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Multilingual aspect of the translation of proper names in the novel by L. Carroll "Alice in Wonderland"

ABSTRACT

The aim of the article is to identify the essential features multilingual translation aspect of their names on the example of art. The object of the research is the novel by L. Carroll "Alice in Wonderland."

The Novelty means that s translation of proper names from English into Ukrainian is in the light of multilingualism.

The practical value is the possible use of research results in teaching the theory and practice of translation.

Key words: *multilingualism; translation; proper name; transformation, transliteration, loan translation.*

INTRODUCTION

This article deals with the transfer of proper names from English into Ukrainian languages (on the example of a work of art) in terms of multilingualism.

The **topicality** of the subject is due to the dynamic development of intercultural relations and as a result, an ever-growing interest in the problems of translation of proper names which make up a significant part of the vocabulary of any language. They

reflect the history and culture of the country from which they originate.

The **aim** of the article is to consider the characteristics of the translation of proper names from English into Ukrainian (on the example of a work of art) and to determine which method of translation is used most often.

The material of research is the novel by L. Carroll "Alice in Wonderland" in the Ukrainian language and the original language.

The **theoretical value** of the study is that the materials work, observations and conclusions contain information that can be interesting and useful to those interested in issues of translation and can be useful for students who study translation in their future profession.

METHODS OF TRANSLATION OF PROPER NAMES

There are four principles of translation of proper names, including: transcription, transliteration, transposition, tracing.

Transcription

In general, most of the names and titles being transmitted by means of graphs and transcription. Although the proper name is intended to identify the object in any situation and any language community, it is in most cases a national linguistic identity. Each language community is of another nationality. When transferring to another language, the question arises: to what extent these names kept originality of the language from which they came.

It should responsibly approach the English language containing proper names of the European origin. In this case, the transmission names are not, of course, the rules of Anglo-Ukrainian transcription, and must take into account the rules of

orthographic transcription from the original language.

In linguistic studies L. N. Andreeva used phonetic transcription with the conventional system of signs. In practice, transcription uses historically made up the spelling system of the language in which there are transferred foreign names and titles. Orthographic transcription is a means of including the words of one language into another with a rough sound image persistence of these words. The inevitable practical approximation of transcription is the consequence of differences of a number of phonemes in different languages. Orthographic transcription should be distinguished on the one hand, the interpretation and, on the other hand, the transliteration.

Transliteration

Transliteration is different from transcription practically in its simplicity and the possibility of introducing additional signs. Transliteration is often used in the preparation of bibliographic indexes and catalogues.

As T. G. Levitska notes, transliteration has both advantages and disadvantages. The advantages are obvious: a written version of the name is not distorted, its carrier has a universal, language-independent identification. Sometimes it is difficult to restore the original form of foreign name or surname,

given to them in Ukrainian transcription, that is, with a focus on the sound, not the spelling of the name (e.g., Jung - Young or Jung? Lee - Leigh, Lee or Lie?)

When borrowing the names of their transmission can focus on the written (graphic) form. Perhaps a simple transfer of the graphic form of the name without a change of text in one language into text in another language. This is most commonly used when languages shared a graphic-based writing. This is a practice in most countries to use the Latin script. In Western European languages, nouns, that are borrowed from one language to another, as a rule, do not change the spelling: it is more convenient to the readers that this approach can easily navigate in any written sources.

Transposition

Transposition of parts of speech is one of the varieties of translation transformations applied through various speech and language differences between the English and Ukrainian languages. It is a transition from one word lexical and grammatical class or category to another in the translation process and it is used to achieve adequacy of translation.

O. Karpenko considers that in the translation process as the transition phenomenon of transposition of words from one language to another part accompanied

transformation and meanings of words. One of the main reasons that cause lexical transformations that accompany the replacement of parts of speech, there is a difference in the semantic structure of words of the original language and the target language. This is also due to differences in standards use different words and their compatibility. In translations tendency to specify the meanings of words in sentences sentences original translation. Quite common in this regard is the transposition of pronouns into nouns. Transposition of the English words abstract, generalized value in Ukrainian words with concrete semantics is legitimate for literary translation.

Loan translation

Loan translation means of translation lexical unit of the original by replacing its component parts (morphemes or words) of lexical correspondences in the target language. Loan translation as a translation method was the basis for a lot of different kinds of borrowing in intercultural communication in cases when transliteration was unacceptable for aesthetic, semantic or other reasons.

V. N. Komissarov notes that many phrases in the political, scientific and cultural fields practically tracings:

Глава уряду - Head of government;
Верховний Суд - Supreme Court;

Змішані закони -Mixed laws.

Choice loan translation, transliteration or mixed mode frequently asked dictionary, but many cases, especially related to the historical and cultural names, rare geographical names, new terms require independent decision interpreter.

Here are some reasons offered by R. P. Zorivchak that can help formulate a position of translation: First, opt for accuracy (literary) translation is not always the most successful, because the result is a perception too embarrassing for words - this often happens when literally tracing (e. g. translation of London better than the Tower of London, although the structure of the latter is closer to the original one).

In general, we can say that the choice of a possibility of transferring their names kept a semantics, i. e. the choice of transliteration or translation - driven by tradition, which can not be considered interpreters even in cases where they are the names of fictitious or alias, although much frequent fluctuations.

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE TRANSLATIONS OF PROPER NAMES EXAMPLE, IN THE NOVEL BY L. CARROLL "ALICE IN WONDERLAND"

In the novels "Alice in Wonderland" we found 22 anthroponym, 27 zoonims, 8

toponyms and 1 chrononym. So, we have 58 proper names. 7 English place names have a match in the Ukrainian language mentioned in the dictionaries: "England" - «Англія», "France" is «Франція», "New Zealand" - «Нова Зеландія», "Australia" - «Австралія» "London" - «Лондон», "Paris" - «Париж», "Rome" - «Рим», and one place name was transferred in both translations by way of loan translation: "Wonderland" - «Країна Чудес». The translation of "Alice in Wonderland", Burkina escaped such realities, unknown to the Ukrainian reader, and reproduced it this way: "Christmas" - «Новий рік». V. Kornienko, in our opinion, were more accurate, using an existing item, recorded in the dictionaries: "Christmas" - «Різдво». Most zoonyms are translated in both translations, because nicknames are animals that have their match in the dictionaries: "Eaglet" - «Орля», "Duck" - «Качка» etc. in Borsini; and "Mouse" - «Миша», "Duck" - «Качур», "Eaglet" - «Орлятко», in V. Kornienko. Interesting is the fact that the translator interpreted differently the gender of the characters: "duck" and "Drake." G Burshina and V. Kornienko resorted to pragmatic adaptation (made by the author of certain changes in the translation to achieve the required response), using English instead of pet, a widely known Ukrainian: "Fury" - «Бровко» in G. Burshina and "Fury" - «Мурко» in Kornienko. Here are dealing

with a reflection in the translation of several other aspects of the translation of perception: first, there is the domestication makes the product more close to the Ukrainian-speaking reader, but further translations from the original; second, it is striking that the same character in G. Borshna – dog, and in V. Kornienko – cat. In the story the mouse in the work of the original Fury is portrayed as a wily old dog, and his nickname already says about itself that he is still very angry. But both translations can be justified, in G. Burshina as the original, this character is still a dog, but V. Kornienko deliberately changed it to cat, which in our opinion is very relevant. It thereby enhances the existing conflict between him and mouse, and compensates for the loss of contents Klitschko Fury in such a way that the child is clear, as a cat treats a mouse. Anthroponym Alice they serve "is equivalent to" and for the traditional Soviet (mostly Russian) translation of the name Alice and not transcript it as Alice. Mary Ann G. Burchina turns into a Ukrainian girl Мар'яна (Maryana), that is, in the form adaptive to the Ukrainian language counterpart, the most closer translation to the English-speaking reader, then again seeking the equivalent; Kornienko, in turn, just transcribe him, "Mary Ann" - «Мері Ен». It is not clear what can explain such podnominatsii approaches of the interpreter to the playback of the names.

Part of the Anthroponomy William the Conqueror in both translations reproduced in the form of adaptive counterpart, and the rest translated means tracing - William the Conqueror, employing Ukrainian-rooted in historical tradition option.

G. Burshina uses the method of transliteration to reflect anthroponyms such as: «Edwin and Morcar», - «Едвін і Моркар», «Edgar Atheling» - «Едгар Ателінг», «Tillie» - «Тіллі»; Transcription: «Shakespeare» - «Шекспір», «Lacie» - «Лейсі», "Elsie" - «Ельзі». Such a variety of translation techniques, the use of which leads even to abuse spelling norms of the Ukrainian language ("Tilly"), we tend to explain " orthography madness "which takes place in the realm of foreign dumb play from the Soviet era and now. V. Kornienko, unlike G. Burshinareplaces the aforementioned dumb at all other names: «Elsie» - «Олша», «Tillie» - «Тільда», «Lacie» - «Асіла» odyvlennya intruding into text. That only left unclear reasons upon which the interpreter turned affectionately-diminutive form commonly-used English names for reader unusual for Ukrainian names.

G. Burshina translates zoonyms and anthroponomy: «the Mock Turtle» - «Фальшива Черепаха», «Cheshire Puss» - «Котик Сміюнчик», adding elements of their own interpretation of the characters. But first interpreter plays the Queen of Hearts as the

Red Queen, but then as Chyrvyna Queen, similar to «the Knave of Hearts» - «Чирвовий Валет» and «the King of Hearts» - «Чирвовий Король».

Very well, childish, V. Kornienko reproduced the ideological content of the following names: «the Mock Turtle» - «Казна-Що-Не-Черепаха», «Tortoise» - «Не-Аби-Який-Черепаха», forming conversion Ukrainian dumb inherent in fairy tales. It should be noted monotony approach to form newlyformed words.

We know that in Ukrainian diminutive forms are very common and are particularly structural and connotative realities, because this phenomenon is often used by translators. So in our case, at the morphological level translators change the word, giving it a certain color, making it the affectionate diminutive-: Котик Сміюнчик, Орля (G. Burshina); Орлятко, Мурчик-Чеширчик (V. Kornienko). Since the target audience of the work-tales have children, this method is appropriate.

Usually translated names of fairytale characters, adapting under target audience and consolidating them some subject-logical meaning in many different contexts. As the analysis shows, some had their historical names rooted in Ukrainian traditional options, which in translation posluhovuvalysya G. Burshinova and V. Kornienko.

However, it remains open and discursive questions admissibility, inadmissibility of the use of techniques domesticated dumb in translation. Also raises many questions about the phonetic play dumb, matching translated own names spelling norms of modern Ukrainian language. It should also be stated neodnomanitnist approaches to reproduce their names, which can be traced in both translations. These and other shortcomings of the work of translation dumb L. Carroll "Alice in Wonderland" shall amend translators successor.

SYSTEMATIZATION OF PROPER NAMES DEPENDING ON THE METHODS OF TRANSLATION.

Transliteration

Alice – *Аліса* is the name of the protagonist of the tale.

Transcription:

Dinah – *Діна*. Dina was the cat's name Ldev. This is the real essence of the real life Alice.

Ada, Mabel - *Ада, Мейбл*. Peers of Alice, which she mentioned in their arguments.

Dodo – *птаха Додо*.

Duck – *Гусак Дак*.

Lory - *Лорі*. Australian parrot.

Edwin – *Едвін*, **Morcar** – *Моркар*, **Edgar**

Atheling - *Едгар Ателінг*. Distinguished statesmen of England since William the Conqueror. They are also mentioned in his speech a Mouse.

Marry Ann – *Мері Енн*.

Bill – *Біл*.

Elsie – *Елсі*.

Lacie – *Лесі*.

Tillie – *Тіллі*.

This method passed 12 units, indicating the adequacy of this method of translation in the transmission of fairy tales.

Loan translation

The **white Rabbit** - *Білий кролик*. Some researchers believe L. Carroll, the white rabbit, the author has painted himself. L. Carroll was a lonely man, shy and sensitive; he had problems with pronunciation and wrote with his left hand, so often felt that he had something "not like others".

Dodo – *Дронт*. Another version of the translation. The name was transferred by means of transcription.

The white Rabbit – *Білий кролик*. Деякі дослідники Л. Керола вважають, що в білому кролику автор зобразив себе. Л. Керол був людиною самотньою, сором'язливою і вразливою; він мав проблеми з вимовою та писав лівою рукою, тому часто відчував, що в нього щось «не так, як в усіх інших».

Dodo – *Дронт*. Ще один варіант перекладу. Це саме ім'я було передано за допомогою транскрипції.

Lory - *Пануга*. Australian parrot.

Another option to transfer their own (was transferred via transcription).

The Pigeon - *голуб*.

Duchess – *Герцогиня*. One of the brightest and the main character, appears in Chapter 6.

The Mouse - *Миша*. Alice first found her in Chapter 2.

Duck - *Качка, Качур*. Under this name hidden name Duckworth (Reverend Duckworth), Comrade L. Carroll.

Eaglet - *Орля, Орлятко*.

Magpie- *Сорокаю*

The Caterpillar- *Гусінь*. The main character in Chapter 5.

The Frog footman- *Жаба лакей*.

Hatter – *Капелюшник*. The prototype of this character made furniture trader Carter, who was called the mad Hatter because he always wore a hat. He invented a bed alarm. Perhaps because Hatter L. Carroll always interested in time and tries to wake Sonya.

Dormouse – *Соня*. English mouse sleepyhead - nocturnal rodent that lives in a tree and resembles a small squirrel. Sony prototype was, perhaps, a small animal Combat that belonged to the poet Roseti, who often visited Carol.

March Hare - *Мартовський Заяць*.

Cheshire Cat - *Котик Сміюнчик*.

Five, Seven - *п'ятірка, сімка*.

Knave of Hearts - *Чирвовий Валет*.

Queen of Hearts- *Цирвова Королева.*

These characters Alice meets at 8 chapter.

Loan translation is the most common method of translation. With it was handed over 19 units.

Separately, we would like to draw attention to some less used methods of translation:

Partial loan translation. Partial loan translation represents a partial borrowing words and expressions which consist in part of elements of the original language, some of the elements of the target language. The tale L. Carroll, we find only one proper name translated means *napivkalky*:

William the Conqueror - *Вільгельм Завойовник.* Norman Duke, his wife landed on the shores of Albion in the summer of 1066. About him mentioned in his speech Mouse. Here *kalkuyetsya* only the second element name, first transmitted through transliteration.

Analyzing the processed material, we found that in many cases the same name translated by different authors in different ways, using different methods and means of translation. After processing the data, we obtained the following results: each author to a greater or lesser degree used all the methods of translation, namely:

- tracing method in 49%
- method *napivkalkuvannya* 2%
- method transcriptions of 26%

- transliteration method to 4%
- functional replacement method is 3%
- descriptive method in 1% of cases.

In addition, each author allowed himself to ignore the existing methods of translation and proposed their own versions, far from the original, using a creative method of translation in 16% of cases. But while the authors took into account the linguistic realities, specific work, often giving the word emotional.

CONCLUSIONS

Proper names play an important role in the process of intercultural communication not only because of their ability to name single objects, persons, etc., but also has the special ability to pass a background knowledge of reality, is able to transmit surface and deep levels of reflection for any culture.

Our aim was to consider the peculiarities of translation of proper names by means of English and Ukrainian languages (on the example of artistic works). The task was to define the basic terms and concepts to illuminate the main methods of translation of proper names, make an analysis of the translation of proper names in certain works and to determine which of the methods of translation used most often.

We determined that transcription is the transfer of sounds or styles of language a

system of signs, different from those in the written language units. In linguistic studies for scientific purposes applies phonetic transcription that uses a conventional system of signs. The practical transcription is used historically composed orthographic system of the language in which the transferred foreign names. Transliteration is a formal reconstruction of the initial lexical unit using the alphabet of the target language; literal imitation of the form of the initial word. Transposition lies in the fact that proper names in different languages, which differ in form but have a common linguistic origin, used to pass each other. Under the transposition of a word or part of the original word is transmitted in the target language with the same lexical means that are used in the source language. Tracing is a way of translation of lexical unit of the original by replacement of its component parts, their lexical equivalents in the target language.

We made a comparative analysis of the translation of proper names and names the

example tale L. Carroll "Alice in Wonderland". We did a separate analysis of translations of English proper names and names from English to Ukrainian language (for example, transfers Burshiroi G. and V. Kornienko).

After processing the data, we obtained the following results: each author to a greater or lesser degree used all the methods of translation, namely the method of tracing 49%, method *napivkalkuvannya* 2%, method transcriptions of 26%, the method of transliteration 4%, the method of functional replacement of 3%, descriptive method of 1%. The authors took into account the linguistic realities, specific work, often giving the word emotional. Therefore, based on the data can be argued that tracing method used most often, in second place - the method of transcription - the third method of creative translation. The least is the used methods of transliteration, functional options and descriptive method.

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Category of Evidentiality in the Kartvelian Languages: Problems, Research History, Perspectives¹

ABSTRACT

The given paper focuses on the problems related to the category of evidentiality in the Kartvelian languages, research history and future perspectives. The analysis of any linguistic category, above all, implies the study of its origin, especially if the category under analysis is universal. Scholars argue whether the category of evidentiality has been borrowed by the Kartvelian languages or it is the expression of the inner potential of these languages. As the verb plays a key role in the expression of evidentiality, the paper analyzes the morphological means of expression of evidentiality in the Kartvelian languages: perfect tenses characteristic of all Kartvelian languages, imperfect tenses existing in non-written Kartvelian languages (Svan, Megrelian and Laz), specific perfect tenses of the Svan language. Based on Svan and Megrelian material, markers of evidentiality have been identified. The research has yielded a preliminary conclusion on the authenticity of the category of evidentiality in the Kartvelian languages.

Key words: *Evidentiality, Tense, Perfect, Imperfect, Kartvelian.*

I. Introduction

The research focuses on the category of evidentiality in Kartvelian (South Caucasian) languages – Georgian, Megrelian, Laz and Svan. Out of these languages only Georgian has an alphabetic writing system and a literary tradition of sixteen centuries. Megrelian, Svan and Laz languages are linguistically independent language

systems, however, according to their social function, they are equal to dialects. The literary Georgian language embraces old and modern Georgian and has its dialects both in Georgia and outside its borders. In order to achieve reliable results, the above-mentioned facts should be envisaged when dealing with a research of Kartvelian languages.

¹ The paper has been presented at the international conference “*Historical Linguistics of the Caucasus*”, Paris, April 14, 2017 <http://immocal.ifeaistanbul.net/paris2017conf/>

The given paper has been prepared within the project “The Category of Evidentiality in the Kartvelian Languages” (№217300) financed by Rustaveli National Scientific Foundation. The research focuses on **problematic issues and novelties related to evidentiality, it analyzes the history of research regarding the topic, implement the analysis of the linguistic means used to express the category of evidentiality and outlines future perspectives.**

The category of evidentiality expresses the subjective attitude of the speaker to the context, i.e. whether the information is directly perceived by the speaker (or is equal to direct perception) and is therefore ideally reliable, or, whether the information has been obtained from some other source and, therefore, is far from “ideal knowledge” (S. DeLancey, 1979). The interest towards evidentiality is also due to the fact that this category is found in languages of different structures; Among them are the Kartvelian languages: Georgian, Megrelian, Svan. See Aikhenvald, 2004. It should be mentioned that the linguistic means

used to express evidentiality may be diverse in non-related as well as related languages.

II. Research History and Topic

Evidentiality is a universal category expressed by morphological, syntactic and lexical means. According to E. Kordi’s classification, markers of evidentiality in languages of different types are as follows:

1. Specific grammatical forms for which these meanings are unique or essential;
2. Polysemantic grammatical forms used in their secondary meanings;
3. Lexical means in certain syntactic constructions (Корди, 2007, 256).

All the three above-mentioned markers of evidentiality are used in the Kartvelian languages.

Research of evidentiality on the material of the Kartvelian languages, based on corresponding methodology, was launched at the end of the 20th century by Georgian and foreign authors; research outcomes have been published in articles and monographs (Boeder, 2000; Сумбатова, 2007; Topadze, 2011; Margiani, 2012).

However, it should be mentioned that much earlier than the above-mentioned period Georgian scholars (A. Shanidze, Arn. Chikobava, V. Topuria, Sh. Dzidziguri, G. Rogava, Z. Chumburidze, I. Kobalava, G. Kartoza, Z. Sarjveladze, L. Kvantaliani, I. Chantladze, D. Pkhakadze and others) wrote articles and monographs focusing on issues directly linked to the grammatical expression of evidentiality, namely:

- *The formation of tenses related to the unseen* (=unseen actions/states);
- *Constructions with indirect speech particles and conditional clauses.*

Note: the list of works of the above-mentioned scholars is provided in the references.

Analysis of any linguistic category, above all, aims at identifying the **origin** of this category, especially when the category under analysis is universal. Scholars have diverse opinions regarding the **origin** of evidentiality in the Kartvelian languages: some think that evidentiality is a phenomenon specific for the Kartvelian languages, while others regard that evidentiality appeared in the Kartvelian languages as a result of the influence of the Turkish language. **In order to study the history properly**

and, above all, to solve the given problem, it is necessary to undertake a complex study of the category of evidentiality in the Kartvelian languages. This will help understand whether the category of evidentiality in the Kartvelian languages is an expression of the inner potential of these languages or is a result of the external influence.

III. Morphological Expression of Evidentiality in the Kartvelian Languages

“Evidentiality, in a broad sense, is a textual category, whereas **evidentiality of the verb** is just one of the means, albeit central, of expression” (Ницолова, 2007, 122). The verb is the very language unit in non-written Kartvelian languages (Svan, Megrelian and Laz), for which evidential meaning is unique and essential (i.e. non-written languages, unlike the literary one, have different evidential tenses).

Evidential Perfect

According to the traditional opinion, **on the contemporary stage of language development, the perfect tense is one of the main means of expressing the**

evidentiality of the verb.

Both in literary and non-written Kartvelian languages there are evidential perfect tenses: **Evidential I and Evidential II**.

The above-mentioned tenses fulfill the same function in old Georgian texts. On the synchronic level, their chief meaning is evidentiality, whereas their initial function – resultative – is, in fact, overshadowed. Georgian does not have a special morpheme to denote the category under analysis.

In this regard, mention should be made of the following:

On the synchronic level the evidentiality of the above-mentioned tenses is undoubted, however, opinions vary regarding the function of these tenses in Old Georgian, namely, whether they expressed evidentiality at least to a certain extent. A. Shanidze, Z. Sarjveladze and G. Ninua give a positive answer to the above question: “In Old Georgian the verb was capable of expressing the meaning of unseen action. However, this capacity of the verb was more developed in Middle and Modern Georgian” (Sarjveladze, Ninua, 1985, 85). The above-mentioned

opinion is shared by M. Beridze (2009) and M. Topadze (2011). We argue that the meaning of unseen action existed in the Old Georgian verb. For instance:

(1) „...შენი ადგილი *დაგიტევებიეს*
და სხუად წასრულ ხარ“

šeni adgili *dagitevebies* da sxuad
časrul xar.²

‘As it turned out, you have left your place and gone somewhere else’

(“The Martyrdom of Shushanik”, Old Georgian Hagiographic Literature, 1963, 15; (This example is also provided in the work of Z. Sarjveladze and G. Ninua);

(2) და რამეთუ *მოედღუნა*
წმიდასა მას ეპისკოპოსსა
საზრდელი...

da rametu *moezyuana* čmidasa mas
episkopossa sazrdeli ...

‘As it turned out, the Bishop had provided food for her’... (ibid, 23);

(3) ...მამა გრიგოლს აქეთ
წამოუყვანებია

mama grigols aket *čamouqvanebia*

‘Father Gregory seems to have brought her here’

(“The Life of Gregory of Khandzta”,
ibid, 297).

² For transliteration there is used TITUS Bitstream Unicode <http://titus.fkidg1.uni-frankfurt.de/framee.htm?%2Findex.htm>

IV. The Way of Formation of Perfect Tense Verb Forms

It is important to analyze the means of formation of perfect tense verb forms. In this way we can evidently see how language aspires to the natural development of the semantics of **unseen actions**. A quote of A. Arabuli proves the above opinion: In Georgian “the main function of Evidential I is to show result. However, it gradually developed the function (co-function) of evidentiality, unseen action or state”. The scholar underlines that “the development of the model of unseen action or state on the basis of perfect verb forms can be witnessed in languages of various groups, therefore, it can be considered as universal and logical” (Arabuli,1984, 139-149).

Perfect tense verb forms are obtained from the reinterpretation (inversion) of ancient forms – stative verbs:

Georgian:

(4) Stat. Present: *უწერია uçeria* – ‘it is written for him/her’;

(5) Evidential I: *უწერია uçeria* – ‘it has turned out that he/she has written it’;

(6) Stat. Aorist: *ეწერა eçera* – ‘it was written for him/her’;

(7) Evidential II: *ეწერა eçera* – ‘it turned out that he/she had written it’.

Perfect forms have been developed similarly in the **Svan** language:

(8) Stat. Present: *ბოორა xoira* – ‘it is written for him/her’;

(9) Evidential I: *ბოორა xoira* – ‘it has turned out that he/she has written it’;

(10) Stat. Aorist: *ბოორან xoiran* – ‘it was written for him/her’;

(11) Evidential II: *ბოორან xoiran* – ‘it turned out that he/she had written it’.

The same is true for **Megrelian**:

(12) Stat. Present: *უჭარუ(ნ) uçaru(n)* – ‘it is written for him/her’;

(13) Evidential I: *უჭარუ(ნ) uçaru(n)* – ‘it has turned out that he/she has written’;

(14) Stat. aorist: *უჭარუდუ uçarudu* – ‘It was written’;

(15) Evidential II: *უჭარუდუ uçarudu* – ‘It turned out that he/she had written’.

The same is true also for **Laz**:

(16) Stat. Present: *უჭა(რ)უნ uça(r)un* – ‘it is written for him/her’;

(17) Evidential I: *უჭა(რ)უნ uça(r)un* – ‘it has turned out that he/she has written’;

(18) Stat. aorist: *უჭა(რ)უდუ*

uča(r)udu – ‘It was written’;

(19) Evidential II: უჭა(რ)უდუ

uča(r)udu – ‘It turned out that he/she had written’.

V. Extra Evidential Perfect Tenses in Svan

The Svan language, being a non-written language, is both archaic and innovative. This can be proved by the existence of evidential perfect tenses that are not found in other Kartvelian languages, these tenses are: **Conditional-Resultative I and Conditional-Resultative II**; the origin of these tenses is similar to that of evidential perfect verbs in other Kartvelian languages. These forms are interpreted and inverted forms of continuous future and continuous conditional forms of stative verbs:

(20) Stative passive: ბჟორო *xeiri* ‘it will be written for him/her’>dynamic active: ბჟორო *xeiri* ‘he/she has probably written it’ (cf. ბოორას *xoira* ‘it has turned out that he/she has written it’);

(21) Stative passive: ბჟორღლ *xeirol* ‘it would be written for him/her’>dynamic active: ბჟორღლ *xeirol* ‘he/she had probably written it’ (cf. ბოორას

xoiran ‘it turned out that he/she had written it’).

VI. Evidential Imperfect

It is widely known, and it has also been proved by the material analyzed in this paper, that perfect tenses traditionally develop the semantics of unseen actions. It should also be noted that in non-written Kartvelian languages the neutral imperfect forms have developed opposite evidential forms, namely,

In the Svan language

There are evidential tenses with present tense stems, termed Evidential I and Evidential II (Topuria, 1967, 130) (these are not perfect Evidential I and Evidential II characteristic of the Kartvelian languages; simply, the homonymous terms existing in the scholarly literature need to be specified. The activities within the project are also aimed at the specification of terms):

Evidential I is formed by adding suffixes *-უნ/-un* and *-ა/-a* to the present superessive version form of the verb. However, in certain contexts, they may also bear the semantics of objective version:

(22) ხ-ჰ-იღ-უწ-ს x-ä-ir-un-a

Ind.O3-SPRS-to write-EVDM-PM

‘it turned out that he/she was writing above something / it turned out that he/she was writing it for him/her’;

In the Svan language, grammaticalization of evidential forms is most obvious as compared to other Kartvelian languages. This can be proved by the existence of a special marker of evidentiality in the verb form (Margiani, 2012, 47-48).

In the first and second person, Evidential II is formed by means of an auxiliary verb, whereas in the third person the auxiliary verb may be omitted:

(23) ლჷ+მ+იღრ-უწ ლ+m+ijr-ün

to write-EVDM

it turned out that he/she had been writing to him/her’.

Despite the difference in the structure of the tenses under analysis, they have a common present stem.

In Megrelian

There are two groups of present-stem tenses opposed by seen and unseen actions (Rogava, 1953, 30; Kobalava, 2001, 133-134):

(24) Present:

ჭარ-უწ-ს čar-un-s

to write-THM-PRS.S3.SG

‘he/she is writing’

Evidential III:

ნო-ჭარუ-ე-(ნ) no-čaru-e-(n)

EVDM>-to write-<EVDM-(PRS.S3.SG)

‘it has turned out that he/she is writing’;

(25) Imperfect:

ჭარ-უწ-დ-უ čar-un-d-u

to write-THM-EXTM-IMP.S3.SG

‘he/she was writing’

Evidential IV:

ნო-ჭარუ-ე-დ-უ no-čaru-e-d-u

EVDM>-to write-<EVDM-EXTM-IMP.S3.SG

‘it turned out that he/she had been writing’

We argue that in the above-mentioned forms denoting unseen actions/states ნო- ე / no- e should be considered as markers of evidentiality.

In Laz

Non-inversive evidential tenses, the formation of which varies throughout dialects (Kartozia, 2005, 102-103). For instance,

Past Continuous Evidential

In Vitsean-Arkabian and Atinian-Artashenian dialects:

(26) ჭარ-უპ-ტ-უ-დორენ *čar-up-t-u-*
doren

to write-THM-EXTM-IMP.S3.SG-CLTC

‘it turned out that he/she had been writing’;

Khofian dialect:

(27) ჭარ-უპ-ტ-Ø-ერენ *čar-up-t-Ø-eren*

to write-THM-EXTM-IMP.S3.SG-CLTC

‘it turned out that he/she had been writing’.

VII. Preliminary results and Conclusions

1. Like the majority of languages, in the Kartvelian languages **there are evidential perfect forms**. Non-written Kartvelian languages have developed other forms as well, namely, **Evidential forms of imperfect verbs**;

2. In the Svan language all evidential verbs (apart from the forms that have originated from stative verbs, which, naturally, retained the model of stative verbs!) are marked by suffix **-უნ-/-un-**. And in Megrelian, **ნო- -ე / no- -e** circumfix also seems to be the marker of evidentiality in tenses denoting unseen actions/states. The existence of a special morpheme that denotes certain grammatical category proves that the category is authentic for the given language.

Thus, based on the preliminary data and conclusions, we argue that the category under analysis may be organic and authentic for the Kartvelian languages.

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Abbreviations:

CLTC – Clitic

EVdM – Evidential marker

EXTM – Extention marker

Ind.O3 – Indirection object 3

IMP– Imperfective

PM – Paradigm marker

SPRS – Superessive version

S3 – Subject person 3

SG – Singular

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Comparative analysis of Ukrainian and English neologisms in the context of political discourse

ABSTRACT

The article considers the features of formation of neologisms in the modern Ukrainian and English political discourses. We set the following task: to analyze the actual ways of word formation in the modern political discourse. Lexical peculiar features of political discourses of the Ukraine, the Great Britain and the USA are scrutinized. Language is one of those human activities, which one of the first reflects changes in social, political, economic and cultural and other aspects of human activity. Living language develops very rapidly, it is under the influence of internal and external factors, it adapts to the constant changes in social, cultural and scientific life. Each change in the society generates new words and terms, i.e. the creation of new words in the language is carried out as a reflection in the language of social needs to express new concepts. New words in the language are reflection of an objective reality. Neologisms in a given historical period are defined by both internally speech and externally speech factors that play a key role in the study of certain linguistic changes. In understanding the neology as lexical renovation of the national language by borrowing new formations and new meanings, it should be noted the importance of this process for the phenomenon of political discourse because the native speaker's consciousness is formed by means of the language. Therefore, changing the lexical system, conventional political sender reconstructs the cognitive recipient field, manipulates his or her consciousness, and consequently directs his or her political actions. In understanding the neology as lexical renovation of the national language by borrowing new formations and new meanings, it should be noted the importance of this process for the phenomenon of political discourse because the native speaker's consciousness is formed by means of the language. Therefore, changing the lexical system, conventional political sender reconstructs the cognitive recipient field, manipulates his or her consciousness, and consequently directs his or her political actions.

Key words: *political discourse, political terms, political neologisms, word formation.*

Language is one of those areas of human activity, which one of the first reflects changes in the social, political and other changes of the human activity. Living language develops very rapidly, it is under the influence of internal and external factors, it adapts to the constant

changes in social, political, scientific and cultural life. It always takes new forms and values, at the same time it is self-cleaning of old items that no longer can perform its functions.

Each change in the society, be it political, social or cultural one, generates new words and

terms, i.e. the creation of new words in the language is carried out as a reflection in the language of social needs to express new concepts. New words in the language are a reflection of an objective reality. Neoplasms in a given historical period are defined by both internally speech and externally speech factors that play a key role in the study of certain linguistic changes. Naumova I.A. in her work *Verbatim* says of neologisms as "dress and sound of a language, documentary evidence of the emergence of a new language" (Naumova, 2008,10).

Recently formed words are known as neologisms. However, the definition of neologism raises several questions as to what word can be considered as a new one. From traditional canonical words neologisms differ by special relationships over time and fixed in the collective consciousness. Any new word tends to be a neologism, i.e. temporary connotation of the novelty, while collective linguistic consciousness reacts to it as a new one.

Glossary of linguistic terms by Rosenthal D.E. and Telenkova M.A. give the following definition: "neologism (from Greek *neos* - new + *logos* - word) is a word or a turn of the language phrase created to describe a new subject or express new concepts" (Rozenal, 1985). However, after the word becomes the part of the mass consumption, it will cease to be the neologism. Some neologisms are related

to certain historical epochs, they have joined the composition of old words.

Newmark P. believes that the neologism may be defined as a newly created lexical unit or an existing lexical unit that has acquired a new meaning (Newmark, 1992).

Most neologisms do not live long because they are formed at the time of the speech and in special situations. The most important feature of neologisms is their temporary nature, because that word has its meaning or force only in the given context and it is intended to serve only in this case (Galperin, 2014).

New words and expressions arise regardless of their importance degree. All of them can be important and relate some social and political events, such as new names of political parties; neologisms appear to describe fairly minor and short-lived phenomena such as new styles of music or dance (Arnold, 2012). In such cases, there are several ways of neologisms formation, existing words change their meaning, and new words are borrowed or created from existing lexical material available in the language for the creation of new models of lexical units.

It's important to point that the purpose of neologisms is to describe subjects, realities, phenomena and concepts that had not previously existed.

It's is necessary to note that neologisms are divided into linguistic, lexical, semantic, original and individual stylistic ones. Language

neologisms arise with new concepts; they are a part of the passive vocabulary and dictionaries. If this concept is relevant for long time, the words are no longer neologisms; they are organically becoming a part of vocabulary. Lexical neologisms are formed in the language according to the existing models. Semantic neologisms are called new meanings known in the language of words. Authors' neologisms, individual and stylistic neologisms are created by writers and poets to provide literary texts with expressiveness. Such neologisms are usually "attached" to the context and have their author. The value of these neologisms is that they make extraordinary literary text and can easily attract the attention of the reader.

Creating new words is a result of the pragmatic needs. When a person intends to express his or her idea, he or she chooses existing lexical units that best reflect his or her thoughts and feelings. However, if there is not such word in the lexicon of the speaker, the speaker modifies an old one and creates a new lexical unit.

As a rule neologisms are immediately understandably motivated. Anywhere there are also cases when the motivation of new words is not clearly observed. However, over time, new words are taken to the language vocabulary and they will no longer new ones through their frequent use. Other neologisms disappear from the language to some reasons. It is quite difficult to predict the fate of neologisms: some

of them are temporary and they do not stay in the language, while others are long-lasting because they are accepted by speakers (Arnold, 2012).

Consequently, there are many definitions of neologisms in different dictionaries and scientific works. The most common of meanings indicates that the neologism is a new word or phrase in the language or an existing word that takes a whole new meaning and it is used further as a linguistic innovation. Since the main objective of neologisms is to serve certain events in time they may disappear from the language as quickly as they are formed. Consequently, the fate of linguistic innovations in the language remains unpredictable. Some of them can be consolidated in the language for a long time, and some are forgotten over time because of its out-of-dateness.

The political discourse has always been a strong power resource by which the state and public institutions are capable to provide self-presentation, design and promote themselves in a favorable light or insult the surrounding reality.

There is no static phenomenon in the society it is always in the process of constant development, politics is one of these phenomena, and so lexical units that serve this area of people's lives are also in constant development. Recently, we can see a large number of new concepts and phenomena in the

policy which contribute to the formation of many new words, i.e. neologisms.

Political discourse reflects all the social and political changes that are factors of a new perception forming, which is transmitted primarily through neologisms. Conceptual rows of political discourse interact with each other, thereby reproducing the multi spectrum gamma of conceptual world view.

In understanding the neology as lexical renovation of the national language by borrowing new formations and new meanings, it should be noted the importance of this process for the phenomenon of political discourse because the native speaker's consciousness is formed by means of the language. Therefore, changing the lexical system, conventional political sender reconstructs the cognitive recipient field, manipulates his or her consciousness, and consequently directs his or her political actions.

One of the important political neologisms features is their evolving nature. Since this type of neologism is politically determined, it not only names but also evaluates a concept or phenomenon inherent in the semantics of naming (Minyar-Beloruhev, 2012)

Political neologisms are not only a way to update the vocabulary; they allocate priority areas, allowing navigating in the political space. Language is a tool used to influence public awareness and encouraging the masses to action. Language gives the politician the

opportunity to achieve the goals if they are properly named. In today's changing information world, the verbalization is necessary as human consciousness perceives better what is called.

The purpose of this article is to study ways of creating actual political neologisms and their functions in the English and Ukrainian languages.

Language development is largely due to the development of its word-formation system, the emergence of new formative models of words, existing models change, their productivity and other factors of increase or decreases. The term means rules derivation of linguistic units' creation on certain models and schemes, ways and means of new words system creation.

Creation of new words in the language is a reflection of society's needs in terms of new concepts constantly arising from technical, cultural, social and political changes.

Word formation is a very important event because it is focused on communication and the transfer of existing knowledge about the world. Most neologisms are derivatives, i.e. derivatives of words, formed on the basis of existing ones. Absolutely new words are extremely rare.

In the analysis of lexical units-neologisms in the sphere of policy the following models of word formation have been identified:

Affixed model. This method actually prevails in the formation of neologisms. The original word is characterized by fragmentation and the presence of internal predication. In English common suffixes are as follows: -ism: Obamunism, Bushism, Americentrism, Eurocentrism, Afrocentrism, endism, declinism; -philia: Obamaphilia, Baracaphilia, Palinphilia; -mania: Obamamania, Palinmania; -phobia: Obamaphobia, Baracknophobia, Palinphobia; -er: birther, deather, thruther. -ness: presidentialness.

The following prefixes can be found: pre-: precrimination (pre- + recrimination), prebituary (pre- + obituary); non-: nontroversy; re-: rescandal; under-: underdecided, un-: unconcession, over-: overvoting.

Affixed model is also very common in the Ukrainian language. Here you can find the following prefixes: анти-: антинатовщина, антимайдан. The following political neologisms are formed by the suffixes way: -ізм: кравчукізи, кучмізм; -ал: регіонал; івець-: беркутівець, ющенківець, бютівець; -іст: кучміст. Even prefixes and suffixes way can be occurred, for examples, neologism " зросійщення " was created with the help of prefix з- and suffix -енн.

Another quite common phenomenon in the context of word formation is a merger, especially in English. The meaning of neologisms created by merging is very easy to

install because all its components are motivated, clear to understand.

Such English political neologisms were created by merging as Obamacon (Obama + conservative), infoganda (information + propaganda), democratatorship (democracy + dictatorship), politainer (politician + entertainer), pollutician (pollution + politician), manufactroversy (manufactured + controversy), Minnewisowa (The United States geographical area consisting of the states Minnesota, Wisconsin and Iowa, particularly as a political entity), municide (municipal + suicide), Eurogeddon (Europe + Armageddon), genopolitics (genetics + politics), Grexit (Greece or Greek + exit), AfPak (Afghanistan + Pakistan), shampaign (sham + campaign), theocon (theological + conservative), cosprocacy (corporate + bureaucracy), radiclib (radical + liberal), republocrat (repuclican + democrat), businesscrat (business + democrat), fiscalamity (fiscal + calamity), democrazy (democracy + crazy).

In the Ukrainian language following neologisms formed by merging have been found: кучмономіка (Кучма + економіка), нардеп (народний депутат), Євроінтеграція (Європейська інтеграція).

Compounding

In English there are two-component and one-component political neologisms formation

via compounding. Two-component neologisms are such as hyper-power, Obamacare, soccer mom, hockey dad, nanosocialism, monetary hegemony, remix culture, permission culture, world opinion, blue-hot. Among the two-component the following examples have been found: Checkbook diplomacy, Homeland security, Flypaper theory, flat-tax ethics, office-park dad.

In the Ukrainian language compounding is also a very relevant way of creating political neologisms. The following neologisms have been found: кучмовізм, кнопкодав, кулювлюб, автомайдан.

Abbreviation as a way of word formation. It reflects the tendency to rationalize languages, providing linguistic saving efforts. Abbreviation is a common method of derivation in Ukrainian and English.

Among abbreviations in the English language we have found the following ones: RINO (Republican In Name Only), DINO (Democrat In Name Only). These abbreviations are examples of acronyms because they consist of initial letters of the phrase.

In the Ukrainian language we have found the following examples: АТО (антитерористична операція), ЄС (Європейський Союз), ОДА (обласна державна адміністрація), ГПУ (Генеральна прокуратура України), the МВФ (Міжнародний валютний фонд).

Also in the Ukrainian language the relevant phenomenon is borrowing of the political nature, for example, електорат, брифінг, політиканство, постулат, лобізм.

Semantic neologisms are one of the most common ways of creating political neologisms.

In English, the following examples of semantic neologisms have been found: kidnap (start up constituencies so that the area where they support a certain political candidate, become a part of an area where they support a political candidate from the same party, in order that they compete against each other), pizza parliament (parliament, which consists of many parties, each of which has a relatively small number of seats. None of these parties do not have the majority of seats in parliament), purple state (the state, which supports both the Democrats and the Republicans), red state (the state in which the majority of people support the Republicans), blue state (the state in which most people support the Democrats), outposts of tyranny (countries which adhere to the totalitarian regimes), Old Europe (a term used by the US government to designate countries that did not support the invasion of Iraq in 2003), zombie lie (false statement that is repeated constantly, regardless of how often it has been refuted), vampire state (the country from which a dictator or ruling elites pump money and resources).

In the Ukrainian language the semantic neologisms of the political nature are the

following ones: синьо-білі (those who support political "Party of Regions" symbols of which are blue and white colors), помаранчеві (supporters of the party "Our Ukraine" symbols of which is the orange color) , помаранчева революція (campaign of protests, rallies and acts of civil disobedience, organized and conducted by supporters of Viktor Yushchenko), газова принцеса (neologism that related to Yulia Tymoshenko in connection with her participation in solving the gas conflict with Russia in 2009) , небесна сотня (a collective name of killed protesters in Ukraine in December 2013 and February 2014), тітушки (a collective name of mercenaries often underclass criminals used by the Ukrainian authorities to break away physical force and obstruction of opposition activists during the "Euromaidan"), диктаторські закони або драконівські закони (package of laws adopted by the Verkhovna Rada of

Ukraine on 16 January 2014 aimed at criminalizing the opposition and civil society), зелені чоловічки або ввічливі люди (the collective name of the Russian military involved in the invasion of Ukraine in 2014), чорний четвер (on 16 January 2014, when the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine adopted a number of so-called "law of dictatorship") революція гідності or Майдан (protests in Ukraine aimed against corruption, arbitrariness of law enforcement agencies and to support the European vector of foreign policy).

Conversion as a way of new words formation considerably reduced its degree of relevance and inferior to other methods of derivation. We have not found many examples of conversion. In English the following political neologisms can be provided: deelection> to deelect, egocasting> to egocast, genopolitical> genopolitics, declinist adj. > Declinist n.

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Towards the Multilingual and Multicultural Learning Space: the Case of Latvia

ABSTRACT

Language issues within the higher education sector have taken the central position in view of the current internationalization trend. Language policy in European higher education institutions is impacted by current trends in commerce, science, and culture, as well as the guidelines provided in numerous documents issued by the Council of Europe emphasizing the centrality of languages within higher education curricula. Therefore, the research topicality is determined by the indispensable and urgent necessity to explore the potential and the actual state of internationalization process implementation in the sector of higher education in Latvia placing language issues (global and local language/-s) as the main research focus.

The article reports the findings of the survey conducted applying the questionnaire and focus-group discussion as data collection methods stating the strengths and challenges of Latvian internationalization scenarios focusing on issues related to language studies for both students and academic staff.

Key words: *higher education internationalization, multilingual and multicultural learning space, languages, curriculum, faculty staff's professional development*

Introduction

The domain of higher education and the institutions providing higher education have focused on the dimension of internationalization within their activities for centuries. For instance, higher education institutions in medieval Europe have put much effort into attracting foreign students and promotion of academic staff mobility.

Throughout history, this objective has been challenged by different events (e.g. the Protestant Reformation, the formation of the nation-state, etc.), still, at present, the domain of higher education has regained and strengthened its international scope and direction, which is enhanced by the Information and Communication Technologies, the knowledge economy; increased mobility for

students, faculty, programmes, and providers; and an integrated world economy (Knight, 2004; 2008, etc.).

In the last decades, the European higher education landscape has undergone profound transformations. The reasons are diverse, however, the development of the European Higher Education Area and the introduction and promotion of the European Commission's programmes that support student and staff mobility have led to the ever strongest emphasis on the dimension of internationalization within higher education for all the parties involved in the activities and processes.

The article introduces the selected findings of the study conducted in the framework of Doctoral research "Foreign Language Studies in the Context of Higher Education Internationalization in Latvia" (author: A. Stavicka; scientific advisor: I. Odiņa; University of Latvia, 2015).

Theoretical Background

The trend to put the **language** as the core subject of inquiry within the higher education internationalization after 2000 is clearly visible. The sources dealing directly with language and its place, role and function in the context of internationalization and globalization include such issues as the **English language as a global language, English as a Lingua Franca, English for scientific and**

global communication, etc. The sources dealing with language issues in the context of internationalization of higher education address a wide array of questions starting with language planning and language policies and up to teaching methodology. It is not surprising that English as a global language and the lingua franca for many (or even most of) professional fields, as well as its impact on the use of local languages are assigned a special place within the most current research to. The theoretical sources provide accounts on the implications of the dominance of English for higher education, science and research as well as the whole of the society providing examples of the case studies from across the world. Besides the debates on the role of English in the modern world, leading scholars (e.g. Ammon, 2001; Barry, 2002; Ferguson, 2004) sharply argue on the relations between the educational objectives and the place of languages within the curriculum. Exploring a wide range of topics, from the globalization of communication to the professional discourse, authors consider the implications of the changes in the educational paradigm rooted in the internationalization of higher education. The authors (e.g. Ammon, 1998, 2000; Crystal, 2003) provide authoritative reports on the ways in which language is changing, and in turn, changes the users of a language/languages. Sources shed light upon the latest research and insights from linguistics (esp. applied linguistics), studies on

educational policies and strategies as concerns the planning and implementation of language studies resulting in the synthesis of language education practices from across the world (e.g. Ferguson, 2004; Kaplan, 2001).

As concerns issues related to **languages** as a research interest within the Latvian scholarly community, the issues of the local language maintenance and promotion, as well as dissemination of correct usage, including translation and localization of professional terminology are viewed as the ones of fundamental importance. Another research direction, which reiterates the most recent concerns of authorities involved in the promotion of common European education space, is bilingualism, multilingualism and their promotion, the emphasis on the development of language skills and competences within the diverse world linguistic landscape, which are viewed as the issues of fundamental topicality both in Latvia and worldwide. Latvian scholars have contributed to the understanding of the situation within the Latvian linguistic landscape (e.g. Druviete, 1997, 1999, 2000; Valdmanis, 2012; Balodis, et al., 2011; Kļava, Valdmanis, 2012; etc.). Latvian scholars rightly admit that the language policy in Latvia is implemented in the generally complex linguistic situation, for within the Latvian setting, at least, two other major languages are

present - the English and Russian languages. They also highlight that the English language has been assigned a special role to also within the Latvian community (e.g. Druviete, 2014). Latvian scholars also acknowledge the necessity to assess the state of affairs as concerns the implementation of language policy in the HE sector in Latvia. The same as the authors from the wider world scholarly community, Latvian scholars are concerned with the issues related to professional discourse, specialist terminology, the promotion of consistency in the use of professional language, local language maintenance and promotion, as the English language being the source language for many professional terms has impact on the use of local language/languages within the professional communication.

Research Methodology

The objective of the survey conducted applying the questionnaire and focus-group discussion as data collection methods was to identify Latvian higher education (HE) setting for the international higher education institution (HEI) with the view to identify the strengths and challenges of Latvian internationalization scenarios focusing on issues related to language studies for both students and academic staff.

Questionnaire Survey: Research Procedure

To obtain the data necessary for the research purposes, a questionnaire aimed at identifying various types of settings (scenarios) within the higher education sector in Latvia and exploration of practices and identification of challenges within these scenarios later used as the basis for focus-group discussion with experts.

The present methodology was agreed upon the experts in the framework of the IntlUni project “The Challenges of the Multilingual and Multicultural Learning Space” (An ERASMUS Academic Network – 1 October 2012 – 30 September 2015: 526646-LLP-1-2012-1-DK-ERASMUS-ENW). The network has grown out of a Special Interest Group under the European Language Council (CEL – ELC). It has 38 partners in 27 countries.

The questionnaire comprising 86 questions was designed and piloted in the framework of the IntlUni project followed by the documentary analysis of HEIs’ websites.

The quantitative and qualitative data for the Latvian sample were collected and processed by the authors of the article and were not used for the purposes of the IntlUni project.

The working definitions stated were provided alongside with the guidelines for completing the questionnaire. The concepts relevant for the discussion of the issue under investigation were also introduced and discussed with the respondents.

Seven Latvian HEIs were explored in the framework of the research with the aim to state, analyze and identify the strengths and challenges which need to be addressed within the implementation of the internationalization strategies.

The questionnaire was sent or distributed personally to the representatives of HEIs under investigation. A total of 108 complete responses from seven individual higher education institutions were received. The number of responses received differed across the institutions. The questionnaires were administered in the three main ways:

- Self-completion. 50 out of 108 respondents filled in the responses by themselves.
- Face-to-face interview. In 48 cases, the researcher asked questions in the presence of the respondents, and completed the questionnaire.
- Telephone-Internet interview. In 10 cases, the researcher contacted the respondents by phone or internet applications (e.g. Skype), put forward the questions and recorded the responses.

The questionnaires were filled either on behalf of the higher education institution (HEI) for the university as a whole or for the faculty / school / main academic area, which was clearly stated. The respondents were asked to provide

the answers on behalf of the chosen unit, the whole HEI or the specific faculty/unit.

The **response rate** constituted 85 per cent (108 filled in questionnaires out of 127), which is viewed as adequate response rate (Fowler, 1993).

The **research sample** addressed in the framework of the study of the case of Latvia comprised the representatives of the following groups within the higher education sector: Director of study or programme coordinator; Lecturer (home lecturer/teacher); Lecturer (international lecturer/teacher); Language teacher, Director, International office; Staff, International office; Director of language centre; Director of special programmes for international students; Head of department; Teacher trainer; Educational developer; Representative of students' union. The possibility to choose more than one option was provided, as some of the respondents held several positions in their institutions.

Focus-group Discussion: Research Procedure

A focus-group discussion with 11 experts to receive expert evaluation of the data obtained with the help of the questionnaire and documentary analysis of HEIs websites, as well as to amplify and gain deeper understanding of the findings was conducted. The sample of the focus-group was the individuals affiliated to different HEIs, representing different scientific

and subject areas, as well as performing different positions within their HEIs. The appropriateness of the sample was determined by the degree to which it permitted the researchers to confirm the categories marked within the questionnaire and documentary analysis. The focus-group discussion was moderated by the researcher through putting forward questions relevant in the research perspective and raising relevant themes. The qualitative deductive content analysis of the data was performed.

The findings of the focus-group discussion were integrated into the findings obtained with the help of the questionnaire.

Research Findings and Discussion

To build the grounds for the exploration of the language profiles in HEIs under investigation, the question was put forward whether **the HEI had a written and officially adopted HEI-wide language policy**. The existence of an institutional language policy represents a crucial indicator for progression in institutional internationalization. Therefore, it is apparent that an overarching issue of importance within the higher education sector is whether aspects of internationalization have been formalized into an institutional language policy or strategy.

Analyzing the responses, the conclusion was drawn that more than half (59.9%) of the

respondents admitted that they did not have any official language policy, while 40.4% confessed they did not know whether their institution had such a policy or not.

However, the findings of the **focus-group discussion** demonstrated that the data obtained were compelling, as the respondents participating in the focus-group discussion suggested that it could be the case that language policy issues were incorporated in numerous different documents, while one single united document on language policy within a HEI might not exist. The respondents claimed that even though in many cases language policy issues had been formalized, the information available was inconsistent and fragmentary, which led to questionnaire respondents' inability to clearly state the tenets regarding the language policy in their institutions.

All the participants of the focus-group discussion agreed that the HEIs in Latvia mostly grounded their language practices in the general language policy at work in Latvia (e.g. State Language Law, etc.), as well as guidelines and European strategic documents.

For instance, all the respondents admitted that they had encountered requirements regarding language proficiency in their position descriptions, however, the general landscape of language needs within the higher education sector or a unit as such was still unclear. This could partly account for the problem of the lack of promotional activities regarding the

questions and tenets of institutional language policy.

The respondents agreed that an important step towards the development of language policy within the institution was raising awareness of the need to develop one. They suggested that promotional activities were necessary to discuss significant issues within the context of internationalization of higher education, including or even emphasizing the language issues. At individual level, the respondents admitted that their own professional practice was frequently based on particular objectives, often defined as strategies, at work in the institutions they were affiliated to. For instance, some took a bilingual perspective, dealing with the relationship between the Latvian language and another language, usually specified as English. This was a comment posed by the lecturer working in the field of ICT. He said that "*maintaining the bilingual perspective is the only possible way within his scientific domain, as the majority of, if not all, the terms within his professional domain come from the English-speaking world, so while emphasizing the use of the local equivalents, the original terms are still English in his classroom*". The fact that the English language was specified in the full majority of cases was not surprising. Others had a multilingual profile, and here the focus might be on students. Among the other crucial aspects regarding the institutional language

policy, such aspects as HEI institutional language/languages and the languages of administration and communication; language degree programmes and provision of language courses for non – language students; languages for mobility and career – the language(s) of instruction and language support for lecturers not teaching through the medium of their own first languages in view of the direction towards the international learning space; language support for researchers; language support for technical and administrative staff; languages for the wider community.

The reference points identified in the discussion framework well illustrates the strong link between the political stance on language issues and levels of policy-making in HEI. It is apparent that discourses on languages and their use in the higher education sector (as well as other sectors) are highly political.

Several questions were asked to explore the situation with study programmes concerning the languages of instruction other than the official state language. The questions were posed to find out whether HEIs implemented programmes in languages other than the official language(s) of the country or region, how many students enrolled in such programmes, and whether home students and the international students within the three cycles (BA, MA, PhD) enrolled in the same courses/different courses.

Regarding the sample selected for the analysis, the data revealed that the Latvian language was used as the dominant medium of instruction in the majority of institutions selected for the sample. The dominating ideology was supported in the mission statements of HEIs (e.g. “*the cultivation of Latvian language and culture*”, “*strengthening the traditions of cultural cooperation*”). However, all the HEIs in the selected sample offered a wide range of all level study programmes for international students. The majority of the HEIs implemented international study programmes in the English language (6 out of 7 HEIs). Within the selected research sample, only one HEI claimed to offer programmes in students’ heritage languages. (By heritage language a student’s first language (mother tongue) even though the student may have grown up in a country where this language is not the first language is understood.) The respondents affiliated to one of the higher education institutions which fell into the category of *Juridical Persons Established Institutions of Higher Education* stated that their institution offered programmes with the Russian medium instruction. The respondents claimed that, in fact, all of the programmes were available in the official state language – the Latvian language and the Russian language. The data revealed that the majority of programmes were also available in the English

language, as well as some other languages (e.g. Polish).

Therefore, the conclusion can be drawn that none of the state-funded higher education institutions in the selected sample provided programmes in language minority students' heritage languages (the specialized language programmes make the exception, however, they cannot be seen as the programmes designed specifically for the promotion of minority heritage languages).

The exploration of the official websites of the institutions under analysis confirmed the questionnaire data. EMI (English Medium Instruction) programmes are obviously becoming more and more popular, but still there is room for improvement. The Europe 2014-2020 strategy most probably will contribute to institutional developments in this perspective.

Based on the research findings for the present category of questions, the conclusion can be drawn that all the HEIs within the selected sample acknowledge the importance of the international dimension within their activities. Crucial steps towards raising the competitiveness level through the implementation of international programmes in foreign languages are made.

Language Support Provision to Students and Lecturers

A number of questions addressed the crucial issues of support mechanisms for students and staff in relation to teaching and learning within the context of internationalization of HE.

The data revealed that all the HEI presented in the Latvian sample offered mandatory language courses as part of the curriculum, optional language courses as part of the curriculum and language courses outside the curriculum. However, the data obtained revealed that none of the HEIs offered mandatory courses in academic writing as part of the curriculum, which could be viewed as a serious challenge and obstacle for students to comply with the requirement generally set for students to write a research paper upon the graduation from a programme at all educational levels (first-, second-, third-cycle education), as the requirement for graduation in Latvia is to write a final (e.g. BA, MA, PhD paper) research paper in all the academic and professional domains. This allows for the conclusion that the role of academic writing skills is undervalued which leads to poor quality of academic writing and thus scientific communication. The awareness of this problem should be raised and the necessity to introduce such courses should be recognized by those involved in the development of the study content.

To proceed to details, the full majority of the respondents admitted that they had special provisions, such as language courses, for home students. The data obtained revealed that, within the first-cycle education (e.g. BA level), the English language courses were mandatory within the majority of the study programmes implemented, while for the second- and third-cycle studies, the situation was different.

Based on the data obtained in the framework of the focus-group discussion, it may be assumed that despite the apparent and recognized role of language studies in education, languages were paid insufficient attention to within the second- and third-cycle studies. The participants of the focus-group discussion admitted that *“unfortunately, despite the obvious significance of developing, for instance, academic writing skills in both the native and foreign languages, this aspect is frequently omitted within the educational process”*. This was one of the reasons for poor quality of scientific communication, as stated by the respondents. Another comment stated that *“despite the fact, that Latvian students are obliged to produce a research paper as one of the requirements for successful graduation from a study programme at all study levels, students’ academic writing skills are taken for granted”*. This issue requires urgent attention from the responsible parties (e.g. programme directors, etc.)

One of the respondents mentioned that domain-specific foreign language studies would be the beneficial development within the unit he was affiliated to. Others said that foreign language studies should be granted more credits and therefore devoted more time to. Two respondents stated that nowadays young people were exposed to real, authentic language in the media – *“their situation is much more beneficial as compared to older generations”*. One respondent confessed that *“we can never compete with the new generation in the language questions, as they acquire languages in the natural way already in the childhood while watching cartoons, films, etc.”*

In general, all the respondents acknowledged that support mechanisms aimed at international students were at work in their HEIs. They reported that support mechanism was usually provided by international offices, however the international offices were not the only units aiming to “make the life of students easier” and help students integrate into the new unfamiliar environment, adjust to new circumstances, decrease the stress associated with, for instance, cultural differences, unfamiliar teaching and learning cultures, means of assessment, etc. Formally, these measures included introduction courses, orientation weeks, handbooks (guides for students), online resources and buddy systems, Erasmus student networks, individual

consultation, social and cultural activities and establishment of cross-cultural groups in the classroom, as stated by the respondents. Such measures were overwhelmingly optional in character and most or some of the students took advantage of the opportunities on offer.

The majority of the respondents stated that their institutions offered language courses for international students in the local language (the Latvian language). Some institutions also offered courses in the English language aimed at international students.

Moreover, individual attempts to meet students' needs were also obvious. This way the participants of the focus group discussion claimed to pay special attention to international students in their groups. However, those attempts were frequently decentralized, e.g., lecturers addressed international students personally by asking if they needed any help. The same referred to local students. The respondents' comments revealed that local students were generally open for questions, eager to assist and provide help or support to international students.

Certainly, measures such as introduction courses/weeks tend to be segregated, being organized specifically for international students. Some respondents refer to the social behaviour of students where international students and home students rarely mix.

The data obtained with the help of the questionnaire revealed that HEIs organized

Open Days providing the opportunity to visit a HEI and get the necessary information.

The Orientation Weeks were organised for international students including activities, such as signing the study agreement as well as general social activities - getting to know new people, parties, etc. Buddy system was a well-established practice in Latvian HEIs.

The full majority of HEIs (all the 7 HEIs) have developed survival guides for international students covering the basic information on the studies and life in Latvia.

To build international reputation, some of the HEIs promoted their names in the global arena through, for instance, organization of Summer Schools in different up-to-date topics, as well as language courses.

Students' and Academic Staff's Language Proficiency

A number of questions were aimed at the exploration of the respondents' opinions on students' and staff's language proficiency. Although the use of the term *sufficient* applied to language proficiency in the questionnaire did not predetermine the statement of criteria behind the interpretation of the term, it was purposefully chosen in order to explore respondents' subjective perception of their own, students' and educators' language proficiency.

91 out of 108 respondents stated that their students had a sufficient level of proficiency in

the language(s) of instruction. That would mean that even in the case when the language of instruction was the official language, the command of the official language was far from being evaluated as sufficient. One of the possible explanations could be that certain number of students had attended a minority school with the language of instruction other than the official language of the country.

Two questions were posed to find out whether students in HEIs, according to the respondents' viewpoint, had a sufficient level of academic reading in the language(s) of instruction or language(s) of the textbooks and a sufficient level of academic writing in the language(s) of instruction.

The data received for these questions could be described as a precarious situation, as only 42 respondents out of 108 believed that most of their students had a sufficient level of academic writing skills. As the data revealed, the courses aimed at the development of students' academic writing generally did not exist. Such courses did not also make a part of the secondary school curriculum, which could be the reason, or at least one of the reasons, for students' poor academic writing skills.

The data on students' level of academic reading should also be taken a grave view of, as 63 respondents stated that students' proficiency in the academic reading in the language(s) of instruction was sufficient, while only 52

respondents, which was less than a half, believed that students' academic reading skills in the language or languages of textbooks was sufficient. The comments provided by the respondents of the questionnaire revealed that this situation mostly referred to students' ability to read in foreign languages.

The respondents participating in the focus-group discussion noted that it should be acknowledged that different disciplines there might have different language proficiency requirements. This idea might refer to the knowledge of discipline-specific discourse, terminology, etc. It is apparent that most students do not enter university with "ready-made" proficiency in the academic language of their discipline(s). This aspect should be taken into account when designing study programmes.

Regarding the opinions on the lecturers' and other teaching staff's language proficiency in the language(s) of instruction, the data obtained revealed that the majority of the respondents (95 respondents out of 108) believed that the teaching staff's language proficiency was appropriate to fulfil their professional responsibilities. Still, the comments showed that these data might be attributed to the cases when the language of instruction was the official state language, as comments provided within the questionnaires, showed that foreign languages were not among

the professional strengths of the teaching staff. This was confirmed by the finding that the full majority of the HEIs explored (7 out of 7 HEIs) did not set the requirement for the faculty members to pass any foreign language proficiency test or other means of assessment of foreign language proficiency. The respondents, commenting on the data in the framework of the focus-group discussion, admitted that, regarding the international lecturers or guest lecturers, this aspect had probably been formalized into the requirements set for professionals in their own countries and/or institutions. Therefore, they assumed that there was no need to test international or visiting faculty members' language proficiency. All of the respondents admitted that within their position requirements, the issues related to language proficiency were paid attention to. However, none of the respondents said they had ever been asked to prove their language proficiency level. When asked whether testing faculty members' proficiency was necessary, two respondents suggested that such testing was not necessary, as it was the question of professionalism which was acknowledged in their academic and scholarly activities.

Students participating in the focus group discussion said that, in general, they did not find fault with their lecturers' language proficiency. However, students confessed that they had the experience when "*a teacher used*

poor language". The respondent stated that this fact affected her motivation in a negative way. The respondents of the focus-group discussion agreed this question should be considered. One of the respondents admitted that "*it is unfair. Students have to face certain requirements, while teachers' professionalism is taken for granted*".

The data obtained revealed that 5 out of 7 HEIs did not offer language courses for lecturers in foreign languages. However, some of the questionnaire respondents provided further comments: "*I have heard something about courses for lecturers, but I don't know what exactly it was all about*". "*I know that our unit offers some courses for professional development, but I am not sure whether these are language courses or some other courses*". Such comments could partially explain the situation. It might be the case that language courses in foreign languages aimed at faculty staff did exist, but they were not promoted, therefore, some of the lecturers willing to participate in them did not know who to turn to. Another reason could be the working load of academic staff. They might be (or thought that they were) too busy and did not have time for attending such courses – "*I have huge loads of work and do not have time to participate in such courses*".

The most painful questions for the participants of the focus-group discussion appeared to be the issues linked to professional

foreign language proficiency and the impact of the spread of English as the lingua franca in the international scientific community. The fundamental ideological question widely discussed in the theoretical literature was raised, as well as the question set by one of the respondents in the focus-group: “*Could it be the case that we have concentrated too much on publishing our research results in the international editions and thus in the language of international communication (English)? How does it impact the state of awareness of the research and local achievements among our own local population?*” This kind of interrogation was neither new nor unique to the case of Latvia, as this issue was widely discussed worldwide. The most reasonable solution found for this was “*the struggle to maintain reasonable balance*” as stated by one of the respondents within the focus-group discussion and supported by the whole group. The conclusion was drawn that it was not enough just to discuss these issues and to agree upon them. The action which has to be taken is the statement of these values in official documentation in HEIs.

The data obtained revealed that none of the HEIs explored offered courses to the international lecturers in the official language of the country. As concerns the special measures for teaching staff not familiar with the local teaching and learning environment and assessment procedures, 82 respondents out of

108 reported that no such measures had been implemented. It should be highlighted that the answers received did not necessarily imply that no measures were taken and no support to international lecturers was provided. Still, the data obtained were crucial in the sense that the results once again confirmed the necessity to raise awareness of such issues, discuss them, familiarize the faculty staff with the opportunities.

Conclusions

The exploration of language profiles of HEIs and language practices within the HEIs led to the conclusion that internationalization of higher education implied certain changes and developments to facilitate the successful implementation of the international dimension within the higher education in Latvia. Languages play a particularly crucial role within the processes related to internationalization. It is apparent that teaching and learning (e.g. using resources in English, etc.) through a foreign language increases the cognitive load of both educators and students. In addition, both educators and students need to effectively function in a cognitively and conceptually demanding subject-specific academic language. These challenges are increased by the differences in not only *ethnic* and *local* cultures, but also in *academic* cultures and practices and *disciplinary* cultures in HEI contexts.

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BACK SIDE OF BILINGUALISM IN UKRAINE

ABSTRACT

The article deals with the language situation in Ukraine and the state of bilingualism today due to political and linguistic reasons. In fact, Ukraine is a bilingual country with the population speaking both Ukrainian and Russian. Unfortunately, the language issue has become an integral part of political programs of many politicians due to the fact that one part of the population is Ukrainian-speaking and another part is Russian-speaking. Thus, in order to satisfy their constituent body, some politicians promise to support Russian and other politicians promise to introduce Ukrainian in all the official spheres of life of the country. Therefore, Ukraine today faces an artificially created language conflict between those who defend the rights of their preferred languages. The ‘oppression’ of the Russian-speaking population is claimed to be one of the causes of military intervention into the Eastern Ukraine, producing over a million of internally displaced people. These people who were forced to leave their homes in Eastern Ukraine, on the contrary, state that they did not feel any restriction in use of the Russian languages. Moreover, some of them even made conscious choice to speak Ukrainian as a state language. Thus, the language conflict in Ukraine is an artificial one, and it is a personal choice which language to speak.

Key words: bilingualism, the state language, regional language, language situation, ukrainization.

Introduction

Ukraine is a country, which is located in the geographical center of Europe. Ukraine was a central and integral part of the Kyivan Rus, which was the first official Slavic state in Eastern Europe. The cultural and religious legacy of that original state laid grounds for Ukrainian Nationalism throughout centuries to come after the fall of the Kyivan Rus state.

History of Ukraine has always been turbulent, and the 21st century is not an exception. Having survived the Orange Revolution in 2004 – 2005, in 2013 Ukraine faced yet another turbulent event – the Revolution of Dignity, and this resulted in a long-time military conflict. The Ukrainian conflict, being called a hybrid war in media discourse, has recently become one of the most discussed issues on the

international political arena and still is. In particular, after the events in November, 2013, when Ukraine made its European choice, it became obvious that the concept of ‘The Tribune Russian People’ is irrelevant. Ukrainian people chose European values and European way of life which triggered the wave of violence and mass murders in the early days of 2014. As a consequence it invoked the ethnic conflict within the borders of Ukraine later that year; gave opportunity for highly probable discrimination and possible destruction of the Crimean Tatars to arise in the foreseeable future and eventually led to the fact that the borders of Europe once again were to be changed. The conflict in Ukraine vividly demonstrated that the Ukrainian society is far from being homogeneous and faces great problems in terms of national and ethnical identification. Among other pretexts, the revocation of the language law (the Law of Ukraine on State Language Policy, also called Kivalov-Kolisnichenko Law) in the early 2014 sparked concerns among Russian and EU diplomats and led to armed clashes in the East of the country. Russia Today media source stated that swift repellent of the law was condemned by Russian diplomats as ‘*violation of ethnic minority rights*’ [RT, <http://www.rt.com/news/minority-language-law-ukraine-035/>].

Language situation in Ukraine

Article 10 of the Constitution of Ukraine, adopted in 1996 and amended several times through the 25 years of independence says that ‘*The State language of Ukraine shall be the Ukrainian language.*’

The State shall ensure comprehensive development and functioning of the Ukrainian language in all spheres of social life throughout the entire territory of Ukraine.

Free development, use, and protection of Russian and other languages of national minorities of Ukraine shall be guaranteed in Ukraine.

The State shall promote the learning of languages of international communication.

The use of languages in Ukraine shall be guaranteed by the Constitution of Ukraine and shall be determined by law’ [Constitution of Ukraine, www.kmu.gov.ua/document/110977042/Constitution_eng.doc].

However, the language issue once again was addressed after coming to power pro-Russian Donetsk elite in 2010 – 2013 and thus the Law of Ukraine on State Language Policy was drafted. The Law of Ukraine on State Language Policy was adopted by Verkhovna Rada (Ukrainian Parliament) in June, 5, 2012 in the first reading and it was supported by 234 Members of Parliament and 248 MP’s cards supported the Law in the second reading. The Law was enacted in August 10, 2012. The given Law states that the state language is Ukrainian,

however it substantially widens the sphere of regional languages application under a condition that the number of the given language speakers is no less than 10% of the population of the region under concern, thus allowing for its use in courts, schools, and other government institutions; and in some cases even less than 10%. Under this Law the preferences were given to a regional language, not a state one. The Law covers such languages as Russian, Belorussian, Bulgarian, Armenian, Gagauz, Yiddish, Crimean Tatar, Moldavian, German, Norwegian, Polish, Roma, Romanian, Slovakian, Hungarian, Russianian, Karaite, Judeo-Crimean Tatar [http://www.rada.gov.ua/news/Novyny/Povidomlennya/66151.html].

It is worth mentioning that in terms of nationalities living in Ukraine the situation looks like this according to the World Factbook: Ukrainian 77.8%, Russian 17.3%, Belarusian 0.6%, Moldovan 0.5%, Crimean Tatar 0.5%, Bulgarian 0.4%, Hungarian 0.3%, Romanian 0.3%, Polish 0.3%, Jewish 0.2%, other 1.8% (2001 est.) (The World Factbook [Online Article] <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/up.html>); and in terms of languages spoken – Ukrainian (official) 67%, Russian (regional language) 24%, other (includes small Romanian, Polish, and Hungarian speaking minorities) 9% (<https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/up.html>).

html). Thus actually the Law was adopted for the sole reason of giving status of regional language to the Russian in 13 regions of Ukraine. In February, 23, 2014 this Law was repealed; 232 Members of Parliament voted for the revocation of the Law. This revocation was later used as a pretext to start the military conflict arguing that the rights of minorities in the East of Ukraine were violated. The military actions produced over a million of internally displaced people, which did not alleviate the language situation in Ukraine.

On the other hand, the situation is not so grave for the official Ukrainian language. It has become the language of educational system since the beginning of the 21st century. Teachers at comprehensive schools and professors at universities are required to use only Ukrainian (Fimyar, 2008; NL, personal communication, April, 21, 2008), though there is evidence that it doesn't stop them from using Russian both while delivering lectures and on a day to day university life. (Goodman & Lyulkun, 2008; Sjøvik, 2007). The number Ukrainian schools grew comparing to previous decade and the Ukrainian language alongside with 'vyshyvanka' becomes more popular these days.

Ukrainian vs. Russian Language

Ukraine is a complex ethnic society. Being a young independent state of 25 years old, Ukraine has to deal with a long-time tradition

of Soviet mentality, both in terms of culture and language. The ethnic conflict is very acute in Ukraine; one of the aspects is that the modern society has to face the existence of so-called Soviet ethnic group – people who deem their nationality and ethnicity lie within the collapsed Soviet state, rather than any other ethnic group. There is a myth that the majority of people in Eastern Ukraine are predominantly Russian-speaking and solely Russian-understanding people. It is a basic misconception that these people are familiar with Ukrainian only to a small degree and are unable to integrate into Ukrainian society. However, we must agree that the official Kyiv is to offer a language policy that would guarantee stable development of bilingual society. Tadeusz A. Olszański in his work ‘The Language Issue in Ukraine: an Attempt at a New Perspective’ states that the language issue in Ukraine has four basic aspects. He says that we have to deal with ‘*everyday use*’, ‘*formal and official use*’, ‘*the commercial aspect*’, and the ‘*symbolic and identity aspect*’ (Olszański, 2012). **In this piece we will try to analyze these aspects in regard to bilingualism of Donetsk region population. We argue that the issue of discrimination of the Russian language in Donetsk region is an artificial one. We also argue that there is no rights violation of Russian-speaking communities of Eastern Ukraine.** Nevertheless we agree that the language issue is still very topical in

Ukraine; however inability to accept Ukrainian as a state language is rather psychological, not linguistic. Tadeusz A. Olszański believes that the symbolic aspect is the most important as far as ‘Ukrainian national thought identifies belonging to the nation with the use of its language’, however on the other hand he mentions that the Russian-speaking population sees the use of Russian in public life as political statement and ‘declaration of belonging to ‘Slavic/Russian community’, which is opposed to Ukrainian national community (Olszański, 2012). The issue of the state language and national identity is acute in Ukraine; the country is, in fact, bilingual and the complex of measures implemented by the government to resolve the language conflict present in the state should be thorough and should cover not only social aspect, it should also be aimed at language education of all the citizens of the country.

Regarding use of language Ukraine is far from being homogenous. For example, Western Ukraine is predominantly Ukrainian-speaking, whereas The East of the country as well as the South prefers using Russian in all spheres of life.

Olszański dwells upon the reasons, which were the precursors of the current language situation in Donetsk region. Among other reasons he talks about immigration that took place after WWII and was the reason of expanding of Ukrainian population, thus

Ukraine continued to be ‘populated by displaced people from other republics and Ukrainians went to inhabit other republics, which was stimulated by the government of the USSR’ (Olszański, 2012). As a result, the ethnic landscape was very much changed due to mass immigration after the WWII. Displaced people, because of the politics of the USSR lost their ethnicity and nationality and became soviet people for whom the official (and later it became native) language was Russian, it was logical to accept this language as a primary language, because it was the language of international (among Soviet Republics) language of communication. The mix of Russian and Ukrainian languages gave birth to a notion which is called ‘Surzhyk’. It is neither a language, not a dialect, it is a specific phenomenon, which arose due to co-existence of Russian and Ukrainian languages; Russian and Ukrainian are very similar languages both lexically and grammatically, and this similarity made the symbiosis possible. Sociologists believe that Surzhyk is spoken by approximately 18% of the population of Ukraine, primarily in the center, where 40% use “more or less correct Ukrainian” and 42% – “more or less correct Russian” (Olszański, 2012).

However strange it may sound, especially on the background of cries that the rights of Russian speakers are violated, it is Ukrainian language that is deemed to be unpopular and

maverick. The Institute of Social and Political Psychology at the National Academy of Pedagogical Sciences and the National Institute for Strategic Studies in 2006 conducted a research with the aim to establish reasons that prevent people from speaking Ukrainian. They outlined four prevailing factors: 1) *reluctance to be seen as a maverick, don’t know the Ukrainian language and think of Ukrainian as an “uncool” language*; 2) *psycho-ideological stubbornness which includes ideological preferences, reluctance to yield to “pressure”, fear of personal change*; 3) *derogatory attitude towards Ukrainian and the “unattractiveness” of the language*; and 4) *treatment of communication in Ukrainian as something second-rate coupled with the lack of a Ukrainian-speaking environment or the need to speak Ukrainian, after all, “everybody understands Russian”* [<http://ukrainianweek.com/Society/47497>].

It partly has to do with the fact that the Ukrainian language is associated with the language of rural population, while the Russian language is deemed to be the language of urban elite. For the reason of forced Ukrainization the Ukrainian language was perceived in the Eastern Ukraine as extraneous. However the fact of a state language being extraneous in its own state is outrageous. The language issue in Ukraine is purely artificial created with a single purpose to use it during every election campaign to gain votes of Russian speaking

communities and pro-Russian urban elites. President Kuchma was the first to open the box of Pandora – in his presidential campaign he promised close integration with the Russian Federation and what is more important (for the residents of Donetsk region) President Kuchma promised equal statuses for Russian and Ukrainian languages. However the study by Analytical Service of Nikolay Gavrilov states that the expectations of the population of Donetsk region were not fulfilled [Obrechennye terpet obman prezidenta, 1996, www.asng.info/arc/4/3.docx]. However, what is even more interesting is the fact that Ukrainization was the most active under President Kuchma, even regardless the fact that the President himself was a very inarticulate speaker with a minimum lexicon in Ukrainian. The next Ukrainian President was extremely pro-Ukrainian, however, the pace of Ukrainization slowed down under his Presidency. It is explained by the fact that he had to deal primarily with eastern and southern regions of the country as far as the west and the center had already had a number of Ukrainian schools close to 99% [Tsikavi facty schodo ukrainizatsii ukrayinskyh shkil, <http://easternwestern.livejournal.com/32020.html>].

Today, after repealing and vetoing of the Kolisnichenko-Kivalov's Law the only state language is Ukrainian, and Russian is in fact a regional one in the eastern parts of the country,

but the bigger question is why so many spears are broken on the matter of bilingual Ukraine, if the country is bilingual, regardless of the official governmental policy and politics.

Research Methodology

In the offered piece we tried to apply the following methods to our research: 1) desk research; 2) interview; 3) case study. The focus group was 300 internally displaced persons from Donetsk and Luhansk region who are currently living in a module settlement in Dnipro. The present research, apart from general discussion, will contain specific research techniques; a mixed methodology is planned to be used – combination of the qualitative (mainly relying on visual data (observations) and verbal data (words) and reflecting everyday experience) and quantitative methods, focused on numerical data: acts and norms implemented. The rationale for applying mixed methods of research is that if used singlehandedly, neither will offer adequate information on the issue due to its complexity. The analysis will be focused on the environmental conditions for both languages in the eastern parts of Ukraine. Secondly, we will try to analyze current language situation in Donetsk and Luhansk regions, and this is where the methods of interviews and case studies will be applied.

Research Results

The interviews and case studies revealed quite important patterns and facts concerning bilingualism and language issue in eastern parts of Ukraine. The findings can be classified as follows: 1) advanced in age internally displaced persons do have difficulties in terms of speaking Ukrainian language; they admit it is difficult to learn speaking Ukrainian and they admit they felt no urge to learn it before; 2) intellectuals, the internally displaced persons who were white colors have no problem with the Ukrainian language, they could write Ukrainian, could fill out all the papers in Ukrainian when there was a necessity and could speak when necessary; 3) young children who see no difference between speaking Russian or Ukrainian, they can easily switch languages; significant number of those children attend Ukrainian speaking schools in Dnipro and some of them even attended Ukrainian speaking schools in Donetsk and Luhansk. These findings will be discussed further in more detail.

Discussion

There is little doubt that the language issue in Ukraine is rather political and is definitely more political than linguistic. One of the pretexts to start military actions and fight for the independence of Donbas region was the language issue, the so-called desire of the Donbas population to use the Russian language

in both official and unofficial spheres of their lives. The main argument for the beginning this aggressive military campaign was that the whole 100% of Donbas population cannot understand Ukrainian language. However, in one of our interviews in internally displaced persons' temporary settlement in Dnipro, a teacher from Donetsk said that *"none adequate and intelligent person has any trouble about Ukrainian language in Donetsk"*.

It should be stated that despite the fact that Ukrainian is considered to be the only state language, it is not the Russian language that is oppressed, but vice versa. In the central and south-eastern parts of the country it is highly unpopular to speak Ukrainian and especially young people show great stubbornness in terms of acquiring Ukrainian speaking skills and this factor in our opinion has the biggest impact on ukrainization. In the article "Russification Via Bilingualism" the author basing on the information from the Institute of Sociology at the National Academy of Sciences of Ukraine says that "the share of middle-aged Ukrainian-speakers grew from 36% to 39% over 1992-2010, while the number of Russian-speakers increased from 29% to 37% over the same period". As for the young people the picture is like this "33% to 36% and 34% to 39% respectively"

[<http://ukrainianweek.com/Society/47497>].

According to this information the situations changes rapidly for the sake of Russian, the

share of young people under 30 years old is higher than of those who speak Ukrainian and that share grows rapidly. There are many factors that determine one's language choice in a factually bilingual country; among those are media and mass culture and fashion, and those factors are much stronger determinants than state schools and governmental establishments which are the main source of the Ukrainian language in Ukraine [http://ukrainianweek.com/Society/47497].

The Ukrainian language is less popular than Russian and is not commonly spoken in higher educational establishments in central and south-eastern Ukraine – students, who speak Russian as a day-to-day language particularly in regions where the Russian language is a dominant one “are more reluctant to switch when spoken to in Ukrainian, while 90.6% of young Ukrainian-speakers are ready to answer in Russian” [http://ukrainianweek.com/Society/47497]. A Ukrainian-speaking student from Lutsk, who spoke only Ukrainian both at home and school after entering Dnipropetrovsk National University switched to Russian and when asked why, says that “*he wants to be like others*”, so it is rather clear that when a Ukrainian-speaker is in Russian-speaking environment he or she in most cases switches to Russian, while when a Russian-speaking individual is in Ukrainian-speaking environment he or she is more reluctant to

switch to Ukrainian, and that switch rarely takes place.

However, as an MP from Donetsk Egor Firsov stated in his comment to us that “*the problem of language is more specific to Donetsk itself, rather than the rural region of Donbas*”. He also pointed out that on the whole Donbas population has no problem in understanding the Ukrainian language as far as the majority of TV channels are in Ukrainian and the people are “*in any case, surrounded by the Ukrainian language in their day-to-day life*”. To continue his idea in regard to internally displaced people, who are temporarily accommodated in a module settlement in Dnipro it is worth mentioning that among 300 people (predominately from Donetsk and Luhansk) no one feels strongly opposed to the Ukrainian language; 90% of children of school age are willing to speak Ukrainian even in day-to-day life, 65% of those children started academic year 2015/2016 in Ukrainian schools, according to the will of their parents, where all the subjects are taught in Ukrainian. The situation is rather difficult regarding the advanced in age internally displaced persons as far as it is obviously more difficult for them to speak Ukrainian, though there are no problems with receptive skills among the representatives of this group as well and they all understand the Ukrainian language. Returning to the interview of Mr. Firsov, he noted that when children living in Donbas

region major cities get to visit their grandparents in the countryside they often hear and even speak Ukrainian.

On the one hand, there is the number of people whose conscious choice is monolingualism and the only language they chose to speak is Russian. This group of people is always ready to protect their right and will to speak the Russian language and they are ready to fight for that right aggressively on the background of tolerant attitude to all the languages spoken in Ukraine. On the other hand, the fact is that the ability to speak a language is directly related to the desire to learn one. From the linguistic point of view the majority of Ukrainians have exposure to both languages (Ukrainian and Russian) almost from the birth, thus having three major “windows of

opportunity” (Tokuhama-Espinosa, Tracey, 1963, Raising multilingual children: foreign language acquisition and children) to learn both languages, that is why the conscious choice of being either monolingual or bilingual is more a political and psychological issue rather than a linguistic one.

Conclusion

Ukraine has a unique feature – bilingualism is almost natural here – specifics of articulation, environment, windows of opportunity. So, not being bilingual is a choice, while the unpopularity of Ukrainian has purely social connotation. Speaking Ukrainian is not popular; it means you are a redneck. Ukraine is a bilingual country in the essence, as far as the exposure to both languages is vast and intense.

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The enhancement of state and foreign language teaching to national minorities in Georgia (using the examples of Azeri and Armenian students)

ABSTRACT

This article discusses the results of the research carried out within the frame of a joint project of two faculties Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University (the Faculty of Humanities and the Faculty of Psychology and Education) ‘‘Elaboration of Multilingual Education strategies for integration of ethnic minorities into society’’ and focuses on the degree, quality and effectiveness of competence in the Georgian and English languages revealed by non-Georgian speaking students enrolled in Georgian Universities within the frames of the programme referred to as 4+1.

Key words: *Multilingual Education, Georgia, ethnic and language minorities.*

Introduction

The program aiming at facilitating enrollment in Georgian Universities for national minorities (1+4) was adopted in 2010. This program, which is considered to be important for both ethnic minorities as well as for the majority, played a considerable role in the process of integrating

national minorities into society. However, during the six years of its implementation a number of issues have arisen, the description and analysis of which are crucial for enhancing the Program.

This article discusses the results of the research carried out within the frame of a joint project of two faculties Ivane

Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University (the Faculty of Humanities and the Faculty of Psychology and Education) ‘‘Elaboration of Multilingual Education strategies for integration of ethnic minorities into society’’ and focuses on the degree, quality and effectiveness of competence in the Georgian and English languages revealed by non-Georgian speaking students enrolled in Georgian Universities within the frames of the programme referred to as 4+1.

Georgia is a multiethnic and multicultural country with 10.8% of its population made up of Azeri and Armenian ethnic minorities living in various parts of the country.

As well as these ethnic minorities, Ossetian and Abkhazian citizens of Georgia are also presented with an opportunity to enroll in Georgian Universities on the basis of the results of the testing in the General Abilities Test taken in their own native language. After the exam the students take an intensive course in the Georgian language which should equip them with sufficient knowledge to continue studies at the Universities of their choice in Georgian. Consequently, the Georgian language preparation educational program aims at

providing the non-Georgian speaking students with communicative skills.

It is worth noting that the situation tends to be difficult regarding both of the issues - teaching Georgian as a state language to the students mentioned above and regarding teaching English as a foreign language. The project carried out at TSU is focused on revealing issues related to the learning and teaching of Georgian as a state language and English as a foreign language to such students on the one hand and the analysis of the data and providing recommendations for them, on the other. The project data were collected by means of field research.

The aim of the field research

The aim of the research was to explore initial, linguistic competences and the factors hampering the process of achieving the competence in the state language (Georgian) as well as the foreign language (English) of the non-Georgian speaking students applying to the BA of English Philology at TSU via the Program .

Based on the goals of the research, two main tasks were outlined:

1. Determination of the level of their competences in Georgian at the starting point of the Program and revealing the issues hampering their progress in this language
2. Determination of initial competences of students in English at the moment of their start at BA program of English Philology and revealing the reasons hampering achieving the desired standard.

In addition, one of the goals of the research was providing recommendations regarding the issue for schools, universities and the Ministry of Education of Georgia.

1. Issues regarding teaching the State Language of Georgia

This research revealed certain issues regarding teaching the State language at the high school stage of secondary school (XI - XII forms).

The data for the survey were collected based on the analysis of the questionnaires filled out by 432 students learning Georgian at the Program (from 5 universities of the country : Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Ilya State University, Medical State University, Georgian State Polytechnic

University and Samtkhe-Javakheti State University).

It is also worth noting that not only students, but also 30 teachers involved in the Program participated in the survey regarding the methodology and strategies of teaching languages within the Program. The questions posed to the students and teachers were used as control tools for the students' self-assessment. In addition, the questionnaires included questions about the approaches, strategies and methodology regarding the issue of improving language competences.

2. Results of the analysis of the survey among Azeri and Armenian speaking students

2.1 Methodology and instruments of the research

The research included filling in the structured questionnaire by the students of the Program and by the students learning at a BA program of English Philology. The questionnaire included questions about the communicative skills and knowledge of the Georgian language obtained at a school level and about the possible reasons behind a low level of competences in Georgian.

The questionnaire consisted of 12 questions. Specifically, they referred to the quality of the teaching of the Georgian

language, assessment of their personal competences and skills and their ideas regarding amending the Program. Consequently, the questions were grouped into 5 blocks:

- a) Assessment of the knowledge in the Georgian language, general aspects of learning and teaching;
- b) Providing the learning environment and resources;
- c) Qualification and professional development of the teachers involved in the Programme;
- d) Out-of-class, non-academic and integrating activities;
- e) Issues connected with the Programme.

Due to the format of the questionnaire, it took the students only 15 - 20 minutes to fill in the questionnaire.

2. 2 Selection of the participants for the research

As mentioned above, students from ethnic minorities studying at the Georgian language preparation educational program (Program) for Azerbaijani and Armenian students from 5 State universities were selected for the study. About 95% of the non-Georgian speaking students go to these universities (Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University accepts more than 50 % of such

students). Altogether 432 students participated in the research (N=577), the limit of reliability was 90%, limit of errors was 4.11%; redistribution of the answers - 50%.

Respondents were selected by a random selection method. Out of 577 students registered in all the focus groups 432 students were selected. If it was not possible for the selected students to participate in the research, the next person in the list was selected. Out of the filled - out interviews 424 were considered to be valid (230 (54%) were Azeri's and 194 (46%)-were Armenians; 242 were male students and 182 females (43%).

Although the gender balance is observed, it should also be noted that among the Azeri students the male students prevail (61% - 39%) whereas among Armenian speaking students the number of girls is slightly higher. However, although the overall number of Armenian speaking students is lower than that of Azeri students, the overall number of boys is higher (Tabatadze., Gorgadze, 2016, pp. 8-16).

2. 3 Results of the research

The questions of the questionnaire were grouped into 5 thematic aspects: (a) General aspects of assessment of the knowledge of Georgian language and learning and teaching; (b) Provision of a suitable learning environment and leaning resources; (c)

Teachers' qualifications and professional development; (d) non-academic, out of class and integration activities; (e) issues connected with the Program.

The ultimate goal of the research was to explore and analyse the evaluation of the Program and perception of crucial aspects as seen by the students. Below there are the results obtained in each direction regarding the current situation, drawbacks of the programme, progress and further development plans.

a) Assessment of the knowledge in Georgian (self-assessment)

It was interesting to learn how the students assessed their own language competences after finishing the secondary schools.

The competence-related question was formulated as follows:

a) very good	3.5 %
b) good	12.0%
c) fair	60.5%
d) bad	21.5 %
(e)Very bad (no competence at all)	2.5 %

How would you assess your knowledge of Georgian at the moment of enrolling at the Program?

- a) Very good
- b) Good
- c) Fair
- d) Bad
- e) Very bad (no competence at all)

The research revealed a high self-assessment level among the students: out of 424 students 15 assessed their competence in the Georgian language as "very good" whereas the category "very bad" was indicated only by 11 students, "fair" by 51 students and finally, "bad" by 90 students.

Table N 1 Self-assessment of their competence in Georgian as provided by the students

It should also be noted that the students assess themselves much higher compared with reality. One of the reasons for this may be the fear “not to be regarded

as inferior” to the standards necessary for the Programme. The results of the research conducted in 2015 - 2016 revealed similar results:

Table 2 : TSU students results based on placement and final tests:

Levels	Placement (pretest) test results	Students placement into language groups according to the pretest / placement results	Final test points	Students placement into language groups according to the final test results
A1	0-6	32%	0 - 6	0%
A2	7-15	62%	7 - 15	32%
B1	16-18	6%	16 - 18	36%
B2	-	-	19 - 20	32%

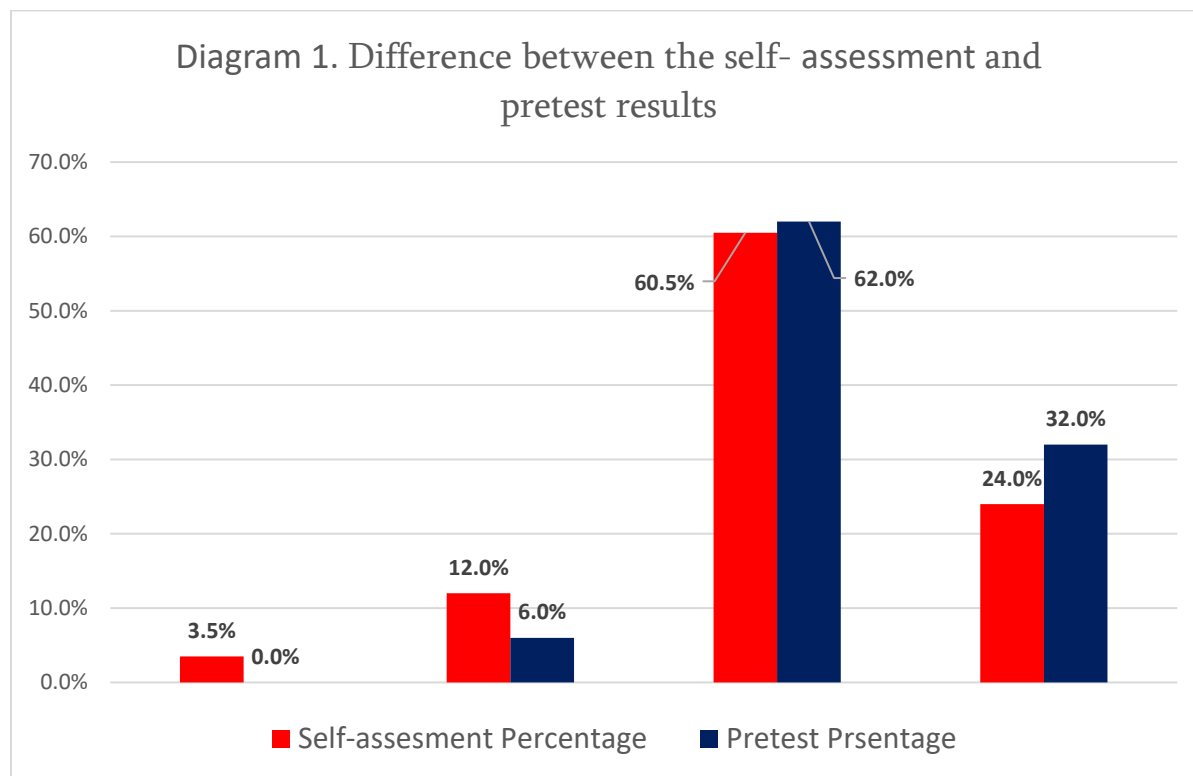
Tabatadze., Gorgadze, 2016, p. 63.

In addition, the fact that students are generally prone to exaggerated self assessment is confirmed by problems frequently arising at the BA level and a high number of dropout students (from the

first generation of those students who became students by the quota system) (*Tabatadze., Gorgadze, 2016, p. 63, pp. 8-16*).

Table N3: Difference between the self- assement and pretest results

Self-assessment	Self-Assessment percentage	Pretests	Pretest Percentage
Very good	3.5%	B2 (19-20)	0.0%
Good	12.0%	B1 (16-18)	6.0%
Fair	60.5%	A2 (7_15)	6.,0%
Bad or very bad (no competence at all)	24,0%	A1 (0-6)	32.0%



(b) Provision of an appropriate learning environment and learning resources

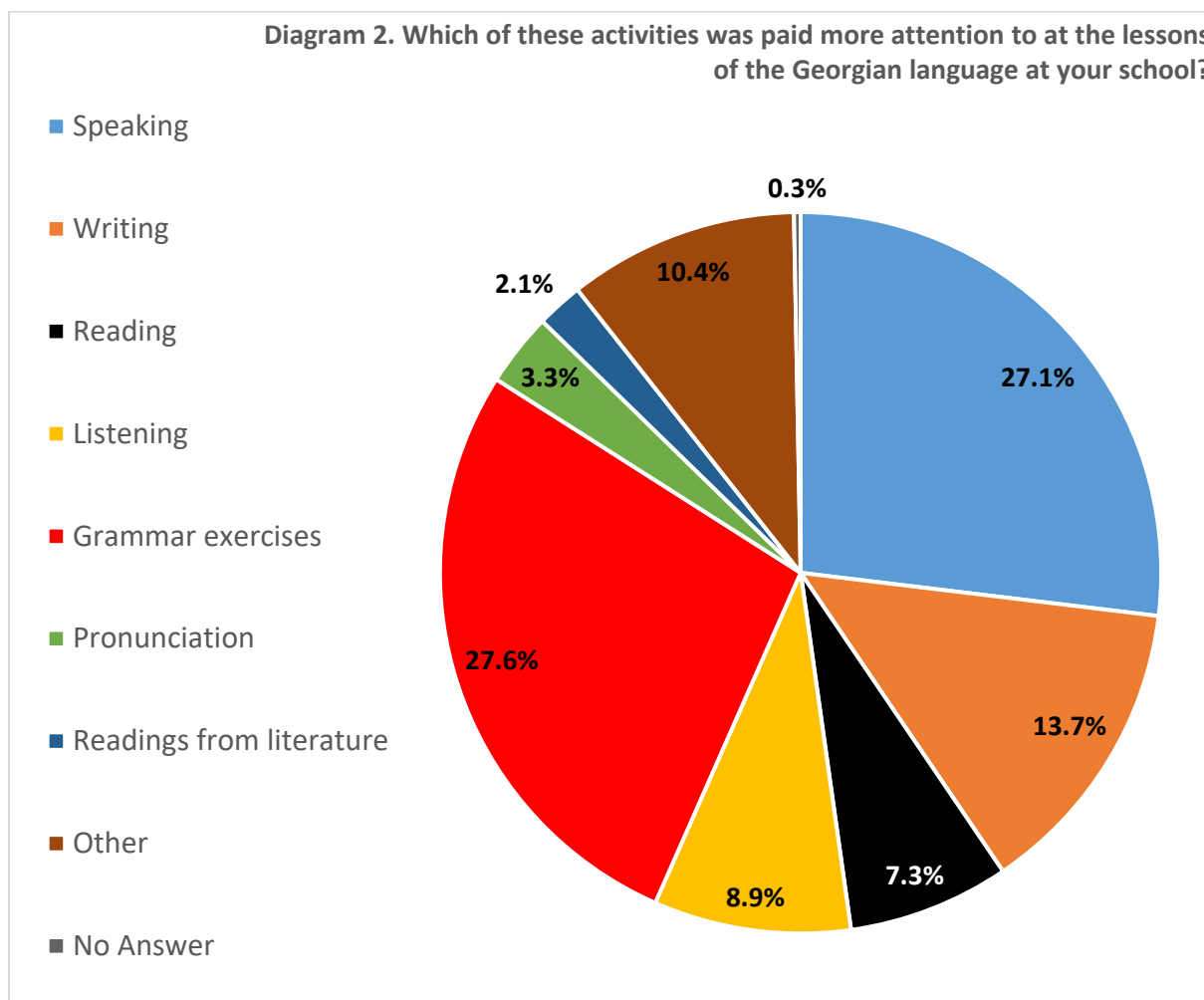
A low level of competence in Georgian must be conditioned by several factors. One of them is the provision of appropriate environment and quality of learning resources. As it was interesting to explore the quality of the resources non-Georgian schools are provided with as well as the

appropriacy of the leaning environment they face. Due to this reason, the second question of the questionnaire referred to this issue:

Which of these activities was paid more attention to at the lessons of the Georgian language at your school?

Table N 4 Activities performed at the lessons of the Georgian language

a) Speaking	27.1 %
b) Writing	13.7 %
c) Reading	7.3 %
d) Listening	8.9 %
e) Grammar exercises	27.6 %
f) Pronunciation	3.3 %
g) Readings from literature	2.1 %
g) Other	10.4 %
No answer	0.3 %



It is also worth noting that the latest approaches to the language didactics put less emphasis on the teaching of grammar and thus focus on commanding of communicative skills. Therefore, listening and speaking skills (as parts of communicative skills) become particularly important in this respect. The results of this survey also reveal that a considerable part of the teachers of Georgian as a second language still pursue a dated method of grammar translation. However, it should also be mentioned that, quite rightly, development of speaking skills is also one of the foci of attention. The low percent allotted to the development of listening skills can be explained by technical problems persistent in the regions of Georgia. Despite the fact that the textbook is accompanied by audio discs,

it is still not possible (or not always possible) to perform listening activities at the lecture.

What do you think is the reason for the fact that after having finished 12 grades at schools your command of the Georgian language does not meet the required standards?

Besides the suggested answers to this question indicated below, the students also had a chance to write what they found relevant to the problem in the ‘other’ box:

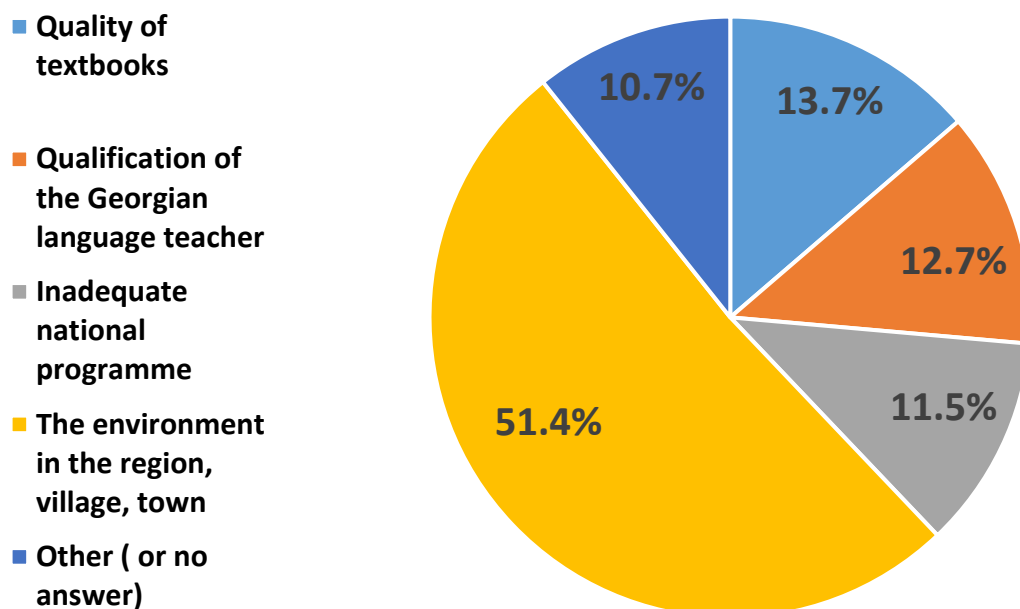
- a) Quality of textbooks;
- b) Qualification of the teacher of the Georgian language
- c) Inadequate national programme
- d) The environment in the region, village, town
- e) Other (write down)

The answers revealed the following situation:

Table N 5 Issues leading to low competency in Georgian

a) Quality of textbooks;	13.7 %
b) Qualification of the Georgian language teacher	12.7 %
c) Inadequate national programme	11.5 %
d) The environment in the region, village, town	51.4 %
e) Other (or no answer)	10.7 %

Diagram 3. What do you think is the reason for the fact that after having finished 12 grades at schools your command of the Georgian language does not meet the required



Clearly the students adequately assess the most important problem and, as is revealed by the research, more than half of the participants point out the limited status of the state language in regions in favour of Armenian, Azeri or (in some cases of Russian).

The issues indicated by the students should be taken into account not only regarding the University level of education

(The Program and later, the BA programs the students select after finishing the Program), but also, at the school levels.

(c) The teachers' qualifications

The goal of the next block was to analyse the attitude of the teacher towards their students, which is one of the most important components of the learning process.

Table N 6 Percentage indicating Georgian teachers' qualification (as indicated by the students)

a) I liked her/him very much;	63.2 %
b) Her/his competence was mediocre	23.1 %
c) She/he was weak	7.3 %
d) Other (no answer)	6.4 %

As can be seen from the answers to this question, the majority of the students are satisfied with the competence level of their teachers of Georgian as a second language. However, the high percentage indicated is unexpected and requires explanation. As revealed by the survey conducted by the Ministry of Education in 2011, the level of competency of 60% of the teachers of

Georgian in the regions did not reach A2, which clearly clashes with the assessment of the students. We would argue that, in this particular case, the positive response can be explained by the traditional benevolent attitude towards teachers these students maintain. Otherwise the negative percentage would have been much higher.

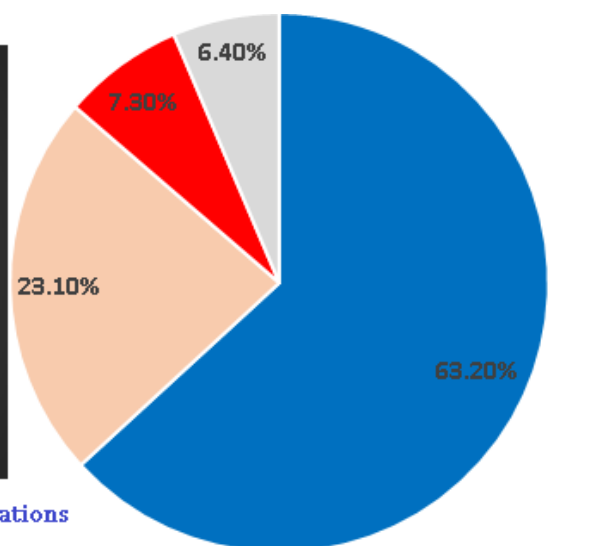
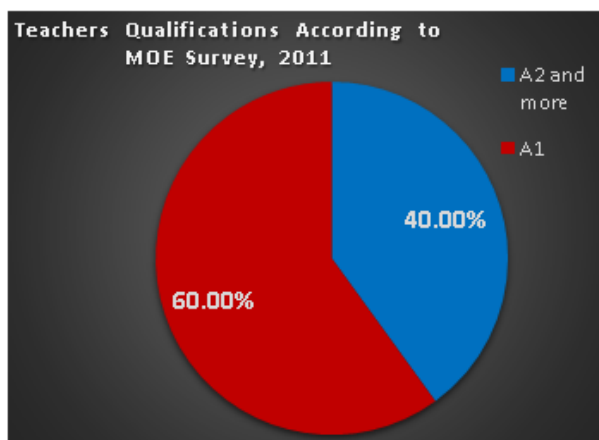


Diagram 4. The teachers' qualifications

■ I liked her/him very much ■ Her/his competence was mediocre ■ She/he was weak ■ Other (no answer)

(d) Non-academic, out-of-class and integrating activities;

As is known, out-of-class activities are of major importance in the process of learning a second language. It is also worth mentioning that the language environment in the regions inhabited by non-Georgian speakers does not encourage enhancing competence in Georgian through informal learning as the Georgian language is not used in everyday life. Moreover, minority languages (Armenian in Samtsokhe - Javakheti and Azeri in Kvemo Kartli) are prevalent in shops, educational institutions, even in court. However, despite this situation, the need for encouragement of the state language in out-of-class activities was stressed many times in various recommendations. However, initiatives regarding out-of-class activities aiming at the integration of students into the Georgian-language environment are still very rare. This is conditioned by subjective as well as objective reasons. Not surprisingly the students participating in this survey also provide us with a scarce list of activities.

(e) Issues related to Georgian language preparation educational programme for Azerbaijan and Armenian students

In the final part of the questionnaire which aimed at the assessment of various aspects of expectations expressed by the students of the Programme, the students were given the following questions:

In your opinion, what aspects of the Program should be pointed out as challenging?

The majority of the students (87.7 %) agree with the opinion that out-of-class activities are crucial for a better command of the language. This was expected as the students experience a lack of communication and thus demand inclusion of this component into the learning process. More specifically, 117 students indicated the importance of regular contact (talks) with Georgian children; 50 students thought that private lessons (with private tutors) in Georgian would improve their competence in Georgian; 34 singled out reading Georgian books as the major factor in learning the language whereas 24 indicated outings and other out-of-class activities to be crucial in

this respect; 9 students stressed the importance of allotting more hours to the Georgian language to be extremely helpful for them and necessary for the program; 6 students considered watching Georgian TV channels a major factor in raising their competence in Georgian whereas 6 students thought that exchange programs with Georgian schools would be helpful.

Based on the survey of the students, a number of issues were singled out which could only be solved through cooperation with various institutions.

In order to further identify the reasons behind the slow process of integration of the students from ethnic minorities into society, the teachers of the Georgian language working within 5 universities were invited to participate in the survey. As a result of this part of the survey, several major issues were revealed (together with several other points – an analysis is given below).

3. Analysis of the survey of the teachers of Georgian of the Program

The questionnaire which contained 4 closed and 10 open questions was filled out

by 30 teachers involved in the Program. The questions were formulated as follows:

How is the level of competence in Georgian determined and are students divided according to their level of language?

All the teachers confirm that the students are divided into groups based on their competence levels. Only Ilya University does not conduct placement testing and consequently, students in this institution are not grouped according to their competence in Georgian.

How is the level of language competence determined?

The majority of the teachers indicated that the competence was determined by means of testing;

Are the students grouped according to their native languages? (Into Azeri and Armenian language groups)

Students from these ethnic groups are put in separate groups. Only Ilya University and BA program in English Philology consider it principally important not to separate such students.

Is the Program different regarding Azeri and Armenian students?

22 teachers replied to this question negatively whereas only 6 teachers provided a positive answer to it . 2 teachers did not answer this question at all.

It is worth noting that the syllabi of the Program are identical in all the Universities involved in the project. Due to this fact all the 30 teachers were expected to have answered positively. However, it may be argued that one specific course had an impact on the results: at Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University one out of six courses -"Practical grammar of the Georgian language" is divided into 2 modules (for Azeri and Armenian speakers separately). Consequently, this course is delivered in a slightly different format for each of the target group. All the other 5 courses are identical.

Statistically what kind of results do your students achieve regarding learning the Georgian language?

The majority of the teachers stated the results were very positive whereas 8 teachers chose medium results indicating that the

results depend on the skills and general abilities of the students.

Besides teaching the Georgian language what other activities are organised at the Program?

Teachers indicated the following out-of-class activities: outings; student's involvement in social activities; sport competitions; showing Georgian films; reading Georgian literature. 3 teachers did not answer this question.

It can clearly be seen that the teachers were able to provide only a limited list of activities. As well as this, they did not reveal enough readiness to offer students a variety of out-of-class activities to raise their competence of the second language.

Do you offer any other format of relationship with students, besides lectures and seminars (e.g, outings, literary evenings, performances, etc.) ?

All the teachers indicated that they maintain social contacts with their students.

Is there any academic or social support at the programme?

Most teachers stated that the Youth Centre helps the students with academic issues. Supposedly, the teachers who have answered negatively (or did not answer at all) work at the Medical or Technical University as such centres function only in Tbilisi State University and Ilya University. It is also advisable to share knowledge and experience in this direction.

What is the most difficult challenge students face during the period of learning at the Programme?

The majority of the teachers (23) underlined grammar errors during writing as well as oral practice. Several teachers singled out the issue of perception of specific texts. 2 teachers did not refer to specific issues but indicated that students were very motivated.

What do you think needs to be emphasised at the Program in order to improve standards of teaching Georgian as a second language?

17 teachers answered this question by indicating the importance of the integrated teaching in the process of the students of the ethnic groups establishing contacts with their Georgian friends. 10 teachers believe that more varied learning resources (audio-video materials, dictionaries, literature) should be provided and the number of extracurricular instructive activities should also increase. 3 teachers left this question unanswered.

What problems can be indicated regarding teaching Georgian? Name typical errors of your students.

Out of 17 teachers 16 stressed the low language competence and, in particular, issues related to grammar, phonetics and spelling. On the other hand, 11 teachers believe that the main challenges such students face is a low level of general knowledge and lack of communication with Georgian friends. 2 teachers did not answer the question.

Indicate the reason for the errors.

22 teachers indicated the following factors: non-Georgian environment and

lack of communication; inadequate secondary education, structural differences between Armenian and Azeri languages on the one hand and the Georgian language on the other; inadequate knowledge of the Georgian language; 6 teachers believed that the main reason for the errors is laziness and lack of motivation from the students. Finally, 2 teachers did not answer the question.

What would you change in the Program?

The majority of the 25 teachers believe that the Georgian language should be taught academically and thoroughly; moreover, these teachers emphasised the necessity of increasing the weekly workload and number of lectures and seminars delivered at the Program. In addition, they believe that the programme should last 2 years (instead of one) and also, one more important issue indicated is the textbooks of the Georgian language which should be based on the levels of the language competence.

In your opinion, should the teacher of Georgian be fluent in the target group's native language?

The answers to this question were divided evenly: 15 teachers answered the question positively, whereas 15 teachers were negative regarding the issue. There is no doubt that knowledge of the target language will be very useful for the successful teaching process, especially at the beginner stage. However, much depends on the ways the knowledge is activated at the lessons. Obviously, part of the teachers is still orientated on the methodology frequently pursued several years ago at the lessons of the Georgian language for non-Georgian speakers, which meant word-for-word translation of the Georgian texts into the target language for better understanding as well as conducting the lesson in the target group language, which, by all means, decreased the effectiveness of the lesson.

4. Problems in Teaching English to Azeri and Armenian speaking students

As mentioned above, the second part of the research dealt with identification of the

initial English language competence of the language minority students (mostly Azeri and Armenian speaking students) at the Bachelor's level, and stating the reasons for existing problems in teaching English. The analysis of the research findings would enable us to elaborate recommendations for both general education schools, as well as higher educational institutions, and in total, for the Ministry of Education.

For research methodology in this case, as well as in case of research conducted in teaching the State Language (Georgian), we used the survey of Azeri and Armenian speaking BA students of English Philology by means of a structured questionnaire. 42 BA Students of English Philology at the Faculty of Humanities, Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, participated in the research. Also, the interview was conducted with 4 professors of English Philology who teach English to these students. Due to the small number of teachers who had language minority students in their groups, we decided to conduct interviews instead of a survey in order to get more valid results.

As a research tool in the case of the student survey, we used a questionnaire consisting of 5 closed and 5 open questions. The questions were about the degree of teaching the English language, evaluation of students' own language competence and skills, their problems in learning English, as well as suggestions for the improvement of English language teaching programs. The survey was anonymous. According to the format, 10-15 minutes was needed to fill in the questionnaire.

The interview with the English philology professors consisted of 9 questions, including 2 open and 7 closed questions.

The questions were grouped into three categories:

1. The English language competence of non-Georgian speaking students when entering the university, and typical language errors revealed later in the process of studying, the reasons of these errors and the methods used to eliminate them

2. Teachers' relationship with non-Georgian speaking students apart from their classes, and relationship of Georgian and non-Georgian speaking students at the

University, as seen from the teachers' perspective.

3. How the teachers help non-Georgian speaking students to integrate successfully in the university community

Selection of the research participants was conducted randomly for the student survey. As for selecting samples for the interview, the teachers who had many Azeri and Armenian speaking students in groups were selected.

4. 1 Results of the survey of Azeri and Arenian speaking students learning at the BA Program of English Philology at TSU

The questions of the questionnaire were grouped into 4 thematic aspects: (a) Self-assesemnt of the knowledge of the English language at the moment of enrolment; (b) Reasons for low competence in the English language; (c) Teachers' qualifications and professional development and their role in solving the problems; (d) ways of solving the issues .

The ultimate goal of this part of the research was to explore and analyse crucial aspects regarding non-Georgian speaking students on the BA Program of English

Philology , TSU and the ways of overcoming them . Below there are the results obtained in each direction regarding the current situation, faults of the programme, progress and future, further development plans.

(a) Self-assesemnt of the of the knowledge of the English language at the moment of enrolment;

How would you assess your knowledge of English at the moment of enrolling on the BA Program?

26 Students indicated that their competence in English was equal to the Intermediate level, 14 students stated that their command of the English language was poor whereas only 2 students thought that their command of the English language was good.

What do you think is the reason for the fact that after having finished 12 gradees at school your command of the English language does not meet the required standards?

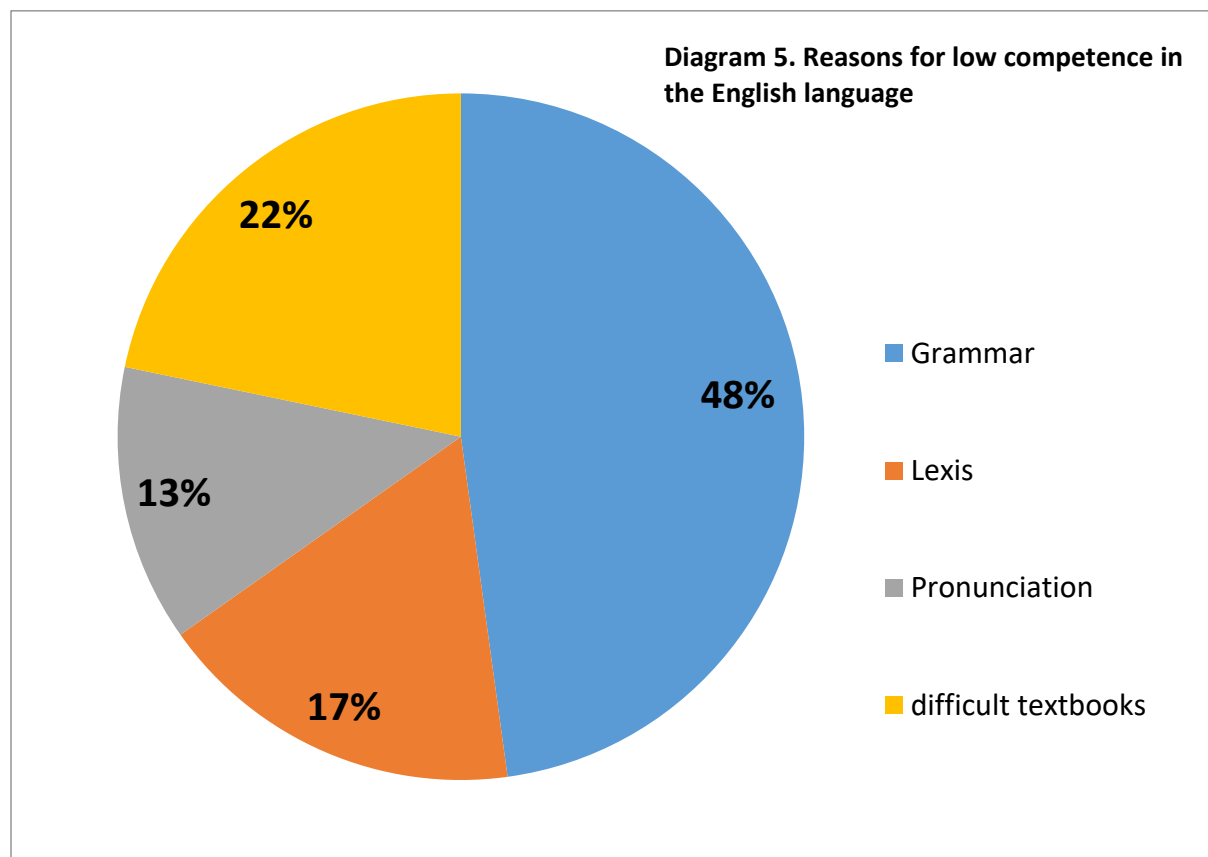
The answers to this questions included various reasons, such as a) low quality of

textbooks (5 students); b) low qualification of the English teachers (17 students); inadequate National plan (10 students) and other reasons (5 students)

(b) Reasons for low competence in the English language and how to overcome them?

What was the greatest challenge when learning English?

While answering this question, the students singled out the following issues: a) Grammar (22 students); b) Lexis (8 students); c) Pronunciation (6 students); difficult textbooks (10 students); Students also specified the following reasons: lack of grammar and listening exercises, low level of English at the moment of enrolling on the BA program, etc. (see the diagram N).



How do you overcome the above mentioned challenges?

The answers to this questions revealed that students a) take private lessons (9 students); b) rely on the help from groupmates (5 students); c) do not cope with the problem at all (6 students); d) work individually, employ the internet and additional materials in English.

c) The teachers' qualifications

The goal of this block was to analyse the attitude of the teacher towards their students, which is one of the most important components of the learning process.

How would you assess the competence of your English teacher at school?

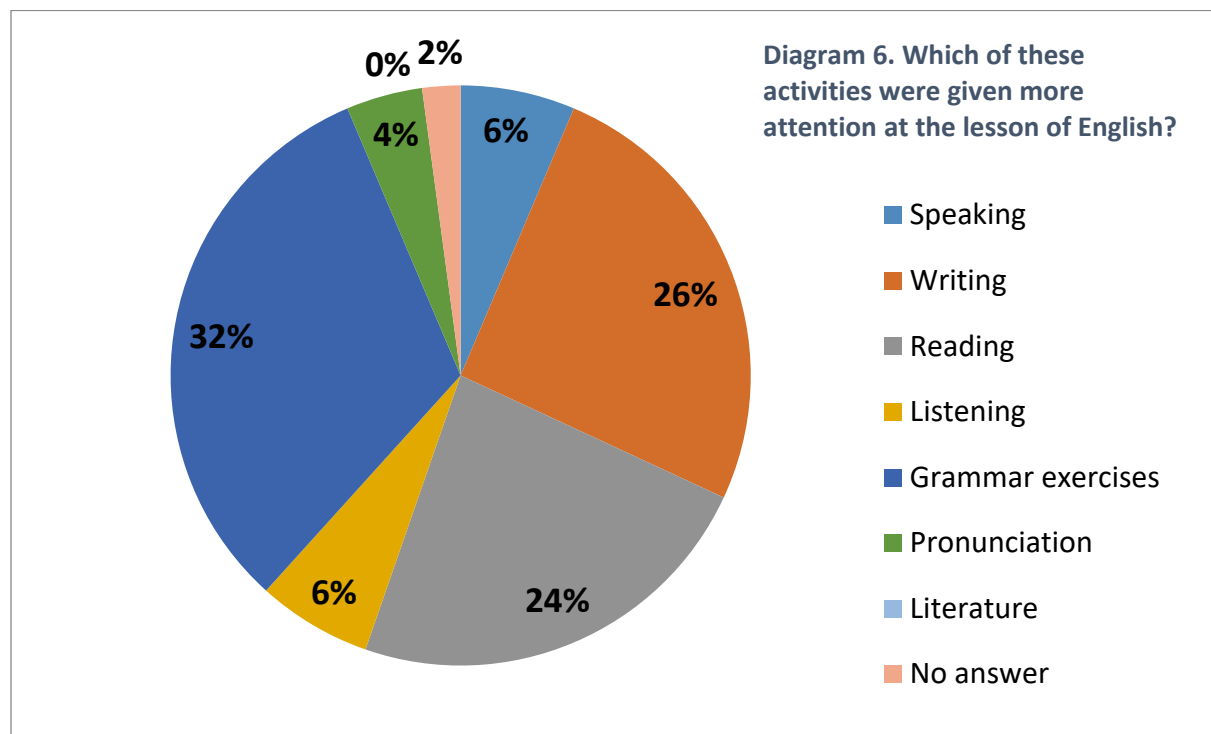
Unlike the assessment of the Georgian language teachers, in this section the students were more realistic and indicated

that (a) they liked the teacher very much (7 students); (b) the teacher was mediocre (18 students); the teacher was weak (5 students). As well as this, the following reasons were indicated in the section of "Other": the teacher was irresponsible and non-professional.

Which of these activities were given more attention at the lesson of English?

- a) Speaking - 3 students;
- b) Writing - 12 students ;
- c) Reading- 11 students;
- d) Listening- 3 students;
- e) Grammar exercises- 15 students;
- f) Pronunciation - 2 students;
- g) Literature –was not mentioned by students;
- h) The majority of the students indicated the understanding of the text.

One student did not answer the question.



The questions “Do lecturers and teachers take into consideration the competence of the students in English” and “What is being done in this respect to overcome/neutralize the issues” were answered positively by 30 students, whereas 2 students indicated no assistance in this respect and 4 students did not answer the question at all.

(d) Future means of solving the issues. What would you change in this respect?

10 students indicated that they would not change anything;

14 students did not answer the question at all whereas other students indicated the following issues they had: a) lessons are very difficult; b) too much for the weekly workload; c) it would be better to make special groups with Azeri and Armenian students and elaborate special programmes for them.

Do you think it is necessary to introduce a course of practical English language into the Program?

The majority of the students (25) answered this question positively whereas

6 indicated that they did not think this was necessary. 6 students did not answer the question at all.

Those students who indicated the importance of introducing the course in English into the Program argued their answer in the following way: a) English is not taught well at schools and it is also important to learn it at the Program; b) English is an international language; c) it is very difficult for the first year students to be successful without English.

Is it necessary to introduce an additional institution for academic or social support at the level of BA programs?

This question was answered positively by 20 students; negatively by 1 student and 15 students did not provide any answers at all.

As it can be seen, the analysis of the questionnaire singled out a range of issues which have to be overcome by cooperation of various institutions.

4.2. Analysis of the interview with the professors of English Philology

As mentioned above, within the research the interview was conducted with 4 professors of English philology who teach English to Azeri and Armenian students. The interview was conducted in three directions:

1. The English language competence of non-Georgian students when entering the university, and typical language errors revealed later in the process of studying, the reasons of these errors and the methods used to eliminate them.

The analysis of the interview revealed that on average language minority students (mostly Azeri and Armenian) enter the university with the English language competence at A1-A2 level, which is a rather poor indicator.

As for the typical errors of the students, according to the respondents the biggest problem is mispronunciation, speaking, questions and answers. Because of the scarce/poor vocabulary it is difficult for students to understand and acquire material

(they cannot understand the simplest texts without additional help), translation, reading for gist and rendering the content. Alongside the phonetic and lexical errors the make grammar mistakes as well, including such typical errors as tenses, passive voice, plural of nouns, subject-verb concordance and word order.

It should be noted that the students' survey showed the similar results – in particular, students also mention grammar, lexis and pronunciation as the main problems in learning English.

Among the reasons causing these errors the respondent professors consider mainly the low level of teaching Georgian and English languages at school, which in its turn results in the fact that non-Georgian students do not possess relevant knowledge and skills, the minimal language competence to study different aspects of English at the English philology department. The interviewed professors admit that the students do their best, though they encounter difficulties in

learning because of the lack of the basic knowledge.

The responses of the majority of the surveyed students to this question coincided with the teachers' responses as well, though a relatively large number of students consider that poor textbooks are the reason causing these errors.

To correct these errors the respondents apply various methods and techniques. For instance, students are given individually detailed explanations and/or additional activities to solve the problem; working in groups based on repetition/drills, correcting mistakes, translating (which they often find difficult due to the insufficient knowledge of Georgian), discussing the mistakes in general with relevant examples, and doing the activities again. With these approaches the teachers try to assist the students in reading-translating, speaking, understanding the content and developing writing skills.

2. Teachers' relationship with non-Georgian students apart from their classes, and relationship of Georgian and non-

Georgian students at the University, as seen from the teachers' perspective.

According to the 3 interviewees' responses, they do not have any relationships with non-Georgian students apart from their classes, though if necessary, they have consultations for them. One respondent admitted that she has additional classes if needed, and has individual consultations after classes as well.

As for the students' relationship in the group, 3 respondents think that Azeri and Armenian students have difficulties in integrating with the Georgian students, especially during the 1st-2nd years of study. They consider that the reason of this is the poor knowledge of the Georgian, as the language of communication. Only 1 teacher thinks that Azeri and Armenian students do not have difficulties in integrating with the group. This different response in our opinion, is due to the fact that she teaches 3rd-4th year students, and most probably, at this stage the students more or less have the problem of integration solved.

3. How the teachers help non-Georgian students to integrate successfully in the university community.

Responses to this question were of rather general character, such as trying to raise motivation of students to learn English (e.g. by using authentic materials), advising to raise the level of general education and learn Georgian. One of the respondents considers the appropriateness of helping students taking into account specific characteristics of the student (native language, age, ethnic origin and other aspects).

In order to integrate non-Georgian language students successfully in the university community according to the respondents, more time should be allocated to learning both Georgian and English at school, before entering higher education institutions.

In this respect we would like to point out one professor's response, as she addresses this issue in a complex way and gives some recommendations on how to solve this problem. Namely, she thinks it

will be beneficial if within the preparatory program non-Georgian students will be offered to learn English along with Georgian, in particular for those students, who desire to continue studying at the English philology department. She thinks differentiated programs for the lower level (A1-A2) students and give them more class hours, so that they should be able to complete the required program. She speaks about the necessity of coordinated work of teachers with non-Georgian language speaking students to identify common problems and try to solve those by sharing good practices.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the results of the present study of the improvement of learning and teaching Georgian and English to Azeri and Armenian speaking students, the following conclusions were drawn and several important recommendations were offered:

1. In different universities the preparation programs in the Georgian language are designed differently – there is

no common standard. It is necessary for the Ministry of Education to determine officially the levels of Georgian language knowledge (according to the Common European Framework for Languages) and standardize the outcomes for the 1 year preparation programs in Georgian language.

2. It is necessary to develop strategies, methods and materials for teaching English to non-Georgian speaking students, taking into consideration the specific features of their native language.

3. It has been noted that the teachers of Georgian as the second language lack the necessary qualifications: most of them are not aware of the newest methods and strategies. Therefore, it is necessary to arrange training for the teachers of Georgian at schools and at higher education institutions both at the ministry and the university levels.

4. It is necessary to create guidelines for the multilingual teachers, which will help them to use contemporary methods and strategies in teaching. A special group of

acting teachers and professors/researchers should be established to work on this Guidebook.

5. It is important to develop and modernize teacher professional development programs (strategies and methodology for teaching a second language) at the university level, in teacher education programs.

6. It is necessary to make the “universal courses” more diverse and to cater for the students’ needs: to implement different modules (at least 3) for different language levels (low, intermediate, high); the length of study to be determined according to the pre-test points to cover the appropriate module – by 4, 3 and 2 semesters for low, intermediate and high level students respectively.

7. It is desirable to create multilingual textbooks (English-Georgian-Armenian/Azeri languages) for school pupils and university students for different language levels.

8. It is necessary to diversify and enrich teaching resources with different themes

and contents and with approaches aimed at developing social skills.

9. It is necessary to create academic support centers at the Faculty to provide cognitive and academic support in learning Georgian to not only for non-Georgian speaking students who are citizens of Georgia, but also for foreign students, who study the Georgian programs.

10. It is important as well that academic support centers to coordinate the work of the English language teachers who have non-Georgian speaking students in their groups. These centers will host regular meetings of students and teachers, where they will share their suggestions, approaches and good practices.

11. To implement individual and group consultations within the preparatory program.

12. It is desirable to offer English language courses within the preparatory program, in particular for the students, who intend to continue their studies at the English Philology department.

13. Half of the students and the majority of professors think it is necessary to combine Azeri and Armenian speaking students, as they will have to communicate in Georgian or English, which will help them in learning both languages.

14. Solving language problems of non-Georgian speaking students is only one step to integrate them fully into the society. It is necessary that teachers promote joint out-of-class activities with students.

15. It is important to implement technology in the learning/teaching process

– to provide full and equal access to the existing and newly designed electronic resources.

16. It is important to unite separate programs for different ethnic minority students and to implement a common “Program in the Georgian language”. It will enable grouping Armenian, Azeri, Ossetian and Abkhazian students together. This will promote the process of integration of these students in the Georgian environment, as well as enhance intercultural education.

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