation of development as the child's certain rights, behavior and activity requirements of the environment, the child's place in the system of social relations. Society develops a system of education, including childhood, cultural expectations, social rules and restrictions, which constitute the objective content of the state of social development" (Bozovic,1968).

Conclusion

The proposed ways for the implementation of social-emotional development in preschool children are distinguished by their uniqueness. Thus, both the implemented tasks and the mechanisms will lead to an important progress in the future life of the preschool child.

When the surrounding people are kind to the child, protect his rights, and show attention and care to him during preschool age, the child returns those feelings as well. At the same time, we instill a sense of self-confidence in the child. From this point of view, logical thinking is formed at a high level and is considered the highest stage of development of children's thinking.

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Development of Reading Ability in Childhood by the Example of Georgian Language

ABSTRACT

Reading as a skill is divided into many subskills, which take almost entire early childhood to develop. Children go through stages of getting comprehension of phonemes and grammar structure until they can connect letters to sounds and read without problems. Learning how to read in second language is usually harder because of new sets of phonemes and differences in alphabet. On the other hand, learning how to read Georgian Language might be easier than most other languages. Georgian Language has 33 phonemes and 33 letters of alphabet, which directly correspond to each other. Reading is straightforward due to no differences between what is written and how it should be pronounced. The article will be covering how reading skill develops in children and how these aspects might be connected to learning to read Georgian.

Keywords: *Paremiology; Proverb; Culturology; Onomastics; Kartvelian languages.*

Introduction

Georgian alphabet consists of 33 letters, which correspond to 33 sounds or phonemes in the language. You read out loud what you see on the paper. There is no combination of letters which make other phonemes, therefore reading is straightforward. For example, the issue of phonological awareness may not be a problem for those who speak a transparent language such as Spanish while it is one of the most common problems in less transparent languages such as English. Transparent languages are those that have a direct correlation between the grapheme and the phoneme i.e. there are very few digraphs and diphthongs (Knudsen, 2012). All of this makes reading relatively easy for children as well as for people starting to study Georgian Language in their adulthood.

In schools, children start studying reading as soon as they go to school. The letters are introduced to them gradually, making up words as they go, with the letters they have already learnt. This is a bottom-up processing model of learning a language and has been used in schools for centuries.

Similar method is applied when teaching Georgian as a second language.

In the article below, the reading skill foundations will be discussed to understand, what are the skills necessary to acquire the ability to read and understand what is being read.

What is reading?

Reading is a complex psychophysiological process. Act of reading involves optical, speech-motor and speech-sound processing systems. Reading is a relatively later and complex formation, than speech.

Reading starts with visual apprehension, processing and recognition of letters, based on which letters are then matched with corresponding phonemes and phoneme-forming image of the word is created, in other words, it is read.

For clarity, we should single out two sides of the reading process: technical – which involves associating the visual image of a word to its pronunciation and essential – which involves associating the sound of a word to its meaning. There is a constant and close link between these two sides. Only the meaning of read information is perceived during the reading process of a grown person, while the psychophysiological operation prior to it is realized unknowingly, by itself, automatically.

Another of the popular definitions of reading is “reading is the interpretation of the meaning of depicted symbols” or “reading is a multifaceted skill, that involves decoding depicted symbols in order to find out their meaning”. In order to read these phrases, you simultaneously:

1. Focus on the printed letters and manage the movement of the eye in relation to the paper;
2. Transform letters into phonemes;
3. Construct thoughts and images;
4. Compare information to the information existing beforehand;
5. Memorize thoughts and associations.

For a newbie reader, it is hard to realize all the aforementioned operations, but little-by-little it becomes automatized (Labartkava, 2013).

For a grown person, reading is as much of a formed habit as any other habit and in its process of formation goes through four stages:

1.1. Letter-phoneme depiction learning stage

Letter-phoneme depiction is learned during pre-alphabet and alphabet periods, when children analyze word streams and dissect words into phonemes and syllables. When separating the phoneme from speech, children assign it a specific graphical image – letter. Afterwards, children group letters into syllables and words, when reading. Read words are associated with oral words.

When reading, graphical imagery is first to be visually perceived. Children differentiate and recognize letters, that correspond to their auditory meanings, although recognizing and differentiating between letters is an external side of reading.

In order for the reading skill to form, it is important for a child to understand the relation between letters and phonemes. It should be noted, that a phoneme does not depict a letter - on the opposite – a letter is a symbol, that depicts a phoneme. Thus, letter-phoneme depiction learning process begins with knowledge of the phoneme part of speech, separating and differentiating the phonemes during speech. Then, letters are recognized as visual depiction of phonemes. With all of this, child will correctly and successfully learn a letter when: the child is able to differentiate i.e., it has a strong visual image of the phoneme and the phoneme is not confused with any other phonemes, either from acoustic or articulation point of view.

In absence of a strong image of a phoneme, it becomes hard to associate a phoneme with a letter, same letter may become associated with several phonemes, that a child may not be able to differentiate or vice versa, multiple letters may become associated with the same phoneme. Learning the letters in this case might be slowed.

A child needs to be aware of a generalized part of speech – phoneme. It is known, that a phoneme as a part of a speech and phoneme pronounced alone are different. As a part of speech, a phoneme is characterized by specific physical attribute. One very important characteristic is the distinctive mark of the meaning of phoneme, that ensures conveying the meaning of a word, i.e., the meaning of the word changes with the mark.

Characteristics of a phoneme are influenced by the neighboring phonemes, especially the ones following it. Thus, same letter will have a different phoneme in different words, yet it stays the same. For example, letter “S” is “S” in every word, it doesn’t turn into other phonemes. When separating phonemes from speech a child needs to be able to recognize the static characteristics of the phoneme despite its position in the word, hardness/softness of it during pronunciation, etc. (any changes to its acoustic side). This way the child will need to ignore the secondary characteristics of the phoneme and separate the phenome. Only in these conditions is it possible learn the connection between grapheme and phoneme.

For a child, which is only starting out reading a letter is not a simple graphical element, but rather has complex graphical composition, contains several elements that are spaced differently, such as “d” and “b” or have different elements, such as “p” – “b”; “i” – “l”.

For someone learning how to read a letter is not a simple graphical element. It is complex in its graphical composition, contains several elements that are spaced out differently.

It is known, that it is easier for a child to notice similarities between different elements, rather than the opposite – to see differences between similar ones. In order for a child to differentiate between various letters, they will need to use optical analysis and acknowledge the characteristics of its parts.

When learning the optical image of a letter on basis of storing and retrieving the visual image in the memory, recognition of the letter, similar to recognition of any other stimuli, happens on the basis of comparison between perceived visual image and the imagined image. Based on this, quick and successful learning of letters is possible based on formation of following functions:

- Phonematic perception - differentiation and distinction of phonemes
- Phonematic analysis - separation of phonemes from speech
- Ocular analysis and synthesis - identification of similarities and differences between letters
- Spatial imagery
- Ocular memory, remembering the visual imagery of letters

1.2. Stages of reading

Before fully learning how to read, children will go through several stages, each with own characteristic features.

Pre-syllable stage

Reading start with individual letters. As soon as a child learn letters, they move on to syllables and words, but when reading syllables, the unit of visual perception on this stage are letters. At the beginning the child perceives the first letter of the syllable, associates it with a phoneme, does the same for the second letter and then joins them into a syllable. In this case a child reads letter-by-letter and this stage is called a **pre-syllable stage**.

After perceiving and recognizing the letter in the syllables a child will read the syllable in its entirety. This process involves merging phonemes into a syllable and the hardest part of it is for a child to be able to move from the generalized sound of syllables to the sound that a given syllable has in the speech stream.

Reading pace on this basis is very slow and it depends on the complexity of syllables. Reading comprehension is characterized by specific peculiarities. Understanding the word may not correspond in time with visual comprehension of that word. The word is comprehended only after it was pronounced, but this may not always happen, so a child may repeat the word over and over, until they recognize it.

On this stage, it's especially hard to comprehend sentences, since every word of a sentence will be read separately and combining them to derive a meaning may be difficult. Contextual access is almost unused, children only access it, when reading the last part of the word.

Syllable reading stage

At this stage, recognizing the letters and merging them into syllables is done with no problems. Syllables are associated with appropriate phoneme complex fairly quickly when reading. Reading unit is a syllable.

Reading pace at this stage is quite slow. This is explained by the reading process still being fairly analytical. Synthetic reading and a reading flow are still not possible. A child reads syllables, merges them into words and understands the contents of read material.

At this stage a child already uses educated guesses, especially when reading last parts of words. It is characteristic for children to repeat read words. It is difficult for a child to understand, as read word is artificially divided into syllables and unlike the word corresponding to the verbal speech, thus it takes time to recognize the word. Repeating the word multiple times when reading a sentence, lets the child sense connection between words. Reading comprehension still lags behind visual comprehension in time, meaning, that at this stage there is still a problem with synthesis, merging syllables into words.

Complete comprehension method formation stage

This stage is transitional between analytical and synthetic reading methods. Simple and familiar words are read wholly, while complex and unknown words – by syllables.

Educated guesses play an important role at this stage. A child relies on already read information and still struggles with quickly and precisely controlling the reading process, so they frequently change words or endings of words, thus changing the material's contents and making mistakes. Mistakes trigger bouts of frequent aggression. Children use guessing at most to read sentences, not the whole text.

Words are synthesized into sentences at this stage. Reading pace is still slow.

Synthetic reading stage

Characterized by consolidated reading methods – words and word groups. Technical side of reading is not a difficulty anymore, reading comprehension is the priority. Reading comprehension corresponds in time with the comprehension process. At this stage the reader not only synthesizes

words into sentences, but into sentences, phrases and whole context. Guessing is being actively used in a controlled manner; thus, mistakes are few. Reading pace is quite fast.

At this stage, synthesizing words into sentences and reading comprehension could be improved by development of vocabulary and grammar. Main condition for formation of the reading habit is development of verbal speech, formation of phonetic-phonemic and vocabulary and grammatical structures (pronunciation and differentiation of phonemes, phonemic analysis and synthesis). Development of spatial imagery, visual analysis and synthesis, visual memory (Lerner, 1997).

Reading components

Reading is a complex process and involves several components. It does not develop naturally and needs to be learned specifically. As we have discussed, many skills act as a basis for reading, such as working memory, spatial and visual skills, phoneme recognition skills, phonemic analysis and synthesis. In order to read a word, it's necessary to recognize letters, associate them with corresponding phonemes, merge said phonemes, recognize a word and comprehend its meaning. When reading a sentence, each word needs to be stored in memory, in order to connect them with each other, understand and comprehend the contents of the sentence.

Reading skills consists of five main components:

1. Phonological skills;
2. Knowledge of alphabet;
3. Vocabulary;
4. Reading fluency;
5. Reading comprehension and analysis skill (Isakadze, Lomidze, 2020).

In order for the skill of reading to fully develop, it's important to support all aforementioned components.

1.3. Phonological skills

Development of phonological skills involves development of phoneme recognition skill. After this skill is developed, it's possible to fulfill tasks such as separation of specific phonemes (e.g., first or last) in words, differentiation of words, pronouncing them together, recognition of phonemes in a word, separating words into phonemes and syllables, etc.

Phonological skills are essential, because they are a basis for a young reader to comprehend how letters are associated with phonemes. This is necessary for reading alphabetical writings, where

each letter represents a specific phoneme. Phonological skills are not as important, if the writing is logographic, where one symbol represents one word, not a specific phoneme.

Studies have shown, that it's better to start working on phonological skill development from earlier ages. According to a longitudinal study conducted in Spain, 2017, students, that worked on phonological awareness in kindergarten, have shown better results in reading and writing tests within the first year of school, as compared to the students that did no phonological skill development exercises (Godoy, Pinheiro & Citoler, 2017).

Students, that could not pass the evaluation on their first try, underwent the test next year, for the second time (Darnell et al., 2017). According to a study published in 2019, if the students who did not pass the evaluation on their first try, receive sufficient support (specific interventions aimed at improving phonological skills), they will show the same results 4 years later, as those students who successfully passed the test first time. Alternatively, if the students who did not pass the evaluation on their first try do not receive any support, their results will be worse than the reading standards on second evaluation (Double et al., 2019).

1.4. Knowledge of alphabet

Knowledge of alphabet requires the student to realize which letter is represented by which symbol, recognition of links between letters and phonemes and memorizing them. Development of this skills is showcased by the student being able to find a corresponding letter to a phoneme amongst other letters, recognize and read letters, associating them with corresponding phonemes.

Strong knowledge of alphabet is required for development of the reading skill. Knowledge of alphabet is a limited skill, meaning that in order to develop it, you only need to memorize a certain number of objects (Paris, 1987). In order to know the Georgian alphabet, you need to memorize 33 letters and their corresponding phonemes. There are also limitless skills, that are constantly developed, such as vocabulary.

Development of limited skills, usually has timelines. In order for students to successfully further their academic career, they need to learn the alphabet within the first year of their education. Afterwards, they move on to more complex tasks, such as reading texts, writing, etc. Teaching the alphabet is not a central goal after the first year at school, thus, students that are unable to learn it within that period, will encounter further obstacles within the learning process.

When learning the alphabet, students frequently experience difficulties with differentiating similar letters (e.g. "d" and "b" or "p" and "q"). Mainly, process of learning the alphabet proceeds similarly for all students (Stahl, 2011). Learning the alphabet, mainly, begins at home or in the

kindergarten. Primarily, children have easier time memorizing the first letters of their names (Justice et al., 2006) and letters, that are at the start of the alphabet (a, b, c... Justice et al., 2006). After those, other letters are learned, especially those that are frequently used in writing (Huang & Invernizzi, 2014). Finally, students will learn to recognize all the letters, but they may have easier time recognizing some letters or confuse certain letters (Bowles et al., 2014). Such problems are fixed by aimed interventions during the primary program (Tortorelli, Bowles & Skibbe, 2017).

1.5. Vocabulary

A vocabulary is a combination of words, that any given human known, the meaning of these words and the ability to use them. It is possible to enrich a vocabulary by adding, memorizing new words. In order to enrich a student's vocabulary, we could give them tasks, such as describing a picture or a specific action, telling some mundane situation, working on dialogue speech, etc. (Isakadze, Lomidze, 2020).

There is a mutual link between the reading skills and the vocabulary. A rich vocabulary will aid a faster development of the reading skill and vice versa, reading skill and reading will help development of a vocabulary (Frijuniarsi & Marlianingsih, 2016). This mutual connection has been proven my multiple studies. A study conducted in the UK in 2016 has shown a very strong positive correlation between the 6-year-old students' vocabularies and reading skills. Reading skills and vocabularies were evaluated using standard English language tests (Hayati, 2016). A study published in the journal of speech, language and hearing in 2015, has shown, that the students that showed above average reading skills in the fourth grade, also had richer vocabularies than their classmates, in the tenth grade.

These studies have shown, that a rich vocabulary affects the development of the reading skill and vice versa, development of the reading skill will improve the vocabulary. Thus, it's important to actively work at this angle with students who are learning reading.

1.6. Reading fluency

Reading fluency means, that a person reads at an adequate pace, with no mistakes or interruptions, with strong intonations, recognizing punctuation and contents. Someone with reading fluency does not need to exert effort on recognition of specific words, the process of reading is smooth and consistent.

There are numerous questions related to component necessary for reading fluency. Traditionally, fluency is defined as a combination of speed and accuracy and is thought of a crucial aspect of

general evaluation of reading abilities (Fuchs et al., 2001). In recent years, certain importance has been attributed to prosody as well, when evaluating fluency, i.e., expressive reading (correct usage of intonation and pauses). Both aspects are important when reading, speed and accuracy and prosody.

According to the theory of automatic information processing in reading (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974), reading is a complex cognitive process, that involves fulfilling multiple tasks simultaneously. Ability to automatically read the word, frees up resources for comprehension. According to this theory, amount of correctly read words in a minute, could be used to evaluate the reading skill of a person (Fuchs et al., 2001). Despite this, some studies imply, that improvement in the reading speed does not automatically improve reading comprehension (Kuhn & Stahl, 2003). Thus, it is clear, that prosody is an important factor in fluent reading.

Second approach focuses on importance of prosody. Prosodic reading development aids reading comprehension, as it helps the reader differentiate between syntactic and semantic elements of speech (Kuhn & Stahl, 2003). Results of a study conducted on fifth-grade students have shown, that reading comprehension was in high positive correlation not just with the results of reading speed and accuracy testing instruments, but with the multidimensional fluency scale as well (Zutell & Rasinski, 1991), which involved fluent pronunciation of phrases and other elements of prosody.

Based on this information, it is clear that reading fluency is a multifaceted skill and its development is important for reading comprehension.

1.7. Reading comprehension and analysis skill

Main goal of developing the reading skill is reading comprehension, ability to analyze contents of the text. Reading comprehension is a thoughtful process and involves formation of the read text in the reader's mind. Thanks to the reading comprehension and analysis skill, a student can envision the read text in their mind, answer questions, create a plotline or a picture, retell a read story, ask questions, use read material in a different context, make conclusions, evaluate the information, analyze it, etc. (Isakadze & Lomidze, 2020).

Reading comprehension is based on several aspects, such as how fast can a person read text and subsequently – how quickly they process received information, how rich is their vocabulary, which means that they will get a higher quality information from read information, etc. Comprehending different types of text requires different strategies. Reading comprehension and analysis skills are developed throughout the life and are affected by four factors: the reader, the text, the goal and situational context/environment (სასწავლო მეთოდოლოგიური რესურსების კრებული, 2015).

The reader is a subject involved in the comprehension and analysis process of the text; text is the material that is being comprehended by the reader. Goal is the task, that is being accomplished by the reason via reading the text (e.g., finding information, making informed decision on current events, etc.). Context is the environment, that the reading process is happening in a collection of educational methodological resources (2015).

Reading comprehension is possible on three different levels: word-by-word comprehension, analysis and conclusion level and critical evaluation level, thus the reader needs to interpret the text from various perspectives. This process requires automatic detection of familiar words and remembering their meanings, quick decoding of unfamiliar words and finding meaning for them, taking in the context clues, associating the information received from the text to personal experiences and using reading comprehension strategies, such as summation, establishing connections between different parts of text, seeing the main idea, etc. (a collection of educational methodological resources, 2015).

Readers with good reading comprehension skills, use various strategies, such as imagining read scenarios, visualization, they come up with questions, have metacognitive skills when reading, can understand what they learned and what they need to re-read, etc. The reading comprehension skill depends on development of other skills necessary for reading and on improvement of cognitive skills.

Overall, based on this information, it is clear, that in order to develop and improve reading abilities, a student needs various basic skills. Reading skill is endlessly improvable and is being developed alongside a student's vocabulary, with new information and cognitive maturation, during life.

Reading skill in the Georgian common national study plan

Development of the reading skill, in accordance with the Georgian common national study plan, happens on the elementary stage, encompassing grades 1 to 6. The Georgian common national study plan was approved by order N40/n "on Approval of the Georgian common national study plan" of May 18, 2016 of the Minister of Education and Science of Georgia. Last amendment to it was made on the basis of order N63/n of May 3, 2018.

Learning of the reading skill is focused on by the subject in the State languages group – Georgian language and literature. According to the study plan, in the elementary grades, special attention needs to be paid to these skills:

- Reading fluently;
- Writing out letters;
- Copying;
- Dictation;
- Retelling of contents, based on key-words/illustrations;
- Episodic storytelling;
- Retelling of contents in short and long forms (National study plans, Article 2, general contents and standards, Chapter XI, state languages)

Reading and comprehension skills are evaluated in curriculum of Georgian, as a second language as well. Specifically, here we see following skills:

- Reading and comprehending;
- Reading fluently;
- Listening;
- Verbal communication;
- Written communication.

When teaching Georgian as a second language, in elementary grades, attention is being paid to development of skills, such as: reading aloud, reading silently (independent solving of simple reading tasks), writing out rows, copying, dictation.

Specifically within the standards of Georgian language and literature, reading skill is presented as the main direction of teaching and is described as follows: “Development of the reading skill is a basis of literacy, which is an important condition of raising a full-fledged person. Purpose of this direction is to serve as an introduction to Georgian and world literature; as well as development of skills necessary to read various written texts, comprehend and use the information within them. In the process of studying, students will have to use various reading strategies, in order to choose texts and independently extract the information within them, employ critical reading, use grammar, static and contextual data to gain deeper access to the text; Usage of special indices and lexicons, quick and differentiative reading of texts, treat received information and make conclusions based on data” (National study plan), article 58. Georgian language and literature standard, pp. 2-3).

According to the standard, when teaching reading, it’s important to develop the text deciphering skills in the students. Deciphering means decoding, i.e., transforming a word from graphic image to its acoustic form, associating letters to phonemes, merging phonemes into words. According to the standard, simultaneous work needs to be done to develop the reading comprehension skill, that will

allow students to gain knowledge and information from the texts.

As the ultimate goal of reading, the standard claims reading comprehension. The national study plan standard also references a vocabulary, when talking about reading comprehension, which should also be regarded during education process. The Georgian language and literature standard explains, that aide from oral and written verbal texts, students should also be involved with tasks of reading and comprehending multimedia texts as well, which will help them develop general literacy skills (National study plan), article 58. Georgian language and literature standard, pp. 2-3).

In terms of reading, the Georgian language and literature standard mentions following skills that a student should have, upon finishing a stage:

1. Geo. Element. (I).6. – Reading fluently
2. Geo. Element.(I).7 - Reading and comprehension of various types of texts defined by the standards; Associating verbal and non-verbal information given in texts (e.g. illustrations and texts).
3. Geo. Element.(I).8. - Verbal and non-verbal interpretation of small creative texts; Transforming verbal information into visual and/or vice versa.
4. Geo. Element.(I).9. - Expression and elaboration of own attitude towards read text; Evaluation of the text topic and/or specific issues described in it.
5. Geo. Element.(I).10. - Recognizing organizing elements, structural and composite characteristics of various texts defined by the standard.
6. Geo. Element.(I).11. Observing lexical and semantic sides, language forms of various types of texts defined by the standard.
7. Geo. Element.(I).12. Using familiar reading strategies according to the goal.

Each standard for each class is divided into performance indicators. For example, in grade I, Geo. Element.(I).6. standard specified indicators – separation of syllables in a word, pronunciation, separation of phonemes in syllables, separation of words into phonemes and merging of phonemes into words, reading every letter of the alphabet, effortlessly reading familiar words, etc. Geo. Element.(I).11 standard contains indicators: student can differentiate between sentence modalities; attempts to comprehend unfamiliar lexical units, language forms; recognizes punctuation marks (period, question mark, exclamation mark). Each standard clearly outlines the goals, that students need to achieve by the end of the year (National study plan, Article III, chapter 1. State language, article 1. Georgian language and literature).

Language knowledge and skills contains an outline of lexicology aspect of the language (contribution to the lexical fund, developing a vocabulary, etc.), and grammar aspect (recognizing

and using sentence types, recognizing and using punctuation marks, etc.), although grammar rules aren't focused on too heavily at this age, teaching is done mostly via practical examples. Also given are definitions of concepts such as structure of a word (phoneme, vowel, consonant, letter, syllable), structure of a text (word, sentence, paragraph, etc.), basic concept of literature (author, character, plot, etc.). Explaining such concepts to students, helps develop their phonologic awareness, simplifies the process of reading comprehension and generally improves the reading process.

Based on given information, it is clear, that the Georgian language and literature standard accounts for development of those important five skills, that were described in the earlier part of this work.

The reading skill is not outlined within the National study plan for middle school; thus, it is implied, that student would have fully learned reading by the 7th grade and will not be working on further developing the skill (National study plan, middle school standard)

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The State policy of Languages in the Republic of Kazakhstan

ABSTRACT

The State policy of the three of languages 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). 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.

All teachers who participated in the survey chose Kazakh as their mother tongue and 87.50% of them are bilingual. The survey results show that 75% of respondents consider themselves trilingual, whereas 25% of them are not sure whether their knowledge of one language matches the level of the others. According to the teachers, the most difficult matter in teaching subjects in English for them is using correct grammar and verb forms in their speech (50%); choosing appropriate methods of teaching (12.5%); finding and selecting necessary study materials (12.5%) and listening and speaking (12.5%). At the same time 12.5% of respondents have no difficulties at all in the process of teaching in English. The best way of improving English, as the teachers think, is reading books in English (37.5%). 25% of teachers suggest practicing English with a native speaker or improving the language skills abroad.

86.36% of students are bilingual and 65.91% of them are trilingual. All students (100%) responded that they like studying in English and 72.73% of them are satisfied with the process and level of teaching in English. 25% students see benefits in gaining and enhancing knowledge with the help of English, which helps them better communicate with foreign people (20.5%). 13.6% of students reported that studying in English is interesting, helpful and just a great experience being a wide source of information and first access to world literature (11.4%). Besides, knowledge of English opens an expanding perspective, opportunities for a future profession and makes it possible to develop into a qualified specialist (11.4%). 9.1% students surveyed that knowing English they can participate in academic exchanges, study medicine in foreign countries and work abroad. English is the key to confidence, self-popularization (6.8%) and enhanced mental activity (2.2%). Teaching and studying in English is challenging for the teachers and students of the University yet offering new skills and opportunities in their career path.

Keywords: *multilingual education, trilingualism, trinity of languages, state policy.*

Introduction

Knowledge of languages extends the integration capability of countries and people as a language is a tool for communication and a bridge between cultures.

Multilingualism is widely spread in the multi-ethnic geographical space. 20 per cent of the population of the United States speak a language at home other than English, 56 per cent of Europeans are bilingual, and it is believed that over half of the entire world's population is bilingual (Trent, 2013).

As for Kazakhstan with more than 130 nationalities living there, the majority of Kazakhs speak two languages. Slavic people mainly speak only one language, whereas Uighur, Uzbek, Dungan, Turkish, Azerbaijani, Tajik, Tatar, and other ethnic groups are multilingual (Baiteliyeva, 2015).

The President of Kazakhstan N.A. Nazarbayev in his address to the nation of the Republic "New Kazakhstan in the New World" said that "Kazakhstan must be regarded as a highly-educated country all over the world, the population of which speaks 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" (Nazarbayev, 2007).

The government's attention to the trio of languages motivates people's study of the English language. According to the Programme of development of the education system in the Republic of Kazakhstan during 2011 - 2020, changes are introduced to the education programmes of state compulsory education. Training of the teaching staff speaking three languages is carried out, and the number of credits for foreign languages in the cycle of basic classes is increased. A network of specialized Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools and Schools with Trilingual Education has been established in the country, in which Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry and Biology are taught in English.

According to the data provided by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan, the introduction of multilingualism in the Universities of the country has started since 2008. Universities can obtain institutional and specialized accreditation in three languages. The systematic work on publishing and translation of University text-books into the state language and English is being conducted. A level model of studying languages based on international standards is being introduced and language levels of students and teachers are being checked (IELTS, TOEFL).

Wkmosmu experience

West Kazakhstan Marat Ospanov State Medical University has formed academic groups of local

students studying in the English Language, all subjects of which are taught in English. At the moment over 50 Kazakh students are studying medicine in English at the University. In addition, starting from 2015 groups of students from India are educated at the University and their number has reached 150 this year. Most of the Kazakh students speak both Kazakh and Russian, Indian students – their province dialect and Hindi.

Aiming at implementing the study programme in English at the University a group of teachers was formed who improved their level of the English language for teaching in English. Teaching medical and other subjects in English is challenging for the teachers of the University yet rewarding as they acquire new skills and opportunities along their career path.

Teachers of West Kazakhstan Marat Ospanov State Medical University are actively taking English courses offered by the University. In addition they are sent to English Summer schools to master English with native speakers.

There is an opportunity for the students of all levels, teachers and staff of the University to participate in International Credit Mobility programmes (academic mobility) in order to broaden their knowledge, acquire key skills, develop professionally, practice the English language and deepen their understanding of other cultures. The main partners of the University are Poznan University of Medical Sciences, Poland; University of L'Aquila, Italy; Lithuanian University of Health Sciences, Lithuania. Besides these Universities our students and teachers can share experience with more than 40 other foreign higher educational institutions of Russia, Ukraine, Georgia, Latvia, Slovenia, Italy, Germany, etc.

Study Design

Therefore, in an effort to better understand the students' and teachers' thoughts toward implementation of education programmes in English into the University study process and trilingualism, the survey was conducted at West Kazakhstan Marat Ospanov State Medical University in December 2017.

The study gathered opinions of students and teachers about education in English at the University, the trio of languages and related issues.

148 Indian students and 53 Kazakh students studying at the faculty of General Medicine and 24 teachers of the English programme participated in the survey.

The respondents received 5 questions to which they had to provide reactions. The following questions were given to the teachers:

1. What is your mother tongue?

2. Do you consider yourself bilingual?
3. Do you consider yourself trilingual?
4. What is the most difficult matter in teaching subjects in English?
5. How do you improve your level of English? Students were offered the questions:

1. What is your mother tongue?
2. Do you consider yourself bilingual?
3. Do you consider yourself trilingual?
4. Do you like studying in English?
5. Are you satisfied with the level of teaching subjects in English?

Dsicussions and results

All teachers participated in the survey have chosen Kazakh as their mother tongue and 87.50% of them are bilingual. Survey results show that 75% of respondents consider themselves trilingual, whereas 25% of them are not sure whether their knowledge of one language matches the level of the others.

According to the teachers, the most difficult matter in teaching subjects in English for them is using correct grammar and verb forms in their speech (50%), choosing appropriate methods of teaching (12.5%), finding and selecting necessary study materials (12.5%) and listening and speaking (12.5%). At the same time 12.5% of respondents have no difficulties at all in the process of teaching in English.

The best way of improving English, so the teachers think, is reading books in English (37.5%). 25% of teachers suggest practicing English with a native speaker or improving the language skills abroad. Other ways of improving English are working with research papers (19.5%), doing grammar tests (8.5%) and listening to conversations (5.5%). 4% of teachers responded that they will always study English.

Among students 86.36% of respondents are bilingual, of which 65.91% are trilingual. All students (100%) responded that they like studying in English and 72.73% of them are satisfied with the process and level of teaching in English.

All students participating in the survey see benefits in studying medicine in English. The most important for them is that knowing three languages nowadays opens new opportunities for them.

Table 1. Benefits of studying in English for students

No.	Benefits	%
1	Increased activity of brain.	2.2
2	Knowledge gain, enhancing of knowledge, better education, new horizons.	25
3	Wide source of information, primary access to world literature.	11.4
4	Better understanding and communication with foreign people, cultures and backgrounds, sharing experience.	20.5
5	Confidence and self-popularization.	6.8
6	It's interesting to learn, helpful and a great experience.	13.6
7	Academic exchange, studying medicine in foreign countries, working abroad.	9.1
8	Expanding perspective, opportunities in future profession, developing into qualified specialist.	11.4

As it is seen from the Table, 25% of students see benefits in gaining and enhancing knowledge with the help of English, which also helps them better understand and communicate with foreign people, cultures and backgrounds (20.5%). 13.6% students reported that studying in English is interesting, helpful and just a great experience. It provides a wide source of information and first access to world literature (11.4%). Besides, knowledge of English opens an expanding perspective, opportunities in their future profession and makes it possible to develop into a qualified specialist (11.4%). 9.1% of students surveyed wrote that by knowing English they can participate in academic exchanges, study medicine in foreign countries and work abroad. English is the key to confidence, self-popularization (6.8%) and activity of brain (2.2%).

Conclusion

This research has served as an attempt to study the existing practices of studying in English at West Kazakhstan Marat Ospanov State Medical University and to design further activities to promote and practice trilingualism.

Understanding the importance of knowing three languages, we agree that trilingualism is a need of the globalizing world. We claim that the trio of languages is strategically significant for the Republic of Kazakhstan. Trilingualism as the state language policy is highly important for the needs of our society. Knowing three languages would prepare youth for their future professions, and enhance their social experiences.

For the teachers, studying English opens the door to international science, since English has

become its universal language. Academic staff can gain access to the vast scientific literature and can communicate with other scientists anywhere in the world. So, implementing trilingualism in Kazakhstan may be a challenge, but it is the challenge worth pursuing.

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Several aspects of the phenomenon of interference in the teaching of the Georgian language (on the example of Azerbaijani-speaking learners)

ABSTRACT

Several peculiarities appear in the process of teaching the Georgian language to Azerbaijanis, which are caused by the structural and typological differences between the Georgian and Azerbaijani languages.

In the process of teaching the Georgian language, it is necessary to take into account the peculiarities of the phonetic, morphological and syntactic structures of the Azerbaijani language, because often linguistic interference becomes an obstacle to communication in the second language.

Keywords: *Second language teaching; interference, Language contacts, second language teaching*

1. Introduction

Georgian people had active relations with Turkish-speaking nations and communities for centuries. There was an exchange of cultural-cognitive information, which is reflected in these two languages and enriched the vocabulary and grammar of both (Rukhadze, 2013, 3-4). Acad. S. Jikia was the first to study Georgian loanwords in Azerbaijani and Azerbaijani loanwords in Georgian (Jikia, 1957). V. Janghidze, who studies Georgian loanwords in the Azerbaijani language also has some interesting insights on Georgian-Azerbaijani language relations (Jangidze, 1967).

The Azerbaijani language belongs to the Oghuz group of the Turkic language family. The same group includes Turkish, Turkmen, Gagauz and one dialect of Crimean Tatars.

The vocabulary and phonetics of the Azerbaijani language have been greatly influenced by the Persian and Arabic languages over the centuries. Arabic and Persian words form an important layer of Azerbaijani vocabulary. Terminology related to Islam is entirely Arabic, and Arabisms are abundant in household and terminological vocabulary. The existence of Iranisms is explained by the

long-standing Azerbaijani-Persian relations. In addition, synonyms of Arabic-Persian words are found in the language that is of Azerbaijani origins.

Ethnocultural contacts are reflected in the structure of the language, especially in the vocabulary. However, the transition of words from one language to another is relatively easier than that of grammatical elements (phonemes, affixes). From this point of view, Georgian-Azerbaijani language relations are interesting (History of the Georgian language, 2006, 216).

Interference and language mistakes

Second language speech mistakes (for the terms `mistakes` and `errors` in Georgian see Kurdadze, 2011) resulting from the use of the means of the first language are manifestations of language transfer. A common assumption of transfer is that a second language speaker always uses some level of native language skills (Selinker, 1992, Savilie-Troike 2016), which in some cases helps to construct a sentence in the foreign language (for example, if the languages are related), but often leads to mistakes (when the lexical and grammatical structures of one language are significantly different. This phenomenon is called interference.

Interference is a common occurrence in the context of bilingualism. The word "Interference" is derived from the Latin words *inter* "between" and *feriō* "touch, hit or strike", invented by the British scientist, polymathologist Thomas Young in 1801 (Young, 1801: from Gamkrelidze et al., 2008: 604).

Interference - this is a phenomenon of memory, which is manifested when the incentives from inside or outside, namely, memory cues, which help us to search for certain information in memory, fail to effectively indicate a specific event (Dictionary.css, 2022).

Interference is a phenomenon in which elements of one language are used during the use of another language and is considered a negative phenomenon. During interference, the native language has a great influence; therefore, when switching to another language, elements of the native language are often used. In general, the phenomenon of interference appears when we are dealing with the knowledge of more than one language (as a rule - in the case of asymmetric bilingualism - see Saville-Troike, 2012, 18). However, the influence of one language on another is perceived as negative simply because under the influence of the native language, we make mistakes in the second language (Beridze, 2022: 58-59; Gabunia et al., 2008: 69-70, etc.).

The reason for interference is that speakers construct their speech according to the norms of their native language; accordingly - when constructing speech in a second language, it establishes inadequate connections between separate linguistic facts for this language. Scientific studies have

shown that the problems of interference in the process of learning a second language are quite difficult to overcome and include all levels (phonetic, lexical, morphological, syntactic) and generally affect the productive and receptive speech activity in learning (Saville-Troike, 2012, 18).

The most common form of language interference is the influence of the native language on the second language (Ferguson, 1971). Therefore, overcoming interference is one of the main tasks in teaching a second language.

Phonetic and morphological mistakes in the speech of Azerbaijani language learners

Among the typical mistakes of Azerbaijanis in the process of learning Georgian, phonetic-orthographic interference is the most common. In general, negative transfer (interference) can be found in many different phonological contexts: first of all, it should be noted the inappropriate pronunciation of sounds, which often even changes the meaning of the word. Accordingly, at the orthographic level, this process is manifested in the incorrect spelling of words.

The main determining factor of phonetic-orthographic negative language transfer is that the phonemic system of a foreign language is perceived through the prism of the phonemic system of one's language.

The phonological systems of the Georgian and Azerbaijani languages have many differences, the main difference being the presence of two rows of plosive sounds in Georgian (voiceless aspirated and voiceless abruptives/ejectives) (Akhvlediani, 1999):

ქარი - კარი	ფირი - პირი	თარო - ტარო
[kari - k'ari]	[piri - p'iri]	[taro - t'aro]
wind - door	tape – mouth	shelf - a branch of corn
ქუდი - კუდი	ფაფა - პაპა	ჩიტი - ჩიტო
[kudi - k'udi]	[papa - p'apa]	[tʃ'iti - tʃ'it'i]
Hat - tail	porridge - grandfather	piece of cloth - bird
	ცელი - წელი	ჩია - ჭია
	[tseli - ts'eli]	[chia - ch'ia]
	scythe - year	dwarf - worm
ცურავს - წურავს	ჭირი - ჩირი	
[tsuravs - ts'uravs]	[ch'iri - chiri]	
It floats - It runs	tribulation - dried fruit	

Abruptives are not found in Azerbaijani at all; Accordingly, for the Azeri-speaking student, voiceless aspirated and voiceless abruptive/ejective sounds do not have a distinctive function. Naturally, this creates a problem in the teaching process:

პ - ფ (p' - p): პეპელა - ფეფელა, პური - ფური, პალტო - ფალტო, უპირველესი - ფუპირველესი,
[p'ep'ela - pepela], [p'uri - puri], [p'alt'o - palto], [up'irvelesi - upirvelesi],
პიროვნება - ფიროვნება, ნახატი - ნახათი, მასპინძელი - მასფინძელი...
[p'irovneba - pirovneba], [nakhat'i - nakhati], [masp'indzeli - maspindzeli]...

ტ - თ (t' - t): ტანი - თანი, ტოტი - თოთი, მოტანილი - მოთანლილი,
[t'ani - tani], [t'ot'i - toti], [mot'anili - motanili],
მესტუმრა - მესთუმრა, მტაცებელი - მთაცებელი, ნახატი - ნახათი...
[mest'umra - mestumra], [mt'atsebeli - mtatsebeli], [nakhat'i - nakhati]...

ქ - კ (k - k): ქვეყანა - კვეყანა, ჭიქები - ჭიკები, ქუდი - კუდი, ქვევრი - კვევრი,
[kveq'ana - k'veq'ana], [ch'ikebi - ch'ik'ebi], [kudi - k'udi], [kvevri - k'vevri],
დაქორწინდნენ - დაკორძინდნენ...
[dakorts'indnen - dak'ordzindnen]...

ჭ - ჩ (ch' - ch): ჭავჭავაძე - ჩავჩავაძე,
[ch'avch'avadze - chavchavadze]

წ - ძ (ts' - dz): უწყინარი - უძღინარი; წერომ - ძერომ.
[uts'q'inari - udzghinari]; [ts'erom - dzerom].

It should also be noted that Azeri-speaking students will also replace voiceless and voiced consonants of different orders:

ჩ - ც (ch - ts): ჩანთა - ცანთა, ჩაი - ცაი, ჩუმი - ცუმი, ჩასვით - ცასვით, როცა - როჩა,
[chanta - tsanta], [chai - tsai], [chumi - tsumi], [chasvit - tsasvit], [rotsa - rocha],
ცხოვრობს - ჩხოვრობს, ცაფიქრდა - ჩაფიქრდა, აღმოჩნდა - აღმოცნდა...
[tskhovrobs - chkhovrobs], [chapikrda - tsapikrda], [aghmochnda - aghmotsnda]...

წ - ჭ (ts' - ch'): წერილი - ჭერილი, ნაწარმოები - ნაჭარმოები, მომწონს - მომჭონს,
[ts'erili - ch'erili], nats'armoebi - nach'armoebi, [momts'ons - momch'ons],
წერეთელი - ჭერეთელი...
[ts'ereteli - ch'ereteli]...

There are interesting cases when the Georgian abruptives are replaced by voiced consonants:

კ - გ (k' - g): კალამი - გალამი, კორდი - გორდი, იკვებებიან - იგვებებიან, კარდა - გარდა -

[k'alami - galami]], [k'ordi - gordi], [ik'vebebian - igvebebian], [k'arda - garda],

ლუკა- ლუგა, ეკა - ეგა, ლუკმა - ლუგმა, კარგი - გარგი...

[luk'a- luga], e[k'a - ega], [luk'ma - lugma], [k'argi - gargi]...

ტ - დ (t' - d): ტაფა - დაფა, ტანი - დანი, მტაცებელი - მდაცებელი...

[t'apa - dapa], [t'ani - dani], [mt'atsebeli - mdatsebeli]...

ჭ - ჯ (ch' - j): ჭრიჭინა - ჯრიჯინა, ჭურჭელი - ჯურჯელი, ჭრელი - ჯრელი.

[ch'rich'ina - jrijina], [ch'urch'eli - jurjeli], [ch'reli - jreli].

ყ - ლ (q' - gh): ყაყაჩო - ლაღაჩო, ბაყაყი - ბაღალი, ყველი - ღველი,

[q'aq'acho - ghaghacho], [baq'aq'i - baghaghi], [q'veli - ghveli],

ყველა - ღველა, იყო - იღო, მეტყევე - მეტღევე, საყვირი - საღვირი;

[q'vela - ghvela], [iq'o - igho], [met'q'eve - met'gheve], [saq'viri - saghviri];

There are numerous errors of this type and it can be claimed that the main reason for all the above-mentioned examples is the complete lack of understanding of abruptives in the Azerbaijani language, which is why the speaker "solves the problem" by either replacing aspirated/voiced sound of the same order ($t' \rightarrow t/d$, $k' \rightarrow k/g$), or replaces it by a nearby sound of another place of production (more natural for the speakers' mother-tongue): ($tʃ' \rightarrow ts$; $ts' \rightarrow tʃ'$).

Other phonetic errors are due to the specificity of the Azerbaijani vocal apparatus.

The Azerbaijani language avoids combining two or more consonants. In such cases, a consonant-separating vowel necessarily appears between the consonants (Shiraliyev, Severtian, 1971):

თბილისი - თიბილისი (*tbilisi - tibilisi*), სქელი - სიქელი (*sqeli - siqeli*),

წიგნი - წიგინი (*cigni - cigini*), მდინარე - მიდინარე (*mdinare - midinare*),

კლდე - კილდე [*klde - kilde*], კბილი - კიბილი [*kbili - kibili*],

სქემა - სიქემა [*sqema - siqema*], სახელმწიფო-სახელიმწიფო [*saxelmçifo - saxelimçifo*]...

These are examples of epenthesis.

This purely phonetic phenomenon creates a problem in the pronunciation of Georgian words, not only from a morphological point of view, but also from a semantic point of view:

in the auslaut of a name formed in rotation with a consonant ending, 2 consonants come together; Under the influence of his native language, the Azeri-speaking student avoids bringing together 2 consonants by including a vowel; This leads to a change in the rotation status and, accordingly, a change in the semantics of the given form (family [ojax-s] is a given rotation; family [ojax-is] is a relative rotation form); The syntactic function of the sentence member also changes:

ოჯახ-ს [ojax-s] (object) - ოჯახ-ის [ojax-is] (syntactic definition);

ქუთაის-ს [kutais-s] (object) - ქუთაისის [kutais-is] (syntactic definition);

As it is known, the Azerbaijani language is characterized by the harmony of vowels and consonants, therefore distant progressive assimilation takes place in Georgian words (especially often in surnames):

ჯავახიშვილი - ჯავახაშვილი, მარჯანიშვილი - მარჯანაშვილი...

[javaxišvili] - [javaxašvili], [marjanišvili] - [marjanašvili]

The fundamental differences in linguistic structure between the Georgian and Azerbaijani languages expand the potential field of errors caused by the negative transfer. Some of the important differences in morphology include the poly-personality of the Georgian verb; a complex system of inflexions (4 Georgian inflexions have no analogues in Azerbaijani: ergative, Instrumentalis, adverbial and vocative cases), peculiarities of word formation; and polyfunctionality of preverbs.

* * *

Morphological interference is the perception of the grammatical categories of the second language from the prism of the grammatical structure of one's language.

In the Azerbaijani language, the possessive category is expressed by special possessive affixes attached to the stem, at the same time, possessive pronouns are also used. For example: benim annem (ჩემი დედაჩემი - *my mother (mine)*), correspondingly translated into Georgian as ჩემი დედაჩემი (*my mother (mine)*), ჩემი ბებიაჩემი (*my grandmother (mine)*), ჩემი დაჩემი (*my sister (mine)*), ჩემი ძმაჩემი (*my brother (mine)*), etc.

There are no verb prefixes in Azerbaijani, so different suffixed stems are used to match the verb prefix. E.g.:

სვოდს - Yukarı çıxtı (went up)
ამოდს - bəri çıxtı (came up)
ჩავოდს - endi (arrived)
ჩამოდს - aşağı endi (came down)...

Mistakes of syntactic nature in the speech of Azerbaijani language learners

The phenomenon of interference is especially noticeable in the construction of syntactic constructions. When constructing a sentence in a second language, as a rule, the syntactic rules in the native language are strongly influenced, which is the cause of errors.

In general, when teaching Georgian as a second language, emphasis was always placed on the ergative construction, which is not found in Indo-European, Altaur-Turkic, Semitic, etc. languages. However, some errors are recorded in connection with the construction of nominative and dative constructions. We think that ergative construction is only one component of the general complexity related to the issue of transitive verb labile constructions in the Georgian language (Gabunia, 2014, Gabunia, 2016).

For a person speaking the languages of the Indo-European, Alat-Turkic or other language families, who possesses stable (sustainable) syntactic constructions of his native language, have a stable construction when using different tenses: the subject is in the nominative case, the direct object is in the accusative case (Shiraliyev, Sevortian, 1971, 215).

Accordingly, it is unusual for students of the Azerbaijani language to perceive the change of actants arranged with transitive two-person (and three-person) verbs in Georgian according to inflexions with the forms of different series of tenses:

კაც-ი	სახლ-ს	აშენებს	(I series)
<i>k'ats-i</i>	<i>sakhl-s</i>	<i>ashenebs</i>	
კაც-მა	სახლ-ი	ააშენა	(II series)
<i>k'ats-ma</i>	<i>sakhl-i</i>	<i>aashena</i>	
კაც-ს	სახლ-ი	აუშენებია	(III series)
<i>k'ats-s</i>	<i>sakhl-i</i>	<i>aushenebia</i>	

Compare:	Georgian	Azerian	English
	<i>კაც-ი სახლ-ს აშენებს</i>	- <i>adam ev tikir</i>	- <i>A man builds a house.</i>
	<i>კაც-მა სახლ-ი ააშენა</i>	- <i>Adam ev tikdi</i>	- <i>A man built a house.</i>
	<i>კაც-ს სახლ-ი აუშენებია</i>	- <i>Adam ev tikmişdi</i>	- <i>A man built a house</i>

In this paradigm, not only the inflexion of the subjunctive (alternation of nominative, narrative and accusative according to the series) are specific, but also the inflexion of direct object (I series - accusative; II series - nominative; III series - nominative). Accordingly, errors are expected precisely with verbs of labile constructions;

Narrative-turn constructions are considered only in the context of the transitive verb of the second series, in the first and third series, respectively, nominative and dative turns are presented; Otherwise, the presence of an ergative construction in the second series necessarily implies the presence of a nominative construction in the first series and a dative construction in the third series. This is the formula for labile syntactic structures characteristic of the transitive verb predicate.

Two-person labile construction verbs form a large group in Georgian:

<i>აშენებს</i>	<i>კაც-ი</i>	<i>სახლ-ს</i>	{V – N ^S _{nom} – N ^O _{dir.dat} }
<i>ashenebs</i>	<i>k'ats-i</i>	<i>sakhl-s</i>	
<i>ააშენა</i>	<i>კაც-მა</i>	<i>სახლ-ი</i>	{V – N ^S _{erg} - N ^O _{dir.nom} }
<i>aashena</i>	<i>k'ats-ma</i>	<i>sakhl-i</i>	
<i>აუშენებია</i>	<i>კაც-ს</i>	<i>სახლ-ი</i>	{V – N ^S _{dat} - N ^O _{dir.nom} }
<i>aushenebia</i>	<i>k'ats-s</i>	<i>sakhl-i</i>	

The vast majority of relative transitive verbs show this syntactic construction.

As a rule, Azerbaijani-speaking respondents are not bothered by the inflexion of the subjunctive in the constructions of the first series; but there are quite frequent cases of presenting the direct object in the nominative:

- არ ვიცი ვფიქრობ, ჩემი მეგობარი რამე (N^O_{dir.nom}) მაღავეს. (1, 17)*
- სახლი (N^O_{dir.nom}) ვხატავ, მაგრამ ჯერ არ არის მზად. (2, 4)*
- ჩემი და წერდა კარნახი (N^O_{dir.nom}) გუშინ. (2, 8)*
- დედა რეცხავდა ჭურჭელი (N^O_{dir.nom}). (1, 11)*
- ჩემი მეგობრები თამაშობდნენ ფეხბურთი (N^O_{dir.nom}). (2, 3)*

In the second series, the situation changes: the inflexion of the direct object is correctly presented (nominal); The inflexion of the subjunctive is usually broken (it is also in the nominative - instead of the ergative):

ჩვენი კლასელები (N^s_{nom}) პროექტი არ გააკეთეს სკოლაში. (2, 12)

ბავშვი (N^s_{nom}) უნდა შეჭამოს წვნიანი. (1, 7)

წიგნი (N^s_{nom}) ჩემზე დიდი შთაბეჭდილება მოახდინა. (2, 2)

With the forms of the third series, the subject is mostly found in the nominative case:

მასწავლებელი (N^s_{nom}) უთქვამს რაღაცა. (2, 11)

გულნარა (N^s_{nom}) არ უნახავს ფილმი (1, 21)

The three-part transitive verb is characterized by an even more complicated construction: several peculiarities appear here:

1. In addition to repeating the formula of transitive verbs with a two-person labile construction, a third person is added, which, like verbs with stable constructions, is formed in the present tense in the first and second series.

2. It is necessary to consider the different behaviour of this indirect object with the forms of the third series: in the third series, the indirect object person loses the mutual connection with the verb-listener and appears in the subjunctive form (Shanidze, 1942)

I series:

უშენებს კაც-ი სახლ-ს მეგობარ-ს (N^O_{indir.dat})

A man builds a house for his friend

II series:

აუშენა კაც-მა სახლ-ი მეგობარ-ს (N^O_{indir.dat})

A man built a house for his friend

III series:

აუშენებია კაც-ს სახლ-ი მეგობრ-ისთვის (N^O_{indir.gen+postposition})...

A man's house was built for his friend

The types of errors are, naturally, more diverse with three-person forms: the respondents are confused by both the inflexions of the subject (in the second and third series), and - the inflexions of the direct object and, especially - the inflexions of the indirect object (with the forms of the third series):

Misrepresentation of the subject:

ის (N^S_{nom}) ჩვენ მართალი უნდა გვიპასუხოს (2,11).

დედაჩემი (N^S_{nom}) ჩემს ძმას ლამაზ საჩუქარს მისცა. (1, 12)

The direct object in the nominative case:

ახლახანს ვნახე დედაჩემი აჭმევდა ბავშვი (N^O_{dir nom}) წვნიანს. (2, 7)

ანა და დავიდ აძლევენ მასწავლებელს საშინაო დავალების რეგული (N^O_{dir nom}). (1, 17)

Indirect object in the nominative case:

ახლახანს ვნახე დედაჩემი აჭმევდა ბავშვი (N^O_{indir nom}) წვნიანს. (2, 7)

ალბათ დეიდამ დედა (N^O_{indir nom}) მისწერა წერილი.

There are cases when the three actants are formed in the correct way:

მასწავლებელი (N^S_{nom}) ახატვინებს მოსწავლეს (N^O_{indir dat}) სახლს (N^O_{dir dat}). (1,21)

დედაჩემი (N^S_{nom}) ამზადებინებს დას (N^O_{indir dat}) სადილს (N^O_{dir dat}). (2, 11)

ბავშვებმა (N^S_{erg}) მისცეს მასწავლებელს (N^O_{indir dat}) დღიურები (N^O_{dir nom}). (1, 15)

Conclusion

In general, when talking about interference, the focus is on the negative effect of the influence of the second language; However, researchers believe that positive transfer is also possible - the transfer of skills from the mother tongue that contributes to the development of speaking skills in the target language. The phenomenon of positive transfer is largely related to the issue of linguistic universals.

When learning a second language, learners actively use their linguistic experience (meaning native language); When constructing a sentence in a second language, the learner relies on the grammar of his native language and "programs" what to say. Incorrect programming of speech leads to "typical" errors that are very persistent. Correcting these issues requires a well-established, solid knowledge of this or that linguistic phenomenon of the second language. Typical and regular errors show that the student has created his own rule that differs from the correct one.

Most of the errors in the discussed examples are the result of negative transfer.

Among the typical mistakes of Azerbaijanis in the process of learning Georgian, phonetic-orthographic interference is the most common.

In general, this type of negative transfer can be found in many different cases, in particular, the inappropriate pronunciation of sounds, which often even changes the meaning of the word. Accordingly, at the orthographic level, this process is manifested in the incorrect spelling of words. The main determining factor of phonetic-orthographic negative language transfer is that the

phonemic system of a foreign language is perceived through the prism of the phonemic system of one's language. The phonological systems of Georgian and Azerbaijani languages are different and that is the reason for phonetic-orthographic interference.

The existence of stable syntactic constructions in the native language is so ingrained in the consciousness of non-Georgian-speaking respondents that it is difficult for them to properly apply the theoretically learned rules in practice. Consequently, there are no (or less frequent) errors regarding subject inflexion with verb predicates with stable constructions. The use of the subject in the wrong inflexion form is less common in the first series of verbs with a labile construction (where the subject is also in the nominative in Georgian); However, there are frequent cases of the incorrect formation of the direct object with verb-predicate with both stable and labile constructions.

The inflexion of the subject with the verb-predicate of labile construction is chaotic in the second the third series: the respondents transfer a solid construction of their native language and the subject is usually inflecting the subject in a nominative case. They also make errors with indirect objects as well, putting them in nominative instead of the dative case.

In the case of direct objects of the second and third series, positive transference takes place - learners use the correct, nominative case.

Based on all of the above, in the process of teaching the Georgian language, it is necessary to take into account the phonetic and grammatical features of the Azerbaijani language and select the teaching material accordingly. In general, from this point of view, it is effective to use authentic materials for educational purposes, such as Georgian language texts posted on the Internet, articles from magazines and newspapers, literary works, audio recordings, and movies. Naturally, the material should be selected according to the level of language proficiency.

Experience shows that interference has a negative impact on the learning and use of a second language, and teachers should help the students in overcoming it.

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Reviews

Larissa Aronin. *An Advanced Guide to Multilingualism*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2022. 256 p. ISBN: Paperback: 9780748635641. Hardback: 9780748635634. Ebook (ePub): 9781399501149. Ebook (PDF): 9780748635658.

With this textbook by Larissa Aronin, those who prepare a course on multilingualism do not need to search for other sources, because it is comprehensive, concise, and up to date. In the modern world, full of minorities, refugees and migrants, it should be a must-read for every schoolteacher and student. Being an overview of the latest fundamental issues in the field, the book contains multidisciplinary and hands-on resources. Yet, it is not only about multilingual people and their groups, but also about spaces and objects used by linguistically diverse communities. Everyone needs to be aware of challenges posed by multilinguals in education, translation as well as societal and family language policy. Indeed, the multiple languages and identities of children and old people, those in care and under investigation and trial reveal problematic attitudes. It can be easily used as a course book during a twelve-week semester.

The first part is titled “The field of multilingualism” and provides a general overview of the subject, a discussion of the subject’s breadth as a body of knowledge, and a glossary of terms and concepts. The three chapters inside of it, “What is multilingualism?”, “Multilingualism as an exceptional resource,” and “Multilingualism as Modern Reality and Field of Knowledge,” serve as general introduction and focus on most frequent terms, underlining that every case is unique, but the phenomenon is very common. The idea of the New Linguistic Dispensation “transparently captures the essence of linguistic arrangement in society. It refers, firstly, to allocation, supply, allotment and distribution of languages across the world and in very local niches. It also denotes, secondly, management, administration and regulation of linguistic riches, as well as, thirdly, permission, indulgence and privilege to use them in certain communities” (p. 49).

The second part is dedicated to “Languages,” its chapters are entitled “Languages of the world” (here, the continuums of varieties are important, e.g., dialects, standardized, codified, pluricentric languages, pidgins and creoles) and “Classifications of languages” (including the notions of lingua franca and artificial languages). Everyone interested in typology, similarities and differences of linguistic structures, and varieties of anthropological characteristics of languages is welcome to read these chapters.

The topic of Part III is “Multilingualism in society” with its chapters “Multilingualism at the societal level: basic concepts” and “Societal multilingualism: multilingual countries and regions” that discuss how linguistic, geographical, and social processes are intertwined in social settings that accommodate and adapt to language speakers with their languages and cultures resulting in different language arrangements.

Part IV’s “Individual Multilingualism” sections focuses on how a multilingual person uses languages in a variety of contexts, ages, and affordances. Language contact with ideas of borrowing, Sprachbund, and diglossia, helping to define domains of language behavior are introduced in Chapter 6 “Multilingualism at the societal level: basic concepts”. Chapter 7 “Societal multilingualism: multilingual countries and regions” provides an overview of multilingual nations and linguistic communities. Aronin explains how become countries multilingual, what are the roles and statuses of languages in multilingual regions and organizations and puts forward measures of linguistic diversity underlining the spectrum of solutions to the problems in different countries.

Part V “Individual multilingualism”, first in the Chapter 8 that reviews psycholinguistic and cognitive dimensions, examines the personal level of language encounters trying to find out what is recurrent, easy, or complex in such constellations. The author touches upon multilingual brains, cognitive aspects, health problems, and age markers. Chapter 9 “Individual multilingualism: social dimensions” raises the questions of identity, multilinguality, trajectories of becoming multilingual, and various categories of multilinguals, which always finds a great appreciation of the auditorium.

The book would be incomplete if the author had not demonstrated “How we experience and study multilingualism” in Part V. Chapter 10 “The ways we experience, treat and use languages” covers the social aspects that affect a multilingual’s life. The favorite research areas of Larissa Aronin are “Dominant language constellations” and “Material culture of multilingualism”, and she aptly introduces them here along with the concepts of translanguaging, code-switching, intercomprehension, and receptive multilingualism. The hot topic of “Methods of studying multilingualism” is explained in the Chapter 11 where Aronin shows quantitative and qualitative methodologies and different approaches in accordance with the current theories. The last Chapter 12 “Models of multilingualism” seems to be very unusual. It displays a plentitude of thought-provoking materials for those who prefer to operate with integrated units in order to answer why and how is multilingualism qualitatively different from bilingualism, is there one big lexicon or different lexicons for different languages, how and why do different languages interact with each other at an individual level, what are the additional factors that come into play when a third or subsequent language is being acquired (p.191).

Every chapter provides a summary of ideas, suggestions for further reading, a chapter’s review

in form of a table, some provocative subjects for discussion (called reflective questions) and exercises. These assignments seem to be suitable for any student group. The books end with a bibliography, a language and a subject indexes, and a glossary. It will be a pleasure to work with such an instrument.

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